Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators

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Abstract

This thesis explores the role of humanitarian education in the development of the students’ sense of global responsibility and the potential impact it has on year 9 students. This interdisciplinary analysis bridges the humanitarian and educational fields to explore the student experience in English secondary schools. Two instrumental case studies, Schools Linking Network – Model United Nations and the Youth Philanthropy Initiative, act as a comparative focal point for the research to understand how these were integrated into student learning and ultimately how students empathised with the subject. Methods for data collection included: document analysis, observations, interviews with students/teachers/organisations and student focus groups.

The analytical framework explores the academic and the empathetic effects of humanitarian topics on participants. It was found that humanitarian topics may be academically available to students depending on their teacher, class and whether strict curriculum time constraints allowed. A discussion is included regarding how students and teachers define humanitarianism, giving an insight into the student voice reflecting these topics. A spectrum of engagement explores the responses from students, ranging from sympathetic to empathetic. The main themes which arise from this research include: the elements of disengagement; student ownership; relatability of topics; and the locality of the topics discussed. The final discussion looks at the lasting empathetic influence of specific humanitarian topics, through how they resonate with students.

Findings of this research stress the need for greater involvement with students regarding complex issues and humanitarian topics. Students are interacting with humanitarian issues every day; from a passive acknowledgement of ‘the other’ to an active engagement with charitable initiatives. They want to learn about these issues and believe schools should be teaching it. External influences from governmental policy and the role of NGOs can shape the extent to which students have access to humanitarian knowledge. The implications of this research would fundamentally transform the path of the learning experience of the student and enable educators and humanitarian organisations to better engage students on these vital issues.
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Declaration

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Acknowledgements

This thesis is dedicated to my mom, my husband Alasdair and my family.

Over the course of this journey the greatest lesson that I have learned is that life goes on even while you are in the pursuit of your dreams. The completion of this thesis came down to my determination, the support of my wonderful husband and family and ultimately the fear of regret had I not seen this through to completion.

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Finally, the cooperation of the schools, SLN-MUN, YPI, the NGOs and all the individuals who took part in this research. I have constantly been amazed at your willingness to participate and I was honoured to bear witness to your moments of humanitarian learning...thank you!

About the Author

This PhD was the combination of my experience as a secondary school History, Modern Studies and Geography teacher (Master of Science in Education-Secondary Social Studies) in the United States, Scotland, and England as well as my Master of Arts in Humanitarianism and Conflict Response (MA-HCRI). My undergraduate Bachelor of Arts degree was in history with a minor in sociology and an interest in psychology. Teaching in a variety of settings spurred me to explore how students engaged with humanitarian topics which is when I pursued the HCRI MA.

During this thesis, my mom passed away, I’ve moved to a new house...twice...and gave birth to three beautiful children all while supported by my hero of a husband and my ever-constant companion-River my border collie.
Introduction

Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators explores how secondary school students, specifically the year 9 age group, engage with humanitarian education and ultimately how it affects them. This research and dissertation reflect my desire to improve the student experience when learning about humanitarian topics. Therefore, the readership for this work includes educators in the classroom and those who work for organisations that would like to improve their outreach to secondary school students.

The motivation for this research took shape initially while I was teaching in 2009 at a boarding school in Scotland and was reaffirmed when I moved south of the border to England. While teaching in schools throughout the United Kingdom, I would observe students often participating in charitable fundraisers, such as Children in Need, and would subsequently be asked by students to contribute financially. When I questioned students about the motivations for the fundraiser or the intended target population, students often responded with vague assertions regarding “the children”. At the time, they did not have the understanding to discuss what this money did beyond the snapshot stories that the BBC highlighted. It occurred to me at this point that the “humanitarian” message was being lost in many of these charitable fundraising events. This sparked my desire to understand what students were learning about with regards to humanitarian topics and potentially how this affects them.

When I started my PhD, I conducted a short scoping study in the spring of 2012 at five secondary schools in Greater Manchester to gain a better understanding of how humanitarianism was being explored. This allowed me an opportunity, as a trained secondary school teacher, to explore the resources that teachers were using, any programmes they were incorporating and the terminology surrounding their engagement with humanitarian topics. This scoping study introduced me to the two case studies that would be used during this research and laid the foundation for the document research on the humanitarian resources.
I define humanitarian education in chapter 1, and charity is defined as the donation of money or services for an organisation to help those in need (Oxford, 2016). Charities and charitable initiatives—including BBC Red Nose Day, Comic Relief, Children in Need and Médecins Sans Frontières—are viewed as humanitarian in nature; however, they neglect their role in educating the individuals who help them in their pursuit of funds or resources. This differs from humanitarian education as significance is placed on the student as an active participant in an exchange with the organisation or humanitarian cause.

The overall research aim was to: explore the role of humanitarian education in the development of the students’ sense of global citizenship and responsibility. This dissertation explores what is humanitarian education in the classroom and looks specifically at the ‘moments of humanitarian learning’ for these students. The guiding research questions are:

- How do students engage with key topics in humanitarianism?
- How does this impact the students’ sense of the world?

This research discusses the contributions being made by schools and organisations in supporting and expanding knowledge of humanitarian topics in England. It was framed using two case studies, the Youth Philanthropy Initiative (YPI) and the Schools Linking Network’s Model United Nations (SLN-MUN). Three areas in England were used: Greater Manchester, London and one of the Home Counties. The scope will be discussed in greater detail in chapter 3. The decision was made to focus on the educational system in England for several reasons. These included an ease of access to participant schools and to provide consistency in the form of the curriculum. As I was based at the University of Manchester I had connections to surrounding schools through my teaching experience and one of my supervisors had extensive educational networks. The year 9 age group was chosen primarily due to the lack of state exams, such as GCSEs or A-levels, that students are expected to take in other years. I did not want to burden teachers with my presence, that of an outside

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1 To ensure confidentiality of student participants the wider geographic location of Greater Manchester, London and one of the Home Counties was used in lieu of the name of the counties. More specific information would have allowed for the identification of the schools and potentially the teachers/students.
observer, when they were trying to focus on preparing for exams which is inherently stressful in their field.

This dissertation begins by examining the concept of humanitarian education in Part 1. This section contains four chapters which aim to give a greater understanding of what humanitarianism in the classroom is and how this research went about exploring it. The first chapter constructs a working definition of humanitarian education while the second discusses the dominant use of the student voice in understanding how students interact with these topics. The methodology for exploring the student perspective, conducting this research and the ethical considerations are the focus of chapter 3. Chapter 4 concludes the first section of this thesis by providing an in-depth analysis into the two instrumental case studies: first looking at the Local to Global perspective of the Youth Philanthropy Initiative, while then detailing the Global to Local aspect of the Schools Linking Network's Model United Nations. A more in-depth analysis of both organisations and their projects is provided throughout this chapter.

Part 2 is a review of external factors that contribute to the creation of humanitarianism in the classroom. Chapter 5 explores how humanitarian organisations currently engage with students in the classroom. Chapter 6 discusses the changing face of the national curriculum due to its political nature. The conclusion of Part 2 examines where the politicians and humanitarians meet in the classroom.

Part 3 of this dissertation discusses the students’ perspectives of humanitarian education looking specifically at the moments of humanitarian learning. It explores how students are engaging with humanitarian issues academically in chapter 7 and empathetically in chapter 8. The penultimate chapter considers how humanitarian education resonates with students and shapes their sense of the world.

The conclusion to this thesis then follows and adds further discussions on key findings.
This thesis explores the role of education in the development of the students’ sense of humanitarianism in English secondary schools through their moments of empathetic learning. Conducting and writing this research has been a journey which has lasted several years and has witnessed the evolving state of education in a globalised society. *The Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators* has endeavoured to capture and explore the experiences of students to understand how they may be better enabled to critically understand humanitarianism.
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Part 1: Deconstructing humanitarian education

Part 1 endeavours to enable the reader to understand what is meant by humanitarian education and how the moments of humanitarian learning were explored as well as the unique organisations which are at the forefront of this research. “Deconstructing humanitarian education” is the personal exploration of this research in the closest context to myself as a researcher. It explores my understanding of humanitarianism in the classroom, motivations for the direction of the research, ethical considerations that directed the research and the case studies that I chose to get to know in greater detail.

Deconstructing humanitarian education contains four chapters which aim to introduce the reader to this research. The first chapter identifies what humanitarian education is. It ascertains what humanitarianism is in the classroom through discussing who are humanitarians and why there is a need for the term ‘humanitarian education’ to define this approach. The second chapter discusses the students’ perspective in exploring this research, specifically the use of the student voice. This chapter looks at the rise of the student voice as it is known today and the debate surrounding its use. In the final portion of chapter two, the considerations of using the student voice in this research are briefly explored. The third chapter, Methods for exploring the student perspective – the Instrumental Multicase Analysis, discusses the methodology used for this research and the extensive ethical concerns when working with students. The final chapter thoroughly explores the two cases which are central to this research. Each organisation is considered individually and then a comparative analysis is made in the conclusion.
Chapter 1: What is humanitarianism in the classroom?

This chapter takes a perspective of exploring humanitarianism in the classroom through a combined set of lenses and personal experiences. The first section of this chapter explores the humanitarian perspective regarding who are humanitarians, what are their roles, the spaces in which they operate, their cooperation with other groups and the fundamental humanitarian principles. The second section uses my professional educational background to contend that humanitarianism has a significant role to play in the classroom. It manifests in the classroom through a variety of programmes and within this section I explore the teaching of the *global dimension* ultimately justifying the necessity of creating the term “humanitarian education” for this research. Significantly, these discussions and this chapter shape how humanitarians and humanitarian education are defined as well as the guiding humanitarian principles used throughout this research.

What is humanitarianism?

Humanitarianism is a fluid concept and has been contentiously defined by academics and practitioners. As Peterson states, “simply defining humanitarian action in and of itself can seem an insurmountable feat, with any attempt to do so generally resulting in a range of critiques and debates about what is or is not a *true* humanitarian act” (2015: 2). Academics, practitioners, politicians, and the military all work towards defining who humanitarians are, justify their motives or be seen as having humanitarian motivations (Bristol, 2006; Heinze, 2005; Slim, 1997). The origins of this sentiment are entwined with humanity, it is the “instinct to help another in distress” or the eighteenth-century concept of irresistible compassion (Kapila, 2015: 180; Fiering, 1976). Humanitarian motivations are sometimes at odds with the outcomes that they are able to provide. Depending on who the humanitarian actor may be, their motivations are also questioned, i.e. military or political interests (Peterson, 2015). The present debate surrounding the semantics of defining humanitarianism continues amongst academics and practitioners (Hilhorst & Jansen, 2010; Peterson, 2015; Spearin, 2001; Stoddard, 2003). This section will first take a
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brief look at the origins of present-day humanitarianism focusing primarily on shifts in professionalism and the widening scope within the humanitarian field. Humanitarians have a growing responsibility to recipients, stakeholders, politicians and the wider public, some of whom I argue are secondary school students.

The origin of present-day humanitarianism was birthed on the battlefield of Solferino in 1859 by Henry Dunant, the founder of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) (Forsythe, 2005). Driven by a desire to help the wounded and forgotten soldiers he wrote A Memory of Solferino (1862) and went on to create “societies of trained volunteers for the purpose of helping to care for wounded combatants in time of war” (Dunant, 1959: 9). He campaigned for the protection of wounded soldiers and the First Geneva Convention of 1864 began the “codification of international humanitarian law” (Kapila, 2015: 180). Since its inception, the ICRC is based on the Geneva Conventions and their subsequent protocols, it is an:

“independent, neutral organization ensuring humanitarian protection and assistance for victims of armed conflict and other situations of violence. It takes action in response to emergencies and at the same time promotes respect for international humanitarian law and its implementation in national law” (ICRC, 2015).

The role of humanitarians—and the fundamental beliefs of humanity, impartiality, independence and neutrality—has evolved since its inception on the battlefield (Chandler, 2006: 27). These core principles have also shaped the organisations interactions with third parties, such as politicians, governments, and the public.

The fundamental principles of the ICRC were formalised by Pictet in 1979. The seven principles are: humanity, impartiality, neutrality, independence, voluntary service, unity and universality (Pictet, 1979). Four of those—humanity, impartiality, neutrality, and independence—were adopted by the wider humanitarian sector through the NGO Code of Conduct and “formally enshrined in two General Assembly resolutions” (OCHA, 2012: 1). These principles are seen as fundamental to humanitarian engagement (Barnett, 2005; Slim, 1997; Stroup, 2012; Terry, 2002) They are an “ethical framework” and they are “a precondition for building and maintaining trust with public authorities and thereby securing access to disaster- or conflict-affected people…Respect for the Principles is central to the safety of staff and volunteers and their acceptance in the communities in which they are working” (Beeckman, 2016: 264). The four core principles included in the
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NGO Code of Conduct, will be the primary focus when discussing humanitarian principles as they were adopted by over 600 humanitarian organisations (IFRC, 2017). These four core principles are defined as:

“Humanity: ‘Endeavours, in its international and national capacity, to prevent and alleviate human suffering wherever it may be found. Its purpose is to protect life and health and to ensure respect for the human being. It promotes mutual understanding, friendship, cooperation and lasting peace amongst all peoples’.

Impartiality: ‘It makes no discrimination as to nationality, race, religious beliefs, class or political opinions. It endeavours to relieve the suffering of individuals, being guided solely by their needs, and to give priority to the most urgent cases of distress’.

Neutrality: ‘In order to continue to enjoy the confidence of all, the Movement may not take sides in hostilities or engage at any time in controversies of a political, racial, religious or ideological nature’.

Independence: ‘The Movement is independent. The National Societies, while auxiliaries in the humanitarian services of their governments and subject to the laws of their respective countries, must always maintain their autonomy so that they may be able at all times to act in accordance with the principles of the Movement’” (IFRC, 2018).

In the following section, Humanitarian Education, these core humanitarian principles will be discussed in greater detail using the 747 framework (“Seven Skills for Seven Principles”) in order to understand their ‘tangible components’ (Beeckman, 2016: 264). This framework has been used in this research as a foundation to understand how these principles could be operationalised educationally and connections to this framework are referenced in Part 3 of this thesis and the conclusion with regards to incorporating humanitarian principles.

There have been several historical trends and influences which helped to shape the present representation of humanitarianism. The core ICRC principles remain held by the organisation, however, there are also countless other humanitarian organisations vying for space to aid those who are in need. Humanitarian motivations were in place prior to the Battle of Solferino and have taken several forms since the ICRC’s inception. However, these were the pillars that became synonymous with humanitarians. There is a rich history of humanitarian engagement since the Geneva Convention in 1864, however, to understand the current climate of humanitarianism—and the drive to be autonomous—the most recent history will be discussed.
As Barnett argues, post-Cold War humanitarianism 1990s to present has seen the role of humanitarians transformed. This transformation has seen the field of humanitarianism politicised and institutionalised (Barnett, 2005). The 1990s saw humanitarians attempting to work with political factions to eliminate the “root causes of conflict that place individuals at risk”, it was at this point that “humanitarian agencies and states began to share agendas” (Barnett, 2005: 724). Humanitarian organisations could receive financial support and resources from political allies, however it may come at the cost of their principles and core humanitarian values (Barnett, 2005). As Barnett and Weiss argue, “the debate is not about whether to participate in the market but to what extent” (2011: 93).

The 1990s also saw another increase in the number of organisations that considered themselves to be humanitarian in nature. With the influx of organisations there needed to be communication between organisations and the standardisation of processes to be accountable to donors and recipients. It was at this point that sub-specialities in humanitarianism were created and doctrines created for organisations to follow (Barnett, 2005). Accountability for humanitarians was not new and is deeply rooted in humanitarian history (Roddy et al., 2015a). Roddy, Strange and Taithe discuss the systems of accountability during the late Victorian and Edwardian eras, stating: “this scrutiny was a by-product of charities’ own insistence on visible accountability to stave off potential suspicion, rather than of rising suspicion” (Roddy et al., 2015: 192; Roddy et al., 2015b).

With the expanding field of humanitarianism there was an increase in the professionalism as well as a desire to define the space within which humanitarians operated. The blurring of lines between political motivations and those who are delivering humanitarian aid, such as the military, has the potential to jeopardise the humanitarian motivations within the field. Humanitarian space is defined by Spearin as “an environment where humanitarians can work without hindrance and follow the humanitarian principles of neutrality, impartiality and humanity” (2001: 22). The humanitarian space includes both “physical and metaphorical dimensions” where humanitarian agents need to deliver their services according to the principles they uphold (Hilhorst & Jansen, 2010). The blurring of these lines and the invasion of the humanitarian space has seen an increase in violence against aid workers in recent years (Stoddard, 2012). This loss of independent and safe humanitarian space has been attributed to
attacks on aid workers. And the militarization of aid has seen increased advocacy for maintaining the boundaries between these different actors. However, returning to Barnett and Weiss’ argument, organisations are participating in a competitive field for resources which are ultimately tied to political interests or they need the military to gain access and provide provisions for a wider sector of the effected population (2011). The recent history of humanitarians has seen a need for the professionalisation, institutionalisation and recognition of the humanitarian space as it is being impeded upon by political and military interests. At the core of the humanitarian space debate is the desire for organisations to be autonomous however there is a growing need to develop a positive relationship with politicians and the public.

Politically driven humanitarian outcomes and a further professionalization of the roles of humanitarians has led to humanitarian motives being embedded into the culture of English society. This is demonstrated through the many public appeals for funding during humanitarian global crises, introducing a relationship with the public as stakeholders. As stated at the start of this section, there is an ever-increasing responsibility on the part of humanitarians to define their roles and responsibilities to be accountable to their stakeholders and recipients. However, the extension of the humanitarian culture into English society also increases the accountability remit these actors face to include the general public. When requesting support from the public for their humanitarian relief efforts they become dependent on receiving resources without necessarily being held responsible to this group. One of the ways that humanitarian agencies can reciprocate their role in fostering an increasing culture of humanitarianism is to educate the public, specifically through educating primary and secondary school students. Educating students’ may lead to humanitarian motivations being embedded into the next generation of donors and humanitarians. Understanding the motivations and outcomes of humanitarian organisations may help the general public to engage with this field through informed consent as opposed to blind goodwill.

The current climate of defining the humanitarian space has taken a prominent role in academic debates and contributes to the complexity of defining who humanitarians are and what they do. It has also highlighted the need to use a simplified definition of
humanitarian so that secondary school students are able to comprehend it almost immediately. There is a section of chapter 7, entitled “Humanitarianism defined by students and teachers”, which explores how they interpreted the term humanitarianism. Several times during my scoping study and research I was met with blank stares when this question was posed. Therefore, a basic definition was needed to limit the bias that I transferred to their own interpretations of the term and underlying field. The most rudimentary definition that worked with students was that humanitarianism is the promotion of humanity and human welfare. I am aware that this may not be well-received within the humanitarian field. However, it was necessary to allow secondary school students the opportunity to engage and familiarize themselves with the humanitarian space, as they may already be participating with or contributing to this space without realising.

English primary and secondary school students do, and are encouraged to, engage with what they believe are charitable events or causes which are seen as humanitarian in nature. For example, every year you see the BBC promote their own charitable causes encouraging kids and adults to: “be a hero” and help Pudsey the Bear, “do something funny for money” during Comic Relief, or “walk, run, swim or cycle yourself proud” for Sport Relief (BBCa, 2015; BBCb, 2015; BBCc, 2015). The public turns out and widely supports these events and a number of these campaigns are specifically aimed at children to participate with. For example, between 2012 and 2014, Children in Need raised £43.3 and £49.7 million, Sport Relief raised £53.3 million and Comic Relief raised over £103.3 million, a total of over £249.4 million during a two-year period (BBC Children in Need, 2014: 5; BBC Annual Report, 2014; Comic Relief, 2013: 3). This is a significant amount of money and only demonstrates the efforts of one organisation. During some Humanitarian Emergencies, like Typhoon Haiyan in the Philippines or the Nepal Earthquake, there are additional fundraising efforts (DEC, 2015). Students, and adults, are exposed to complex humanitarian issues from charities, the media and society and are forced to grapple with the information largely on their own. Their attitudes and motivations of humanitarian crisis are largely influenced by those actors (charities, wider society and the media).
Students, parents, teachers and members from the wider public participated in research studies between 2008 and 2011 regarding the role of Global Education in secondary schools. The results found:

- In 2008, 78% of pupils thought it was important that “schools help pupils to understand what people can do to make the world a better place” (Ipsos MORI, 2008);
- Teachers felt that “learning about global issues as an important aspect of teaching in schools: 94% feel that schools should prepare pupils to deal with a fast-changing and globalised world (Ipsos MORI, 2009);
- Wider society “finds that almost nine in ten (86%) of the British public agree that learning about global issues in school is crucial if these issues are to be tackled in future” (Think Global, 2011);
- The majority of parents of school-age children think it is important that schools teach about global issues such as environmental sustainability (84% of parents) and international poverty (73%) (Think Global, 2011).

Students, parents, teachers and members from the wider public in the above research have demonstrated that they would like students to engage more with topics that would be included under the umbrella of humanitarian education. Furthermore, students are already being asked to contribute to charitable organisations and engage to some degree with humanitarian issues. This needs to be supported and encouraged throughout the academic subjects. This form of education should act symbiotically within and between academic subjects (history, geography, economics, political science, government, sociology, science, mathematics) as well as community and global projects (BBC initiatives, Schools Linking Network Model United Nations, Youth Philanthropy Initiative), to encourage the development of the students' sense of the world, an ethical framework and a sense of social justice. However, this is not always the case.

Young people today live in a world that is globally connected and one that is being exposed to complex humanitarian emergencies daily. Students have access to this information from a very young age through the media as well as conversations they overhear within their families. Unfortunately, the opinions from individuals on social media outlets or family members may represent xenophobic attitudes towards the people caught up in the humanitarian emergencies. For students to only hear or see one side of the story could potentially work towards disengaging them from the
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human aspect of these experiences. Humanitarian education encourages students to engage with complex human topics and come to their own conclusions based on their own interpretations. Teaching humanitarian education in the classroom provides the foundation for students to interact with multifaceted global issues and analytically dissect them while focusing on the human factor of those who are affected (BRC, 2011).

The sphere of stakeholders interacting with humanitarian organisations is expanding and including a younger generation. While organisations target youth for fundraising appeals they should increase their responsibility in educating them about the humanitarian space and motivations. The next section of this chapter goes on to discuss how young people are engaging in this field and specifically ‘Humanitarian Education’ developed by the British Red Cross.

Humanitarian Education

The British Red Cross, one of the most widespread providers of educational resources to secondary schools in England, has a programme specifically designed to teach humanitarian topics, known as Humanitarian Education. Other organisations tend to focus on educating within their specialised remit. Humanitarian Education, as interpreted by the British Red Cross, is how the message of ‘humanitarianism’, the promotion of humanity and human welfare as discussed in the previous section, is being taught to students. The British Red Cross define it as "the set of learning experiences that promote humanitarian principles such as humanity and impartiality" (BRC, 2014). This definition is indicative of the resources that the British Red Cross produces for their approach to Humanitarian Education. I would like to differentiate that throughout this paper, the capital use of Humanitarian Education (BRC) refers to the British Red Cross’ resources while humanitarian education refers to the constructed definition.

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2 To clarify, the British Red Cross is part of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, this movement is “made up of three parts: the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (and) 190 National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies around the world, including the British Red Cross”. The ICRC is an “independent humanitarian organisation, whose role is defined by the Geneva Convention” (BRC, 2018).
The working definition of humanitarian education includes the core principles of promoting humanity and human welfare. However, it may also be political in nature. The British Red Cross (BRC), the International Committee of the Red Cross/Red Crescent (ICRC) and the International Federation of the Red Cross/Red Crescent (IFRC) have seven fundamental principles which they strive to uphold while the wider NGO community has adopted four of these through the NGO Code of Conduct (SCHR, 1994). The ability to remain neutral and impartial is a subject that is debated by academics (Barnett, 2005; Plattner, 1996; Rieff, 2002; Terry, 2011, 2013). The working definition that I have adopted broadens the criteria of what constitutes humanitarian education to encapsulate the rich quality of programmes and resources which are available to discuss the promotion of humanity.

The fundamental humanitarian principles, discussed earlier in this chapter as those which guide organisations and this research to an extent with a humanitarian ethos, have been operationalised by Katrien Beeckman to more effectively be used in schools. The principles of humanitarianism are considered in a way to apply them practically in the classroom, when working with young people and in order to internalise these principles into everyday life. Katrien Beeckman, who was the Head of the Principles and Values Department at the IFRC, operationalised the fundamental principles to that of individual actions to “promote a culture of non-violence and peace” (2016: 263). There are two tools which were created to “make the principles and values come alive” (Beeckman, 2016: 264). The first is the Seven Skills for Seven Principles (747) framework, which unpacks “the high-level Principles into more concrete and tangible components, values and intra- and interpersonal skills” (Beeckman, 2016: 264). The second initiative is the Youth as Agents of Behavioural Change (YABC), which uses “a non-cognitive learning approach, fosters a personal connection towards the Principles and increases participants’ ability to role-model them” by youth peer education (Beeckman, 2016: 264). She describes this as a way of “nurturing the humanitarian values that underpin the Fundamental Principles, such as respect for diversity, equality, dialogue, non-violence, mutual understanding, cooperation and inclusiveness” (2016: 266). YABC is “built on the vision that it is through change from within and ‘walking the talk’ (or role-modelling) that a genuine, effective and sustainable change of mindset and attitude can be
fostered” (2016: 266). YABC is “centred on living the Principles so as to influence behavioural change towards a culture of non-violence and peace within the Movement and the community” (Beeckman, 2016: 271). In order to ‘live the principles’, it is important to understand what that means for individuals and schools.

The framework is shown in figure 1 and lists the 7 Fundamental Principles of the IFRC. These principles are then unpacked in the columns to the right, beginning with the fundamental principle components as seen on an operational level for organisations; moving to the related humanitarian values; and in the last column the personal skills for individuals. This framework is designed to make the theoretical principles more “tangible and personally meaningful to individuals” (Beeckman, 2016: 274). The seven personal skills are: empathy; active listening; critical thinking and non-judgement; nonviolent communication; collaborative negotiation and mediation; personal resilience; and inner peace. The first two of these I discuss in greater detail.

One crucial skill shown is that of active listening, which is described by Beeckman as:

“the embodiment of humanity is active listening, which means giving full attention to the person who is speaking. It is listening to what is being said, as well as to how and why something is being said, to ensure we have a true understanding of its real meaning and of what it means to the speaker. Active listening is also about listening without relying on our own preconceived ideas or biases” (2016: 276).

Active listening is also an integral part in supporting the student voice. Fielding states, “teachers are not just committed to appreciative listening in order to learn from students in joint enquiry but active listening in order to contribute to and support student-led research”, as discussed in chapter 2 (Fielding, 2004: 202).

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3 The Seven Fundamental Principles of the IFRC are: humanity; impartiality; neutrality; independence; voluntary service; unity; and universality (Pictet, 1979). Of these seven four (humanity; impartiality, neutrality; and independence) have been widely adopted by humanitarian organisations through the NGO Code of Conduct (OCHA, 2012).
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Another of the personal skills that stands out most significantly to me is that of empathy. As Beeckman describes the root of empathy in Pictet’s description of charity and compassion, stating:

“Pictet mentions compassion as one of the driving forces of charity, a forerunner of charity, at the essence of humanity. Compassion, he writes, is ‘a spontaneous movement, an instantaneous affective reaction to the sufferings of others’. From this analysis it becomes apparent that a key interpersonal skill to embody humanity and demonstrate compassion is empathy” (2016: 276).

Beeckman discusses the importance of empathy as a key interpersonal skill for students to learn.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fundamental Principles</th>
<th>Related humanitarian values</th>
<th>Personal skills</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Humanity</strong></td>
<td>Active goodwill and care</td>
<td>- Empathy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Human dignity and well-being</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mutual understanding and peace</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Impartiality</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Respect for diversity</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Objectivity and openness</td>
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<td><strong>Neutrality</strong></td>
<td>Confidence (trust)</td>
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<td>Self-control and discipline</td>
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<td>Freedom of action and objectivity</td>
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<td><strong>Independence</strong></td>
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<td>Freedom of action and confidence</td>
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<td><strong>Voluntary service</strong></td>
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<td>Spirit of service</td>
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<td>Spirit of responsibility and discipline</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Unity</strong></td>
<td>Harmony and cohesion</td>
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<td>Diversity and pluralism</td>
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<td>Confidence</td>
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<td><strong>Universality</strong></td>
<td>Openness to all in the world</td>
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<td>Co-operation</td>
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<td>Mutual assistance</td>
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The key personal skills that Beeckman explores are not new to teachers and are already in use in the classroom. The important factor is how Beeckman connects these key skills to the Seven Fundamental Principles. The remainder of this chapter looks at some of the leading approaches to teaching humanitarian topics and how these may incorporate some of the key personal skills that Beeckman discusses, specifically the role of empathy.
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There are a multitude of approaches to teaching humanitarian education if it is considered it to promote humanity/human welfare. These include: human rights education, peace education, citizenship education, the global dimension, development education, global citizenship, teaching controversial issues, PSHE (Personal, Social and Health Education), philanthropy education and humanitarian law to name a few.

Citizenship was included in the National Curriculum in 2002 and is still statutory for key stages 3 and 4 (Citizenship Foundation, 2017). The global dimension is defined as:

“explor(ing) what connects us to the rest of the world. It enables learners to engage with complex global issues and explore the links between their own lives and people, places and issues throughout the world” (QCA, 2007:2).

There are several opportunities to teach humanitarian education in citizenship and it was the conduit to teach the global dimension. This subject provides a conducive environment to explore how humanitarian topics are taught.

The global dimension had been encouraged to be taught across the citizenship curriculum. This has been increasingly important as the space for citizenship in the curriculum expands and contracts in line with current political education agenda, this will be discussed in greater detail under the political nature of the curriculum. Particular focus is given to the global dimension as it is defined to include eight key concepts:

1. Global Citizenship: “Gaining the knowledge, skills and understanding of concepts and institutions necessary to become informed, active, responsible citizens” (DfES & DFID, 2005: 20).
2. Conflict Resolution: “Understanding the nature of conflicts, their impact on development and why there is a need for their resolution and the promotion of harmony” (2005: 20)
3. Diversity: “Understanding and respecting differences and relating these to our common humanity” (2005: 22).
5. Interdependence: “Understanding how people, places, economies and environments are all inextricably interrelated, and that choices and events have repercussions on a global scale” (2005: 22).
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7. Sustainable Development: “Understanding the need to maintain and improve the quality of life now without damaging the planet for future generations” (2005: 21).
8. Values and Perceptions: “Developing a critical evaluation of representations of global issues and an appreciation of the effect these have on people’s attitudes and values” (2005: 21).

These concepts encapsulate several of the approaches and shared motivations of humanitarian education which were stated above.

While some of these are included in the global dimension, I have chosen to use the definition of humanitarian education instead. The term global dimension implies that it focuses on *global* issues. This is not necessarily the case, as the Development Education Association—a national NGO combining the efforts of 200 organisations to increase awareness of development issues globally and in the UK, now known as “Think Global”—states in their guidance to teachers:

“The global dimension to citizenship education is more than learning about other countries. It is a vital part of every aspect of the school curriculum, the life of the school and its teachers and pupils. Global citizenship is more than learning about seemingly complex ‘global issues’...It is also about the global dimension to local issues, which are present in all our lives, localities and communities” (DEA, 2001: 4).

However, during the scoping study for my research several of the teachers I spoke to had not read the guidance on the global dimension nor were familiar with the role it could play in their classroom and/or on a local level. The bias towards the word global had some teachers thinking it was a geography or citizenship issue and therefore did not affect their class. In one school when asked about the global dimension in the school I was referred to a coordinator who dealt with fulfilling that mandate. When I rephrased the question to ask about engaging with humanitarian issues, or charities, I received a more extensive response relating to their own experiences in the classroom. The global dimension is a useful catchphrase in education; however, it can be misinterpreted or subjectively applied within schools. While it has its faults, it does provide a roadmap to guide teachers in their engagement with these topics.
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During my research, teachers were asked to express what they thought humanitarian education meant. Ms. X defined it as “global issues...ensuring students are good citizens, that they are contributing to things, that they have an awareness of things outside of their own city or their own country” (School A, YPI). While a Religious Studies teacher at the same school pointedly reflected that they are “topics that focus on the importance of human beings and how human beings relate to each other, look out for each other, or not, as the case may be” (Ms. Y, School A, YPI). These definitions have the common theme of engaging with their community—how humans relate and help one another or contribute to things. Humanitarian education is defined as how the message of ‘humanitarianism’ or the promotion of humanity and human welfare is being taught to students, including Humanitarian Education and the global dimension.

This raises the question, why is it important for students to engage or empathise with the world around them? Empathy was highlighted as one of the key interpersonal skills that represent humanity and compassion in the Seven Fundamental Principles and by Pictet (Beeckman, 2016). The use of empathy while learning has the potential for students to engage with the material more effectively, as Feshbach and Feshbach discuss: “empathy is an attribute of children that has proven to be highly relevant to the educational process and educational outcomes” (2009: 85). They discuss the potential outcomes of empathy and learning stating, “the scope of functions that empathy in children can mediate include social understanding, emotional competence, prosocial and moral behaviour, compassion and caring, and regulation of aggression and other antisocial behaviors” (Feshbach & Feshbach, 2009: 86).

Empathy can be conveyed in various subjects and educational approaches, including peace education (Sagkal et. al, 2012; Fountain, 1999; Harris & Morrison, 2013) and human rights education (Covell & Howe, 1999; Fountain, 1999). As Harris and Morrison state:

“Peace educators teach caring and empathy, not just a rational understanding of the problems faced by others...Students must experience...the pain of people who suffer in war, and the agony of people repressed by militarism. In this way peace education emphasizes the sacredness of life” (2013: 37).
In this instance, peace education offers another dimension to learning through empathetic engagement.

A study conducted by Sagkal et al into the effectiveness of a peace education programme on sixth grade students’ empathy levels found that the programme “was effective in increasing the empathy levels of students” (Sagkal et. al, 2012: 1458). Empathy levels of students in the peace education experiment group “were significantly greater than that of the students in the control group...These results indicated that peace education program, which was the independent variable of this study, was effective in increasing the empathy skills of students” (Sagkal et. al, 2012: 1458). Covell and Howe look at the potential impact of the children’s rights movement on education in Canada and discuss the connection with empathy stating:

“Through the curriculum the children became aware that children’s rights can be and often are violated in serious ways. Children grow in poverty, children are abused, and children are sexually and economically exploited. The empathy elicited by such knowledge would be expected to impact emerging social concepts (e.g., poverty, discrimination) and act as a stimulus to the development of rights respecting attitudes. As such, children’s rights education in late childhood may serve as a catalyst for attitudes supportive of human rights in general (1999: 182).

Empathetically engaging with a topic, such as through peace or human rights education programmes, can impact the way students learn and the knowledge they gain while studying. While no direct studies have been conducted which discuss humanitarian education and empathy, this will be explored in chapter 8. Peace education and human rights education are similar in content as well as motivations and similarities are drawn with the potential impact of empathy in humanitarian education.

**Conclusion**

Chapter 1 has focused on discussing what is humanitarianism and more specifically what is humanitarian education. It endeavoured to introduce the reader to the humanitarian perspective, the spheres within which it operates and the growing number of stakeholders whose actions influence humanitarian initiatives. It argued
that humanitarians need to take a more active role in engaging with student
stakeholders. This chapter defined humanitarian education as it will be used for this
research and explored the roots of the definition in the British Red Cross’
Humanitarian Education and the Seven Principles framework. Defining humanitarian
education addressed the global bias that the Global Dimension raised with teachers
and allowed them to think of the local and global approaches to humanitarianism.
This chapter also discussed the role of empathy in learning specifically in peace
education and human rights education. This raises an important discussion in Part
Three of how to make global issues feel local to students and the degree to which
they empathised with the subjects they were learning.

Chapter 2 will explore why I chose to look at this research largely through the
student’s perspective, specifically recognising the role of the student voice in this
research and the potential impact learning about humanitarian education may have.
Chapter 2: The student perspective

For this research, it was imperative to have the student perspective play a key role in discussing moments of learning. This chapter is divided into four sections. It first discusses what is the ‘student voice’, one of the key educational catch-phrases in both research and reform which is surrounded with debate and includes the rise of the current trend towards recognizing the significance of student voice. The second section looks at the academic discussions surrounding the anticipated outcomes of using the student voice. The third section discusses the many challenges to incorporating it both in theory and practice. The final section discusses how it was utilised within this research.

Student voice

Prior to embarking on this research, I was aware that I wanted to include the student perspective, specifically using their voice and experience, to better understand how they are learning about humanitarian education. It was only once I was on this journey that I began to realise the implications of using the student voice and the potential that it holds as a conduit for change. A general definition for ‘voice’, as defined by Thomson in a political context can be interpreted as “a right to:

- an opportunity to express opinions
- access to events and people to influence decisions
- active participation in deliberation about decisions and events” (2011: 21).

Having a ‘voice’ has connotations of power and participation through expressing your opinions and influencing the environment around you; “‘voice’ is inherently concerned with questions of power and knowledge, with how decisions are made, who is included and excluded and who is advantaged and disadvantaged as a result” (Thomson, 2011: 21). If we apply this theory of ‘voice’ to the Children’s Rights Movement, we can begin to recognise the growth of the current interest in the ‘student voice’.
The Children’s Rights Movement, indicated by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, has signalled a “new wave” of consciousness of the ‘student voice’ (Wisby, 2011: 32; Thomson, 2011). The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child extends the recognised rights of the child and specifically addresses the importance of their voice in some situations (UN, 1989). In Articles 12, 13 and 14, the ability to express their views is a right inherent to children, the following are excerpts from the Convention on the Rights of the Child:

“Article 12
1. States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child...

Article 13
1. The child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of the child’s choice...

Article 14
States Parties shall respect the right of the child to freedom of thought, conscience and religion...” (UN, 1989).

These articles recognised that young people have opinions and perspectives that are their own and that they should have the opportunity to express them. As this was accepted by the UN in 1989, it is not surprising to see individual countries make additional stipulations within their borders since that time. Presently within the UK, “making provision for student voice has become almost a routine consideration for schools” (Wisby, 2011: 32). Taylor and Robinson describe additional conduits for engaging with students to hear their perspectives. The 2002 Education Act requires schools to consult with students and Ofsted “expects schools to report on the degree to which they seek and act upon the views of learners” (Taylor & Robinson, 2009: 162). The ‘student voice’ in academic discussions, regarding educational research and reform, is further based upon the belief that students have “unique perspectives on learning, teaching, and schooling; that their insights warrant not only the attention but also the responses of adults; and that they should be afforded opportunities to actively shape their education” (Cook-Sather, 2006: 359). The amalgamation of the Children’s Rights Movement and the interest in the child perspective has given rise to the ‘student voice’ in the classroom.
The Children’s Rights Movement forms the backdrop to my argument about student voice. Student voice is encumbered with several positive anticipated outcomes as well as theoretical and practical challenges.

**Anticipated outcomes**

Incorporating a stronger student voice in the classroom has several anticipated outcomes, including: student empowerment, an expectation of student participation and engagement and “radical collegiality” (Fielding, 2001: 129; Rudduck, 2007; Taylor & Robinson, 2009). O’Neill discussed the three discursive positions regarding student involvement in educational research— evolving from “the child as not yet a person”, prevalent up until the 1970’s, to “the child as a person” in the 1980’s to the current theory of “the child as agent” (2014: 220). With regards to research, the continuum goes from researching on children, to with children and finally to a point where the researchers are children (O’Neill, 2014). This evolution in educational research demonstrates the increasing agency of the student and his/her potential empowerment.

Student voice attempts to empower young people through considering their views on their education or in areas where they participate and act on those views in order to reflect the student perspective (Hadfield & Haw, 2001). It aims to give students the ability to participate in the democratic process within their school and have their voice heard (Taylor & Robinson, 2009). Rudduck highlighted that students felt a greater degree of “respect and self-worth” where they “felt positive about themselves as a result of being asked to respond and also as a result of seeing the difference that their comments and actions had made” (2007: 598). Students feel valued for their opinions when they are asked and believe that their views are being taken into account to create positive change. They have a feeling of “self-respect” and that their teachers, peers, school administration and others respect their point of view (Rudduck, 2007). Rudduck goes on to argue that students are more likely to have an “enhanced commitment to learning and to school” as they have contributed to the direction of their learning (2007: 599). Student empowerment would not, therefore,
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stop at the school gates. If students feel that their voice is valued in their school, by authoritative figures, it is argued, they may feel they have the ability to enact change in other areas of their life or be more prepared to make their opinions known.

The use of student voices contributes towards students participating and engaging with the environment around them. When students believe that their voice is valued and will be heard, they are more likely to participate with directing the change in their environment as they realise they can make a difference (Rudduck, 2007). Even when students are not able to enact change, but the reasons as to why it cannot be done are given, students feel that they have a greater “stake” in the school and their learning (Rudduck, 2007). Ultimately schools are engaging in a democratic process when students exercise their right to use their voice and when those in positions of power listen to their voices (Taylor & Robinson, 2009).

What Fielding describes as “radical collegiality”, is the phenomenon he observed during his research, where a reciprocal relationship is created between the educator and the student encouraging a “more flexible, dialogic form of democratic practice” (2001: 129). This is where the classroom experience is enhanced by encounters between all of the stakeholders involved. There is an explicit expectation that the nature, and potential success, of teaching and learning is interdependent and reliant on a shared responsibility between teachers and students (Fielding, 2001).

Challenges in theory and practice

Theory
Both the term ‘voice’ and the practical use of the concept give rise to a number of concerns. Thomson categorises her concerns of the term ‘voice’ into six categories: “(1) singularity, (2) purpose, (3) embodiment, (4) authenticity, (5) language and (6) etiquette” (Thomson, 2011: 22). For the remainder of this chapter I will predominantly use Thomson’s categorisation of the concerns but have first added O’Neill’s discussion of the ethical considerations of the debate to the original discussion.
Ethical

There are several ethical considerations that need to be taken into account when engaging with the ‘student voice’; this includes the notion of student agency as well as the role of the adults. O’Neill raises the point that the growing agency of the student, remains ambiguous to adults (2014). Historically students were not seen as social agents. Presently, there is more support in seeing them as capable researchers themselves. However, there are adults who do not recognise this shift in student agency. For example, some ethics committees, whose responsibility is to gauge the ethical nature of the research to be undertaken, view students as being “vulnerable and incompetent” therefore are given “limited agency” (O’Neill, 2014: 220). Students are seen as being able to:

“assent (to participating) but not consent...therefore, it is argued that adults must make a decision about consent on their behalf (i.e. children’s voices must be ‘interpreted’)” (O’Neill, 2014: 221).

In this instance, gatekeepers are determining the access to students and could potentially limit student involvement against their wishes. The gatekeepers in this instance, parents and/or teachers depending on the situation, could limit or deny student involvement entirely, regardless of whether the student is a willing participant.

Singularity

The singularity of voice discusses who the voice is attributed to; does it represent the individual or a group (Arnot & Reay, 2007; Cook-Sather, 2007; Robinson & Taylor, 2007; Thomson, 2011). Part of the difficulty is associating a single opinion to that of an entire group. Arnot and Reay argue that there “is not one authentic voice of a single social category” (2007: 313). Robinson and Taylor believe that “such a monolingual assumption is illusory” (2007: 6). As with any other segment of the population, what may be the case for one individual may not be a shared experience for everyone who fits that demographic. That does not limit the experience of the individual, but it should not be stretched to encompass all. With the case of singularity, it is important for researchers to be clear regarding who is speaking and how that ‘student voice’ is applicable.
Purpose
The purpose behind the use of ‘student voice’ can also be misinterpreted. Students are asked to express their voice for a multitude of reasons and they may interpret the question and respond to it differently altogether. Adults will have varying expectations in trying to elicit the ‘student voice’. Hadfield and Haw categorise three broad types of voice to identify the purpose and how students may articulate these responses, they include: the authoritative, critical and therapeutic (2001). The authoritative voice is one that is seen to be both authentic and representative of a group of young people. The critical voice challenges the status quo and does not aim to enact change but it “develops through dialogue and interaction” (Hadfield & Haw, 2001: 490) This is the voice which responds to the situation surrounding them and provides feedback. Finally, the therapeutic voice is one that elicits an empathetic response from the individual. Students may reflect on their “own difficult experiences” with the possibility of supporting others through shared experiences and “validating their experiences” (Hadfield & Haw, 2001: 491). While this framework is helpful in providing a starting point in the discussion, it is too narrow in its focus to ascertain whether the speakers want to enact change or influence others. Utilizing the ‘student voice’ does not necessitate change or insist on influencing those around them. At times the ‘student voice’ can be narrative in discussing experiences but not going so far as fitting the therapeutic category.

Embodiment
The embodiment of the ‘student voice’ discusses the concern that the voice has been disembodied from the speaker, while language assumes it is expressed through words (Thomson, 2011). By disembodying the voice, you lose the non-verbal communication and cues, such as “gaze, expressions, stance and gestures—which can be either conscious or involuntary” (Thomson, 2011: 23). In this case, the silence of a student can speak volumes and also represents their ‘student voice’. Some students may not communicate as comfortably through language and instead may choose to use alternative methods such as through using visual representations, experiential dimensions and performing arts (Robinson & Taylor, 2007). The disembodiment of the voice may be contentious when it is taken out of context by the researcher or not
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acknowledged. However, the ‘student voice’ is a powerful communicative strand which is expressed in different forms.

**Authenticity**
The authenticity of the ‘student voice’ is a concern which responds to the belief that the voice represents an unwavering and constant truth from the student. There are several variables that may shape student opinion at the time when they express their viewpoint. They may have felt pressure to participate in the interview so have a desire to get it over with or alternatively have a willingness to please the researcher by saying what they think they want to hear. This does not devalue the statements they made but they should not be taken as absolute truths or as lies (Bragg, 2007; Thomson, 2011).

**Language and Etiquette**
The final concerns are the language and etiquette surrounding the use of the voice, here the latter will primarily be discussed. There are normative uses of language that are considered to be acceptable and unacceptable in different scenarios (Thomson, 2011; Rudduck, 2007). For example, a student would not be expected to speak in a classroom the way they would on a football pitch. In a classroom, the expectation is for students to give measured responses, full sentences and acknowledgement for when it is their turn to speak. By comparison, on a football pitch, there may be hurried exclamations of necessity, ‘pass the ball’, ‘man on’ and the use of more colourful shouts of emotion. If the responses were swapped, a teacher may find this as disruptive, “it is often easier to dismiss this as loutish behaviour, rather than allowing for the possibility that something is being said that deserves attention” (Thomson, 2011: 24). The etiquette surrounding language can influence the student voice when conducting research. As a researcher, if a teacher is within earshot of the interview, and the student is aware of this, they may alter their speech and vernacular to reflect the situation. This also has implications for the authenticity of their voice if they are trying to maintain a specific standardized notion of etiquette.

**Practice**
The practical concerns surrounding the student voice include:

- student representation as tokenistic,
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- equality between the adults and the students—including that the voice is selective in their representation and discussions are limited to what is on set agendas—
- the follow-up to implementation of student voice initiatives (often lacking) (Fielding, 2004; Cook-Sather, 2006; O’Neill, 2014; Thomson, 2011).

The following paragraphs go on to discuss the practical concerns, specifically tokenistic and inequality, surrounding the student voice.

**Tokenistic**

The tokenistic effect is a practical problem to the implementation of the ‘student voice’ in schools. The tokenistic effect, described by Thomson, is where student representation is “more about students being seen to be involved in school processes, rather than being active partners in change” (2011: 25). Taylor and Robinson discuss this through the production of “surface compliance’ rather than deeper modes of reflection and engagement” within schools (2009: 163). Wisby goes on to argue that schools are so eager to jump on the bandwagon of being seen to engage with the ‘student voice’ that the “transformative potential of student voice is lost” (2011: 32). The popularisation of using the ‘student voice’ in schools has counteracted the purpose of engaging with students. Schools have rushed to try to remain at the forefront of educational theory and the current trends in student autonomy. However, a number of scholars argue that without thorough planning this becomes a hollow attempt at including students in decision making processes within the school (Rudduck & Fielding, 2006; Thomson, 2011; Wisby, 2011). Furthermore, there is a standoff between the “normative ideal of student voice” and the “limitations of that practice in everyday” school life (Taylor & Robinson, 2009: 163; Rudduck & Fielding, 2006).

**Inequality**

There is an inherent inequality in the interactions between students and adults. Fielding asserts that, “there are no spaces, physical or metaphorical, where staff and students meet one another as equals, as genuine partners in the shared undertaking of making meaning of their work together” (2004: 309). Adults hold a great deal of power in decision making and are acting as gatekeepers in determining whose voice will be listened to. The ‘student voice’ can be selective in who is represented; the
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‘good’ students, the high-flyers, the civically-minded are represented to greater extent than those who are seen as trouble-makers (Thomson, 2011; Rudduck, 2007). Keddie discusses how the voice of marginalised students, such as minority groups, is often misrepresented thus reinforcing white privilege and the middle-class voice as the dominant view (2014). Marginalised voices are also used in discussions surrounding inclusive education, with students being referred to having “hidden voices” (Ainscow et al., 1999; Messiou, 2006).

role of the student voice in this thesis

my research relies on student voices to articulate the moments of humanitarian learning as experienced by the students. it does not aim to explore the transformative approach of the student voice or its role in democratic governance in the long term. instead, to experience the moments of humanitarian learning that students encounter, the student voice is used to recount and explore their experiences to give a greater depth of understanding when learning about a particular set of topics. students participated within my research through a variety of forms: document analysis, class observations, small focus groups and individual interviews. each of these methods contained the student’s perspective. however, some of the concerns regarding student voice mentioned in this chapter were also apparent. within this final section of the chapter the main concerns regarding students will be discussed with regards to my research and how the student voice could be enhanced in future research.

the document analysis looked at student work in journals, projects and homework to better understand their voice. within this method, my role as a researcher did not cloud the student responses as these were pieces of work completed for the class and not for this research. the embodiment of the individual’s voice has been taken into an alternative context, where there were no physical forms of non-verbal communication. in the case of the journals, students wrote as if they were writing to themselves responding to certain topics in class that day or trying to make sense of difficult issues. in some of the documents that were reviewed for the youth
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Philanthropy Initiative, responses regarding why the students chose particular topics were compared to identify any overarching themes regarding the types of charities they engaged with. This unique insight into their feelings regarding certain topics was apparent. The language and etiquette used was more relaxed than a classroom setting but remained consistent with knowing that your teacher would be reading it. The document analysis provided another approach to hearing the ‘student voice’ through their work.

Class observations were useful in seeing the participants in a more natural environment. Students are used to the dynamics of a classroom setting and while they were aware of my presence, it was more discreet than other methods. This provided an opportunity to gauge the student voice of the class in response to complicated topics. While the single voice was more difficult to differentiate when group discussions occurred there was a greater degree of group consensus. Students were observed as a whole class and in smaller groups. Voices in the first situation were disembodied except for exceptional situations due to the larger number of students in the class. The moments which stood out were those where students laughed during sombre points in the discussion. Similarly, to the interviews, the language and etiquette of students would be determined by the classroom setting and presence of their teacher as an authoritative figure. However, the etiquette was also determined by the other students in the class. At times, students may have said or behaved in ways to show off to their friends. My presence at as an outsider may have affected their behaviour as well. Classroom observations allowed access to the group voice which offered a different perspective of humanitarian learning.

Small focus groups were an opportunity to have group discussion amongst their peers using an image or quote as a catalyst which gave an insight into the ‘student voice’ in this setting. The task was explained to the students and it took place over lunch time. The atmosphere was far more relaxed than any of the other methods and was one where students chose to approach me after the research finished to say they enjoyed it the most as “they never had the opportunity to just talk about this stuff”. The singularity of voice represented both the individual and the group in certain statements. Students would discuss their views and sometimes come to a consensus while other times they would disagree with one another. However, as they are in
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their peer group, both the singularity and authenticity of the ‘student voice’ could be influenced by peer pressure. The language and etiquette also changed to reflect the group dynamics. The students spoke with more enthusiasm and passion and would often eagerly speak over one another or use colloquialisms. While they were aware I was there and that a teacher was in the room, it became apparent that they were more interested in talking to their friends. They seemed to take the prompts as an opportunity to have a different type of chat with their friends over lunch. While the focus groups seemed to work well for this research, they can vary depending on the group dynamics and the mood that day. The focus groups were one of the most enjoyable methods to observe the students participating in as they became impassioned about their opinions and expressing these to their friends. The students’ voices seemed to come through with greater clarity when they were explaining them to their friends and were more relaxed.

Individual interviews would appear to have the most direct access to the ‘student voice’. While students may address the views of their peers when they are speaking, their voice was primarily considered to be their own and singular in nature. However, the purpose, embodiment, authenticity, language and etiquette all needed additional attention to try not to misinterpret the ‘student voice’. My role in this method is at the forefront of interacting with the student, therefore I would undoubtedly have some influence in the student’s response. The questions were designed to be clear of purpose whilst leaving students enough space and room to manoeuvre to encourage their own thoughts. Notes were taken while the interviews took place to note any significant non-verbal communication to keep the voice embodied. This will be difficult to determine beyond obvious non-verbal cues as I was not familiar with the students so do not know their own mannerisms that may have yielded additional clues. The authenticity of the interviews could also be questioned as some students may have replied with answers they thought I would want to hear or they wanted to please their teacher in their participation. Finally, the language and etiquette used by students may not have represented their true voice as the research was being conducted by an adult and the interviews took place in either a classroom or library where members of the teaching staff were present. Students may have been guarded in their answers or used language which they thought were more appropriate in that setting. They may have also been nervous.
being interviewed and unsure how to interact in this situation. ‘Student voices’ in this method tended to give more measured insights into their thoughts and feelings compared with alternative methods.

All of these approaches had positive and negative aspects when applying them to the student voice. Individually these methods, and the concerns they carry, would not yield a robust view of the student voice. However, the combination of these methods and the ability to triangulate the information across the approaches allowed for a deeper appreciation of the student voice in relation to this research. The uses of each of these methods were pivotal in understanding the student voice in relation to the moments of humanitarian learning.

Conclusion

Chapter 2 has explored the student perspective specifically incorporating the use of student voices. This chapter began by defining student voice and the debates that surrounded the growth of the current trend including the influences of the Children’s Rights Movement. The anticipated outcomes of empowerment, student participation, engagement and radical collegiality of using student voices were discussed in the second section. The third section, challenges in theory and practice, was divided into two parts. The first part, Theory, explored theoretical challenges including: ethical, singularity, purpose, embodiment, authenticity and finally the language and etiquette. The second part, Practice, discussed two of the primary practical concerns of surrounding student voice, specifically: student representation as tokenistic as well as the equality between adults and students.

Each of these concerns, both theoretical and practical, were explored and ultimately in the final section of this chapter, the role of the student voice in this thesis, they were applied to how they influenced this research. Student voices were a key focus for this research and are further represented in Part 3: Student Perspective (chapters 7, 8 and 9).
Chapter 3: Methods for exploring the student perspective—the instrumental multicase analysis

In this chapter I explain the design and methods used for this research. Broadly speaking, the study involves a qualitative instrumental multicase study using two cases, the Schools Linking Network Model United Nations (SLN-MUN) and the Youth Philanthropy Initiative (YPI).

Within both of these case studies several schools participated both actively and passively. Schools which were active participants, allowed greater access to their students and schools. This included a variety of methods: classroom observations, interviews with students/teachers/senior management team, student focus groups and document analysis. Those schools which participated passively took part in the wider events held by the two case study programmes and were included in the document analysis. These methods are discussed in greater detail within this chapter. A full explanation of school participation is included in Appendix A.

The chapter first explores what is a case study; including type, number of cases and the strengths/weakness of this design. The next section briefly introduces the cases and a justification for their inclusion is presented for the reader. The methods that were employed and the techniques used to ensure the trustworthiness of the are then explained. The final section discusses the ethical considerations of this research and the limitations involved.

Qualitative instrumental multicase study

To adequately address my research aim and questions, explored in the introduction to Part 1, the most appropriate qualitative approach emerged in the form of a case study, specifically Stake’s definition of an instrumental case study, using multiple cases (1995). A qualitative approach was taken to access the student voice through interviews, focus groups and observations. An umbrella definition of a case study is “the study of an instance in action”, where the instance is either selected based on the
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hypothesis or it is a “given” and the primary focus of research (Adelman et al., 1976: 141). Stake's instrumental approach to case study research most closely resembles the former use of instance, while his intrinsic case study parallels the latter example of instance. Baxter and Jack summarise Stake's instrumental theory, saying:

“(it) is used to accomplish something other than understanding a particular situation. It provides insight into an issue or helps to refine a theory. The case is of secondary interest; it plays a supportive role, facilitating our understanding of something else. The case is often looked at in depth, its contexts scrutinized, its ordinary activities detailed, and because it helps the researcher pursue the external interest. The case may or may not be seen as typical of other cases” (2008: 549; Stake, 1995).

In this scenario, the case would be a tool, utilized to explore my research aim and questions, thus aiding me in understanding the interaction between students and humanitarian issues.

During my initial data collection, the direction of my inquiry focused on the school perspective of engaging with humanitarian topics and this became the basis of the case study. This method saw me binding my case by time and place as Creswell discusses (2002). The time was 2013-2014 and the locations were secondary schools in Manchester. I had hoped that through this lens I could discover what was occurring within the field of humanitarianism in five schools throughout Greater Manchester. However, it soon became apparent that my case study was not bound sufficiently as the scope of my research was expanding (Baxter & Jack, 2008). If I focused on schools for the subject of my case study, I would have been overwhelmed with data that was collected from each of the individual schools and would struggle to find common themes for analysis.

Therefore, a radical change was made where the emphasis shifted away from the schools and instead focused on the individual programmes that were utilized to teach humanitarian topics. Two programmes which stood out during my early research were the Schools Linking Network-Model United Nations Programme (SLN-MUN) and the Youth Philanthropy Initiative (YPI). These individual cases are addressed in greater depth under the “justification for cases” portion of this chapter as well as in chapter 4.
The importance of mentioning these cases now is that not one, but two contrasting cases were chosen for this instrumental study. Using multiple case studies is commonly referred to as “collective case studies, cross-case, multicase or multisite studies, or comparative case studies” (Merriam, 1998: 40; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). While there was serious consideration in conducting a single case study, ultimately the decision was made to explore two contrasting cases.

The premise for using two cases in my analysis returns to my research aim and questions where I endeavour to explore how students engage with and are impacted by humanitarian issues. If I used a single case, my research would have been at risk of becoming an intrinsic study of the programme I discussed, and possibly be too tightly bound to sufficiently answer my research aim and questions. Using multiple cases allowed me to analyse not only the individual cases but conduct cross case analysis adding additional dimensions to my discussion (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

During my scoping study I observed teachers using multiple approaches to engage with humanitarian topics and there are countless programmes offered by organisations to deliver this material, (BBC, 2013; BRC, 2014; Global Dimension, 2013; Oxfam, 2013; StC, 2013). The use of two contrasting cases explored the alternative approaches that address the same research aim and questions, most important of all, the interaction that students have with the humanitarian space.

The strengths of case study research included the “rich and holistic account” as well as the “richly descriptive” perspective that it offers as it is “grounded in deep and varied sources of information” (Merriam, 1998: 41; Hancock & Algozzine, 2006:16; Adelman et al., 1976; Flyvbjerg, 2013; Yin,2003). The strength of providing a “richly descriptive” account allowed me to answer my research questions through the voices and experiences of the students and adults who are at the epicentre of this research. It also allowed the reader to connect with these experiences to understand the impact that humanitarian topics had on students. A predominant strength of using the instrumental case study was that it focused on the issue, not the case, which was fundamental for my research in exploring how students interact with humanitarian issues. While I am interested in understanding and exploring every aspect of the case,
this went towards informing my understanding of how the programme functions and subsequently interacts with students. Merriam states, that the case study “offers a means of investigating complex social units consisting of multiple variables”, which coincided with the needs of my research questions (1998: 41). The strength of the case study lies in the freedom to find the student voice and understand their perspective, while simultaneously providing boundaries to the research to maintain context and manageability.

The limitations of case study research include: “issues of reliability, validity… generalizability” and bias (Merriam, 1998: 43; Cohen et al., 2011; Hamel et al., 1993). Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research “emphasize(s) placing an interpreter in the field to observe the workings of the case, one who records objectively what is happening but simultaneously examines its meaning and redirects observation to refine or substantiate those meanings” (Stake, 1995: 9). Through using an “interpreter in the field” and conducting research in this way the door is opened to issues of reliability and validity due to the possible human element of the research. Further to the issues of reliability and validity, the “interpreter in the field” may also introduce their own bias to the research; an example of which is to use the data in a self-fulfilling or circular argument where the data is chosen selectively to prove the argument (Yin, 2009; Verschuren, 2003).

A constructivist approach to qualitative research, as discussed by Guba and Lincoln, was taken: specifically seeing myself as a “facilitator of the inquiry process”, realising that as an educator I hold constructed knowledge of the area I was researching and being an advocate for the student (1994: 114, 113). They also state in a later version, that it means “we are shaped by our lived experiences, and these will always come out in the knowledge we generate as researchers and in the data generated by our subjects” (Lincoln et al. 2011: 104). My “lived” experiences, those as a secondary school teacher and having completed a Master of Arts in humanitarianism, shaped the development of this research and my participation as a researcher. Charmaz states that “constructivist grounded theory views knowledge as located in time, space, and situation and takes into account the researcher’s construction of emergent concepts” (2011: 365).
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Through transparent data collection, coding, analysis, reflexivity of practice and the use of a field journal, it is intended that the role the researcher plays is apparent and included in the discussion of the research (Adams et al., 2007; Cohen et al., 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Yin discusses that through using three tactics during case study research, the researcher will be able to “increase construct validity”... these include using “multiple sources of evidence, during data collection...establish(ing) a chain of evidence” and having the “draft case study reviewed by key informants” or the process of “member checking” (2009: 42; Morse, 2018: 812). Guba and Lincoln’s theory of trustworthiness in qualitative research was considered, specifically: the credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability and the reflexivity of the researcher through a journal (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

Justification for cases

This research used two cases to address the research questions, the Youth Philanthropy Initiative and the Schools Linking Network Model United Nations. As I will explain, each demonstrate students engaging with humanitarian issues through two distinctive lenses. They are not exhaustive representatives of humanitarian engagement; they are two approaches that are used to demonstrate ways that humanitarianism can manifest for students to experience in the classroom. Chapter 4 goes on to discuss each of the case studies in greater detail.

There were obvious differences between the two case studies; the role of the teachers, the role of organisational support, breadth of implementation of the programme on the national level, the extent the programme is embedded in the school curriculum, number of students participating and the local/international perspectives. Cross case comparisons provided platforms to understand how students engaged with each of these cases. One way is not necessarily the right way to interact with and engage students to have the greatest impact. However, schools and organisations can learn from these types of case studies to understand various approaches in engaging their students.
As discussed in the first section, it is important in case study research to set parameters or abide by set boundaries (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Creswell, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). As Baxter and Jack state, “once you have determined what your case will be, you will have to consider what your case will NOT be” (2008: 546). There are three dominant boundaries to my research, the first is the scope of the organisations used as case studies, the second is the year group of students participating and the third is a geographical narrowing of schools.

The first boundary is the scope of the organisations that are being used at the centre of the case studies. Countless large scale national and international organisations offer educational material and programmes to engage students with humanitarian issues. These include the British Red Cross, Save the Children, Amnesty International, Oxfam, Action Aid and not to mention the extensive organisations acting on behalf of the United Nations (UNICEF, UNHCR, UNESCO...). The budgets of these organisations vary as much as the resources they provide. These organisations, and others, will be discussed in greater depth in chapter 5. However, humanitarian education is not necessarily the primary focus of these organisations, but instead a by-product of their other work. This does not decrease the importance of their work but makes it difficult to use as a case study for this research. I faced access issues to those I needed to interview and would have compared organisations that have budgets supported by their umbrella organisations. Instead, I decided to focus on smaller programmes that were being used in schools during my Scoping Study. These programmes were limited in size and scope but still operated on the national level. There are fewer members of staff involved which allowed me to get to know those I was working with and gain a greater understanding of how they operated.

The second boundary on my research dealt with the number of student participants who were involved. I chose to focus on secondary schools initially as I am trained secondary school teacher, allowing me a greater understanding of the curriculum and politics at hand. Within the secondary school age group there are pupils as young as 11 to those who are 18. The decision was made to focus on a single year group. This was decided to be year 9 where students are aged between 13 and 14 years old. This year group was chosen in large part due to the flexibility of the curriculum at this level as students have not begun sitting their GCSE exams. It was thought that
teachers would be more willing to participate when they were not worrying about preparing their classes for large national exams. One of the cases, SLN-MUN in Greater Manchester, focuses solely on year 9 students while YPI has a range of students from year 7 to sixth form. As YPI operates with multiple age groups I simply narrowed the schools to those who worked with Year 9’s before I went any further. Furthermore, while independent schools, representing the private sector of the English educational system, operate within each of these programmes, they were not specifically sought out to participate in this research. They were included in document analysis as well as the observations and interviews that were conducted at larger inter-school events.

The third boundary of this research is the geographical narrowing of schools. At the time, SLN-MUN operated in Greater Manchester, London, Cumbria, one of the Home Counties, Bradford, Norfolk, and Rotherham (SLN-MUN, 2012). These seven areas are at various stages of development within the national programme. The two that have been chosen vary in their experience: the programme run in one of the Home Counties maintains a well-established and longstanding programme; and Greater Manchester had found its niche within the community after four years of running. YPI began in London in 2007 and it is no surprise that the largest number of participating schools is based in the capital. Therefore, to see YPI embedded in the school structure it was necessary to include schools located in London. As individual schools signed up to YPI’s programme it was easier to find schools located in similar geographical areas as SLN-MUN. The exception to this being the SLN-MUN Home County where YPI does not have any active schools. However, the strength of the SLN-MUN programme warranted its inclusion and would be comparable to the longstanding London YPI programmes.

With these boundaries in place the cases were chosen. Four individual YPI schools were asked to take part and information regarding the historical winning charities from across England was also made available or analysis. There were three SLN-MUN programmes that were initially approached however the research was ultimately conducted in Greater Manchester and one of the Home Counties.
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Methods and trustworthiness

Yin states that the use of a case study “does not imply the use of a particular type of evidence...The evidence may come from fieldwork, archival records, verbal reports, observations or any combination of these” (1981: 58). Baxter and Jack state that “a hallmark of case study research is the use of multiple data sources, a strategy which also enhances data credibility” (2008: 554; Patton, 1990; Yin, 2003). To truly appreciate and understand the student perspective of my research, several methods were used to increase trustworthiness through triangulation and demonstrate multiple perspectives of the impact humanitarian topics had. Yin identifies “six sources of evidence”; these include documents, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation and physical artefacts (2009:101). Of these six, I have included document/media analysis (including archival and physical artefacts), interviews and direction observation. I have also conducted focus groups to add another dimension to the data collected.

The participants who were included in my research were from the participating schools and organisations (SLN-MUN and YPI); the boundaries of participant selection with regards to the case study will be discussed later in this chapter. Teachers and members of the Senior Leadership Team (SLT) have been included where they interact with the student participants or their subject is a conduit for the cases (SLN-MUN and/or YPI). Humanitarian subjects span over subject areas so it was necessary to speak to teachers and heads of departments in more than one subject area. All participants (staff, teachers, students, professionals) were asked to participate voluntarily and were free to withdraw from the research at any point without giving a reason to the researcher. Students who opted out of participating have not been included in focus groups, interviews and their comments made during observations (if any) have not been transcribed. If they were uncomfortable with the observation subject matter, school policy was followed to provide alternative arrangements. There were no students or participants who chose to opt out of the research.

Understanding the impact on students was central to this research. Approximately 670 students participated to varying extents. These students were present during the
observations, with 68 also choosing to be involved with the focus groups. 167 interviews took place throughout the term during events and classes, as well as following-up with students about specific statements or reactions they had. This afforded them the space to further express their ideas in greater depth or to clarify their comments.

**Document/Media Analysis**

Baxter and Jack refer to the importance of using what they call “data sources” in case study research using multiple data sources (2008: 554; Patton, 1990; Yin, 2003). When designing my case study, the use of data sources was pivotal in creating a strong foundation for my research. The use of documents and media allowed me to gain a greater understanding of the current engagement with humanitarian education in each participating school and organisation (Cohen et al., 2011; Merriam, 1998). As previously mentioned three of Yin’s “six sources of evidence” have been included under Document/Media Analysis, those being documents, archival and physical artefacts. They were represented using historic and present school/organisational policies, national and subject specific curriculum, organisational resources and past student work. The artefacts that were used are videos, recordings and pictures from the two case study organisations. The document analysis has included: close reading of school policies to highlight how the school policy interacts with humanitarian and global topics; and analysis of past student work to determine topics that were discussed previously throughout the year. The media analysis has looked at videos, audio recordings and photographs from events that the two case studies hosted both in the public domain or supplied by the organisations. Photographs from winning YPI groups were used to analyse the charitable organisations that students chose to represent over the years.

Document analysis was included as it provided a key introspective exploration of what occurred in each school and the climate within a classroom with regards to teaching humanitarian topics. As discussed in the previous chapter, document analysis also lends itself to accessing the student voice when it is presented through a different medium. Understanding school policies and the curriculum provided a foundation for subsequent observations that took place. As there is no set approach in teaching humanitarian issues, each school approached and interacted with these
topics in a variety of ways. Understanding the parameters within a school to explore these topics allowed me to analyse how schools interact within these boundaries.

**Focus Groups**

The use of focus groups within my research was an important tool to gauge student reaction to humanitarian topics. Focus groups are explained by Krueger and Casey as “a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, nonthreatening environment” (2009: 2). While it is also described as:

> “a video- or audio-taped small group discussion that explores topics selected by the researcher...participants are usually led through the discussion by a moderator who is often the researcher. The data collected from focus group sessions are typically analysed qualitatively” (Morgan & Spanish, 1984: 254).

The benefit of this method was that it allowed the researcher to observe group interaction and elicits the “opinions, attitudes, and beliefs held” by those participating on a particular topic (Kleiber, 2004: 97). This method provided insights into the “moment of humanitarian learning” that students experienced when in discussion with their peers. Using focus groups played a pivotal role in accessing the student voice in a more relaxed setting. They were designed to allow small groups, of up to eight students, to discuss and react to a series of images, words and questions regarding the research subject which acted as a stimulus to encourage group discussion (see Appendix B).

These short focus groups lasted up to 20 minutes, took place either during lunch, after school or during break as to not disturb classroom teaching. The questions that accompany the images have been included in figure 2. I followed-up these focus groups with a limited number of semi-structured interviews to clarify specific student comments or to ask individual students to elaborate on statements they made. Themes for these discussions were formulated following a document analysis of humanitarian resources and teacher training which I underwent with the British Red Cross to understand their version of Humanitarian Education.
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Prompts:
1. Picture: Use of a picture of aid being distributed as a prompt during focus group. Questions may be used to further prompt the discussion; these will be written down with the photograph.
   a. What do you think is happening in this photograph?
   b. Where do you think the resources (food, water, medical supplies, tents, clothes, etc.) come from?
   c. Who do you think sends it?
   d. Why do you think people help people in other places?
   e. In what ways do you think you’ve helped other people?
2. Words: “Humanitarian” words will be used as prompts to encourage student discussion; these words will be tied in to the lesson that is taught. Examples: Humanitarian, refugee, human rights, globalization.

Figure 2

These discussions differed from the classroom environment, as students discussed the topics socially with their peers without their teacher setting academic perimeters. Students who participated were those who were eager to engage with these topics during their lunch hour and chose to actively participate. This had implications on participant selection as the focus groups did not include those students who were disruptive during class observations, thus excluding what may have been seen as marginalised voices. Students who participated tended to be in the same friendship circles. This both allowed for a greater level of ease between participants for discussion but also a degree of camaraderie in answers that had the potential to affect the singularity and authenticity of the individual student voice.

Focus groups were triangulated by conducting data analysis of original student work and semi-structured interviews with participants. Topics, which students learned about previously in the year, were highlighted to participants and their answers were compared to their historical answers, as seen in their classwork and homework journals. Additional questions were asked to participants to clarify their positions or allow them the space to respond more freely to ideas.

It was imperative to include focus groups in this research to understand the peer dynamics and access the student voice in a relaxed setting. Students were more talkative with their peers over the humanitarian images and in the smaller group than they were in front of the whole class.
Semi-Structured Interviews

The purpose of the semi-structured interview was to enable the researcher to ask the interviewee questions directly related to the research aim and questions (DeMarrais, 2004; Cohen et al., 2011). In this way, you gain the opinions of the participants directly, can ask for clarity and encourage greater detail in their responses (Johnson & Turner, 2003).

For adult participants the discussions revolved around: what they were doing; what was working; what they tried that did not work; challenges and opportunities occurring within this field. See Appendix D for full interview questions. Interviews with adults lasted approximately 30-45 minutes depending on the participant.

Selected students were interviewed on a supplementary basis to follow-up on comments they made during the focus group, in class or in their feedback questionnaire. This allowed them to provide clarification or to explore a topic further (DeMarrais, 2004). For example: “Could you discuss what you meant when you stated, ‘...’? Would you please expand further on ‘....’ which you mentioned in the focus group?”. Student interviews lasted up to 15 minutes, but the majority were closer to 5 minutes. Some of the questions posed to students were during observations when they were working in groups or individually. While semi-structured interviews provide a direct link to the student voice, there were ethical boundaries from the university which meant that extended interviews with students were not possible. This did influence the access to the student voice and had ramifications for fully exploring their moments of humanitarian learning. For example, there were specific topics, such as the YPI presentation focusing on premature babies discussed in chapter 8, where it would have been inappropriate for me to question the participants on such a sensitive topic. With this is mind, data was triangulated—through focus groups, extended observations, and document analysis—to create a fuller picture of student involvement and their voice.

I felt that the interview was an important tool in gathering information from the participants. The data collected through the interview sheds light on to the individual sense of humanitarianism both at the adult and student levels. There is a marked difference between adult and student interviews, from the duration of time and to
the length of quotes used within this thesis from the adult participants. While the focus group allowed for student discussion and exploration of the topic it is important that I accurately appreciate the individual’s experience of the humanitarian moment. The interview allowed me to follow up and clarify what that moment resembled for different students, allowing greater authenticity to the student voice. The interview was more effective in understanding the adult’s perception of humanitarian learning, and their interpretation of that of their students, as they were not hindered by time or ethical boundaries to the same extent as student interviews. Student interviews were supplementary and used to clarify statements, while adult interviews were the primary method used to gather their opinions and explore the topic with participants.

**Observations**

Observation can be defined as “the watching of behavioural patterns of people in certain situations to obtain information about the phenomenon of interest” (Johnson & Christensen, 2012: 206). This method was used to “capture” the unspoken knowledge that participants displayed. This knowledge was “reflected in participants’ actions as well as their words and in what they fail to state but nonetheless feel deeply and even take for granted” (Adams et al., 2007: 331). Students displayed emotive responses in class, both when they engaged—becoming teary-eyed when watching a movie—and when they were uncomfortable with the topic—seen as disruptive behaviour. These students did not directly say that they were not engaging with the topic that was discussed, but their non-verbal actions said otherwise.

Observing classes and programme implementation gave me an insight into the daily routine and incorporation of humanitarian topics into the curriculum. This was the opportunity to understand the extent that school policy and the curriculum embraced humanitarian issues and how this translated to the student experience. The observations at bespoke events focused primarily on humanitarian issues, as they were chosen for specific reasons. These bespoke observations provided the opportunity to see how students engaged outside the confines of their classroom walls and in a more informal atmosphere.
I observed in a non-participant capacity, so as to not unduly influence the routine of the classes (Cohen et al., 2011). For classroom observations I followed one set of students per school around their classes for at least one week. For schools where it was not possible to have this level of access, observations were conducted over multiple days, however, I still followed the same sets of students. If it was a YPI school, I would then revisit these schools at multiple points during the programme to observe YPI being taught to students at various levels of the process and would return for the school-wide final.

During breaks in the student schedule, I worked in the teacher lounge, a subject specific department or a designated teacher’s classroom. With being present in this way, I was able to build a rapport with teachers and discussed topical content with them. I led the focus groups with students at the end of the week. Therefore, it was difficult to remain nondescript to the learning process and not alter the learning environment (Cohen et al., 2011). However, through transparent acknowledgement of participant interaction, I ensured the credibility of the results.

Observations for SLN-MUN included school visits, as discussed above, in Greater Manchester and attending the three preparation days as well as the final events. The preparation days were full days held outside of schools at conference centres or hotels. I also observed the virtual learning environments to see the work and interactions that took place outside of the preparation and observation days.

I observed in a non-participant capacity. However my background as a teacher, as one who is keen to work and engage with young people, did come through during observations. Examples of this included: chatting to students prior to and following classes and at events; walking around the room during group work and asking students questions to understand what they were thinking at that moment; as well as analysing the classroom and event dynamics from a teacher perspective.

This consistency allowed me to get to know the students in a variety of classes, understand their behaviour in multiple settings and then be able to apply this picture of student involvement to how they engaged with YPI, SLN-MUN and humanitarian learning. This approach to observations is not one that many researchers would take,
but it was my natural manner in the classroom and one which I believe added an additional level of validity to my research and to that of accessing the student voice. I was privileged enough to get to know the participants and their voices in multiple settings over time through active observations.

**Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness is described by Harrison et. al to mean “the ways we work to meet the criteria of validity, credibility, and believability of our research—as assessed by the academy, our communities, and our participants” (2001: 324). The trustworthiness of the qualitative research was considered, and three primary techniques were used to address the constructivist approach to this research. This section discusses those three techniques of triangulation, member checks and the use of a research diary as well as the approach to data analysis to ensure credibility.

Creswell and Miller define triangulation as “a validity procedure where researchers look for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study” (2000: 126). Each method offered a distinctive perspective to the research and the integration of these various methods enhanced the overall analysis (Cohen et al., 2011; Denzin, 1970; Merriam, 1998). These methods were used to triangulate the data to provide a fuller analysis of the research topic and to understand the subjective moments of humanitarian learning that students experienced (Gillham, 2005). Triangulating data has shown trends across methods during analysis and allowed the opportunity to delve into certain humanitarian moments through multiple lenses. Additionally, triangulation served as a tool to corroborate statements or actions that were made. As Johnson and Christensen state when discussing the use of observations, “people do not always do what they say they do…it is a maxim in the social and behavioural sciences that attitudes, and behaviour are not always congruent” (2012: 206). Using multiple methods supported this research and highlighted differences between statements and actions. These approaches led me to observe phenomena that were discussed during interviews with participants, thus having clear examples of student engagement or disengagement as the case may be.
Lincoln and Guba describe member checks as: “…whereby data, analytic categories, interpretations, and conclusions are tested with members of those stake holding groups from whom the data were originally collected, is the most crucial technique for establishing credibility” (1985: 314). Creswell and Miller describe some of the processes to “facilitate” member checking through having participants review the raw data (transcripts or field notes), if themes make sense and “whether they are developed with sufficient evidence, and whether the overall account is realistic and accurate”…ultimately adding additional “credibility to the qualitative study by having a chance to reach to both the data and the final narrative” (2000: 127). Within this research member checks were used throughout research collection by having participants review the transcripts of their interviews and using follow interview with student participants to clarify comments they made in classes or in focus groups. A few organisational participants were asked to read draft chapters or discuss themes of this research to establish the dependability and accuracy of the research (Merriam, 1998).

A research diary can “provide a means by which we can make the most of the complexities of our presence in the research setting, in a methodical and regular manner (Holliday, 2002) or even in an unmethodical and irregular manner” (Etherington, 2004: 128). The use of a journal added another level of reflexivity and was “tool for making the impact of our presence in the ‘field’ conscious and transparent” (Etherington, 2004: 136). Throughout this research a research diary was kept noting concepts and emerging themes which added another dimension to observations and interviews. For example, during class observations I noted what I observed as well as my interpretation of this at the time. I later reflected on the same classroom observation through another lens trying to gain a better understanding of the student’s response. Memos were created to identify emerging themes as per a grounded theory approach which is discussed in the next paragraph. Using my research diary, I could then follow up with students with clarifying questions to understand their perspective more fully.

Credibility and trustworthiness for this research is also considered in terms of data analysis and coding. A constructivist grounded theory approach was taken. Grounded theory is defined as a set of methods which consist of “systematic, yet flexible...
guidelines for collecting and analysing qualitative data to construct theories ‘grounded’ in the data themselves...Thus, data form the foundation of our theory and our analysis of these data generates the concepts we construct” (Charmaz, 2006: 2).

The analysis of data and the codes which I used in my data were those that were formed from the research while it was taking place. Furthermore, I took a constructivist approach to grounded theory. Here Charmaz discusses it, stating: “we construct our grounded theories through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives, and research practices” (Charmaz, 2014: 10).

My constructed points of view, those of a teacher and humanitarian, would ultimately affect which themes stood out to me during data collection and coding.

A reflexive approach, research journal and memos were used to identify emerging themes and concepts as data was collected for coding purposes. There were two phases to the coding process: the first being the ‘initial’ phase and the second which is ‘focused’ coding. Charmaz describes this process as:

“During initial coding we study fragments of data—closely for their analytic import...While engaging in focused coding, we select what seem to be the most useful initial codes and test them against extensive data. Throughout the process, we compare data with data and then data with codes” (Charmaz, 2006: 42).

Initial coding for this research began during the scoping study. At this stage I was overwhelmed with data and realised the study was not bound sufficiently which led to the instrumental case study approach. Coding of key words, interesting points or events that I considered humanitarian, based on the principles discussed in chapter 1, were captured through written memos while I conducted interviews, observations and document analysis. While reading the transcripts of interviews I colour-coded key words and ideas. All of these were fragments of data I would revisit multiple times and comparing them to one another to highlight emerging themes and patterns. Three broad categories emerged, which formed the basis for the analytical framework, these were the academic, empathetic and resonant themes. These developed when comparing the data and emerging themes.

For example, prior to this research I assumed that participants would be able to define humanitarianism to a certain extent. However, it was only during data
collection that it emerged how challenging that was to participants of every age. The struggle that participants had when asked to define the term was apparent during their interviews and I would make a note of some of the words they used. These were then collated, and it was apparent that participants across age levels and professions struggled to define the term humanitarianism. The challenges of defining humanitarianism, and the participants’ interpretations of this term, were themes which warranted further analysis and inclusion in this thesis.

This process of coding and data analysis continued throughout data collection. Papers and poster presentations explored the emergent themes for my supervisors and peers to critique. I also discussed some of these emerging themes with participants, in the form of member checking, to ensure the themes I drew from their interviews/observations/documents were accurate and credible.

All of these methods, and the techniques to increase trustworthiness, provided a rich source of data and helped to create a picture of how students engaged with humanitarian topics as well as to listen to the student voices that participated.

**Ethical Considerations**

“Ensuring validity and reliability in qualitative research involves conducting the investigation in an ethical manner” (Merriam, 1998: 198).

As a researcher, it is of the utmost importance to conduct research in an ethical manner. In Merriam’s above quote, if the research is conducted unethically that calls into question every aspect of the validity and reliability of the research and the subsequent findings. Ethics “are the principles and guidelines that help us uphold the things we value” with the deontological approach defined as “the position that ethical issues must be judged on the basis of some universal code” (Johnson & Christensen, 2012: 99). A deontological position was taken, and prior approval given by the University’s ethics panel based off a detailed application and interview. There were several ethical aspects considered for this research and were discussed with the ethics board. They included individual perspectives of organisational employees,
educational staff (teachers/senior leadership team), students and the role of the researcher. In this section, the ethical dilemmas of the four groups will be discussed as well as the ways that these situations were managed.

**Organisational Employees**
Organisational professionals were selected based on the educational resources they provided and their role in working with either of the case studies. Organisational participants were identified by the researcher via the educational resources available on their websites and from past conferences that were held. The researcher was known to several of these participants due to past interactions at conferences and events. Contact was made with additional participants through their shared networks.

The greatest ethical dilemma for employees was that they were at risk of criticizing their own organisation during interviews. Employees were made aware that the focus of this study was not to criticize their organisation but to understand how students engaged with the humanitarian topics that they support. Questions were asked positively to suggest areas for expansion or improvement, i.e. “ideally what would you like to be doing in this area”, therefore giving participants the opportunity to discuss what they would like to see happening for their organisation in an ideal world.

Another consideration was made when discussing the funding of organisations. The funding of the case study organisations was not the focus of this research and that was made clear to the organisations involved. General information was used to distinguish how they were funded, i.e. publicly through the government or councils versus privately by beneficiaries and donors. The financial records were not asked for or evidence of their funding. End of year reports, that had financial information included, were censored by the organisations before being given to the researcher. At no point was I made aware of who the funders were unless it was publicly available and/or stated on their websites.

**Educational Staff**
Teacher and Senior Leadership Team (SLT), or educational staff, were selected based on their teaching experience at the secondary school level and relationship to the classes participating.

The main ethical consideration was that teachers may have felt that their teaching methods were being called into question or criticized. This was not the purpose of the research and steps were taken to dissuade this belief. Discussions with participants that they are not being judged or their teaching methods measured in anyway. The information is confidential ensuring their anonymity.

To discuss these potentially sensitive subjects, educational staff were informed of the confidentiality of the interview and the wider scope of the research which was not focusing on individual teacher’s performance but the general level of interaction with the topic to better understand the affect this content has on students. They were not asked to pass judgement on school policy and/or their colleagues. During interviews, they were free to choose not to answer questions which they felt uncomfortable with and they were also free to withdraw from the research at any point.

Educational staff may have felt uncomfortable with some of the subject matter or topics (humanitarian issues) that were raised in discussion with the researcher-no one mentioned they were. However, a link to Oxfam’s document on Teaching Controversial Issues was included on the Participant Information Sheet (see Appendix G). I discussed with teachers the resources available on their subject specific association websites (Association for Citizenship Teachers) which provided additional support documents and information.

**Students**

Student participants/classes were selected based on who I was given access to from the gatekeeper of the school (Head Teacher/heads of department). Individual students to be interviewed were chosen based on their willingness to participate and parental support. To best understand their perspective, it was imperative to speak with students to see what they thought as opposed to what adults assumed they thought regarding these issues.
When students are involved in research there are immediate concerns regarding student safeguarding. As I am a fully trained secondary school teacher, part of my teacher training involved courses on safeguarding children. This training has been refreshed and updated during my teaching posts in schools. In October of 2011, I had a Criminal Records Bureau (CRB) check done in the School of Education at the University of Manchester for the specific purpose of conducting research in schools. In preparation for my research, I took methods courses through the School of Education, those being: Education 60531 (Data Generation: Qualitative Methods) and Education 60562 (Qualitative Data Analysis). These courses were invaluable as they would eventually inform my methods for this research.

When interviewing students, I ensured that I was in a public place (classroom, library or departmental staff room) where other adults could view us while not being privy to what the student response was to ensure student confidentiality. Letters were sent home from the school informing parents of research taking place in classroom. They included information regarding observations, focus groups and being interviewed. Students who were going to be interviewed were asked to return the consent forms with their parents’ signatures. Parents who felt uncomfortable with their child’s participation, were asked to state this on the consent form, so they would not be included in the research. Students who were interviewed provided their parental consent as well as consented on their own behalf at the start of the interview. It was made clear to the students, and parents, that they were free to withdraw at any point with no repercussions. This was to uphold the strict ethical standards of working with young people.

As per the British Educational Research Association guidelines (BERA) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child Article 12, which requires “children who are capable of forming their own views should be granted the right to express their views freely in all matters affecting them, (appropriate) with their age and maturity” (BERA, 2011). I facilitated this process, of ensuring their rights to give informed consent, by creating participant information sheets suitable to their age and verbally discussed with the class what participating meant and their rights within the research; this is attached in Appendix H. As stated earlier, it was central to this research to engage with the student voice. There were ethical conditions set in
place by the university with regards to working with children, such as receiving parental consent, every effort was made to ensure the individual agency of the student.

Students may feel uncomfortable with the humanitarian subject matter. They had the choice to opt out of participating. If they opted out they would not have been included in focus groups, interviews and their comments made during observations were not transcribed. If a student was uncomfortable with the subject matter during observations, which was part of the teacher’s course structure, it was managed by the teacher in line with the individual school’s policy allowing for alternative arrangements to be made. All topics were discussed sensitively with students and in line with Oxfam’s guidance on “Teaching Controversial Issues” (Oxfam, 2006). No students chose to opt out of the research.

**Role of the researcher**

Case study research provided a layer of interpretation through the eyes of the researcher which reverberates through the collection of data and the ensuing analysis. This potentially could have had an ethical impact and call in to question the validity and reliability of the research. Merriam states that:

> “Because human beings are the primary instrument of data collection and analysis in qualitative research, interpretations of reality are accessed directly through their observations and interviews. We are thus ‘closer’ to reality than if a data collection instrument had been interjected between us and the participants” (1998: 203).

The main technique that I used in managing this ethical dilemma was to remain transparent with my methods, the process and the voice that I added to these interpretations. The field notes that I made during observations recorded my interpretation of events in real time so that I could make these apparent during my analysis.

**Overall Ethical Management**

The university's protocol for supplying participant information sheets and ensuring voluntary informed consent was followed in line with good practice of academic researchers (Adams et al., 2007; Hunter & Brewer, 2003). As Seidman states:
“Ethical challenges can occur at every step of the research process. It is not possible to identify every situation that may raise an ethical concern...ethical ideals that follow are just that: ideals that are difficult to accomplish in real life, but that offer guidance and encouragement to do the very best we can do” (2013: 139).

The ethical considerations discussed in this chapter are the major points that have been considered during the preparation, implementation and analysis of this research. As a researcher, I have worked towards upholding the deontological ethical standards of my department, university and educational fields.

Conclusion
Chapter 3 has discussed the methods for exploring the student perspective through the instrumental multicase analysis. I introduced the reader to the qualitative instrumental multicase study, explained what the cases are and justified their use in this study. The methods that brought the instrumental multicase study to life were discussed as well as the techniques to strengthen their trustworthiness. The final section detailed the ethical considerations for this research and the mechanisms that were used to ensure the safeguarding of participants and the researcher. This chapter has endeavoured to lay the foundation for understanding the study and the analysis that will come in Parts 3 of this thesis.
Chapter 4: Instrumental Case Studies

Chapter 4 is the final chapter to Part 1 and goes into greater depth regarding the two instrumental cases used in this research: the Youth Philanthropy Initiative and the Schools Linking Network Model United Nations.

After seeing both programmes in action during the earlier scoping study and conducting a thorough analysis of organisational resources and initiatives, it was apparent that they both addressed humanitarian topics and operated throughout England. As mentioned in chapter 3, without limitations this research would have been boundless in its scope. Humanitarian education manifests through endless programmes and classroom initiatives around the country. These cases are used to highlight the ever-present theme of humanitarian education in programmes which are already being run in English schools. Exploring student interactions through these two case study programmes provides a greater level of insight into the students’ and teachers’ moments of humanitarian learning.

These two case studies were chosen based on the engagement of student participants and the diverse approaches to humanitarian learning. The first explores the local perspective through complex social issues, while the second looks directly at global issues by building (or reinforcing) local community relationships. This raised several questions of how they influenced their counterpart, for example:

- In what ways does learning about charity work at a local level initiate a desire to learn about global issues?
- Does learning about global issues encourage students to engage further at their local level?
- Does having a greater depth of knowledge about a topic effect how students develop a connection to the topic?

The dichotomy of local and global perspectives also served to discuss ways to employ humanitarian topics at a variety of levels, potentially allowing greater access for students to these discussions. These case studies offered a balanced inquiry into how humanitarian topics were being taught in England and the impact these topics have on the students who participated.
The subsections of this chapter look individually at each of the two cases. The first, “Local to Global: The Youth Philanthropy Initiative”, focus’ on the immediate local geographic vicinity to the school where students attend. However, this programme represents an international perspective and ethos. The second, “Global to Local: The Schools Linking Network Model United Nations”, takes a School Linking Network twist on the age-old Model United Nations project. This case uses global topics and issues to try to strengthen local networks between students at potentially competing schools or areas where stereotypes and discrimination thrives. The chapter concludes by reiterating the role of these case studies within this research, as well commenting on the future of these types of programmes.

Local to Global: The Youth Philanthropy Initiative using local charities from a global programme

This section of chapter 4, Local to Global, discusses the Youth Philanthropy Initiative programme in greater depth. YPI “engages young people in social change and empowers them to participate in the growing of compassionate communities” (GoYPI, 2013). Their ethos was focused predominantly on students engaging with their local community. When a school enrolled to participate in YPI all students in the year group nominated were expected to take part in the project. YPI was integrated, to varying extents, within the academic course, being taught in the class by their regular teachers. These schools were supported by YPI regional facilitators who were on hand at various points throughout the programme to provide guidance and act as a direct connection to the organisation. The YPI Process is shown in figure 3. To summarise, students divide into small groups, identify a social issue which they felt was important to them and their community, research local charities which addressed this issue, choose a single charity to support, then contact that charity and visit them. Students then created presentations in the hope of winning £3,000 for their chosen charity. The £3,000 went directly to the charity to use as the charity saw fit. The underpinning of the programme was that charities must be local to the community and not part of large-scale national or international programmes.
The following sections first explore the origin and ethos of the programme. It then goes on to discuss how YPI engages students specifically where a global programme focuses on local projects. Closer consideration is then undertaken which debates whether an international programme can fit in globalised classrooms, i.e. does one size fit all. The final thoughts of this section revolve around the future of YPI in England.

**Origin and Ethos**

The Youth Philanthropy Initiative (YPI) is the brain child of Julie Toskan-Casale of the Toskan Casale Foundation. The Toskan Casale Foundation consists of three directors, Julie Toskan-Casale, her husband Victor Casale and her brother Frank Toskan. They created M.A.C. Cosmetics in 1984. This brand was eventually bought out by Estée
Lauder in 1994. Using the international flagship of Estée Lauder, the M.A.C. brand grew to being sold in 86 countries around the world (Estée Lauder, 2013). The Toskan Casale Foundation was launched in 2001 and reflected the “passion and beliefs of its three Directors” (Toskan, 2014). During an interview with one of the directors of the Toskan-Casale Foundation, they reminisced about an experience when visiting Buenos Aires where their passion for philanthropy took hold (Toronto, 2014). Realising there was little that could be done to help the community they were in at the time they left with a determination to give back and wanting to engage more with philanthropy. They realised that “in order to create change it needs to come from within the community”. This was where the first ideas for YPI began to take shape.

“YPI’s story begins in 2002, but its values are rooted in the experience of the MAC AIDS Fund, when values-driven decisions were made to engage and empower the public to stand up for some of the most vulnerable members of our communities.

YPI’s model began as a humble yet elegant idea: to strengthen support for local social issues by empowering young people to determine where grant dollars would be best put to use in their own communities” (GoYPI, 2015).

The Toskan Casale Foundation awards all grants yearly through the schools participating in YPI.

The programme made its debut in 2002 at a school in Toronto Canada, the city where the international headquarters is based. Since this time, YPI has run in hundreds of schools throughout Canada, the United States, England, Scotland and Northern Ireland. This programme has “granted over $6 million in Canada alone, and continues to grant approximately $1 million each year on behalf of participating YPI students” (YPI, 2014). Globally, over 400,000 students have participated and over $12 million has been granted to charities (GoYPI, 2015). In 2006, the programme was expanded to England where the delivery partner was the Institute for Philanthropy. Funding partners included CreditSuisse, Pears Foundation, the Cabinet Office, the Social Action Fund, Capital Shopping Centres, Four Acre Trust, UBS & the Schroder Foundation (Partners & Donors, 2013).
I encountered YPI being taught in one of the secondary schools that I observed in the early stages of my PhD research. The philanthropic engagement this programme strived to broach with secondary students across a year group was pedagogically unique and the large grant (£3,000) afforded to a charity from each participating school was unparalleled in the humanitarian sector in England. Due to these two factors, I wanted to explore how students engaged with humanitarian topics through this programme.

Paramount to the YPI ethos and the foundation of the programme is “community development achieved through youth engagement” (GoYPI, 2015). Centripetal to their programme is not necessarily engaging students with philanthropic education but lies in awarding the $5,000/£3,000 grant to worthwhile local charities through youth engagement. The £3,000 grant goes directly to the winning charity. There was a section in the student presentations devoted to finding out how the grant money would be spent, however, there was no proviso on charities to use the money in this way. I was able to conduct a group interview with the head office including one of the partners in Toronto Canada in 2014. It was clear from the start of my interaction with the Canadian group that the principal objective for this programme was to award grants to deserving local charities with the education of students taking a secondary role to this goal. In the next section of this chapter I will discuss in greater detail how YPI defines the eligibility for charities to receive a grant and how this may be challenging for students.

Engaging Students: A global programme focusing on local projects

This section explains how YPI, a global programme, engages students on a local level and with local charities. There are several benefits and challenges when implementing YPI in England. This section will discuss the parameters of participation for schools, charities, as well as the role of the student in choosing deserving charities.

The first factor in engaging students through YPI is that the entire year group must participate for the school to be eligible to receive the grant. The model needs approximately ten classroom hours and is suggested to be run over four to six weeks (Toskan Casale Foundation, 2016). This is a significant amount of classroom time for
Teachers. To run it across a year group, multiple teachers participate and some of these may not be entirely receptive to the programme. For example, in one participating school the programme was run in all Religious Studies classes, however, not all the teachers read the material and engaged with it to the same extent as other teachers. Having an entire year group participate also saw some students who were not willing participants having to go through the motions of the programme. This was potentially at the detriment to others due to inattention or disruptive classroom behaviour. Alternatively, exposing an entire year group to philanthropic education, in the form of YPI, potentially engaged groups of students who would not normally connect with their local charities or philanthropic ideas. Arguably, when implemented effectively, this model has the potential to affect an entire year group of students and numerous teachers are exposed to teaching about local philanthropic and humanitarian topics.

The second strand of YPI were the local charities that were eligible to receive the funding grant. YPI was a global programme with an incredibly narrow focus on the local charitable community. The novelty of the programme is that students who represent the community are those who decide what charities are constituted as deserving to receive the funding grant. There were several factors to ensure a charity was eligible. These included:

- **Registered:** The organisation must be a registered charity in your country.

- **Community-based:** The charity must benefit the student’s local community. Students could use a charity that had national branches; however, they had to represent the *local* branch.

- **Social:** “The charity has to provide social services. This means the charity provides immediate assistance to those with basic needs and promotes the well-being of people”.

- **Local:** “The charity provides support and services directly to people in the local community... ‘Local’ does not imply a set geographical boundary. Consider a values-based rationale for ‘local’: YPI students are encouraged to research a charity they can visit independently and would be able to stay involved with, to see the impact they’re able to make in their own community”.

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- **Provide social services directly:** The grant is intended to “help charities directly meet local peoples’ needs... Fundraising events and advertising are *not* examples of social services being provided directly to people” (Toskan Casale Foundation, 2015).

Charities that were excluded from participating included those working in the environmental sector, International aid/development organisations, animal sector as well as medical research/equipment (Toskan Casale Foundation, 2015). Therefore, a charity may be excluded if they were a local branch of a national charity, regardless of whether they receive any support from the national charity. The local aspect of the guidelines, as discussed with the Canadian group, was designed to try to encourage smaller charities as the recipients. Three thousand pounds can go further in a small grassroots charity than it would in a national charity, and the organisers wanted to ensure the money would make a difference. However, in some areas of the country there were prominent research hospitals specialising in children's cancer, a topic multiple student groups wanted to support. Unfortunately, since the hospital also conducted research it was not considered to be social in nature, and therefore excluded. Student groups who recognised this could find alternative charities supporting the hospital which instead focused on patient support. For example, social approaches to healthcare included housing for the families of ill children or make-a-wish programmes for ill children. Another example were student groups who wanted to help animal related charities. These were ruled out as they do not help people. Again, some of these groups represented charities that combined both animal and human service users, such as guide dogs or pets as therapy charities. The parameters set out by YPI inherently narrowed the charitable options available for students. This fulfils the remit of YPI but may discourage some students from fully supporting their charity as it was not their first choice.

The third aspect of students engaging with YPI, are the students themselves. The role of the student has been mentioned in the previous paragraphs but not how they determined what they valued. The YPI Values Tree image is an example of the values that students were asked to rank from most important to least important. This was meant to help guide them in their decision-making process towards identifying what values were important to them and ultimately which charities represented these values. The values included on the Values Tree were created by YPI Canada and were
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used as the cornerstone for the programme, with students tasked with identifying a potential charity that they would support.

However, I was interested to know if, where students participating have not engaged with the educational background of philanthropy, it is possible for them to pick “deserving” charities, or are they simply following the formula set out by YPI. Therefore, the engagement with philanthropic education and the effectiveness of the 4-6 week programme is limited. For example, speaking to some student groups, the charities they chose seem to have more to do with geographic location and what they thought would be easiest to research not which topic or charity they felt strongly affiliated with. This factor, combined with the previous parameters of the programme, saw some student groups participating in the programme without necessarily engaging with the material or the wider philanthropic ethos.

There were various challenges and opportunities to engage students through YPI. The difficulties appeared to arise out of the strict parameters on the charities and the varying levels of teacher/student enthusiasm for the programme. YPI had the potential to engage with entire year groups on important issues which were meaningful to their local communities. The potential for widespread success was there, but the ability to achieve it varied and may have been lost in transit across the Atlantic.
Does one size fit all?

A national programme will face multiple challenges when it is being replicated on a global scale. The next few paragraphs discuss some of the challenges and opportunities in trying to reach a global audience.

Challenges

A programme which was designed in Canada has encountered hurdles in replicating effectiveness when it expanded globally. The most significant similarity across all participating countries is that the programme that is offered is identical regardless of where it is run. It was made clear, during the group interview with one of the directors and the head office team, that the programme works just the way it is and it is not necessary to change it, stating “we don’t need to create it differently; we give teachers the opportunity to tweak it” (Toronto, 2014). It was up to teachers to determine where it fits best in their school or classroom.

In Canada, this programme is largely associated with the Civics course. From my experience in England, YPI has struggled to find its home in the curriculum. Each school finds a different place for it and in some cases, this was dependent upon an eager teacher who wanted to run the course introducing it through their department. Subjects where it was taught in England include: Geography, Religious Studies, Citizenship, Information Technology (IT), Morning Registration and Business Studies. There were several difficulties in the class choice where this programme was delivered. For example, Citizenship was no longer a mandatory subject for entire year groups to participate in and therefore was not necessarily appropriate to run YPI according to the mandate of the programme. Similarly, holding YPI during the morning registration did not meet the mandate of the programme, but in this school, they struggled to find any other place for it to fit where all of the students were involved. Finally, like Citizenship, Business Studies is an optional course thus not necessarily appropriate as it did not reach the whole year group. When YPI crossed the Atlantic and arrived in England it did not have a home to slot itself neatly into. Instead, it was implemented on an ad hoc basis depending on the school and their needs. This made it more difficult to tailor the programme to individual subject needs or expectations.
I also found teachers in different subject areas struggled to teach the ideas and vocabulary that were discussed throughout the programme, such as “grass-roots” and “registered social service”. I am not implying that certain subjects should have a monopoly on running the programme, however, the way it was constructed suits subjects like Civics in Canada or Government/Citizenship/Religious Studies in England. These are subjects where charity is discussed in the curriculum and the teachers already had an understanding with the topics. The former director of YPI England discussed this issue in greater detail, stating:

“(Schools) run it wherever they can, so sometimes you will sit-in a teacher information session and you’ll be delivering training to Citizenship teachers and R.E. teachers, all of whom get it, want to run with it and more importantly feel confident in delivering it. And then in another school you’ll be sat in front of the Geography teacher, the History teacher, the P.E. teacher, the Special Educational Needs Coordinator and they might really like it, but they’re not as engaged with it immediately...naturally they don’t have that same engagement because it’s not what they do every day and they’re being told to run it as an additional project. They may well warm to it and they may well end up loving it but that’s not where they start from”.

For the programme to be taught in Business Studies it needs to be tweaked substantially for teachers to justify it fitting into their academic curriculum. One justification included that YPI encouraged students to develop their presentation skills. The organisers of YPI England have struggled to find a home for the programme in the curriculum and this hindered their ability to give the necessary support for teachers across the subjects they engaged with. A poignant statement from the former director of YPI England summed up this challenge: “sometimes you wish that the government hadn’t constrained the schools so they could have the best suited teachers delivering it”.

Personally, having taught in the US, Scotland, and England—three out of the five participating countries—and exploring the full YPI teaching programme, I would find it necessary to tweak the material and the programme significantly for each individual country to fit with state/national standards. There is an enormous amount of pressure on teachers to meet and exceed expectations; whether that is Ofsted coming in to observe or the exams students take (the Regents exams in NY, the
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International Baccalaureate exams or the GCSEs. Teachers needed to see how this programme fits into the overall mandate of their course and that it enhanced their students' abilities.

Furthermore, the scoping study of my PhD research turned up moments of humanitarianism lost in translation. Within each country they have jargon which discussed the same topics or ideas through the use of different words. For example, service-learning in the US is similar to active learning in England. One of the vocabulary words I stated above, “registered social service”, is what would be called a “registered charity” in England and Scotland. Translating the material for students would take time and was difficult for teachers not familiar with the concepts to begin with.

Ultimately, the effectiveness and success of the programme was dependent upon the teachers delivering it, as discussed by one of the YPI England employees. If they simply stuck to the teacher resources provided by YPI they struggled to meet the needs of their students in many cases. Teacher enthusiasm and engagement with the topic differs within every department, and thus every school, resulting in variances in the educational experience for students while participating in YPI.

Benefits

However, there are also several benefits for schools and students in participating in this programme, for example: engaging with local charities, connecting with social issues and awarding a significant sum of money to a grassroots organisation. Learning about and researching local charities across an entire year group had the potential to embed this type of community engagement throughout the school if it was run over consecutive years. Finally, the culmination of student hard work was through the £3,000 grant awarded to the “winning” group and charity. This monetary award was guaranteed to every school that participated. Schools that signed up to YPI benefited from the positive press this garnered as well as the real difference this sum of money made to some of the smaller charities. In Part 3, I will discuss the implications of student engagement with YPI in far greater depth regarding the student perspective, however the implications of this engagement were largely beneficial for students who did effectively participate.
Future of YPI

The year in which this research was conducted coincided with the final year that YPI England took place. Unfortunately, due to the nature of this endeavour it was financially unsustainable within England. Unlike Scotland and Canada who both had primary donors, in the Wood Foundation and the Toskan-Casale Foundation respectively, they could fill any funding gaps which may arise to ensure the continued success of the projects. YPI England consisted of an amalgamation of donors each driven by their own motivations for donating to YPI England. Each year was a struggle to guarantee the necessary funding available to continue the programme. Ultimately the project was limited in the number of schools that could engage in England due to available funds.

There were several benefits and challenges in engaging students with philanthropic initiatives and exposing students to humanitarian education. The English chapter of YPI has now concluded the programme; however, that does not spell the end to this form of philanthropic education. There are other organisations which provide similar programmes that address some of the shortcomings of the global franchise. Specifically, they have decreased the prize amount to allow more schools to get involved and linked specifically to the English curriculum with Ofsted tested lesson plans.

Global to Local: The Schools Linking Network Model United Nations using a global perspective to enhance local connections

This section discusses how the Schools Linking Network Model United Nations uses global perspectives to enhance local communities. SLN-MUN is a programme where select students from individual schools, within similar geographic locations in England, came together to explore global issues. SLN-MUN stated that their aim was “to engage students...in current world affairs while providing them with the opportunity to explore the four key questions— ‘Who am I? Who are we? Where do
we live? How do we all live together?—which form the basis of all SLN teaching” (SLN-MUN, 2012). Students were linked to those in surrounding schools to form inter-school delegations that represented countries in the United Nations. They researched their country and the global issue up for debate. Topics varied each year and throughout the SLN-MUN participating districts. The SLN-MUN events were led by SLN advisors who facilitated the events and coordinated the participating schools. Teachers engaged to varying extents across the programmes. Issues that have been debated include: the global refugee crisis, climate change, achieving universal primary education, disarmament and eradicating extreme poverty/hunger (SLN-MUN, 2012). The primary aim of SLN-MUN was for students from different schools to work together to discuss and tackle difficult issues.

This section begins with an introduction to the programme and explores its origin and ethos. A discussion then follows which highlights how SLN-MUN engages students, specifically the differences between SLN-MUN and the classic Model United Nations format. The final discussion addresses the future of SLN-MUN. Following this a conclusion offers a brief comparison between the two case study programmes.

Origin and Ethos

The Schools Linking Network is a national charity which “supports schools and communities to develop a positive, cohesive ethos by helping children and young people and adults to explore their identity, celebrate diversity, champion equality and develop dialogue” (SLN, 2015). SLN is based in Bradford England but had programmes running in primary and secondary schools in thirteen local authorities across England, including Greater Manchester and one of the Home Counties which were used for this case study. The Home Counties describes the eight counties that surround London. When referring to the Home Counties I am discussing the single county within this area which participated in this research. The Schools Linking Network Model United Nations (SLN-MUN) began in 2008 and is just one of the activities that they run in secondary schools. This programme made its debut in the Home Counties case study in 2011 as well as in Greater Manchester.

The SLN-MUN programme both in Great Manchester and in one of the Home Counties both attempted to build peace between thirteen and fourteen-year-old
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students in neighbouring schools through using complex global issues. Throughout the course of the SLN-MUN programme, students are expected to consider all facets that together construct present discourse held at the United Nations and similar bodies. They were encouraged to consider the social, economic, political, cultural, historical, environmental and ethical aspects surrounding controversial issues that were debated at the international level.

Engaging Students: Differences from typical Model United Nations programmes

SLN-MUN is based off a typical Model United Nations programme but offers its own approach when engaging with students. The following paragraphs explore some of the key differences, such as the linking aspect and adult mentors as well as the similarities, such as the topics debated which reflect relevant UN debates and the format.

The Schools Linking approach to their programme encouraged students from different schools to work together towards a common project, in this case Model United Nations. The SLN-MUN twist on a typical Model United Nations programme is that each group consisted of students from different schools in the borough; therefore, no group had more than one student from any school. The Schools Linking aspect of this project was to foster community cohesion and tackle the underlying questions of:

- Who am I?
- Who are we?
- Where do we live?
- How do we all live together?” (SLN, 2015).

These questions formed the core ethos of the SLN programme. Thus, unlike other MUN projects which are often competitive in nature, pitting school against school, the SLN-MUN model was more focused on fostering team building between students

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4 A brief history of Model United Nations: “Today, MUN recreates the debate of a range of diplomatic forums, including inter-governmental bodies such as the UN General Assembly, regional organisations such as the European Council and judicial bodies such as the International Criminal Court…Each participant or ‘delegate’ represents the viewpoint of a single Member State of the United Nations, researching that country’s policy and advocating these views to other delegates. The debate is controlled using conventions and rules based on those used at genuine international summits. The objective is always to reach consensus and pass a resolution of the international community’s response to a particular area of concern”. Typically, country delegations are all members of the same school/institution (SLN MUN Delegate Handbook, 2013).
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators from different backgrounds. The primary focus of SLN-MUN was on team building, communication, and networking as opposed to ‘outwitting’ or ‘politically out manoeuvring’ the other teams. Whilst awards were given at the end of the programme for example, ‘Best Team Performance’ or ‘Best Position Paper’, care was given to ensure that prizes were awarded throughout the teams and that the rewards focused on cooperation and support of colleagues or leadership roles within teams in the case of individual awards.

SLN-MUN was facilitated by adults who acted as mentors for each student group. The two case study programmes differed in who they used as mentors. The Greater Manchester programme had a partnership with the Humanitarian and Conflict Response Institute at the University of Manchester where Master level students facilitated the student groups. My role as a PhD student was to oversee the MA interaction with student groups. Meanwhile the Home Counties case study utilized the secondary school teachers to mentor student groups. The Master students, in general, had more involvement with student groups during face to face meetings, leading their small groups in enhanced discussions surrounding the topics. However, the virtual learning environment (VLE) was more successfully implemented in the Home Counties programme. The Home Counties teachers were responsible for checking in with their groups and would encourage students from their school to log on regularly, whereas in Greater Manchester encouraging school student engagement on the VLE was a constant struggle.

Students met in their groups on four occasions throughout the spring. On the first three occasions students got to know one another, develop a bond as a team, and learn about the issue at hand. Students were expected to conduct research regarding the country they represented and compile this into a “country profile”. They were also tasked with creating a “position paper” where they expressed the stance that their designated country took in relation to the topic at hand, justification for their stance and a proposed course of action the international community should take in addressing the issue. On the final debate day, students remained in character as delegates of their country, and debated the topic at hand with the intention of writing and passing, a resolution.
One of the key similarities between SLN-MUN and a typical MUN format were the type of topics posed for debates. These topics largely reflected debates heard at the United Nations to provide students with a clear understanding of how the international system worked. SLN-MUN offered a unique insight into the use of controversial topics as the programmes running in both case study areas were based around a core format every year with only the topic changing. As both programmes were in place for at least five years they had been able to use several different topics. A few of the topics overlapped between the two programmes and some were more successful than others. SLN-MUN topics reflected a variety of issues and varying degrees of controversy were associated with each of these. A typical MUN programme and the SLN-MUN programme both strived to recreate a UN General Assembly. Modelling the UN General Assembly inherently came with conflicting opinions of the countries that were represented. The programme organisers coordinated the topics to deliver through teaching sessions on the topic or sourcing outside speakers to come in to lead workshops. Students were in a position where they had to learn about a topic, decide what their opinion was and, in some cases, argue an opposing argument as they represented a country that held a different view from their own. As one of the organisers from the Home Counties SLN-MUN case study stated during their interview:

“It...helps them understand world’s issues from different perspectives which may be different from their own world’s views. Give them an opportunity to step out of their own comfort zone and see the world from another country’s perspective”.

Topics over the past five years have included: human trafficking, weapons of war, freedom of expression, refugees, HIV/Aids, extreme poverty and hunger, refugees and forced displacement, nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation, reaffirming the role of the UN and global governance.

These topics were met with inconsistent levels of student enthusiasm. For example, the topics of freedom of expression and weapons of war were topics delivered in Greater Manchester during my time working with SLN-MUN. These topics, while important on the global stage, were too abstract for students to relate to and during the process a few students struggled to engage. The final SLN-MUN debate days always had a high level of success. The success on the final debate is largely
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attributed to student passion and enthusiasm for the debate while representing what they learned. Topics that elicited the strongest student responses included: human trafficking, refugees, extreme poverty and hunger as well as refugees and forced displacement. One teacher responded in the 2015 Greater Manchester SLN-MUN Evaluation stating, they "thought that the human trafficking theme was very relevant and effective in stimulating pupils' interest. While the nuclear issue...was interesting it was a bit too hypothetical and not as close to the students’ lives or in the news as the trafficking one" (Cropper et al, 2015).

Ultimately, SLN-MUN differed from a typical MUN programme through their engagement with students and through linking students from different schools in the community. This combined with the use of mentors who facilitated the group allowed the SLN-MUN programme to appeal to students across the academic spectrum while engaging with students from their community who they would not normally encounter.

Future of SLN-MUN

The future of the SLN-MUN programme is almost entirely dependent upon the Council and Local Authority to ensure funding. Unfortunately, the Greater Manchester SLN-MUN has since ceased operating due to funding cuts.

The Greater Manchester SLN-MUN programme that participated in this case study successfully ran from 2011 until 2015. Unfortunately, the decision was made in January 2016 to discontinue the programme, as portions of the funding that helped to ensure the continued implementation of the course were reallocated directly to schools instead of to the council. While the schools found the SLN-MUN programme to be beneficial for their students, they believed they could more effectively reallocate the funding. This was disappointing for the organisers as it was not expected to occur at the time. As one of the organisers and an individual who has been involved since the 2011 debut in Greater Manchester, it was not surprising that funding was reduced from the council. Each year discussions were held to explore the feasibility of continuing the programme for another year. With the programme only directly affecting eight to ten students per school, the cost to schools was higher than some were willing to contribute.
The Home Counties SLN-MUN programme does not charge schools to participate and has a larger programme embedded in the local schools. However, this does not necessarily translate to long-term implementation of the programme. For example, if funding within the council is scaled back or redistributed, the organisers of the programme may find that their job descriptions change to no longer include SLN-MUN as one of their remits or the funds could potentially be spent elsewhere.

Ultimately, a programme which is funded by the council should remain relevant to their motivations and the changing political climates. Chapter 6 will discuss the political nature of the curriculum and how this affects funding available.

**Conclusion**

Chapter 4 has been designed to discuss in greater detail the instrumental case studies which are central to this research. This chapter has explored the origins and ethos of each programme and how they engage students. The challenges to implementation and the future of the programmes have also been discussed. The two case studies were chosen based on their ability to explore how students engaged with humanitarian topics through several platforms. Through using two programmes which were intrinsically different and detached from the typical educational material produced by NGOs the essence of humanitarian education could be seen operating on a local basis. These cases are not designed to represent an exhaustive study of humanitarian education, as I argued in chapter 3, the scope of which would be unmanageable for this research. Instead they offer insight into how students engage with humanitarian topics. The contrasting methods that each organisation employed allows me to demonstrate that humanitarian education does not have to be a one size fit all to influence students.

The future of both programmes has largely reflected the financial climate which charities regularly work within. YPI England and SLN-MUN Greater Manchester were both successfully implemented for several years and appeared embedded into several of the academic school structures. However, they were not fiscally viable for long term programming. Both programmes had to justify their work and their
continued existence within the sphere where they operated. Unfortunately, for YPI and SLN-MUN Greater Manchester the resources were seen to be better spent elsewhere. Programmes like those included in this case study are dependent on financing to continue their work. However, the impetus to create these types of programmes continues and I have been able to see new initiatives take shape to fill the gaps of the previous programming.
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Part 1 Conclusion

Part 1, *Deconstructing humanitarian education*, has provided a thorough introduction to this thesis by discussing the key foundational principles which drove this research. Chapter 1 began by discussing what humanitarianism in the classroom is. This chapter broadly discussed what humanitarianism is, how these themes are represented in secondary education and how humanitarian education would be defined within this thesis. The second chapter went on to discuss the role of the student perspective, highlighting the importance of the student voice. The third chapter deconstructed the methodological approach and a justification for using the qualitative instrumental multicase study was given which showed why this method would be most beneficial for this research. The approaches to trustworthiness taken within this research were discussed to provide a more robust qualitative research study. The final portion of the third chapter discussed the ethical considerations that were included prior to the research commencing, throughout data collection and the writing up period. Chapter 4 concluded the first part of this thesis by providing a more thorough introduction to the two case studies. The origins and ethos of both YPI and SLN-MUN were discussed. Consideration was paid to how each of these programmes engaged students and what the future of each of these programmes were. Chapter 4 concluded by reiterating the integral role they play in this research and the challenges they face to survive.

Part 1 has been designed to be the foundation for this thesis. It grounds the concept of humanitarian education both in the humanitarian and educational fields as well as justifies the methodological approaches. It provides a multifaceted introduction to several key aspects that informed the design of this research. It contributes to the wider discussion by creating a foundational base for the ensuing discussions which surround the external factors influencing the direction of humanitarian education in Part 2 and provides a clear understanding of the methods used that informed Part 3 where the student perspective is explicitly discussed. The conclusion to this thesis includes wider discussions surrounding the implications of the student perspective and future research into this field of education.
Part 2 consists of two chapters which discuss external factors that influence the inclusion of humanitarian topics in secondary schools. These chapters recount the national climate at the time of this research to give a more complete understanding of the concerns that teachers and programme organisers voiced and ultimately how this effects the student experience when learning. It was this climate, seen first during the scoping study, that led to two additional research questions being considered:

- What is the role of NGOs in supporting schools’ humanitarian aims?
- How does the politics of schooling shape the possibilities and limits of humanitarian education?

Chapters 5 and 6 work towards answering these questions and understanding the external factors that influence the climate within schools.

Chapter 5 concentrates on how humanitarians engage with secondary school students by exploring in depth approaches—the British Red Cross’ Humanitarian Education, Citizenship Education and the Global Dimension—mentioned in chapter one, a discussion of the leading methods used to teach humanitarian subjects and the role of NGOs in supporting schools. This chapter begins with the ABC’s of humanitarian resources in the classroom and finishes with a section discussing the leading methods found within these resources.

Chapter 6 explores the political nature of the national curriculum and specifically how this influences the conduits conveying humanitarian topics. The chapter begins with a brief introduction to British politics, which provided a backdrop to this research. The chapter then goes on to explore the historical nature of the curriculum discussing its creation and background as well as trends that have shaped its direction. This leads to the current nature of the Curriculum and ultimately how this influences the teaching of humanitarian topics. The conclusion of Part 2 has a robust discussion of where the humanitarians and politicians meet.
Chapter 5: Humanitarians engaging students

This chapter discusses how humanitarians, those who “have an instinct to help another in distress”, engaged with secondary school students at the time this research was undertaken. This chapter takes the opportunity to discuss and engage with multiple humanitarian resources and approaches which are readily available to schools.

It is important to stress that the material in this chapter does not intend to unduly criticize any of the organisations which are engaging with students, but instead highlight the strengths of the resources available and make sense out of humanitarian motivations. Educators are faced with a myriad of opportunities to engage with these topics but with limited time it is difficult for teachers to wade through the tide of paperwork to find the resources that are right for their students. This chapter explores those resources, compares similar methodological approaches and finally discusses the humanitarian motivations so that educators can make informed decisions about how to engage in this field. It demonstrates that there are resources and organisations offering educational material to be used in secondary schools. Many of these resources were observed during the scoping study and during the primary research. It is important to understand how humanitarian organisations are engaging with students to see how it may be improved or supported further.

The ABC’s of humanitarian resources in the classroom

The aim of this section is to explore how humanitarian topics are being taught in secondary schools within England, taking the form of humanitarian education. Humanitarian education, as defined in chapter 1, is how the message of ‘humanitarianism’, the promotion of humanity and human welfare, is being taught to students. Humanitarian education should act symbiotically within and between academic subjects, as well as community and global projects, to encourage the development of the students’ sense of the world. Humanitarian education is a
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A multifaceted concept which is applicable to a wide range of subject areas, including: history, geography, economics, political science, government, sociology, citizenship, science and maths. This broad appeal to reach students across subject areas is supported by the numerous organisational resources which provide extension activities for individual subjects. The application of these activities within a single subject is relatively straightforward for teachers to use, however as mentioned in previous paragraphs, teachers are limited in finding the resources due to time constraints and the breadth of material available. However, the implementation of interdisciplinary approaches (across subject areas) is challenging within school settings due to curriculum and time restraints. The majority of NGOs (and Governmental organisations like the Department for International Development) offer quality in-depth resources for teachers to use within their classrooms.

This section explores the contributions being made by humanitarian organisations to expand this type of knowledge across disciplines and consider the importance of humanitarian education in student development. The discussion is organised into three groups: topic specific organisations; those that discuss multiple topics or have a wide-scale approach to their resources; and finally, partnership initiatives for teaching topics. The first highlights those organisations that focus on specific topics or are limited in their resources or remit. The second group of organisations are those that offer a more holistic approach to humanitarian education, covering a variety of topics or have extensive resources across topics. The third looks at resources that are produced through partnership initiatives across organisations.

**Topic Specific Organisational Resources**

Within the humanitarian field organisations will have specific remits within their ethos or charter that defines the boundaries in which they work. These boundaries vary depending on the organisation, their ethos, funding and resources. The educational resources that several organisations produce reflect the responsibilities they undertake in the wider humanitarian context. This section explores those organisations that produce educational resources that are parallel to their mandate and limited in the topics that they discuss. Some of these organisations are restricted in their scope but provide rich insight into the field in which they work. The example
organisations that are discussed are: Amnesty International, WaterAid and Save the Children.

Amnesty International is a large organisation with a specific focus on human rights education. They offer a wide variety of resources on their website, including teaching resources, email newsletters for teachers, speakers, teacher training to become an ‘Amnesty teacher’, how to create a youth group in schools and how to stand up for human rights (Amnesty International, 2014). For example, the image displayed in figure 4 shows the covers of two of their teaching resources aimed at “Teaching Citizenship through Human Rights” (AI, 2009). The cover on the left is a 180-page guide for teachers of Key Stage 4 in Northern Ireland, while the one on the right contains 134 pages for Key Stage 3 Citizenship teachers in England. These resources provide a thorough guide for teachers to use when teaching Human Rights Education in their Citizenship classes. They utilise the expertise of Amnesty International in this field to discuss key topics for students to engage with. The scale of Amnesty International’s organisation has also allowed country specific resources to coincide with the individual National Curriculums.

WaterAid is an organisation which endeavours to “work with local partners to deliver clean water and toilets and promote good hygiene, and campaign to make change happen for everyone everywhere” (WaterAid, 2016a). Sanitation and hygiene are not the most glamorous aspects of humanitarian work, one which does not get publicity by celebrities digging latrines. However, it is fundamental to disaster response and an aspect of humanitarian initiatives which are important for students to engage with. WaterAid offers a variety of resources to support the delivery of educational material including speakers and workshops, films, games and songs as well as fundraising challenges (WaterAid, 2016b).
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Save the Children is a bit of a misnomer in saying that it is a charity with a specific topic focus, as their remit is to “save children’s lives...fight for their rights...help them fulfil their potential” (Save the Children, 2016a). It has been included in this section due to their focus on children. Throughout this research I found that students empathetically relate to their peers when learning about humanitarian topics, this will be discussed in chapters 7, 8 and 9. Therefore as an educator it may be easier to start with children being the focus of a topic and how additional factors affect them. It is a large-scale organisation that covers a variety of topics, is involved in a great deal of research and informs national and international policies. It does not provide a school or teacher accessible portion of their website dedicated to fitting in with the curriculum or searching via subject area. However, within the resource library educators do have access to a range of teaching resources to use.

These organisations are examples of those that have a clear intention when engaging with humanitarian issues, whether that is through human rights, access to clean water and sanitation or the wider mandate of children. There are countless organisations that focus on a single issue when engaging with humanitarian topics; these vary from campaigns for nuclear disarmament to the effects of landmines and explosive weapons (Mines Advisory Group; Handicap International). The majority of these organisations offer a variety of resources from school speakers to teaching materials, films, or posters to “help bring these topics alive” (Handicap International 2016).

**Wide-Scale Approaches to Organisational Resources**

This section highlights those organisations that have the capabilities to engage with multiple humanitarian topics and offer educational resources that discuss these. These organisations tend to be larger in nature, have a wider remit or have access to
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greater resources. The organisations that are discussed in this section include: the British Red Cross, Oxfam, and ActionAid.

The British Red Cross (BRC) offers a variety of free resources through their Humanitarian Education program. Their website can be searched topically, through school subjects or by what is in the news (BRC, 2016). They also have a section entitled “Teacher resources” which includes everything from lesson plans and quick activities to assembly kits, teacher briefings and teaching packages. For example, their Positive Images toolkit, as seen in figure 6, discusses migration and development, including refugees and displaced people, for secondary school students. The BRC provides a strong support network for teachers through the use of peer educators, school speakers or in providing teacher training. Throughout this research, teachers were aware of the British Red Cross and some of the resources that were available. The depth of knowledge regarding the breadth of resources available was variable and depended upon individual teacher interests. The majority of teachers that mentioned the BRC discussed their role in teaching First Aid. One former staff member of the BRC, specifically involved with their Humanitarian Education, described the production of material and the holistic approach they took to education, saying:

“There was a dedicated central team mainly involved in producing resources with an editor. This was only part of the Central Team remit. We also commissioned work from independent writers, one in particular...but some... were teachers. We also produced resources and educational materials in the course of projects or programmes of work with schools and young people and these developed through interaction with them.

NewsThink!, an online resource produced twice a month was (funded) mainly through central BRC funding and there was a team of internal experts to verify the content. There was also a group of teachers who regularly critiqued the resources.
In most cases such as the Allan and Overy Justice and Fairness resource on IHL, pilot sessions were carried out with schools to test the contents, gather feedback from teachers and students, modify/rewrite whatever did not work.”

As you can see from this individual’s response, the BRC had an embedded programme to produce educational materials and provide thorough training on humanitarian topics. Those larger scale organisations have the resources available to make this engagement sustainable.

Oxfam also has a thorough engagement with educational resources and is “proud to be an authority on international development and humanitarian response” (Oxfam, 2015a). Similarly to the BRC, their website offers resources based on age range, topic, global location, language, resource type and by curriculum area (Oxfam, 2016). They also have areas to engage with Global Citizenship, Whole School approaches, Teacher Support and an Education Blog to support the teaching of humanitarian issues. For example, their Global Citizenship Guides provide strategies for teachers to further engage with their students in several areas. One incredibly helpful guide that they produce discusses how to teach what they call “controversial issues”, figure 7. They define controversial issues as “those that have a political, social or personal impact and arouse feeling and/or deal with questions of value or belief” (2006). This guide clearly discusses how teachers can explore these issues with their students in a responsible method. Throughout this research, it was clear that some teachers felt uncomfortable teaching controversial issues and would therefore shy away from some humanitarian topics. This specific guide goes to great lengths in helping teachers feel more comfortable teaching controversial issues, making the topics more accessible for students.
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ActionAid is the smallest of the three organisations with regard to their spending at €227 million (approximately £200 million) compared to Oxfam’s £298.4 million and the BRC’s annual income of £261.8 million (ActionAid, 2015: 29; Oxfam, 2015b: 6; BRC, 2015: 29). In their 2014 annual report, ActionAid described the work they do as:

“work(ing) to end poverty and injustice through purposeful, individual and collective action (partnerships), led by people living in poverty, supported by those willing to stand in solidarity, and through developing and promoting alternatives and campaigns rooted in human rights” (ActionAid, 2015: 8).

As with Oxfam and the BRC, ActionAid offers a variety of educational resources including: lesson plans, workshops, case studies and videos. These are organised based on key stages as well as by topic, country or subject (ActionAid, 2016a). They offer a selection of case studies to use in the classroom when discussing a variety of countries—including Lesotho, Nepal, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Kenya, India—or disaster responses, such as the Nepal Earthquake Update as seen in figure 8. One of the key strengths offered through ActionAid’s resources are the personal stories attached to their resources. They have also brought the personal narratives to one of the partnership initiatives they are involved with, GetGlobal!, which is discussed in the following paragraphs.

Partnership Initiatives

There are a number of resources that have been produced through partnership initiatives or through government funding. These resources utilise the strengths of the individual organisations to provide a multi-faceted approach to teaching of a common theme. The particular programme that is discussed within this section is Get Global!. 
Get Global! is a partnership initiative between the likes of Action Aid, CAFOD (Catholic Agency for Overseas Development), Christian Aid, Oxfam, Save the Children and DFID (Department for International Development). Two of the six partners are faith-based organisations. Faith-based organisations have a vocal role in the humanitarian field and this carries through into the educational arena. Funding was provided across all of these organisations and the expertise of individual groups were also utilised. Get Global! aims to enable “students to participate fully in a global society” with three “core themes”. These are:

1. “To provide an experience of being able to make a difference through action.
2. To develop skills of enquiry, participation and reflection.
3. To develop an understanding of the world as a global community, and to discuss the political, economic, environmental and social implications of this” (ActionAid, 2003: 3).

Within this hefty teachers’ guide, shown in figure 9, the participating organisations lend their expertise to attempt to create a thorough approach to global education. The background to the initiative describes how the methodological foundation for its approach is through participatory rural appraisal techniques (PRA), “developed in less economically developed countries”. The strength of PRA lies in encouraging “people to work together to explore issues relevant to their lives” through a variety of “participatory learning styles” (ActionAid, 2003: 3). One that is emphasised, Reflect, was developed by ActionAid in 1993. This method, “encourages people to analyse the linkages between local issues and wider forces, so the community can influence change at national and global levels” (ActionAid, 2003: 3).

Meanwhile DFID does not seem to offer comprehensive educational resources in the same respect that the BRC or Oxfam do. However, they do fund a number of projects and when a search is conducted on their website you are able to find the resources that have been created in partnership. In June 2009, DFID commissioned a review
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators into their engagement with young people in the UK. The education objectives included:

- “To ensure that global issues are adequately incorporated in curriculum provision and guidance across the UK
- To ensure provision of good materials and resources to facilitate teaching in schools
- To reinforce school-based work through teacher training, inspection and awarding bodies
- To encourage whole school or community-based activities with development focus” (PWC, 2009: 6).

Within this review, they specifically mention that DFID has “funded a number of organisations and initiatives to meet the objectives”, they go on to discuss the “key organisations and initiatives funded” (PWC, 2009: 6). This review found that it was “not possible to establish the effectiveness of impact of DFID funding in terms of outcomes due to a lack of evidence and particularly a lack of end-user feedback” (PWC, 2009: 9). The review found that overall progress had been made with greater implementation of Global Learning in schools, however it found that it offered a “medium to low value for money” (PWC, 2009: 9). Funding has undoubtedly helped the partner organisations in developing their programmes. However if the mandate of the Department of International Development changes this will impact on their ability to continue their programmes. The Department for International Development falls under the political umbrella and the ramifications of the changing political tide will be discussed in chapter 6.

The ABC’s of humanitarian resources in the classroom has highlighted a number of the resources that were available for teachers to use and demonstrated the myriad of material available. There were a few similarities between the organisational resources such as engaging with curriculum goals and the varying degrees of enthusiasm in their approaches to educational resources. These are briefly discussed before continuing to explore some of the leading methods to teach humanitarian subjects.

The organisations that have been highlighted in this chapter have made a conscious effort to engage students with humanitarian topics. Many of the organisations have accompanying guides to show where their teaching resources fit into specific
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sections of the curriculum. As I discussed previously in this chapter Amnesty International produced material for specific age groups and local issues in the UK. Oxfam and the British Red Cross also produce guides regarding how their material meets curriculum key concepts (Oxfam, 2006; BRC, 2011). As discussed in chapter 4, one of the challenges in implementing YPI in England was the rigid structure of the global programme. YPI did not necessarily consider the needs of the local countries when delivering the initiative, therefore making it less accessible for teachers. Amnesty International has considered the individual needs of the teachers that it caters for and the countries they represent. In the next section of this chapter, what are some of the leading methods to teach humanitarian subjects, I will return to these resources to discuss the use of “the local” to connect students to humanitarian topics.

In my view, there is a clear difference between the enthusiasm of organisations when engaging with secondary school students. Those that have been mentioned within this chapter offer varying degrees of useful educational resources. There are other organisations that offer limited educational material to be used by schools in England. For example, when this research began in 2012, Médecins Sans Frontières UK (MSF UK), offered very limited educational resources with the majority of those focusing on the French language. The most recent search of their website has shown a wider selection of educational resources now available, including resources specifically for geography, biology and general background information on MSF UK (MSF, 2016). This is comparatively still incredibly limited with regards to organisations of similar sizes; however there has been a marked improvement over the past four years while this research was undertaken. Other organisations have limited availability of educational resources and the material that is offered to teachers may not be relevant or teacher-friendly. The third group of organisations have gone to great lengths to include education within their mandates, for example the BRC, Oxfam and Amnesty International mentioned in this chapter. These organisations have conducted research into how best to engage with secondary school students; provide relevant and engaging educational material; as well as offer speakers or teacher training to further support student learning. The next section goes on to discuss some of the leading methods that were found across educational resources and organisations.
Leading methods to teach humanitarian subjects

There are multiple methods that humanitarians rely upon when creating educational materials to convey their message or teach particular topics. Three methods have stood out while reviewing the variety of materials available: the use of interactive games; giving a local perspective to global issues; telling a personal case story of someone directly affected. This section of chapter 5 will briefly discuss these methods and how they aid in the delivery of humanitarian education.

Interactive games

Interactive games helped students to engage with, and gain a greater understanding of, the topics they were learning about. Some of these games have been organised and implemented more successfully than others.

For example, Amnesty International’s *The Great Escape*, seen in figure 10, takes an innovative approach, by using controversial scenarios, to discuss refugee issues with secondary school students. Some of the scenarios posed can be upsetting so teachers should be cautious when using this resource and be prepared to fully explore the controversial decisions students are asked to make. However, this game introduced students to the challenging decisions that some refugees had to make on their journey for safety. Proving to be a poignant exploration of their journey and dispelling myths and stereotypes in the process.

Figure 10 (Amnesty International, 2014b)
Using games in the classroom can enhance the student learning experience and encourage them to engage with the topic on a variety of levels. However, some of the games could potentially trivialise the profound nature of the topics. It is therefore important for teachers to read the corresponding notes that accompany the games as well as read Oxfam’s “Teaching Controversial Issues” document. The notes, specifically for Amnesty International’s *The Great Escape*, does well in addressing teacher concerns.

**Local to Global**

Humanitarian organisations also attempt to make global issues feel more local to students when they engage with them. In several resources there are extension questions which have teachers asking how this affects people in their local area. Two examples of making global issues feel more local are discussed below using resources from Oxfam and Amnesty International.

One example of this is an activity created by Oxfam, which discusses sustainable development and links the local and global issues. Figure 11, “Sustainable development: Local to global question time”, includes questions that begin close to home for students, “How does it affect people in your local area?”. These questions then build to introduce a global perspective for students. They are designed to enable students to think globally by beginning at home.

Amnesty International also looks at the local effect of humanitarian issues, specifically those effecting human rights, closer to the student’s home. As discussed previously in this chapter, they focus primarily on Human Rights Education and provide resources for teachers to use. The “Right Here, Right Now”, resource for teachers in England has a lesson to specifically explore human rights in the UK.
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( Amnesty International, 2009a). Similarly, the Northern Ireland resource, “Making Human Rights Real”, has a number of topics dedicated to bringing the human rights to the students’ doorsteps (Amnesty International 2009b). In “Making Human Rights Real”, they highlight seven topics that relate human rights issues directly to students. They begin by having a wider discussion of protecting human rights in Europe, then go on to discuss human rights in the UK. The next five topics explicitly focus on discussing human rights in Northern Ireland, including themes such as: diversity, equality, social justice and democracy (Amnesty International, 2009a: 3). Out of the fifteen topics included in the Northern Ireland resource, a third focus on bringing the issue home to students.

Relating to students is pivotal in helping them to understand topics that may seem foreign, too conceptual or otherwise unrelatable. The research that was undertaken for this thesis also found that the locality of programmes can enable students to engage more effectively. This will be discussed in greater depth in chapter 8 through the empathetic themes, specifically the theme of locality. However, it is important to note that a humanitarian issue does not have to directly relate to a student’s physical place for them to identify with it.

Case Studies

The final method is the use of personal case studies to convey how people are affected by the humanitarian issue. The personal narrative of individuals who have benefited from the help of the organisation or who are in need of help, demonstrate that the “other” person is not as abstract as students may think.

As I mentioned in the previous section of this chapter, ActionAid offer personal narratives in their educational resources. For example, one of their resources, “Refugees – In their own words”, tell the individual stories of refugees fleeing from Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq (ActionAid, 2016c). These stories tell some of the most harrowing moments of their journeys, the reasons why they had to leave and the hopes that they have for their futures. The individuals vary in age, from 19 to 35, but they all have either younger siblings or children travelling with them.
Save the Children resources also include case studies and personal narratives to provide a snapshot of what an issue looks like in areas around the world. For example, one of the case studies explored education in a village in northern Angola. For this story to be told they introduce the reader to a 14-year-old girl who lives in a village where Save the Children supports their education by training teachers. There are several images that accompany the girl’s story detailing her daily routine. The history of her country was discussed in order to understand why this girl’s access to education was hindered and what learning looked like for her. For example, she had to memorise the majority of subjects because her pencil and notepad were only allowed to be used for mathematics and Portuguese (Save the Children, 2016b). Students who are reading this girl’s story in an English classroom will be struck by the stark contrast between her learning experience and their own. While not every student will understand why their experiences are different it will provide insight into how other children live around the world in a way that is difficult to portray without individual narratives.

The overarching similarity between these methods to engage with students is the attempt to illicit an empathetic reaction. Games are a way for students to engage with difficult topics in a way that gets them to identify with the topic and the surrounding issues. In the case of the game, The Great Escape, it also had students making difficult decisions based on situational role-playing. The next method that was discussed looked at bringing a local perspective to global issues. This enables humanitarians to bring a complex and abstract global issue closer to the experiences that students can identify with. The final method utilised the individual narrative of people who have experienced the humanitarian crisis or benefited from organisational help. A number of these stories are told by younger people or those that have children to engage students with empathetic links to their peers. These methods were observed while data was collected for this research. Empathetic themes will be explored in greater depth in Part 3, the Student Perspective and how students engage with humanitarian issues.
Conclusion

Throughout this chapter the ways in which humanitarians engage with secondary school students has been discussed, specifically focusing on the resources that are currently available and the leading methods within those resources. This discussion was designed to introduce the reader to some of the additional approaches to humanitarian education that are available for schools to use. Educators are encouraged to engage with organisations and ask if they offer educational resources for use in the classroom. During this research, the organisations that were contacted for information regarding their educational resources or teacher training were encouraging and inclusive when sharing their material and trying to engage more students on important topics.

The research question that emerged during the scoping study, what is the role of NGOs in supporting schools’ humanitarian aims, has been explored in this chapter. NGOs do have role in supporting schools’ humanitarian aims and many already offer various opportunities for schools to take advantage of. However, there is still more that can be done to fully support teachers and schools through having widespread support among NGOs.
Chapter 6: The political nature of the national curriculum

In this chapter I explore the political nature of the national curriculum in England and how this influences the teaching of humanitarian topics. Throughout the time that this research was collected, analysed and written, there were several challenges to the curriculum arising from a range of political perspectives within the national debates that took place. These proposals and changes had many of the participants commenting on the future of their profession and the direction of learning.

As an outsider to English politics, a review of the political history of the national curriculum was needed to better understand its influence in the classroom. With this agenda as the focus, this chapter is divided into two sections. The first explores the historical political nature of the curriculum, with discussions including the creation of education for all in England and the trends that have shaped the National Curriculum in the past. The second section then goes on to look at the current nature of the curriculum. The conclusion to Part 2, which follows, has an extended discussion of where humanitarians and politicians meet. In this way, the chapter is intended to provide a snapshot of the political pressures that many of the teachers and programme organisers faced when educating students during this research.

Historical Political Nature of the Curriculum

With each political shift in Downing Street, there is an accompanying upheaval to redefine the social, economic and governmental structures. Political parties outline in their manifestos how they think they can do a better job at governing. When it comes to education this is voiced in a desire to increase student achievement in order to compete with those countries, such as Finland, Hong Kong and Singapore, that perform well in the international performance tables, as then Secretary of State, Gove, discussed in the forward to an article by Oates (2011). This political posturing

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5 The United Kingdom consists of four individual nations—England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Each of these has separate governing structures and systems in place. This research has focused on the English political and educational systems.
impacts upon the student learning that takes place due to the uncertainty within the educational framework and its future.

The commitment to education for all in Britain was a part of the post-war socialisation in society (Lawton, 1975; Tomlinson, 2005). While this concept took hold over seventy years ago, it still feels as though the English educational system is struggling to find its identity and the most effective way to achieve its early mandate. This confusion is clear when looking at the role of exams in English education, specifically shifting from O-levels to GCSE’s then returning to O-levels or scrapping them entirely (Watt, 2012; Wilby, 2012). While a historical picture of education for all and the National Curriculum may appear to be miles away from the focus of this research, regarding humanitarian education, it has profound effects on the ability of these topics to be taught in schools across England. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the beginnings of education for all as well as the modern historical shifts, including the introduction of the National Curriculum and the subsequent political reshuffling of it.

Creation of Education for All and the rise of the National Curriculum

Prior to the 1944 Education Act, education in England followed two channels, as Denis Lawton discusses; the first was to educate through public/grammar schools for leadership roles, also seen as the next leaders of society; and the second was to provide basic elementary education to “produce a labour force able to understand simple written instructions and capable of making elementary calculations” (2012: 1). During this time, it was believed that elementary education should not give the lower classes skills or ideas above what was seen as their station in life. Tomlinson details that prior to the 1944 Education act “nearly 90 per cent of young people left school at 14, having largely attended all-age 5-14 schools, only 10 per cent achieved passes in public examinations and less than 5 per cent went into higher education” (2005: 13). From 1944, educational reform was at the heart of the creation of the welfare state which was “intended to redistribute social goods and resources more equitably and to encourage economic growth and productivity” (Tomlinson, 2005: 13). Post-war Britain saw a cross party agreement during the coalition wartime government that educational standards needed to rise in Britain; this introduced the concept of education for all.
The 1944 Education Act was able to provide equitable access to education at both the primary and secondary levels (Lawton, 1975). In the Education Act, students were divided into a tripartite system when they reached the age of 11. It was believed that there were “three types of mind, the academic, the technical and the practical” (Tomlinson, 2005: 16). These three types of mind were reflected in the educational options to be made available to them; grammar, technical or modern schools.

Therefore, whilst the Education Act did allow greater access to education for all; the types of school available varied wildly between the social classes and ultimately favoured the middle classes (Jones, 2016). For example, children of the working classes, who largely populated the secondary modern schools, had “inferior resources and less well qualified staff”, while children of the middle class often had additional support through the use of private tutors that enabled them to get places in the grammar schools (Tomlinson, 2005: 16). The grammar school curriculum at this time continued with pre-war subjects designed to prepare students for “professional and good white-collar jobs”; secondary modern schools “directed male pupils to manual work and females to factories or offices”; while “few LEAs invested in technical schools, with only about 6 per cent of the pupil population ever attending” (Tomlinson, 2005: 17).

The way in which the Education Act was interpreted, was “by administrative elites, endorsed by Labour leadership, worked to support existing patterns of privilege and class advantage, and selective mechanisms remained at the heart of the system (Jones, 2016: 12). These early efforts to provide educational opportunities for all saw the Labour and the Conservative parties in relative agreement regarding the stratification of the educational system, which, it can be argued, is hardly surprising when those in political power were products of the grammar school system.

Ultimately, it was seen that the 1944 Education Act, did not allow for greater mobility of the working classes within the educational system or wider society (Tomlinson, 2005). The 1963 Newsom Report, on the education of 13-16 year olds, highlighted the inequality of the educational system and advocated for increased spending in the secondary modern schools and a more “stimulating curriculum”, however, it still
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directed working class students towards set careers (Tomlinson, 2005: 18). There was, as Jones describes, levels of discontent within the educational structure during the 1950's and 60's (2016). Labour began to emerge in favour of “multilateral schools”, seen as the precursor to the comprehensive system, while the Conservatives continued to cling on to the tripartite system (Jones, 2016: 34). With the varied levels of discontent educational reform continued under the Labour government of the 50’s and 60’s, however the focus of education remained on professionalization with local governments and schools dictating what was taught (Jones, 2016). While the parties agreed that there should be universal education for all up until the age of 15, later changing to 16 in 1972, the Conservatives and Labour disagreed on what this entailed. The 1960’s saw the expansion of comprehensive schools which still carried remnants of the tripartite system within its walls through the use of streaming students based on ability levels (Lawton, 1975). As Lawton discusses, up until the 1970's the general focus on educational reform revolved around the “structure and organization of secondary schools”, while the 1970's heralded discussions surrounding a common curriculum (1975: 4).

One of the difficulties that Lawton argues in creating a common curriculum is that it “must be derived from a common culture” (Lawton, 1975: 5). He goes on to define his view of the school curriculum as:

“a selection from the culture of a society...Certain aspects of our way of life, certain kinds of knowledge, certain attitudes and values are regarded as so important that their transmission to the next generation is not left to chance in our society but is entrusted to specially-trained professionals (teachers) in elaborate and expensive institutions (schools). Not everything in a culture is regarded as of such importance, and in any case, time is limited, so selection from the culture: teachers may have different lists of priorities, but all teachers and all schools make selections of some kind from the culture” (1975: 6-7).

Here, Lawton is describing how a common curriculum is reflective of the views of a society during a particular time. The common curriculum in Lawton’s discussion has the teacher and the school institution as the focus for the creation of common knowledge for each class and school. Commenting on this in the United States, much later, Apple argues:
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“The curriculum is never simply a neutral assemblage of knowledge, somehow appearing in the texts and classrooms of a nation. It is always part of a selective tradition, someone’s selection, some group’s vision of legitimate knowledge. It is produced out of the cultural, political, and economic conflicts, tensions, and compromises that organize and disorganize people...the decision to define some groups’ knowledge as the most legitimate, as official knowledge, while other groups’ knowledge hardly sees the light of day, says something extremely important about who has power in society” (Apple, 1993: 1).

Apple’s description reflects what can be seen as the “official history” of a nation, and more specifically who has the power to ensure that collection of knowledge is passed on (Phillips, 1998; Apple, 1993).

During the 1970’s, schools in England had a degree of freedom regarding the content of the curriculum, with primary schools tending to emphasise what was seen to be a child-focused approach to learning. Lawton described the common curriculum as being a national system of education consisting of a “triangle of power: the central authority (DES), the local authority (LEAs) and the teachers” (1975: 7). These triangles may be skewed in their divisions of power depending on the local education authorities, the schools and the teachers. The power held by teachers and local authorities in determining the curriculum and the growing discontent towards teaching practices that were not being translated into the wider economic success of England, led to greater scrutiny in the curriculum and eventual change to the National Curriculum.

One turning point, in 1981, was a circular issued by the Department of Education and Science which told Local Education Authorities that they had to have a curriculum policy (Graham & Tytler, 1993). Another return to vocational education was seen through the 1983 Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, where schooling was made more “vocational” for some students (Graham & Tytler, 1993: 5). The two paradigms of educational ideology, between vocational and general educational approaches to learning came to a head in the 1980s, specifically during the Great Debate (Tomlinson, 2005). This Great Debate saw a public consultation on the direction of education, teachers were under scrutiny by politicians, some members of the public and trade industries (Ball, 2017). With the “Golden Age of teacher control (non-control) of the curriculum”, as Lawton described it, declining (Lawton, 1980:
Instead Prime Minister Callaghan, challenged “the monopoly of teacher education and educationalists over questions about the methods and purposed of education” (Ball, 2017: 82). This Great Debate ultimately saw the creation of the National Curriculum through the 1988 Education Act.

The 1988 Education Reform Act saw a fundamental shift in the shape of education in England. This Act led to the introduction of a National Curriculum Council, with power over the curriculum across England and the School Examinations and Assessment Council (Carr & Hartnett, 1996). Going back to Lawton’s triangle of power, this shifted the balance of power into the hands of central government and was regulated through the means of testing based on the curriculum. This, in turn, saw a decrease in the power held by the Local Education Authority. Testing was also meant to provide parents with greater choice with regards to where they sent their children to receive an education; they could compare schools based on the examination results in league tables (Lawton, 1992). There were differences of view regarding these developments. For example, Stuart Sexton, one of the chief educational advisers under Conservative Prime Minister Thatcher, did not believe the regulation of the National Curriculum should have been included in the Education Act and was not what he and his team were working towards (Chitty, 2014). He believed that was one of the selling points for schools to create their own unique approach to education supporting a free market philosophy, stating:

“You see the curriculum should be one of the school’s selling-points with its own particular consumers...Schools should be able to respond to what they perceive the market is looking for...The National Curriculum undermines what we were trying to achieve” (Sexton, as quoted in Chitty, 2014: 54).

The National Curriculum was seen by some as supporting a capitalistic approach to education, where parents were seen to be consumers who would choose where to send their children based on the success rates of the school. This would ultimately lead to greater success of good schools and the closing of struggling schools and has subsequently had an enormous influence on English education policy right up to the present day (Carr & Hartnett, 1996).
Lawton, an influential academic commentator, argued that there was a consensus for the need for a National Curriculum among teachers at the time (Lawton, 1992). However, he argued that the approach with which the government took in enforcing the 1988 Education Reform Act missed the opportunity to collaborate with educators or involve any serious consultation with interested stakeholders. As Carr and Hartnett argue, “the National Curriculum was an effective operation in statecraft and political manipulation rather than a serious attempt to develop a well-founded view about a curriculum appropriate for a modern democratic society” (1996: 171). The 1988 Education Reform Act and the creation of the National Curriculum undeniably altered the approach to teaching in England and was a significant demonstration of political manoeuvring. While educators, politicians and parents may have agreed on the need for a universal common curriculum the implementation of the 1988 Education Reform Act ultimately led to alienating a number of the front-line educators who were instrumental in delivering it.

**Trends that have shaped the Curriculum**

Following the post-war consensus around what might be seen as a laissez-faire approach to the curriculum, the 1980’s heralded the opening of the curriculum to political warfare and influence. Since the 1980's there have been two general phases in Downing Street; the first saw Conservative governments in power from 1979 to 1997, followed by Labour governments from 1997 to 2010.

Lawton argues that the early educational reforms—of the 70's and 80's—that took place go beyond simple party-political interests, as support for both approaches to educational reform could be found in each party (1980). However, this section is further divided by the political party timeline as there were fundamental shifts during each of their tenures, first the Conservatives, then Labour then the most current trends post-2010. This section looks at the major policy changes each of these trends enacted and the effects they had.

*Conservatives 1979-1997*

As discussed in greater detail within the previous section, the 1970's sparked twenty years of “reconstruction and conflict” by the Conservatives, culminating with the 1988 Education Reform Act. (Chitty, 2014: xv). The 1988 Education Reform Act
ultimately encouraged greater competition between schools. This act did not mean the end of the period of “reconstruction and conflict” but heralded in a party that was “gripped by a frenzied need to legislate on every aspect of education, with an Education Act arriving on the statute books almost every year” (Chitty, 2014: xv; Tomlinson, 2005: 48). The 1988 Education Reform Act had “238 clauses, 13 schedules... (and) took nearly 370 hours of parliamentary time and gave the Secretary of State 451 new powers” (Chitty, 2014: 51). Overall aims included: “consolidating a market ideology to be achieved by parental choice, establishing central government control over curriculum and assessment...demanding accountability from individuals and institutions...and encouraging selection under a rhetoric of diversity” (Tomlinson, 2005: 48).

During this time the legislation that was passed saw the Secretary of State for Education handed over “451 new powers” in the Education Reform Act alone (Chitty, 2014: 51). These changes, on the face of it, may have raised educational standards, however it also created a “more divided and divisive school system than at any time since the Second World War” (Tomlinson, 2005: 49). The Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) was created through the combination of the Education Act 1992 and the 1993 Education Regulations (Chitty, 2014). There was also an increase in the regulation of teacher training as well as the curriculum. English teachers boycotted the 1993-4 SAT exams because of the changes to the curriculum (Jones, 2016). Lawton describes the period following the 1988 Education Act as moving from “confusion to chaos” (1994). The number of changes that took place during the Conservative’s reign saw the educational system turned upside down and ultimately led to greater central government control.

**Labour 1997-2010**

1997 heralded in the reign of successive Labour governments for the following thirteen years. Although the Labour party promise was to “make education its top priority in government”, when they did take over the reins in 1997, there was not an immediate marked divergence from previous educational policies. (Chitty, 2014: xv; Tomlinson, 2005). While Labour disagreed with the Thatcher approaches to education, there was greater consensus with the slimming down of the National Curriculum under John Major’s government in 1993, which placed a heightened focus
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on literacy and numeracy. Tony Blair’s government agreed with the previous government that students were failing in literacy and numeracy when compared to their global counterparts (Tomlinson, 2005). Due to this belief that students were failing, schools and teachers continued to be held accountable for not improving test scores or moving up the league tables. Labour entered office and created a number of education acts; however, they were largely in line with the previous Conservative agenda, specifically:

“there was an acceptance of the Conservative faith in choice and competition, with education developing as a market commodity driven by consumer demands, demonstrated by the retention of market competition between schools, and fuelled by league table publication, school choice, specialist schools and failing schools” (Tomlinson, 2005: 90).

There was increased spending in the educational sector under Labour (Tomlinson, 2005). Labour ideal of “standards not structures”, were reflected in a number of their policies include the 1997 DfE White Paper which “declared its ‘core commitment’ to achieving ‘high standards for all’” (Tomlinson, 2005: 94; Chitty, 2014: 1). The 1997 White Paper, argued forcibly that all schools would be expected to ‘take responsibility for raising their own standards’ and pledged that ‘standards of performance in all schools’ would indeed be ‘higher by 2002’” (Chitty, 2014: 1). The 1998 School Standards and Framework Act, saw a “clever relabelling rather than an actual change of structure” to the school infrastructure which ultimately “ensured a continuation of a divided and divisive” system (Tomlinson, 2005: 101). This divided system as Tomlinson argues, happened to “mirror the social class structure” (2005: 104).

One of the modernisations of the National Curriculum under Labour came as a result of the 1998 Crick Report which recommended compulsory teaching of citizenship education across all key stages (Faulks, 2006). It is not entirely surprising with an ever-growing divide within society that there was a need to teach citizenship education with a particular focus on “social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy” (Faulks, 2006: 126). This new approach to citizenship would move away from a strict focus on “traditional political science... too narrow to provide the basis for active citizenship, which requires active engagement and continual reflection upon one’s values and obligations” (Faulks, 2006: 126). While the Crick Report called for an increase of citizenship teaching it was not specific
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enough to give schools a clear understanding of how to implement this (Faulks, 2006). Furthermore, the Crick Report ignored the structural inequalities of the educational system that was going to be responsible for teaching citizenship, as Faulks stated it was a “problematic relationship between citizenship that is founded upon equality, and the market that entails and indeed celebrates inequality” (2006: 128).

The 2001 Green Paper set out further plans to encourage secondary schools to become specialist schools (Tomlinson, 2005). This diversification of the tier system of schools attempted to move away from the two-tier system into a multifaceted “flexible diverse system’ which would guarantee a multiple tier school system with schools for ‘achievers’ highly sought after” (Tomlinson, 2005: 122). This saw the expansion of academies and successful schools were given greater flexibility in innovating and changing their curriculum (Tomlinson, 2005). The 2002 Education Act combined the work of the 2001 Green Paper and the rewritten version of the 2001 White Paper, to “provide a new legal framework for schools” (Tomlinson, 2005: 123). Ultimately this act aided the spread of academies and gave greater power to the Secretary of State for Education and away from the Local Educational Authorities. The 2006 Education Act saw power given to school governors to become independent schools with external partners (Jones, 2016). Further stratification of English society continued, based on “self-segregation” and the leading of “parallel lives” between white working classes and Asian communities (Jones, 2016). This stratification between communities was a hotbed for discontent and was one of the key factors in the creation of the Schools Linking Network. There were a number of attempts to unify communities while understanding the diversification of culture and class. Both the 1999 MacPherson Report and the 2007 Ajegbo Report advocated the teaching of cultural diversity and “address issues of ethnicity, culture, language and religion and the multiple identities children inhabit” (Ajegbo, 2007, as quoted in Jones, 2016: 173). Labour recognised that there were inequalities in the social structures and this was reflected in the educational system. However, there was such a focus on academic attainment that discussions which included disparity of access based on social structures were attributed to a “‘culture of excuses’ which ‘tolerated low ambition, rejected excellence and treated poverty as an excuse for failure’” (Blair, as quoted in Jones, 2016: 180).
While the Labour government did not deviate significantly from their Conservative predecessors, they did attempt to broaden inclusive education for students from a variety of backgrounds and abilities. This was seen more at the primary and higher educational levels which were not discussed in this chapter. For the secondary school sector, Labour maintained many of the Conservative educational policies which were put in place in the previous administration, even when they were faced with a widening gap in social and economic disparity.

*Current Nature of the Curriculum*

Within this research I have defined the current nature of the curriculum as the evolving post-Labour policies which were heralded in by the Coalition government between the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats in 2010. The beginning stages of this research began in the autumn of 2011. This research witnessed both the Coalition government in power which was then followed by a Conservative government in 2015. The Conservatives have had a strong influence in the direction of educational policy and the National Curriculum. However, as Jones argues, it does mimic past approaches to educational politics by the Conservatives, saying that “since the 1970s (it has) been a breeding ground for Conservative activists of a particular sort—strongly committed ideologically, deeply opposed to dialogue with educational interests, traditionalist in their conception of teaching and learning, market-focused in their policy innovation” (Jones, 2016: 194; Ball & Exley, 2010). This most recent shift will undoubtedly change the face of the curriculum for students.

When the Coalition Government first came to power, there was early consensus to maintain the course set by the previous Labour government. Similar to when Labour took power from the Conservatives there were no immediate changes to educational policy. However, this did not remain the case. The Conservatives put Michael Gove in the position of Education Secretary during the Coalition Government and he spearheaded a movement of returning to basics (Jones, 2016). The 2007/8 financial crash and the recession which followed saw deeps cuts made to social services across England. The Coalition Government made severe cuts in the inclusive programmes that Labour brought in and began returning to Thatcherite educational policies.
As Jones argues, Gove was not exceptional in his approach to restructuring the educational system but was returning to Conservative form and the foundations created under Thatcher (2016). The 2010 to 2015 government policy from the Department of Education set out slimming down the curriculum (DoE, 2015). Among a number of changes this saw Citizenship removed as a mandatory taught subject in the National Curriculum and an overall return to basics.

There were additional concerns over the direction of the National Curriculum and subject specific curriculums. Those that correspond with the teaching of humanitarian education will be discussed in the conclusion of Part 2, Where Humanitarians and Politicians Meet. There is also an extended discussion of the academic transfer of knowledge in chapter 7 with regards to this research.

Both Lawton and Tomlinson have discussed that the introduction of market forces into schools and the delivery of education does not equate increased success rates. With Lawton stating, “it was by no means clear that simply allowing market forces to operate would bring about improvements in the education service” (1992: 106). Meanwhile, Tomlinson argued a similar case:

“the creation of a market in education, driven by the self-interest of knowledgeable parents and the competitive strategies of schools which had been forced, with varying degrees of reluctance, to market their schools to attract desirable customers, was ensuring a first and second class division in state schooling” (2005: 78).

The educational trends from the Coalition (Conservative led) and the Conservative governments have seen a renewal of Thatcherite principles of a free market in education with an emphasis on a return to the basics of literacy and numeracy to compete in a globalised society.

Conclusion

Throughout chapter 6, the political nature of the National Curriculum has been explored. While not exhaustive it has explored some of the major phases of
educational policy since the 1944 Education Act. This historical analysis has focused on five key themes over the past seventy years, these include:

- Extending education to all, albeit differently for each child based on the assumptions made about a child’s ability based in part on socio-economic factors
- The creation of comprehensive schools, which was focused on breaking down social divisions
- A national curriculum, which was seen as a ground-breaking move to articulate what all children must learn
- Raising standards, has become an overriding concern that has shaped the definition of the purposes of education
- Market forces, increasing rhetoric of school autonomy to react to the needs of the community.

It seems, then, that political motivations are driving educational policy, as opposed to front-line educators. There is a demand from the government that the youth of England need to competitively engage more with their global counterparts in the league tables on core subjects, insisting this will make the English economy stronger in the future. This leaves me with fundamental questions unanswered by the National Curriculum or a return to the basics, including:

- How is it possible to discuss competing on a global stage when students do not understand the implications of globalisation?
- The youth of today are expected to uphold British ideals but do not have to engage with Citizenship classes to understand what that means. How can they achieve this?

These questions have guided some of the analysis that is found in Part 3, Student Perspective, and in the conclusion to this thesis.

In a globalised society, like England, you find industries owned by foreign firms, influxes of immigration and outsourcing of jobs. Ms. X explained her discomfort with the changing Geography curriculum that then Secretary for Education Michael Gove proposed, stating:

“It’s going to be even more rigid because we’ve seen the new Curriculum that Michael Gove has set out for Geography and it’s a step back to maybe twenty years ago. Whereas we’ve been doing things like Antarctica and Africa and tourism and crazy weather, really making Geography exciting, trying to get rid of that label of
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being a dull subject. He’s gone back and said you’re going to be teaching about rocks and oil, so we’re thinking ‘these are the things that really put people off Geography’, that’s what I did at school” (School A, YPI).

These were concepts taught in Human Geography which were marginalised in Gove’s restructuring of the curriculum. Citizenship was removed as a core subject in the National Curriculum and I witnessed a number of schools marginalise the subject following the announcement to give greater attention to the subjects that would be ranked in league tables. This ultimately effects the space within which humanitarian topics are taught in schools.

The National Curriculum and educational policy will remain a pawn in the political arena until there comes a time for cross-party consensus that puts front-line educators at the heart of reshaping the future of education in England. The current Conservative government would argue that they are making schools more autonomous, through academies, with the freedom to ignore the National Curriculum. On the other hand, critical voices argue that the national accountability systems, of testing and Ofsted, constrain this autonomy.

The Former Director of YPI England stated:

“The government needs to have a clear understanding of that if they want these things to happen, and if they’re not just paying lip-service to the sector, they need to commit to it over a long period of time and it needs to be non-political. It should be something, that somehow there’s an agreement that’s not affected by changes in government, because there was a massive effect from Gordon Brown to the Conservatives, there was a massive effect on the sector”.

Until that time, students, teachers and schools will continue to face uncertainty in the future of the educational system. Chapter 7 and the conclusion to this thesis discuss in greater detail the role of politics in the classroom and ultimately how this effects the teaching of humanitarian topics.
Part 2 Conclusion: Where Humanitarians and Politicians meet

Part 2 has focused on the external influences that affect the teaching of humanitarian education in the classroom. Chapter 5 began by discussing how humanitarians currently engage with students in the classroom. This chapter went through the ABC’s of humanitarian resources available as well as some of the leading methods to teach humanitarian subjects. Chapter 6 explored the political nature of the National Curriculum. This began with the creation of “education for all” following World War 2, the inception of the National Curriculum in 1988 and the political trends that have since shaped the direction of educational policy.

Throughout these two chapters the focus has been on the external factors and addressing the research questions which focused on their roles throughout this thesis. This conclusion goes further than its counterparts in other sections of this thesis by synthesising the content of the two chapters to understand how these external factors influence the teaching of humanitarian education.

How do the external factors influence the teaching of humanitarian topics?

While there is not a clear subject entitled humanitarianism in the curriculum of English schools, the teaching of humanitarian topics can be seen in a number of subjects, this is discussed in greater detail in chapter 7. However, a few subjects which provide a comfortable home for humanitarian topics include geography, citizenship and religious studies. Humanitarian education would also fall under the title of diversity and equality. In chapter 5, it was made clear that humanitarian organisations are providing resources to support teachers in delivering material throughout these subjects. Unfortunately, in chapter 6, the case was made that politicians are promoting a return to what they believe are the core skills of literacy and numeracy, ultimately to the detriment of other subjects specifically those apt to teach humanitarian education. Within this conclusion the key battlegrounds are addressed regarding where humanitarians and politicians meet. These include

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6 Additional research questions: What is the role of NGOs in supporting schools’ humanitarian aims?; How does the politics of schooling shape the possibilities and limits of humanitarian education?
students engaging in a globalised society, the role of the teacher and the core motivations of the National Curriculum.

Throughout Part 2, the external actors of the humanitarians and politicians have been discussed regarding how they contribute to education and shape the future of it. Ultimately these two external influences meet in the classroom. Within this arena, schools and teachers are driven by a need to meet ever-changing academic attainment standards set by politicians and enforced through Ofsted and testing attainment levels which reflects the National Curriculum. This question was raised in the conclusion to chapter 6, “how is it possible to discuss competing on a global stage when students do not understand the implications of globalisation?” Humanitarians offer unique insights into globalisation due to where they work and the nature of it. However, this is not directly relevant for the sake of competing in global academic ranking and therefore not a priority for the government. The government wants to remain relevant on the global stage and believes the key to doing so is through understanding the basics. However, in a globalised society the population of England is no longer on an isolated island. A stringent focus on the basics will potentially lead to an even more divided society through cultural misunderstandings. The key challenge in teaching humanitarian topics lies in the subjects where they are predominantly taught. These subjects are being side-lined in the National Curriculum and are under constant pressure from government restructuring. These are subjects that will not receive additional government support through grants and therefore schools feel they have to tow the government agenda to be seen as successful. As we saw in chapter 5, humanitarian organisations have created numerous documents to support the teaching of humanitarian education. However, there is less room for them in the classroom.

The role of the teacher in cultivating humanitarian education is paramount to the success of it in the classroom. Within both chapters 5 and 6, the role of the teacher was central to the discussion of whether they were comfortable teaching humanitarian issues or if they had the flexibility to include it in their classes. As discussed in chapter 6 the ever-changing face of the National Curriculum, due to political influences, has left teachers feeling uneasy in their role in delivering a first-class education. With one stating:
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“It's the not knowing where you are going with it (the curriculum), you have a year to prepare for it and that’s on top of your teaching timetable and they haven't even published what it is. So how we are going to prepare is a bit of a mystery. It’s more than being a guide on the side, obviously you don’t have to just stand and lecture but I feel like I want to be an expert in the classroom and I think teachers should be seen as being intellectuals who actually have expert subject knowledge and I like to have that. But if I don’t know what it’s going to be in 2015 then I can’t make myself an expert on it” (Ms. R, School J, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

Teachers are uneasy about the future of their subjects. Meanwhile, they found that the resources that were created by humanitarian organisations most helpful when they linked directly to the curriculum. As chapter 6 demonstrated, the National Curriculum is not set in stone. For humanitarian organisations with limited resources, the creation of an education pack needs substantial funding, without considering that it will need to be amended in five years when the National Curriculum is once again under review. Therefore, humanitarian organisations need to find ways to remain relevant regardless of the changing curriculum in order to support teachers in the delivery of these topics.

The motivation of the National Curriculum should also be questioned, are we trying to solely increase enterprise and industrialisation of the workforce or should the National Curriculum also reflect the ideals of a society. The clear schism between vocational and general education has shaped the direction of the educational debate since the inception of the 1944 Education Act. While it does not seem immediately relevant to a debate surrounding a place for humanitarian education, subjects which support the teaching of humanitarian subjects are inherently connected by the ideological outcome of this schism. As Carr and Hartnett argue:

“to employ the discourse relevant to the paradigm of general education is not only to argue that subjects such as the humanities, literature and the liberal arts should be directed towards the development of the qualities of mind that participation in social life requires. It is also to argue that vocational subjects should always incorporate some opportunities for reflectively understanding and critically examining the norms and values of the world of work. Conversely, to employ the discourse of vocational education is to assume that the subject matter of general education should be taught and learned in ways which emphasize its market value and that
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vocational subjects should be restricted to providing the knowledge and skills required for successful market participation” (1996: 26).

From the creation of the educational system in England, there have been divided opinions on its provision and delivery. Most recently this is reflected by the market economy of schools and a push towards academies. One of the schools that participated in this research, which had a strong connection to humanitarian education, readily admitted that they were able to do this because they were a successful school. This meant that they were given greater scope in delivering the curriculum which best suited their ideals. Schools that are struggling will not have the freedom to cater for the holistic education of the student, which may include the teaching of humanitarian topics. While focusing on improving qualifications and increasing the global ranking of the English education system, the government has lost the focus on creating well-rounded students. The Former Director of YPI England discussed this hypocritical conundrum, stating:

“We’re meant to be creating, our education system should create, well-rounded individuals who can contribute in a positive way to society. And what we’ve taken that to mean, I think, we talk about spiritual and moral, but actually the changes that are being made to policy don’t reflect what schools are being asked to do. What’s actually happening is that, these subjects that develop this kind of spiritual/moral awareness within students are being choked out of the curriculum and the focus on key skills is becoming all consuming. We’re not going to see well-rounded individuals; we’re going to see well-qualified individuals. That’s the hope. And I don’t think those two things are the same thing. And I think society will be worse off even though we might have more people employed. Community, society, the social element of it, will be worse off”.

Humanitarian education offers the possibility to expose students to concepts and situations that are outside of their everyday experiences. For example, refugees entering England is at the centre of the news, with terms like ‘economic migrant’ being used synonymously with ‘refugee’. Meanwhile, the migratory motivations for both sets of people are entirely different. Young refugees and the children of economic migrants are sitting in the same classrooms and are facing backlash from their English counterparts. In an education system which is built on divide, the lack of humanitarian education is only furthering the partitions and instilling greater tensions when faced with ‘the other’. It is becoming more apparent that the motivations of the National Curriculum are to create “well-qualified” individuals, but
in a fast-paced globalised society surely the focus should include efforts to create “well-rounded” individuals.

Humanitarians and politicians meet in the classroom. Educators struggle to meet the demands of the ever-changing political tide which is manifested through the National Curriculum, testing standards and Ofsted inspections. There is still societal pressure for students to engage with humanitarian issues, through charity fundraising for disaster response or the yearly BBC initiatives. However, they are not given the space to discuss what humanitarianism is, how it affects them or their role in a global society. Society expects students to engage or have an innate understanding of their role in their surrounding local and global communities. Unfortunately, the nature of the National Curriculum does not support progressive teaching into understanding this evolving role.

Part 2, the Analysis of External Influences, was explored, and ultimately included in this thesis, as it was seen to be guiding educators during the scoping study of this research. Teachers mentioned that they were nervous of curriculum changes or discussed specific charitable appeals more often than others, hence the multiple references to the BBC. It was due to the reoccurrence of these topics that I realised the external influences needed to be explored for this research and the extent to which their influence shaped the inclusion, or exclusion, of humanitarian education in the classroom.
Part 3: Student perspective—How are students engaging with humanitarian issues?

Part 3 is the heart of this thesis and comprises of three chapters. These chapters present the majority of my findings and discuss the main analytical themes which were used to explore the moments of humanitarian learning: “those instances when students are learning about humanitarian issues and empathetically connecting with the subject matter”. These are discussed through the perspectives of the students, their teachers, the organisers and mine as the researcher. An analytical framework is used which explores the academic and empathetic engagement from participants to humanitarian topics using the case studies.

Chapters 7 and 8, focus on ways students engaged with humanitarian issues during my research. Chapter 7 discusses the academic transfer of knowledge of students and their learning experience that was observed. The main themes which I will discuss include: whether there is a place for humanitarianism in the classroom; the teaching methods that students found memorable; and the challenges to incorporating these humanitarian topics. Chapter 8 looks at the empathetic responses of students and strands for analysis within this section include: addressing the four contributors of disengagement, the degree of student ownership in their engagement, the relatability of topics and the local versus global empathetic effect. Chapter 9, Resonance, explores how learning about humanitarian topics impacts students over time and the extent to which some topics have a lasting impression on some of the students.

These themes have emerged from my study and through exploring the moments of humanitarianism that were observed or recounted. While I have tried to keep the quotes and passages succinct, there are some examples which needed to be included in full, in order to appreciate the moment through the student’s eyes or that of the teacher remembering a pivotal moment in a student’s academic or emotional development. Part 3 is devoted to looking at the moments students experienced in the classroom throughout my research and those which made lasting impressions on them.
Chapter 7: Academic transfer of knowledge

The analysis of the academic transfer of knowledge explores what students learn in the classroom and how they are learning it. This strand gives a greater understanding of what the students who participated in this research were learning about regarding humanitarian issues and the level of understanding they may attain for the complex range of issues that were discussed. This strand explores the academic foundation that students use when they discuss humanitarian topics and potentially how this foundation relates to their psycho-social development, or how these topics affect them.

The analysis of this research was dependent upon exploring the students’ moments of engaging with humanitarianism, in this case, through learning. Therefore, the themes which I have used to guide the reader through these discussions are those that repeatedly appeared throughout multiple schools or were ones which seemed poignant to the process of learning about humanitarian topics. These themes helped to explore the student experience and give practitioners clear examples of what worked to further engage with these topics.

Chapter 7 revolves around three central themes which developed throughout my research. The first theme is the place of humanitarianism. This theme developed out of a need to understand where humanitarian topics are taught. It also explores the variances between schools and even within schools. The second theme explores the methodological approaches to engage with humanitarianism. This theme became apparent while speaking with students and throughout their reflections a few referred to specific teaching methods that they enjoyed and why. These methodologies helped to enhance the learner experience while learning humanitarian topics and could facilitate further engagement. The third theme discusses the challenges in incorporating humanitarian topics in the classroom. While this does not directly reflect the moments of student learning, it does impact the ways in which students are exposed to these topics and the potential they have to learn about them.
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The previous chapter discussed the political nature of the curriculum historically and led to the creation of the research question: how does the politics of schooling shape the possibilities and limits of humanitarian education. The purpose of that chapter was to understand the creation of the National Curriculum as well as how it is currently influencing the shape of the Curriculum. It helped to influence this chapter by gaining a greater understanding of the subjects in the National Curriculum and the fragile space in which those subjects are operating to be included. The historical policy analysis also demonstrated the challenges that teachers face due to politics, a theme which is discussed within this chapter. To find the academic place for humanitarian education it was necessary to understand the nature of the National Curriculum.

These themes play a central role in my research in exploring the moments of humanitarian learning and the transfer of knowledge. As a teacher, I think it is important to understand what students are learning about already, before we address how it could be improved upon. Part of this discussion includes what teachers and students would like to be doing or learning about in this area. Chapter 7 contributes practical examples of what worked in some schools who engaged with humanitarian topics and helps to further understand the student perspective of these learning experiences.

**The place of humanitarianism**

Throughout my research, it was difficult to place where humanitarianism should be taught. It is easy to think of subjects like Geography and Religious Education lending themselves to these issues. However, is there room in the curriculum for these subjects to fully explore humanitarian topics or does it consist more of a box-ticking exercise for Ofsted? Throughout my research, I realised that with external pressures—political manifestos, Ofsted inspections and exam syllabi—the role of humanitarianism within a classroom or school is heavily dependent upon the school culture and the individual teacher’s passion for these topics. Furthermore, several schools that I visited categorised humanitarian topics as extracurricular subjects or those that are taught in morning reception. With these wider concerns in mind, the
next section explores the concept of humanitarianism as defined by students and teachers and considers the subjects in which it is taught.

**Humanitarianism defined by students and teachers**

Throughout my research I witnessed humanitarian topics taught through a number of forums across the school environment. In some schools, the focus was primarily on classroom and teacher-led interaction with little input from the wider school, while others had humanitarian education entrenched in the school ethos. The passion of teachers and the support of schools are discussed later in this chapter in relation to the methods of teaching humanitarian topics and challenges to incorporating them.

I found humanitarian topics being taught in schools when I went with the explicit purpose of looking for them. When I tried to engage teachers, students and administrators in discussions surrounding humanitarianism in their school, they often hesitated in their responses unsure of what I meant. This highlighted a challenge during my scoping study of understanding terms, which was discussed in chapter 1, regarding a number of different approaches being used which identify with humanitarian education. Therefore, one of my opening questions for teachers and students was to define the term humanitarianism, and for students to also define philanthropy and active citizenship. Philanthropy was included as a term as it was central to the YPI lessons. Active citizenship gave students an opportunity to create their own definitions intuitively by breaking down both the words active and citizen into meaningful concepts they identified with.

Below are some examples of the student responses from the focus group who participated in YPI in School A, in Greater Manchester. Students were given an activity sheet when they first arrived and were asked to write their answers down (Appendix B). One or two students may have spoken to each other regarding the terms but predominantly they answered these on their own. The answers that they have given for the term *philanthropy* include:

“Loving your community? Being able to care and make a difference” (Student T).
“Love and humanity” (Student F).
“Love of humanity” (Student H).
“Love of humanity” (Student S).
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“Love of humankind” (Student I).
“Love of humankind, caring for people” (Student N).
“Love of human beings” (Student K).
“Someone who has love of human beings and it comes from a Greek word” (Student X).

These responses are indicative of the fact that they were participating in YPI during the time of this research and had already participated in one of the first lessons where they define philanthropy. Student X particularly highlights this connection by stating it comes from a Greek word, which is also shown in YPI’s teachers’ notes for the session as shown in the following images (YPI, 2014).

These answers were typical of the students’ involvement with YPI at the time of the focus group.

The answers for active citizenship gave a broader response from the students and one where you can sense they developed their own definitions for it. The answers still include the idea of a “person’s response…in a community” which is also stated in the
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teacher notes. There is a relatively strong sense of community in the students’ responses which have been emphasised. For example

“Going out in your own time, feeling that it’s your responsibility and being determined to make a difference. Having the interest to take part and help out”. (Student T)

“Helping other people and being a positive role model by helping not only people but the community and doing charity work etc. Taking a role in your community, doing something and not waiting for other people to do things to change or affect the community” (Student F).

“I think active citizenship is where you volunteer to help your community by care homes, schools etc.” (Student H).

“A person of the community who takes part in things to help the community become a better place” (Student S).

“Someone who helps their community and really gets involved” (Student I).

“Being a good citizen, taking part of things in a community, good role model—makes contributions, helps, volunteering, charity work” (Student N).

“A citizen who is active when helping people or community out” (Student K).

“Someone who wants to help others and takes part in a lot of things involving that issue or whatever they are working for in their community” (Student X).

For both philanthropy and citizenship, it was clear that these terms were spoken about to a certain extent within the classroom. These students identified the concept of active citizenship as helping the community to varying extents.

When it came time to define the term humanitarian, students struggled for the words to define it. This was the word which I observed students conferring with one another because they were unsure where to start and expressed their confusion aloud. This was also the word which was left blank by two students who just did not know. For example:

“Wanting to help others” (Student T).
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“Being caring and concerned about others” (Student F).

“Humans helping humans in need” (Student H).

“…” (Student S).

“Humans helping humans in need” (Student I).

“Humans helping humans in need” (Student N).

“…” (Student K)

“Humans helping humans in need” (Student X).

In this case, the frequent use of the phrase “humans helping humans in need”, was one which was discussed quietly between the participants. It was through a smaller group discussion that these students came to a consensus for this answer which they thought reflected the term. As students filled these sheets out as they came in. The students who left the answer blank arrived after the discussion occurred or were still settling in and were unsure how to define the answer. The two students (K and S) who left their answer blank for humanitarianism answered both of the previous definitions, showing they were more comfortable with these terms.

The students mentioned above were not alone in their uncertainty in defining humanitarianism. I mentioned in chapter 1, that this is a controversial term to define in academic and practitioner fields. However, teachers and organisers for the case study programmes also struggled to define the term. While I would say all of the adult participants had heard of the term, for example in the news, a number of them mentioned they never thought of what it actually meant. For example:

“I have never thought about that term...ever. I don’t know if I even could define humanitarianism. I suppose it might be giving aid or caring about humanity in some way. I don’t know really” (Ms. X, School A, YPI).

“Caring about humanity, I suppose, making sure that people aren’t suffering. Humanitarian aid being the money to stop the suffering” (Ms. C, School B, YPI)

“Supporting human rights, making sure human rights are implemented globally and then a general, sort of, moral responsibility” (Mr. R, School C, YPI).
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“I think that I don’t know fully, is the first thing that I would say about it... And I think that it’s something that I try to understand and what I believe it is and that changes from day to day” (Former director of YPI England).

The emphasis added to the above quotes shows their uncertainty and apprehension when asked to define this term. This uncertainty could be transmitted when they are teaching humanitarian topics or those that may be out of their comfort zone. A few of these individuals went on to give insightful definitions for what they believe humanitarianism is. Ms. X and Ms. C in the quotes above discuss giving aid to help humanity or to ease suffering; while, Mr. R related it to human rights and a moral responsibility.

The following quotes are from teachers and organisers participating in SLN-MUN, regarding how they define the term. In these examples there is a stronger sense transferred of social justice on a global stage, which seemed to be more typical of teachers participating in SLN-MUN. These include:

“I think anything that benefits not just people immediately around us that has a larger impact on all of humanity” (Ms. U, School Q, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“It's about how you interact with other people in your community and the international community as well. It's kind of positive interaction more than anything else. By humanitarian, we're talking about how for these students how they have a positive impact as I said on the people around them. For example...in terms of understanding poverty, understanding the issues surrounding and what they can do and how they can make a difference” (Ms. A, School F, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“A sense of togetherness as human being, with a strong sense of Social Justice, fairness, equity and respect toward each and every one. Where the whole humanity develops as one, with strong equalities, empathy toward one another and a strong sense of community engagement, cohesion and support for one human being to another” (SLN-MUN Home Counties organiser).

“As a responsibility, I mean I know it's about equal rights and everyone's ability, everyone's responsibility to make sure that the privileged aren't taking advantage of the underprivileged; and that the underprivileged have the same access and opportunities as everyone else” (Mr. J, School M, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).
Ms A, Ms. U and the SLN-MUN Home Counties organiser interpreted humanitarian as how individuals interact with the wider community whether that be on local or global levels. This interpretation has similar connotations to how the students described active citizenship, with the focus being on helping those around us. The difference is how community is described, with Ms. A including the international community as part of the responsibility for humanitarians.

The definition provided by the former director of YPI England also stood out. I included a snippet of his definition above as he began by saying that he “didn’t know fully”. His response was poignant and measured. While he doesn’t have a clear-cut answer for what or who a humanitarian is, he is constantly re-evaluating his position. The remainder of his quote states:

“Broadly though, it’s the responsibility to help other humans who, in whatever way, are less fortunate than yourself…

I think that humanitarianism encompasses all of those differences and…that’s why it is a responsibility of everybody to be a humanitarian because everybody has something, some element of themselves, that is more fortunate or that they are more fortunate to have then somebody else in that particular area. So, I think the key thing for me, in my understanding of humanitarianism, is that it’s not something that you should be able to opt in or out of. I think that it should be an all-encompassing responsibility that every human being has to look out for every other human being in whatever way they are able to”.

When he stated his definition, he included a story from when he was working in a school for the blind. While I have left the full story out, it was this experience that contributed to his feeling of helping those who are “less fortunate than yourself” at a particular time. Those he helped in that situation were very fortunate in other aspects of their lives, but when it came to sight, he was more fortunate. His definition includes fluidity, where every person can be a humanitarian as they are potentially better-off in some areas or at some point in their lives than others, and when possible, they should help in “whatever way they are able to”.

The range of definitions for humanitarian demonstrates the complexity of the topic for practitioners, teachers and students. In chapter 1, I defined humanitarian
education as, “the promotion of humanity and human welfare”. I think this definition is broad enough to encapsulate the responses given in this section and allows flexibility for the changing needs of humanitarian responses in a wider context.

However, within the humanitarian field, politicians and practitioners have fallen short in delivering their mandate in engaging the public on these issues. Humanitarian practitioners and politicians discuss humanitarian interventions, humanitarian aid and the work of humanitarians on a regular basis through the media. However, there is such ambiguity in these terms to the public that it is not surprising that students do not understand the concepts when their teachers struggle to define them. For that matter, there are debates amongst humanitarian practitioners regarding who is defined as humanitarian, as discussed in chapter 1. It is understandable that others outside of the profession are unaware as well. While it is not a priority to increase humanitarian engagement at the secondary school level amongst humanitarians, it is important that who and what they are is clearly being disseminated. This is a portion of academic learning which the humanitarian field could contribute to, in order to demonstrate a clearer understanding for the work they do and how they engage with the public. Within the remainder of this chapter and in chapter 8, participants of my research referred to charity, philanthropy, politics, human rights, as well as a whole host of terms and concepts when discussing moments that I would class as humanitarian. This ultimately comes back to how they define the term.

**Finding a place on the curriculum**

Humanitarian topics were being taught throughout the schools that I observed in a variety of classes and/or in extracurricular activities. When speaking with teachers, they held different views as to which subjects they believed were predisposed to teaching about humanitarian topics, and which subjects would struggle with incorporating these topics. In some instances, the teachers would mention the same subjects as favourable in conveying humanitarian topics, for example with Religious Studies and Geography. There were teachers of some subjects, for example history, who believed they could offer multiple opportunities to teach humanitarian topics, while another history teacher believed it was not applicable when teaching “rigorous” history. Other teachers remarked that while they did not cover it
specifically in their classes due to time restrictions the school would offer sessions in assemblies or through extracurricular activities which discussed these topics. When conducting my research I observed the class set across all of their academic subject areas including maths, sciences, technology and drama. While I did observe topics of a humanitarian nature taught in these subjects within this section of the chapter I will look specifically at the subjects that were mentioned by participants throughout my research as being conducive to humanitarian learning as well as the wider school ethos.

Religious Studies/Religious Education

Religious Studies/Religious Education (RS or RE) is one subject that teachers discussed when asked where they believe humanitarian topics are taught. They believe modules on ethics and the responsibility of the individual help convey humanitarian issues. For example:

“In other ways I think it’s more related to subject. I know that in our R.E. they discuss ethics and they discuss what we should be doing as individuals to help other communities and how they can help us as well...and history. I think it’s more in history and R.E. as subjects” (Ms. U, School Q, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“R.S. do a good job, they’re very good. They really do discuss the issues” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

One of the teachers participating in SLN-MUN discussed how there is an entire section of the RS curriculum at GCSE level which focuses on Religion and the Environment.

When speaking with students in a school which had YPI taught through RS, some really engaged with humanitarian topics through this subject discussing the ethics of helping others and engaging in charity work. There was another student who did not enjoy the subject overall and said it was boring learning about religions, her favourite lesson was one on illusions that was a ‘free-day’ from the curriculum. RS gave a platform for debate on several issues when I observed classes throughout schools. There was a bit of a stigma attached to the class when I would overhear students discussing the subject that reflected that individual student’s negative
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perception. These discussions were in connection to the wider curriculum rather than to the faculty teaching.

Geography

One subject which was seen to lend itself to teaching about humanitarianism was Geography. Several of the teachers that were interviewed through SLN-MUN or YPI responded that humanitarian topics were taught in Geography. Throughout my research I observed over 70 Geography classes in 6 different schools. Teachers throughout different schools were able to connect their subject to humanitarian topics, specifically through discussing the human consequences within the subject. So, for example, one teacher explained:

“So, I guess Human Geography, the elements we teach allows us to really get them thinking about people in other countries, empathising with LEDC countries I suppose. Understanding different events and how events can affect people with different levels of wealth. So we do a range of topics that allow that” (Geography teacher Ms. Y, School A, YPI).

One Geography class was studying the country of Japan. The two weeks that I observed covered the Kobe Earthquake and the Japanese Tsunami, going beyond the physical space of where Japan is and what natural resources they have, to incorporate discussions surrounding human geography. Ms Y. believes that with regards to engaging in humanitarian issues currently they “luckily, can do it a lot. We’re teaching about the world, so outside of the normal Geography topics, like rivers/coasts/stuff they have to know, Geography predominantly is all about location and world”. However, this may not be the case indefinitely because at the time there was a political reshuffling of the curriculum which had Ms. Y. reflecting on the changes, stating:

“It’s going to be even more rigid because we’ve see the new Curriculum that Michael Gove (i.e. the Secretary of State for Education at the time) has set out for Geography and it’s a step back to maybe twenty years ago. Whereas we’ve been doing things like Antarctica and Africa and tourism and crazy weather, really making Geography exciting, trying to get rid of that label of being a dull subject. He’s gone back and said you’re going to be teaching about rocks and oil, so we’re thinking ‘these are the things that really put people off Geography’, that’s what I did at school” (Ms. Y, School A, YPI).
Ms. Y remembers how the content of her Geography classes growing up did not represent the information she wanted to pass on to students. Instead she has a greater desire to connect her students to Human Geography to understand the wider consequences. Ms. Y's concern highlights how the politics of schooling can shape the potential for teaching humanitarian topics in the classroom, one of the research questions which emerged during fieldwork and discussed in part 2. In chapter 8 there are empathetic examples that I have used from this lesson on the Kobe earthquake and Tsunami. Students seemed to engage with facets of humanitarianism in geography to a wide extent in the classroom.

History

Whether humanitarianism was taught in History had mixed responses from teachers, some argued it was, while others that it did not have a place. Although predominantly positive there was one teacher who believed humanitarianism did not have a role to play while teaching strict historical topics, stating:

“I suppose it’s a bit tricky (to incorporate these topics in history). I suppose what history can do is help develop the critical thinking. I do want it to be rigorous history, so it’s quite often rooted in the past which it allows pupils to understand why things are like they are, but it doesn’t focus in on the world now. But we do do some things, so for example you would put the Holocaust in the context of genocide and that allows you to talk about Cambodia and Bosnia. I suppose history not so much” (Ms. E, School R, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

Her tone and demeanour when responding to this question was dismissive. Even within her disparaging remarks about teaching humanitarianism through history, she still admits to doing so when teaching about the Holocaust. As a history teacher myself, I am biased towards believing it is an ideal conduit for teaching humanitarian topics, both those that occurred historically or events that parallel current events, thereby allowing students to connect with a topic on a number of levels. There were other teachers who I interviewed who had similar opinions. For example:

“You try to relate things that you teach in history to what’s happening today. So slavery, I usually start with pictures of the Nike symbol or Gap, to get them thinking. And usually they know stuff that comes up. Immigration, we normally teach...we haven’t this year, we’ve run out of time...but we normally teach 9/11. So we do look at immigration from the start as well. And that’s always interesting and
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you do relate that to present day. And when I teach Nazi Germany picking on the Jews, looking at ADL's Pyramid of Hate, so it starts at the bottom with racial stereotyping, goes up to racial jokes and sarcastic comments and horrible comments and then it goes on to legalistic, making laws against other races, and then violence and then genocide. And I normally ask them where they think this country is on that and how do we stop it from going any farther. So certainly, with the Holocaust we bring that in” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“The immigration issue comes in in Year 9, 12 both in politics and history, slavery is Year 8…but you try to relate it” (Ms. R, School J, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

Generally, I found that history was one subject that was more dependent on teacher enthusiasm to convey humanitarian topics rather than difficulty in finding space for it within the curriculum. History does have a curriculum to follow, as does every subject, however there are opportunities to relate historical topics to current or past humanitarian crises in order to add another facet for student understanding.

Politics

There were many history teachers who were also teaching politics in their school. Similar to history, there was a mixed reaction from Politics teachers regarding teaching humanitarian topics in their class. The two examples below demonstrate two of the different reactions to being asked about the role of humanitarianism in Politics. The first, discusses hypothetically how it could fit into the curriculum, but alludes to how it is not currently being addressed, stating:

“With the politics side of things...I mean, it could link to it in some way as they have some interesting topics like justice or pressure groups. So they might look at different issues or different campaigning groups or race relations but it’s not explicitly about charity” (Ms. E, School R, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

While the second is more specific, in how she does have them engage with humanitarian issues, stating:

“I mean in politics particularly I make them do that, question why do they think what they do, is that acceptable their views on things. That’s really difficult because I don’t know really if we have an impact. We should, because isn’t it through education that things will change” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

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This could return to the previous theme of how humanitarianism is being defined with some teachers defining it as charity. Therefore, when they looked at the topic of Politics they had difficult in connecting it with charity. However, the political motivations for humanitarian interventions would fall within the remit of this subject.

School Wide

Teachers throughout their interviews stated how they believed their schools were engaging with humanitarian topics more generally. Answers varied widely from charity bake sales to links with international schools, to creating well-rounded students (inferring their character development). For example:

“It does quite a few things actually, so for example, it's got links with international schools, so even today they are doing a charity sale at break-time to raise money to send books to a school in Uganda. So I know that my school definitely does have links and does things like Model United Nations as well. We have, for example, a year 7 African drawing day, which has a company come in and raises awareness. We also do a lot of different trips. We do World Challenge for example. So I think all of that sort of links in to humanitarianism. Those are the ones I know about and I'm pretty sure they do quite a lot” (Ms. E, School R, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“I think because my school is focused on creating children as a whole rather than just pushing them through the academic side of things. They are a really brilliant school. They're very good at thinking about how to develop children who are well-rounded, who are aware and who think critically” (Mr. Z, School V, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

Other schools, while not regularly engaging with humanitarian topics may devote specific time periods to learning about humanitarian topics, these include: weeks dedicated to in-depth learning (including diversity and charity weeks); drop-down days that were focused around one specific topic to provide a greater depth of learning for a single day; and using assemblies to discuss pertinent topics. For example:

“Sometimes in assemblies they'll raise humanitarian issues if there is something that happens globally we will discuss it in assembly...so if there is a flooding that takes place and things like that in other countries. Not as often. It's not a topic that's brought up in school unless something happens related to that” (Ms. U, School Q, SLN-MUN Home Counties).
“So within the school we have *diversity week*, and I promote diversity week with my tutor group but they all laugh at me. But to, you know, celebrate different cultures; I think that’s a good thing within the school. But I wonder if the school takes up things just because of Ofsted. Is there a true belief that this is the right thing to do…”

This teacher then went on to discuss another of those “weeks”, stating:

“We do have *charity week*, where, the sixth formers choose a charity...usually, one that someone has some involvement with. It could be anything from a local charity aiming at autistic children and play areas...I know we’ve had that...to WaterAid... We have responded when it was Haiti and the earthquake, that’s the only time that I’ve ever really seen the school do an impromptu one. Sometimes individual students within the school who aren’t sixth formers decide they need to raise money for something and they will go to the deputy head and ask permission for a bake sale or something like that” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

The difficulty in having a week or day dedicated to learning about specific topics is that when time constraints were tight than the flexibility to dedicate a week to these topics were challenged. In the final section I discuss this challenge in greater depth as one of the schools who had a week dedicated to charity; now have two days due to time constraints. There is also inconsistency within the school when it is taught in tutor time as some tutors may feel more confident discussing humanitarian issues while others shied away from them. There was a greater sense of, ‘this is what I do during tutor time…’ rather than a collective, ‘this is where we teach these topics’. For schools who see that the only place for humanitarian topics is through these additional conduits it would be difficult to maintain over a period of time or when challenged due to time constraints and outside pressure. Dedicating a week or a day to learning about a specific topic provides the opportunity for a great deal of in-depth learning.

Finally, the Former Director of YPI-England discussed where YPI fits into the English curriculum. The response is one that demonstrates the flexibility of YPI in fitting into several subjects, stating:

“I can broadly say that at the moment it fits into the Citizenship curriculum and some of the English curriculum in terms of speaking and listening. I think it’s fair to say that YPI is now being run by teachers in whatever way they feel it can fit best and support their
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curriculum. Of course it can go into IT, we have schools using it, there's a composing element within some of our younger years who have music as a core curriculum, you know everybody does it, it's not a choice by that point, they haven't started their GCSE choices so they would link in with music for their composition element, to write songs advocating for their charities. Some of the groups have obviously had drama support. Some of the groups run it in Religious Education as the kind of spiritual and moral aspect of that. But largely it's run through Citizenship and some of the English curriculum. But it can go into IT for the preparing of the PowerPoint and video resources. So it can go across but it's more flexible and open to the teacher to make that decision".

This response also highlights the difficulty in finding a home for YPI in the English curriculum and instead relying on teachers to find a home for it in their school. This is reflected in the wider discussion of humanitarian education whereby no single subject takes ownership for it, but it has the flexibility to be embedded in a number of subjects. This research has shown that during data collection, there was no single place for humanitarianism in the classroom or school. While this creates obstacles, it also allows a wider opportunity for student engagement if the school environment is supportive. This list is far from exhaustive in expressing where humanitarian topics are taught in schools but where it was presented during my research.

Another key aspect which was reflected in the responses in this section is the teacher enthusiasm for incorporating these topics. For some of the subjects, my interpretation was that this was entirely dependent on the degree to which the teacher wanted to engage rather than if the subject lends itself to the information. The following quotes are examples of where the passion and drive of the teacher influences the success of teaching humanitarian topics:

"I think if we talk about the classroom where the teacher gets the importance of our advocacy and understands the importance of engaging the young people in the process of research, rather than the teacher who is not, who is engaged and is doing it properly, but isn't in love with the idea or the notion of why it's important. Then I think that what it does is it shows the breadth...it shows the scope of charities within their community. It allows them, by the process of researching; they are in control of it. It is student led, so straightaway it's that deadly word, empowerment, isn't it" (Former director of YPI England).

"I do think it’s really important and I love the fact that we have this (SLN-MUN) and I think it helps quite a lot. I did it in school myself
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and that's one of the reasons I wanted to take part. Because when I was a student I did it and I think I got a lot out of it, so yeah, I'm glad that they're participating, and they can get so much out of it” (Ms. U, School Q, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“The responsibility is on the individual teacher, it's not everyone in their tutor group would want to do that” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“The letter arrived on my desk (to take part in MUN) and I thought it would be good for the students, it would be an extracurricular opportunity that perhaps they won't get unless I do it. No one had done it before, I don't know why not, because it seems like a good idea to me” (Ms. S, School K, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

While a great deal of engagement is dependent upon time availability and support, the biggest factor is teacher enthusiasm and their confidence teaching humanitarian topics. These quotes illustrate the role the teacher plays in either passing on their passion and enthusiasm, being the student advocate or being the volunteer so programmes were run in their school. Without a teacher's support, there is no conduit to bring the material or the programme into the classroom. I observed science lessons that believed they had no role to play while others were trying to actively engage with humanitarian issues through discussions on the consequences of global warming. Ultimately, engagement levels for students with humanitarian topics are first dependent upon engagement with educators.

I conclude this section with a quote that reflects the role of the school in the character development of students.

“You do hope...that education is the thing that's going to change people, well I hope that's the case. I strongly believe that but they do come to the lessons with their parents views. Whether we're successful in changing that, some of them are awful and it's hard and you think where is that coming from...and they don't realise what they are saying. So whether we have an impact, I would hope we do, I hope to make it clear through discussion and through making them question their views” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

This leaves me reflecting on if schools do not take responsibility in teaching students about humanitarian topics than who will, and what will they learn?
Methods that students found memorable

Throughout my research, students discussed what made certain topics memorable. When I asked this question, I thought the answers would reflect the topics they were learning about. However, several of the responses discuss the methods that conveyed the information and in some cases the topics as well. This section discusses the most effective methods from the student perspective and the potential hurdles that were encountered.

While it was not my intention at the beginning of my research to discuss methodological approaches to teaching, it seemed relevant to include the student reactions to these methods. It is my impression, that teachers across England are already well-versed in differential learning methods, or the teaching a topic through a variety of mediums including visual, practical and auditory approaches. This section is by no means a criticism of current teaching methods, but a reflection from the student perspective of what they engaged with most effectively and passionately. Ultimately, having a greater understanding of what makes these topics accessible for students may dispel the reservations that some teachers have towards incorporating topics that they struggle to associate with their subject. There were a variety of methods which were discussed by students, including the use of media; interactive sessions; debates; and learning about ‘the other’.

Video clips had a strong impact on students, helping them to remember the topic after watching. For example, students from School A stated:

“The videos because they have details on the subject and it’s visual which helps me remember more clearly” (Student F).

“Because we studied them a lot by watching documentaries and videos of tornadoes and hurricanes” (Student X).

“The movie and video clips made me remember about the topics. Some were emotional, interesting and fascinating to watch” (Student H).

“The sad parts and the tests. The good parts were it was quite interesting, to know about it...Because the movies and clips we saw weren’t easy to get out of your mind” (Student S).
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For visual learners using video clips and media when conveying a topic helped students to remember them. One of the students commented that the types of clips they watched were meaningful and led to them being more likely to remember it later on.

Interactive Sessions (workshops, trips) were popular with students as well. They described trips as “educational and really fun” (Student R, Focus Group, School C, YPI). Another student found the activity of creating a newspaper report while learning about sweatshops memorable (Student N, School D, YPI). While another student discussed why they did not like a topic in Geography: “I didn’t really like it when we learnt about coral reefs because we didn’t get up and do activities” (Student I, School A, YPI). Ms A discussed the use of speakers to help engage students, stating:

“It would be fantastic to have more speakers in and you find kids engage more if they’ve got someone talking to them about it rather than stupid teacher who they see every day. That’s a real way of engaging them and it’s the same in any programme. If you get people who have real life experience, it’s so much more engaging for them to talk to about then for me to say something or stick a YouTube video on” (Ms. A, School E, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

Ms. A found that having outside speakers was far more effective in engaging students with subject matter than what she was able to deliver. Outside speakers added an additional dimension to learning about a topic which was otherwise unavailable.

The student voice, either through the ownership of their own engagement or in the literal sense of debating issues, was an important method for students. As discussed in chapter 2, acknowledging the student voice ultimately empowered students. The Former Director of YPI England discussed the role of empowerment as a means to engaging students with their charity; “they feel as if they can control the decision-making around which charity they spend their time supporting, and quite often in school you don’t get that element”. As discussed in chapter 2, students have so many elements of their lives dictated to them but at thirteen and fourteen years old, they are on the cusp of adulthood. Decision-making, ownership and incorporating their voice were valuable elements to include methodologically.
Debating a topic was the literal manifestation of the student voice, with students who participated finding this memorable, stating:

“I liked debating in R.E. because it’s a vast subject and it’s more opinionated so it’s fun and knowledgeable at the same time” (Student F, School A, YPI).

“The class discussion because you not only remember your opinions but other peoples” (Student A, School P, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“I’d like to say thank you for letting me come to this amazing event. I really enjoyed the debate, I like to debate anyway, but I found this debate to be one of the most challenging and enjoyable ones I’ve ever done on some very controversial issues.” (Russia delegate SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“The debate was fun” (Brazil delegate SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

These statements suggest student ownership of their own opinion and acknowledging that their peers have differing opinions. In the 2015 Greater Manchester SLN-MUN evaluation report, it states that “debating on the subject made it more urgent and thus helped them to remember the content better” (Cropper et al, 2015). It is important to note that part of what makes this memorable is that students remember their own opinions but can reflect on their peers’ responses as well. This also gives students a chance to engage with their own opinion and be challenged on what they believe in a constructive and controlled environment.

The use of controversial topics to elicit a student reaction was a method which was noted throughout my research. I will discuss in chapter 8, the empathetic responses to humanitarian education; however, I found the topics that a number of students responded with empathy were ones which they could identify with personally or where they were emotionally affected by the individuals they were learning about. Using controversial topics developed as a method during my research while looking at the types of topics SLN-MUN discussed and which were deemed more popular with students than others. Anecdotally, I experienced this throughout my time when I was involved in SLN-MUN and one which led me to want to reflect on the role of these topics, for example:
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“The movie and video clips made me remember about the topics. Some were emotional, interesting and fascinating to watch” (Student H, School A, YPI).

“The sad parts and the tests. The good parts were it was quite interesting, to know about it...Because the movies and clips we saw weren’t easy to get out of your mind” (Student S, School A, YPI).

Both quotes discuss the emotions that students felt when they were learning about particular topics. Chapter 6 discussed in greater detail the use of controversial topics when teaching. Throughout this research I found this method did elicit student reactions across the majority of classes. However, when speaking to teachers and students it was also clear that overusing this method could potentially lessen the effectiveness of it through overexposure.

The final discussion, which is less of a method as opposed to a topic, is the use of learning about ‘the other’: other people’s cultures and experiences, that students engaged with. While this is not a clear teaching method it is one that students were able to relate to on a variety of levels. Learning about ‘the other’ or problems that were happening around the world gave students a wider perspective on subjects and helped them to relate to ideas, beliefs and experiences outside of their own. Here, students discuss ‘the other’ in their own words, reflecting their engagement with cultures and people other than themselves, stating:

“We get to learn about things that happen around the world and problems that other people are facing. I find learning about Japan’s tsunami really interesting” (Student I, School A, YPI).

“It was interesting to learn new things and the disasters and problems around the world” (Student J, School C, YPI).

“It was interesting to learn about different faiths and beliefs” (Student K, School F, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“Looking at the different ideas of the worlds creation” (Student X, School D, YPI).

Teachers also discussed their hope of getting students to engage with ‘the other’, people from different lifestyles and backgrounds, and to get students to think of other people besides themselves. These examples demonstrate how two teachers try to get students to engage with ‘the other’ while teaching geography:
“For the Physical Geography, natural disasters...is probably the one they enjoy the most and the one they really show a big interest in and it’s getting them to understand how different countries deal with disasters. For example we do a comparison of the tsunami in Japan with the tsunami in the Indian Ocean and how the responses to the two disasters were different. For example Japan didn’t ask for any outside help because they could cope with it themselves. Whereas the Indian Ocean had millions of pounds donated, they had countries from all over the world donating things. And it was just to show that countries are different and different levels of wealth can effect the response to these disasters and really the effects of these disasters. So it’s getting them to think about things like that and why countries choose to help and what they do to help” (Ms. Y, School A, YPI).

“Really trying to get them to think about other places and the lives of other people is a good thing and it’s a positive thing. During these types of lessons—more so than learning about Rivers—they ask questions: they want to know things, they want to know about the people and they want to know why they live like that, why do they let themselves live like that, why the government isn’t doing more, why can’t the government just give them the money, why can’t they print more money?!...this is a question you always get asked” (Ms. L, School X, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

These methods provide a variety of approaches that students found engaging when learning. However sometimes students remember topics for different reasons. I’ll conclude this section with one student’s response where they highlighted the length of time spent on the creation of earth in Religious Education, stating: “we did it for so long I don’t think I could forget to be honest” (Student N, School B, YPI). Ultimately students learn and engage in a variety of ways. It is important to remember this when trying to teach humanitarian topics.
My research pointed to several challenges in incorporating humanitarian topics into the classroom. A few have already been raised briefly throughout this chapter. Two that stand out are time to focus on these topics and the extent to which the school supports teaching humanitarian topics.

The first challenge teachers discussed, and which was evident throughout my research, was the time constraint teachers were under to cover everything in the curriculum. They felt a great deal of pressure to academically educate and stick to the curriculum so that their students would be successful in their exams. However, there was a desire to teach these topics, but the difficulty was finding the space within the curriculum for teachers to do so. The following quotes from teachers all touch upon this issue of not having the time and space to explore these topics sufficiently, stating:

“Personally, I would just want our students to have an awareness of all sort of issues...but I think what would be nice in the school would be to have lots and lots of different enriching things that the pupils could get involved with such as Amnesty International, but what do you need...you need staff who feel like they have the time to do it and that's what's needed. Our pupils, if they could come to the clubs they are very proactive, really they can almost self-run things they’re so good, but you do need somebody to organise it and oversee it and that's what's needed, it's time” (Ms. T, School O, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“The challenge is very much...the primary purpose of a school is to educate but also the thing that is very important is that the students get high results and that means that it can often be curriculum focused so the challenge is finding the time to incorporate it, I think, that's the real thing. And certainly for our students, they are so focused on academia that when they get into say year 11 they let the other things go because, not that they don’t want to, but they don’t feel like they have the time. So I think that's a big challenge, finding space in the curriculum” (Ms. R, School J, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“It's pressure, to get the course done...You could incorporate it in PHSE, I think, but because we're an academy, it's not now that we have to do it so that's declining very quickly, so that is a problem” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester)
“But there are challenges to getting it in, because as we become more and more focused on exams, there is less and less time for that, particularly as we’re an academy driving up results, that’s what they want to see and that’s the challenge” (Ms. F, School S, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“Time…it’s time…it’s the time pressure. Having to get through everything we have like marking and get them through the exams and drive up the results. Time to actually implement something that’s worthwhile.” (Ms. U, School Q, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“Lack of priority for school, lack of resources (time/funding)” (SLN-MUN organiser Home Counties).

The above responses discuss a desire to do more but time restrictions and pressure placed on teachers to meet exam goals and “drive up results” makes it more challenging for them. Schools are incredibly focused on increasing their exam results and excelling in Ofsted inspections. So much so, that the opportunity to teach students about humanitarian topics is limited to where teachers can find space for it.

Another challenge which was brought up by teachers at different schools is having the support of the school behind the teacher or embedding the culture of humanitarianism into the school ethos. Schools which had a humanitarian ethos embedded into the school encouraged teachers to explore these topics in their classes or through extracurricular activities. Teachers at schools which did not, struggled to give examples of how their school engaged because it was largely dependent upon individual teachers. For example:

“Larger concern in our school for local triumphs, achieving in sports, rather than doing things like fundraising for charity, there’s a greater focus on things like enterprise than there is on charity fundraising. It’s not something that’s looked at or engaged with in the way that it could be” (Ms. A, School E, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“I think there are a couple of things there (regarding incorporating humanitarian topics)... The school’s attitude more generally, that’s a cultural change that needs to take place...The school tends to focus on sport where they are more likely to achieve more highly so they are very, initially, off put by the idea of handling more difficult issues. Once you get them into it, they do find something often that they can relate to that draws them in to a larger debate...getting them to engage with it in the first place is the issue, once they’re there, they’ll move themselves forwards” (Ms. T, School O, SLN-MUN Home Counties).
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“I think one way is through the Model United Nations. That’s probably the strongest way in our school. I think that we always encourage people to volunteer and to take part in this because we know that it gives them a broader perspective” (Ms. U, School Q, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“They control it at our school because if you keep having bake sales there is a problem with catering and they also want to restrict the time that students do extracurricular stuff because they want them in their studies. So charity week has become charity two days, so it has gone down through the control of the school rather than the students. I think students generally are willing and anything will start them off if they are given the opportunity but the school will restrict. I can see... we are there to educate primarily. But there again, it does stop the spontaneity of students being able to raise money. We do have things in assemblies whereby there might be something brought to the school, not necessarily a collection but an assembly on something. I can’t think of anything at the moment. They do World Challenge, I don’t know whether that’s a charity... We need a charity committee, most schools have that don’t they?” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

There were schools that were observed, on the other hand, which held an anchor in humanitarianism and it was entrenched in the culture of their school. These schools engaged with the topics to greater extents as students were exposed to humanitarian topics on a daily basis. School E had a global dimension coordinator, whose role was to oversee how the school engaged with the global dimension including the local and global charities they worked with and what each individual subject was doing to engage with the global dimension. There were bulletin boards lining the hallways showcasing how students engaged with their local and global communities and alerting students of upcoming programmes and initiatives. Every teacher that was interviewed at this school was aware of the global dimension and could discuss in great detail how their subject aimed to fulfil the school’s mandate. The culture of the school nurtured an environment of humanitarianism within every classroom.

Mr. J from School M, one of the participating SLN-MUN teachers from Greater Manchester, highlighted that his school wanted to do more in this area so had appointed an individual whose specific responsibility was citizenship and raising awareness of charities, saying that “it would improve in our school (next year)”. When asked why the decision was made to appoint someone to this role specifically the answer came in two-fold. First there was a new head teacher, alluding to a change
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in the climate within the school towards these topics. The new head wanted to build links with global schools and focus on attaining the status of an international school. Secondly, their school was allowing more time to focus on charity work within the school to raise funds and awareness both on local and global levels. Mr. J’s school was working towards expanding and support a school-wide culture of humanitarianism as well as trying to have these values incorporated into the ethos of the school. It is yet to be seen how successful the implementation of these changes were. However, it is encouraging that in the national climate where the focus is on exam results and Ofsted inspections there was still room to embed humanitarian topics into the school culture.

Throughout this thesis, and more specifically in chapter 1, there were discussions surrounding Citizenship Education, the Global Dimension as well as other approaches that support the teaching of humanitarian principles in education. A useful handbook from the Netherlands discusses how to embed global citizenship and I argue the four approaches allow a clear starting point to embed humanitarian education (van Middelkoop, 2012). They use four approaches to embed global citizenship throughout a school. The first discusses the vision and mission statements for the teacher and school reflecting the core ethos of the school environment, to show “how important you consider the topic to be...it is there for everyone to understand” from students to the community (van Middelkoop, 2012: 3). The second is through “embedding in the lessons and curriculum”, classroom or project orientated approaches are both considered here (2012: 3). The third discusses the school culture and climate and within this handbook they discuss the “relationship between the school and the community” (2012: 3). The final dimension, is what they call “walk the talk” whereby the employees and school organisation reflect the global citizenship ethos through actions; i.e. “do your organisation's actions reflect global citizenship values” (van Middelkoop, 2012: 3). This guide encourages teachers and schools to focus on one of these areas at a time while also acknowledging there “is no single blueprint” for embedding these types of topics into classrooms and schools.

Challenges to incorporating humanitarian topics, has explored the key obstacles that teachers discussed during this research. These were, time constraints, room in the curriculum and wider support from the school. While these were challenges voiced
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by teachers, there were those who were able to overcome these challenges to ensure humanitarian topics were being taught in their classroom regardless of the obstacles in doing so.

Conclusion

In this chapter I explored the academic moments of humanitarian learning. It began by discussing where humanitarianism belonged. It looks at how students, teachers and practitioners defined the term humanitarianism, philanthropy and active citizenship. The key finding was that understanding the term humanitarianism is complex for students and teachers, making it challenging for them to relate to ‘humanitarian’ organisations.

In this section, finding a place on the curriculum, I examined the subjects that were observed teaching humanitarian topics, specifically: Religious Studies, Geography, History, Politics and more generally school wide. These were subjects where some teachers believed there was space to teach humanitarian issues. A few overarching themes appeared: the role of the government in the classroom by redefining the curriculum; time constraints; and teacher enthusiasm to find a place in the curriculum to teach humanitarian issues. This section addressed the research question which developed during my field study: how does the politics of schooling shape the possibilities and limits of humanitarian education. It explored the subjects that teach humanitarian topics and some of the concerns that teachers had with political interference.

In the section, Methods that students found memorable, a wide range of methods that were observed to teach humanitarian topics in the classroom were discussed and those that students found to enjoy the most were identified through their own voices. These methods included: the use of videos, interactive sessions (workshops/trips), outside speakers, debates and learning about ‘the other’. The methods that students found memorable discussed the tangible ways that students engage with humanitarian topics, addressing the first research question, Exploring the methods
that students found to be most engaging could be used by NGOs to create effective material, workshops and source speakers to support humanitarian learning.

The third, and final, section explored the challenges to incorporating these topics into the school. The primary challenges were: having the time and space in the curriculum; and the second challenge, was having the support of the school. There were teachers who managed to find space within their class to teach humanitarian topics or incorporate it within aspects of the curriculum, but the overriding theme was one of time constraint and pressure to fully explore these issues. Teachers also expressed that having the support of their school made a positive difference to teaching humanitarian issues.

Chapter 7 has explored the academic moments of humanitarian learning for students. It provides a background to how students engaged with humanitarian topics, where they were taught, the methods that were useful and the barriers teachers face. This will provide a springboard for chapter 8, where the empathetic responses of students are explored, and chapter 9, resonance, where I pose that humanitarian topics have an impact on the students’ sense of the world.
Chapter 8: Empathetic Responses

In the previous chapter I discussed the academic moments of learning for students, specifically: where humanitarian learning belongs in the curriculum, the methods that are use and the challenges to incorporating it. Chapter 8 goes on to look at how these topics affect students psychologically and socially or what I will refer to as the psycho-social aspect.

I began my research with a broad framework to help guide me through my understanding of the psychological and social (psycho-social) effectiveness of humanitarian issues. This involved three strands necessary to explore how students were affected: the sympathetic response, the empathetic response and the resonance of the topic. Initially, I categorised sympathetic, the idea of feeling for another person emotionally, and empathetic, the ability to identify with another individual, as two separate entities as I discuss in the following paragraphs. However, I came to believe students do not box their emotional responses into either sympathetic or empathetic. Rather, their emotions range across an empathetic spectrum which will be discussed in greater detail within this chapter.

The chapter begins by exploring the empathetic spectrum that is used to frame the student experience with discussions surrounding the differences between sympathetic and empathetic responses. It then moves on to discuss the prominent empathetic themes which developed through the course of this research. These include: the four elements of disengagement or why students may find it challenging to empathise as opposed to sympathise; the degree of student ownership in their interactions; the relatability of topics and the local versus the global empathetic effect. Within each of these themes the analytical framework of the empathetic spectrum is considered. Chapter 9 then goes on to discuss the potential resonance humanitarian topics have with students.
A spectrum of responses

The analytical framework for this research revolves around how students engage along an empathetic spectrum with humanitarian topics. I realised early on within my research that the way in which students engaged demonstrated their empathetic or sympathetic connection to the issues. However, as my research continued I realised it was short-sighted to categorise students as being either sympathetic or empathetic. This section discusses the initial categorisation that influenced the analytical framework and why this has led to using an empathetic spectrum for this research.

The empathetic spectrum is shown in the diagram below, which has sympathy on one side and empathy on the other. I argue that students do not feel sympathy or empathy, their reaction lies within the spectrum at times they may be reacting more empathetically and others more sympathetically.

There is an on-going debate regarding the semantics of how sympathy (Darwall, 1998; Rescher, 1975; Wispé, 1986) and empathy (Deutsch & Madle, 1975; Feshback, 1978; Stueber, 2013; Wispé, 1986) is defined, with no clear universal definition for each. For example, Chismar argues that sympathy has a more profound connection to the ‘other’, where sympathy is the naturally occurring emotive response which everyone has the capability to experience (Chismar, 1988). Meanwhile, empathy is a state which one can only experience by going through the same experience, therefore being a learned behaviour, stating “sympathy…not only includes empathizing, but also entails having a positive regard or a non-fleeting concern for the other person” (Chismar 1988: 257). This philosophical debate is noted to clarify to the reader which definitions I am working with and to facilitate the reader’s interaction with the analytical framework.
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The examples I use in this section and throughout my findings are based to a great extent on my interpretation of student reactions. It is important to mention the relationship that I built with the classes that I observed. As a trained teacher, youth worker and a generally outgoing individual I found myself building a rapport with students over the course of the research. At the point when I observed the class watching this video clip, I had been shadowing the class set throughout their daily schedule for a number of days. I became friendly with a number of the students and had spoken to the majority of them in a relaxed manner in between classes. I was able to get to know their personalities and the class was at ease with my presence as a researcher. My interpretation of student reactions was not based on a fleeting assumption as an outside researcher briefly attending a single class. It was built on getting to know the participants themselves over an extended period of time and was interpreted through the lens of my previous experiences as a teacher, researcher and youth worker.

The sympathetic response stems “from another’s emotional state or condition that is not identical to the other’s emotion, but consists of feelings of sorrow or concern for another” (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987: 6). This would be where the students recognise that there is an issue and can identify with those affected by feeling bad for them. One clear example of sympathetic responses was observed in a Geography class in School A in Greater Manchester when students watched a short video clip on the Japanese Tsunami.

It was stated in the video that “95% of homes were destroyed” and this was reinforced by video evidence and before/after satellite images. Initially when the number was mentioned there was little to no reaction from the class but when the video and satellite images were displayed there were audible gasps from several students. When later asked to reflect on the Tsunami, I observed students writing down on their white boards “95% destroyed” and when directly questioned by the teacher at the end of the lesson this number was again brought up. However, I believed this to be a sympathetic reaction for some students in the classroom as they were shocked by the extensiveness of the damage but did not seem to comprehend the personal consequences of this.
Four girls, specifically, were sitting at the table next to mine, seemed to react in a sympathetic manner. As I was sitting at the table directly next to them, at the back of the room, I was able to hear their comments to one another and could clearly observe their actions. These girls wrote down the number of homes destroyed and were momentarily shocked by the statistic, open mouths and audible gasps. I say momentarily because in the next scene the girls react to a Japanese survivor’s account with jokes about his accent—he was speaking in Japanese—and laughter. It was at this moment that these four girls disengaged from what the person was saying—that he had lost family members and his home—and were no longer interested in the survivor’s account instead carrying on joking about his accent. I observed them writing notes and mumbling comments to each other for the remainder of the video clip.

This is not to say they may have been affected at an empathetic level, however it was not possible to ascertain this based on the responses to teacher directed questioning and the observations that I made. The teacher prompted the class to write down on whiteboards what they remembered at the end of the lesson; one of the four girls wrote that Japan was located in the Pacific Ocean while another wrote that Japan was made up of a number of islands. For those four girls seated near me, the atmosphere was one of sympathy more so than empathy during portions of the video and topic.

However, other students in the class were affected more deeply by the destruction represented in this video. These students also audibly gasped when initially shocked by the images, with several students mentioning these scenes specifically when questioned at the end of the lesson. They related to the pain that these individuals experienced and identified with their situation. The empathetic response is the “affective state that stems from another’s emotional state or condition and the (student) reaction was congruent with it” (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987: 5). This reaction sees students relating to the situation or the people on a personal level, having an emotional impact on them. Instead of the sympathetic feeling for another this sees students feeling with another.
When I apply the girls' responses on an empathetic spectrum, as shown in the image above, they did not react in a way which was void of empathy. However, they experienced a shorter empathetic response which was closer to a feeling of sympathy for the individuals. It is unclear how the girls would have responded if they were sitting apart in the class or whether their responses were influenced by their peers. However, the girls were mimicking one another in their responses, through laughter and jokes. In the initial analysis, I found these girls to be less empathetic; however, when looking at the wider research context, I believe a number of pressures influenced this reaction. One, or all of the girls, could have been affected on a deeper level but could not express their emotions in what would be perceived as a normative reaction. They could have been uncomfortable with the material or not mature enough to process what they were experiencing, so disengaged as a coping mechanism. Therefore, I cannot make the assertion that they did not feel empathetic, rather what I witnessed would be described as closer to a sympathetic reaction on the empathetic spectrum.

This is one discussion which highlighted the examples of sympathetic and empathetic responses, as well as the empathetic spectrum for a specific classroom situation. This example was a single snapshot of the reactions of the four girls, in a class of approximately thirty, and does not detail the range of reactions that students experienced during the short clip.

In what follows I go on to discuss and illustrate the empathetic themes that I identified throughout my research, using this empathetic spectrum as a guide. Additional examples, using this video of the Japanese Tsunami, will also be explored within these themes.
Empathetic themes

Over the course of this research approximately 670 students were observed in various settings. Each of these individuals were empathising with humanitarian topics to varying extents. With such an overwhelming amount of data, I have organised this chapter around four themes which stood out during my research. These themes became apparent while I was coding my observations, interviews and focus group transcriptions. For example, teachers would regularly discuss in interviews why their students were not engaging with the material. These reasons were then categorised into the four elements of disengagement. The themes of ownership and relatability focused on how students engaged and what made them more inclined to empathise. The local versus global discussion was present from the start of this research when the case studies were chosen. In the following paragraphs, I discuss the four themes in further detail.

This first theme addresses the stereotypes and obstacles that were apparent when speaking to teachers and adults regarding student engagement with humanitarian topics, specifically: maturity, apathy, ability and ego. Throughout this research teachers and organisers would often discuss why some of their students had difficulty in empathetically engaging. While this begins the chapter with negative intonations it encapsulates the barriers students face when engaging with these topics, barriers which need to be overcome to reach this younger generation.

The second theme, explores how students experience greater feelings of empathy for humanitarian issues when they take ownership in how they engage. Through increasing the degree of ownership, a student has for a topic or a cause the greater levels of empathy they felt.

The third theme, discusses how students were able to relate to humanitarian topics. One of the key findings is that students found it easier to engage with humanitarian topics when they could relate to it on a personal level; i.e. through identifying with the age of the individual affected or understanding the topic through a familial perspective.
The fourth theme alludes to an earlier discussion within this thesis in chapter 4 of the local and global approaches to humanitarian topics. In chapter 7, teachers discussed students engaging with ‘the other’ and how to encourage them to do so. This theme explores how students empathetically engaged with local and global humanitarian topics as well as ‘the other’.

There are examples used that appear in relation to several of the themes discussed. These themes explore how students engage empathetically with humanitarian topics and relate to the psychological and social effect of empathising. In the conclusion to this thesis, these themes are used to determine the implications of this research. The remainder of this chapter explores each of these four themes in detail with examples of how students engage with humanitarian topics empathetically.

The four elements of disengagement — maturity, apathy, ability and ego

Rony Brauman, Director of the Humanitarian and Conflict Response Institute and past president of Médecins Sans Frontières, was asked, “Is there hope for the future”, at the Humanitarianism, Past, Present and Future Conference during the plenary session in 2012, regarding teaching students about humanitarian topics. His response was one of cynicism and a belief that critical study should be left for when they are older (Brauman, 2012). Teachers across my research groups spoke about those students who had difficulty connecting to an issue. Throughout my research, a theme has developed regarding student disengagement with humanitarian topics, whether this is through maturity levels, apathy, ability or ego. At times, these were the most frustrating encounters to watch during my research and while I was teacher. However, some of those students who struggled to empathetically connect to humanitarian issues initially, were later those who experienced the most memorable moments. This theme emerged to explore the elements that influenced students in their disengagement with humanitarian topics and the struggle some had to empathetically connect with a topic.

Ms. C, a Religious Studies teacher in School B, hypothesised that some reactions were due to their level of maturity, for thirteen and fourteen-year olds, stating: “sometimes they see things as being funny though and they can't empathise, but that sort of depends on their level of maturity”. Another Religious Studies Teacher, Ms. X from
School A, believed that students wanted to “give a lot of them(selves) during the social issues part of the course. Whilst they can’t really identify with others, they all want to give their perspective – they all want to be a part of it”. This could reinforce Ms. C’s statement of the maturity levels of some students, which may be reflected by how they cope with difficult topics. Ms. X believed that they “seem to find it hard to empathise with other people and put themselves in somebody else’s shoes”. She went on to recount an exchange she had with one of her students:

“Student: ‘Well I wouldn’t do that ‘cause it’s wrong...’
Ms. X: ‘But what if you were forced...’
Student: ‘Yeah but I wouldn’t be...’
Ms. X: ‘Ok well how might that person feel like as they are...’
Student: ‘Yeah but they probably aren’t forced into it’...
Ms. X: ‘YES, but they are because I’m telling you they are’.

Ms X concluded her story stating:

“They find it very hard to empathise, very hard to see things from someone else’s point of view, very hard to accept that what someone else has experienced is valid according to their world view” (Ms. X, School A, YPI).

The exchange which Ms. X recounted is one where the student had difficulty relating to a topic empathetically. The last sentence of the exchange with the student demonstrates the frustration the teacher had in getting through to her student “YES, but they are because I’m telling you they are”. There are multiple elements which led to this exchange. It could be rooted in the student’s maturity level, not yet seeing the situation from someone else’s perspective; it could also be a case of exploiting the teacher’s passion for the topic and disagreeing with the teacher for the sake of it. Assuming this exchange took place in front of the entire class, the student could have also been acting stubborn to maintain a persona in front of their friends and exercising the autonomy of their ‘voice’. Levels of maturity allude to understanding and coping with complex emotions. If we return to the empathetic spectrum, I could not say that the student had no feelings of empathy, as they put the condition of whether the subject of the discussion was being forced into a situation or not. The
student was discussing how she would react herself in that situation and how she would not be forced, more specifically she could not understand how another person could be forced into a situation. If the situation was explored in greater depth for how an individual could be forced into doing something that is considered wrong, this student may have been able to engage with the subject to a greater extent along the empathetic spectrum, perhaps seeing how she could be forced if the roles were reversed.

The second element of disengagement is apathy. This relates to students who are not interested in humanitarian topics or feel that even if they were interested there is little they can do to help when the problem is so large. For example:

“That big fear of failure with an issue like this, something global, it's the 'what can I do about it...it doesn’t matter what I think...I don’t care...it doesn’t affect me'. Getting them to open up and see that humanitarian issues affect us all and it's not just about you it's about you and everyone you've ever met and all the people you’ve never met and all the people who’ve never been born yet” (Ms. H, School N, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

Humanitarian topics can be daunting for students to learn about. When students learn about famine in Ethiopia or a hurricane which struck an impoverished area in the Caribbean, they see the topic as too large for one person to make a difference. Ms. H spoke about students turning off as they do not believe they can make a difference or the famine does not affect them directly. Students in this example disengage because it seems to be an easier option than attempting to learn about the topic, engage with the issue or attempt to help. This element does not correlate to students not feeling empathetic, but they are unwilling to take the first steps towards engaging.

The third element related to disengagement, ability, was one which a few teachers mentioned in their interviews. For example:

“For more able students it’s easier to handle. For lower ability students, the tendency...I would say 80% of them...we should have the death penalty it doesn’t matter you get what you deserve in this life. They find it difficult to look at nuance, it’s not exclusively the case, but like I said, about 80% of them struggle with nuanced issues that doesn't immediately involve them. With more academically able
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students, the opposite is true, you have about 20% that can’t handle that with the 80% poking around and understanding different aspects of it” (Ms. U, School Q, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

I think using ability is a bit of a misnomer to why some students are not engaging. I think it is easier to say, student x will not be able to empathetically engage with a topic rather than looking at why student x is not engaging. Perhaps the material is not being understood so it is more challenging for some students to engage emotionally. Teachers try to convey the main points of a topic and these were repetitively portrayed. With the focus remaining on repetition and driving home the basic points of a topic, the academically lower ability students are being shown the same perspective ad nauseam contributing to their disengagement. The more academically inclined students perhaps are faster to grasp the main arguments and then have the luxury of analysing a topic from different perspectives. As I mentioned in the previous section using the example of the four girls during the tsunami lesson, there are variables that occur when teaching this age group. It is difficult to truly grasp why a single student is not engaging with a topic, it could be as simple as they do not particularly like that teacher so would rather be somewhere else. Or it could be that they have a very difficult home life or stressful situation they are thinking of instead. Even when asked, some students would be hesitant to state these reasons to a teacher for why they were not paying attention. They could also have additional learning or emotional needs which makes their experience in the classroom or in social situations very different from that of their peers. Therefore, academic ability could play a role in disengagement, but ultimately the inclusive practices surrounding how the material is taught could go some way in bridging this gap.

The final element of disengagement is that of adolescent ego. Both teachers and students remarked how student ego and self-interest get in the way of engaging with humanitarian issues. At their age, of thirteen and fourteen, they are undergoing a pivotal moment where they are transitioning from children to young adults. From my experience with this age group, they have an egocentric approach to life. They are foremost concerned with their bubble of interaction; trying to create their own identity, understand their role in the school, in their family structure, in their community. With so much focus on the individual it can be challenging to get students to think beyond their bubble and consider the experiences of others. Ms. X
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators discussed how teaching humanitarian topics in the classroom could be improved. She believes humanitarian education needs to be taught from a younger age for it to be effective and counteract the influences of self-interest and ego.

“I think it can. I think it needs much more time really than we give it. I think its values that you kind of need to bury inside them quite young. I think when you suddenly pull out a philanthropy project in year 9 at 14 in the midst of self-interest and ego...they kind of need that from the very beginning, like key stage 2” (Ms. X, School A, YPI).

Returning to Ms. X's previous example used to discuss maturity; “whilst they can’t really identify with others, they all want to give their perspective – they all want to be a part of it”.

The third empathetic theme, relatability, will discuss in greater depth how to relate humanitarian topics to this age group using examples from YPI. One of the comments, which stood out, was when a student spoke at one of the YPI final events in Greater Manchester, stating: “Do you think they deserve this because people like you only think about themselves, and see no point in helping this cause”?

This student went to core of the problem, in her opinion, of why her peers would not engage with the charity that they represented. She felt so strongly in representing the charity that she went on the offensive in trying to convince her peers that there must be something holding them back if they were not able to assist her cause. This was a strong message on the day because it held the members in the audience responsible for their feelings of apathy and laid the blame of those feelings on ego and selfishness. This one sentence spoke volumes regarding how students relate to humanitarian topics and engage with these issues. This group of students highlighted why their peers may not engage and took responsibility for putting the onus on their peers to transcend that feeling in order to help others.

Each of these four elements of disengagement highlight reasons why some students may not be engaging empathetically with humanitarian topics. These were elements that were observed and discussed throughout the research. However, while there are seeds of disengagement there were significant moments of humanitarian learning, which will be discussed in this chapter.
Returning to Brauman’s discussion at the start of this section, his explanation of leaving critical study until they are older had seeds of truth within it. However, I disagree with the idea that these topics should not be taught because a minority of students are not yet mature enough to fully engage with the issues. You could make a similar assertion about the general adult population whereby not everyone has the same ability or interest in engaging in humanitarian discourse. However, that does not mean it should be stopped. Some of the students in my research struggled with the topics presented or were unable to form deep empathetic connections to them. This does not inherently mean that students of this age are not able to cope with these topics. Finding the topics that appeal to students who may be more hesitant in engaging could encourage greater empathetic connections to humanitarian issues.

Ms. E from School R discusses, in the following quote, the desire to strike a chord with students to find a topic that does affect them, stating:

“I think it actually opens their eyes up a little bit, it gets them to look at the world outside of themselves. Typically, especially in media studies and English, we find the kids really don’t have much knowledge of things outside of their own immediate experience. They’re not engaged with the wider issues of humanity, beyond the very surface levels of what’s taught to them in school. We really want to get them investigating and talking about those issues, and quite often they’ll hit something that strikes a chord with them and they’ll develop a personal interest that they go on to build on” (Ms. E, School R, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

The teachers who were interviewed discussed ways of reaching more of the students in the class by presenting the material in a way that would engage as many people as possible. You will find students in every academic class struggling to participate with the material that is being taught, whether this is due to ability levels or interest, it comes with the adolescent territory. I do not think teaching humanitarian topics should be ruled out due to this but adjusted and made accessible for as many students as possible. As stated in the previous section, their teachers and I, do not know how students are processing the information internally, and what reactions may be outward coping mechanisms to deal with difficult topics. Furthermore, students may not react in a way that the teacher would hope for at the time. However, we do not know the degree to which these topics resonated with students, who appeared disengaged, at a later point.
Student ownership of engaging

The second theme explores the concept of student ownership to foster empathetic connections. During my research, I observed that students engaged more empathetically when they were able to exercise their right to choose who they wanted to help or what they wanted to learn. Through taking a degree of ownership in how they engaged, students seemed to participate more empathetically, compared to when they were told how they should interact with humanitarian topics.

Student ownership of engaging, is divided into three further sections. The first discusses examples relating to YPI, the second addresses student ownership with SLN-MUN and the final section has a wider discussion of student ownership in the classroom. Examples in each of these sections will be explored with reference to the empathetic spectrum.

YPI Case Study

The Youth Philanthropy Initiative (YPI) programme that the Year 9 students participated in provides the first example when exploring how students engage with humanitarian topics and more specifically when they take ownership in their engagement. Students could choose the topics that they wanted to research and ultimately the charities that they would represent. There are limitations to their choices with restrictions placed on the type of charity students could use. While these were mentioned earlier in the thesis, the charity they were tasked in finding were grassroots organisations that focused on social issues in their local community. Therefore, if students wanted to support cancer charities they were limited to those that socially helped cancer patients in their local geographic area as opposed to national charities or those that devoted their resources towards research. Therefore, there were restrictions in place however students could generally express their interests when engaging with charities that support other people.

This section begins by looking at the national charities that won the YPI grant in the year of 2012-2013 in England. Data was collected based on the winning charities and the schools that chose them. It was impossible to determine all charities that student teams chose to represent as there was no documentation held by YPI for this.
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However, I was able to explore through documentation the 78 schools, approximately 460 student winners, and their chosen charities in 2012-2013. Document research included looking at photographs of the 78 winners holding their cheques and a report from YPI’s accountant at the time that listed the charities that received grant money for that year. The discussion will then move towards looking at the topics chosen by students in one school where extended observations and interviews were conducted. The local and national examples are comparatively analysed to explore the similarities and differences of student topics. In each of these examples the student topics are divided into three categories: Society, Healthcare and Youth/Family Issues. The three topics are initially represented by the colours green, purple and blue respectively for the main graphs. Variances of these colours will appear throughout the analysis to highlight certain arguments but in general these colour families will support the topics unless otherwise noted.

In the following paragraphs, a broader perspective on the moments of humanitarian learning is taken by looking at how students across England, who participated in YPI chose to engage with humanitarian topics local to their communities. This initial discussion allows for a critical exploration into the topics that students regard as important to them, whether this is to their age group or specific social issues. While attending YPI event finals I heard directly from the groups as to why they chose their charities and the profound empathetic links they developed. Hearing from the groups gave substance and a stronger foundation in understanding the national information that was researched.

The types of charities that students chose can be seen when looking at the 2012-2013 school year. Overall, there were 78 charities across England that won the prize money from YPI. This number is therefore not inclusive of all the charities that students chose throughout their YPI experience but does give a better idea of the types of charities students chose on a national scale. It should also be clarified that the winning charity, wins due to the performance of the student group, not on the content of the charity.

The following pie chart, entitled YPI Charities 2012-2013, has been divided into three categories of Healthcare (purple), Society (green) and Youth/Family Issues (blue). It
is clear from this chart that the overall majority, at 60%, of YPI charities focused on Youth/Family Issues with 47 of the 78 charities falling into this category. Healthcare came next with 24 out of the 78 charities or 30%. Finally, wider societal charities came in third with just 8 charities out of the 78 or 10% of the total.

YPI England Charities 2012-2013

The YPI England Charities 2012-2013 chart gives a good visual representation of the distribution of student interest, specifically the interest in Youth/Family Issues. It does leave a bit to the imagination regarding the types of charities that were included and how they were categorised. There are three further graphs which deconstruct each of the individual categories to see and discuss the charities students chose to support.

This first graph, entitled Society, represents the breakdown of charities within the society group. Within the societal group half of the charities focused on the needs of the homeless with 4 out of 8 representing this population. These homeless charities focused on promoting life skills and rebuilding the lives of the homeless. All four of these charities went further than just providing a roof over the heads of the users. An in-depth discussion regarding the empathetic links to homelessness is included in the school specific example which follows the national discussion in this theme.
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Society

The community resource charities included are a bit vague in their mission statements, generally discussing the needs of the community, empowering the users and delivering innovative services. These are charities which are serving the entire community across the age demographics. Both charities are located in the Midlands, one in the West Midlands outside of Birmingham and the second is located sixty miles away in the East Midlands. This was rare in that half of the participating schools are located in London, so it was quite an anomaly to find two similar charity choices that were not located in London but rather in the Midlands. These charities both engage with improving the local community or providing information for the general population in each area. It is difficult to explore the empathetic links to these charities without having been present to hear the student presentations. These charities fit the stipulations that YPI set for charity's to be chosen as winners without offering much more detail as to how the students empathetically engaged.

The final two charities, education/rehabilitation for prisoners as well as the charity for refugees/asylum seekers both address the needs of specific populations within Greater London. The discrepancies between the geographic locations highlight the student choice in their decision making and how this was influenced by their location as well as the needs of their communities. For example, the group which supported the Refugees and Asylum Seekers lived in an area of London with a higher proportion
of refugees who had need of the service, with 27% of the student population for this borough identifying as refugees (Camden, 2012).

The eight charities that are included in the society graph represent just 10% of the 78 national charities that won in the year 2012-2013. These charities address the wider societal needs of the community and in some cases helping very specific user groups. Empathetic connections can be drawn with these groups. It is noteworthy to mention how few groups chose to represent topics that were considered to be wider societal needs, instead focusing on healthcare or the family/youth needs.

Healthcare is the next category to be discussed, the following graph highlights the charities included. With 24 charities, and 30% of the total, healthcare was a popular choice among students. When we take a closer look at the types of charities encompassed under the healthcare banner, looking specifically at the darker shades of purple, there is a majority which either directly address the needs of children or the needs of the child and family in specific situations (emotional support and bereavement counselling). The charities which directly address the needs of children include those providing Children’s Hospice Care, Grant a Wish programmes for ill children and a charity which works to prevent cardiac deaths in young people.

The lighter shades of purple are the charities which address the general needs of the population with regards to specific conditions, blind/partially sights, neurological...
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conditions, cancer and general hospice care. The lightest shade of purple was a charity which supported wounded members of the military. The single shade of green was a charity for a specific hospital. Within this category, the health of children and members of the family, were the dominant types of charities that students chose. These choices also apply to the empathetic theme of relatability regarding why students may have chosen them, for example empathetically connecting to a child who is ill as they could imagine it was a friend of theirs.

The final graph represents the charities that were chosen that were included under the Youth/Family Issues category. These charities, coloured in various shades of blue and purple all catered to youth and/or their families. There is one case of purple representing emotional support for people who are LGBT. The teal colour represents prevention/relief of poverty, a topic that resembles the homeless charities within the society category. The charities included in this section are those that are aimed at helping the family including vulnerable women and children or disadvantaged youth. Within this category the majority of charities directly address the needs of young people. Even within the two Elderly charities, one of those aims to cultivate relationships between the old and young in the community.

The Youth/Family Issues comprised 60% of the overall choice that students made with 47 charities falling into this category. On a national level, students chose to help charities that supported youth and/or family issues.
These three graphs demonstrate that when students are given freedom to choose the charities they want to engage with they apply their values, beliefs and geographic location to find the organisation that best reflects their philosophy. Students tended to engage to a wider extent with charities that represented youth, healthcare and family issues. These categories are those that are closest to home and ones which they may have personal experiences with. This should not discount the empathetic connection students may have had with the wider societal groups however based purely on the winning charities it is difficult to explore why students chose the charities that they did. Every charity that won was one that a group of students invested their time and energy into supporting.

To understand student reasoning into the charities they chose the next few paragraphs discuss individual examples of the student choice. Beginning with a school-wide exploration of the charities represented in the final and in the class that was observed during this research in School A. A further discussion regarding the topics they chose and why they chose them will give a greater understanding of the empathetic theme of student ownership when engaging in humanitarian education.

The image entitled “Student Topics”, is a combination of those topics that students chose in the class that I observed over a two-week period and in the final school-
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Wide event held at the school. The diagram is divided into the same three colour groups as the earlier diagrams: green, blue and purple. Similarly, green represents the wider societal needs of the community. The blue highlights the topics that address the social needs of youth and family issues. The purple, denotes the medical issues that have been identified. The shading that is shown in both the blue and purple groups represents a spectrum from darkest to lightest. The darkest colours are those that have a primary effect on the student age-group. The lightest colour is seen to have a secondary effect on the year 9 age group. The moderate colour represents issues which may have either a primary or secondary effect on students or a combination of both.

The issues that students chose in this class and at the final event as being important to them were; child abuse, drug abuse, homelessness, gang crime, domestic violence, hospice care for family members, hospice care for sick children, a Children’s hospital, an organisation for premature babies and finally an organisation to support single parents. These topics have been arranged in three categories based on the broader subjects they relate to, they are: the surrounding society highlighted in green; healthcare, including children similar in age to them and their families in purple; and finally the topics in blue are those that directly coincide with student issues that happen in their home or school.

At first glance, it is apparent that the group with the most topics connect directly to youth issues, in blue. If we expand this to include children’s healthcare (Hospice Care Children and Children’s Hospital) and Hospice Care for the family we have eight out of the ten topics relating to youth issues. These eight have the potential to directly correlate with youth issues such as child abuse, drug abuse, gang crime, sick children and family member or those that may occur close to or within their homes with domestic violence and single parent households. These examples from a single school reflects the national distribution of charity topics which were discussed above.

If we return to the definition mentioned earlier of the empathetic response, empathy is when students “feel with another” as opposed to for another. Initially we can only assume why the students would choose these topics. School A is an all-girls school, therefore the topic of domestic violence with a specific focus on violence against
women suggests an empathetic response to the problem. We can also speculate that as teenagers they would focus on issues pertinent to their age demographic and geographic location, issues including gang crime, drug abuse, child abuse, bullying or online safety (Bond et al., 2001; Miller, 1997; Miller & Plant, 2003). These presumptions were substantiated when the girls were directly asked to justify why they chose their topics. It was at this point that empathetic strands became apparent. Most topics that they found to be significant areas of concern, the eight out of ten topics as previously mentioned, within their communities revolved around issues that they could identify with on a personal level. Students related to charities based on their age, gender, kinship with the recipients or exposure to the issues the charity raised, demonstrating an empathetic link for the majority of groups to their chosen charities.

The empathetic affinity students had when taking ownership of their choices in researching topics and choosing their charities was an important strand in engaging with humanitarian issues and in understanding the potential impact that these topics have. Students engaged on a variety of levels with humanitarian principles and gained a greater understanding of the “importance of human beings and how (they) relate to each other, look out for each other” as I quoted Ms Y (School A, YPI) earlier in this paper.

While the majority of groups noted in the diagram above expressed an empathetic connection of this kind, such a connection did not emerge at the outset, but became a journey that lasted eight weeks. YPI provided students with the opportunity to explore which social issues matter to them. Students are then asked to find a charity which they feel best represents and supports their chosen social issue. However, the teacher’s role in providing guidance and support throughout the process encouraged students to get the most out of the programme. During her interview Ms. C discussed the difficulty in having groups engage empathetically with their issue, stating:

“It's sometimes a challenge to get the students to properly understand the situation. They...take things at face value and don’t want to...understand the real detail of what’s going on in a situation. In terms of YPI, they’ve got this £3,000 in their head and that’s playing a big part in what they're doing, because they still, a lot of them in the back of their mind, think they are going to get the money.
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And it’s about them putting down their own baggage and looking at what other people are going through and seeing things from other people’s points of view” (School B, YPI Greater Manchester).

With this being a student-guided project, it is not surprising that students feel a connection with the charity as it reflects the choices that they have made. They are uniquely empowered to direct their research, critically examine society around them and express the connection they share with that charity during the presentations. However, getting the students to develop that empathetic link to those who are affected by the social issue is more difficult to teach, as Ms. C states above. It is through the student’s connection to the issue that puts them in a better position to understand and relate to the situation of the people who are the benefactors of services of those charities.

There are specific examples that demonstrate a great deal of student ownership when choosing their charity and advocating on their behalf. The Former Director of YPI England recounted a story which demonstrates the connection that one girl and her group had to their chosen charity, stating:

“I’ve heard...it’s a privilege to go to these finals and there are lots of stories...I could reel off another ten memorable moments of young people who have obviously battled shyness and incredible insecurity to stand up on stage to represent and you always get a group who is in tears at the end or a couple of groups who are in tears because they feel as if they have let their charities down by not winning.

We had a girl who didn’t win and her video wouldn’t play and she was absolutely devastated at a final in June. And we got an email a month ago saying that she went away with her group... and it’s a reasonably nice school, it’s a state, grammar school in an okay area, but certainly not an independent school. And they went away over the summer and they raised £8,000 for that charity”.

Due to the group’s connection with their charity and their desire to help, they were driven to fundraise when they thought they let their charity down. In the end, they raised £8,000 for that charity; nearly triple the original prize amount of £3,000. Students participating in YPI are encouraged to choose charities that represent their values. This group empathetically connected to the needs of the charity. They would not have spent their summer holiday going beyond YPI and raising a large monetary donation if they were not affected by the charity that they chose. It is impossible to
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know whether they would have been so profoundly affected had they been assigned a charity to represent or were told this is the charity the year group is supporting.

The YPI case study into the empathetic strand of student ownership demonstrated that students chose to support charities that affected them. They chose charities which they identified with or those that appealed to facets of their communities. While there were limitations on the charities that they could choose, the overwhelming majority still opted for charities that supported young people. YPI allowed enough flexibility for students to decide who they would support enhancing the ownership that students felt in the programme.

SLN-MUN Case Study

Within the SLN-MUN programme, students were dictated to engage in a prescribed manner in several ways, including the topic they debated, the country they represented and who were their fellow group members. For thirteen and fourteen-year-old students these were pivotal decisions that were taken out of their hands. While it is more feasible to do so for the operational side of the events, planning the topic beforehand to organise speakers, picking the country at random for fairness, and the integral part of SLN-MUN where students are linked with young people from other schools. It is feasible to think that the removal of student ownership on such pivotal portions of the experience may inhibit their ability to empathetically connect to the issue. However, this was not the case. Whilst students had limited choices, they demonstrated alternative methods in order to take ownership of the topic and the countries they represented. Throughout the process, students struggled to work with their groups and wrestled with the complex facets of the argument (either weapons of war or refugees). However, it was evident during a time of reflection at the end of the final event day that students took ownership of the debate and came into their roles as delegates from specific countries. Examples include:

“We believe that MUN has been an excellent experience and we would like to express our thanks. We felt challenged on a difficult topic while working with kids from different schools” (Brazil delegate SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“I think the way we were pitted together, instantly, to work as friends towards one main goal was very thought invoking and it really tied quite strongly the bonds between a lot of us. Working on
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the work, behind the scenes, I think has been just as enjoyable almost as the real day itself” (USA delegate SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

They empathetically engaged with complex issues from the perspectives of the countries that they were representing, not only did they have to understand the culture, government, politics and economy of their country they also had to know how that country would respond to a complex issue. For example, the topic weapons of war included discussions surrounding the use of landmines, chemical and nuclear weapons. They had to apply this topic to the information they knew about their country and represent the response they believe that country would have made which reflected the countries interests. On the final event day students were in role throughout the day. When speaking to delegates from Angola you could understand the economic and political reasons for their stance as well as the deeply personal social consequences on the use of weapons in their country. It was the degree to which students took ownership in their engagement and delved into the simulation of the debate that tapped into the empathetic spectrum. One MA student stated their reaction to the SLN-MUN debate:

“It’s been absolutely overwhelming what you guys did today. I thought it was fantastic how you really absorbed the character of the countries you were representing and how you really did represent the issue incredibly well. And I was really impressed with the resolution that you came up with in the end...very comprehensive and I just wish it was so” (MA student, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

A member of staff from HCRI asked the SLN-MUN students at the end of the debate whether they agreed with everything that they argued during the debate day. It was only a few of the students in Canada that stated they agreed with all of Canada's policies, while the rest of the delegates indicated they did not agree with everything they argued. The staff member's response was:

“I think that’s fantastic. I think you just made such a complex argument, took the positions that you needed to, defended parts of them...adapting. And I think that’s great on such a difficult moral issue you can do that in a persuasive way, alongside and separate to your own beliefs. It was really incredibly, well done” (HCRI Staff member).

For a number of these students they set aside their own beliefs to understand complex arguments from the opposing perspective and represent it to the best of
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their abilities through taking ownership in their engagement. This programme encouraged students to understand ‘the other’, as I mentioned in chapter 7 Methods that students found memorable. Understanding ‘the other’, in this regard, was largely dependent on the degree to which students wanted to engage with the topic and take ownership in their involvement.

The face of student ownership in the context of SLN-MUN differs from the previous examples of YPI. However, the empathetic potential for students’ engagement in this way was just as powerful. This approach to student ownership is also evident in the following example which took place in the classroom. Ideally, students would have a recognised strong and clear voice that directed their own learning experiences. With the restrictions placed on schools and teachers it is not always possible at present to facilitate the student voice in the direction of their learning. This example demonstrates that students can engage empathetically with complex issues that are dictated to them when they take ownership of the degree to which they want to engage, academically and emotionally. SLN-MUN was not a programme that they were graded on; they received a certificate at the end for participating. The students who did choose to participate and who took ownership of their self-directed learning left the event with empathetic feelings for the country they represented and their fellow students from different schools and backgrounds. If this subject was solely taught in the classroom, without the debate or the Schools Linking aspect, I believe their empathetic experiences would have been diminished.

In the classroom

Returning to the previous Japanese Tsunami example mentioned earlier in this chapter, some of the students in the class appeared to be struck deeper by the destruction represented in the video than the four girls who I previously discussed. Similarly, these students audibly gasped when initially shocked by the images; however, some students mentioned these scenes specifically—stating the percentage of damage that occurred within the city—when questioned at the end of the lesson. The number stayed with them for the remainder of the class (over a half hour) and for these students this was the most memorable moment of the class. They explained when questioned by the teacher that the percentage that they quoted related to destruction of the area and how horrible it was for anyone to lose everything as
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those people had. One of the students that reacted in a more empathetic manner later participated in a focus group for this research (Student X, School A). They responded to the question “do you think it makes a difference to you learning about these (humanitarian) topics”, with the following statement: “yea actually, ‘cause when you learn about it, you know what happens to them and how they suffer”. Student X then went on to explore the idea that her actions had consequences and that while she may not be able to help the person affected by the tsunami she could change her actions closer to home, in part taking more responsibility for keeping it clean and being proud of where you live. The thought of losing everything made this student appreciate what she had and relate to what the person in the video lost.

The Geography teacher at School A, Ms. Y, discussed another example where she felt her students emphasized with the individuals affected by the subject. During her interview she recalled a lesson, which was her most memorable teaching moment. This lesson followed a young woman who had HIV/AIDS. During the lesson students watched a video which began with the woman finding out that she had AIDS, then she found out her boyfriend had it and then she made the decision to have a baby when she knew she had AIDS. This lesson also followed the reactions from her community, including the stigma attached to it, and the class heard her telling her father she had AIDS. Ms. Y, explains that “they were just intrigued by the story…They were asking so many questions about her”. This intrigue and enthusiasm for the topic led them to explore the website associated with the video. Ms. Y knew that this woman had succumbed to her disease and she was anxious and concerned that her students would find out with how they would react. She realised she was going to have to tell them, and when one of the students asked, “is she alive or dead?” Ms. Y told them that she had died. Their reaction was one of the memorable moments for Ms. Y, stating:

“They were really shocked by it, but they weren't judgemental at all. They empathised with her, they empathised that yes she had a baby knowing but she wanted to have a baby and her baby didn't have AIDS. The stigma attached to it and the things that happened like houses were burned down in her community because people had AIDS because they had little education and knowledge about it. They were completely remorseful and not judgemental at all.
And I think that you can teach about it and not be judgemental of the stigma associated with it, but when they actually listen to the story and saw her picture and heard a real-life example then that was the thing that changed their attitudes and enhanced their learning of this as opposed to what we did in the classroom. So I guess that was a good way of them understanding an issue which they easily could have went away and went ‘well, I still have my own opinion on this’.

Students in this class seemed to become emotionally attached to this woman’s story and her life. As a result, I sensed that they faced their own prejudices on the topic of AIDS and were able to see beyond her diagnosis. They identified with the woman’s desire for a family and the difficulty that surrounded her decision-making. They went from feeling sympathy for this woman, to one where they took ownership in learning her story. They wanted to engage further with this woman’s story and understand what happened to her. When they chose to learn more about her their connection to her grew and they experienced a greater depth of empathy for her situation and understanding what she was going through. As the teacher stated, they could have gone away with the feeling of I still believe what I believe. This draws us back to the discussion in the previous theme regarding the student who found it hard to “accept that what someone else has experienced is valid according to their world view” (Ms. X, School A, YPI). A key difference between these two encounters was one where the teacher, Ms. X, was telling the student how to see the situation from the other person’s perspective. While in this example, Ms. Y, found a story which the students were able to relate to and the students took ownership in their learning experience and wanted to engage further. These two examples took place in the same school. It is not always possible to find the material that might trigger student engagement or due to a number of factors (perhaps including maturity, apathy, ability, ego) they do not engage the way the teacher hoped they would on the day.

This example also mimics the experience that students felt while participating in the SLN-MUN case study discussed in the previous paragraphs. Throughout that process students were able to learn personal stories and they developed an attachment to their issue. While doing so, they empathetically engaged with the issue through taking ownership of their learning.

The empathetic theme of student ownership is one which has the potential to resonate with students as they have chosen how they engage. In chapter 2, I discussed the student perspective specifically the role of the student voice. During
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In my research, it was increasingly apparent that the role of the student voice varied when choosing humanitarian initiatives to participate in. There were multiple factors that contributed to this: organisational mandates, ease of coordinating charity initiatives in the school and time in the curriculum. For example, YPI set the boundaries of where the charities are located and the overarching themes of the charities being grassroots and providing social services for people. While SLN-MUN, took the opposite approach of trying to engage students on global issues, some of the events used local charities to convey the information however students did not get to choose what the topic was or which country they would represent. Instead they grew to learn about the topic and identify with the individuals from the country they represented, sometimes representing views contrary to their own. Some schools also placed restrictions on how students engaged with humanitarian issues, for example, limiting the charities the school would support, insisting they are local charities or choosing the charities for the students. Student ownership was a key theme for how they engaged with humanitarian topics. A greater degree of student ownership could facilitate the student voice in shaping their local and global communities based on what they believe are the greatest needs. This theme has highlighted that students empathise to a greater extent when they are invested in the topic and can exercise their decision-making autonomy.

Relatability

The third theme, relatability, discusses ways in which students were able to relate empathetically to humanitarian issues. Throughout this research teachers and NGO/charity organisers would often attempt to relate the humanitarian topic they were trying to convey directly to students. This was found in examples across the two case studies. Examples include, how would you feel or what would you do in that person’s position? As mentioned in the first theme, some students found it difficult to relate to another person’s experience. This theme is explored through the teacher and organiser perspective as well as the student experience. One of the highlights within this theme is the way in which students try to get other students to empathise with their charity in YPI. There are examples of students trying to make the focus of their charity more relatable to their peers. These moments will be reinforced with excerpts or descriptions of student presentations and interviews to access the
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Student voice when discussing their engagement with the topic. This section begins by exploring a few examples from SLN-MUN before embarking on the YPI discussion of how students empathetically related to the topics.

SLN-MUN Case Study

The empathetic links to humanitarianism via the relatability to students was evident throughout the SLN-MUN programmes. While it did at times take the students longer to engage with the subject due to their lack of ownership with the topic and representative country, by the final event day students generally had developed an empathetic link which was demonstrated throughout the day. Students who argued during the debate would often employ similar tactics that are witnessed in the YPI presentations, where they attempt to connect the listener directly to the cause they are arguing for through empathetically relating the topic. Students in both programmes would often use terms which targeted the user to recognise an empathetic connection to the subject they were discussing. Statements, such as ‘how would you feel’, or ‘imagine you were in their position’, were often heard in both case studies. The SLN-MUN discussion regarding the relatability of topics to connect empathetically begins by first discussing the use of these types of terms and directly addressing the listener. The second portion of this analysis looks at a specific example that a teacher mentioned during their time in SLN-MUN which had a profound empathetic effect of students based on the relatability of the subject matter.

During the opening statements of the final SLN-MUN event that took place in Greater Manchester regarding the topic of Weapons of War, there were a number of impassioned statements discussing the damage that weapons could have. For example, the student delegate representing Japan recounted in their opening statement the damage that nuclear weapons had on the Japanese community and how this influenced their current policy:

“Japan is the only country to have suffered atomic bombings; therefore, Japan has been leading the international discussion on disarmament and non-proliferation”.

The delegate from the UK discussed how it would feel if it were your family affected by landmines, stating "how would you feel if it was your child that was killed" (UK representative SLN-MUN Greater Manchester). During the final debate student
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delegates are tasked to represent their country, in this roleplay, they refer to themselves as the delegate from Japan or the UK. They are discouraged from saying I believe, and instead represent the view of their country, therefore saying we the delegation of Japan believe or referring to their country specifically. In this aspect, they are taking on their role as a member of the country they are representing while simultaneously trying to sway the other delegates through empathetically persuasive arguments.

One event which took place during SLN-MUN Greater Manchester, occurred two years prior to the start of this research. However, multiple teachers and organisers recounted the profound empathetic connection their students and they themselves felt to the story of Saranda, a Kosovo refugee, when the topic of debate was the rights of refugees. One of the SLN-MUN organisers had heard of Saranda’s story while compiling information for the sessions. This organiser thought having her as a speaker would be effective but may have been too emotional for some students.

This session began by the woman, who was not yet introduced, turning on a video. Students watched a BBC One Real Story which followed a teenager from Manchester as she travelled back to Serbia to “confront the paramilitary fighter who allegedly murdered her mother, grandmother and two younger brothers” (BBC, 2003). Immediately what struck students and adults was the connection this young girl’s story had with the local community. While she was a refugee and had an accent in the television programme, she was living in Manchester and the programme began by following her in her new hometown. This girl, who they were about to learn the story of, was like them, and could have been one of their classmates. Without the organisers of the event having to say a word, the room was captivated by the story that was beginning to unravel in front of them.

Saranda’s story is one of despair and heartache. On the 28th of March 1999, her family, as well as another family, were rounded up and shot in what is known as the Podujevo Massacre (BBC, 2003). Nineteen ethnic Albanian civilians, women and children were rounded up and shot, killing fourteen but leaving them all for dead. The girl at the centre of the BBC programme was shot sixteen times. She survived as did four of her cousins. They were taken to a hospital in Pristina where a British
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Army surgeon arranged for their medical evacuation to a hospital in Manchester. This began her story as a refugee in the UK. During the programme Saranda and her cousins made a return trip to the scene of the crime when they returned to Serbia to confront one of the gunmen responsible in a war crimes tribunal. However, this act of seeking justice was riddled with difficulty, as one trial was suspended due to the judge receiving death threats and the assassination of the Serbian Prime Minister taking place which was suspected to have been carried out by war criminals. The safety of Saranda and her cousins was at risk and they were supported by more than “30 armed agents...and an entire floor of their hotel” was cordoned off (BBC, 2003). Ultimately Saranda and three of her cousins identified Sasa Cvjetan and testified against him in open court. This was a historic moment as it was the first case of “Albanian victims of Serbian atrocities in Kosovo to testify before a Serbian judge” (BBC, 2003).

Saranda was eighteen when this documentary was being made and just fourteen when the massacre took place, the same age as the students who participated in SLN-MUN. This undoubtedly influenced the students who watched the documentary. Throughout the video there were tears in the eyes of the students and adults in the room. There were tears in my own eyes. As one of the organisers I worried that perhaps this video was too upsetting for the students participating in SLN-MUN and the potential ramifications that would occur from parents. Following the video, the woman who turned the video on, again stood at the front of the room, and finally introduced herself to the students, her name was Saranda and that was her story, she asked if they had any questions.

The room was silent. My first concern was that after hearing her story, which felt like an open wound, was what would the students ask, or would they just remain silent. I began trying to think of questions in case they remained silent. I should not have worried as students quickly got over their shock and eagerly began asking Saranda questions: was she really shot that many times, what was it like going back, what happened to the man, how long will he be in jail for. One student asked, what it was like for her to testify against him, Saranda responded by explaining how it felt as an eighteen-year-old to stand just feet away from the man who she witnessed kill her family. She demonstrated how far away she actually stood by standing that distance...
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from another individual in the room. She explained the emotions that she went through in this situation and how challenging it was for herself and her younger cousins. The woman standing in front of us was not yet thirty, but she remembered in vivid detail every emotion she felt throughout this period of her life. She responded with poise and empathetically recounted her feelings to students in the room in a way for them to understand what she felt. Following her session students lined up to speak with her and get her contact information because they wanted to help in whatever way they could, specifically with an exhibition she was organising.

Years later, while I was conducting my research for this thesis, teachers still remarked on Saranda's story. They could not remember her name or necessarily the details of her story, but they remembered how it made them feel and how their students were affected. Mr J stated:

“It certainly makes them a lot more aware (participating in SLN-MUN)...when we had the refugee, there was a lady last year from Kosovo. And that was spell-binding...her seminar. And that definitely had a big effect on the, I think, twelve students...here (from his school). And they were visibly moved by her story. And that filters through to the year group as the kids do talk about it in their own time. And even if they pick it up from the feedback seminar and the assemblies that they deliver to the rest of the class, but even just talking, these kids will talk about it. And when the Holocaust comes up, they’ll say ‘well, ok, the fact that the world didn’t learn its lesson and it all happened again in Kosovo’. So I think it’s had a big effect”.

In the years following Saranda’s seminar, the organisers of SLN-MUN, myself included, have faced teachers requesting for speakers7 to be brought in that would have a similar level of impact as Saranda did. However, every year we were faced with how can such a collective empathetic experience be replicated without pushing the boundaries too far or risking the sensitivity of the topic, or finding someone willing to discuss their experiences with such candour and poise? The collective empathetic reaction which students and adults experienced was unique due to Saranda, her story and the relatability of it to those in the room. Saranda went through this horrific experience at the same age as the students in the room and

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7 There are organisations who will provide outside speakers for example the Holocaust Educational Trust (HET, 2018). This is one way in which NGOs can support schools in teaching humanitarian topics through the provision of speakers who are knowledgeable and have the potential to create an empathetic link for students.
settled in the same geographic location as to where the students lived. The locality effect of Saranda's story will be discussed in the next theme. Saranda’s story gave proof to the organisers, that when at all possible, to relate the topic to students through their age and/or common interests. While the profound collective empathetic response to Saranda’s story has not been replicated it is one that continued to influence the direction of SLN-MUN and the teachers who were present.

**YPI Case Study**

The empathetic response of students was also explored in connection with the topics that students chose for YPI and how this relates to their age group. If we refer to the earlier diagram of Student Topics, five out of ten of those that are shaded darkest, relate to the primary effect the social issue may have. Two further topics, hospice care family and domestic violence, are those that could have primary or secondary effects on students, making seven out of ten of the topics chosen relating closely to the concerns of the year 9 age group.

Most topics that they found to be significant areas of concern within their communities revolved around issues that they could identify with on a personal level. Students related to charities based on age, gender, kinship with the target population or exposure to the issues the charity raised. During the group presentations, eight out of the ten groups discussed the connection they shared with the organisation they were representing. This empathetic connection was evident in the following statements:

“We chose this topic over the others because it happens every day, and this is a pressing issue. Also, as children ourselves we can relate to the children and we can see it through the eyes of the children” (Child Abuse Team).
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“This is upsetting because this is our home” (Drugs & Alcohol Abuse Team).

“You’re part of the family so you have to look after (your sick sibling)” (Children’s Hospice Team).

“No child deserves to die…I’m sure all of you know that” (Children’s Hospice Team).

“How many of us know someone who is being raised in a single-family home” (Single Parent Households Team).

“We could relate to these children…and we would do anything to help them win the money” (Single Parent Households Team).

“Let’s provide for children like us by giving to (this charity)” (Single Parent Households Team).

“Affects people our age” (Drugs & Alcohol Abuse Team).

These students were emotionally invested in the cause that they represented and expressed the empathetic link they shared with the organisation. The groups who offered the above comments, and similar, were trying to encourage the audience to feel with their charities and causes, not feel bad for the recipients of the charitable services. They used words meant to create a link between the charity and the individual, instead of saying, “don’t you feel bad for those people”, they used statements that brought the issue closer to home, saying: “we could relate to these children” (Single Parent Households Team) and “we could see it through the eyes of the children” (Child Abuse Team).

The topic that stood out to me out of the ten choices was that of premature babies. I observed this group at the final school-wide event which was hosted by YPI. It surprised me that teenagers chose this, because it is not a widely publicized topic or one that affects many families or the community in a wider context. I felt this was a less obvious choice for teenagers to make. This group seemed to have an insightful connection to the issue, stating:
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“We could have chosen a charity that helps teenagers but instead we thought to the future to help those most vulnerable...premature babies”.

This statement addresses the empathy of their peers by stating they “could have chosen a charity that helps teenagers” the subtext insinuating they could identify with those organisations due to their age. However, they decided to choose an organisation that helps a demographic they see as “those most vulnerable”. One group member went so far as to write a poem-come-rap from the perspective of a mother who has given birth to a premature child. The words that she used during her rap demonstrated, to those present in the room, a profound empathetic link with the issue. The group's presentation and identification with the mothers of premature babies and the babies themselves was apparent to those in the audience. Ms. C commented to me, that she was surprised by how deeply this group related to the topic and the charity. When looking around the room students, teachers, parents and administrators had tears in their eyes. In the closing comments of the year wide assembly, the YPI area representative remarked how moving the group's connection to the charity was.

On a national level, students chose charities that either had a direct or indirect effect on their age group. Referring to the above graph, which illustrates YPI England Charities 2012-2013 Target Users, 39 of the 78 charities directly helped or offered youth services, highlighted in blue, while a further 22 charities offered services to both adults and youth, shown in green. Combing these two groups we have 78% of the charities catering to youth needs or to the needs of families. While the minority
of charities, at 22%, catered to issues that were seen to effect adults only. In total, there were six types of hospices represented with two of these catering for adults meanwhile there are four children's hospices included in the youth charities. There was another charity that tried to get service dogs for wounded military servicemen and women and another which focused on rehabilitation for prisoners. While the empathetic link to all the charities represented cannot be made by conjecture, there is a clear link to youth and family services. Students, in this example, chose to represent charities that related to their demographic.

A group representing a domestic violence charity also wrote a poem-come-rap to convey the emotional toll domestic violence has on the student in the household watching her mother be abused. The first verse is included below. The rap went on to discuss how the family could get help and how they got out of the situation. It is unclear if any of the girls had experienced domestic violence, but the girl who wrote this poem certainly related the emotions of a young person watching domestic violence occur and trying to get her peers to understand the gravity of the situation.

“When I was a little girl,
Hell no I didn’t have a care in the world
Played on the streets with all the other kids
Freedom and fun yeah that’s how I lived
But one day my fantasies changed to reality
Stuck in this endless war of brutality
It was that night, when I saw her gettin’ kicked,
Pushed to the ground, dying bit by bit
A stream of tears running down her face
How I wished I could get out of that place
Were stressful times, times are tough
Until one day I screamed that’s enough
But did they listen?
No they didn’t
Instead I lost my voice and kept my face hidden…”

The poem-come-rap that this girl presented was emotionally charged. It was evident she was nervous when she was performing which added to the overall impact that it had on her peers. When she finished, there was an outburst of sustained and fervent applause from the audience. Another member in her group thanked her and reiterated the importance in empathising with the charity’s users, stating:
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“Thank you (student A) that was very emotional. I hope you can feel something with these people who desperately need our help”.

The second group member was drawing the connection back to the rap that Student A performed, putting the onus on the students listening to do something. Unlike those mentioned in the first verse of the rap who did not listen. The second student spoke directly to the audience saying, “I hope you feel something” and that the users of the charity need “our help”. This group addressed the elements of disengagement by appealing to those present to do something for the charity through overcoming their apathy or ego. The group which represented the charity for domestic violence had earlier in the year also raised £155 for their charity.

The use of two poem-come-raps during the final showed how these students chose to express themselves to their peers. The topics for both charities discussed incredibly emotive subject matter, premature babies, and domestic violence, which gave the performers an opportunity to try to relate to their peers through another medium—one which they may be more willing to engage with. Through this medium they heard the same sorts of stories that were stated or illustrated elsewhere but added a dimension of passion from the performer in wanting to express their support for the charity in this way. These groups were empathetically engaged with their charities and trying to relate this level of empathy to their peers through a journey of song.

A group presenting at the YPI final at School B in Greater Manchester gave an extended plea to their peers when they were representing a charity for the blind and partially sighted. The five group members took it in turns to make an emotional plea to the audience to support their charity; they went on an empathy offensive during this two-minute portion of their presentation. They began this exchange by trying to have the audience sympathetically relate to the plight of a single blind woman who had felt removed from society due to her sight loss.

“When we asked the charity what they would do with the money, one lady said she would give it all away...Why? Because she feels like she has nothing to do with life because of her blindness. The £3,000 would help that lady in getting back her will to live and get some hope in life. She would be able to believe that she had a lot to live for...”
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Discussing the woman’s sight loss and corresponding feelings of hopelessness and isolation, the student tried to convey the utter despair this woman was feeling to their peers in the room. The group went on to immediately say:

“...imagine yourself in their place. Without being able to wake up in the morning and get dressed yourself, not being able to go anywhere yourself and most importantly depend on someone else for nearly everything you do.

How would you feel if all you could see was black? You knew there was a whole world around you but the annoying and irritating feeling of not being able to see any of it would lead you into depression”.

These statements were a direct attempt at moving the audience along the empathetic spectrum from feeling sympathy for the woman to empathising with her and her situation, trying to get the audience to feel with the woman they were speaking about. If this was too subtle they went on to push the empathetic connection further by literally driving the point home to an individual basis, stating:

“Do you think they deserve this because people like you only think about themselves and see no point in helping this cause.

How would you feel if you couldn’t see your own mother or father, who took care of you and loved you? How would you feel not knowing what they looked like?

How would you feel if you were a 14-year-old child, but people came to your house and treated you like a three-month baby just because you couldn’t see?”

This emotionally charged exchange from the group put the obligation of helping and engaging on each individual attending the presentation. They stated that if you were not there to help their cause, you were selfish, or you believed that the individuals deserved their blindness. They addressed the first empathetic theme brought up in this research of apathy or ego playing a role in why their peers may not want to help this charity, which was previously discussed in the first section. They brought the argument for their charity to the heart of a teenager's life, themselves and their homes. In my opinion, this charity addresses a topic which students would struggle to relate to, as students in mainstream schools are not typically affected by total or partial sight loss. They would be aware of this problem but may never have considered what it was like to be blind or partially sighted. At this point, most of the
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audience was silent. The empathetic offensive continued but instead of using it to guilt the audience, it was now used to enhance charitable feelings:

“...How would you feel, knowing that you were the reason that someone got the gift of sight back?

Wouldn’t you feel great knowing that because of you someone can now look after themselves and don’t depend on someone else and can now have hope in life.

Don’t you want to be the reason behind someone’s happiness? Don’t you want to be the reason for someone to smile again?”

This ended their empathy offensive, a journey which lasted two minutes and took the audience through a plethora of emotions in relation to a subject the majority had never considered to such an extent. A key theme in the YPI presentations is having the group relate the charity to the audience and getting them to empathetically connect. There are examples across the finals that I attended of groups relating the topic to how it would make the audience feel if the roles were reversed. This empathy offensive was not novel in the process but highlighted the extreme journey of introducing the user of a charity at their most vulnerable, relating that experience to their peers and increasing the levels of empathy until the audience members could see themselves in that person’s shoes, and if they didn’t they must be too selfish to see it. YPI does stress trying to empathetically connect the issue to your peers but the extent to which this group went demonstrated their ability in understanding how to make their peers feel for a specific topic. This group went beyond the single sentence which asks, how do you feel, but took the audience on an empathetic journey in order to make them feel. While it was heavy handed it was an example that stands out when thinking about how to make topics relatable for students. As this group demonstrated, sometimes it is calling out the elements of disengagement and then providing an empathetic outlet to enhance engagement, demonstrating how a topic relates to the student and ways in which they can help.

Another example of the relatability of a topic enhancing the empathetic link was discussed by the former director of YPI England. Initially, students choose a topic and charity which they agree on as a group. During my observations, I saw some groups democratically work through the values they held, and which causes they would potentially like to support. This was one of the first steps in empathetically relating
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to the topic. The students identified what type of cause they wanted to support and explained to their peers why they related to that charity or cause. In some cases, there was a single individual who was passionately persuasive in discussing their charity and convinced the remainder of the group’s members. In both examples, all of the students had to consider what representing that charity meant to them. This conversation would not stop in the group, but in some examples, would continue home to their families. This created an opportunity for families to relate to that charity at home, stating:

“The conversations around the dinner table with family members and they begin to understand that ‘oh yeah your Aunty Jill was helped by that charity at one point’ or ‘do you remember when such-a-such a person became ill with cancer I think that they used this charity’” (Former director of YPI England).

Not all students would go home and talk about their charity, but they were all expected to engage in the initial conversation regarding why they chose this charity and why it represented their values.

Some students, and parents for that matter, may find themselves relating to a topic without realising they already held a deeper connection to the issue because they could potentially be a user of the services. The former director of YPI England gave one such example, stating:

“I think there is another part of the research that’s really interesting as well, and it comes through the advocacy as well at the final event, and often at final events through the advocacy of young people somebody in the group or somebody in the year group realises that they’re a young carer, for example, and that they can get support from that charity and they might not realise that openly, although often it is acknowledged within a group, ‘I didn’t know I was a young carer…I’m a young carer…I’ve signed up with this charity’. But often it’s the parent at the back, who’s listening just because they have to come and support their son…but they hear something and think ‘oh God, that’s quite useful to know that and I’ll pass that on to this person...’” (Former director of YPI England).

Humanitarianism struggles to engage with students and teachers. As demonstrated in chapter 7 when the definition of humanitarianism was given by these groups they had difficulty conveying the message and relating to what it was. Furthermore, local community charities are missing members in their demographic who they are
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designed to help because the potential users do not realise those services are available or accessible for them.

I will conclude the theme of relatability with one final example that the former director of YPI England recounted as one of his most memorable moments of YPI. This is a longer prose regarding a single student’s experience when participating in YPI, the former director stated:

“I attended an event at an independent school, where a young man stood up; I think he would have been 15. He gave this incredibly articulate speech, and the whole evening had been articulate speeches because it had been high quality education and kids who were getting educational support whenever they wanted it, very privileged backgrounds. But this kid really struck me because he said:

‘I went to see this charity and I was expecting to feel a lot of different emotions, I was expecting to feel angry, I was expecting to feel frustrated, I was expecting to feel sad…but I wasn’t expecting to feel ashamed’...I felt and still feel...ashamed, because I met a bloke who was locked up for repeatedly selling pirated DVDs. And when I asked him why he said he was trying to buy a pair of trainers, a particular brand of a pair of trainers...

You know, I’ve got that pair of trainers and I’ve had them in my wardrobe for the last year and I’ve worn them three times... Here they are... (and he had them).

To think that anybody in this room, anybody in this room, if we wanted this pair of trainers we could go out tomorrow and we could buy the pair of trainers and we wouldn’t even necessarily notice it in our budget or if we couldn’t do it we knew someone who could do it for us and would be prepared to do it for us. And to meet somebody who was in such financial hardship that actually they wanted something that all teenagers want and they ended up being locked up and punished for it and getting a criminal record for it and all of those things... And then to meet the charity that had put this person back on track and realise that they operate on an annual basis. The annual income they have is equivalent to one terms fees of this school. And you know, I’m ashamed. I’m ashamed’...
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But the thing that got me about this lad was just what it tapped into and those moments where somebody is not on script, they’re not on script, they’re just talking. Yeah I find that incredibly memorable, incredibly moving” (Former director of YPI England).

This student spoke of feeling several emotions during his experience of understanding his charity. He came from a very different background from the user of the charity and yet both he and the user had the same desires, in this case a pair of trainers. While the student was able to go out, buy them and ultimately forget about them in his closest, the other boy could not afford them so resorted to engaging in an illegal activity to get the same pair of shoes. This student’s experience was one which brought the services of the charity home to him. This student went through the empathy spectrum during his experience; ranging from sympathy—when he expected to feel angry or sad—to fully empathising with the individual’s desire for a pair of shoes and realising how their roles could have been reversed. This student’s mind-set was altered in respect to how he viewed the users of the organisation, no longer were they young criminals but his peers who were not afforded the same opportunities in life. Through the medium of a shoe and school fees he related the plight of the user of the organisation and the charity to that of his peers, for them to understand some of the emotions he experienced during his YPI journey.

Students have a profound ability to empathise with humanitarian themes through the relatability of the subject. As discussed in this theme, sometimes there are difficult moments that students encounter during their journey when they realise what it would be like if their roles were reversed. While there is no guaranteed way to have every student engage, students are more likely to engage when they can relate to the topic and empathise with the individuals on a more personal level.

Locality

Throughout this research there were differences between teachers and schools regarding how best to access humanitarian issues, whether this was through local or global perspectives or a combination of both. Some teachers, as well as YPI, felt that humanitarian initiatives based locally can more effectively influence the empathetic connection students make, allowing students to see the results in action. While other
teachers believed the inherent qualities of humanitarianism lay in helping humanity, whether that is local or global:

“I think anything that benefits not just people immediately around us that has a larger impact on all of humanity” (Ms. T, School O, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“It’s about how you interact with other people in your community and the international community as well” (Ms. S, School K, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

Throughout this research the locality of the humanitarian topics discussed was explored. While there is a greater sense of students connecting to local issues, they were also able to make connections on a global level. The global issues which were successfully discussed provided students with aspects they could directly relate to. This empathetic theme explores some approaches to both local and global humanitarianism.

As discussed previously, schools were observed in limiting the student choice by encouraging students to act locally. For example, Ms. H from School N who was participating in SLN-MUN Home Counties stated:

“In our school we have lots of charity initiatives, so we do actually encourage students to raise money but usually it’s quite local, so there’s a local cause. And I think that makes it more personal to students as opposed to your money is going to be sent abroad for whatever reason”.

The reasoning for the local perspective is that it makes it more personal for students to see where the money is going. In 2013, BBC Panorama did an expose on Comic Relief highlighting how the charitable funds had been misspent and instead portions were invested in arms and tobacco shares (Lawn, 2013). While this is one example, it was a popular charity that appealed to school students to support. Some schools and teachers saw the benefit of local giving as increased accountability to the community.

The YPI programme insisted that charities that students chose were located within their community. A number of these examples discuss how students chose issues that they saw while walking home from school, such as homelessness.
Two topics that stood out to me as being atypical were homelessness and the charity supporting premature babies. These two topics are now highlighted in yellow in the following graphic. I discussed the charity supporting premature babies under the theme of relatability and will focus this discussion on homelessness.

Homelessness was the only topic chosen that deals with an issue from the surrounding society, while the topic of premature babies fits into the overall theme of healthcare. However, some students may relate empathetically to the topic of homelessness based on their experiences or ability to identify with those who are homeless.

The issue of homelessness was regarded as a wider societal need of the community, originally due to the group's motive for choosing it at this school. The reason the homeless charity was chosen was due to one of the group members walking past homeless people near her home when she returns from school. The group stated in their presentation, that it “breaks our hearts seeing homeless people in the streets”, implying a sympathetic reaction of feeling bad for someone. There are potentially several underlying factors to the students' decision in choosing this social issue. When I spoke to the group, while they were researching their charity in class, they seemed at a loss to justify their choice, going no further than the statement they made in their presentation. Their school is located in Greater Manchester, an urban area, it is probable that they see homelessness more so than students from rural or suburban areas in England.

There were four homeless charities that won in 2012-2013. Two of these charities were in Manchester while the other two charities were in London. While this is far from exhaustive of the charities that students chose to support during YPI throughout the year, it does demonstrate that all of the charities which focused on
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homelessness were supported in urban areas. The school specific example discussed an individual student’s exposure to homelessness as being the primary motivation for their group choosing a charity which addressed this societal need.

Another student discussed during a final event for YPI, that a reason for their group supporting a Drugs and Alcohol Abuse Charity was that it was happening on their doorstep, stating: “this is upsetting because this is our home”. The exposure to specific social issues within their local community allowed a number of YPI groups to engage with these topics and feel as though they were directly helping their community.

Global issues are not out of reach of students to connect to empathetically, and this has been seen in previous example of the Japanese Tsunami. Students discussed profound empathetic connections to each of these stories and wanted to help the individuals affected. The key to these examples were how the students were able to relate to the topics regardless of where it occurred globally. They brought the topics home through relating the experiences of the individuals they learned about to how they would feel if it happened to them or if they lost their home.

Saranda’s story, discussed in the relatability section of this chapter, also has implications regarding the effect of locality in conveying empathy. Saranda's refugee story began by being evacuated by a British Army surgeon to a hospital in Manchester, a hospital which some of the students in the room had attended themselves or were aware of. The video then followed an eighteen-year-old, who was in her last year of school in Manchester and the adult Saranda remained in Manchester speaking out for the victims of Kosovo. She was able to relate to the students in the room on multiple levels. Even though she was a refugee and had come from a foreign country that most students could not find on a map, her story was part of Manchester’s story. Her story, and her journey, made the topics of refugees more accessible for the students in the room. The students were able to see her journey through their own eyes with the video. The fact that the community that took her in was their own, made a number of students feel proud that she was now a Mancunian. During the question and answer a student asked if she would return to her country. Saranda responded with the sentiment that this is her country now, this where she
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and her cousins moved to and have resettled, it is where she went to school. She would continue to advocate and speak out for the victims, but she would do so from Manchester. Saranda’s story was one which made a global topic feel like one which occurred in the students’ local community. The final debate for SLN-MUN that year was one where the students were incredibly prepared and enthusiastic. On the final day students and teachers were still discussing Saranda’s story and the effect that it had.

The empathetic connection that students develop towards humanitarian topics can be influenced by locality. However, throughout this research there were far more examples of students engaging with topics because they related to the people, not specifically the place. Offering a local perspective helps to give substance to ‘the other’ that students are learning about and helps them to engage more empathetically with the topic. This local perspective does not have to be geographically close to the students but encourages them to connect to an individual’s story to understand what their local resembles.

Conclusion

This chapter is the heart of this research. It has explored the moments of humanitarian learning in students thematically using the empathetic spectrum as a framework. It has argued that students do engage with humanitarian issues across the empathetic spectrum. It has addressed the first research question of how do students engage with key topics in humanitarianism, specifically that students are engaging empathetically with these topics.

In a spectrum of responses, the emergence of the empathetic spectrum in this research was discussed as well as the research into the meaning of sympathy and empathy. The primary argument was that student engagement should not be classified as either sympathetic or empathetic. Instead, students engage along an empathetic spectrum which ranges from sympathetic to empathetic. This spectrum of engagement was used as the basis for the analytical framework.
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The second section of this chapter, empathetic themes, explored four of the salient empathetic themes which arose during this research; the four elements of disengagement; student ownership; relatability; and locality.

It began with the four elements of disengagement. While it may seem counterintuitive to begin this chapter on how students engage discussing how they are not engaging; however, it was important to discuss the reasons that some students struggled with these topics. The four elements that were highlighted by teachers, organisers and students were: maturity, apathy, ability and ego. Understanding these four elements of disengagement could give greater insight to teachers and NGOs on how to overcome these barriers.

The second theme was student ownership which argued that students engaged more empathetically along the spectrum when they had more ownership in how they engaged. Examples were shown through the two case studies of YPI and SLN-MUN as well as classroom examples. While students engaged differently in the two case studies, the potential for student ownership and empathetic engagement was just as strong.

The third theme, relatability, discussed how students engaged empathetically with a topic by being able to identify with and relate to it. One key phrase highlighted by students in their presentations in the YPI case study was “how would you feel if…”, identifying relatability as pertinent in empathising with others. When students had the opportunity to relate to others they had the potential to profoundly engage empathetically.

The final theme, locality, discussed the local and global approaches to accessing humanitarian topics. It was found that in some schools they encouraged students to act in the local community. Ultimately, offering a local perspective helped students to engage empathetically, however there were far more examples of students empathising with the people. Using local issues has the potential to be used as an empathetic stepping stone to connect students with global issues.
This chapter has discussed numerous examples of students engaging with a variety of humanitarian issues across the empathetic spectrum. The examples that were discussed and analysed under the themes of student ownership and relatability demonstrated that students make profound empathetic connections to topics that are controversial or represent global problems.

Teaching humanitarian topics has the potential to profoundly impact students during their formative years. The hope is to light that spark in students to encourage their passion in helping and learning about others. Chapter 9 goes on to discuss the resonance that humanitarian topics have with students, the impact that lighting the spark has on students.
Chapter 9: Resonance—A lasting impact?

Part 3, the student perspective, has up to this point discussed how students were engaging with humanitarian issues while the research was taking place. Chapter 7 discussed the academic strand of the moments of humanitarian learning. While chapter 8 went on to explore the psychological and social effects of learning about humanitarian topics, specifically how students engaged along an empathetic spectrum. This final chapter explores how humanitarian topics resonate with students after they have learned about them.

Resonance is how students apply past learned experiences to future encounters with similar concepts, i.e. how do these subjects reverberate with students after they have learned them. For this, resonance was used to explore whether students remembered past humanitarian experiences and how those moments resonated with them at a later point.

The core questions this strand explores are: how are students engaging with these issues months after learning about emotionally affecting scenarios and what do they retain? The evidence of resonance was limited in comparison to the previous two analytical strands, however there are key examples that were apparent during this research which are included in this chapter. This first section of this chapter illustrates the moments of resonance that affected students, with regards to their participation in the case study programmes and classroom experiences. The second section explores the impact that learning about humanitarian topics may have on students.

Reflecting on moments of resonance

As stated above, the term resonance is used to explore how students retain information they learned and how these topics may have had an emotional lasting impact. These discussions are again divided into those of the YPI case study, the SLN-MUN case study and finally classroom examples.
YPI Case Study

There are a number of opportunities for the YPI programme to resonate with students in both the short and long term. Two examples of the potential resonance of the programme include students who chose to engage with their charity beyond what was expected of them and the final event, GoYPI, for the winning groups to celebrate.

There are examples of students remaining in touch with their charities and fundraising for their charity in the wider discussion of YPI. At final events that I attended or while I was in participating schools I would often hear of the groups that engaged with their charities beyond the YPI programme. These were students who would choose to volunteer at the organisation in their own time throughout the year or raise money on their own for their charity. In chapter 8, the example of the student who felt responsible for her group losing at the final event was briefly discussed. To paraphrase the longer quote:

“We had a girl who didn’t win and her video wouldn’t play and she was absolutely devastated at a final in June. And we got an email a month ago saying that she went away with her group… And they went away over the summer and they raised £8,000 for that charity” (Former director of YPI England).

This girl felt a responsibility to her group and her charity to continue fundraising for the charity throughout the summer break. While most students were enjoying their free time, this group of students continued to work towards helping their charity. During a relatively short period of time, these girls managed to fundraise £8,000. As I mentioned in chapter 8, that is nearly treble the original prize money that was on offer from YPI. I discussed the empathetic connection this group would have had with their charity to continue to engage after the programme was finished. The resonance of this experience for the students is one that will stay with them. If we follow the story of the single girl who felt responsible for the failure of the group’s performance at the final, that moment will remain etched in her memory. It is impossible to say whether her group would have won if the video had played and if they had won, whether they would have continued to fundraise for their charity over the summer months. However, due to the student’s feeling of responsibility in
letting her charity down this was enough impetus for the group to carry on engaging with their charity. If that was not enough, the group raised a considerable sum for a grassroots charity. There are a few qualities to this story that will continue to resonate with the students. Firstly, the experience of helping the charity itself will have affected these students. From the initial disappointment of losing, to the feeling of accomplishment they felt when they returned to the charity with a considerable sum of money. Secondly, the empowerment for the individual students that they can raise £8,000 on their own for a cause which they supported at the age of 14.

For the winning groups, there are several aspects that will resonate with them, not only in winning the prize money for their charity but also in attending the final event in London. Winning the prize money for their charity is an accomplishment for each group. These are students who were pitted against their classmates in a variety of settings. First, the groups participated in the YPI process of identifying their cause and engaging with a charity that they believe they can support. Once they have reached this stage each group created a presentation advocating for their charity, which is presented to their individual classes. A winning group is decided upon within their class. Each single class that I observed had an average of five to six groups presenting. The winners of each class then go on to participate in presentations held in front of their entire year group. Some students found it daunting to present in front of their peers in their own class of thirty. However, at the final event, they presented to their entire year group, well over a hundred and fifty students, their teachers, senior administrators, charity workers, school chancellors, local politicians and YPI staff. There are hundreds of people watching the presentation that they created to advocate for their charity including representatives of that charity. At the final event, there were five or six groups presenting, these groups had already won at their individual class level. These groups had to overcome their nerves, remain calm and hope that the technology they relied on would work when the time came. Out of these finalists a winner was announced based on the decision of the judges; a group made up of teachers, politicians and their peers who go away to vote on who gave the best presentation per the YPI rubric. A single winner was announced for each school. This winning team was awarded the £3,000 for their charity and were invited to attend the final event in London. Each group who won the £3,000 overcame several obstacles to get
to the final event. During each final, when the winner was announced, there were similar reactions from the group, charity workers and teachers—feelings of elation and pride. The losing groups were downtrodden but unsurprisingly the charity workers who had participated on this journey with them would rush up to their student advocates and reassure them of the wonderful job they did. They would offer words of encouragement to students who felt they let them down and reassure them that while the money would help, overall the group was successful in raising the awareness of that charity. For reference, the £3,000 prize would go directly to the charities to be spent however they needed it. Group presentations outlined examples of how the charities would spend the prize money—infrastructure repair, reaching more users, buying resources, etc. Similar experiences of the final event took place throughout the participating schools. In the 2012-2013 school year, approximately 80 schools across England participated with nearly 15,000 students advocating for approximately 2,226 charities (YPI End of Year Report, 2013). If overcoming these obstacles to win the prize money for their charity was not enough, the winning groups were also invited to attend the final event in London.

Another aspect of the YPI programme that remains with the winning groups is their attendance at the national final event, entitled GoYPI, held each year in London. This event was a celebration of the hard work that students put in throughout the year and recognition of their achievement. This final event tried to encourage the groups to carry on engaging with their local charities. The winning student group from each school, as well as their teacher and representatives of the winning charity attended the event. The final was a celebration of student advocacy and engagement. Student speakers who participated in YPI in the past discussed how they went on to continue to engage with their charity or within the humanitarian field. In 2013, Eliza Ribeiro of “Lives not Knives” spoke of how she created the charity at the age of 15 to “empower and educate young people” (YPI Nov Newsletter, 2013). While looking at the data regarding the charities that students chose to support found in pie charts in chapter 8, this charity was one that students chose multiple times. The 2013 final also saw a networking opportunity entitled YPI Engage, where 25 organisations were able to set up stalls to speak to students and encourage their further engagement with social action in the community. During the final, presentations were given by some of the winning groups who stood out for their performances.
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This event concluded with popular musical acts performing and students having the opportunity to get up and dance. The theme of the whole day was to celebrate the students. This final event also gave stakeholders in YPI the opportunity to anonymously engage with the programme and speak to students and charity workers. Students from winning groups travelled from across England and Northern Ireland to take part in this one-day event. Students who participated in YPI and managed to make it to the final celebration had a memorable journey with the YPI programme and the charity they represented.

During my time at the final event, I spoke to many students and each of them demonstrated clear understanding of the charity they represented and how the money would be used to support their services. They also discussed the bond that developed with their charity and how they would continue working with them. This event took place in July and for some students that I spoke to they participated in the YPI programme in the autumn term. These students were discussing their charity well over six months after conducting the research and spoke with the same passion that I witnessed during school-wide final events. They may have brushed up on the facts and figures, but they were not aware they would be asked questions. Therefore, if they did revise the information they did so out of a sense of pride in their charity and a desire to represent the work they did accurately. The YPI journey for the winning groups culminated in the final event which was designed to empower and celebrate student achievement. For several students this would have acted as another stepping stone along their journey. While for others, they may lose touch with their charity or get caught up in their academic classes, however their experiences were a milestone in their year and has the potential to resonate with them due in part to their achievements.

For me, these examples demonstrate the success stories of the YPI programme. The first discussed the students who lost out on the prize money, but who continued to engage and fundraise for their charity. The second example discusses the typical journey of the winning groups and how this experience resonates with them throughout the year and might in future. These examples do not necessarily apply to every group that participated. The groups and individual students would have experienced varying levels of resonance with the charity they were supporting and
the programme itself. Some of the students will have felt little in the way of resonance when they are asked to reflect on their experiences. For some of those students, they may vaguely remember participating in some school project where they had to go and visit a charity. Other students will have been profoundly affected by their experience when they engaged with their charities.

**SLN-MUN Case Study**

The SLN-MUN case study, similar to YPI, offers many topics with the potential to resonate with students after they leave. Comparable to YPI, SLN-MUN consists of a journey that students embark upon, working towards a final event which is observed by their teachers, head teachers, local politicians and community workers. Students work together in groups to understand complicated humanitarian topics while accurately and passionately representing the view of their assigned country. All the while they are expected to reach an overall agreement on the motion that is presented, without stepping out of character. There are several aspects of the SLN-MUN case study which resonate with students. These include the informational sessions, the team-working aspect of the programme and the final event day.

The informational sessions offer the first opportunity for students to engage with potentially empathetic humanitarian topics. These sessions attempt to deconstruct the complicated issues and offer relevant information. They begin by discussing the academic sides of the debate, before moving on to personal stories of people who are affected by the topic. This is where Saranda's story, discussed in chapter 8, becomes relevant to the debate. The informational sessions vary each year and with each topic. Some tell a more personal story while others discuss the wider impact of the issue. These sessions provide both content knowledge and the more personal human stories found in each topic. Teachers would often remark on how their students continued to engage with the issue after leaving the informational sessions. For example:

"The pupils were all 'buzzing' as we travelled home. They really enjoyed the day and one of them commented that she had never had an interest in political issues before, but the project had opened her mind. She felt that she had enjoyed and gained enormously from the whole process. So, thank you for making that possible" (SLN MUN Evaluation, 2013).
“Our students really enjoyed the day and were so excited on the way back to school. Three of them had a career change of heart and decided that they now wanted to work for the UN! That sense of youthful idealism seems much more uncommon these days, so I was thrilled that some of them wanted to ‘change the world!’” (SLN MUN Evaluation, 2013)

“I think it awakened a desire within many of them to know more about the world and understand what makes it go round. They firmly believed in the roles they assumed and discussed the issues fervently on the journey home on the train. Many subjects of a global nature remain abstract ideas until the students are actively involved in debating, researching and presenting them. Their own involvement is what brings the reality home” (Mr. J, School M, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

While other students and teachers would remark how they went away to carry on their research and were shocked to learn about additional aspects of the topic. The informational sessions offer starting points for students to begin their engagement with the issue. They are designed to be thought provoking and encourage discussion within the group. As reported by teachers and conversations on the Virtual Learning Network these interactions and engagement with the topic continued long after the informational session had finished. Students would often remark during the informational sessions, when presented with evidence of human trafficking taking place in Manchester or London, that they were unaware of how close to home it was occurring. Teachers would relate how these topics continued to influence their students’ academic journey. One teacher discussed how students who participated in SLN-MUN would offer information in class regarding how the UN worked and specific information about refugees. The topics covered in the informational sessions has been seen to resonate with students throughout the school year, however I believe it continues to resonate with them long after they participated in SLN-MUN. For the students who discussed refugees, the hope would be that when they are hearing about ongoing refugee crises in Europe they would critically explore why there was a refugee crisis. They may even be more understanding of refugee classmates who have had to leave their homes.

Teamwork is the second aspect which has the potential to resonate with students who participated in SLN-MUN. Students found that working in a team of their peers had the potential to create several challenges and opportunities which would not be
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easy for them to forget. Huddleston and Rowe, discuss the nature of social problems as inherently intertwined with discussions “surrounding what is best for society” and are only resolved through dialogue with one another (2003: 113). They go on to discuss how individuals interpret social situations differently based on individual knowledge, experience, motivation, beliefs and values (2003). SLN-MUN amplifies this aspect of discussing social problems as students from different schools, different cultural and socio-economic backgrounds, form groups to work together to tackle a challenging global issue through the perspective of a specific nation with its own unique culture and understanding.

Furthermore, group work is challenging for students based on what is seen by the students as unequal completion of the workload. Regularly, there would be reports of student x not completing their work on time, or not communicating on the virtual learning network. Other students felt they had to pull the weight of their entire group. Unknown to organisers or groups members were the feelings of the students who were slower to complete their work, were they overwhelmed by the workload or subject matter.

While this is a negative aspect of the programme, it is one with the potential to resonate with students because of the difficulties. Students who felt they were pulling the weight of the group would often speak to their teachers, their MA mentor and organisers. Discussions revolved around the equitable division of work. The students seen to not be doing as much as they could would often get the work complete between the penultimate session and the final when they realised they were expected to participate and speak in front of everyone.

The one major difference between the students who did the work and those who did not were the feelings of investment and ownership in their group. The student who had tirelessly toiled over the work since the start exhibited a greater sense of ownership regarding the country they represented and the topic that was debated. While it was a negative aspect of the SLN-MUN, it allows both the productive and less productive students moments of resonance. The productive students were strongly invested in their group and the topic, affording them a greater understanding of their
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country's position. These students also felt aggrieved leading up to the final debate day that their peers did not do more.

This negative aspect could resonate with them in the future during additional group work scenarios and attempting to ensure more robust safeguards to avoid being in a similar situation. The students who were less productive over the course of SLN-MUN all had to confront their lack of engagement by the final day. Throughout the final, it is difficult to hide as a student delegate; students are expected to speak for their country, respond to notes and informally negotiate.

During the mock debate several students realised they would not be able to hide in the safety of their group and there was a flurry of activity on the virtual learning network prior to the final debate and even on the morning of the final debate. A minority of students found themselves cramming for the final, pressured to avoid embarrassing themselves when they were asked questions that they did not know the answers to. This situation would resonate with students in future when they are faced with similar group work scenarios and realising they cannot hide behind someone else's work. The negative aspects of group work, unfortunately, do offer points of resonance for students.

However, the challenge of group work, also offered opportunities for students to get to know their peers from different schools. One of the founding principles of SLN-MUN is the schools linking aspect of the programme. Encouraging students from different backgrounds to engage with their peers was fundamental to the programme.

While there were difficulties in coordinating the completion of work between schools, it was more important for students to get to know their peers. This was an atypical approach to MUN and one that offered students the opportunity to meet new people, understand a global topic and better relate to their peers at a local level. At the final events each year students would remark upon the great friendships that were created during SLN-MUN. Each year comments were made regarding making new friends. Here are just some of the typical responses that were made and were
“(SLN-MUN) has also been very effective in bringing students from different backgrounds together. Many students reported having made new friendships during the course of the project and much evidence suggests (Virtual Learning Environment, parents, teachers and students feedback) that many of the friendships made went well beyond the scope of the project as many students kept in touch either via meeting in person (libraries etc...) or virtually when distance was too great, using the array of tools available to them (social media, phone, emails etc....). Many students related their initial apprehension they had and/or assumptions they had made when told they would be working with students from other schools in the areas, but that those assumptions were quickly dispelled once they had started working together, to finally build friendships once common grounds were identified” (SLN MUN Evaluation, 2013).

"I mostly enjoyed making new friends and the whole experience overall" (SLN MUN Evaluation, 2013).

"I most enjoyed making alliances aka making new friends" (SLN MUN Evaluation, 2013).

“We believe that MUN has been an excellent experience...We felt challenged on a difficult topic while working with kids from different schools” (Brazil delegate SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

“I think the way we were pitted together, instantly, to work as friends towards one main goal was very thought invoking and it really tied quite strongly the bonds between a lot of us.” (USA delegate SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

The final two quotes were used in chapter 8, to discuss how students took ownership of the debate. However, they are also apt here when discussing how students were thrown together to accomplish the goal and that aspect of SLN-MUN was one which was memorable for some students. While these students faced obstacles during their time working together, several groups created strong bonds with one another.

On the virtual learning platform students could post messages to one another. There are messages of encouragement to their peers both within their own group and to the entire group of students participating in SLN-MUN. After the debate day students would return to the VLE to pass on congratulatory messages and try to remain in touch with one another. Some groups carried on their discussions for months. Other
students exchanged social media information to remain in touch with the friends that they made. While the programme finished, and the students may not remember every moment of the debate day, they would remember the friendships that they made and the moments that made them feel accomplished, such as standing up in front of everyone to deliver the opening speech.

A potential strength of group work in this situation is that it has the power to resonate with students due to the creation of social bonds with their peers who they would not normally interact with. This engagement goes beyond the topic they are learning about and encouraged students to participate in their local community, it also attempted to breakdown local barriers between the different socio/economic groups.

The final aspect to reflect upon regarding the resonance of SLN-MUN lies in the final debate day. Each year teachers remark on the impact that SLN-MUN had on their students. This was the day that most of the students, teachers, MA's and observers remarked upon when discussing what was most memorable to them. The interactive nature of the debate day as well as the culmination of the hard work that students contributed over the SLN-MUN journey ensured that the final was a memorable day for students taking part. One teacher commented:

“Yes, it’s opening their eyes to issues they possibly didn’t know was the case. Because within history, when we teach slavery we’ll bring human trafficking up. I suppose the driving force was not so that they are all aware of humanitarian issues, the driving force was more an opportunity for them to develop as people and speak at a mock United Nations and be aware of global politics. Is that bad?” (Ms. D, School L, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

The final debate is the culmination of months of hard work and determination by the students. These are held in local council chambers. The council chambers are where the local politicians regularly gather to discuss the local and national laws that affect the community where these students live. The room where the debate has been held in Greater Manchester is a grand room with a domed ceiling, ornately carved wooden chairs and cutting-edge technology. During the final debate students are expected to use microphones placed in front of each country delegation when they speak. Local councillors, head teachers and the mayor are invited to attend the final debate. Most
years the students have had a glance of the mayor walking around in their ceremonial robes and chain, however most recently the mayor took up the invitation and attended portions of the final debate. Using the local council chambers gave students access to their political leaders and added a level of prestige to the event for them.

SLN-MUN provides various opportunities for students to engage with humanitarian topics and for these topics or experiences to resonate with students in the future. While the programme only consists of four days, the information they learn, the friendships they made, and the challenges they encountered remain with them long after the awards are handed out. Two examples of this are:

“The things I've learned over the course of MUN will definitely stick with me for a very long time. And the way the MUN has opened me up to another world of diplomatic relations and arguments and ways to test your public speaking skills. It is very commendable for that. (Student S, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

“We see young people grow throughout the day. We see them challenge each other, understand other people’s points of view, work together, consider the best ways of convincing another of difficult arguments, but ultimately having great fun and learning those skills for life...What makes me proud... is that those young people are going to take those skills forward as citizens of Stockport” (Mr. P, School P, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

Programmes like SLN-MUN and YPI both provide opportunities for students to engage with their peers, their local communities and humanitarian topics. The empathetic engagement and their experiences will carry on resonating with them in their future interactions.

In the classroom
This chapter has so far been dedicated to exploring the potential for the case study programmes to resonate with students. This section now reflects on the moments of resonance in the classroom. Throughout this section I will focus on one specific classroom within School A. There are two examples which were apparent during my research that led to the creation of this stream of analysis. The inclusion of these examples is paramount to exploring the potential resonance that humanitarian topics can have. The first example discusses the “Lost Boys of Sudan” while the second
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returns to an earlier example discussed in chapter 8 which spoke about a woman who had HIV/AIDS.

The resonance of a humanitarian topic was explored within School A by researching a subject they covered in class, in this case the “Lost Boys of Sudan”, and a corresponding assignment they completed, “explain the effects of immigration on the lost boy of Sudan”. This topic and the assignment were completed in December while this focus group took place in April. When I first began my research in this classroom, the teacher allowed me to look at the student workbooks for the class set. Within these workbooks was an assignment that discussed the “Lost Boys of Sudan”.

The “Lost Boys of Sudan” refers to the boys who were displaced during the second Sudanese Civil War, where approximately 20,000 young boys fled their homes to “escape death or induction into the northern army” (IRC, 2014; Walzer, 2009). This name was used by aid workers in refugee camps. During their exodus, they walked “more than a thousand miles, half of them dying before reaching Kakuma refugee camp in Kenya” (IRC, 2014). For nearly four thousand of the Lost Boys, their journey did not end in the refugee camp, but they travelled on to the United States (Eggers, 2006). A documentary entitled Lost Boys of Sudan was made that followed the journey of two of the Lost Boys on their journey to the United States. Students in the class learned about the Lost Boys and watched the documentary as well.

During the student focus group, I repeated the assignment question to see if, and in what ways, they remembered this topic. When first told they were going to be asked about a prior subject that they learned about the students were apprehensive, reluctant and expressed this with words of trepidation. However, when I mentioned the topic of “the Lost Boys of Sudan”, they immediately relaxed, engaged and eagerly discussed the stories of the boys. They were enthusiastic to learn what had happened to them since they covered the topic and were passionate to engage with the subject further. The following is a summary of the exchange.

Question: “Do you remember something about a specific topic you learned about in geography this year...for example: the lost boys of Sudan, what can you tell me about that?
Student T: Yea! We did that.

Student F: Yea, 'cause they were refugees

Student T: Yea and they went to America.

Student F: 'Cause of the war that happened in their own country.

Student X: 'Cause of the civil war. They had to go all around Africa and finally they ended up, like in 2000 or something, they ended up in America. And like it was showing how they adapted, to like the different environment there because they were used to something different. And going to America, all the culture and like their beliefs are different there so like they were just there put into a different environment just 'cause of the country.

Student H: It was good 'cause they had their own culture and what they did just because they went to a more richer and you know a more luxurious...

Student T: developed

Student H: ...country they didn't just go along with that they stuck to it, their culture, and it was actually really good 'cause when you watched the clip we saw how, you know Americas really developed and it has gadgets and stuff, I don't know a mixer, they'll be like, 'oh my gosh', 'cause they're not used to this luxury, they're not used to this much access to resources and stuff. They felt grateful and stuff but it makes us think as well. It makes me think that we should appreciate what we have and not you know moan about having a more expensive mobile phone just 'cause it has apps on it and stuff, 'cause a simple one would do 'cause a mobile phone is for calling, it's not for playing 'angry birds' or whatever. It just makes us realise that we should appreciate things 'cause it's just life isn't it.

Student T: Miss, do you know what happened to them since then?"

The enthusiasm these students expressed for the topic five months after learning was immediately apparent. They could recall specific examples of the lesson of why the journey of the Lost Boys was difficult. One of the original tasks the students were given to complete was: “Explain the positive and negative effects of emigration to the U.S.A. on the Lost Boys”. The key words that the teacher used were: Family, Culture, Racism, Employment, Housing and Education. During the focus group, without prior knowledge that the topic was going to be covered, the girls were able to discuss the positive and negative effects of emigration, specifically looking at the cultural differences that the boys faced in going to the U.S.A. The companion worksheet these
students completed while watching the film contained the question: “What values do the Lost Boys hold? How do those values compare with your own?” two of these examples appear in figure 13.

The girls that participated in the focus group responded by stating that they identified with the Lost Boys’ desire to keep their culture as well as their family and educational values. Months after it was the topic of cultural value that still stood out to them. While they were able to recall the journey that the boys made across Africa and to America, they did not remember every country or state the boys went through. However, they did recall with clarity the difficulty the boys faced in adjusting to a “developed” country. With student H stating:

“Student H: It was good ‘cause they had their own culture and what they did just because they went to a more richer and you know a more luxurious...

Student T: developed

Student H ...country they didn’t just go along with that they stuck to it, their culture...”

For the students who participated in the focus group, the cultural value that the Lost Boys held resonated with them months after learning about the topic. These students empathetically connected with the Lost Boys when they first learned their story and it still held significance to them when they were discussing it with me.

Another poignant section in the transcript from the interview above is the final statement from Student H, specifically the first two sentences:
This student related to the experience of the *Lost Boys of Sudan* and months after first learning about this topic, they came away with the lasting message of being grateful for what they have. The final statement of the extract is one that demonstrates the impact this topic had on students and was resonating with them months after learning about the topic. The statement that Student H made, demonstrates the transcendence of the topic beyond the journey of boys fleeing a war. The boys were in an exceptional circumstance; however, they were still teenage boys. The girls identified with their age as well as the journey that they made and realised that they were very lucky and should “appreciate what we have”. They wanted to know the rest of the boys’ story. They were able to relate with the individuals, see the journey that they went through and hope for their futures. Months after they learned about the topic, the story of the Lost Boys still resonated with the girls on multiple levels. Their enthusiasm for this topic directly hinged on the real story of the boys.

The next classroom example also utilised a real story about an emotional topic, in this case it was the woman’s story that had AIDS. Ms. Y, the class teacher, believes that the emotive learning that students experience when learning a topic is the foundation for it to resonate with them later. She discussed the AIDS example as one that would stay with her students, saying:

“They were quite shocked by it, but shocking things, that’s what they are going to take away with them, that’s what they’re going to remember in years to come when they’re discussing AIDS. They’ll not remember what I taught them in the lesson; they’re going to remember that. And that’s what you want them to remember in years to come. It’s things like that, using real life examples and using real people, are things which they’ll take with them through life as opposed to the teaching we provide, so it’s getting those examples into lessons” (Ms. Y, Geography teacher, School A, YPI).

This example was discussed in greater depth in chapter 8 regarding the empathetic connection students developed with the woman. It is the empathetic connection that students developed with the story of an individual that they were able to identify with. Perhaps not with her medical needs but they were able to see beyond the diagnosis into this woman's journey in coping with and eventually succumbing to the disease.
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The AIDS and *Lost Boys of Sudan* examples both used real people to convey the academic topic. Through using these examples students were able to identify with the people at the centre of these stories and see their journey through their eyes. As Ms. Y explained during her above quote, it is the shocking things that they are going to remember and using “real life examples and using real people”. Her opinion is that it is this type of learning that is most important for students to be identifying with and carrying with them through life. The details of which countries the *Lost Boys* travelled through or even which year it took place, 1991 not 2000 as the student stated, are secondary to the greater objective of having the students identify with these individuals. These topics will resonate with students for months or years after by understanding the other person’s perspectives and empathising with their experiences. These two examples took place in a single classroom in one school. These are subjects that were covered in Geography during the year. Potentially there are multiple topics that have the potential to resonate with students in the classroom when students can identify with the topic or individuals that are involved.

**Impact: In what ways does humanitarian education influence their development into global citizens?**

Chapter 9 has so far concentrated on the potential of humanitarian education to resonate with students long after they finished learning about the topic. The premise of humanitarian education resonating with students is that they continue to engage with the topic after they have learned about, whether consciously or sub-consciously. A topic that they learned about that greatly affected them would continue to resonate in future learning or life scenarios. This section of chapter 9, discusses the potential impact these topics may have on students. The resonance of a topic discusses the effect a single topic had on a student while the impact explores the potential effects of learning about humanitarian education as a whole. This section discusses the views of the educators who took part in this research as well as one of the key student moments of humanitarian learning which took place during this research.
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Educators and policy makers regularly explore how their subject or the direction of learning impacts on students. The potential effect of learning about a certain subject using specific methods can alter the impact for the student and educators are regularly trying to make their teaching as effective as possible for students. Throughout this research a number of adult participants were interviewed, for example teachers and programme organisers. The questions were based on understanding the moments of humanitarian learning that they witnessed as well as to understand how their subject or programme fit within the parameters of humanitarian education. One of the final questions asked was:

For teachers: “How do you think these topics impact students?”

For SLN-MUN/YPI: “How do you think your programme (SLN-MUN or YPI) impacts students?”

This type of question was designed to allow the adult participants an opportunity to reflect on the potential their subject or programme has on their students. The answers to this question fell largely into two groups: the first discussed the tangible skills, including academic, professional or life-skills; the second group explored the impact on the student as an individual and their understanding of the world around them.

The first, which discussed the impact humanitarian education has on tangible skills, were primarily discussed by the organisers of the two case study programmes. These answers seem to be directly answering the question of impact. Tangible evidence on how programmes impact students is an important question in the charitable field as it is often linked to justification for funding or to attract additional donors. When this question was posed to organisers of the SLN-MUN Home County programme, an evaluation report was provided from 2013 which discussed their research into the impact of the programme on the participating schools and students. Within this report it states:

“The evaluation demonstrated that this project had positive impacts on a wide range of key skills, helping them prepare for adult life. For example, the project had a great impact on improving their Public Speaking Skills, Partnership Working and understanding of Equality and Social Justice amongst others things. All students reported that taking part in the SLN-MUN had improved their understanding of
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World Affairs and that they now had a better understanding of the political world they live in. They became more likely to take part in political activities and felt more confident that they would be able to make a difference in their local community or country” (SLN MUN Evaluation, 2013).

The former director of YPI England had a great deal to say with regards to how YPI impacts students. He began his discourse with a general statement regarding the tangible academic and professional skills that students develop throughout the process. This statement was similar to the one included in the SLN-MUN evaluation report regarding the tangible benefits of participating in these programmes, stating:

“We've talked a little bit about the obvious things that it does and we get very clear reports from the teachers and students that 80% and above feel as if they have made some improvement whether that is ‘quite a lot’ or ‘a lot’ that is all lumped in together. But they have made improvements in confidence, teamwork, organisation, research, creativity...you know all of those professional skills so it certainly benefits them in that”.

The remainder of his statement is discussed in the following theme. However, there is a clear difference between his tone when discussing the tangible benefits and the impact on the student’s social consciousness which remains elusive to measure. As I mentioned, it is important to see the clear connection the case study programme organisers make to tangible skills when discussing the impact of their programme.

The second theme which educators discussed was the impact these topics have on the development of the student into an active or engaged young person. This theme is more abstract than the previous discussion. However, there were far more impassioned arguments from educators reflecting their hope that students are impacted in this way. There were comments regarding how it helps them to develop their relationship with the outside world and develop as a well-rounded person. For example:

“I think it just helps them be more considerate and more well-rounded and I think it helps them to develop those skills. You know I think life gets very very busy, doesn’t it, and we become people who just do things rather than who think about and experience. We just get it done, because we have to we don’t do it for the process of going through it. I think drama’s really good for exploring that process of evolution and feeling; not just looking at where we started and where we end up” (Ms. Z, School C, YPI London).
“In general, I think it allows them to be more aware and better citizens” (Mr. H, School U, SLN-MUN Home Counties).

Ms. Y, the geography teacher who participated from School A, reflected on the possible impact of teaching these types of topics to students, specifically how it has the potential to broaden student horizons and help them to develop their moral consciousness, stating:

“I think they impact them in a really positive way. That (HIV/AIDS lesson) was a positive impact. I think that everybody builds up perceptions about countries and people and you know when you teach about it and you broaden their knowledge about a place. Not just me teach them about it, but give them the chance to talk to each other about it in groups and ask questions about it...Really trying to get them to think about other places and the lives of other people is a good thing and it’s a positive thing.

It’s just trying to get the message across so when they see what the majority of the population in the world is living like it sort of gets them to think about how they live and what they can do and the little bits they can do to help...it’s really getting them to empathise, whatever they can do to help, it’s, I guess, developing a moral conscience for them. I think we do that” (Ms. Y, School A, YPI).

The theme of students developing a moral consciousness or that there is a world outside of the bubble that they know, was also discussed by Mr. J from SLN-MUN, stating:

“As the students get older, their awareness, that there is world outside of their street...then outside of England and then the world starts to develop...responsibility that they can actually make a difference. And a bit of it is naivety and then a bit of it is the real world filters in that they themselves can’t make that much of a difference but a group of people can...they are starting to discover that the power of being in a group and their responsibilities are developing so they start to realise the right and wrong, or the sense of right and wrong, and what they can do about it. As they get older and older they can start to work out how to go about making a difference” (Mr. J, School M, SLN-MUN Greater Manchester).

Both Ms. Y and Mr. J see the potential impact of their subject or programme as having the ability to open the eyes of students to the world around them and encourage them to engage with it. While the first two comments discussed how
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students were more considerate and aware after learning about humanitarian topics.

As I mentioned earlier, the former director of YPI England had an extended reply to this question. The first statement was included above and briefly discussed the tangible impact for students who participated. However, he then shifted his focus away from the tangible outcomes of participating in YPI to the impassioned belief of awakening community participation in students. His explanation of the potential impact that YPI, and similar programmes, can have on students eloquently composes the hopes that many educators have and a sentiment that is difficult to capture in evaluation reports. He states, “I think...that it's that magic element of it isn’t it. It’s that moment of realisation...”. His extended discussion, explores the role of the student in the community and how they engage with it and at what point do they contribute to their community, stating:

“I don’t think that within this notion of community, and what community really means as that kind of safety net that's formed by all of these individuals, organisations and infrastructure, the safety net that you weave as a community to help anybody at whatever point within that community when they fall on hard times. I don’t think you can sit on the fence in that...I don’t think that you can have no impact, I think that you are either making a positive impact or by the very fact that you are not making a positive impact you are having a negative impact because you are therefore using the resources of that community but without developing them or contributing. And that’s the point that I try to get across in my assemblies when the situation seems right. What it does for the students, I think, is that it enables them or that it allows them to reach the realisation that they can be a force for good...

And so I think that's what the impact of YPI is... It's understanding often that charity doesn’t just happen; it's led, it's managed, it’s strived for, it's sweated...it's sweated on by lots of nameless faces inside the community. And I think YPI puts names to the faces, puts faces to the organisation and puts organisations...makes people aware of organisations that are a part of that safety net that people have always relied on.

And I think that's what it does. It engages that social conscious and hopefully it lights that spark or gives them that spark...I think... Well, I don’t think, I know it does that for a lot of students and I hope it does that for all of the students".
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The educators who participated in this research clearly discuss the potential impact that engaging with humanitarian topics can have on students. The two themes of the tangible impact and the more elusive effect on the individual’s social consciousness demonstrate the potential these topics can have on students. These themes are important when exploring the impact on students. However, what was referred to as the magic moment of realisation, is one that I find fascinating because it is difficult to capture but incredibly rewarding for the teacher, organiser and student. This magic moment is what can be described as the moment of realisation for students that will have the potential to resonate and endure with them long after the lesson or programme finished.

This section concludes with a brief glimpse at a student’s moment of humanitarian learning that took place during this research. Following the conclusion of the focus group at School A, one of the girls that had been participating came up to me while I was packing up. The informal comment she made to me at that moment was one that I quickly wrote in my research journal and it remained with me since. She stated:

“Thank you for this opportunity, we’ve really enjoyed it. We don’t normally get to talk about these issues with our friends and really get to express ourselves like this...

Once you know what happens to (other people), you, I don’t know, makes you a bit guilty because you don’t think about what you do sometimes...And you don’t actually realise the little things you do can affect hugely” (Student X, School A, YPI).

Her statement was one of those moments of resonance, or a magic moment that I highlighted earlier. Her realisation of how her actions change the world around her and potentially resonates with her to the extent where she alters her behaviour, saying, “the little things you do can affect hugely”. She acknowledged her engagement with humanitarian topics and realised her connection to the world around her. The first part of her comment, however, raised the question: through all the structured lessons and exams, are students being allowed to explore the topics that interest them in the depth that would be the most beneficial for them? This question is one that I have no answer for but one which could potentially enhance
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the impact of humanitarian topics on students who *want* to engage with the world around them.

Exploring the impact of humanitarian education was never central to answering the research questions which were outlined at the start of this thesis as it is difficult to assess how this impacts their sense of the world. However, as the research was conducted, and the analytical themes developed, it became apparent that this research has the potential to impact the students who participated. The above statements from educators and the moment of humanitarian learning which was discussed, both explore the unbounded effect that humanitarian education discourse had with some of the participants. While not the primary focus of this research the rich essence of the sentiments warranted discussion into the potential impact these topics have on students.

**Conclusion**

Throughout this chapter, the moments of humanitarian learning were explored, looking specifically at how they had the potential to resonate with students beyond the initial learning episode and the wider impact of engaging with these topics. The ability to assess the degree to which these topics resonate with students is currently beyond the scope of this study. However, it is clear that a number of empathetically driven humanitarian topics can affect students in a way which will resonate with them in the future. While there are fewer examples within this chapter compared to the previous two analytical strands, the strength of the examples lies in the potential lasting impact that they have. The data for this strand of analysis was challenging to collect due to the specific nature of the topics that may resonate with individual students from across all the participating schools. Students may have been affected by a subject they learned about months or years ago across subject areas. I realised the research question which guided this chapter, how does this impact the students’ sense of the world, was too conceptual and difficult to answer unequivocally. With this in mind the discussion explored the potential resonance of these topics and relied on teacher and organiser beliefs surround the impact of teaching these issues.
This chapter began by reflecting on the moments of resonance that occurred in both case study programmes as well as classroom examples. The two case study programmes both demonstrated that working with their peers, the community and humanitarian topics encouraged empathy amongst students and enhanced the resonance of their participation. Personal stories used to illustrate humanitarian topics, such as the Lost Boys of Sudan and Saranda’s story, allowed an insight into another young person’s challenges and the journey to face or overcome them. These personal stories resonate with students due in part to the empathetic theme of relatability. Approaching a humanitarian topic through the eyes and the voice of a person who has personally been affected holds a great deal of potential for students to empathise with and enable the topic to resonate with them at a later stage. The second section of this chapter discusses the potential impact of humanitarian education on students. Impact is normally measured in what tangible skills students gain, as discussed by the two case study programmes; however, the passion of educators lies in accessing those ‘magic moments’ where students truly engage with topic. The ‘magic moments’ are those that have the greatest impact on students. It is those moments that most educators strive to connect with, as they have the potential to carry on resonating with students long after the class has finished.

Humanitarian topics may have the potential to develop the next generation of humanitarians through the lasting resonance of the topics. The examples discussed within this chapter provide a snapshot into the resonance that humanitarian topics can have with students as well as the potential lasting impact. This chapter allows a glimpse at what is possible for students to gain through studying humanitarian education both academically and personally for the student.

**Part 3 Conclusion**

Part 3 has explored the student perspective of humanitarian education through the initial question that was posed of how students are engaging with humanitarian issues. The three chapters contain the heart of the research and work towards answering this question. The chapters each focused on a primary strand of the
analytical framework, these were the academic, empathetic and resonant facets of humanitarian learning.

Chapter 7 began by exploring how students currently engage with humanitarian topics academically. This chapter was designed to provide a foundation for the following chapters through understanding what students were learning academically during this research. Specifically, this chapter looked at the places where humanitarian education fits in the classroom, including how teachers and students define it as well as the subjects where it was taught. Chapter 7 then went on to discuss the methods of academically engaging with humanitarian education, specific methods were highlighted that students found to be most engaging. The final theme in chapter 7 explored the challenges that teachers have when trying to incorporate humanitarian topics into their classrooms.

Chapter 8 explored the psycho-social effects of humanitarian topics on students through using an empathetic spectrum that students engaged with. The first section of chapter 8 deconstructed the key differences between sympathy and empathy and what led to the creation of the empathetic spectrum that was used within this research. This spectrum allowed students to move fluidly through their emotions when they engage with humanitarian topics, thus not boxing them in to feeling a certain response. The second section looked at the four empathetic themes which became apparent throughout this research. The first theme discussed why students may not be engaging with humanitarian topics. The four elements of disengagement discussed what may be holding students back from empathetically connecting to humanitarian topics. The main elements raised by this research were the maturity of students, apathy, student ability and individual ego. Starting this section of chapter 8 with a negative perspective of the research was uncomfortable for me, however there were several responses from educators that blamed certain aspects of student disengagement on these factors and held students back from engaging. It was important to address why students may not engage empathetically or how their disengagement may have been misinterpreted. The three remaining themes looked at how students engaged with humanitarian topics empathetically, specifically through taking ownership of their engagement, the relatability of the topic as well as the role
that geographic location plays. Chapter 8 found that students do engage with humanitarian topics across the empathetic spectrum.

Chapter 9 went on to look at how engaging with humanitarian topics empathetically could impact the student’s sense of the world and the potential resonance of the topics. This chapter was devoted to looking at the potential impact and lasting effects of humanitarian education on students. While more difficult to capture during this research, there were opportunities to reflect upon the moments of resonance that specific topics had with students as well as discuss the potential impact. The impact of humanitarian was found to go beyond tangible academic or social skills but potentially tap into those magic moments of student self-discovery and ultimately longer-term resonance.

Together, these three chapters synthesise the research that has been conducted to create a multidimensional perspective of the moments of humanitarian learning for students. While not exhaustive, part 3 provides insight into students' academic learning, their empathetically driven engagement and the lasting resonance and impact of humanitarian education. Part 3 is the core of this thesis as it represents the culmination of the methodological journey that took place to analytically critique the moments of learning. It reflects the current political and humanitarian climates which dictate the potential for students and teachers to engage with these types of topics. It provides a picture of what is occurring in the classroom through using multiple methods, one of which was to understand the students' perspective through their own voice. It also discusses and analyses the evidence to answer the research questions that have been set for this inquiry. Part 3 is also the catalyst for the final section of this thesis which discusses the implications of this research.

Part 3 explored the moments of humanitarian learning to understand how students are engaging with humanitarian issues. This research has found that students are engaging academically and empathetically with humanitarian education. Furthermore, this engagement has the potential to have a lasting impact on students through the potential resonance power of the topics. As I have illustrated, many students enjoy learning and engaging with humanitarian topics, through the case
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study programmes as well as more generally in the classroom. The conclusion of this thesis looks at what more can be done to support their learning.
Conclusion

This thesis addressed the role of humanitarian education in the development of students’ sense of global citizenship and responsibility. More specifically, it focused on two research questions:

- How do students engage with key topics in humanitarianism?
- How does this impact the students’ sense of the world?

These were the questions with which I began my research. However I realised that while working towards answering these, two additional research questions manifested through my field work:

- How does the politics of schooling shape the possibilities and limits of humanitarian education?
- What is the role of NGOs in supporting schools’ humanitarian aims?

These questions emerged while conducting my early scoping study and a desire to understand what the external influences were for educators. Chapters 5 and 6 both addressed these questions and they guided the analysis that took place in part 3.

I adopted an interdisciplinary approach to address these research questions, specifically through the humanitarian and educational fields. Instead of exploring these questions solely through either an educational lens or a humanitarian one, these were both incorporated into the research design. This interdisciplinary analysis—one which has seen the cooperation of 24 schools, NGOs, programmes, and facilitators—has contributed to expanding the knowledge of both the humanitarian and educational fields, academic and practical, through understanding the student experience while engaging with these topics. The student voice and perspective provided invaluable evidence of humanitarian learning that is taking place and more importantly practical steps to increase the accessibility of these fields for young people.

NGOs and teachers rarely enjoy the opportunity to take a step back and reflect on the work they are doing and how it affects students. This thesis has discussed tangible
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examples of humanitarian education that seem to have worked and those that need improvement.

In this conclusion, I summarise the key findings. In so doing, I show how to incorporate humanitarian education into the school curriculum to encourage in-depth engagement with, and by, young people. The factors that influence student accessibility to these topics discussed provide a greater understanding of the current situation of engaging with humanitarian topics in the classroom. Some of these internal and external factors, i.e. the role of NGOs or the political nature of the curriculum, create either opportunities or barriers to student engagement. Exploring the underlying external factors to their engagement provides a platform to discuss how to encourage greater opportunities for students. There is also a discussion which explores the premise of educators who are humanitarian in their nature and their role in the classroom. The final section of the conclusion allows for a brief reflection on the Moments of Humanitarian Learning that were experienced throughout the study.

Influencing policy

The governmental influence on humanitarian education has a great deal of power with regards to its classroom implementation. This research never intended to be a political analysis of educational policy in England. The creation of this strand within the research was designed to understand the atmosphere, described in greater detail in chapter 6, that surrounded the classroom experience of teachers and students in England. Under closer scrutiny it became clear that it was not possible to separate the current political nature of the National Curriculum from its creation and development. Throughout this research there were key areas for improvement that were noticed to create consistency for students and teachers, this section will focus on one primary recommendation. It argues that primary stakeholders should guide the National Curriculum and educational policy. The recommendation is based on the research that was conducted and the corresponding research question as to how do the politics of schooling shape the possibilities and limits of humanitarian education.
One step towards improving the National Curriculum and educational policy is to include the voices of the primary stakeholders—students, parents and teachers—when implementing changes. Any changes to the National Curriculum directly affects these groups first and foremost. They should therefore have a say in the alterations to the direction of their education and take an active role in steering groups to have their voices heard by decision-makers. Students do not generally follow the twists and turns of educational policy and how it affects them. However, when they are faced with a new state test to prepare for, without adequate time to learn the material, they face the consequences of being part of a transitional student group and this is reflected in their grades. Teachers spend years perfecting their lesson plans and trying to create engaging units. If the curriculum changes at the end of the school year, it leaves the teacher with only a few months to prepare the new material. Educational policy directly affects these primary stakeholders, after a political policy is made or changed the success or failure of those changes are carried by these groups of people, not the political party which has made the changes.

As demonstrated in chapter 6, English politics will continue to influence the shape of the National Curriculum and the inclusion of humanitarian topics. Although individual teachers and schools are unable to alter the political climate or context for political debate, nevertheless they can take greater ownership in approaching education in a humanitarian way ultimately allowing these topics to be taught regardless of the changing political tide.

**Evolving responsibility of NGOs**

NGOs play a pivotal role in encouraging students to engage with humanitarian education and supporting teachers in their delivery of appropriate material. Throughout this thesis, there have been references to the role of NGOs and the successful nature of some of their material. NGOs have an evolving role to play in the classroom through the development of appropriate resources, interactive sessions or providing speakers. Teachers have demonstrated they are willing and eager to participate with NGOs through using their resources or having speakers come in. Many NGOs already take this responsibility seriously by providing well considered
resources that are easily accessible to teachers. Following an extensive exploration of the websites and resources available throughout the duration of this research there are three key areas that foster the inclusion of NGO resources in the classroom. These are:

- User-friendliness of the website for educators and students
- Development of multifunctional teaching resources available for educators
- Accessibility of the NGO to teachers and students

User-friendliness of the website, such as streamlining a website to include an area dedicated to educators, allows them to have easy access to educational material produced by the organisation. Through developing multifunctional teaching resources—those which can be adapted by teachers to be utilised as an extended unit, lesson or activity to fit into their lesson plans—NGOs will be able to offer teachers accurate and relevant information and support the inclusion of the subject.

The third area is the accessibility of the NGO to educators, either by offering training courses like Amnesty International and the British Red Cross on how to teach controversial issues or by extending fundraising initiatives to include educational opportunities to engage further with the humanitarian topic. These three strands encourage educators to participate with specific NGOs and enhance the learning experience of the student by offering unique perspectives on global and local humanitarian issues.

NGOs have a responsibility to help their target users; however, they can also do this by increasing awareness through education. As NGOs continue to develop in a globalised world, their engagement with schools and students’ needs to evolve to remain relevant to the next generation of humanitarians.
Methods matter

This research saw humanitarian education implemented in a variety of ways throughout the schools that participated. Chapter 7, the academic transfer of knowledge, explored what students learned in the classroom and how they were learning it. Educators who participated in this research generally valued the importance of differential instruction, or the teaching of a topic through a variety of media including visual, practical and auditory approaches. Methods for differential instruction were observed at all of the participant schools during this research. From chapter 7, the methods that students found to be most effective included the use of media, interactive sessions, debates and learning about ‘the other’. Including these methods is easier said than done due to time constraints and finding appropriate material.

The combination of differential approaches and active learning provide a well-rounded approach to student education. As stated previously, there are time constraints that teachers face, and these approaches can be daunting when one is unfamiliar with the content material (p. 139). This is where NGOs could enhance their relationship with schools through supporting teachers in the delivery of this material. NGOs that source age appropriate and emotive subject matter or create interactive sessions and debates that could be utilised in the classroom would substantially enhance the classroom experience for educators and students. Forums for sharing resources between educators also exist, such as the Association for Citizenship Teaching (ACT, 2018). With the decline of Citizenship Education in the National Curriculum some of these lessons could be adapted to encourage the teaching of humanitarian education across subject areas.

The ‘student voice’ has been integral to understanding the students’ moments of humanitarian learning. Future research in the field of humanitarian education would benefit from participatory research projects reflecting a transformative approach to using the ‘student voice’. This would involve students taking a greater stake in the direction of the research into humanitarian education with the purpose of informing the direction of the curriculum in their school.
Another factor for enhancing the classroom experience for students is through embedding humanitarian topics into the overall ethos of the school. Some of the classes that were observed had highly motivated and passionate teachers at the helm of the classroom directing how students engaged with difficult topics. However, if these individual teachers left the school or had an extended leave of absence the teaching of humanitarian topics is directly affected. For example, one of the participating SLN-MUN schools chose to discontinue its involvement in the project when the lead teacher left and there was no one willing to take up the responsibility. The former director of YPI England discussed this concern as well, specifically that participation in the project, for some schools, hinged on a single enthusiastic member of the teaching staff. If there is a commitment to humanitarian engagement embedded within the school this can go a long way towards encouraging student interaction and enhancing the classroom experience. The schools that had humanitarianism embedded within their ethos were clear about their expectations for engaging with these topics and all the teachers interviewed were aware and supportive of the school's value in the topic. In this respect, the removal of a single teacher would not have a direct detrimental effect on the teaching of humanitarian topics. Furthermore, those schools with embedded humanitarianism were able to carry on the work they were doing regardless of political pressures trying to shape the nature of the school curriculum.

Schools that did have a humanitarian ethos embedded into their culture each had different motivations for doing so. One school involved in the research had a passionate deputy head teacher who was committed to embedding a sense of altruism and global responsibility in the school. While another had previously embedded a culture to reflect the Global Dimension when that was part of the curriculum, they found it so fulfilling for their students that when the Global Dimension was no longer mandatory they kept the culture within their school (p. 141).

Expanding the accessibility to students and encouraging their engagement with humanitarian topics through creating conducive environments in the school and
classrooms would enhance the student experience. Ideally, humanitarian education would be embedded into the school ethos, and have enthusiastic teachers implementing it, so that it could hopefully survive any changing political tides that it may face.

Educators who are humanitarians

While NGOs have a responsibility to create interactive and engaging resources, educators can increase engagement by modelling humanitarian values in their teaching approaches, therefore acting as humanitarian educators. This research has allowed me to meet with educators and students across England to discuss what humanitarian education is and to witness those moments of learning. What I had not realised at the start of this research was the interactive role that I would play when working with participants. The constructivist approach to my research has allowed me to reflect on one major contribution that I made unintentionally to this research. Simply by asking teachers and students about this topic in a 'humanitarian' way I have role-modelled some of the principles that were included in the 747 framework and have opened the door to education that is humanitarian, or educators who are humanitarian, in their nature.

There were several key personal skills that I modelled without realising, including: empathy; active listening; critical thinking and non-judgement. The corresponding humanitarian values stated in the 747 framework, included those of: active goodwill and care; mutual understanding and peace; equality; respect for diversity; objectivity and openness; confidence (trust); self-control and discipline; freedom of action and objectivity; co-operation; spirit of service; spirit of altruism and generosity; diversity and pluralism; and mutual assistance (Beeckman, 2016: 273).

The way in which I introduced myself, my background, and the conversations that I was able to have with students, members of the SLT, organisers and students demonstrated that I had a genuine interest in humanitarian education and modelled humanitarian values. While conducting the research, I was empathetic and tried to
understand the participants and their experiences, to accurately reflect their perspectives, but also because I was genuinely interested in understanding that moment of empathetic engagement with humanitarian topics. To understand their moments of learning it was of the highest importance to actively listen to their experiences and reflect those moments in an objective and open manner. Furthermore, to encourage participants to feel comfortable when discussing moments where they were emotionally vulnerable, and for them to be at ease when I was conducting my research, a certain degree of trust had to be felt to ensure their confidence in me as a researcher to portray their experiences objectively and truthfully.

The constructivist approach to my research considered my background as an educator and humanitarian but did not foresee the effect that I could have, having internalised the attributes of an educator who is a humanitarian. As Beeckman describes the 747 framework, “it grew out of the following vision: learning comes from within, sustainable action comes from freedom of choice and genuine motivation, inspiring others comes from role-modelling or walking the talk, change of mindset and behaviour comes from trust and ownership” (2016: 272). By entering these schools, interacting with teachers, students and questioning the role of humanitarian education, could I have stimulated change to those participants or allowed a wider conversation to happen within those environments?

As an educator who is a humanitarian I “walked the talk” and role-modelled those values within the 747 framework and by doing so I conveyed an empathetic understanding of the participants’ moments of humanitarian learning. One of the first steps to supporting humanitarian education in schools is for educators to actively embrace some of the skills discussed in the 747 framework to role-model humanitarian principles.

Educators who are humanitarians could also act as advocates for the student voice in the classroom, school and wider society. Through modelling the humanitarian principles in the 747 framework—those of active-listening, empathy, mutual understanding, equality, objectivity, openness, confidence and mutual assistance—
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Students would have a safe place to express their views and have confidence that they were being heard by adults.

The empathetic experience

Throughout this thesis the moments of humanitarian learning for students was explored using the empathetic spectrum as a framework. This thesis has found that students do engage with humanitarian subjects and significantly the potential affect this has on students through lasting resonance. This research has contributed to the educational and humanitarian fields in multiple ways, the following paragraphs discuss three clear contributions.

The first is through identifying the methods that students found to be most engaging to convey humanitarian topics. Hearing the student perspective of learning via these methods may encourage educators to re-evaluate their teaching approaches to reflect these discussions.

The empathetic themes discussed in chapter 8, will give additional insight to educators in the classroom and in NGOs on how to get students to feel with others both locally and globally. When designing new lessons or units, educators can use an empathetic framework which asks them to reflect on how their students are going to empathetically engage with this topic? Specifically, on what levels are they able to relate to the subject; what is the degree of student ownership in this project; what is the potential for longer term resonance with students? Through reflecting on this empathetic framework when designing lessons and seminars, students remain at the centre of the learning experience so that they can relate to challenging topics more effectively.

The third contribution is one which has addressed the need for humanitarian organisations to take a greater responsibility in engaging with students. This research has found that many organisations already do (chapter 5), however there is no clear understanding from teachers and schools of what this engagement is, or even who humanitarians are (pp. 118-125). If I return to the discussion in chapter 1
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regarding the professionalisation of humanitarianism, this now needs to translate to how they are educating others regarding who they are, their motivations and the work they do. As this thesis detailed, there are organisations who have begun this process. However, it is difficult to expect students, teachers, and schools to support humanitarian initiatives when they cannot express who humanitarians are. Further, if humanitarians only engage with young people as an afterthought, they are not fully considering the resonance these topics may have and the potential this has in directing future engagement from students. Thus, they are missing the opportunity to help engage young passionate individuals on topics that they find worthwhile and of interest. We have yet to realise the full potential of student engagement in the humanitarian field because it has not yet been adequately addressed. The next step for the humanitarian sector is recognising educators who explicitly endorse humanitarian values and support their work in schools as well as to help teachers to become more humanitarian in their teaching methods.

The Moments of Humanitarian Learning

This thesis represents the academic journey that has lasted years for me to explore. Although this is the conclusion to this document, the discussions that are included in this thesis will continue to develop and evolve as the variables influencing student involvement change.

*The Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators*, as a title and concept, was initially designed to reflect the moments that students experience when learning about humanitarian topics. Throughout this research this title has evolved to include not only the student experience of their moments of learning, but also those of the teachers, the organisers of the case study programmes and the researcher when observing and reflecting on the student experience.

As an external observer, and organiser in one of the case-study programmes, it was challenging to remain neutral. Howard Zinn entitled one of his books *You Can’t Be Neutral on a Moving Train*. This saying applies to the research process of this thesis.
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Whilst trying to remain neutral as a researcher I was on a journey which paralleled that of the students and educators who I was fortunate enough to observe and interview. My voice comes through in certain sections of this thesis and I have tried to make this clear for the reader.

It is challenging to say unequivocally the extent to which students engage with humanitarian topics as this research found students engaging to varying extents across the empathetic spectrum. The teaching of humanitarian topics did impact their sense of their community, both locally and globally. The moments of humanitarian learning, for the students, educators, and practitioners will continue to evolve and morph based on the experiences that these groups encounter. This research found that there is a great deal being done in this field and it has the potential to empathetically affect students. However, there is much still to do to ensure greater consistency in its delivery and the efficacy of student engagement.
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| School H | SLN-MUN | Greater Manchester | Community | Below nat. avg. | Below nat. avg. | 1,480 | Satisfactory | 10 | 1 | 5 | Yes | Yes Ms. K | No |
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| School J | SLN-MUN | Greater Manchester | Foundation | Above nat. avg. | Above nat. avg. | 1,275 | Good | 10 | 1 | 2 | Yes | Yes Ms. R | No |
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<th>Head of School</th>
<th>VoC</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total Students in School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>SLN-MUN</td>
<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Voluntary Aided</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>SLN-MUN</td>
<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Voluntary Aided</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>797</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>SLN-MUN</td>
<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1,113</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>SLN-MUN</td>
<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1,216</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
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<tr>
<td>School E</td>
<td>SLN-MUN</td>
<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1,020</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School F</td>
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<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
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<tr>
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<td>SLN-MUN</td>
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<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
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<tr>
<td>School H</td>
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<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1,373</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>251</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>998</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School J</td>
<td>SLN-MUN</td>
<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1,327</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
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<td>School K</td>
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<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1,189</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
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<tr>
<td>School L</td>
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<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
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<td>251</td>
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<tr>
<td>School M</td>
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<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1,253</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School N</td>
<td>SLN-MUN</td>
<td>Greater Manchester</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>956</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Totals:** 677, 27, 71
Appendix B – Focus Group Questions

Name: ________________________________
Focus Group

The focus group will be made up of questions/images that you will be asked to respond to. Please take turns speaking as this makes it easier for me to understand on the tape recorder. Thank you for participating.

Getting to know you... Please answer the first three questions on your own. You only have four minutes so write down the first thing that comes into your head. There is no right or wrong answer -- your teachers won't know what you wrote either.

1. Can you name a specific topic that you learned about this year in:

Geography: ____________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

R.E.: ________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

2. What did you or did you not like about this topic?

Geography: ____________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

R.E.: ________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

3. What do you think made it memorable to you?

Geography: ____________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

R.E.: ________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators

4. Please take 2 minutes and define the following terms in your own words. After you have written down your responses, please discuss it with the group and agree to a common definition.

*Philanthropy:* ________________________________
____________________
____________________
____________________

*Active Citizenship:* ________________________________
____________________
____________________
____________________

*Humanitarian:* ________________________________
____________________
____________________
____________________

5. Take a look at the images on the table and discuss the following questions for each picture:

- What do you think is happening in the picture?
- Who do you think the people are?
- How do you think they feel?

6. Please discuss the following questions:

- In what ways do disasters (hurricanes/earthquakes/tsunamis/famine) effect the people who experience them?
- In what ways does conflict (armed conflict/Civil War) effect the people who experience them? (Hint: “The Lost Boys of Sudan”)
Appendix C – Focus Group Images
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators
Appendix D – Interview Questions

Semi-structured interviews will take place with organisation personnel, school administration, teachers and students. All participants are free to end the interview at any point without reason or consequence.

**Teachers:**
a) What do you think “humanitarianism” is?
b) In what ways does your school respond to and interact with educating about global issues (natural disasters, refugees, human rights, etc.)?
c) In what ways do different disciplines/teachers from different disciplines work together? Or are there opportunities for interdisciplinary cooperation?
d) In what ways is your subject able to incorporate these topics?
e) What has been your most memorable moment when teaching these topics? Why was this so memorable?
f) What are the challenges to incorporating these topics?
g) How do you think these topics impact students?
h) Ideally, what would you like to be doing in this area and what support or resources would enable you to do this?

**Students:** The questions posed to students will be of a clarifying nature based off of earlier comments they made in class or during the focus group. Examples include:
o) Could you discuss what you meant when you stated, “...”?
o) Would you please expand further on “...” which you mentioned in the focus group?
o) What did you like about this topic? What made it memorable to you?
o) What do you remember from the focus group you were involved in? What made it memorable to you?

**Organisations:**
a) What do you think “humanitarianism” is?
b) In your words, what do you think the purpose of YPI/SLN-MUN is?
c) What is your role in YPI/SLN-MUN?
d) How does your program fit into the English curriculum?
  1) Have adjustments been made to accommodate the changing curriculum?
e) How do you think YPI/SLN-MUN impacts students?
f) In what ways do you think students are affected by researching and advocating for their chosen charity?
g) What are some of the benefits/difficulties in engaging students in England?
h) What are the challenges to incorporating this program into schools?
i) What has been your most memorable moment when working in this field?
  1) Why was this so memorable?
j) Ideally, what would you like to be doing in this area and what support or resources would enable you to do this?
Appendix E – Student Participation Consent Form

Student Participation Consent Form
Humanitarian Education: The Moments of Humanitarian Learning

Please complete this form and return it to your child’s school if you are happy for your child to participate in the study.

Please note, if you do not return the form, your child will NOT be included in the study.

Participation is entirely voluntary and if your child, or you, decides they no longer want to participate they may withdraw at any time, without giving a reason.

Please read the information provided on the student participant information sheet carefully and if you are happy for your child to participate please sign below and return to the school.

Student Name: ……………………………………………………………………………………………

Parent/Guardian Signature: …………………………………………………………………………

Parent/Guardian Name Printed:………………………………………………………………………

Date:…………………………

Amanda McCorkindale
Humanitarianism and Conflict Response Institute
Ellen Wilkinson Building, University of Manchester,
M13 9PL, 0161 275 8967
amanda.Mccorkindale@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

http://www.hcri.manchester.ac.uk
Appendix F – Adult Consent Form

Faculty of Humanities Consent Form for Participants Taking Part in PhD Research Projects

Humanitarian Education: The Moments of Humanitarian Learning

Please read the information provided on this sheet carefully and if you are happy to proceed, sign below.

The researcher has given me my own copy of the information sheet which I have read and understood. The information sheet explains the nature of the research and what I would be asked to do as a participant. I understand that the research is for a student project and that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded unless subject to any legal requirements. S/he has discussed the contents of the information sheet with me and given me the opportunity to ask questions about it.

I agree to take part as a participant in this research and I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without detriment to myself.

Signed:...........................................................................................................................

Name Printed:.................................................................

Date:........................................

Researcher

I, the researcher, confirm that I have discussed with the participant the contents of the information sheet.

Signed:...........................................................................................................................

Date:........................................

Amanda McCorkindale
Humanitarianism and Conflict Response Institute
Ellen Wilkinson Building, University of Manchester, M13 9PL
0161 275 8967
amanda.Mccorkindale@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk
Appendix G – Participant Information Sheet: Teachers

“Humanitarian Education: The Moments of Humanitarian Learning”

You are being invited to take part in a research study which forms part of my PhD degree. Before you decide if you would like to participate, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Who will conduct the research?
Amanda McCorkindale, Humanitarian and Conflict Response Institute, Ellen Wilkinson Building, University of Manchester, M13 9PL

Title of the Research
“Humanitarian Education: The Moments of Humanitarian Learning”

What is the aim of the research?
This research seeks to identify and clarify what is humanitarian education and the role it has in the development of the students’ sense of responsibility in secondary schools within the UK. The conclusions provided in this research will add to our understanding of ‘humanitarian education’ and help to answer the question of how students engage with humanitarian subjects.

Why have I been chosen?
Participants have been chosen based on having experience of the delivery of educational subjects at the secondary level which are considered to reflect humanitarian principles.

What would I be asked to do if I took part?
Participants will be asked to participate in four ways, both actively and passively; observations, interviews and, if necessary, implement a lesson.

Passive Participation:
1. Observations: The researcher would observe a single class set when you are teaching them for two weeks initially and possibly an additional day if needed.
2. Supervision: Allow access to classroom for student focus groups or student interviews to take place. This is to ensure child safeguarding. If your classroom is not available alternative arrangement can be made, i.e. use of departmental staff room or library.

Active Participation:
3. Interviews: Participants will be asked a series of broad questions regarding how they (the individual and/or the school) interact with global issues. They will be asked to reflect on: engagement with students, opportunities for collaboration with other departments and how students react to these topics.
   - You will not be asked to pass judgement on school policy or their colleagues.
   - Please contact the researcher if you would like to see a list of questions before the interview.
   - Interviews will be recorded (digitally) with the permission of the interviewee and recording is in no way mandatory. If you would prefer not to have your voice recorded please tell the researcher and they will write/type notes instead.

What happens to the data collected?
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators

The data will be used by the researcher primarily for academic purposes which may include data that will be published in articles or consultancy work. However, your name, identity and position will remain anonymous.

How is confidentiality maintained?
Your name will be recorded on the consent form however your workplace and position will not be recorded either in the written or verbal form on the form. Your workplace/position/name are recorded separately and kept on an encrypted memory device in a locked filing cabinet at the researcher’s place of residence. In transcripts and written notes, pseudonyms will be used. Participants will be asked to read over transcripts to ensure credibility of transcription of quotes.

Upon arrival back to Manchester, the researcher will transcribe and analyse notes and interviews on the researcher’s university computer which is in a secure, private location. Data will be stored for 5 years and then destroyed.

What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part the researcher will provide a consent form for you to sign. You are free to withdraw at any time (prior, during or following the interview) without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself. The participant may stop the interview at any time.

Will I be paid for participating in the research?
No, participants will not be paid for participation.

What is the duration of the research?
The researcher will be conducting research for up to six months; however, your participation will be much shorter, in total of up to three weeks.

Where will the research be conducted?
In the participant’s classroom/office or school public place as chosen by the participant.

Will the outcomes of the research be published?
Yes, the research will be included in the researcher’s PhD thesis and will be included in future publications (academic journals/books/consultant work). All research participants may request to view any or all of these documents prior to their ‘release’ or at any time in the future.

Contact for further information
Amanda McCorkindale, Humanitarian and Conflict Response Institute, Ellen Wilkinson Building, University of Manchester, UK M13 P9L, amanda.mccorkindale@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

What if something goes wrong?
If at any time the participant has questions or concerns about the research and/or their participation, they should contact the researcher directly at the above email address, or contact my supervisor at:
Peter Gatrell, Humanitarian and Conflict Response Institute, Ellen Wilkinson Building, University of Manchester, UK M13 P9L, peter.gatrell@manchester.ac.uk

If you would like more information about teaching “controversial issues” visit, Oxfam’s website at: http://www.oxfam.org.uk/education/teacher-support/tools-and-guides/controversial-issues
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators

If a participant wants to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research they should contact the Head of the Research Office, Christie Building, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL.

All staff and students are free to withdraw at any time.
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators

Appendix H – Participant Information Sheet: Students

Student Information Sheet
“Humanitarian Education: The Moments of Humanitarian Learning”

You are being invited to take part in a research study as part of a PhD research project being conducted on ‘humanitarian education’.

Before you decide if you would like to participate, it is important for you to understand:
- Why the research is being done
- What it will involve

Please read the following information very carefully and if anything is not clear or you would like to know more, please ask. Take your time to think about if you would like to be involved. Thank you.

Who is the researcher?
Amanda McCorkindale is a PhD student at the University of Manchester. My office is located in the Ellen Wilkinson Building, University of Manchester, M13 9PL.

Title of the Research
“Humanitarian Education: The Moments of Humanitarian Learning” (Is it taught and what do students [you] learn from it?)

What is the aim of the research?
This research seeks to look at what is humanitarian education and the role it plays in how students think about global issues. Basically I would like to know:
- How are students being taught about disasters, or humanitarian events, that occur around the world?
- What does this mean to students?

Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen because you are in one of only 5 classes in Greater Manchester which are participating in this year study. I would like to know what you think about this topic.

What would I be asked to do if I took part?
You would be in a class where I am observing classes (watching what you are learning about). I may ask you to participate in a “focus group” with two of your classmates. In these focus groups, you and your classmates would respond to pictures/words that have a humanitarian message. If there is anything I’m not sure about, regarding what you said in the focus group or in class, I may ask you to answer a few further questions.

- You are NOT being asked to judge your teacher.
- Please ask if you would like to see the type of questions I will ask before the interview.

The interviews will be digitally recorded with your permission. If you do not want me to record your voice that is not a problem please just tell me and I can take written/typed notes instead.
What happens to the recorded interview?
I will use your interview for academic purposes. In future, it may be used in published articles or to help other schools or organisations to improve their ‘humanitarian education’ programs.

Your name and identity will remain anonymous at all times! This means no one outside of your class will know you even participated. Your classmates, outside of the focus group, will not know what you said during the focus group and no one will be able to identify what you said during an interview.

Confidentiality – Will anyone know what I said?
- Your name will be recorded on the consent form however it will not appear anywhere else and will not be used within anything that I write.
- I will use your answers for my research but no one will know that you said them as I will be talking to a few of your classmates too.
- Your classroom teacher will not even know what you said.

What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide NOT to take part I will provide a form for you and your parents to sign to show you are “opting” out. If you do participate, you can stop at any time without telling me why and you won’t get in trouble. You can also stop the interview or leave the focus group at any time.

Will I be paid for participating in the research?
No, unfortunately not.

What is the duration of the research?
I’ll be observing your class for a period of up to 3 weeks in all. If you participate in the focus group it may meet twice during my research for no more than 20 minutes each time. If I need to interview you, this will take no longer than 5 minutes.

Where will the research be conducted?
At your school and in a place where you feel comfortable, including your classroom or library.

Will the outcomes of the research be published?
The research will be included in the researcher’s PhD thesis and may be included in future publications. You (or your parents) can ask to view any or all of these documents prior to their ‘release’ or at any time in the future.

Contact for further information
Amanda McCorkindale, Humanitarian and Conflict Response Institute, Ellen Wilkinson Building, University of Manchester, UK M13 P9L, amanda.Mccorkindale@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

What if something goes wrong?
If at any time you have questions or concerns about the research and/or your participation, you should contact me at the above email address. If you don’t feel comfortable talking to me about it, that is not a problem, please speak to your teacher or my supervisor Peter Gatrell.

Peter Gatrell, Humanitarian and Conflict Response Institute, Ellen Wilkinson Building University of Manchester, UK M13 P9L, peter.gatrell@manchester.ac.uk
Moments of Humanitarian Learning in Secondary School Students and their Educators

All students are free to withdraw at any time.