Bonnie Kaul Nastasi
Stuart N. Hart
Shereen C. Naser *Editors*

International Handbook on Child Rights and School Psychology

EXTRAS ONLINE

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Editors

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This book is dedicated to

The children (0 to 18 years) around the world, that they may each benefit from the human rights assured by the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child

School psychologists, that they may use their power, individually and collectively, to advance the rights of each child through research, policy, training, practice, advocacy, and leadership roles

Educators, mental health and physical health professionals, parents/guardians, and community members, that they take responsibility for promoting and protecting the rights of each child

Policy makers at local, national, and international levels, that they may use their power to ensure that each child is assured the rights afforded by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child

The youth around the globe, who are changing the world for the better in the face of adult domination and indifference

Foreword

School Psychology in the Trenches of Child Rights

To paraphrase physicist and philosopher Thomas Kuhn, meaningful scientific change occurs through successive transition from one paradigm to another via revolution. This assertion also applies seamlessly to the field of human rights which gradually came to include *The Second Sex*[1] via the suffragette movement, women's liberation, and feminism. In our times, I would suggest that a new paradigm shift is under way, a human rights revolution that was at first mostly muted and has suddenly grown into a global clamor spearheaded by children campaigning for their own rights. The rest of humanity, that is, all adults, is at a crossroads figuring out whether to join in or to pursue business as usual.

Who would have predicted this evolution when, almost a century ago, a young, stubborn, and visionary Englishwoman, the now famous Eglantyne Jebb, and her dream team of Swiss notables successfully lobbied the League of Nations to promulgate the 1924 Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child? Europe and much of the world had just emerged from the horrendous Great War and its 40 million casualties, including between 15 and 19 million military and civilian deaths and millions of orphaned children. This tragedy and the gut-wrenching humanitarian situation of the children, especially those in the countries that had been defeated militarily, shocked humanity's conscience, and human rights took a huge leap forward.

Yet, it took another gigantic conflict, World War II, to generate a Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) to serve as a moral and political beacon for humanity and to set the stage for the next phase of human rights, culminating in 1989 with the adoption of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and establishing a distinct segment of human rights dedicated to children. And during the ensuing peaceful decades, the interdisciplinary field of children's rights, with school psychology as a core component, grew, promoted by talented scholars and practitioners. Indeed, many of whom are contributors to the very *International Handbook on Child Rights and School Psychology* you are holding in your hands!

Hart and Prasse (1991) wrote that the "The primary purpose of the profession of school psychology is to improve the development and quality of life of children. This purpose is given more specific direction by concepts of what is right for children and by the rights of children" (p. 344).[2] In my view, some of these main concepts are discrimination, protection, participation, social transformation, and professional engagement.

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[1] de Beauvoir, S. (1949). *Le Deuxième Sexe [The Second Sex]*. Paris, France: Gallimard.

We must all address discrimination both within and without educational facilities. Estimates are that about 250 million children worldwide do not go to school. And even in countries with significant means, access to and the pursuit of quality education vary in relation to criteria that have nothing to do with a child's capacity to learn but are strongly affected by sex, citizenship, being on the move and in situations of migration, being disabled, ethnic origin, cultural heritage, language, religion, and deprivation of liberty.

With regard to protection, in most countries, children spend more time in educational settings than anywhere else outside of their homes, and, clearly, children's human rights should not end at the entrance of their school. Adults who oversee and work in educational settings, and by definition school psychologists, have a duty to provide safe environments that support and promote children's dignity. To learn, schools should be safe havens and generate a positive climate respectful of the rights of each and all. A child learns best in an environment which applies the rules of *convivienza*, justice, and social cohesion.

Participation and social transformation go together. One of the most revolutionary principles of the CRC, enshrined in Article 12, is that the child has the right to express his/her views freely in all matters affecting the child. The right of the child to fully participate implies important changes as to how adults conduct their lives. Not only should adults no longer ever automatically assume that they can decide for children, they must also build a different rapport with children, make sustained efforts to inform children on matters that concern them, and authentically solicit their views. Profound social transformation is taking place in many communities that promote participation and empower children, and, to paraphrase Rousseau, a new *social contract*, enriching for all members of society, big and small, is steadily taking shape.

Another process, even more radical, is creating a global media buzz and drawing thoughtful attention. It is rooted in the fact that children of the world are beginning to take quite literally the text of Article 6 of the CRC: "States Parties shall ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child." And it may not be that children's call for climate justice and their own survival will remain a polite request for the current adults to hand over a habitable planet. In an editorial in the French newspaper *Libération*, Pierre Ducrozet (February 14, 2019) aptly captured the essence of this major social development: "The big caesura is starting to take place; everywhere, children and adolescents are rising, mainly girls and young women, in movements that often refuse to carry leaders; on the other side, the last lights of the old world, evermore crumbling and hideous, from Trump to Bolsonaro, cling to the trappings of carbon democracy and a soil that is hidden under their feet. The wave that comes against the one that rears up and resists. Even if it will be slow, the fight will eventually end up leaning in the direction of what is in motion."[3]

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[2] Hart, S. N., & Prasse, D. (Eds.) (1991). Theme issue: Children's rights and education. *School Psychology Review, 20*(3), 344.

Children are a force to be reckoned with, and, much like universities in the late 1960s were cradles of social disruption and progress, schools are where much of the action may be taking place. They are already at the epicenter of *Fridays for Future*, the worldwide movement ignited by then 15-year-old Greta Thunberg who is on school strike every Friday to call for action on the climate emergency. Her stinging message to adults was "You are not mature enough to tell it like it is. Even that burden you leave to us children" (Thunberg, 2018).[4]

Whether one agrees or not with the significance of the trends that I have outlined, it is undeniable that, for the foreseeable future, school psychology, both as a field of research and practice, finds itself in a very privileged position – in the trenches of child rights!

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« La grande césure commence à s'opérer; partout, des enfants et des adolescents se lèvent, principalement des filles et des jeunes femmes, dans des mouvements qui refusent souvent de porter des leaders; de l'autre, les derniers feux du vieux monde, toujours plus croulant et hideux, de Trump à Bolsonaro, s'accrochent aux oripeaux de démocratie carbone et à un sol qui se dérobe sous leurs pieds. La vague qui vient contre celle qui se cabre et retient. Même si ce sera lent, le combat finira nécessairement par pencher dans le sens de ce qui est en mouvement » (Ducrozet, 2019)

Ducrozet, P. (2019, February 14). *Nous, enfants du XXIe siècle, allons prendre les commandes, Libération*. Accessed on 17/8/2019: https://www.liberation.fr/debats/2019/02/14/nous-enfants-du-xxie-siecle-allons-prendre-les-commandes_1709420

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[3] Accessed on August 17, 2019: https://www.liberation.fr/debats/2019/02/14/nous-enfants-du-xxie-siecle-allons-prendre-les-commandes_1709420

[4] Thunberg, G. (2018, December 12). COP24, Cracow, Poland.

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To the professional organizations that have supported the work that made this handbook possible, particularly the ISPA and American Psychological Association (School Psychology Division, 16), and to our home institutions

To all the students, community members, and professionals around the world who made this book possible

Contents

Part I Foundations

Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning 3
Stuart N. Hart and Brannon W. Hart

Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy 25
Bonnie Kaul Nastasi and Shereen C. Naser

Child Rights, Social Justice, and Professional Ethics 37
David Shriberg, Keeshawna Brooks, and Jessie Montes de Oca

Status of Child Rights in the International Community 49
Yanghee Lee and Lothar Krappmann

Part II Child Rights and School Psychology

The Roles and Responsibilities of the School Psychologist in Promoting Child Rights 65
Rosa Maria Mulser and Shereen C. Naser

Promoting and Protecting Child Rights in the Daily Practice of School Psychology 81
Emiliya Adelson and Michael Brachfeld

A Child Rights Framework for Educational System Reform 97
Laura C. Cornell and Jorge V. Verlenden

Child Rights, Policy, and School Psychology 115
Heather Henderson Larrazolo

Accountability for Child Rights by School Psychology 129
Markeda Newell, Heather Henderson Larrazolo, and Kai Tai Chan

Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates 145
Bonnie Kaul Nastasi and Shereen C. Naser

Part III Major Purposes and Issues in Promoting and Protecting Child Rights in the School Community

Child Well-Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments 157
Eui Kyung Kim, Michael J. Furlong, Zi Jia Ng, and E. Scott Huebner

Promoting Healthy Child Development: A Child Rights Perspective 175
Ziba Vaghri, Roseanne L. Flores, and Shadi Mojtabavi

The Child's Right to Physical Health 197
Raúl Mercer and Karina Cimmino

Promoting Children's Mental Health in Schools: A Child's Rights Framework 219
Thomas J. Power

Child Protection: A Child Rights Approach for Schools 233
Christina M. Fiorvanti and Marla R. Brassard

Child Participation and Agency and School Psychology 259
Cath Larkins, Gerison Lansdown, and Shane R. Jimerson

Preparing Children for Responsible Citizenship: The Role of Psychology and Education 275
F. Clark Power, Deano Pape, and Stuart N. Hart

Influences and Opportunities of Culture 293
Philip Cook

The Child's Right to a Spiritual Life 305
Fred B. Bryant, James Garbarino, Stuart N. Hart, and Kevin C. McDowell

The Child's Right to Quality Education and the School Psychologist 319
Jean-Claude Guillemard

Article 31: Play, Leisure, and Recreation 337
Marianne Mannello, Theresa Casey, and Cathy Atkinson

Child Rights and Economic Status 349
Amanda Clinton and David Shriberg

The Promotion of Family Support 361
Gloria E. Miller and Jessica Colebrook

Respecting the Rights of the Child in Sports: Not an Option 377
Paulo David

Part IV Professional Roles and Responsibilities for Child Rights

Application of Child Rights to School-Based Consultation 391
Jorge V. Verlenden, Emiliya Adelson, Shereen C. Naser, and Elizabeth Carey

The Counseling Field and the Rights of the Children 407
Carlos P. Zalaquett, Seria Shia J. Chatters, Allen E. Ivey, Fallon M. Calandriello, and Hyungyung Joo

Convention on the Rights of the Child and School-Based Intervention Programming 425
Robyn S. Hess and Destiny M. Waggoner

Combining Ecological Systems Theory and Child Rights to Improve Research and Evaluation 443
John H. Hitchcock and Colleen E. Chesnut

Building School and Community Capacity for Development of the Rights of the Child 459
Kevin A. Woods and Emma Harding

Promoting Children’s Rights Through School Leadership: Implications for School Psychologists 473
Adena B. Meyers, Catherine A. Perkins, and Joel Meyers

Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists 487
Marie Wernham

Child Rights, Disability, School and Educational Psychology and Inclusive Education 501
Janet Muscutt

Role of School Psychology Professional Organizations in Promoting and Protecting Child Rights 515
Bonnie Kaul Nastasi, James C. DiPerna, Kelly Vaillancourt Strobach, Eric Rossen, and Stephen E. Brock

Part V Visions for the Future

Toward a Preferred Future for School Psychology 533
Stuart N. Hart and Brannon W. Hart

Promoting Child Rights Through Use of Technology in the Classroom 557
Shereen C. Naser, Adam W. Nunn, Sarit Alkalay, and Avivit Dolev

Applying Child-Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples 577
Bonnie Kaul Nastasi

Child Rights and School Psychology: Concluding Thoughts 593
Bonnie Kaul Nastasi, Stuart N. Hart, and Shereen C. Naser

Appendices: UN Convention Articles & Optional Protocols. 597

Index. 621

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Theresa Casey served as President of the International Play Association: Promoting the Child's Right to Play (IPA) from 2008 to 2017. With the IPA Board and Council, she coordinated the initiatives leading to the publication of *General Comment No. 17 on the Right of the Child to Rest, Leisure, Play, Recreational Activities, Cultural Life and the Arts* (Article 31 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child) by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child. In her final term as President (2014–2017), she led IPA's thematic work on "Access to Play in Crisis" and "Children's Rights and the Environment" linking to the UNCRC Day of Discussion 2016. In 2013, she drafted the Scottish Government's Play Strategy Action Plan and took up the role of vice chair of the implementation group. She has an honor degree in painting and a post-graduate certificate in playwork. Her playwork practice began in an adventure playground in Scotland and led to play development in Thailand where she worked for 3 years. She is a freelance consultant and writer on play, inclusion, and children's rights and frequent presenter at conferences in Scotland and internationally. Her recent publications include "Free to Play: A Guide to Creating Accessible and Inclusive Public Play Spaces" (Inspiring Scotland, 2018); "Play Types: Bringing More Play into the School Day" (Play Scotland, 2017); "Inclusive Play Space Guide: Championing Better and More Inclusive Play Spaces in Hong Kong" (Playright Children's Play Association & UNICEF, 2016); and "Loose Parts Play" (2016, Inspiring Scotland).

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Gerison Lansdown was the Founder Director of the Children's Rights Alliance for England (1992–2000) and has since worked as an international consultant and advocate, publishing and lecturing widely on the subject of children's rights. She supported the Committee on the Rights of the Child in the development of several general comments, including on the rights of children to be heard and to play and recreation, on the rights of children during adolescence, and on the rights of children in the digital environment. She was actively involved in the development of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and worked with the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities to draft a general comment on inclusive education. She is an Adjunct Professor at Carleton University, Canada, has an Honorary Doctorate from the Open University and Carleton University, an Honorary Fellowship from the University of Central Lancashire, is a Member of the Open Society Foundation Early Years Advisory Board, is on the editorial advisory board of the *Canadian Journal of Children's Rights*, is a Former

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List of Figures

Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning

Fig. 1 Declaration of the Psychological Rights of the Child 9
Fig. 2 Convention articles relevant to education 11

Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy

Fig. 1 Child rights ecology. This figure depicts the child's ecology grounded within a child rights framework. Expanding on Bronfenbrenner's ecological-developmental theory (1989, 1999), we envision the child (Arguably, the child is a system within itself that reflects interactions of biophysical and neuropsychological domains, personal histories, current status/functioning, evolving applications in the interests of the child's well-being, and the reflective processes of the child.) embedded within the ecological contexts (ecosystems) of school, family, peer group, and community. Each of these ecosystems includes the microsystem (immediate physical and social environment), exosystem (surrounding context that indirectly influences interactions within the microsystem), mesosystem (interactions within and across ecosystems), and macrosystem (culture that reflects the shared and disparate norms, values, beliefs, and practices that influence the system). This set of ecosystems is also embedded within a larger macrosystem of social, cultural, economic, and political influences. To this, we have added a "metasystem" of child rights, based on the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), that we envision as the all-encompassing influence on the ecology of each child. Furthermore, we depict the school psychologist at the center of the child's ecology to reflect the role of "mesosystem" that is positioned and prepared to facilitate the promotion and protection of child rights throughout the complex ecology 26

Fig. 2 Child rights-based school psychology. This figure provides a framework for articulating the integration of child rights and school psychology. Drawing on the “child rights ecology” depicted in Fig. 1, we place child well-being at the center of each child ecosystem to represent the primary goal for child rights-based school psychology and add to the macrosystem influences from psychological principles (that guide school psychologists) and both local and global communities. Surrounding the child’s ecology are the key factors that guide professional school psychology: mission, guiding principles, contexts, stakeholders, domains, and roles. Furthermore, we conceptualized the guiding principles for school psychologists as the integration of child rights with professional ethics 29

The Roles and Responsibilities of the School Psychologist in Promoting Child Rights

Fig. 1 Child rights ecology model. This model introduces the school psychologists as a part of the mesosystem functionally, bringing together the different systems represented in the microsystem around a child (previously depicted as Fig. 2.1, Nastasi & Naser, chapter “Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy”, this volume) 68
Fig. 2 Promotion and protection of child rights and well-being across relevant systems. This figure represents the many systems a school psychologist must attend to in advocating for child rights and child well-being 72

Accountability for Child Rights by School Psychology

Fig. 1 Implementation process of CRPAM for school psychologists. Three-stage process for developing a system to monitor and evaluate child well-being outcomes. 135
Fig. 2 Process for developing CRPAM for school psychology—Stage I. Process for identifying indicators to monitor mandates, mechanisms, and child outcomes 136

Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates

Fig. 1 Conceptual model for school psychology and child rights advocacy (previously depicted as Fig. 2, in chapter “Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy”, Nastasi and Naser, this volume) 147
Fig. 2 Professional competencies for school psychology child rights advocacy. The figure depicts the foundational, functional, and cross-cutting competencies included in existing models of professional practice (yellow shading), complemented by competencies relevant to child rights advocacy (blue shading) 148

Child Well-Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments

Fig. 1 Key parameters of child well-being conceptual framework incorporating domains (e.g., social), valence (e.g., positive), and perspective (e.g., subjective) 159

Promoting Healthy Child Development: A Child Rights Perspective

Fig. 1 Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory of child development. (Source: Eisenmann et al. (2008). Copyright 2008 by Springer Nature. Reproduced with permission). 178

The Child's Right to Physical Health

Fig. 1 The river of life. (Source: Eriksson & Lindstrom, (2008); https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Health-in-the-River-of-Life_fig1_5496746; https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/dan014 (Reprinted with permission of the author)) 203
Fig. 2 The salutogenic umbrella (assets approach). (Source: Eriksson & Mittelmark, (2017), page 103. (Reprinted with permission of the author)) 204

Promoting Children's Mental Health in Schools: A Child's Rights Framework

Fig. 1 The complementary functions of the family, school, primary care practice, and mental health system in promoting children's mental health 226

Article 31: Play, Leisure, and Recreation

Fig. 1 Factors for an optimum environment for children's Article 31 rights. (Adapted with permission from "Promoting the Child's Right to Play (2013) Summary United Nations. General Comment No. 17 on the right of the child to rest, leisure, play, recreational activities, cultural life and the arts (Article 31)" Copyright 2013 by International Play Association (IPA)) 346

The Promotion of Family Support

Fig. 1 A tiered family-school partnering framework 363

The Counseling Field and the Rights of the Children

Fig. 1 The microskills hierarchy. (© 2018 Allen E. Ivey. Reproduced courtesy of Cengage Publisher). 411

Convention on the Rights of the Child and School-Based Intervention Programming

Fig. 1 Organization framework for Convention and intervention efforts. (Source: Adapted with permission from Nastasi [2013]) 428

Combining Ecological Systems Theory and Child Rights to Improve Research and Evaluation

Fig. 1 Child rights ecology model: school psychologist as researcher. (Developed for this Handbook by the Tulane University Child Rights Team. Adapted here with permission from Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume (see Fig. 1)). 447
Fig. 2 Using EST to conceptualize child rights during the research process 452

Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists

Fig. 1 The arch and table leg test of the child rights approach (UNICEF, 2014, p. 25). The table leg test was devised by Marie Wernham of CREATE (Child Rights Evaluation, Advice & Training Exchange). It first appeared in Wernham (2004), pp. 20–21. It was subsequently updated by the same author to incorporate reference to Article 5 of the Convention 491
Fig. 2 The eight elements of the UNICEF Protective Environment Framework 494

Promoting Child Rights Through Use of Technology in the Classroom

Fig. 1 What does this child need help with? 568

Applying Child-Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples

Fig. 1 Structural foundation for study of child well-being: child's social ecology based on Bronfenbrenner's ecological-developmental systems theory (EST) (1989, 1999). The child is depicted at the center of respective *microsystems* or local contexts (innermost white circle), which is encompassed by multilevel *exosystems* (grey circles; family, school, peer group, and neighborhood). The interactions within and between exosystems are referred to as *mesosytems* (bidirectional arrows) to reflect the bidirectional influences across the components of the child's ecology. The *macrosystem* (outermost layer) depicts the higher level structural influences at local and global levels; these include social, cultural, economic, political factors and, within rights-respective framework, universal child rights. In addition, the child's ecology can change over time based on the development of the child and history of the component systems (e.g., family history, social-political changes); these changes constitute the *chronosystem*. (Source: By Nastasi et al. (2004), (p. 40). Copyright 2004 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission) 579

Fig. 2 Participatory culture-specific intervention model (PCSIM). This figure depicts the ten phases of a process for involving stakeholders as partners in the research and development of culturally constructed interventions (actions). The model includes ten phases of program development, starting from existing research, theory, practice, and policy and concluding with capacity building and translation. The process as depicted is dynamic and recursive and involves continual reflective application of research to facilitate program design, implementation, adaptation, and evaluation. The goal of PCISM is to develop acceptable, sustainable, and culturally grounded (i.e., culturally constructed or culture-specific) interventions in partnership with key stakeholders (e.g., researchers, developers, implementers, recipients, administrators). (Source: By Nastasi et al. (2004), (p. 54). Copyright 2004 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission). 581

Fig. 3 Conceptual model of psychological well-being. The model depicts the interaction of two domains—individual-personal and cultural-ecological—and the respective factors that contribute to a child's psychological well-being. Developed in 1998 (Nastasi et al.), based on extant theory and research, this model has guided our study of children's psychological well-being in global and local contexts 583

List of Insets

A Child Rights Framework for Educational System Reform

Inset 1 Sample Meeting Agenda for School Systems Review. 106

Promoting Child Rights Through Use of Technology in the Classroom

Inset 1 Case Study: Increased Access to Education Through Digital Technology 562
Inset 2 Case Study on Promoting Individualized Learning. 566

Applying Child-Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples

Inset 1 Defining Culture 579
Inset 2 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child Articles 12 and 13 582

List of Tables

Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy

Table 1 Mission of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) 30
Table 2 54 Articles of the UN (*1989*) Convention on the Rights of the Child 31

A Child Rights Framework for Educational System Reform

Table 1 Foundational child rights framework for schools 102

Accountability for Child Rights by School Psychology

Table 1 Example of indicators for access to mental health services . . . 140

Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates

Table 1 Definitions of key constructs for child advocacy competence 149

Child Well-Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments

Table 1 Studies using dual-factor mental health model to assess youth complete social-emotional health and well-being 162

The Child's Right to Physical Health

Table 1 Comparison between traditional and promoting approaches to school health 210

Promoting Children's Mental Health in Schools: A Child's Rights Framework

Table 1 Characteristics of individualized development plans based on child rights principles 228
Table 2 Indicators of progress related to promoting mental health in schools 229

Child Protection: A Child Rights Approach for Schools

Table 1 Case example illustrating the use of a child-rights informed approach in school psychology 239
Table 2 Evidence-based interventions and resources for school psychologists implementing a child rights approach. 242

Child Participation and Agency and School Psychology

Table 1 Selected key points from UN guidance on Article 12 261

Influences and Opportunities of Culture

Table 1 International agreements supporting the right to be different. 294

The Child's Right to Quality Education and the School Psychologist

Table 1 Six goals of education for all (EFA; UNESCO, *1990*, *2000*) 321

Article 31: Play, Leisure, and Recreation

Table 1 Analysis of leisure, play, and recreational activities in Article 31 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child 338
Table 2 The role of the adult in supporting children's right to play 340
Table 3 Analysis of the role that educational environments play in the realization of Article 31 rights 342
Table 4 A quality play environment 342
Table 5 School play policy assertions. 345

The Promotion of Family Support

Table 1 Practices to support multi-tiered family support 363

Respecting the Rights of the Child in Sports: Not an Option

Table 1 Typology of main forms of abuse, neglect, and violence in sports 381
Table 2 Principles of a child-centred sport system. 384

Convention on the Rights of the Child and School-Based Intervention Programming

Table 1 Child rights guiding framework, levels of intervention, and sample supporting articles from the Convention 431

Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists

Table 1 Selected statements from the NASP (*2012*) Position Statement on Child Rights. 488
Table 2 Examples of lessons learned about advocacy by school psychologists (ISPA & CRED-PRO, *2010*). 497

Chapter Appendices

Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning

Appendix A Human Rights Detailing of Golden Rule (Ethics of Reciprocity) Themes. 21
Appendix B Summative Indicator Examples for Selected Articles and Themes of the Convention on the Rights of the Child 21

Status of Child Rights in the International Community

Appendix A General Comments adopted by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child. 60
Appendix B Topics of the Day of General Discussion 61
Appendix C Sustainable Development Goals 61

Child Well-Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments

Appendix A Measuring Malleable Developmental Assets 168

Promoting Healthy Child Development: A Child Rights Perspective

Appendix A Reporting Guidelines of the Committee. 191

Application of Child Rights to School-Based Consultation

Appendix A Resources on Consultation Models 403

Child Rights, Disability, School and Educational Psychology and Inclusive Education

Appendix A Chronological List of UK Policies Related to Special Educational Needs and Disability 511

Part I

Foundations

Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning

Stuart N. Hart and Brannon W. Hart

Abstract

The school community in its optimal form is organized and designed to promote child development and learning in ways that will serve the child and the community. In the general case worldwide, the expectations, goals, and processes of the school community fall significantly short of appreciation of the nature of children and the human condition. School psychology has incorporated that context of limited view and accomplishment. This book proposes a child rights approach infused into all aspects of school psychology as a primary force toward achieving the full realization of school psychology's potentials to respect and serve the best interests of children and their societies. This chapter presents the rationale and context for a child rights approach framed through exploring the related context of meaning, the historical pathway to children's rights, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the related responsibilities and opportunities for school psychology, and the footholds of promise revealed by appreciative inquiry.

What's at Stake!

What is the worth of a child? The child rights field frequently speaks of the "being" and "becoming" of a child, the conditions of living now and in the future. Inherent in such conceptualizations is recognition of the unique added value to the universe of the singular, never to be duplicated, personality of the individual child throughout its course of existence. Individually and collectively, human beings have potential beyond reckoning. Their being and becoming deserve respect and sensitive care and support. School psychology has long well served the best interests of children and their school communities; however, this has been in a highly limited fashion. The profession has been chiefly constrained, by external and internal forces, to problem and deficit orientations and to a reactive mode benefiting a relatively small portion of children deserving support. Transformation is needed to unleash the greater possibilities of school psy-

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This chapter incorporates, in original or modified form some material from an invited online collection essay by the first author initially posted by Sage Journals for School Psychology International in 2014: Child Rights and School Psychology: Toward a New Social Contract at http://spi.sagepub.com/site/special_issues/childrights.xhtml and more recently available at *https://journals.sagepub.com/page/spi/collections/special-issues/child-rights*.

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chology to proactively promote the full holistic development of every child to levels of thriving and flourishing beyond survival and sustainability (Hart & Hart, 2014).

To help frame a preferred future for the profession, an orientation to a child rights approach is provided here that argues child rights and school psychology are inherently and historically entwined in ways that bring added meaning, strength, challenges, and opportunities to each. Consider the following illuminating perspectives:

> What a piece of work is a man! How noble in reason, how infinite in faculty! In form and moving how express and admirable! In action how like an Angel! In apprehension how like a god! The beauty of the world! The paragon of animals! (Shakespeare's Hamlet, Prince of Denmark, Act II, Scene 2)

> The Child is father of the Man. (from William Wordsworth's poem, My Heart Leaps Up When I Behold, 1802)

> Your children are not your children. They are the sons and daughters of Life's longing for itself … You may strive to be like them, but seek not to make them like you. For life goes not backward, nor tarries with yesterday. (Khalil Gibran, The Prophet, 1923, p. 17)

The words of Shakespeare, Wordsworth, and Gibran (read as gender inclusive) have timeless meaning. They underline great opportunities for school psychology to advance respect for and realization of the marvelous qualities and potentials of human beings and to do so early on and across the periods of greatest influence for their development. Strong support and guidance for school psychology contributions exist in formulations of human rights. The foundation of human rights is the recognition and championing of human "dignity" or "worth." The preeminence of human dignity as a foundation for rights can be justified on any one or combination of the following postulations:

- All living things have a special nature or essence that deserves respect (Schweitzer, 1993).
- Human beings have enormous potential that deserves opportunity for full expression (Gopnik, Meltzoff, & Kuhl, 2000).
- Human beings are the only living entities capable of existential choice – giving and finding meaning in life through one's own consciousness – being able to consider the implications of past, present, and predictable future conditions in determining actions to be taken (Hart, 2010; Kierkegaard, 1849/2004).
- Human beings have shown themselves capable of bringing to reality possibly all they can imagine, for good or evil (Hart, 2010; Kaku, 2011).
- Human beings are created in the image of God (Melton, 2010) and "There's something way down deep that's eternal about each human being" (Wilder, 1938).

A Context of Meaning

The development of human rights is a history of finding meaning – primarily through identifying the essential elements making a good life possible for human beings. The historical path toward greater and greater appreciation of the nature of human beings can be framed in terms similar to those used by Kohlberg in his theory of moral development (Kohlberg, 1981). The needs, potentials, desires, and strivings of human beings have been identified, promoted, and codified progressively to:

(a) Protect persons from cruel and unreasonable power.
(b) Establish systems of assurances of predictable and manageable conditions for survival and enjoyment of life.
(c) Empower persons to have a voice in establishing conditions for securing a high quality of life respecting their collective and individual understanding and application of higher principles – ethical and moral – for their ways of life.

Their "ways of life," rather than instinctive in the majority, have included a search for and construction of meaning and purpose.

A Search for Meaning

The discovery and construction of meaning are of primary importance to human beings individually and collectively. It has been suggested (Hart,

2010) that there are two profound questions before all members of the human race:

- Is there a story?
- Am I in the story?

Philosophers, theologians, psychologists, and songwriters long have given voice to these questions. As for the last, consider:

> *Why was I born, why am I living? What have I got, what am I giving? (Why was I born, 1929,* Jerome Kern and Oscar Hammerstein II)

Soren Kierkegaard (1849/2004) considered it imperative to be true to the self God intends for you – to the "story" and "one's" place in it. Viktor Frankl (1997) sensitized the world to the importance of finding meaning when one is dealing with extreme adversity.

The "Golden Rule" and Human Rights

While there may be as many paths to meaning as there are human beings, two paths have been given particularly widespread consideration – the spiritual-religious path and the human rights path. At the universal principles level, these paths seem to share the Golden Rule, or the ethic of reciprocity, which proclaims that we should treat others as we would want to be treated. All major religions espouse this principle in their own wording: "This is the sum of duty: Do not do to others what would cause you pain if done to you" (Hinduism; Mahabharata, 5:1517); "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you" (Jesus, Christianity, The Holy Bible, Luke 5:31). This principle is also widely recognized and encouraged in the secular world: "We should conduct ourselves toward others as we would like to have them act toward us" (Aristotle, 385 B. C.); "Act so as to elicit the best in others and, thereby, in thyself" (Felix Adler, 1918/2010). It has been suggested that the Golden Rule appeared in disguise in the *categorical imperative* of Emmanuel Kant (1785): "This principle, then, is its supreme law: 'Act always on such a maxim as thou canst at the same time will to be a universal law'; this is the sole condition under which a will can never contradict itself; and such an imperative is categorical." (http://www.humanreligions.info/golden.html). It can also be found embedded in John Rawls (2005) *Original Position*: (paraphrased) To choose from the position of any person a course in the best interests of every person. At the Parliament of the World's Religions (2015), the Golden Rule was repeatedly cited and promoted as a central theme for the school community (e.g., AGREE, 2016).

Though it may appear that the interpretations of the Golden Rule vary widely, at the Parliament of the World's Religions, it was argued that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948) (http://www.un.org/en/universal-declaration-human-rights/) and the United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN General Assembly, 1989) (www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx) are the operational terms for the Golden Rule upon which worldwide agreement exists (Hart & O'Connor, 2015). The principles and standards of these major human rights agreements speak to what we would want for ourselves individually and want to assure for all persons. In their statements of human rights imperatives, respect is championed for the following themes: personal identity, fairness and justice, best interests, survival, health and well-being, social support and association, full development of talents and personality, personal perspective, access to information and association, safety, privacy, protection in justice systems, freedom of movement, freedom of conscience and religion, health services, help in need, play and leisure, culture, and adequate standard of living. These thematic categories are well represented in the set of "human universals" identified by ethnographers (Brown, 2000). The authors' sorting of basic human and child rights standards into these categories, modified slightly for parsimony, can be found in the Appendix A. In broad classification terms, proclaimed human rights differ for adults and children in only a few areas – the support for opportunities to work for adults and to be protected from dangerous and exploitive work for children, the right to own property and involvement in governance for adults, and respect for evolving capacities for children.

The agreement on the Golden Rule across religious and secular interests is of great significance. The majority of the world's population (estimated at 80%) is religiously affiliated. Nearly all the nations of the world have committed to children's rights in the form of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The nexus of religious and secular interests, worldwide, in support of the Golden Rule in human rights formulations establishes a level of commitment to the best interests of persons – to their well-being that has never existed before. While self-interest, and informed self-interest to the degree that it exists, supports a Golden Rule orientation to life at the individual level, it is greatly subject to the influence of personal needs in the moment of decision more generally. Human rights, however, represents the evolved resulting perspective of open debates across individual, local, national, and international interests. The internationally endorsed standards for human rights are the best expression of the Golden Rule ever achieved.

The Historical Pathway to Children's Rights

Major developments, components, and contributions making up the evolving pathway toward formulating and championing children's rights are briefly described here. Consideration of the roots of children's rights precede the discussion of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989).

The Roots of Children's Rights

"A long and complex path has been taken to bring attention and support to human rights" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 7). A history, provided by Lewis (2003), identifies some 85 items, for example, events, documents, and speeches, making up nearly 4000 years of benchmarks of progress, including The Code of Hammurabi (1800 BC), The Mayflower Compact (1620), and the *I Have a Dream* speech of Martin Luther King (1963). Within that history, the English Bill of Rights of 1689 (New World Encyclopedia, 2016) and the United States Bill of Rights of 1791 (Bill of Rights Institute, 2016) stand out as "early explicit expressions of human rights—both gave primacy to protection from exploitation and abuse of power by government; for example, securing freedom of speech, privacy, independent judiciary, and freedom from cruel and unusual punishment" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 7).

In 1948, a particularly comprehensive and influential framing of human rights was produced by the United Nations in the form of the landmark Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948; http://www.ohchr.org/EN/UDHR/Documents/UDHR_Translations/eng.pdf). It is a nonlegal moral-ethical document intended for all persons but primarily covering adults. It has been reformed by the United Nations to produce two international legal treaties, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (United Nations, 1966a) and the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (United Nations, 1966b), both adopted in 1966 and entered into force in 1976.

Human rights intended specifically for application to children were initially promoted in international document form through the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child which was adopted by the League of Nations in 1924 (League of Nations, 1924; UN, 2012a) and three-and-a-half decades later was revised and expanded by the United Nations to become the Declaration of the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1959; United Nations, 2012b). While neither of these documents were legally binding, being ethical and moral statements, they declared that both minimum standards and the world's aspirations for children should be widely supported.

The two Declarations were recognized to have good intentions, but they lacked strong influence in the face of the competing, limiting, corrupting, and dangerous conditions of existence. However, they did provide impetus for the development of a comprehensive and legally binding treaty on children's rights, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989).

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child

The development of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter sometimes referred to as the Convention) was initiated by requests of the Polish government to the United Nations in 1978. The Convention was formulated during the next decade by representatives of the United Nations member States and adopted by its General Assembly on November 20, 1989 (UN General Assembly, 1989), without dissent from any member nation. It is considered the most successful human rights treaty in history on the basis of the strong support for its adoption, the speed with which it entered into force through official commitment by nations (September 2, 1990) and the proportion of nations which have become States parties through their commitments, 196 of the world's recognized nations. It is considered the "most recent human rights expression of enlightenment regarding the necessities, aspirations and dignity of human existence and fulfillment from a developmental perspective" (Hart & Shriberg, 2014, p. 10).

The Convention covers all major factors of the Declarations of the Rights of the Child and child-relevant themes of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that preceded it. The Convention includes a Preamble (nonbinding) and 54 Articles, of which the first 41 embody substantive rights and the last 13 provide guiding implementation processes and mechanisms, including the establishment of the Committee on the Rights of the Child (the Committee), to oversee the fulfillment of its obligations. Overall, the Convention represents the world's *positive ideology of the child*, a valuing of the child in and of itself in addition to the child's benefits to others by setting minimum standards for child care and treatment as well as aspirations for self-realization (find the full Convention at http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CRC.aspx and in the Appendix of this volume).

At the heart of the Convention is Article 3, which establishes the *best interests of the child* as a primary consideration in all actions concerning the child. Best interests, rather than being detailed in this Article, require the holistic fulfillment of all Articles of the Convention, which is considered to cover essential survival, protection, development, and participation themes. While no single Article is meant to be more important than another or to stand alone without support from the full context of the Convention, some articles and themes have been drawn out for special attention. Four Articles have been described as *General Principles* due to the strength of their relevance to all other Articles: freedom from discrimination (Art. 2), consideration of best interests (Art. 3), right to survival and development (Art. 6), and right to be heard (Art. 12). Giving primacy to the protection of the child and promotion of the child's full healthy development would argue for Article 19, protection from all forms of violence and maltreatment, and Article 29, the aims of education, to be factored into this set, particularly in relation to Article 6. The full Convention also has Articles on parents and family (5, 20, 21), health (24), standard of living (27), disability (23), work (32), play and leisure (31), beliefs and faith (14), privacy (16), culture (30), and more. Two themes of particular importance are embedded within Articles rather than presented discretely as an Article. The major domains of development, well-being, and health are identified three times in the Convention to be physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral (Art. 17, 27, and 32), all previously identified in the 1959 Declaration. The importance of promoting the child's becoming, in addition to being, is embodied particularly in the Convention's requirement of respect for the child's evolving capacities and maturity (Art. 5, 12, and 14) and in its aims for education (Art. 29). Because the Convention is open to improvement, optional protocols on areas requiring more delineation are produced as needed (see the optional protocols on the sale of children and on children in armed conflict at http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRC/Pages/CRCIndex.aspx and in the Appendix of this volume).

According to Hart and Shriberg (2014), "the rights contained in the Convention represent officially recognized obligations to children—a bedrock of universal values to be applied to all children, in all sectors of life, by all persons, at all times" (p. 10). These rights, though expressed in a legally binding treaty, are not enforced through legal means at the international level. Instead, they are promoted throughout the world as the right thing to do – what is good for children and their societies. Moral persuasion and transparent reporting regarding status and progress, and consultation toward further advances, are the main international mechanisms for promoting advances in the rights of children. To assist, the Committee on the Rights of the Child has developed detailed guides, *General Comments*, to help interested parties fulfill the obligations of many of the Articles and themes of the Convention (see http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRC/Pages/CRCIndex.aspx). Under these conditions, the professionals serving children have extensive opportunities and responsibilities for promoting advances in the care and treatment of children and the promotion of child rights and well-being.

The Significance of the Convention and Child Rights for School Psychologists

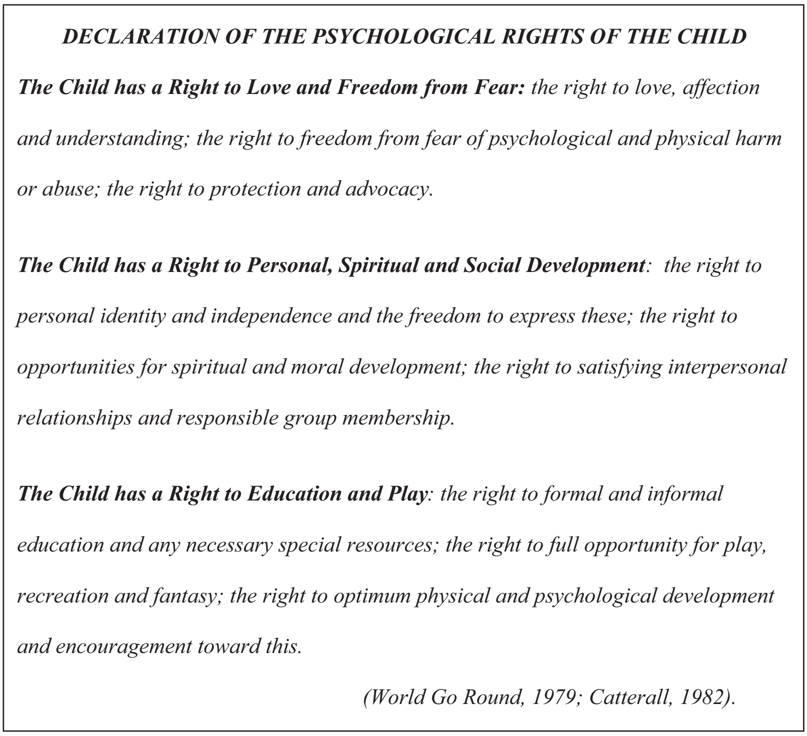
"The entirety of the Convention is relevant to all psychologists who work with and for children throughout the world" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 11). For psychologists who work in school communities with primary obligations to promote the full healthy and pro-social development of the child, implementation of a child rights approach consistent with the Convention is arguably of first-order importance. School psychology's journey toward indisputable appreciation of this dictum began in the 1970s and continues to the present day.

Historical Origins

During the late 1970s, Cal Catterall carried out consultation processes with psychologist, educator, and education ministry national leadership in over 35 nations to promote and give direction to the development of a declaration of the psychological rights of the child, intended to be their contribution to the 1979 International Year of the Child (Catterall, 1979). He was one of the original organizers and the Executive Director of the International School Psychology (ISP) Committee that eventually became the International School Psychology Association (ISPA). His vision predated and, in many ways, predicted the nature of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. In York, England, at the ISP's July 1979 Colloquium, a working group, chaired by this chapter's first author, composed the final form of the Declaration of the Psychological Rights of the Child (DPRC; see Fig. 1) and brought it to adoption by the Colloquium's 300-plus assembly of child, school, and educational psychologists.

The process of developing and adopting the DPRC was illuminating, particularly in the display of resistance or concern that has continued to be associated with children's rights. As examples, some thought that it was too idealistic, that parents' rights and the responsibilities of children needed special inclusion, that it was politically too sensitive of an issue to be given more than verbal support, and that child saving (from danger, cruelty, and disaster) had to be achieved before the loftier human rights could be considered (ISP, 1979). The majority of the assembly, however, endorsed the Declaration.

The DPRC generated multiple explorations of the implications of child rights for school psychology and related initiatives (Catterall, 1982; World-Go-Round, 1979). Foundational to further progress were two developments. The International School Psychology Association (ISPA) made advancing children's rights a central theme of its work, expressed in its mission statement as the intention to "Promote and protect the rights of all children and young people according to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and related UN statements" (ISPA, 2016). In 1980, ISPA and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP; USA) cooperated with the School of Education of Indiana University to create, at its Indianapolis campus, the Office for the Study of the Psychological Rights of the Child (OSPRC). The OSPRC



DECLARATION OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

The Child has a Right to Love and Freedom from Fear: *the right to love, affection and understanding; the right to freedom from fear of psychological and physical harm or abuse; the right to protection and advocacy.*

The Child has a Right to Personal, Spiritual and Social Development*: the right to personal identity and independence and the freedom to express these; the right to opportunities for spiritual and moral development; the right to satisfying interpersonal relationships and responsible group membership.*

The Child has a Right to Education and Play*: the right to formal and informal education and any necessary special resources; the right to full opportunity for play, recreation and fantasy; the right to optimum physical and psychological development and encouragement toward this.*

(World Go Round, 1979; Catterall, 1982).

Fig. 1 Declaration of the Psychological Rights of the Child

provided international and national leadership in advancing the understanding and application of children’s rights from 1980 to 2001, including launching serious international consideration of child psychological maltreatment (OSPRC, 1983). The related child rights work of school psychology through ISPA and OSPRC was given research impetus beginning in the mid-1980s through the initiation of a study of the perspectives of children and adults on the importance and existence of children’s rights (SPI, 2011). Child rights work was further expanded and strengthened during and surrounding ISPA’s 1991 Braga, Portugal, Colloquium when ISPA began a serious agenda of inviting consultation from and making contributions to the work of the United Nations agency leadership and programs and international nongovernmental organizations that shared intentions to advance conditions for children through children’s rights. This pattern of work, often in cooperation with OSPRC, originated in the ISPA Executive Committee and ISPA’s Committee on the Rights of the Child and, more recently, has centered in the ISPA’s Child Well-being and Advocacy Task Force, a unit merging the Committee on the Rights of the Child and the United Nations Relations Committee. Overall, beginning in the late 1970s, through its organizations and representatives, school psychology has been involved in child rights-related work for at least 35 years, cooperating with others, making direct contributions, and progressively learning about and narrowing the gap between potential for and extant reality of child rights service. Some of the major themes of child rights work have been child development and education, child safety, child rights perspectives, and child rights cooperation and capacity building (Hart & Hart, 2014).

The Convention and School Psychology

Herein, consideration of the relevance of major themes of the Convention for school psychology is undertaken. This exposition appreciates, adapts, and augments a similar overview previously provided by the authors of this chapter (Hart & Hart, 2014). In this case, some attention is given to the essential nature of the theme and related articles, to further clarifying frameworks, to the possibilities for indicators of progress and achievement, and to the relevance of school psychology. In regard to clarifying frameworks, at various points, consideration is given to the Golden Rule, to the available General Comments (representing extended guidance by the Committee), and to the three accountability domains established and promoted by the Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights (OHCHR) for monitoring, measuring, and evaluating human rights status, advances, and trends (IICRD, 2012, 2014): structure (commitments, laws, regulations), process (interventions such as education/training, programs, strategies), and outcomes (particularly for the conditions of the child). In regard to indicators of progress and achievement, for each theme, one or two exemplars are provided of a summative indicator (capable of subsuming/assuring developmental or formative indicators are satisfied).

Education

For psychologists serving in the school community, understanding and appreciation of the Convention are best begun by exploring Articles 28 and 29 which deal directly with education. Because these Articles are of central importance to the school community, they are presented in Fig. 2 in their entirety.

Article 28, on rights to education in summary:

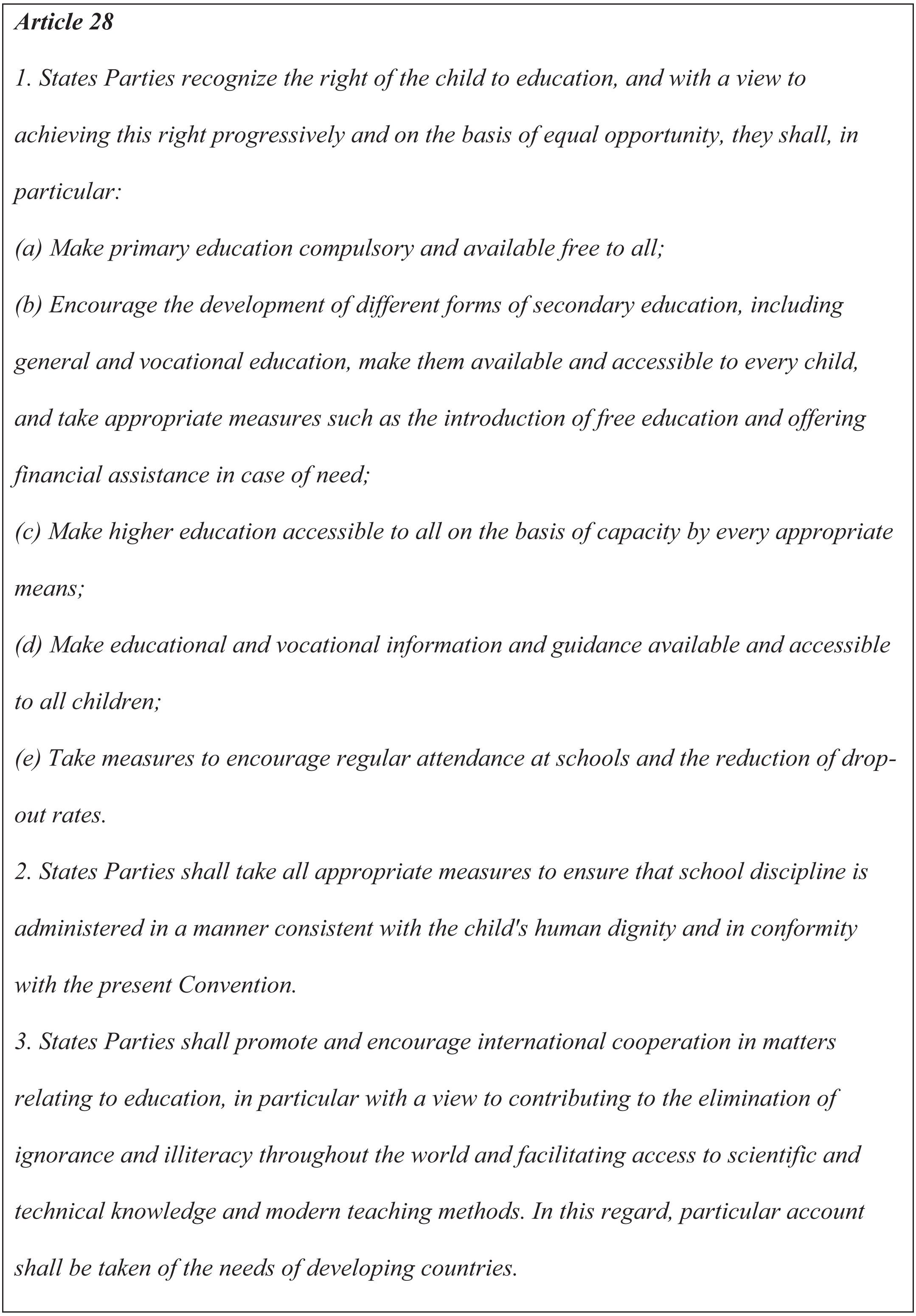
- Requires that States parties mandate primary education, make secondary education and educational and vocational guidance accessible, and ensure discipline respecting human dignity.
- Encourages a variety of secondary education forms, regular attendance and reduction of dropouts, and international cooperation toward educational advances.

Article 28 deals primarily with minimum standards of opportunity and availability, with some associated aspirations, and is logically supportive of Golden Rule themes of full development and related supportive education and of fairness/non-discrimination. Of the OHCHR domains, Article 28 is primarily structure and process oriented. No General Comment has been established for Article 28. Indicators of its fulfillment would include the existence and requirement of elementary education, establishment and evidence of constructive discipline practices, evidence of high attendance and low dropout rates, and availability of encouraged guidance and secondary forms. School psychologists should champion, guide, and assess progress toward all elements of Article 28.

Article 29, through its aims for education, expects education to:

- Promote full development of the child in every area of physical and mental potential – of personality.
- Develop respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, for parents, for one's own culture and the culture of others, and for the natural environment.
- Prepare the child for a responsible life in a free society, emphasizing understanding, peace, and nonprejudicial discrimination (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 11).

Article 29 is primarily outcome oriented and aspirational, and its expectations exceed existing conditions in every nation. It lays out an international consensus on desired characteristics of persons to be developed through education and expresses the Golden Rule theme of full development. This is the Convention's and the world's best available statement of intentions for the affects and effects of education, formal and informal. Its significance for education and school psychology cannot be overestimated. The Committee's first General Comment (#1) is devoted to guidance for Article 29, implying the high priority the Committee has given to the aims of education for human development (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Education/Training/Compilation/Pages/a)GeneralCommentNo1TheAimsofEducation(article29)(2001).aspx, retrieved January 5, 2008; IICRD, 2001). A myriad of structure, process, and outcome indica-



Article 28

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:

(a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;

(b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;

(c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;

(d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;

(e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.

3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international cooperation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Fig. 2 Convention articles relevant to education

Article 29

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

(a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;

(b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;

(c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;

(d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;

(e) The development of respect for the natural environment.

2. No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principle set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

Fig. 2 (continued)

tors are needed to serve Article 29, including formal commitments by the school community to processes for genuine exploration of each child's talents, support for their development, and measurement of individual development. School psychology investment and contributions are essential for all related aspects. As organizing themes for the Convention and specific related Articles are explored beyond this point, it will be important to keep in mind their relevance in the context of educational opportunity and the purposes of education (Arts. 28 and 29).

Child Development and Well-being

Child development and well-being are of central importance to education, the school community, and school psychology. *Well-being* logically deserves superordinate status by its ability to subsume and require child development and health (considered in a later section). While "well-being" is mentioned only six times in the Convention (once each in the Preamble and Articles 3, 9, and 40; twice in Art. 17), "development" relevant to child status is mentioned 14 times (once each in Art. 6 and 32; twice in the Preamble and Arts. 18, 23, and 27; four times in 29). The following Articles give attention to child development:

- *Article 6* establishes the child's inherent right to life and right to survival and development to the maximum extent possible.
- *Article 27* deals with the right to an adequate standard of living.
- *Article 29* promotes development goals through the aims of education.

Across these three Articles, the responsibilities of supporting child development by the States party, family, and community are established, and the nature of development to be promoted is detailed (Art. 29). In the latter case, Article 27 provides specific domains for child development and well-being, namely, physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral (also cited in Art. 17 and 32), and gives meaning to standard of living well beyond financial and material considerations (Andrews & Kaufman, 1999).

As noted, the superordinate goal of well-being is mentioned five times in articles of the Convention (once each in Art. 3, 9, and 40, twice in 17) and is best understood as referring to the five cited domains. Article 3 on the best interests of the child underlines its high level of importance in stating: "States Parties undertake to ensure the child such protection and care as is necessary for his or her well-being…."

The Convention's promotion of holistic development has been explicitly expressed by the Committee on the Rights of the Child in its *Guidelines for Periodic Reports* (United Nations, 1996) which directs States parties to apply the holistic spirit of the Convention in fulfilling Article 6: "to create an environment conducive to ensuring to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child, including physical, mental, spiritual, moral, psychological and social development, in a manner compatible with human dignity, and to prepare the child for an individual life in a free society" (para. 40). The point at which life begins is left to be determined at the discretion of States parties (Detrick, Doek, & Cantwell, 1992). While no General Comments yet exist for Articles 6 and 27, General Comments 7 and 4 provide Committee guidance on early child development and adolescent health and development, respectively. The Golden Rule themes of full development and well-being through education and adequate standard of living are respected in these Articles. General Comment 7 has been the basis for indicators endorsed by the Committee (IICRD, 2012, 2014). Consider the following as an example of summative process indicator for this area: *Does the school curriculum provide specific support for holistic development and well-being* (i.e.*, physical, mental, social, spiritual, moral) for all students at every age/grade level?* Indicator examples provided in this chapter are collected in Appendix B.

School psychology has a myriad of opportunities for contributions and service regarding the development and well-being themes. It can help the school community consider and plan for holistic development (Vaghri, Flores, & Mojtabavi, this volume), frame child development in terms concerning well-being (Kosher, Jiang, Ben-Arieh, & Huebner, 2014; Kim, Furlong, Ng, & Huebner, this volume), and promote, design, and implement accountability measures (Garbarino & Briggs, 2014; Markeda et al., chapter "Accountability for Child Rights by School Psychology", this volume; Scherer & Hart, 2001).

Protection

For full healthy development and well-being to occur, children must be protected from danger and harm. Five Convention Articles give direct attention to this imperative:

- *Article 19* is the Convention's primary child protection Article, and, as such, it establishes the right of the child to be protected "from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury, or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse" while in the care of any person(s).
- *Article 33* establishes the child's rights to be protected from the illicit use of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances.
- *Article 34* expands Article 19's coverage of sexual abuse by emphasizing the right to protection from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse.
- *Article 35* expands Article 19's coverage of exploitation by requiring implementation of measures to prevent "abduction of, sale of, or traffic of children for any purpose or in any form." It is understood to include considerations for all forms of trafficking related to child labor, adoption, sexual exploitation, organ transplants, and armed conflict (Hodgkin & Newell, 1998).
- *Article 36* further clarifies that the child should be protected "against all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child's welfare."

General Comment 13, the Committee's guide to assuring the "right of the child to freedom from all forms of violence" (http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/docs/CRC.C.GC.13_en.pdf), sets forth an enlightened perspective promoting proactive steps to secure and protect child well-being, and it gives specific attention to psychological maltreatment (Hart, Lee, & Wernham, 2011). Across the set of Convention Articles and the General Comment, encouragement is given to the application of all appropriate measures, including educational, to secure the safety of the child. The school community is a primary context for protecting children from all forms of violence. It embodies knowledge of child development and related responsibilities, support to foster developmental well-being for the child, and a wide variety of monitoring and promotive, preventive, and corrective intervention capacities. School psychologists, as the primary school community experts on development and well-being, have the potential to guide and contribute to school community efforts across the full spectrum of opportunity and challenge, in applying child rights respecting approaches, and with special contributions to psychological factors (see Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014, this volume, for comprehensive coverage). The Golden Rule themes of safety, protection, survival, help in need, and well-being are respected by the Convention through its attention to this topic. All three OHCHR accountability domains are respected, for example, the commitment by States parties to protect the child (structure); the development of interventions to achieve well-being, safety, and correction (process); and reduction and elimination of violence and harm to the child (outcomes). A process summative indicator worthy of attention might be: *Are all adolescent students given hands-on guided child care education which includes emphasis to child maltreatment prevention?*

Civil Rights

Civil rights are generally considered the rights every person should have regardless of background and/or status and are related to personal liberty (http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/civil%20rights). The child's status as a rights-bearing citizen and as a person is established by the Convention particularly through the civil rights Articles. The following Articles deal with the child's participation in and influence on personal and community life:

- *Article 12* is one of the four General Principles Articles of the Convention (United Nations, 1991, 1996). It establishes that any child capable of forming his or her own views shall have the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child and that those views are to be given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.
- *Article 13* sets forth the right to freedom of expression and to receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds and in all forms.
- *Article 14* establishes the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; while this right was included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, here the Convention makes it specific to children.
- *Article 15* sets forth the rights of the child to freedom of association and peaceful assembly.
- *Article 16* covers the child's right to be protected from arbitrary or unlawful interference with his or her privacy, family, home, or correspondence and from unlawful attacks on his or her reputation (including in settings for treatment or protection; Hodgkin & Newell, 1998).
- *Article 17* deals specifically with the right to access mass media information and material from diverse national and international sources.

The civil rights Articles of the Convention have significant implications. Respect for these rights and conditions that appreciate them help to assure that the growing child's evolving capacities will enable him/her to achieve socially responsible autonomy (Hart, 1991) and become the informed and contributing citizen in a free society intended by the Convention (Article 29.1.d; Power & Scott, 2014). The Convention is respectful of the child, the realities of development, and the social ecology in offering relatively few constraints on these rights:

> Parents and other recognized child care persons have authority to provide appropriate direction and guidance in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child (Articles 5 & 14); the weight given to the child's views is to be in accordance with the age and maturity of the child (Article 12); the exercise of freedom of expression is not to be in conflict with the rights or reputations of others (Article 13); the rights to freedom of thought, conscience and religion and to freedom of association must respect the rights and freedoms of others (Articles 14 & 15), and these rights and the right to freedom of expression are to be limited only as necessary to protect public safety, order, health, morals or the freedoms of others (Articles 13–15). (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 17)

The civil rights Articles cover multiple Golden Rule themes, including association; evolving capacity; information; religion, thought, and conscience; privacy; and participation. Of this set, only Article 12, considered a lynch pin for child person status, has been supplemented by a General Comment (12; http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/docs/AdvanceVersions/CRC-C-GC-12.pdf) which explores its critical dimensions (e.g., covering the expression of the child's perspectives, cooperation, and consultation with and through personal and collective child agency).

Lansdown and colleagues have provided essential coverage for child participation conceptualizations, standards, processes, and accountability (Lansdown, 2011;; Landsdown, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014; Larkins, Lansdown, & Jimerson, this volume). Article 14's theme is well represented in chapter "The Child's Right to a Spiritual Life" (this volume) by Bryant, Garbarino, Hart, and McDowell. The school community should give attention to these civil rights in formulating its intentions and practices, for it is through programs, activities, and experiences embodying respect for these rights that human beings discover, create, and learn to live true to meaning in their lives. School psychologists can provide essential guidance and services in this regard. Consider, for example, the critical role the profession can play in formulating school system designs and practices to assure the child's voice is respected in discipline, curriculum, and governance, that personal beliefs are explored and given fertile ground for development and expression, and that the world of information and peer and adult association becomes available with necessary protections relative to evolving capacities. A summative indicator fitting OHCHR's outcome domain would be: *A survey of the opinions of the children of the school community finds that a majority indicate their views/voices are heard and respected and influence conditions of concern.*

Work

Love, truth, beauty, and work are frequently suggested as life's major themes of significance. Perspectives on child work present challenges. The Convention has focused particularly on the dangers of children working:

- *Article 32* is primarily concerned with the child's right to be protected against economic exploitation, particularly in the forms of work that interfere with the child's education or are hazardous or harmful to the "child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development."

Article 32 deals with important protections regarding work but fails to address or promote the values of work itself (e.g., self-discipline, teamwork, perseverance); as such, it is one of the major themes which will require attention as the Convention is progressively updated. Among the concerns raised by the drafters of the Convention are the minimum age(s) for employment, regulation of hours and conditions of employment, and penalties or sanctions to ensure effective enforcement. This Article is basically protective in nature and could have been included in the previous section on that theme. This orientation is an extension of the history of proscribing child labor (see International Labour Organization 2016, for Convention Nos. 138 and 181). One of the major embedded concerns has been the denial of education where child labor occurs. More recently, an enlightened view has developed which recognizes the truly desperate need for some children to work to assure survival for self and family. This is paired with recognition that education and work might be integrated in some fashion that protects the child while serving the many needs of the child and his/her family (Bourdillon, Levinson, Myers, & White, 2010; Boyden, Ling, & Myers, 1998; Myers, 2001; https://www.studioschoolstrust.org). Gil (1991) has championed "meaningful work" for children, referring to work which advances their capacities, contributions, and best interests, as opposed to exploitive and dangerous "labor." A General Comment has not yet been produced to add guidance in this area. The Golden Rule themes of best interests of the person, survival, adequate standard of living, full development, well-being, evolving capacity, association, voice in affairs, freedom of movement, safety/protection, duty to contribute, and play, leisure, and recreation, along with work, are all relevant to this issue.

Meaningful work in and beyond school can serve the human needs and potentials of the child if free from danger, exploitation, and denial of education. School psychologists can help the individual student explore and choose those conditions of meaningful work serving his/her needs and potentials; enlist the school community to create, monitor, and manage meaningful work conditions for children and youth; and work with the schools to create sensitivity, appreciation, and supportive conditions for meaningful work, including designs that serve children who must work. A summative process indicator for this issue would be: *Does the school community monitor nonschool work to determine and advance its relevance and contributions to the development and education of each student?*

Leisure, Recreation, and Culture

All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy! This dictum is well appreciated by collective wisdom, science, and personal judgments of balance and satisfaction in life. The drafters of the Convention recognized related values:

- *Article 31* champions the child's right to rest, leisure, play, and recreational activities and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts.

Physical, psychological, and social development in their individual and interactive senses are benefited by rest, leisure, play, and recreation. These experiences help advance capacities across the full range of Article 29's aspirations for child development by promoting talents; social competency, belonging, and responsible social contributions; and self-esteem and self-actualization. General Comment 17, the Committee's guide to States parties in fulfilling the child's rights as set forth in Article 31, fully presents the supportive rationale for play, leisure, and recreation and frames major ways to assure their availability to children (UN General Assembly, 1989; http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/Convention/comments.htm). The relevant Golden Rule themes appear primarily to be play, recreation, and leisure; full development; association; and social support. Education is identified in *The Manual on Human Rights Reporting* of 1997 (UN, 2012c*)* as a place where play and recreation can help realize the potentials of children. Schools have a wide variety of opportunities to assure opportunities for play, recreation, leisure, and cultural life in the being and becoming of the child by the physical and time space, mentoring, encouragement, and activities it makes available. However, it appears that schools have tended to limit and discourage these experiences and that young persons have grown to devalue them (see related research in Hart, Pavlovic, & Zeidner, 2001). School psychologists can be of service in this area by promoting and providing education across the school and local communities for holistic development and quality of life, by assisting play and recreation experts in the schools and community in formulating programs that will serve the development of children, by helping school leadership design and implement time and activity space for these experiences, and by helping children identify their interests and talents and plan for their realization. Mannello, Casey, and Atkinson (this volume) have provided extensive coverage and guidance on these topics. Play and recreation are frequently framed as sports and athletics which include special opportunities, challenges, and dangers. David (this volume) provides enlightenment about sports and athletics. A process and outcomes summative indicator for this theme would be: *Children are involved in organized and/or free play/recreation periods of 30 minutes or more during each school day*.

Children with Disabilities

The Convention's consideration of children with special needs is a logical extension of its generally balanced concern to be sensitive to the vulnerabilities of child status and at the same time promote human dignity and the fullness of development and capacity for the child:

- *Article 23* recognizes "that a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions that ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community."

This Article establishes expectations for special care and assistance for the child and assistance to those caring for the child, without cost to the child or his/her family if possible. "Effective access to and receipt of education, training, health care services, rehabilitation services, and preparation for employment and recreation opportunities are specifically identified as requirements of Article 23 to help achieve the fullest possible social integration and individual development" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 19). The exchange of information from the fields of preventive health and from medical, psychological, and functional treatment of disabled children is also encouraged.

In regard to the treatment of children with disabilities, the Committee has raised particular concerns about discriminatory policies and practices (Hodgkin & Newell, 1998, p. 301). The *Guidelines for Periodic Reports* (UN, 1996) "set expectations that children with disabilities will to be treated as rights bearing persons with dignity, that they will be included in programs with other children where appropriate, that their needs, services applied to them, and their progress will be subject to effective evaluation, and that their self-reliance will be promoted" (Hart & Hart, 2014; page 19). Article 23 prescribes in regard to structure, for example, State party perspective and commitments (see paragraph 2); processes, such as interventions, processes, and procedures (see paragraphs 3 and 4); and outcomes, for example, the conditions of the child and his/her quality of life (see paragraph 1). Among the Golden Rule themes of this Article are help in need, full development, nondiscrimination, and well-being. Numerous supports exist for consideration of child rights implications for children with special needs, including General Comment 9 on "the rights of children with disabilities" (http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/comments.htm), the Innocenti Research Center (2016) publication entitled "Promoting the rights of children with disabilities," the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006), and a "Handbook for Parliamentarians" (http://www.un.org/disabilities/documents/toolaction/ipuhb.pdfsiArlid).

The long history of school community responses and services to children with disabilities, as a general progression, includes the following:

(a) Ignoring, denying, and excluding, segregated special programs, and, increasingly, inclusion and integration in the general school program.
(b) Consideration for the intellectually, hearing, and vision impaired, for the physically disabled, and then for those with emotional/behavioral problems and specific learning disabilities (Friend, 2010; Howard, 2002; Saleh, 1999; Winzer, 2012)

In many ways, the nature of services ("a" in the last sentence) represents a pendulum swing of orientations and practices which has fallen short of truly serving the best interests of children. Arguments have been raised against current trends that seem to make inclusion the primary overriding goal of educational services to children with disabilities (LEARNING RX, 2016; http://www.learningrx.com/against-special-education-inclusion-faq.htm; http://www.education-world.com/a_curr/curr034.shtml), for example, where is the research data showing that it truly benefits the child? Dealing with issues surrounding inclusion requires consideration of what kind of inclusion is meant, social and/or academic, as well as what, and how, outcomes or improvements are to be measured (Education World, 2016). This set of conditions provides great opportunity for school psychology to intervene in child rights respecting ways. Ancient and modern dogma regarding services for children with disabilities should give way to serious consideration of what is needed to foster the holistic development and magnify respect for the dignity of the child. School psychology can facilitate school community consideration of and commitment for this imperative and the development of policy, assessment, interventions, and accountability measures to advance these conditions for each and every child (see "individual development plan" model, Hart & Glaser, 2011; Hart & Hart, 2014; Hart & Hart, this volume; see also Muscutt, chapter "Child Rights, Disability, School and Educational Psychology and Inclusive Education", this volume). A summative outcome indicator in this area would be: *Children with disabilities show measurable gains in functional independence*.

Health and Rehabilitation

The Convention includes three Articles specific to health and rehabilitation:

- *Article 24* "recognizes the right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health and facilities for treatment of illness and rehabilitation of health" and is the chief health Article of the Convention.
- *Article 25* establishes that for physical and mental health interventions, there must be "periodic review of the treatment provided to the child and all other circumstances relevant to his or her placement."
- *Article 39* requires that State parties take "all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration of a child victim from numerous conditions: any form of neglect, exploitation, or abuse; torture or any other form of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; or armed conflicts" and that such efforts "shall take place in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect and dignity of the child."

Health is mentioned 16 times in the Convention (once each in Art. 3 and 17; twice in 23; ten times in 25; once each in 32 and 39) usually in regard to care and services and five times clearly in regard to the state of the child. Physical and mental health are of concern for all these Articles, even though mental health is mentioned specifically only in Article 25. This is established by the holistic nature of the Convention's conceptualization of the child and its respect for development and well-being areas across physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral domains (see Arts. 17, 27, and 32). Here, arguably, the "highest standard of health" should be construed to mean not just the absence of disease, disorder, pathology, infirmity, or danger of such but also a state or well-being, that is, thriving and flourishing. This is in line with the World Health Organization's Preamble to its Constitution in 1948 and the Alma-Ata Declaration from the 1978 International Conference on Primary Health Care. Consistent with this formulation, the combination of the Convention's Articles set expectations for promotion of health as well as prevention, correction, and rehabilitation of health problems. The Committee has established three guiding General Comments for health, including GC 3 dealing with HIV-AIDS, GC 4 on adolescent health, and most recently, GC 15 titled "the right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest available standard of health" which is meant particularly to clarify and expand on Article 24 (http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/comments.htm). These Articles cover all three OHCHR accountability domains (e.g., structure, process, and outcome) and are easily subsumed by the Golden Rule themes of health and rehabilitation, survival, and well-being.

The school community should be vitally involved in contributing to child health and rehabilitation through preparing existing and future parents to understand health issues and resources and to become empowered to be proactive in promoting and correcting the health of family members. Goals for well-being, good nutrition, physical exercise and fitness, self-monitoring of physical and mental conditions, and establishment of social support systems and of capacities to identify and work with health resources in the community can all be advanced through intentional and incidental school programs. This is all consistent with and would be embedded in an enlightened community public health approach (Hart & Glaser, 2011; Hart & Hart, this volume; see also Mercer & Cimino, chapter "The Child's Right to Physical Health", this volume). School psychologists, as mental health professionals, can be particularly helpful in facilitating the development and operation of school community intervention systems to assure that the health and well-being of each child is monitored, tracked, and promoted by those with associated responsibilities. While many more opportunities for specialist service by school psychologists exist in regard to health, two that deserve particular mention are helping to establish (a) operational definitions/standards for good mental health to provide a context of meaning for action within the school community and (b) practices that will promote the child's progress toward stewardship in monitoring and securing his/her own health and well-being (see the "prospective human development" model in Hart & Glaser, 2011; Hart & Hart, 2014, this volume). A summative structure indicator for this area would be: *The school community has a detailed and widely publicized statement of commitment to holistic health and well-being*.

Parental Support and Guidance

The family is the first and primary developmental context of learning, growth, respect for rights, and support for well-being. The drafters of the Convention recognized this, as articulated in Article 5. Article 5 establishes that "States Parties shall respect the responsibilities, rights and duties of parents or, where applicable, the members of the extended family or community …. to provide, in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child, appropriate direction and guidance in the exercise by the child of the rights recognized in the present Convention."

Respect for the roles and contributions of parents and family has a pervading presence in the Convention, beginning with the Preamble which identifies "the family as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members and particularly children" and that "for the full and harmonious development of his or her personality, the child should grow up in a family environment." Furthermore, "The Convention mentions family 16 times, parents 33 times, and gives attention to one or both in 19 of its 41 substantive rights Articles" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 21). While a General Comment on the family and parental benefits and conditions is yet to be created, during the development of GC 13, on protection from violence, a strong case was made for including Article 5 among the General Principles of the Convention, and parents/family is given significant emphasis in GC 13. The Articles of the Convention covering parent support and guidance, including Article 5, are primarily structure and process oriented, with some attention to outcomes in the best interest of the child, that is, development and well-being. Arguably, all Golden Rule themes are of relevance, with emphasis on social support; association; full development; religion, thought, and conscience; and well-being.

School psychologists can help the school community determine and apply the most beneficial ways to make parents and families partners in the education of children, to provide outreach education and support to parents to strengthen their roles as primary caregivers, and to prepare children to become good family members across all periods and aspects of their lives. School psychologists should be of assistance to parents in appreciating the evolving capacities of the child and supporting advances toward socially responsible autonomy. For comprehensive coverage of related issues and guidance, see Miller, Colebrook, and Ellis (2014) and Miller and Colebrook (this volume). A summative outcome indicator (respecting structure and process intentions) would be: *A majority of parents surveyed report that they are active and respected partners with educators in the school community*.

Encouragement from Existing Conditions

Fortunately, footholds, guideposts, and bridges for advancing child rights in and through education and school psychology are increasing in number and quality. The WHO definition of health, as extended by the Convention, provides a foundation for worldwide commitment and action to achieve child health, development, and well-being holistically. National and international psychological associations and societies have committed to advance child rights and training specific to those intentions (Hart & Hart, this volume) and are being given supportive guidance (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). Recommendations for reconfiguring the IEP of special education to provide an *individual development plan* for holistic development and well-being have been formulated (Hart & Hart, this volume). Research on the uniqueness of the human condition and human potential (Rose, 2015) and visions for promoting well-being and development for each and every child are gaining respect and support from a broad base of professionals and advocates (IICRD, 2016), and recent technological advances confirm the genuine possibility to facilitate related applications (Kaku, 2011; IBM, 2016; Naser, Nunn, Alkalay, & Dolev, this volume). School communities are beginning to pay closer attention to holistic well-being, including social emotional health and competencies (Devereux Advanced Behavioral Health 2016; Kim, Furlong, Ng, & Huebner, this volume), and to provide health centers which could expand to deliver and/or coordinate all needed related services (IICRD, 2016; http://www.sbh4all.org). The Danish schools have created a proven model for continuity of caring guidance through social support (i.e., "the class teacher" or "class tutor"; Jensen, Nielsen, & Stenstrup, 1992), and the Finnish schools have achieved a high quality in education through emphasis on intrinsic motivation, strengths, and student choice (Choi, 2014). Respect for the voice of the child, including child participation and agency, is increasingly being operationalized and championed (Larkins, Lansdown, & Jimerson, this volume). This handbook is intended to provide a foundation of collected knowledge and guidance on related research and theory, as well as the associated existing and promising models, policies, programs, and practices that justify comprehensive and pervading application of a child rights approach for school psychology.

Appendix A: Human Rights Detailing of Golden Rule (Ethics of Reciprocity) Themes

Key: Numbers for Articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights are in parentheses; numbers of Articles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child are outside parentheses.

Adequate Standard of Living: 27 (25)
Association: 15 (20)
Association: 15 (20)
Best Interests of Person: 3, 21 (3)
Culture: 30 (22)
Duty to Contribute: (29)
Evolving Capacity: 5, 12, 14
Fairness/Nondiscrimination: 2 (2)
Freedom of Movement: 10 (13)
Full Development – Education: 6, 17, 27, 28, 29, 32 (26)
Government Support: 4, 18 (21)
Health and Rehabilitation: 24, 25, 39
Help in Need: 23, 25 (22, 25)
Identity: 1, 7, 8 (6, 15)
Information: 17 (19)
Participation in Government: (21)
Play, Leisure, Recreation: 31 (24, 27)
Privacy: 16 (23)
Property: (17)
Protection in Justice Systems: 40 (7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14)
Religion, Thought, Conscience: 14, 17, 27, 32 (18, 19)
Safety/Protection: 11, 19, 20, 22, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38 (4, 5)
Social Support – Family: 5, 7, 9, 10, 18, 19, 21 (14, 16)
Survival: 6
Voice in Affairs: 12, 13
Well-Being: 3.2, 9.4 17, 27, 32, 40 (27)
Work: 32 (23, 27)

Appendix B: Summative Indicator Examples for Selected Articles and Themes of the Convention on the Rights of the Child

Theme	Article(s)	Indicator[a]
Child development and Well-being	6, 27, 29	*Does the school curriculum provide specific support for holistic development and well-being (*i.e.*, physical, mental, social, spiritual, moral) for all students at every age/grade level? (Ps)*
Protection	19, 33, 34, 35, 36	*Are all adolescent students given hands-on guided child care education which includes emphasis to child maltreatment prevention? (Po)*
Civil rights	12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17	*A survey of the opinions of the children of the school community finds that a majority indicate their views/voices are heard and respected and influence conditions of concern. (O)*
Work	32	*Does the school community monitor nonschool work to determine and advance its relevance and contributions to the development and education of each student? (Po)*
Leisure, recreation, and culture	31	*Children are involved in organized and/or free play/recreation periods of 30 minutes or more during each school day. (Po)*
Children with disabilities	23	*Children with disabilities show measurable gains in functional independence. (O)*

Theme	Article(s)	Indicator[a]
Health and rehabilitation	24, 25, 39	*The school community has a detailed and widely publicized statement of commitment to holistic health and well-being*. (*S*)
Parental support and guidance	5	*A majority of parents surveyed report that they are active and respected partners with educators in the school community*. (*pO*)

[a] *Primary and secondary accountability categories of the OHCHR under which the indicator falls are suggested by capital and lowercase beginning letters of structure (Ss), process (Pp), and outcomes (Oo)*

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Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy

Bonnie Kaul Nastasi and Shereen C. Naser

Abstract

This chapter presents the conceptual foundations for envisioning school psychologists as child rights advocates. Using an ecological-developmental framework (Bronfenbrenner, *Measuring environment across the life span: Emerging methods and concepts*. American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, 1999), we depict the child's ecology as a nested set of systems that influence the child's development and well-being. The school psychologist is pictured as a central "mesosystem" that facilitates the integration of child rights throughout the ecology. To the macrosystem, we added a meta-macrosystem that represents the all-encompassing influence of child rights on the ecology of the child. The second model is a depiction of child rights-based school psychology, in which we envision the integration of child rights based on the UN (Convention on the Rights of the Child. Available: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (Convention) within professional school psychology. Surrounding the child's ecology, we portray the key components for professional school psychology that are critical to promotion and advocacy for child well-being: mission, guiding principles, contexts, stakeholders, domains, and roles. Within this model, we integrate child rights and professional ethics as guiding principles for the school psychologist. Finally, we provide an overview of Convention articles and discuss their integration with the mission and standards for international school psychology. This chapter sets the stage for subsequent chapters in the book that address integration of child rights with school psychology.

Given their role in promoting the best interests of children, school psychologists are uniquely positioned to advocate for child rights in their interactions with schools, educators, parents, and community agencies. Their interactions across multiple systems that influence the child provide ongoing opportunities to promote and protect child rights as decisions are made that affect children and adolescents. The purpose of this chapter is to present the conceptual foundations for envisioning school psychologists as child rights advocates. This chapter helps to set the stage for subsequent chapters that address specific components of child development and issues that affect children.

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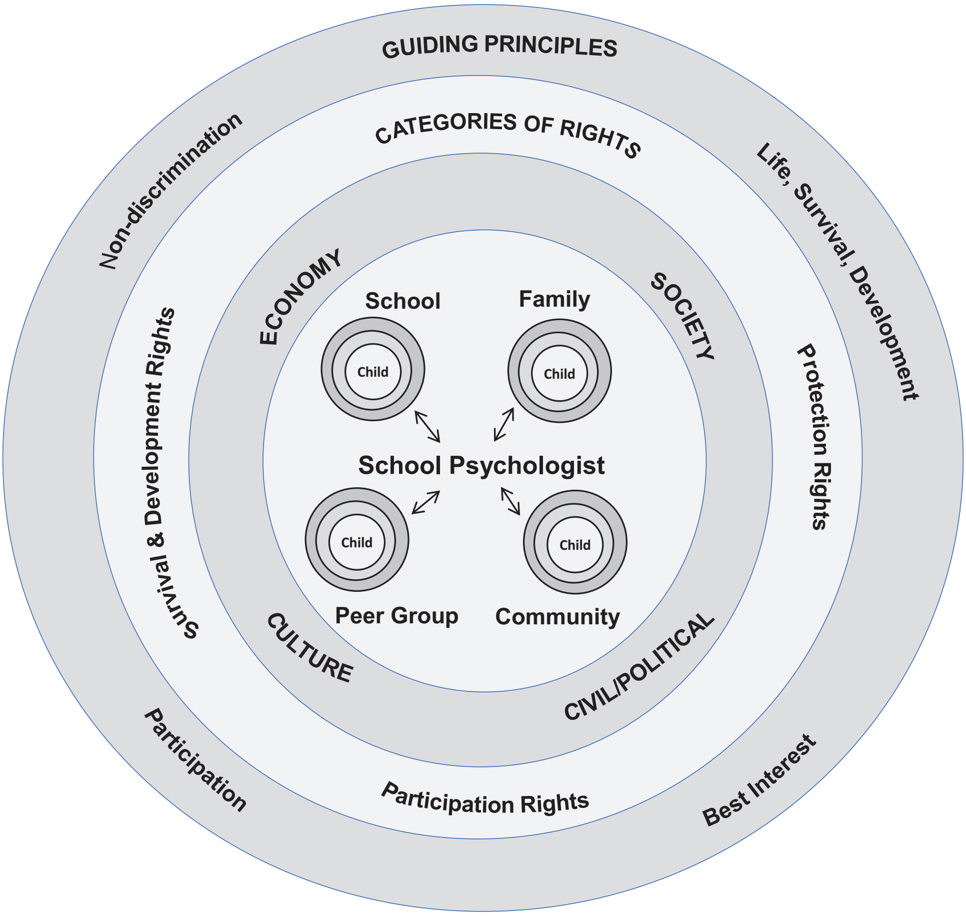
GUIDING PRINCIPLES
Non-discrimination
Life, Survival, Development
Best Interest
Participation
CATEGORIES OF RIGHTS
Survival & Development Rights
Protection Rights
Participation Rights
ECONOMY
SOCIETY
CULTURE
CIVIL/POLITICAL
School
Family
Child
Child
School Psychologist
Child
Child
Peer Group
Community

Fig. 1 Child rights ecology. This figure depicts the child's ecology grounded within a child rights framework. Expanding on Bronfenbrenner's ecological-developmental theory (1989, 1999), we envision the child (Arguably, the child is a system within itself that reflects interactions of biophysical and neuropsychological domains, personal histories, current status/functioning, evolving applications in the interests of the child's well-being, and the reflective processes of the child.) embedded within the ecological contexts (ecosystems) of school, family, peer group, and community. Each of these ecosystems includes the microsystem (immediate physical and social environment), exosystem (surrounding context that indirectly influences interactions within the microsystem), mesosystem (interactions within and across ecosystems), and macrosystem (culture that reflects the shared and disparate norms, values, beliefs, and practices that influence the system). This set of ecosystems is also embedded within a larger macrosystem of social, cultural, economic, and political influences. To this, we have added a "metasystem" of child rights, based on the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), that we envision as the all-encompassing influence on the ecology of each child. Furthermore, we depict the school psychologist at the center of the child's ecology to reflect the role of "mesosystem" that is positioned and prepared to facilitate the promotion and protection of child rights throughout the complex ecology

Ecological Foundations for Child Rights Advocacy

Figure 1 depicts an adaptation of Bronfenbrenner's (1989, 1999) ecological-developmental model that integrates child rights as a critical "macrosystem" and the school psychologist in a key "mesosystem" role. As articulated in Bronfenbrenner's original depiction, the child functions within a complex ecological system composed of micro-, exo-, meso-, macro-, and chronosystems. The *microsystem* refers to the immediate context in which the child functions, for example, in the classroom, home, peer group, or community context. These multiple microsystems both influence and are influenced by the child through reciprocal interactions. We can identify key players in the child's world in each respective system (e.g., teacher, parent, peer, community leader). The interactions between these players and the child within each microsystem are influenced indirectly by the *exosystem* surrounding the respective microsystem. For example, school policies and practices influence teacher-student and student-student interactions in the classroom. Furthermore, the interactions across microsystems can influence what happens within any specific microsystem. For example, the teacher-parent relationship and interactions can influence the teacher-student relationship. Similarly, peer-peer interactions outside of the classroom can influence the behavior of one or more students in the classroom setting. Surrounding the exosystems is the macrosystem, which includes the social, cultural, economic, and political factors that in turn indirectly influence practices, policies, and cultural norms in other components of the ecosystem (i.e., the exosystem, mesosystem, microsystem). Furthermore, to represent historical and developmental factors, Bronfenbrenner designated the *chronosystem.* Thus, what happens in the immediate context is likely influenced by individual's (child, parent, teacher, etc.) developmental experiences as well as historical events that contributed to the current macrosystem.

To represent the role of the United Nations (UN, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (subsequently referred to as Convention) as an overarching (meta-)macrosystemic component, we propose an outer dual layer that encompasses the ecosystem (see Fig. 1). This layer embodies the categories of rights and the guiding principles of the Convention (see UNICEF, 2011). Moreover, to reflect the critical position of the school psychologist as resource and advocate for the child and as a liaison with different microsystems, we propose the school psychologist as a central mesosystem responsible for "advocacy" (informed by child rights macrosystem) across the various microsystems and within the context of the school psychologist's multiplicity of roles as articulated in a later section. We return to discussion of this mesosystemic role after detailing child rights as articulated in the Convention.

Child Rights: Meta-macrosystem

Child rights refers to the "entitlement of all children to have requisite physical, psychological, spiritual, social and cultural needs met to ensure optimal growth, development, physical health, psychological well-being, and learning" (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013, p. 36). Universal rights for children (aged 0–18 years) were established by the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child for the purposes of extending human rights and humanitarian law previously granted only to adults. All countries (i.e., States), except the United States, have ratified the Convention, thereby agreeing to comply with this universal treaty. The UN assigned the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)[1] with responsibility for promoting and protecting child rights on an international scale. UNICEF carries out this work in cooperation with the Committee on the Rights of the Child (Committee), which has the primary international responsibility of monitoring and guiding the fulfillment of the child rights responsibilities of nations as established by the Convention. We have designated child rights as a *meta-macrosystem* within the child's ecology (see Fig. 1) to emphasize the potential for child rights principles to influence the social, cultural, political, and economic (macro)system at global ←→ local levels.[2] The two layers of the meta-macrosystem represent *guiding principles* (outermost layer) and *categories of rights* identified by UNICEF (2011); see Table 2 for the full list of the Convention's 54 articles. The four guiding principles correspond to specific Convention articles: *Article 2*, nondiscrimination; *Article 3*, best interests of the child; *Article 6*, right to life, survival, and development; and *Article 12*, right to participate. The three categories of rights identified by UNICEF include *survival and development*, *protection*, and *participation* (Table 2 indicates article by category) and are defined as follows:

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[1] For resources to facilitate implementation and accountability at State and local levels, see www.unicef.org

[2] The depiction of global ←→ local in the Figure is intended to reflect the interaction of macrosystem across multiple levels, ranging from global to local communities.

- *Survival and development* ensure life, survival, and development to promote a child's full potential—through adequate food, shelter, clean water, formal education, primary health care, leisure and recreation, cultural activities, and information about rights. These rights protect children, including those with disabilities, [and those] from minority/indigenous or refugee groups. They also ensure freedom of thought, religion, and conscience.
- *Protection* provides children with safety from all forms of harm and abuse, including neglect, exploitation, violence, and cruelty. These rights also address a host of child rights issues related to abduction, sale, trafficking, child labor, detention, punishment, juvenile justice, adoption, separation from family, war, and armed conflict.
- *Participation* ensures that children's *voices* will be heard by promoting their freedom to express opinions and to have their views respected in matters relating to their social, economic, cultural, and political lives; the right to information (e.g., access to mass media); freedom of association; freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; and right to privacy. These rights, in particular, help ensure that children can actively participate in realizing their rights and will eventually, as adults, take an active role in society (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013, p. 33–34).

School Psychologist as Advocate: Mesosystem

In Fig. 1, we depict the school psychologist as *mesosystem*. In this central role, the school psychologist is responsible for "advocacy" for the child through interactions within and across the various microsystems, and surrounding exosystems, of school, family, peer group, and community. Moreover, advocacy for the child is informed by (a) the social, cultural, economic, and legal components of the macrosystem and (b) the guiding principles and categories of rights that constitute the child rights meta-macrosystem. In this section, we explore the integration of child rights within professional school psychology, as depicted in Fig. 2.

Expanding the Child Rights Ecology

To facilitate the integration of school psychology and child rights, we expanded our conceptualization of the child rights ecology (see Fig. 2; cf. Fig. 1). First, we envision child well-being as central to the child's microsystems embedded within school, family, peer group, and community. This is intended to reflect child well-being as both the central mission of these key systems for socialization and the overall goal of the school psychologist. Second, we integrate additional macrosystem components to reflect the importance of psychological principles in guiding the school psychologist and the consideration of both the global and local community as macrosystemic influences on child well-being microsystems and exosystems. The child rights meta-macrosystem remains as an overarching set of principles to guide child advocacy within the ecological system.

Conceptualizing School Psychology: Vision for Child Rights Advocacy

Surrounding the child's ecology, depicted in Fig. 2, are key components of professional school psychology critical to advocacy for child well-being: mission, guiding principles, contexts, stakeholders, domains, and roles.

Mission

The mission of the school psychologist as child rights advocate is the promotion of both individual child well-being and supportive ecologies.

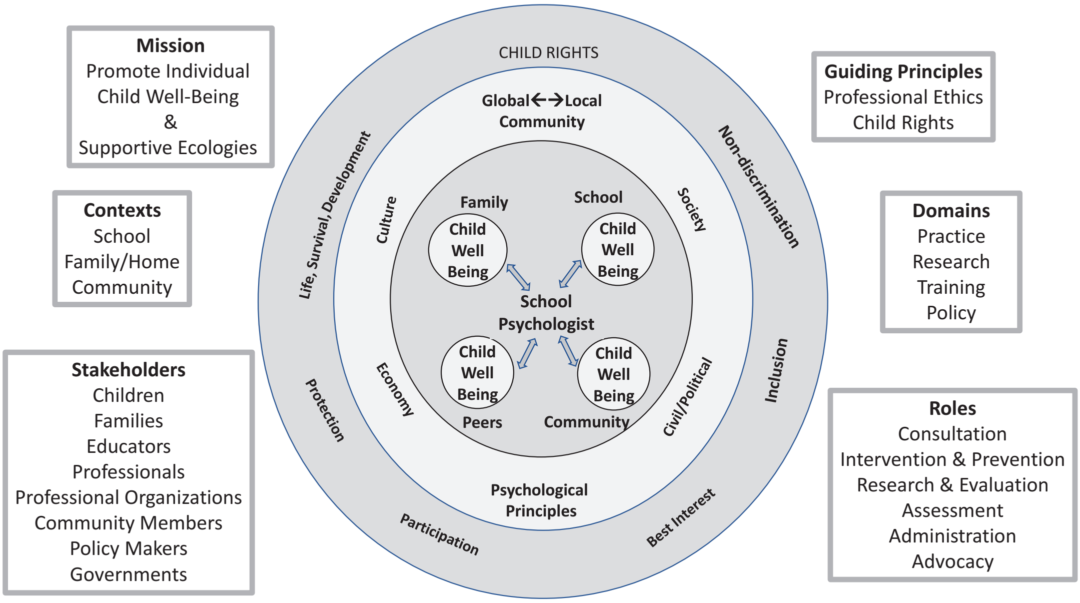
Mission
Promote Individual Child Well-Being & Supportive Ecologies
Contexts
School
Family/Home
Community
Stakeholders
Children
Families
Educators
Professionals
Professional Organizations
Community Members
Policy Makers
Governments
CHILD RIGHTS
Life, Survival, Development
Non-discrimination
Inclusion
Best Interest
Participation
Protection
Global↔Local Community
Culture
Society
Civil/Political
Psychological Principles
Economy
Family
School
Child Well Being
Child Well Being
School Psychologist
Child Well Being
Child Well Being
Peers
Community
Guiding Principles
Professional Ethics
Child Rights
Domains
Practice
Research
Training
Policy
Roles
Consultation
Intervention & Prevention
Research & Evaluation
Assessment
Administration
Advocacy

Fig. 2 Child rights-based school psychology. This figure provides a framework for articulating the integration of child rights and school psychology. Drawing on the "child rights ecology" depicted in Fig. 1, we place child well-being at the center of each child ecosystem to represent the primary goal for child rights-based school psychology and add to the macrosystem influences from psychological principles (that guide school psychologists) and both local and global communities. Surrounding the child's ecology are the key factors that guide professional school psychology: mission, guiding principles, contexts, stakeholders, domains, and roles. Furthermore, we conceptualized the guiding principles for school psychologists as the integration of child rights with professional ethics

Child well-being encompasses physical, spiritual, moral, social, psychological (i.e., emotional, cognitive, volitional), and behavioral domains reflected in optimal levels of physical and psychological health. *Supportive ecologies* facilitate development, well-being, and learning in ways that ensure child/human rights. The school psychologist's role is to facilitate the development of supportive ecologies through development of system capacity (e.g., infrastructure, resources, stakeholder competencies) to ensure child well-being (see also Nastasi & Varjas, 2013).

Guiding Principles

Directing the work of school psychologists as advocates for child rights in conjunction with professional ethics, Woods and Bond (2014) and Nastasi and Naser (2014) found some overlap of the UN Convention articles with professional standards for ethics, training, and practice for the United Kingdom (e.g., British Psychological Society [BPS]) and the United States (American Psychological Association [APA] and National Association of School Psychologists [NASP]), respectively. However, in both instances, the professional standards failed to fully cover the scope and depth of the Convention articles. Although ethical standards typically reflected some, if not all, of the general categories of rights, the level of specificity found in Articles 1–42 was minimally covered. The organization with the most comprehensive coverage was NASP.

Nastasi and Naser also examined the overlap between the Convention articles and ethical standards of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) and found similar patterns to national standards (i.e., better coverage of broad categories than specific articles). Examination of the mission of ISPA indicates an explicit commitment to "promote and protect the rights of all children and young people according to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and related

Table 1 Mission of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA)

Promote the use of sound psychological principles within the context of education and schooling internationally at global and local levels
Promote the improvement of children's and young people's well-being as well as their cognitive, emotional, physical, social and spiritual development in schools and communities across the world
Promote communication and collaboration among parents/caregivers, educators and other professionals who are committed to the improvement of children's well-being
Promote high standards for the provision of educating school and educational psychologists nationally, regionally, and internationally
Promote high standards of practice in school and educational psychology across the world
Promote high quality research that informs practice in school and educational psychology and addresses the cultural diversity of children across the world
Promote and protect the rights of all children and young people according to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and related UN statements
Initiate and promote cooperation with other organizations, working for purposes similar to those of ISPA, in order to advocate for and support children and young people across the world
Promote structures that prevent and protect all children from discrimination based on race, ethnicity, religion, age, gender, ability, sexual orientation, disability, or socio-economic status; and advocate for the inclusion and participation of all children in education and society

Source: http://www.ispaweb.org/about-ispa/mission-statement/

UN statements" (see Table 1, Mission of ISPA), although this commitment is not fully reflected in ethical standards (as depicted in Table 2). As the authors concluded, "The scant detail about child rights in professional standards may limit the implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child" (Nastasi & Naser, 2014, p. 47) and warrants further development of standards by professional organizations.

Contexts

The settings depicted in the Fig. 2 are the *primary ecological systems*, in which children develop and function and in which school psychologists can direct advocacy efforts. Nastasi and Varjas (2013, pp. 37–38) define these ecological systems as follows:

- *School*. The *ecosystem of formal education*, which includes microsystems such as classroom, in which child interacts directly with other members (students, teacher), embedded within the broader context of the school (exosystem) and the school's culture (norms, beliefs, practices, and policies; i.e., macrosystem).
- *Family*. The *ecosystem of family members/caregivers*, which includes microsystems such as home, in which child interacts directly with other members (caregivers, siblings, other family members), embedded within the broader context of the family (exosystem) and the family's culture (norms, beliefs, practices, and policies; i.e., macrosystem).
- *Community.* The *ecosystem of local community or neighborhood in which child lives*, which includes microsystems (e.g., peer group, neighbors, immediate vicinity of home, playground) in which child interacts directly with other members, embedded within the broader community (e.g., city, state, region) and the community culture (norms, beliefs, practices, and policies; i.e., macrosystem).

Stakeholders

The promotion and protection of child well-being cannot be accomplished by school psychologists working in isolation. Consistent with the mission of ISPA (see Table 1), school psychologists are expected to communicate and collaborate with the multiple stakeholders who have vested interests and/or resources necessary for ensuring child rights. The stakeholders we include in Fig. 2 reflect the wide range of potential partners from across the levels of the child's ecology, for example, families, educators, community members, and other professionals within respective microsystems and exosystems, and professional organizations, policy makers, and government agencies that influence the macrosystem. Furthermore, in recognition of the right to par-

Table 2 54 Articles of the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child

Convention article	Guiding principle	Survival and development	Participation	Protection	ISPA ethical standards
Article 1: Definition of child	X				
Article 2: Nondiscrimination	X				X
Article 3: Best interests of the child	X				X
Article 4: Protection of rights		X	X	X	X
Article 5: Parental guidance		X			X
Article 6: Survival/development	X	X			
Article 7: Registration, name, nationality		X			
Article 8: Preservation of identity		X			
Article 9: Separation from parents		X			
Article 10: Family reunification		X			
Article 11: Kidnapping*				X	
Article 12: Respect for child's views	X		X		X
Article 13: Freedom of expression			X		X
Article 14: Freedom of thought, conscience, religion		X	X		
Article 15: Freedom of association			X		
Article 16: Right to privacy			X		X
Article 17: Access to information; mass media			X		X
Article 18: Parental responsibilities		X			X
Article 19: Protection from all forms of violence				X	
Article 20: Children deprived of family environment		X		X	
Article 21: Adoption				X	
Article 22: Refugee children		X		X	
Article 23: Children with disabilities		X			X
Article 24: Health and health services		X			
Article 25: Review of treatment in care		X			
Article 26: Social security		X			
Article 27: Adequate standard of living		X			
Article 28: Right to education		X			X
Article 29: Goals of education		X			X
Article 30: Children of minority/indigenous groups		X			
Article 31: Leisure, play, culture		X			

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Convention article	Guiding principle	Survival and development	Participation	Protection	ISPA ethical standards
Article 32: Child labor				X	
Article 33: Drug abuse				X	
Article 34: Sexual exploitation∗				X	
Article 35: Abduction, sale, trafficking∗				X	
Article 36: Other forms of exploitation				X	
Article 37: Detention and punishment				X	
Article 38: War and armed conflict∗				X	
Article 39: Rehabilitation of child victims				X	
Article 40: Juvenile justice				X	
Article 41: Respect for superior national standards				X	X
Article 42: Knowledge of rights		X			

The table depicts the articles of the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (Convention) in relation to the Convention's guiding principles; categories of rights—survival and development, participation, and protection—as identified by UNICEF (2011); and the ethical standards of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA, 2011; Nastasi & Naser, 2014). Articles 43–54 delineate implementation measures for Arts. 1–42. For detailed descriptions of the articles, see http://www.unicef.org/crc/. The asterisk (∗) denotes optional protocols adopted by the UN on January 18, 2002, to further delineate and reinforce Articles 11, 34, 35 ("Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution, and Child Pornography"), and 38 ("Optional Protocol on Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict"). The full text of the Convention and Optional Protocols is provided in the Appendix of this volume ticipation, we have included children as stakeholders and potential partners in advocacy for their rights.

Domains

The potential scope of school psychology advocacy is reflected in the domains or spheres of influence: practice, research, training, and policy. School psychologists engage in activities within each of these domains that offer opportunities to promote and protect the rights of the child. In *practice*, school psychologists have daily opportunities to advocate for the child's full range of rights reflected in the Convention articles (see Table 1) as they provide direct and indirect services. For example, when conducting assessments, they can ensure best interests, nondiscrimination, and child participation. In *research*, school psychologists can engage in advocacy through the selection of research questions (e.g., exploring issues related to separation from parents or parental responsibilities), methods (e.g., ensuring that data collection methods are nondiscriminatory and provide opportunities to reflect child voice), informants (e.g., soliciting multiple stakeholder groups as participants), and in the interpretation and application of findings (e.g., engaging stakeholders as collaborators in data interpretation and dissemination). In *training*, school psychologists can help to ensure promotion and protection of child rights through their own professional development (e.g., becoming knowledgeable about the Convention) and the education of others (e.g., other school psychologists, teachers, parents). Graduate training programs can also ensure that child rights are integrated within professional preparation (e.g., courses and applied experiences) of school psychologists. Finally, school psychologists can help to develop and/or influence *policy* at local, national, and international levels through individual and organizational efforts (e.g., helping to write local school policy that addresses the needs of minority and indigenous group; becoming active in policy efforts of their national professional organization to influence national policy on child labor).

Roles

The responsibilities of school psychologists encompass multiple roles and provision of a continuum of comprehensive services, including universal (Tier 1, all students), targeted (Tier 2, at-risk students), and intensive/indicated (Tier 3, students with identified disabilities or disorders). Moreover, the responsibilities of school psychologists require delivery of services at multiple levels of the child's ecology (e.g., direct therapeutic intervention, family education, teacher professional development, in classroom interventions, organizational consultation), thus necessitating a wide range of roles. Drawing on professional competencies identified by major psychological organizations in the United States (APA, Rodolfa et al., 2005; NASP, 2010; Ysseldyke et al., 2006), Nastasi and Varjas (2013, pp. 38–39; see also Nastasi, 2010) delineated the following roles for school psychologists:

- *Consultation*. Using communication and collaboration to facilitate problem solving to address individual or systemic issues and/or facilitate change
- *Intervention and Prevention*. Designing and implementing evidence-based practices to promote well-being and learning; ameliorate learning, behavioral, and mental health problems; and/or build system capacity
- *Research and Evaluation*. Using research methods (quantitative, qualitative, single-case designs) to assess incidence and prevalence of problems (e.g., learning, behavioral, physical health, mental health); identify contributing factors (e.g., individual, social-cultural); plan or develop culturally and contextually relevant interventions; and evaluate acceptability, integrity, and effectiveness of interventions
- *Assessment*. Using systematic data collection methods (e.g., observations, interviews, record review, standardized measures) for the purposes of diagnosis, problem solving, treatment, or intervention planning at individual or systemic levels
- *Administration*. Directing, managing, or supervising the delivery of school psychological services
- *Advocacy*. Engaging in actions to promote the development and/or implementation of poli-

cies to protect and promote children's well-being, learning, and development at all levels of the social ecology (microsystem, exosystem, macrosystem, mesosystem)

Implications for School Psychology

To facilitate the integration of child rights across the roles and responsibilities of school psychologists, ISPA, Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO), and APA's School Psychology Division (Div. 16) collaborated to develop curricula for training school psychologists worldwide on advocacy for child rights (ISPA and CRED-PRO, 2010; Tulane University Child Rights Team [TUCRT], 2013).[3] Furthermore, the collaboration was the impetus for development of this handbook, which addresses the potential role of school psychologists in promoting and protecting child rights and provides necessary background information. Section "Ecological Foundations for Child Rights Advocacy" of this chapter is specifically devoted to the elaboration on integration of child rights within specific roles of school psychologists.

We view the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) as a basic set of principles for all professionals working with children but particularly for school psychologists who are, by definition, devoted to the promotion of individual child well-being and healthy ecologies for children. The conceptual framework presented in this chapter has guided our work in promoting child advocacy within school psychology. Figure 1 depicts the child within a complex set of systems that influence development and well-being and the school psychologist as a central player or mesosystem in facilitating the integration of child rights in the socialization of all children across the ecology. Furthermore, Fig. 2 provides a framework for the provision of school psychological services across multiple domains of practice, research, training, and policy. Perhaps most important to promoting and protecting child rights is the school psychologist's role as an advocate for the child, guided by professional ethics augmented by the Convention.

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[3] A related training manual is available in the online resources for this handbook.

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Child Rights, Social Justice, and Professional Ethics

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Abstract

School psychology is a global profession that purposely has an expansive view of the role and function of its practitioners. School psychology is being practiced during a time of great local, national, and global challenges that speak to the rights and opportunities afforded to children in schools. *How then can school psychologists be the most effective advocates?* This chapter presents social justice, child rights, and professional ethics as complementary frameworks to guide school psychology advocacy. These frameworks will be described, and then three case examples will be provided that highlight these frameworks in practice across many levels of intervention. This chapter closes with a call for continued development of and commitment to social justice, children's rights, and professional ethics principles among school psychologists across the globe.

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The unique contribution of this chapter is to provide an overview of the application of social justice principles to school psychology. These principles are part and parcel with professional ethics. We argue that social justice principles and goals also are interwoven with a child rights framework. In essence, the three frameworks are highly interrelated, with subtle differences in entry points.

The application of social justice principles occurs at all prevention levels[1]; across multiple ecological levels—individual and school/community; and in the public arena. To exemplify this, three fictitious case studies are presented. The ways in which these case studies speak to child rights, social justice, and professional ethics are highlighted. The chapter closes with several suggested next steps for policy and practice.

Introduction to Social Justice and Professional Ethics

Social justice is a term with many levels and connotations (Shriberg, Song, Miranda, & Radliff, 2013). At one level, social justice can be viewed as an aspirational goal for society. Another possibility is that social justice can be seen as meta-

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[1] Prevention levels include universal (promotion and prevention at population level), targeted (for those at risk for difficulties), and selected or indicated (for those experiencing difficulties).

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phorical goggles that a school psychologist wears when analyzing situations. Finally, social justice might be seen as a verb, something that school psychologists *do* (Shriberg et al., 2013).

Within Western psychology, Bell's (2018) definition of social justice is widely cited. She writes:

> Social justice is both a goal and a process. The *goal* of social justice is full and equitable participation of people from all social identity groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs. The *process* for attaining the goal of social justice should also be democratic and participatory, respectful of human diversity and group differences, and inclusive and affirming of human agency and capacity for working collaboratively with others to create change. Our *vision* for social justice is a world in which the distribution of resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable, and all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure, recognized, and treated with respect. We envision a world in which individuals are both self-determining (able to develop their full capacities) and interdependent (capable of interacting democratically with others). Social justice involves social actors who have a sense of their own agency as well as a sense of social responsibility toward and with others, their society, the environment, and the broader world in which we live. These are conditions we not only wish for ourselves but for all people in our interdependent global community (Bell, 2018, p. 34).

This definition can be unpacked at many levels. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations General Assembly, 1989)—hereafter referred to as "the Convention"—is the gold standard for articulating, promoting, and protecting, through the various Convention articles, all the different rights of children across the globe. At the time of this writing, every nation but the United States has ratified this Convention. From the perspective of the Convention, the idea of full and equal participation of all groups in a society, self-determination, and the right to a sense of agency reflects many articles. For example, Article 2 protects children against all forms of discrimination. Article 13 protects freedom of expression, and Article 14 protects freedom of thought, conscience, and religion.

One portion of Bell's (2018) definition indicates "all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure" (p. 34). Again, there is considerable overlap with the rights outlined in the Convention. For example, Article 19 articulates a child's right to be free from multiple forms of abuse and neglect. Article 24 provides for the right of children to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health, and Article 27 provides "the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development."

From a school psychology perspective, Bell's (2018) work and the emerging discipline-specific research and writing on social justice point to steps in defining and applying social justice. To date, there have been three empirical studies that have sought to define social justice from the perspective of school psychology—one study featuring multicultural experts in school psychology (Shriberg et al., 2008), one featuring randomly selected members of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) (Shriberg, Wynne, Bartucci, Briggs, & Lombardo, 2011), and one featuring school psychology graduate students (Moy et al., 2014). In line with Bell's definition and the Convention, ultimately all three studies have resulted in participant definitions of social justice converging around the core ideas of rights, access, and respect. *Rights* refers to the idea that children are to be afforded the protections described in the Convention. *Access* refers to the necessity of making sure that all children have the opportunity to share in the resources of the society, such as access to an education. *Respect* has to do with how people are treated. One can have the right to go to school and one can have access to a school, but if children are discriminated against upon going to school, this subverts social justice. School psychologists are thus charged to promote and engage in socially responsible behavior.

Although there is perhaps little disagreement on these broad goals of rights, access, and respect as relates to the way that school psychologists operate in schools, how to achieve these social justice objectives can be quite challenging. In this chapter, we continuously refer to these three concepts, infusing ethical frameworks, convention articles and principles, and advocacy competencies, as primary tools toward achieving socially just ends.

Child Rights, Social Justice, and Professional Ethics in Practice

Child rights, particularly as embodied by the Convention, provides an international consensus from which school psychologists can act with and in support of children. While this chapter is focused primarily on school psychology practice, children's rights provided a unifying set of goals and expectations for all who seek to support children. Similarly, social justice, which emanates primarily from multiculturalism (Vera & Speight, 2003), provides a framework for all who work with children to take a critical view on the political, social, and cultural context in which their work takes place and then seek to address injustices via actions that range from the micro to policy level. Professional ethics for school psychologists reflect a statement of professional values and expectations as relates to how school psychologists engage in their work, values, and expectations that go hand in hand with children's rights and social justice. As noted by Garbarino and Briggs (2014), both the Convention and professional ethics codes serve both aspirational and guideline purposes. Also, social justice can be seen as both an aspirational goal and an organizing framework for action (Shriberg et al., 2013). How then can school psychologists engage in practices that support social justice, utilizing the most up-to-date social justice research and the guidelines and expectations established in the Convention and professional ethics codes?

When asked what constitutes effective social justice action in school psychology, the multicultural experts in Shriberg et al.'s (2008) study spoke to the importance of knowledge and a commitment to action. *Knowledge* refers to several key areas, such as knowledge of law and ethics, knowledge of best practices in the field, and knowledge of available school and community resources. What a *commitment to action* might look like in school psychology research and practice has not been well-defined, with responses typically referring to a mix of taking personal responsibility for action and using the different tools in the school psychology toolbox to the fullest to ensure that all children, particularly those who are not being served fairly, are treated with dignity and receive equitable access to school resources (Shriberg et al., 2008). However, the concept of advocacy is a recurring theme (Shriberg et al., 2008, 2011). How, then, to advocate and under what framework?

In a powerful article proposing child rights as an organizing framework for professional standards in school psychology, Nastasi and Naser (2014) note that professional standards lack the specificity of the Convention. These authors proposed an integrated model for practice that reflects the common goal of developing sociocultural ecologies to promote child well-being, learning, and development and recognizes the core values of ethics and child rights (social justice principles such as nondiscrimination are embedded within child rights). In a detailed chart, these authors list out all 42 Convention articles and the extent to which the American Psychological Association (APA), NASP, and International School Psychology Association (ISPA) ethical codes reflect these principles. As relates to social justice, among the six general principles of the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* from the APA are justice and respect for people's rights and dignity (APA, 2010). Additionally, in its most recent *Principles of Professional Ethics* document, NASP (2010) states:

> School psychologists consider the interests and rights of children and youth to be their highest priority in decision making, and act as advocates for all students. These assumptions necessitate that school psychologists 'speak up' for the needs and rights of students even when it may be difficult to do so. (p. 2)

Highlighting access and respect, the ISPA (2011) Code of Ethics includes social justice as one of the six prevailing ethical principles. Specifically, under the heading Social Justice, it is stated:

> Consistent with the reciprocal commitment between their profession and society, school psychologists are committed to the principle that all people are entitled access to and benefit from the contributions of school psychology. Thus, they strive to promote free access to educational, social, and psychological services, to promote changes in schools or other educational practice settings that are beneficial to children and youth as well as educational staff, and to minimize biases.

Thus, APA, NASP, and ISPA all speak to social justice in their respective ethics codes, with either the direct or implied sentiment that school psychologists need to speak up to support the rights and treatment of children. However, the concept of speaking up does not come without risk. Whereas the Convention provides a core set of principles and rights for children and whereas different definitions of social justice provide related core constructs, ethical codes provide guiding principles and codes for action, particularly in difficult situations.

In a chapter centered on social justice advocacy in school psychology, Briggs (2013) provides several recommended advocacy strategies across the public health prevention tiers. Reflecting Freire's (1990) concept of praxis, "reflection and action upon the world in order to change it" (p. 33), as a prelude to social justice advocacy, Briggs offers the following reflection questions to consider before deciding if and how one might act in accordance with social justice principles:

1. Am I acting on behalf of others because it is easier or because it is necessary?
2. Is immediate change critical in order to prevent harm, or can I take the time to empower others to advocate for themselves?
3. If I advocate on behalf of others, what will happen when I am not around to lead advocacy efforts? Will change be institutionalized; will the process continue, or will my efforts disappear with me? (p. 300)

Briggs makes a distinction between acting with and acting on behalf of. This distinction challenges school psychologists to act as equal or secondary partners with those they are seeking to support (e.g., joining with families to work against unjust policies for children with special needs) as opposed to times when issues affecting children are being decided without children and families present and/or being afforded voice (e.g., consultations with teachers about how they are structuring the learning environment). This distinction is also made in the American Counseling Association (ACA)'s Advocacy Counseling Domains (Lewis, Arnold, House, & Toporek, 2002). These domains reflect a comprehensive listing of action steps across different contexts. With due recognition that these domains were developed with US-based practice in mind and also that these domains were not developed by school psychologists, we believe that these domains have great applicability to school psychology practice and form the most comprehensive listing of concrete advocacy action steps from which international school psychology can build upon.

The ACA identifies six core domains—Client-Student Empowerment, Client-Student Advocacy, Community Collaboration, Systems Advocacy, Public Information, and Social-Political Advocacy. These domains can be distinguished by efforts that are more micro (e.g., individual) level versus macro (e.g., policy) level, whether the counselor (or, in our adaptation, school psychologist) is acting with or acting on behalf of others, and whether the counselor's/school psychologists' behaviors occur at the client-student, school/community, or public arena level.

Case Examples

Social justice, children's rights, and ethics all provide general and perhaps inspiring frameworks for action. However, for a variety of reasons (e.g., entrenched societal biases, unethical behavior of others, lack of commitment by others to children's fundamental rights), the application of these frameworks to school psychology practice can be challenging. Therefore, the next sections provide three unique fictitious scenarios in which the interaction of social justice, children's rights, and ethics are at play. Following the ACA

Advocacy Counseling Domains framework, the first scenario focuses on the client-student level, the second focuses on the school/community level, and the third focuses on the public arena level. As you read these scenarios, we urge you to consider what you might be thinking about and how you might respond if you were the school psychologist in this situation and your goal was to act in a way that reflects social justice, children's rights, and ethics. We then provide input as to possible responses that would be concordant with these three interrelated areas. While our intent is to be inclusive, we recognized that as three US-based authors that cultural and national context often matters greatly in terms of the options available to a school psychologist seeking to follow the ethical and socially just path.

Client-Student Level Scenario

Alex is a 13-year-old Latino student in a general education, seventh-grade classroom. Alex is performing on grade level when it comes to math but consistently struggles with grade-level reading work. In the past 2 years, Alex has had some disciplinary issues but nothing serious enough to get him expelled or suspended longer than a day. It is known to several of the staff members at the school that Alex has a homelife that includes community violence, possible physical abuse, and financial instability. Recently, Child Protective Services has been called to his home for suspected physical abuse toward him (it is unclear whether a case has been or remains opened).

As the school year has progressed, Alex's behavior has regressed in terms of him defying teacher directives and engaging in power struggles with staff members at the school. In addition, Alex was involved in a fight with a classmate and was suspended for 10 school days, while the classmate was only suspended for 5 days. Alex's homeroom teacher wants him to be referred for evaluation for special education services for him to receive support for his behavior and for his reading.

However, before the referral can be done and an evaluation subsequently conducted, the principal informs the staff that he wants to start the procedures to have Alex expelled from the school and conduct an expulsion hearing before the end of the school year. Many of the staff at the school agree, and Alex's homeroom teacher specifically indicates that she is on board with expelling him as he is a "problem" in the classroom. The principal makes it clear that it is in the best interest of the staff and the school to have Alex expelled. To prepare for the hearing, he asks the school psychologist to do a record review and put together a history of all of Alex's disciplinary referrals and consequences.

During this review of Alex's history, the school psychologist uncovers many factors that shed light on why Alex might display some behavioral issues in school. In addition to Alex's rough homelife, the school psychologists found that a close relative of Alex had died suddenly during the school year and he had been having difficulties coping with the loss.

Additionally, while conducting this review of Alex's record, the school psychologist also uncovered something about Alex's homeroom teacher. In the last 5 years, this particular teacher has disproportionately referred many more minority students to special education services for behavioral issues than Caucasian students. In fact, almost all behavior-related referrals from this teacher were for African-American and Latino students, despite this teacher having many white students during this time period who have shown similar types, magnitudes, and frequencies of behavior problems. When the school psychologist presented this information to the principal, he stated that sometimes minority students just "act out" more for various reasons. The school psychologist noted the research shows students of color are often disciplined more severely and for more subjective behaviors than their white peers who commit similar behaviors (Skiba et al., 2011). The principal refuted the research and then also renewed his intent to go through with the expulsion process as he felt that Alex would be better served at an alternative school. He reasoned that an alternative school would be better equipped to support a student like Alex and made it clear that there would be repercussion if the school psychologist tried to interfere.

Potential response from the school psychologist As the school psychologist, you have an ethical dilemma regarding the possible expulsion and placement of this student. This is complicated by the fact that the administration—and at least one teacher—seems to have an agenda to expel this student. In addition, the history of the teacher's behavior referrals of mainly minority students must be taken into account, as well as Alex's past homelife and present trauma, and the potential for habilitation/rehabilitation with regard to behavior in school.

The school psychologist in this scenario can view Alex's right to an education from a perspective that focuses on Alex's rights as a child as set by the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Art. 4). Broadly, this approach argues (or requires) that the school psychologist in the scenario must protect Alex's right to an education and also work against discriminatory practices that seem to be denying Alex these rights (Art. 28). In this case, the school psychologist can utilize the ACA competencies to identify barriers such as Alex's expulsion hearing due to his behavior coupled with possible discriminatory practices. In addition, learning more about Alex's condition can allow him/her to identify areas of need, potential strategies, and resources that might most effectively address the situation.

In the United States, a situation such as this one would involve an expulsion hearing where a school psychologist might speak. Specifically, the school psychologist can reveal the information on the discriminatory views behind Alex's expulsion hearing in a respectful manner that addresses the concerns of the administration despite threats of retaliation. Being an advocate for Alex before, during, and after the expulsion hearing will allow the school psychologist to present and promote a plan to provide Alex with the resources he needs. In this scenario, if accessible, those resources might include putting the parent in touch with an independent advocate and connecting the family with outside clinicians and psychoeducation around abuse and trauma, specifically as it pertains to behavioral issues, grief, and adolescence. The school psychologist can also work with the administration on issues of diversity and ensuring there are nondiscriminatory policies and practices within the school.

These strategies are in line with the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) (2010) ethical standards and principles which call on school psychologists to "demonstrate respect for the autonomy of persons and their right to self-determination, respect for privacy, and a commitment to just and fair treatment of all persons" (p. 1). Under this standard, school psychologists are expected to promote fairness and justice in various ways including not engaging in or condoning discriminatory practices, pursuing knowledge on how diversity factors affect students, working to correct discriminatory practices, and ensuring that all students have access to school psychological services (NASP, 2010, p. 5–6). By engaging in the strategies mentioned previously, the school psychologist in this scenario is ensuring he/she follows the ethical standards set forth by NASP.

In addition to being in line with social justice practice and competencies, these strategies align with the Convention, which calls for actions that are in the best interest of the child (Art. 3). By advocating for Alex, the school psychologist is ensuring that he/she is combating discrimination and protecting the rights of the student as set forth by the Convention (Art. 2 and 4). In addition, the school psychologist is ensuring that Alex has a right to an appropriate education by not being expelled and can develop his talents and abilities to the fullest (Art. 28–29).

This scenario and the strategies presented underscore the necessary role that school psychologists play in the enforcement of a child's right to an education and equal treatment in the school system. Taking a social justice approach enables clinicians to advocate for and empower children on a micro and macro level and ensures that children are given their rights as set forth by various committees.

School/Community Scenario

Melanie has never been like the other girls in her community. As a small child, she eschewed dolls, dresses, and other things associated with being a girl and instead preferred to play rough and tumble sports with the boys. While extended family members and others in the community put pressure on Melanie's family—especially her parents—to stop allowing her to play sports with the boys, her parents were tolerant of her difference. They did not love that she was not like other girls, but they felt that this was something she would grow out of. Most of Melanie's extended family agreed and were protective of Melanie, but within the extended family, there were also voices that pressured Melanie's parents to take a harder line.

As Melanie moved into elementary grades, she continued to be different from the other girls, resulting in much teasing and social isolation. The boys came to respect her athletic abilities but otherwise did not interact with her very much. As she moved closer to her preteen years, other girls increasingly mocked her clothes, her hair, and anything that they felt made her seem less feminine. Melanie was a good student, but a lot of teachers and other adults in the community continued to lecture her to be "more like the other girls." These teachers and adults also tended to turn a blind eye to the teasing and harassment.

As Melanie moved through middle school and into high school, the teasing and social isolation turned into outright hostility. The other girls were vicious and the boys wanted nothing to do with her, particularly the boys she outperformed on the ball field. Although Melanie has not spoken about her sexual orientation, she has not shown any interest in boys and is regularly called a "dike" (a homophobic slur) by the other kids. Community pressure began to wear on her parents, to the point where they too started to plead with her to be more like the other girls in terms of her appearance and mannerisms.

As the school psychologist, you first meet Melanie at age 15. She comes to you and says that she needs to talk to someone. Over the course of the next few weeks, Melanie tells you that she is gay and is starting to feel very depressed. She wants to tell her parents but is not sure how they will react. Melanie says that she does not want any of her classmates to know about her sexual orientation because this would not be accepted. She says that while she does not want to change her appearance, she is weary from being so isolated and wishes that she just had at least one close friend she could confide in.

Potential response from the school psychologist While the impetus for this situation was an individual child, this scenario speaks to school/community factors on many levels. For example, from the beginning there has been community pressure—on Melanie and her parents—for gender conformity. Her parents originally were quite open-minded, but community and family pressure can take a toll. Similarly, the schools Melanie attended seem to have taken a passive role in the harassment and bullying she has received, with the exception of some teachers who took it upon themselves to impose their values on Melanie. This pattern exemplifies school cultures that tolerate—if not encourage—bullying based on gender norms and sexual orientation.

This situation is relevant to many dimensions of social justice, children's rights, and ethics. From a children's rights perspective, the Convention not only affords every child the right to an education (Art. 28) but indicates that this education should be respectful toward the child's personality and values (Art. 29). Article 13 provides for freedom of expression, and Article 14 provides for freedom of thought. Similarly, a social justice perspective supports a child's right to be treated respectfully—a central tenet of the Convention—which would include the idea that a child has a right to go to school without being harassed and/or bullied. Also, a child has a right to her/his sexual orientation and to comply or not to comply with prevailing gender norms as she/he pleases. In this sense, while the spirit of the Convention provides a framework for the right of all children to be treated with dignity (e.g., Art. 19, which provides children protection from all forms of violence, such as emotional violence), social justice research—which primarily stems from multiculturalism—can provide a powerful framework for the specific challenges of bullying prevention and heterosexism that are present in this scenario.

Whereas this situation is culturally loaded and contextually dependent (clearly different countries and cultures have different common attitudes related to gender conformity, as well as tolerance for bullying), from a school/community perspective, our advice would be to begin from the ethical frame of "do no harm," also known as nonmaleficence (APA, 2010), seeking to protect Melanie's safety and well-being at school. At the individual level, rather than getting into a debate with teachers and/or school administrators about gender norms and sexual orientation, the first step would be to emphasize Melanie's right to be safe at school. For example, Article 29 provides the right of all children to an education in which they can develop their personality, talents, and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential, and Article 19 protects children from all forms of mental and physical violence. Children who are bullied at school are not in a safe situation and thus are not able to achieve their full personal and educational potential. Thus, at minimum, the bullying of Melanie needs to stop, and school psychologists are encouraged to take a stand in whatever way works within the individual school and community where this situation is taking place to protect Melanie from direct harm.

However, it is likely that in any school there is not just one child being harassed based on gender, sexual orientation, or other elements of difference. Thus, for broader and longer-term impact, school psychologists are encouraged to engage this issue at the school/community level as well. Using the ACA framework, community collaboration is an acting with approach where one works with others in the community who share similar goals to build alliances and maximize existing human and financial resources toward efforts to change community structures and opinions that lead to this type of unjust situation. School psychologists typically cannot act alone to bring about community change. However, we can utilize our skills in listening, in data collection and analysis, in teamwork, and in alliance and coalition building that can advocate for positive change.

Systems advocacy is the category for acting on behalf of at the school/community level. As with the case of Alex, at this level, school psychologists are encouraged to gather data (e.g., are there other students who are being bullied based on actual or perceived sexual orientation?) and otherwise examine at the school and school district levels what factors are contributing to cultures where bullying based on gender norms and heterosexism is tolerated. This involves a critical analysis of the sources of power within the school community and of persons, individually and collectively, who can be potential allies. School cultures are not changed overnight, but gathering data that demonstrates the harmful effect of bullying and other forms of oppression and finding others within your school community who also respect the right of children to be themselves are critical.

As with the case of Alex, many of the challenges in this case also speak to public policy that shapes a society's attitudes toward children and schools, as well as children's actual rights to be treated fairly and respectfully. A third vignette highlights advocacy in the public arena in more detail.

Public Arena

Simone is an 8-year-old student in a general education second-grade classroom that is reading on the first-grade level and has not met grade-level math standards since the end of kindergarten. When Simone started first grade, she had a medical condition that led to hospitalizations and consistent school absences over a six-month period. After the hospitalization, Simone moved into a different neighborhood to be closer to her physician for follow-up appointments.

Since returning to the school district, Simone has shown increased distractibility and a lack of focus. Simone is frequently withdrawn for most of the school day and sits at her desk reading two of her favorite books. These books are at least two grade levels below her current grade level. When Simone's classroom teacher spoke to her about her behavior, Simone mentioned that she does not like coming to school because she knows that she will not be happy. She also stated that she could not keep friends because she was out of school so much and moved around. Subsequently, Simone's classroom teacher referred her to be evaluated for special education services during the middle of Simone's second-grade school year.

During the evaluation, the school psychologist chose to evaluate Simone's intelligence and achievement. Simone's intelligence test scores were found to be in the average range, but her achievement scores were at the first-grade level. The school psychologist who conducted this initial evaluation did not include information related to Simone's health, family history, or her social-emotional characteristics. Simone's parents would like for her to receive special education services in an inclusive classroom with same-aged students including those who receive services and those who do not. The school's administration requests that Simone go to a resource room to receive reading and math assistance until school-based testing (i.e., district-wide skill testing) is administered in 4 weeks and then move her to a more exclusive special education classroom.

Simone begins to receive intensive reading and math services for 4 weeks from the support specialist in the resource room. Two weeks after Simone's services begin, the school psychologist asks the specialist how Simone is doing. The specialist indicates that Simone may benefit from a more intensive and exclusive placement because "she does not have the time to help Simone." The specialist also mentions that she has not had a chance to collect "solid data on Simone's progress" but she gets the sense that Simone's reached her achievement ceiling for the school year.

The school administration received the same update from the reading specialist, is ready to place Simone in a room with only students who receive special education services, and will consider letting Simone have lunch and recess with her general education, same-aged peers. When you speak to the teacher in the special education classroom, he mentions that he does not feel prepared to help Simone considering her complex issues related to her health, household transitions, and her behavior.

You, as the school psychologist, have ethical concerns based on Simone's right to an education that is appropriate for her skills and potentials and that she has just barely received services from staff that seem ill-equipped. You are also considering the social justice issues related to the staff members (i.e., the reading specialist and special education teacher) being ill-equipped to provide Simone with assistance.

Potential response from the school psychologist The issue in this scenario is complex due to Simone's medical issues and post-hospitalization mental health. It is also further complicated by Simone's post-hospitalization academic performance problems and the staff response to Simone's needs.

The school psychologist in this scenario can view Simone's right to appropriate services from a social justice, ethical perspective centered on Simone's right as a child. One could consider this viewpoint as one that prioritizes the development of all children in the school community and furthers Convention Article 15, which puts forth that children have the right to "meet together and join groups and organizations…." In tandem with Article 23, stating that children with disabilities have a right to special care and support to live full and independent lives, these articles delineate the need for school psychologists and other school staff to facilitate student interaction across various social categories including those based on ability or disability.

The concept of school inclusion is inherently related to ideas of social justice, ethical treatment, and children's rights as inclusion, at its core, centers on social segregation based on individual difference and the right to access equitable public resources. Defining inclusion can be complex as it can be interpreted in different ways. It can be interpreted as the period in which the student with special needs spends his or her nonacademic and academic time with same-aged peers from general education classrooms. It can also be interpreted as the physical location in which students in special education are placed (Farrell, 2004). These definitions, among various other permutations of the inclusion concept, have led to controversy as some educational researchers see inclusion as a public policy that helps all members of the school community overcome barriers to participation and learning (Booth & Ainscow, 1998). Alternatively, there are other educational stakeholders who believe that inclusion detracts from the learning environment for nondisabled students due to behavioral disruptions and the time constraints related to including students with disabilities in general education classrooms (Anderson, Klassen, & Georgiou, 2007).

Inclusion not only is a rights issue for individuals but forms the basis of educational public policy for many nations. Du Toit and Forlin (2009) frame inclusion as a matter of public policy as they discuss the national inclusive education policy in South Africa. Pulling from Dyson's (1999) work on inclusive education, Du Toit and Forlin connect inclusive education to a just and democratic society built of dignity, freedom, and equality. From a public policy perspective, the idea of Simone being placed in an educational environment that facilitates the interaction of students with varying degrees of social, behavioral, and cognitive abilities helps the overall community and general public by promoting diversity in the community and fostering the development of natural friendships within the home community of a student with disability. This community-building aspect of inclusion occurs as individuals with special education needs are supported to be full participants in the community. Forlin (2010) also discusses this communal participatory emphasis in the context of Hong Kong's educational system as it shifts to a whole school approach (WSA) that focuses on meeting the educational needs for all students. The positive impact that inclusion can have on the public good becomes clear as it encourages community-building, acknowledges diversity, and gives all students access to education, peer interaction, and an increased presence in society.

To effect change from a systems or policy level, however, the school psychologists must use their roles and skills to develop a process for creating broad, systemic change. The ACA's Social Justice Advocacy Competencies recommend the use of "vision, persistence, leadership, collaboration, systems analysis, and strong data" to alter the systemic status quo (Lewis et al., 2002, p. 2). Using these competencies, the clinician can strategize how best to act on behalf of children and to act with macro (and micro) levels related to children's health, development, and success. For example, the school psychologist in the Simone scenario would have produced a more comprehensive and accurate evaluation if factors related to Simone's personal, social-emotional, health issues had been considered. This approach moves us away from placing fault in the individual psychological state of the child and looking more at the ecological factors that influence the child's well-being (Ratts & Hutchins, 2009).

The administration suggesting a placement for Simone prior to evaluation also highlights the ethical issue of acquiescence, which, in this scenario, is giving in to systemic pressure that is not in the best interest of the student. Prilleltensky, Walsh-Bowers, and Rossiter (1999) notes the difficulty in going against the administrative opinions and established norms in the school setting; however, knowing the school's role in creating an environment that encourages development should challenge the clinician's inclination for acquiescence. Along with Prilleltensky's ethical principle of pushing against acquiescence, the social justice framework urges the clinician toward action-oriented strategies (Shriberg et al., 2008).

In the Simone scenario, the school psychologist could have applied specific strategies to nurture support for inclusion and appropriate educational services for all students. These strategies include using an ecological and strengths-based assessment to help identify risk and protective factors that compound Simone's educational difficulties. Collaborating with Simone's family and community resources (e.g., medical doctor) to address ecological factors can allow for information sharing that can better address the effects of Simone's recent hospitalization and relocation. The school psychologist could engage in consultation with Simone's resource room teacher and other staff on how to use data to make decisions about Simone's current levels of achievement and how to provide appropriate special education services. School psychology consultation regarding time constraints, behavior concerns, and other perceived disadvantages related to inclusion of students with disabilities should be addressed with all staff. These data-based decisions can inform goals and strategies that are appropriately individualized to fit Simone's multidimensional areas for growth and her strengths. Furthermore, the school psychologist can promote the benefits of inclusion such as all students learning the value of diversity; typically developing peers serving as models for students with disabilities; and making general education classrooms "better able to meet the needs of all students…more flexible curricula and adapted instructional delivery systems".

This scenario underlines the necessity for school psychologists to focus on the well-being of the student as a pathway to fully enforcing a child's right to an environment that encourages the child to reach his or her own best potential (Hart & Hart, 2014). This concept is a matter of public policy as society benefits from the inclusion of all its members. Inclusion and helping the individual student to achieve are essential factors in children's rights and can be enacted by taking a social justice approach that applies ethical practices that help to ensure self-actualization and an individual's ability to grow into a functional member of society.

Conclusion

School psychology is a global profession. Every nation has its own laws, customs, and resources, and within every nation, there is great diversity in terms of the values and beliefs of its citizens. As such, there are no universal best practices that can be utilized in cookbook format. However, this does not mean that there are not critical frameworks to draw upon when it comes to advocacy that school psychologists can engage in both with and on behalf of others. Child rights, social justice, and professional ethics all speak to critical frameworks to guide action. These frameworks are conceptually complementary, although implementation may be context dependent. For example, the origins of social justice research and advocacy come from multiculturalism, which is inherently culturally dependent. What if one works in a climate where sexism, heterosexism, religious oppression, classism, and other dimensions of oppression are both socially and legally sanctioned. Whereas social justice, child rights, and ethical frameworks all call school psychologists to treat every child with respect and dignity, application of these ideals can put one in conflict with prevailing customs and legal traditions. Thus, we call upon school psychologists to resist pressures to act against the core precepts of ethics, child rights, and social justice, including engaging in policy work to provide formal legal protections to children that are being harmed in schools. Through individual and collaborative efforts, both within school psychology and across disciplines, school psychologists can play critical roles in supporting socially just, ethically sound practices that support the rights of all children.

In this chapter, we have provided a few examples in the hopes both of sparking thought for how one might respond to these specific scenarios using these frameworks and also to spur the idea that there are many other scenarios that require school psychologists to be effective advocates at many levels. We recognize that individual responses will vary based on sociocultural geography and the local conditions through which school psychology is practiced and that opportunities to engage in individual/client, school/community, and public arena advocacy vary widely. However, we staunchly believe that if school psychologists hold firm to the core principles underlying child rights, social justice, and professional ethics and continue to build and share practices reflecting these ideals, the result will be increased effectiveness and relevance of the profession. School psychology has incredible potential to be a positive force for justice, rights, and ethics. While recognizing that none of us is perfect and not all of us are in a good position to enact change, we challenge all readers to think critically about how they can leverage their position as school psychologists (or as school psychologists in training) to support justice, to reflect ethics, and to actualize the powerful charge of the Convention. Whether you can act primarily at the individual, school/community, or public arena levels, by standing up for the rights of children, school psychologists can actualize the positive societal benefit of our professional training.

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Status of Child Rights in the International Community

Yanghee Lee and Lothar Krappmann

Abstract

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (OHCHR, Convention on the Rights of the Child, Retrieved from www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRC/Pages/CRCIndex.aspx, 1989), enforced since 1990, obliges States to ensure by appropriate legislation and effective provisions children's rights to care, protection, social security, development, education, and active involvement in all actions and measures that are of concern to them. The articles of the Convention are highly relevant throughout the world for teachers, parents, and children who cooperate in the institutions of educational systems serving children and their societies. This chapter gives a concise summary of the content of the Convention, the history of child rights since the beginning of the last century, and the debates about adequate understanding and implementation of the rights incorporated in the Convention. It underlines that the Convention, though titled as the Convention on the Rights of the Child, asks for an intense dialogue of adults and children who have to be respected as human beings with their own perspectives, best interests, and hopes for a good life in community with others.

> The desire of our children's well-being has always been the most universally cherished aspiration of mankind . . . . There is no task more important than building a world in which all of our children can grow up to realize their full potential, in health, peace and dignity. (Kofi Annan, 2001)

This statement of Kofi Annan, former UN General Secretary, captures the most important aspiration of humankind. It is shared by all people, regardless of culture, time, and tradition. For this reason, and this reason only, they will pay full attention to events and processes that have impact on children, their well-being, and thriving.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child and Its Three Optional Protocols

The adoption of the international treaty on all children's rights, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, was a monumental event in

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history, which deserves utmost consideration of everybody and particularly of all persons who are engaged with unfolding the children's personalities within the family, school, and other institutions influencing children's lives and personal development (OHCHR, 1989). For the first time, a universal definition of the child had been agreed upon as applicable to all those under the age of 18, "unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier" as stated in Article 1.

Envisaging that this treaty is a juridical document, many people, though interested in this matter, had a hard time following the details of this undertaking to guarantee to children, wherever they are, good conditions of living and growing up. Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to build understanding of this great project and its consequences for child rights-based interaction and relationship of children and adults, which have far-reaching implications for the school setting.

It was indeed a decisive moment in history when the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the drafted text in November 1989 and recommended to its member states that they ratify the Convention on the Rights of the Child[1] (hereinafter referred to as the Convention) and incorporate the provisions of this international treaty into their legal systems. It took 10 years of tough negotiations to draft the articles of the Convention by a UN Working Group, which was attended by delegates from governments, UN agencies, and activists from civil society organizations from all world regions. Many did not quite believe that this instrument would be ratified in a speedy manner as the drafted Convention recognized children as subjects and holders of inherent, inalienable universal rights, while many institutions still treated children mainly as objects in need of charity. However, quite the contrary, this human rights instrument dedicated for children was ratified in record speed; thus, the Convention came into force in 1990, more quickly than any other human rights treaties.

As of April 2016, 196 member states of the United Nations had ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child. By ratifying an international treaty, a country (hereinafter referred to as the State) first makes a public commitment to the international community to uphold, guarantee, and protect all the rights enshrined in the treaty. At the same time, it is making a public commitment to their children that all the provisions enshrined within the treaty will be the responsibility of the State.

Many of the States also ratified Optional Protocols. These were negotiated and adopted by the General Assembly later: the Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography (OHCHR, 2000a; enforced since 2002; ratified by 173 States, as of September 2019), the Optional Protocol on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict (OHCHR, 2000b; enforced since 2002; ratified by 170 States, as of September 2017), and The Optional Protocol on a Communications Procedure (OHCHR, 2011; enforced since 2014; ratified by 46 states, as of September 2019).[2] The only non-ratifying UN member state on the Convention is the USA. However, it has signed the Convention and ratified two Optional Protocols, excluding the Optional Protocol on a Communications Procedure. Signing of a treaty by a State indicates agreement to refrain from acts that would be against the object and purpose of the treaty. It is a public expression, however, that the State is unwilling to subject itself to the monitoring procedures inherent in human rights treaties (Villiger, 2009).

Upon ratification, States can formally deposit a reservation with the UN General Secretariat. Reservations are legitimate if they refer to a specific issue and do not spoil the substance of the treaty. On the one hand, such reservations restrict the implementation of a concrete right. On the other hand, a reservation demonstrates that the State is aware of the imposed obligations, which it deems unable or unwilling to fulfill at the time of ratification. Many States later withdrew their reservations as they observed that the diversity of cultures and religions are respected by the Convention and its implementation efforts or when the economic or social situation later facilitated implementation of the particular provision.

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[1] The full text of the Convention articles and Optional Protocols are provided in the Appendix of this volume.

[2] Handbooks are available which introduce into the juridical content of the Convention and the two Protocols on the Sale of Children and on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflicts (UNICEF, 2003, 2007, 2009).

A note is appropriate in order to avoid misunderstandings: the rights enshrined in the Convention (OHCHR, 1989) were not put together for the purpose of intervening into the trivial though vital everyday procedures for which families and children's institutions have arranged to facilitate cooperation and togetherness, such as division of tasks, pocket money, TV viewing, and time to go to bed. Instead, the rights enshrined spell out the human rights, which were stated by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (hereinafter referred to as UDHR) from 1948, respecting the nature of children's life situations. Definitely children need protection, but protection that takes account of the child as an active participant in all measures concerning her or him (Hart, Lee, & Wernham, 2011). Children are on the way from entire dependence on persons caring for their well-being and development, to increasing and full responsibility for their goals, actions, and relationships. A critical and fragile unfolding of capacities and reason evolves during this process. Nevertheless, children are entitled to all rights which are ensured to every human being: respect for human dignity and identity, life with parents and family, consideration of best interests and views, access to health services and education, opportunity to play and cultural activities, and protection against violence, exploitation, and unfair treatment.

Looking Back Through History

The unprecedented broad level of acceptance of the Convention sends a strong signal underlining that the States of the world are willing to recognize children as human subjects with inalienable rights from the beginning of their lives. It would be naive to think that these rights would become a reality everywhere in the world overnight. We have to remember that the path to support for the conception that children are full members of human society with rights of their own and not just objects of benevolence or authoritarian decision has a long history, in which child rights activists had to fight against traditional views, prejudices, and material interests of enterprises, organizations, and institutions (Cunningham, 2005).

In the twentieth century, critics of children's mistreatment and exploitation, child-oriented pedagogues, lawyers, and social workers, were eventually heard by a larger public, when they pointed at the adverse conditions under which many children were raised in the various regions of the world. Among them were Eglantyne Jebb (the UK) and Janusz Korczak (Poland) in Europe and Bang Jung Hwan (Korea) and Toyohiko Kagawa (Japan) in Asia (Kerber-Ganse, 2015; Krappmann, 2013; Lee & Jung, 2015; Morita, 2013).

Eglantyne Jebb was the visionary for children and their human rights. She was an instrumental figure behind the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1924. The UN adopted a more comprehensive Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1959. Along with the UDHR, these declarations did not create binding obligations. Throughout the period of two decades after the UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child, voices incited the international community for an expanding debate about the need for an international legal instrument to define obligations in the juridical meaning. As there is no world government, such an instrument can only be a treaty adopted by autonomous states which deliberately accept the agreed responsibilities. In the context of the International Year of the Child in 1979, it finally became evident that it was the right time to discuss the notion of a human rights instrument devoted to children.

As mentioned earlier, it took 10 years for the international community to finally agree upon the Convention (OHCHR, 2007). The United Nations General Assembly finally adopted the Convention without dissent on November 20, 1989, shifting the paradigm for consideration of children. The birth of the Convention was an outcome of the will of governments and civil societies negotiating a treaty to end a charity orientation toward children. Of course, children need to grow up in an atmosphere of love, friendliness, happiness, and kind behaviors. But many prerequisites of children's good life and development, food, care, health, education, and participation, cannot be just a matter of benevolence, but rather a rightful entitlement and obligation of the State, parents, and the society.

The Convention demands from all State parties compliant legislation as well as measures and institutions, which respect, protect, and fulfill the stipulated rights. The Convention inspired the foundation and work of many child rights organizations around the world which act to remind the governments to accomplish what they have guaranteed to children. Certainly, the Convention has established the place of children's rights on the political agenda of states and international agencies and networks.

The Convention includes 41 substantive articles and 13 procedural and administrative articles. The Preamble makes note of the importance of traditions and cultural values and reaffirms the Charter of the United Nations that the child "should be prepared to live an individual life in society…and in particular in the spirit of peace, dignity, tolerance, freedom, equality, and solidarity" (OHCHR, 1989). A noteworthy aspect of the Convention is that it is the first human rights treaty that deals with civil and political rights together with social, cultural, and economic rights. The Convention sets the obligations enshrined within the legal obligation on States, thus beyond a moral obligation (see the commentaries on the Convention: Alen, Vande Lanotte, & Verhellen, Alen, Vande Lanotte, & Verhellen, 2005; Vuckovic, Doek, & Zermatten, 2012).

In terms of human rights, rights do not have a hierarchy. All of the rights enshrined in the Convention are indivisible, inalienable, and interdependent. The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (subsequently referred to as the Committee) identified four general principles which must always be regarded when actions bear on children: Nondiscrimination (Art. 2); best interests of the child (Art. 3); life, survival, and development (Art. 6 and 4); and respect for the views of the child (Art. 12). Children are to be considered in accordance with their "evolving capacities" (Art. 5), as active human beings, who have to cope with ever more complex tasks, sociocultural challenges, and institutional transitions.

Child Rights and Culture

Observers of the development of the human rights system have discussed whether human rights including child rights can be regarded as universal concepts to be applied across the diverse cultures, religions, and other traditions patterning lives of groups and societies. In fact, no government refused an obligation under the Convention with reference to cultural traditions, when the Committee examined the implementation of rights under the Convention. It was crucial that the language of the articles did not ask for approval of a philosophy of childhood or a value system prioritizing children but described basic requirements for children's life, well-being, and development. For an example of how the Convention deals with what are called harmful practices, see Article 24, para. 3. Such practices are regarded as harmful, when they hurt or impair children's real lives, health, capacity development, or social relationships. The articles avoid judging about the various religious or cultural worldviews behind these practices. The only basis for application is the respect for the child as a human being interacting with others in a shared cultural context, which is special and unique, but shall not damage the well-being, potentials, or best interests of the subject.

The drafters of the Convention were well aware of the cultural embedding of childhood and youth in all societies and cautiously paid attention to the language of respective articles to give leeway to different interpretations of responsibilities, obligations, and mutual support in various forms of family lives from extended kinship systems to the nuclear or one-parent family. So, for example, Article 5 stipulates to "respect the responsibilities, rights and duties of parents or, where applicable, the members of the extended family or community as provided for by local custom, legal guardians or other persons legally responsible for the child." To avoid additional and undue burden on States that do not have sufficient financial resources, Article 4 stipulates that "With regard to economic, social and cultural rights, States Parties shall undertake such measures to the maximum extent of their available resources and, where needed, within the framework of international co-operation."

Success, But Also Unsatisfactory Progress

After ratification of the Convention, States, to different extents, have initiated changes in many areas, for example, decrease of violence toward children, reduction of child and maternal mortality, extended health services, more access to education including access of girls, and more weight for the voices of children. To this end, laws were revised, institutions were established, and resources were expanded. Such changes are certainly not enough but constitute steps in the desired direction in spite of backlashes and catastrophes.

It is easily understood that child rights activists are not satisfied with the progress made in the past 30 years since the Convention came into force. Too many children live under disastrous conditions, are exploited, and are not heard. To further promote the implementation of the Convention, child rights organizations have established awareness-raising campaigns in many countries. Also encouraging are the training of professionals, for example, lawyers, medical staff, teachers, social workers, and law-enforcing staff, and the information given to parents who have to guide their children with regard to children's enjoyment of their fundamental rights, sometimes questioned in school, in the neighborhood, in the community, and also in the family, when conflicts or emergencies emerge. Nastasi and Naser (chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", this volume) address the training of school psychologists as child rights advocates.[3]

Monitoring Compliance to the Convention

Since the Convention is a legal text borne through an intergovernmental process, notably under the auspices of the United Nations, a committee to monitor compliance is stipulated in Article 43. This particular article created the Committee on the Rights of the Child (Committee), composed of 18 independent experts, coming from relevant disciplines and fields of activities, and who are not to act as representatives of their respective governments. The first Committee was formed in February of 1991. It began considering initial reports from States Parties from January of 1993 (Lee, 2010).

The primary task of the Committee is to monitor the implementation of the Convention and its additional Optional Protocols.[4] The main responsibility is the careful analysis of the reports, which State Parties to the Convention have to submit every 5 years on the progress made with regard to implementing the Convention. The vast majority send substantial reports, although often with some delay.[5] Most of these reports provide valuable information as to the current state of children's rights and frank self-evaluation of what are some of the reasons for delay in implementation. On the other hand, some of the reports give little information as to the actual facts and circumstances and also lack information on progressive implementation.

The Committee members look for and receive additional information about children's situations in the countries under consideration. Additional reports are regularly sent by nongovernmental organizations, the independent national human rights institution of the State under review, UN agencies, notably the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), if UNICEF runs programs in respective countries. These additional reports are discussed with delegates from these organizations. After soliciting and receiving information, the government is invited to a day of "dialogue" (or more accurately, scrutiny) by the Committee in Geneva. Based on the State Party report and additional materials, the Committee members are equipped to ask precise questions and make concise comments. The Committee summarizes its comments and concerns in a document called Concluding Observations which also contains recommendations about how to address deficient issues of implementation. Concluding Observations are public documents available from the website of the Committee.[6] Since the constituency of the Convention is the child, the Committee welcomes information submitted by children themselves (more information on this is provided in the next section).

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[3] See also the training manual provided as a resource for this volume on the Springer website.

[4] The Committee comes together for three 1-month sessions per year in Geneva (Switzerland). Members receive a per-diem remuneration of their expenditures during the months of work in Geneva, but no salary. Much work has to be done at home to prepare the dialogues with State Party Governments and other work of the Committee.

[5] As at July 2019 the Committee had received 551 State Party reports which inform about the implementation of the Convention and 119 reports which in form about the implementation of the Optional Protocol on Children in Armed Conflicts and 118 reports which inform about the implementation of the Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children. For more details see: UN Document A/74/231 (New York, 2019): https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N19/232/06/pdf/N1923206.pdf?OpenElement

Throughout the years of examining States Parties reports, it has become evident to the Committee that States needed more detailed interpretation of children's rights and guidance to better implementation. Thus, the Committee started to elaborate on specific rights and publish General Comments (GCs), which provide guidance and expert opinions on interpretation of rights and provisions of the Convention. The GCs are an instrument to give advice on how to cope with new developments or disregarded challenges, for example, expansion of early childhood institutions and their responsibility for a good start for all children into the educational system, rights of children outside their country of origin, and rights of children with disabilities. GCs provide advice to governments and civil society with regard to strengthening implementation efforts. The first of these General Comments (2001: see Appendix A) gave thorough explanations of Article 29 of the Convention under the title "The Aims of Education." Since then, 24 General Comments have been published. They provide high relevance for all professionals who work for and with children and care for their well-being and development (see list of GCs to date in Appendix A).

In an effort to address and discuss new and emerging issues at the global level, the Committee invites NGOs, human rights institutions, and UN agencies, such as UNICEF and UNHCR, to Days of General Discussion which take place either annually or biennially. The first Day of General Discussion was devoted to children and armed conflict. The discussions produced recommendations on many child rights issues (see list of topics to date in Appendix B).

Participation of Children in the Monitoring Process

Given the potential impact of the Convention on children and their rights to participation, the role of children in the monitoring system is critical. NGOs submitting reports to the Committee often quote children and include children in their delegations to Geneva, Switzerland. Children and children's organizations also send their own reports, which are encouraged by the Committee. The Committee arranges special meetings with children if they can come to Geneva, and children have access to Committee members with whom they wish to talk. Often the country rapporteur, the Committee member who prepares and directs the dialogue with the government of the State under review, meets with the children. The basis of this practice is stated in Article 12 of the Convention, enabling children to be true rights-holders and social agents with the right to be heard (OHCHR, 2014).

The Committee has no resources to support the involvement of children but has recently summed up the possibilities to establish closer cooperation with children in a memorandum addressed to organizations and foundations having the potential to facilitate and finance children's participation. Although the Committee often relies on internationally active nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and UNICEF to help fund children's travel to Geneva, information and communication technology (ICT) has been increasingly instrumental in allowing children to express their concerns without having to travel to Geneva.

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[6] Database for Concluding Observations issued by the Committee after the dialogue with a State Party: http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/TBSearch.aspx?Lang=en&TreatyID=5&TreatyID=10&TreatyID=11&DocTypeID=5

The Potential of a Public Dialogue

An expert committee and its monitoring procedure is the standard for all Conventions to push the responsible actors to more effective actions. Every word in the text of Conventions is negotiated down to the final dot. In so doing, the language gets compromised, and the rights originally intended are likely to get somewhat diminished. Governments negotiating the treaties do not want to give a strong mandate to a foreign body (here the UN) because they fear it may interfere with their national sovereignty. Henceforth, the monitoring body cannot judge any country and cannot demand States to make changes. They can only offer observations of concerns and recommendations. The Committee must try to convince the government to convert its commitment into definite reality. The UN activists call this kind of joint deliberation a "dialogue."

This procedure is criticized as a tool, which is too weak to effectively urge governments' stronger efforts. Nevertheless, one has to consider that the review of State Party reports takes place in front of a public audience in Geneva and is transmitted by webcams and Internet worldwide. This means that governments, except for the most authoritarian, must try to explain why the implementation process fell short and communicate which related steps they plan to undertake since they are also observed by political activists and child rights advocates from their home country. This unfolds in a six-hour dialogue that can sometimes be grueling from the perspective of the States. Furthermore, UNICEF and other organizations and foundations carefully listen to the presentations in order to make determinations about the fruitfulness of their previous and potential investments, in the form of assistance, in developing countries under review.

All monitoring committees including the Committee on the Rights of the Child have attempted to exert more pressure on governments to address gaps and speed up implementation. In order to keep child rights on the agenda, they ask governments to react to the recommendations by a comment or, even better, by an action plan. Governments, however, mostly refused to accept such suggestions indicating that the whole reporting procedure already is such a burden, in particular for States, which are Parties of many treaties. The Committee has proposed and achieved to some degree that reports more concisely focus on a limited number of child rights issues, which deserve priority in governmental activities. The Committee also encouraged activities aiming at a system of observations and indicator construction that could make the implementation process more transparent, thus strengthening the accountability of governments.

Certainly, the quality of the work of the Committee positively contributes to the acceptance of its recommendations. The members' professional background generally is jurisprudence, developmental psychology, pedagogy, sociology, medicine, and social work (and sporadically other disciplines); members are independent experts who are engaged in research, teaching, services for children, welfare, or civil society organizations, but do not work for the government; equitable geographical distribution is required. To guarantee independence and transparency, when an expert's country is under review, this expert does not participate at any stage of the monitoring process.

State Parties have the right to propose candidates for membership, which are elected for four-year terms by the assembly of State Parties and usually leave the Committee after two terms to give opportunities for new members. The work of the Committee members is supported by a rather small staff located in the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights in Geneva. The work of the Committee would be seriously hampered without targeted assistance received from UNICEF and some other international foundations and organizations. The NGOs are strong allies of the Committee since in their home countries, they remind the government and make the public aware of the conclusions and observations of the Committee. There is also an office in Geneva that organizes and supports NGO activities worldwide, by helping to bring their voices to the Committee and to bring them to Geneva for the Committee's Pre-Sessional Working Group. This is the time when the national NGOs have a chance to meet with the Committee and express their concerns. This meeting is held privately to ensure confidentiality and protection from reprisal.

The activities of all human rights committees and bodies take place under the umbrella of the Human Rights Council, an assembly of 47 elected UN member states, which has the official responsibility to promote and protect human rights in the world. The Human Rights Council strongly draws on the work of the committees and bodies when it runs its Universal Periodic Review of all UN member states. The Council appoints special rapporteurs, experts who do research and make reports on specific topics and, in this case, focus on special conflict areas or the implementations of specific human rights, for example, right to education, extreme poverty, sale of children, and other rights and freedoms. The Committee on the Rights of the Child cooperates with rapporteurs close to children's issues and with other human rights committees (e.g., the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the Committee on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women).

Status of the Convention in the States' Legal Systems

Most of the Governments demonstrate good will when the dialogue takes place in Geneva. In many countries, however, public statements in Geneva are not followed by consequent actions. What is the problem with more straightforward implementation? Successful implementation of the rights requires more than good will and a child-friendly attitude that subscribe to the spirit of the Convention. An effective implementation structure has to be established within the State, which consists of a well-functioning legal and administrative system and which can rely on adequate resources as stipulated by Article 4 of the Convention. According to respective statutory rules:

- Either the Convention will immediately become part of the national legal system by its ratification and hence can be invoked before court without further legislative procedures.
- The legislator of the State has to adopt new laws after ratification or harmonize existing laws in compliance with the provisions of the Convention, so that a child or her/his representative can refer to the respective law.

Both procedures of integrating the Convention into the legal system generate the same result at the end of the process. The second procedure may have the advantage that the review and adaptation of the entire legal system to assure consistency with the Convention require detailed scrutiny of all relevant issues in the legislative body, and the public has the opportunity to contribute to an enlightened implementation practice, when the legal base has been generated. This may last for many years, and in the meantime, judges and administrators may doubt whether they have to apply the rights under the Convention or not, even though orientation to an expected act of law is a professional habit of lawyers in general. Also, the fact that a State has already signed a Convention should incite an interpretation of legal conflicts by advocates and judges under consideration of international law developments.

In the event of the immediate integration of the Convention in its entirety into the legal system of a State by the act of ratification, children can directly claim their rights wherever they are relevant and in particular before courts. By and by, the practice of the different courts creates a shared understanding on how to realize children's rights. As courts have to decide individual cases, court orders will be sensitive with respect to specific aspects of the case, which is a positive result.

But it may take some time until a shared understanding emerges of what is expected by the Convention.

Self-Executing Rights of Children

According to common juridical opinion, some provisions of the Convention do not need an explicit legal confirmation, although it may be preferable for the sake of further enforcement. Provisions of the Convention that are self-executing in this sense include the following: (a) the right to nondiscrimination, (b) the right to primary consideration of a child's or children's best interest, (c) the right to life and development, and (d) the right of the child and children to be heard in matters which affect the child or children. What is meant is so understandable and so definitely established in ubiquitous practice that no legal clarification is needed before these rights can be implemented.

These four rights, called the general principles of the Convention, recapitulate the essence of the Convention: the underlying concept of the child as a respected member of the human society who must not be excluded from, but invited to, participation so that her or his mental, social, emotional, and spiritual capacities can evolve toward the child's personal well-being and society's advantage. From this point of view, active implementation and enjoyment of children's rights can start from the very moment of the State's accession to this human rights treaty. To listen to children, to seriously consider their best interests, to take account of their further development, and to make sure that no child is left behind or out are necessary in all situations. It is important to make this requirement clear to everybody who figures in children's lives.

Human Rights: Customary Law in All Settings?

The observation articulated in the preceding section stimulates the query whether many, if not all, rights of the Convention on the Rights of the Child belong to customary international law and, therefore, have to be implemented not because of the formal ratification of the Convention by the State but as an integral part of customary human right. Customary international law comprises rules which are derived from consistent conduct of States and applied with the conviction that these rules have binding characters (Treves, 2006). Many of the requirements for well-being and development of children have long been established (*diuturnitas*) with conviction that such actions or measures must be provided for children (*opinio juris*). Otherwise, consent on the Convention in the drafting working group and the General Assembly could not have been achieved.

Such juridical considerations should incite States, which did not or could not accede the Convention (e.g., the USA, Taiwan, Palestine, Kosovo, or North Cyprus), to de facto orient their child politics and measures to the rights of the child specified in the Convention. It is apparent that the USA has a long record of events, measures, and laws which refer to children's laws, and it is assumed that the adjourned ratification is motivated more by general considerations about the sovereignty of the State and its federal structure than by a humiliating view of the child.

Mutual Enhancement of Children's and Parents' Rights

When the ratification of the Convention was at stake, debates in many States focused on the responsibilities of parents and the duties of children to respect and support parents and family. On the one hand, the idea that children have unconditional rights, which have to be observed also by parents, is obvious in modern social life. On the other hand, this idea still excites traditional fears against full inclusion of children in decisions concerning them: Don't they lack knowledge and experience and are likely to be misled and victimized? It was also feared that children, who learn about their rights, feel encouraged to oppose parental guidance and deny contributing to care and maintenance. Parental rights would be threatened and disciplining children would become very difficult. Many had feared that once rights are given to the child, they will become unruly and run around wild, with promiscuous behaviors.

From social history, we know that once undisputed authority of the father or the clan chief was functional for surviving, while today the recognition of every person's share of responsibility is essential in times with daily changes or challenges posed by new developments and situations. This is the sociopsychological base of the rights of children to be respected as a human being endowed with capacities, which evolve in dialogue and interaction with persons who advise and guide children in view of their awarded rights. The Convention has definitely shifted the paradigm toward viewing children as citizens and rights-holders with the right to take part in the shaping of their own development, according to their age and level of maturity (Lee, 2010).

The reflections expressed in this section generated the language of Article 5 of the Convention, which acknowledges parental rights together with their explicit responsibility for assisting the development of a capable, free, and responsible personality of the young human being. Thus, the Committee provides a strong basis for a constructive dialogue between the generations (Krappmann & Luescher, 2011). This conception in principle prevails worldwide, although still some social groups put emphasis on different aspects of children's participation in and contribution to shared activities and tasks. Yet, it is hard to foresee the survival of cultural traditions that do not foster children's self-reliant competence and faculty of judgment.

The Essential Role of School

Teachers and caregivers of schools and day care centers are in a particularly crucial role with regard to children's rights and the creation of a world in which people of all origins cooperate in freedom, justice, and peace (see the Preamble of the Convention with reference to the Charter of the United Nations). The Convention dedicates two articles to children's rights to education, Articles 28 and 29. Deliberations and activities often focus on Article 28, para. 1, emphasizing the universal school attendance and insistence on measures taken by the State, to ensure schools on all levels are made available and accessible (free on the primary and secondary level). The content of the school curricula is mostly left aside, although Article 29, para. 1, requires a strict child-centered and human rights-directed orientation of the education. Education was deemed most important to the Committee, and, therefore, it devoted its first General Comment to "Aims of Education."

According to the Convention, education must be comprehensive, that is, education has to be "directed to the development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential" (Art. 29, para. 1(a)). The State Parties have furthermore agreed that educational institutions generate "respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations" (Art. 29, para. 1(b)), and the following sections of Article 29, para. 1, detail this aim. Moreover, State Parties have to guarantee that, in the case of conflict of a child with behavioral rules, the disciplinary measures "are administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity" (Art. 28, para. 2).

Such educational goals cannot be achieved by verbal instruction only. Children should be actively involved in human rights issues, which are present in many schools and have to be dealt with and overcome together with the children of the classroom or the school community, for example, through inclusion of children of different origin without any discrimination, prevention of bullying, gender equality, non-humiliating assistance to children who make mistakes, participation of children in relevant decisions, reasonable use of water and other scarce resources, service-learning programs, etc. All of these issues have to be part of an education oriented to "the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society" as stipulated by Article 29 of the Convention (Krappmann, 2016). It is obvious that close cooperation with children's parents is essential and required. It is essential that the curriculum is stimulating and interesting for children but also necessary that the school environment is child rights respecting.

Critical Issues and Prospects

Even 30 years after the adoption of the Convention, there is no doubt that children still do not fully enjoy their rights. The Convention, its Committee, States Parties, and civil societies everywhere in the world are continuously confronted with unsolved, increased, and new challenges. Persistent resistance, challenges, and new and emerging dilemmas are seen as barriers to the full realization of rights. War and armed conflicts, hunger and unemployment, supremacy of the business sector, intolerance and hatred, migrations, escape from prosecution, and displacement have heavy consequences for millions of children and their enjoyment of rights. Also new developments in science and technology have massively changed children's conditions of life and growing up (e.g., reproduction medicine, endangered environments, climate change, life rhythms, nutrition, digital communication, and increased mobility, inter alia).

The first 20 years of the Convention saw progressive changes in the lives of children. As mentioned earlier, States became active in adopting or harmonizing national legislations to comply with the Convention. Constitutions were changed to include the fundamental rights of children. More resources were allocated to education, health, and social services for children. Bodies, institutions, and offices of children's commissioners were created to implement rights of children, at least in several domains. However, recent years have demonstrated how easily such a positive agenda can be frustrated and confined by austerity politics, international economic competition, or public insecurity.

In some societies, children are being viewed as violent, delinquent, or insufficiently achievement oriented, warranting stricter control and more punitive laws. One clear example of regression is the recurring debates in several countries on lowering of the minimum age of criminal responsibility and the age of marriage. Such measures misconceive that the Convention focuses on mutual respect, intergenerational dialogue, and shared responsibility in order to agree on rules of conduct and constructive roles in family, social group, and society. This understanding highlights that the Convention is an instrument promoting the prevention of deviation and impairment of others and self.

Undoubtedly, still, the Convention is a good fundament for all efforts to be undertaken to ensure consideration of children's best interests and participation. Additional expertise and vigor, however, must be mobilized in the child rights movement to deal with the abundance of tasks and to achieve closer cooperation with other actors and agencies. A significant frame for all activities has to be the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the United Nations adopted in September 2015, since the full realization of child rights is dependent on and also has to contribute to the implementation of the goals specified in the Agenda (see Appendix C for a list of the 17 SDGs).

Certainly, fundamental structural reforms are required, but also needed are competent and responsible people who can use the new ways of problem solving to create good life conditions for everybody. More than ever, accountability must become an integral part of State responsibility. As the saying goes, "the road to hell is paved with all good intentions." Good intentions and political declarations are necessary, but they are not enough. Actions or inactions must be measured against the promises made by the State and against its accepted human rights obligations.

The Committee of the Rights of the Child must not give up strengthening the implementation efforts of States and civil societies. In this regard, a strategic point is the dialogue with the governments. Consultations and debates between States Party governments and the Committee cannot acquire the quality of an effective dialogue when they take place every 5–10 years, when usually members of a government and the Committee have changed. More focused reviews, timely feedback, and direct responses of greater continuity are needed, which is possible only when the work capacity of the Committee is expanded. Additionally, more regional and international cooperation would be instrumental in overcoming impediments, since child rights issues such as migration and child sexual exploitation are often not a national problem only.

Such improvements would be facilitated if the Convention on the Rights of the Child were to become known and well understood by everybody who lives and works with children. School is the institution and environment which is experienced by most (unfortunately not all) young people in the world. This fact once more underlines the role of school in the endeavors to make life more free, just, and peaceful.

Appendix A: A General Comments Adopted by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child

No.	General Comment	Year
1	The aims of education[a]	2001
2	The role of independent national human rights institutions in the protection and promotion of the rights of the child	2002
3	HIV/AIDS and the rights of the child	2003
4	Adolescent health and development in the context of the convention on the rights of the child	2003
5	General measures of implementation of the convention on the rights of the child	2003
6	Treatment of unaccompanied and separated children outside their country of origin	2005
7	Implementing child rights in early childhood[a]	2005
8	The right of the child to protection from corporal punishment and other cruel or degrading forms of punishment (arts. 19; 28, Para. 2; and 37, inter alia)a	2006
9	The rights of children with disabilities[a]	2006
10	Children’s rights in juvenile justice	2007
11	Indigenous children and their rights under the convention	2009
12	The rights of the child to be heard[a]	2009
13	The right of the child to freedom from all forms of violence[a]	2011
14	The right of the child to have his or her best interests taken as a primary consideration (Art. 3, Para. 1)[a]	2013
15	The right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health (art. 24)	2013
16	State obligations regarding the impact of the business sector on children’s rights	2013
17	The right of the child to rest, leisure, play, recreational activities, cultural life and the arts (art. 31)[a]	2013
18	Joint general recommendation/general comment no. 31 of the committee on the elimination of discrimination against women and no. 18 of the committee on the rights of the child on harmful practices[a]	2014
19	Public budgeting for the realization of children’s rights (art. 4)	2016
20	The implementation of the rights of the child during adolescence	2016
21	Children in street situations	2017
22	Context of International Migration: States parties’ obligations in particular with respect to countries of transit and destination	2017
23	Context of International Migration: General Principles	2017
24	Children’s rights in the child justice system	2019

All *General Comments* can be downloaded from the webpage of the OHCHR: http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/TBSearch.aspx?Lang=en&TreatyID=5&DocTypeID=11

[a] Relevance to the school setting

Appendix B: Topics of the Day of General Discussion

Topic	Year
Children in armed conflict	1992
Economic exploitation	1993
Role of the family	1994
Juvenile justice	1995
The girl child[a]	1995
The child and the media	1996
Children with disabilities[a]	1997
HIV/AIDS[a]	1998
10th anniversary: General measures of implementation	1999
State violence against children	2000
Violence against children within the family and in school[a]	2001
The private sector as a service provider	2002
The rights of indigenous children	2003
Implementing child rights in early childhood[a]	2004
Children without parental care	2005
The right of the child to be heard[a]	2006
Resources for the rights of the child – Responsibility of states	2007
The right of the child to education in emergency situations[a]	2008
Children of incarcerated parents	2011
The rights of all children in the context of international migration	2012
Digital media and children's rights[a]	2014
Children's rights and the environment[a]	2016

All recommendations issued on the base of the debates in the *Days of General Discussion* can be downloaded from the webpage of the OHCHR: http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRC/Pages/DiscussionDays.aspx

[a] Relevance to the school setting

Appendix C: Sustainable Development Goals

Goal number	Goal
1	No poverty
2	Zero hunger
3	Good health and Well-being
4	Quality education
5	Gender equality
6	Clean water and sanitation
7	Affordable and clean energy
8	Decent work and economic growth
9	Industry, innovation and infrastructure
10	Reduced inequalities
11	Sustainable cities and communities
12	Responsible consumption and production
13	Climate action
14	Life below water
15	Life on land
16	Peace, justice and strong institutions
17	Partnerships for the goals

The *Sustainable Development Goals* can be found and downloaded from the webpage of the UNDP: http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/sustainable-development-goals.html

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Part II

Child Rights and School Psychology

The Roles and Responsibilities of the School Psychologist in Promoting Child Rights

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Abstract

The chapter discusses the roles and responsibilities of the school psychologist in their commitment to promote child rights and well-being on individual and system levels. The school psychologist's roles that are explored include assessment, individual and group intervention, consultation, research and evaluation, and advocacy. Furthermore, the chapter highlights the school psychologists' unique position as advocates for child rights in education. Finally, concrete guidelines about school psychologists' future roles in the implementation of children's rights are presented.

In the past decade, significant gains have been made in promoting children's rights by ensuring equal access to education for children around the world. Latest estimates have indicated that almost 90% of the world's children ages 4–12 years are attending primary school and 60% of children ages 12–15 years are attending secondary school (United Nations International Emergency Children's Fund, UNICEF, 2012). While access to education has increased for children around the world, quality of education varies, and many traditional school systems fail to incorporate child rights into their school policy and practice. An example of school practices that often violate child rights is discipline systems. One such discipline system is zero-tolerance policies which inherently ignore a child's right to participation, instead relying on blanket rules without consideration for the individual's needs or perspectives. The United Nations (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention) promotes discipline in schools that respect the child's dignity (Art. 28). Zero-tolerance policies act in direct contrast to the Convention's assertions. Other examples of discipline strategies that inherently ignore child rights are corporal punishment and exclusionary discipline strategies.

The purpose of the chapters encompassed in section "Current Roles and Responsibilities of the School Psychologist" (*Child Rights and School Psychology*; Chapters 5–10) is to highlight the unique position school psychologists can hold in promoting and protecting child rights in the school setting and within the daily practice of a school psychologist. Chapter authors argue that doing so results in improved school, ethical practice, and child outcomes. This chapter serves as an introduction to this section by establishing a shared understanding of the work school

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psychologists are called to do and how child rights can be incorporated in the traditional roles a school psychologist plays. The chapter begins with a brief historical review of the professional field of school psychology, which leads into detailed descriptions of the various current roles and responsibilities of school psychologists. The roles of school psychologists with potential to impact the realization of child rights are described in the chapter and include assessment, individual and group intervention, consultation, research and evaluation, and advocacy. The chapter then highlights how school psychologists protect and advocate for children's rights in their professional practice with a specific focus on the rights of participation (Art. 12) and education (Art. 28 and 29). The chapter concludes with an example case study and explicit guidelines for school psychologists' future efforts in implementing and advocating for children's rights.

Historical Review of the Practice of School Psychology

School psychology is a relatively young field. In the chapters in this section, the readers are exposed to the breadth of work for which the school psychologist is trained and prepared. While historically psychologists working in education have focused largely on assessment services, today's school psychologists wear many hats. Over time, school psychology professionals have attempted to codify what it means to be a school psychologist, and the defined "hats" continue to evolve. The first acknowledged mention of school psychology as a discipline occurred in 1896 with establishment of a psychological clinic by Lightner Witmer at the University of Pennsylvania in the United States. The purpose of the clinic was to assist teachers in understanding problems that inhibit a child's learning in school. The creation of Witmer's laboratory occurred in conjunction with the establishment of Sir Francis Galton's laboratory devoted to studying individual differences and aiding local schools in classifying pupils. The significance of these practices was enhanced by the emerging political and social climate occurring after reconstruction and industrialization, the implementation of compulsory education in the United States, and the emergence of stronger educational and scientific tools around the world (Merrell, Ervin, & Peacock, 2011).

One scientific tool that paved the way for school psychology was the creation of the Binet-Simon Scale in 1905. Mental ability testing (now known as intelligence testing) quickly gained popularity after World War I. Proponents of mental ability testing claimed they could determine with relative accuracy a person's intelligence and therefore the person's future performance possibilities and success. Furthermore, it was believed that this test would determine how educable a child was and assumed that those who were determined as having low mental ability could not be changed through educational methods. Proponents of this movement strongly believed that intelligence was inherited and largely fixed. Due to the use of intelligence (IQ) tests in school and school psychologists' roles in testing, the profession has long been linked with assessment and the IQ testing movement.

Although assessment has historically been the primary role for school psychologists, this has changed over time. The title of school psychologist often encompasses a myriad of responsibilities. In fact, when school psychology training programs began in the 1920s, expanding throughout the 1930s, the role of psychology in the schools was unregulated, and those practicing psychology in the schools often engaged in a multitude of activities under many different titles such as psychological examiner, psychometrician, and psychoclinician. The varied roles of the school psychologist were first described by Gertrude Hildreth in the 1930 publication, *Psychological Service for School Problems*. This book emphasized collaboration among those responsible for the child in supporting the child, thoughtful use of data to determine student needs, and inclusion of the child in decisions regarding them. In the preface of the book, Hildreth writes "The education process implies, on the one hand, modification to be made in child behavior and all that is involved in pupil instructions; on the other, the child himself and all that is involved in learning. Too generally the child has been subordinated in the process" (p. IV). More recently, although assessment continues to describe a significant portion of the typical work of a psychologist in the schools, that work has expanded to include other roles such as consultation (Merrell et al., 2011).

Thomas Fagan, a prominent school psychologist and primary historian of the field, divides the history of school psychology into two parts (Fagan & Wise, 2007). First were the hybrid years of 1890–1969, when school psychology was beginning to develop and grow alongside psychology as a general practice. One example of this was the 1956 recommendation of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) that the field of psychology should take a greater role in the promotion of effective education, particularly by training and employing a larger number of school psychologists around the world (UNESCO Institute for Education, 1956). Fagan frames the next distinct period, from 1970 to the present time, as that during which school psychology has been making progress toward functioning as its own unique field and developing professionally with the establishment of professional organizations such as the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) in 1969 and the strengthening of the American Psychological Association's Division of School Psychology (APA's Division 16).

Although historical documentation on the development of psychology as a whole has been well established in North America, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and Germany, until recently there has been less focus on documenting the history of psychology more globally (Jimerson, Oakland, & Farrell, 2007). Often overlooked is the development of psychology in Italy, Spain, Argentina, Lebanon, and India, for example (Pickren, 2009). This remains true when looking at the history and development of school psychology (Pickren, 2009). To bring broader attention to the global need and initiatives behind school psychology and to facilitate communication between school psychologists across continents, the International School Psychology Committee (ISPC) met in September of 1972, at a meeting of the APA. The goals of this organization were to facilitate communication between school psychologists internationally and to advocate for best practices in school psychology in order to increase the effectiveness of school psychology and education more generally. The need for an international entity to connect school psychologists was evident in ISPC's quick growth, and its development into today's International School Psychology Association (ISPA) which works closely with international child-focused organizations like the United Nations, and from which the journal *School Psychology International* was born. Though this journal is no longer connected to ISPA, it maintains a mission to promote school psychology research internationally. The official journal of ISPA is the *International Journal of School and Educational Psychology*, whose first volume of work was released in 2013.

Jimerson et al. (2007) identified 76,100 school psychologists in 48 different countries with the largest number of school psychologists hailing from the United States, followed by Turkey. ISPA provides a set of ethical and professional standards to help provide a basis for school psychologists across these physical, cultural, linguistic, and historical geographies. The common underlying practices of school psychologists globally have been captured by a set of surveys asking school psychologists to indicate how they spent their day. While there was some variability across countries in the percentage of time spent engaging in each task daily, there remains a generally consistent profile of participants spending at least some time each day conducting assessment, consultation, direct counseling or intervention, and training (Jimerson et al., 2007; Jimerson, Sharkey, Nyborg, & Furlong, 2004). Surprisingly, participants reported spending significantly less time than predicted on assessment activities (Jimerson et al., 2004). This might partially be explained by a general movement away from a deficit model of understanding to a more preventative and holistic approach as best practices in school psychology.

Current Roles and Responsibilities of the School Psychologist

Professional and practice standards and models have been codified by different professional organizations in school psychology over time (e.g., International School Psychology Association and Child Rights Education for Professionals, ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010; Nastasi, 2010; NASP, 2010b; Rodolfa et al., 2005; Ysseldyke et al., 2006). These guiding documents outline several main functions of school psychologists: assessment, consultation, intervention and prevention, research and evaluation, and advocacy. Although the functions or roles of the school psychologist appear to be mutually exclusive, they are interrelated and intended to be mutually supportive and synergistic. Throughout this book, the role of the school psychologist is referred to as the *mesosystem* in reference to the Child Rights Ecology Model (see Fig. 1), where the mesosystem represents the intersectional nature of the different system influences on a child's life. Figure 1 represents the school psychologist's role as a change agent across many systems, including child as a system within him/herself, school, family, child peer groups, and community, all within the greater context of the child's country and universal child rights (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010; Tulane Child Rights Team, TUCRT, 2013). This figure illustrates the potentially wide reach of school psychologists across the child's ecology which has implications for the school psychologist's responsibilities and contributions.

Although the task of reaching out across ecological systems to support children may seem daunting, school psychologists have multiple connections and spheres of service and influence that can facilitate this work. As part of this mesosystem role, school psychologists specifically have the advantage of being surrounded by others who have chosen to work in education. Therefore, collaborations both within the discipline and across disciplines can create a larger impact than shouldering these responsibilities alone. A brief description of the various roles and responsibilities of the school psychologist with regard to assess-

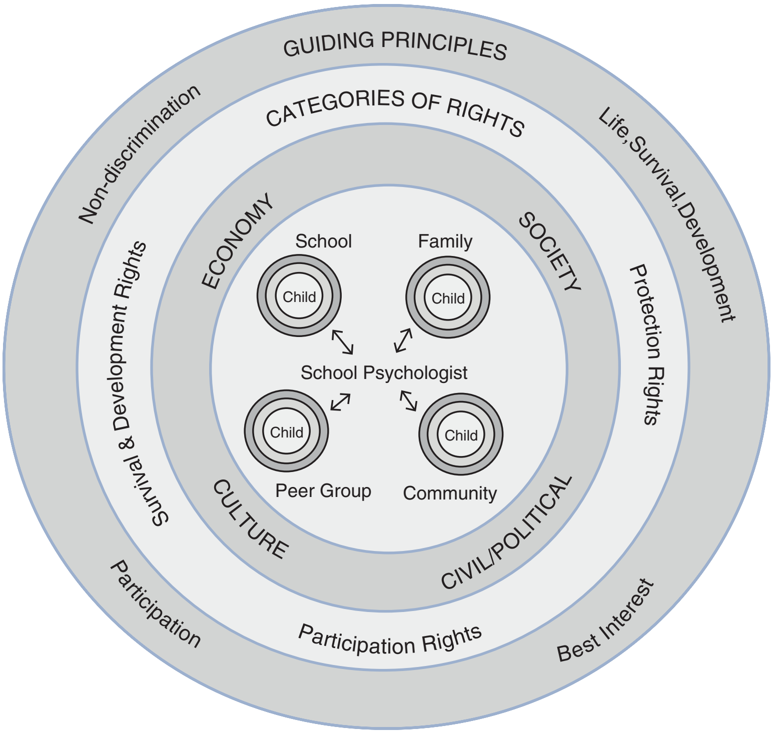
GUIDING PRINCIPLES
Non-discrimination
Life,Survival,Development
Best Interest
Participation
CATEGORIES OF RIGHTS
Survival & Development Rights
Protection Rights
Participation Rights
ECONOMY
SOCIETY
CIVIL/POLITICAL
CULTURE
School
Family
Child
Child
School Psychologist
Child
Child
Peer Group
Community

Fig. 1 Child rights ecology model. This model introduces the school psychologists as a part of the mesosystem functionally, bringing together the different systems represented in the microsystem around a child (previously depicted as Fig. 2.1, Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume)

ment, direct and indirect service delivery, research and evaluation, and advocacy follows.

Assessment

Assessment is one of the most important roles of the school psychologist, given its potential impact on the other roles of the professional, such as intervention and consultation (Kosher, Jiang, Ben-Arieh, & Huebner, 2014). Assessment is one way to better understand the ecological systems surrounding a child and how those systems impact child well-being. According to Fagan and Wise (2007), assessment involves gathering important data through the observation of the child, classroom observations, examination of school records, interviews of parents, teachers or other adults working with the child, the administration of standardized assessment measures, the scoring and interpretation of assessment results, and report writing. Assessments should be multifaceted and comprehensive (i.e., using multiple sources and instrumentation focused on multiple factors/domains), fair, valid, and beneficial to the child's well-being (Sattler, 2008). An assessment also involves providing feedback of the results and communicating intervention recommendations to parents; teachers and other professionals who care for, work with, and/or treat the child; and to the child of interest.

The purposes of conducting assessments are manifold. For instance, Nastasi and Varjas (2013) describe the goal of assessment as the bedrock of decision-making around intervention and prevention efforts. Whereas traditionally school psychologists have been asked to do individual assessments of psychoeducational functioning for children and adolescents, and this remains an important role, school psychologists are also trained to gather data at a classroom and school-wide level to inform best practices (NASP, 2010a). In fact, the response-to-intervention (RTI) model and multitiered system of support (MTSS) are being touted as powerful tools for implementing prevention and mental health promotion models. Moreover, these models rely on data-based decision-making, including school-wide assessment of student strengths and needs, to guide the direction and scope of RTI and MTSS efforts (Ardoin, Witt, Connell, & Koenig, 2005).

Direct Service Through Prevention and Intervention

Intervention and prevention efforts are the next step once assessment has been conducted. According to Nastasi and Varjas (2013), intervention and prevention involve developing and implementing evidence-based practices to support a child's physical and emotional well-being and to improve learning on an individual and/or system level. Consistent with the Convention's depiction of child well-being and health particularly (Arts. 17, 27, and 32), assessment and intervention services should facilitate development of the whole child, encompassing cognitive, physical, social, spiritual, and moral health.

Intervention, prevention, and wellness promotion planning is another core duty of a school psychologist that requires working across ecological systems, with child participation. Through data collection, as well as co-planning with children, families, and school personnel, school psychologists are trained to use evidence-based practices to address unique social, emotional, learning, and developmental needs (Jimerson et al., 2004). In planning programming for individual children, or at the classroom/school level, school psychologists should consider the range of expertise and competencies of other professionals, including other school psychologists, occupational therapists, speech pathologists, and other school-based mental health providers to strengthen program planning.

School psychologists can apply their knowledge of the link between mental health and academic, social, and career success to program planning as they consult with teachers. When teachers feel ill-equipped to handle student behavior, the student is often referred to other school personnel to remove the child from the classroom (Walker, Carta, Greenwood, & Buzhardt, 2008). A strong body of evidence indicates that this system of behavioral referral is both reactive and subjective, resulting in the perpetuation of discrimination practices in schools and rerouting youth from prevention and intervention efforts to more punitive discipline practices (Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2000). School psychologists can help to break this cycle by refocusing efforts on early intervention and prevention services though response-to-intervention systems for behavior, application of social and emotional learning programs, teacher-student relationship building activities, child rights promotion programs, and positive behavioral interventions and supports (Jimerson et al., 2004).

Indirect Services Through Consultation

Consultation is broadly defined as a process by which a professional enters into a collaborative, nonhierarchical relationship with another individual or individuals, in an attempt to solve a work-related problem. For school psychologists, this can involve working with an entire school district, a single school, a classroom, or a single case to resolve the immediate problem. Long-term goals of consultation consist of equipping the consultee with the tools and skills they need in order to prevent future problems and respond more effectively to current ones (Gutkin & Curtis, 2009).

The role of school psychologist as consultant is rapidly expanding; there is an international trend in school psychology toward consultation and problem-solving activities (Wilkinson, 2006). The shifting emphasis from assessment to consultation mirrors the worldwide shift from a deficit model of understanding youth functioning toward intervention, prevention, and mental health promotion efforts. One barrier to effective consultation is that the school psychologist and consultee bring different levels and types of expertise to the table. In addition, the school psychologist is called upon to navigate the multiple ecological systems of a child, while a consultee may only be embedded in one or two of these contexts. A consultant with good interpersonal skills, using a collaborative approach to consultation, can navigate the differences in experiences of the consultant and consultees and differences among the individual consultees. In fact, much of the success of consultation hinges on the ability of the consultant to foster trust and understanding with and among the consultees (Brown, Pryzwansky, & Schulte, 2005). Without this trust and understanding, the consultees might be more reticent to make changes and adhere to interventions.

Research and Evaluation

Nastasi and Varjas (2013) define research and evaluation in school psychology as applying research methods (e.g., quantitative, qualitative, single-case designs) to understand resilience and risk factors that influence child well-being. The school psychologist's research and evaluation skills are necessary for addressing questions about factors impacting youth functioning and for developing interventions, monitoring progress, and evaluating program effectiveness. School psychologists are trained to apply these skills across ecological systems in daily practice or through employment as a researcher or program evaluator.

Research methodologies can help to examine the state of child rights application, particularly for historically marginalized communities, and to identify the needs of students and culturally relevant responses. Certain research methodologies such as participatory action research incorporate collaboration with important stakeholders including children, teachers, parents, and others impacted by the research question. Research methodologies are varied and therefore provide tools that can be used in a broad range of ways to ensure effective inquiry and response.

Research methods uniquely important to school psychologists are those relevant to developing and evaluating school-based programming. When called to consult on a new social-emotional learning program in a school, for example, school psychologists can use their knowledge of research and evaluation to assess school needs, choose an evidence-based program or create a program using evidence-based strategies, and continuously or periodically monitor the effectiveness of this program over time (Morrison & Harms, 2018).

School psychologists employed in university programs, or in other research-oriented positions, can collaborate with schools and school-based mental health professionals. University and school partnerships have the potential to bring two partners together to solve common problems, with access to greater resources than either working alone (Marrison & Harms, Morrison & Harms, 2018). Historically, university-school partnerships have been defined by the needs of the researcher and the research question that the researcher provided (Walsh, Andersson, & Smyer, 1999). However, more recent research strategies emphasize a two-way relationship where the research questions are shaped by both the researcher's ideas and the school's needs. For example, Bell, Summerville, Nastasi, Patterson, and Earnshaw (2015) describe a project using the Participatory Culture-Specific Intervention Model (PCSIM; Nastasi , Moore, & Varjas, 2004; Nastasi, Varjas, Sarkar, & Jayasena, Nastasi, Varjas, Sarkar, & Jayasena, 1998), a paradigm informed by action research ideologies, in building multitiered systems of support in a kindergarten through second-grade school. Researchers emphasized key stakeholder involvement, with two school personnel being listed as authors on the manuscript.

Advocacy

As detailed in previous sections of this chapter, school psychologists have many skills to support student and school growth by working across ecological systems. In general, school psychologists have the potential to address both individual student needs and school culture. However, this work happens within a greater social, political, and legislative system that dictates what does and does not get funded in education. School psychologists can find themselves supported by local, state, or federal laws, such as those pertaining to positive behavior support, but also find themselves limited by policies that require high-stakes testing. Advocacy entails engaging in actions to promote the development and/or implementation of policies and practices to protect and promote children's well-being, learning, and development at all levels of the social ecology (microsystem, exosystem, macrosystem, mesosystem; Nastasi & Varjas, 2013). Advocacy in the best interest of the child is an essential function for school psychologists as it impacts the context in which all other work is done. (Readers are referred to chapters "Child Rights, Policy, and School Psychology" and "Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists" in this volume which address policy and advocacy, by Larrazolo and Wernham, respectively.)

Collaboration

As shown in Fig. 2, the work of a school psychologist is undertaken through many roles, across multiple systems in a child's life. At the core of this work are the child and the best interests of the child as proclaimed in professional standards and the Convention. School psychologists can rarely address the needs of a child without collaboration within and across these systems. Inherent in the work of a school psychologist is drawing in other school personnel (i.e., school psychologists, occupational therapists, teachers), community and family members, and the child in relationship to all roles. The skills of the school psychologist can be significantly magnified by collaborative work, which is invaluable in promoting the best interests of the child in school-based support services such as psychoeducational assessment, consulting with teachers and families, developing school programs for health and wellness and academic success, and helping shape the narrative around education at the local, state, and national levels.

The Convention provides a common language to use in these collaborative efforts, one which requires that the child has a place of prominence in decision-making. While the Convention provides excellent guidelines for child-centered language that relates broadly to professional

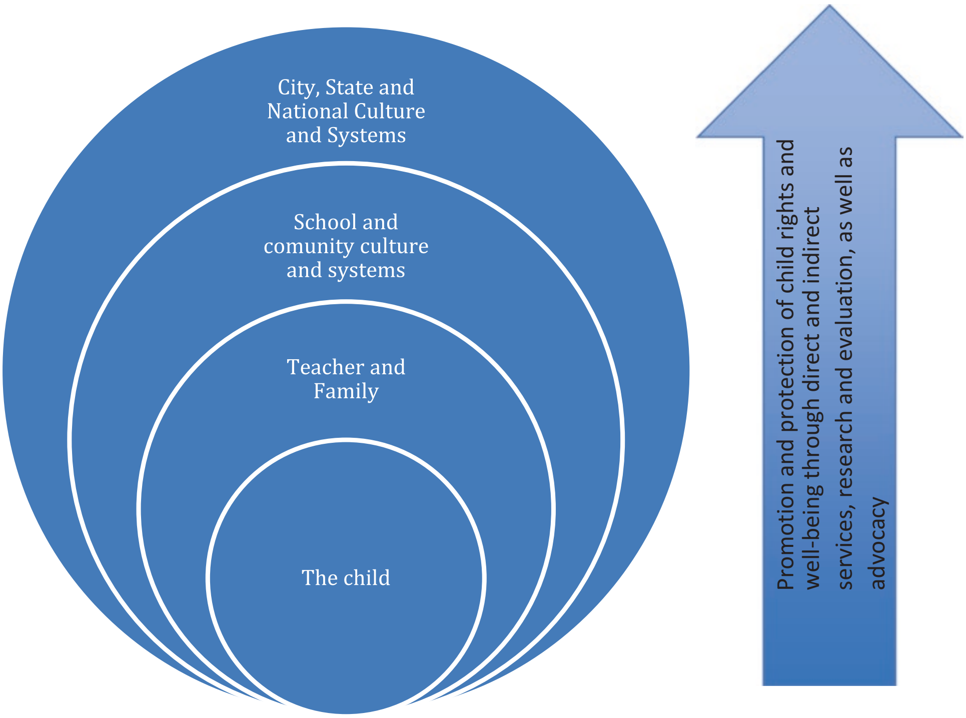
City, State and National Culture and Systems
School and comunity culture and systems
Teacher and Family
The child
Promotion and protection of child rights and well-being through direct and indirect services, research and evaluation, as well as advocacy

Fig. 2 Promotion and protection of child rights and well-being across relevant systems. This figure represents the many systems a school psychologist must attend to in advocating for child rights and child well-being

standards, there are specific articles that are of high priority to school psychologists including those related to access to education (Art. 28) and child participation (Art. 12). The following section focuses on defining these important rights and their relevance to school psychology practice.

School Psychologists and Child Rights

School psychologists are trained to fill a myriad of functions in the school setting and provide a range of invaluable services. One framework for practice that can facilitate the work of school psychologists addresses the primary purpose of school psychology as supporting the healthy development of children (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). No matter what system a school psychologist is working in, who a school psychologist is collaborating with, or what role a school psychologist is engaging in, the school psychologist's work is done in the name of promoting and improving health outcomes for children. The Convention highlights the necessary contexts for healthy child growth and development and does so in a way that is culturally responsive, is internationally relevant, and aligns well with professional standards for school psychologists. For this reason, the Convention has been endorsed by major psychology professional associations such as the American Psychological Association (APA), the International School Psychology Association (ISPA), the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), and APA's Division 16 (Hart & Hart, 2014; Nastasi & Naser, 2014; see also Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume).

The articles of the Convention outline two necessary ideas for putting children first: protection from harm and promotion of health. For example, Articles 19 and 36 state that children (defined as individuals under 18 years of age) are to be protected from harm and abuse, and Article

27 notes that they are to be provided with food and shelter. The Convention also takes into account promotion of healthy child development not just from a perspective of surviving physically but thriving physically and mentally. For example, Article 12 notes that children should have a voice in matters that affect them and have the right to develop into successful adults (Art. 4 and 6; Alaimo & Klug, 2002; Freeman, 1998; Partridge, 2005; UNICEF, 2002). All articles of the Convention are related to four guiding principles, nondiscrimination (Art. 2), best interests (Art. 3), participation (Art. 12), and survival and development (Art. 6), and three general categories of rights, survival and development, protection, and participation (UNICEF, 2011).

The entirety of the rights outlined in the Convention applies to the work of school psychologists in all their diverse roles and settings. The rights to participation (Art. 12) and education (Arts. 28 and 29) are particularly important, as school psychologists are faced with issues relating to students' learning and school participation processes daily. For example, as stated in the NASP (2012) Position Statement on Child Rights, Articles 28 and 29 on education are important to school psychologists because they outline what the purpose of education should be and what a healthy school context looks like. Article 28 establishes the child's right to access free, quality primary education in a well-run school that promotes discipline practices that respect the safety and dignity of each child (Kosher et al., 2014; Scherer & Hart, 1999). In addition to highlighting primary education, Article 28 states that children should be encouraged to continue to the highest level of education of which they are capable. While Article 28 focuses on access, Article 29 asserts that the role of education is to promote full development of human potential, respect for human rights and diverse cultural backgrounds, and individual responsibility within a free society. Article 29 also outlines the goals of education, including development of a child's personality, talents, and unique abilities. More specifically, Article 29 states that the goal of education should be to teach children to respect the rights of others and to encourage children to live in peace, protect their environment, and respect other people's cultures (Kosher et al., 2014).

Other articles in the Convention, while not addressing the school setting specifically or education more generally, provide guidelines for supporting healthy child development (Naser, Nastasi, & Mulser, 2014). For example, the Convention charges adults to build environments where children feel protected, they are free from any harm (Art. 19, particularly), their voices are respected, and they participate in decision-making processes in a way that is developmentally appropriate (Art. 12). Implementation of the child's rights to education implores adults who are involved in children's lives, such as parents, teachers, and other caretakers, to respect and value children as active participants in their education with their own rights to influence the conditions they experience (Percy-Smith & Thomas, 2010). This goal can only be realized if adults working with children take children's thoughts and feelings seriously, giving them the opportunity to effect their own educational process, and to take on an active role in decision-making about their well-being (Art. 12; Landsdown, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014).

The spirit of Article 12, when taken in conjunction with Article 42 (requiring efforts to make the Convention known), encourages those working with children to go beyond simple participation and to include education on their right to participation so that children may advocate for their own voices across systems. Children spend a significant portion of their daily lives in schools, and schools have the potential to teach children about their rights and therefore facilitate their development into civically minded, autonomous individuals who can work alongside adults in their communities to promote their own well-being (Johnny, 2005).

Because schools historically have implemented a hierarchical model of action and decision-making, the implementation of children's rights in schools does not go without significant challenges (Howe & Covell, 2000). Adults working in schools, such as school administrators and teachers, are in positions of power, which places them in charge of decision-making without the requirement to share power with their students (Bickmore, 2001). This ingrained model impedes the right of children to participate in decision-making about their educational process. Although children have traditionally been viewed as fully dependent and their ability to make good decisions on their own behalf has been questioned, part of growth includes a progressively developing autonomy and ability to identify and articulate needs and wants (Johnny, 2005). A strong body of research indicates that support in developing this autonomous voice leads to healthy child development and positive outcomes as adults (Landsdown et al., 2014). School psychologists can provide support for this development in the school community by creating structures that incorporate and advance students' ability to participate in decisions made about their school environment.

Article 12 of the Convention, a child's right to be heard, does not assume or establish that children have complete autonomy in making decisions about their education. Rather, it requires that adults working with children should take their views and opinions into account and consider and value them when decisions are being made about them and their educational process while at the same time keeping the child's age and level of maturity in mind (Landsdown et al., 2014). The developmental stage, maturity level, and intellectual capacities of a child, such as critical thinking, should be considered in determining the nature and extent of realization of a child's participation in education. A strong aspect of the Convention is that it considers these factors, as well as cultural contexts, for associated growth and development. Therefore, the Convention serves as a guide for school psychologists to appropriately support child participation and progress toward independence in a developmentally and culturally appropriate way.

School psychologists can educate other adults working with children in schools about the stages of child development and assist them in differentiating between situations and choices that require varying levels of guidance from adults and decisions that can be made by the child independently. In addition, school psychologists can aid in determining when it is beneficial to children to be included in the decision-making process, how, and to what degree. For instance, children lack the experiences and insight to participate in final decision-making about educational curricula (Johnny, 2005). Although school psychologists should encourage school staff to consult with children about their preferences, the final decision should lay in the hands of adults to ensure children receive the necessary education to function at their present levels. Advocating for children to participate in the educational process, school psychologists can help to ensure educational environments that are more beneficial to the child's learning, development, health, and future.

In addition, Johnny (2005) stated that if children receive the opportunity to practice making decisions in safe environments like schools, they will develop better decision-making skills for wider application. While decision-making has important implications at all stages of life, being able to practice in a relatively safe environment such as a school can provide a basis for better decision-making when the stakes are higher later in life. Similarly, White (1996), in his discussion of civic virtues and public schooling, emphasizes that children who receive the opportunity to practice making decisions early in their lives will be able to acquire the confidence, ability, and experience that are crucial for becoming a participating member of democratic society. Moreover, several research studies have shown that realizing children's right to participation (Art. 12) and respecting their views and opinions in decision-making processes, according to their age and maturity, have positive effects for the child, the family, the community, and the democracy (Landsdown et al., 2014; Lansdown, 2011; Percy-Smith & Thomas, 2010). These authors provided an extensive review of the positive effects of an educational setting characterized by adults who hear and respect children's opinions and views. For instance, these authors collectively report children's increased self-esteem and confidence, increased respect for others, improved social and academic skills, and decreased emotional and behavioral problems.

Encouraging children to participate in their own educational process is essential in the implementation of Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention. However, Landsdown et al. (2014) described the current state of children's level of participation in education across the world as lacking. They state that educational settings in many parts of the world still involve authoritarianism, discrimination, and violence, and disregard the views of children. These educational environments often lead children to drop out of school prematurely, which causes them to miss out on important opportunities for achievement. It is one of the most fundamental roles of school psychologists to advocate for children's rights to participation (Art. 12) and to encourage educational professionals to take children's views seriously and include them in their own educational decision-making process. School psychologists are well equipped to advocate for children's right to participation on an individual level while engaged in individual assessment or intervention with children, as well as on a system level, with the school, parents, and community agencies (Landsdown et al., 2014).

Landsdown et al. (2014) provide several inspiring recommendations for school psychologist to take concrete steps toward the realization of children's right to participation. For instance, they encourage school psychologists to advocate for children to be consulted about their own opinions when decisions are made about their educational process, such as debating expulsion, suspension, the planning of individualized education programs (IEP), placement setting, or advancement of children. Another way school psychologists can advocate for children's right to participation (Article 12) is to collaborate on a system level with school representatives to ensure the education they receive is child centered with children playing an active role in their learning instead of being passive recipients of information. Children should also have the opportunity to be active school participants on a broader level, such as being involved in decision-making processes regarding school and educational policies. As such, children should be encouraged to function as part of a school committee, to join national student organizations, and to be involved on local and national levels impacting all parts of educational policies.

In their individual practice with children, school psychologists can value the opinions and views of children, actively listen to them, take them seriously, and allow children to be active participants in the functions of school psychologists such as assessment and treatment (Landsdown et al., 2014). In their collaboration with other professionals and adults, school psychologists can increase awareness of the importance of respecting the rights of the child. One way for school psychologists to realize these goals is to build school-wide behavioral systems that respect student dignity and promote student resiliency through the protection and promotion of child rights in a healthy school environment. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2003) defined a healthy school environment as one in which there is interpersonal warmth, equity, cooperation, and open communication.

On a system level, the school psychologist's responsibility is to build school systems that build student resilience. One way to foster resilience is by teaching children specific social-emotional skills children need to succeed and to create a school environment where these skills can thrive. Social and emotional competencies are critical to child well-being and resilience. The presence of good social and problem-solving skills serves as a protective factor for at-risk youth (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000). Adequate social competence, including self-regulation, appropriate assertion, cooperation, and independence, among other social skills, aids in the development of mutually satisfying peer relationships (CASEL, 2005; Merrell, Gueldner, & Tran, 2008). The possession of these skills also aids in the development of academic and occupational success (Merrell et al., 2008). Social-emotional learning (SEL) programs have proven effective in providing these social-emotional skills and are most effective when the school climate is warm and engaging and the school psychologists engage families in their efforts.

One specific approach that has gained much attention in recent years and has successfully created positive school climates within which comprehensive SEL programs may thrive is the school-wide positive behavior support (SWPBS). SWPBS is a systematic framework for reinforcing desired student behavior while decreasing rates of undesired student behaviors by eliminating unintended reinforcement of these behaviors (Bazelon Center for Mental Health Law, 2006). Effective resiliency building for students integrates knowledge of SEL and creates a school climate that maximizes the effectiveness of SEL programs by being warm, engaging, and attentive to family and community functioning. School psychologists can ensure that the school-wide program is sensitive to and gets reinforced by the family and community systems surrounding the child. This attention to the child's ecological context is critical; however, it does not stop at bringing different systems (like school and home) together. Rather, the goal of the school psychologist should be to create a collaborative relationship through effective communication between the different systems (i.e., facilitating mesosystem). Developing an effective program means finding ways to recognize and use the strengths of all stakeholders.

Implementing Child Rights in Practice: A Case Study in Using the Convention as a School Psychologist

A common problem reported by teachers in schools is addressing maladaptive student behaviors in the classroom. The following case study utilizes a child rights framework to address a common question that school psychologists are faced with: What do you do with the child who "acts out" behaviorally?

Amina Kassis is a 14-year-old girl attending a publicly funded school. Her teacher regularly calls on Amina to leave class and go to the school director's office because she is falling asleep in class or is not paying attention during lessons. After she is sent out of class, Amina often refuses to return to class, engaging in regular shouting matches with her school director that have resulted in Amina being sent home. Amina's grades have never been strong but have started to fall dramatically. Her teacher and the school director are not sure that she will be able to progress to the next year. Amina's teacher has tried to speak with Amina and has asked her to stand up during lessons so that she does not fall asleep. The school director has also sat next to Amina in class to help her stay focused. Neither of these things has worked. They have sought out their school psychologist to consult on the case.

Using a child rights lens, the school psychologists creates a plan for collecting information on Amina's functioning. First, the school psychologist observes Amina in class using a structured behavioral observation protocol. This allows the school psychologist to clearly define the antecedents, behaviors, and consequences in the classroom. Then the school psychologist schedules interviews with Amina's teachers and parents and, knowing that child voice is important, schedules time to speak with Amina as well. During these interviews, the school psychologist learns a few key points. From the teacher, the school psychologist learns that, at one point, Amina was doing well in class, but her behavior has been impeding her ability to meet academic standards. The teacher also reports feeling overwhelmed and powerless when working with Amina. From the school director, the school psychologist learns that Amina often relaxes when she learns she is being sent home and that sometimes the school director will send her home because he is not sure what else to do. Next, the school psychologist engages in assessment that follows professional standards for multi-informant sources and that incorporates a child rights framework including assurance that Amina is included as one of these informants.

The school psychologist's interview with Amina's family proves to be insightful, as the school psychologist acquires information that was not known to the teacher or school director including that Amina recently lost a close friend in a shooting in her community and that, when her guardian is working, Amina is the primary caretaker in her home. To take advantage of background gained through other interviews, Amina is interviewed last in this sequence. The school psychologist takes time to build rapport with Amina and shares with her a child rights orientation and commitment as a reason for the interview today. Amina is intrigued and reports that she feels the school staff doesn't care about her. She reports that often she is tired in class because she was busy taking care of her family the day before. The school psychologist uses language that empowers Amina to act as a self-advocate and gives her coaching to understand and acknowledge her own rights while remaining respectful to others. The literature indicates that this process of assertiveness training can help reduce anxiety and allows youth to respect the rights of others while acknowledging and protecting their own (Studer, 1993).

The school psychologist notices a few areas of concern when assessing the case. First, she recognizes a disconnect between school staff and Amina's family and Amina herself. The school psychologist creates a plan to help Amina effectively communicate her needs with her teacher and to work with school personnel to help them clearly identify reasonable school expectations while being attentive to Amina's needs. This initial plan greatly reduces escalation in teacher and student interactions and addresses the child's right to participation and to a school culture that respects child dignity and protects access to education. The resulting reduction of aggressive behaviors has greatly reduced the amount of time Amina spends outside of the classroom, away from quality education.

Next, the school psychologist uses consultation skills to work with the teacher to build teacher capacity to understand and navigate student behavior and works with the school director and other school staff to think more concretely about school culture. They develop a team to structure a school-wide behavioral program that focuses on positive reinforcement of students instead of punitive measures and that actively seeks to provide intervention and prevention of behavioral and emotional risk while simultaneously promoting mental health. Using a child rights framework to do this work means that parents and students are asked to provide input on the types of services provided and that they are respectful of child's voice, personal identity, and culture and that all students are allowed access to the implemented services. School practices that support child rights promote child resilience or ability to deal with challenging situations (Theron, Liebenberg, & Malindi, 2014).

The school psychologist recognizes that her work with Amina has greatly impacted not only Amina but the whole school. Using her skills of research and evaluation, the school psychologist monitors Amina's progress over time and with the proper permissions publishes her findings in a school psychology newsletter to encourage others to consider such strategies. Furthermore, as a passionate supporter of child rights framework, the school psychologist works with her local and national professional organization to promote best practices for children using this lens. Her advocacy results in school policy support for acting in the best interest of the child that empowers school psychologists in their daily practice. The school psychologist has effectively used advocacy to promote and protect the rights of all children.

As this case study provides a skeleton of what a child rights approach to practice looks like across ecological systems including and around a child, it is only a quick review of the potential of a child rights framework to guide school-based work. The potential for this lens to impact practice is far-reaching as illustrated across this chapter and other chapters in this book.

School Psychologists' Future Roles in the Implementation of Children's Rights

With their expertise in research and evaluation, school psychologists should feel encouraged to take an active role in the data collection and measurement to determine how well children's rights are respected and realized by various systems, individuals, and stakeholders and how the realization of children's rights affects their well-being, learning, and overall development (Landsdown et al., 2014). Landsdown and colleagues point to the lack of appropriate measurement methodology of the different initiatives to promote children's rights, precluding comparison of outcomes across different studies. School psychologists can be active in developing standards and indicators that facilitate the measurement of achieved implementation of children's rights and that illuminate how such achievements were obtained. For example, school psychologists can take the lead in examining how participation rights (Art. 12) in schools are implemented and how to evaluate and monitor them over time. This role of school psychologists is essential in increasing current knowledge, understanding, and accountability of the realization of children's rights on a national and international level. (See also suggested indicators, Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume; and discussion of accountability by Newell, Larrazolo, & Chan, chapter "Accountability for Child Rights by School Psychology", this volume.)

School psychologists' future endeavors should also include building a wider base of scholarship and professional networks that extend current theoretical and practical knowledge of children's rights. There is unique work being done across the world in the promotion and protection of child rights in the school setting; however, to the authors' knowledge, there is no international structure for networking school-based professionals interested in building child rights into their practice and disseminating information around effective implementation of this framework. Considering the importance of the school setting in the life of a child; its unique placement at the center of community, family, and child interaction with service providers and educators; and the emphasis on education in the Convention, a network unique to the practice of child rights for school-based professionals seems a necessary next step. School psychologists are well placed to lead this charge. (See Nastasi, dePerna, Stroback, Rossen, & Brock, chapter "Role of School Psychology Professional Organizations in Promoting and Protecting Child Rights", this volume, for discussion of the role of school psychology professional organizations in promoting and protecting child rights.)

Conclusion

School psychologists hold a truly unique position in education. Trained to understand the cognitive, social, emotional, and behavioral functioning of children in a school community, school psychologists have relatively easy access to each of the most influential systems in the life of a child, including school, home, and community. In this pivotal role, school psychologists can aid in understanding the child and inform policies and actions of systems around the child to best support their individual needs. With this unique understanding and influence, school psychologists have a responsibility to advocate for these best practices across ecological systems around a child including direct practice, indirect practice, research and evaluation, and advocacy. When viewed through the lens of child rights, school psychologists are critically poised to both advocate and educate on the protection and promotion of child rights.

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Promoting and Protecting Child Rights in the Daily Practice of School Psychology

Emiliya Adelson and Michael Brachfeld

Abstract

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989) can serve as a lens to guide the work of school psychologists with students, teachers, parents, and the community on a daily basis. There are five guiding principles in the Convention which lay the framework for decision-making regarding child rights. The first guiding principle defines a child as any person below the age of 18. The next guiding principle articulates that children's best interests be made a priority during decision-making. These principles are considered throughout the chapter, which specifically focuses on the following three guiding principles: non-discrimination (Article 2); the right to life, survival, and development (Article 6); and respect for the views of the child (Article 12). Following discussion of the guiding principles and Convention articles that fall within these principles, case studies describe situations in which school psychologists use the child rights perspective. This chapter serves as a guide for how an individual school psychologist can uphold the principles of the Convention.

School psychologists have many important roles including assessment, consultation, therapy, family-school-community collaboration, academic/learning interventions, and others (NASP, 2015). In these roles, school psychologists apply their expertise to promote positive outcomes for children in the social, cognitive/academic, behavioral, and emotional domains. The United Nations (UN, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as Convention) provides school psychologists with the principles and standards they need to navigate daily practice in a way that promotes and protects the rights of all children. The Convention serves as a lens to guide the work of a school psychologist with students, teachers, parents, and the community. School psychologists benefit from being educated on the Convention and understanding how to apply it in their practice. By incorporating the principles of the Convention in conjunction with legal and ethical guidelines of psychology (e.g., American Psychological Association, 2017) into all aspects of their work, school psychologists

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further the ultimate goal of promoting healthy development and functioning of the students they serve.

This chapter focuses on how individual school psychologists can incorporate the guiding principles of the Convention in their daily work. The myriad roles of school psychologists allow them to have broad impact spanning contexts (i.e., school, home, and community) and groups (e.g., children, parents, teachers, school administrators). While other chapters in this section cover the influences school psychologists can have with other stakeholders and systems, this chapter focuses on services for the individual child. Oftentimes, work with an individual student leads to consultation, systems level work, or advocacy. Here, the consideration is specifically on best practices with students at an individual level. In this chapter, the guiding principles of the Convention serve as the structure for discussion of the importance of the Convention's articles and how they can be applied in the work school psychologists do each day with individual children. Each of the guiding principles is relevant in a school psychologist's work with students, families, and school staff. Following discussion of the guiding principles, case studies illustrate school psychologists' integration of the principles in practice.

Guiding Principles

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2014) developed five guiding principles which lay the framework for decision-making regarding child rights. The first guiding principle is the definition of the child (*Article 1*). This principle defines the child as any person below the age of 18. Such a distinction is important for clearly establishing the population that the Convention addresses. The next guiding principle is the best interests of the child (*Article 3*). This guiding principle articulates that children's best interests be made a primary consideration during decision-making. No matter who is involved in making decisions that might influence the child, all decision-making, programs, and procedures should be made with the best interests of the child in mind. In addition to working directly with children, school psychologists often collaborate with parents, teachers, school administrators, and other parties. At times, there may be conflicting goals that make for complicated decision-making procedures. It is imperative that the best interests of children are the central issue for decisions that are made by school psychologists.

Article 1, Article 3, and Article 29 lay the foundation for all work with children in schools. Although Article 1 and Article 3 are considered throughout our discussion of school psychology practice, the chapter also focuses specifically on the other three guiding principles: non-discrimination (Art. 2); the right to life, survival, and development (Art. 6); respect for the views of the child (Art. 12); and the goals of education (Art. 29). For each principle, the key area of focus is addressed and applied to the school context to examine how the principle relates to the school psychologist's practice. Relevant Convention articles associated with these principles are outlined to further clarify the role of the school psychologist.

In the section on the guiding principle of "Non-Discrimination" (Art. 2), Article 14 (freedom of thought, conscience, and religion), Article 23 (children with disabilities), and Article 29 of the Convention are addressed as they specifically relate to the individual psychologist's promotion of nondiscrimination in a school setting. In addition, this section defines and discusses cultural competence and cultural humility. In the next section on the guiding principle "The Right to Life, Survival, and Development" (Art. 6), Article 24 (health and health services), Article 28 (right to education), and Article 19 (protection from all forms of violence) are discussed. This section takes a strengths-based perspective in addressing how school psychologists should work toward promoting the life, survival, and development rights of children in schools. The third section, on the guiding principle "The Respect for the Views of the Child" (Art. 12), includes Article 13 (freedom of expression) in the discussion on promoting children's voices. Discussion of Articles

12 and 13 explores implications and considerations for school psychologists that are working toward ensuring that children's perspectives are heard and respected. The chapter concludes with two case studies, providing examples of school psychologists incorporating all five guiding principles of the Convention.

Non-discrimination

The guiding principle of *non-discrimination* (Art. 2) asserts that the Convention applies to all children throughout the world, irrespective of and without prejudice regarding race, religion, culture, ability level, socioeconomic status, or any other factor. Although school psychologists are instrumental in protecting and promoting all of the rights of the Convention in a non-discriminatory way, this section highlights specific articles that school psychologists need to incorporate into their practice to ensure non-discrimination.

Three articles of the Convention specifically call for the practice of cultural respect and non-discrimination in the school setting. Article 29 discusses the right to education and calls for education to promote the development of respect for human rights and respect for children's individual identities. This includes children's cultural identities, language, and values, as well as national and ethnic values. In addition to promoting the development of the individual child's identity, personality, talents, and physical abilities, Article 29 calls for the preparation of the child for a responsible life in a free society. Adhering to this article, the school psychologist is compelled to practice understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship, among others, and to encourage these same practices in students.

Furthermore, Article 29 prescribes that children are given the opportunity to explore the values and culture of their heritage, thereby encouraging the school psychologist to maintain active communication with parents to ensure that education of the child is respectful of family values or cultural heritage. This can be difficult to manage if the school psychologist does not believe a parent's values are in the best interests of the child, thus refocusing the issue to be one of protecting children's right to life, survival, and development as discussed in Article 6. Keeping an open line of communication and continuing to consult with the child, family, and cultural brokers are critical to understanding what is cultural respect and what transcends cultural norms into harm of the child.

Article 23 extends Article 29 by stating that children with different abilities have the right to special care and support in order to enjoy a full and decent life. Just like all other children, those with varying ability levels have individual identities that should be respected and rights that should be promoted.

Article 14 also extends Article 29 by stating that children have the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion. Children have the right to their own thoughts and beliefs, but they also should respect the rights and freedoms of others when expressing their beliefs. Furthermore, the Convention respects the rights of parents in providing religious and moral guidance to their children.

As school populations across the world become more culturally diverse (Vega, Lasser, Plotts, 2015), school psychologists are likely to encounter students whose life experiences do not match their own. To serve all students in a manner that promotes non-discrimination, school psychologists must develop the relevant values, beliefs, and skills that embody cultural competence. Particularly relevant to the goal of achieving non-discrimination are the cultural competence and cultural humility of individual school psychologists. Whaley and Davis (2007) define *cultural competence* in the following way:

> A set of *problem-solving* skills that include (a) *the ability to recognize and understand* the dynamic interplay between the heritage and adaptation dimensions of culture in shaping human behavior; (b) the *ability to use the knowledge* acquired about an individual's heritage and adaptational challenges to maximize the effectiveness of assessment, diagnosis, and treatment; and (c) *internalization* (i.e., incorporation into one's clinical problem-solving repertoire) of this process of recognition,

> acquisition, and use of cultural dynamics so that it can be routinely applied to diverse groups. (p. 565).

Cultural humility serves as a construct that helps school psychologists take on a process-oriented approach in working toward cultural competency (Waters & Asbill, 2013). *Cultural humility* is conceptualized as the "ability to maintain an interpersonal stance that is other-oriented (or open to the other) in relation to aspects of cultural identity that are most important to the [person]" (Hook, Davis, Owen, Worthington, & Utsey, 2013, p. 2). Cultural humility is exemplified by lifelong commitment to self-evaluation and self-critique, the desire to alleviate power imbalances, and aspiring to develop relationships with people and groups who advocate for others (Tervalon & Murray-Garcia, 1998). Cultural humility encourages school psychologists to be constant learners, promotes the role of school psychologists serving as mesosystems, and encourages school psychologists to serve as program leaders and role models for students. Practicing cultural humility promotes non-discrimination.

Article 23 discusses the rights of children with disabilities, including the right to participate in decisions that affect them (see also Art. 12). The use of the word "disability" reflects concerns that are valid to this day. The word "disabled" is in its very nature exclusionary. Though we like to think this is an orientation of the past, individuals with different abilities continue to be excluded from education altogether or included in ways that do not take into consideration best educational practices. The protection of these children is guided by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 1997), which sets the standard for how supports and services are provided to children with disabilities. Children are entitled to free appropriate public education (FAPE), an appropriate evaluation, and an individualized education plan (IEP) (when warranted) based on the results of this evaluation. Children should also be placed in a least restrictive environment and have active parent participation in decision-making, and procedural safeguards must be in place to ensure children are appropriately protected (IDEA, 1997). School psychologists must work with teachers, special education professionals, and administrators to ensure that these IDEA guidelines are being appropriately followed to place students in the most appropriate and enriched environment.

The right of parents to have active participation in their children's education is also outlined in articles of the Convention (Art. 5 and 14). School psychologists can and should help to ensure that children are informed about and take part in the development of their individualized education plans to the greatest extent that is possible. Similarly, the school psychologist can help to ensure that families are able to express their views in ways that are respected. If there are barriers such as language or literacy, the school psychologist can help to mediate power imbalances and create opportunities for children and parents to voice their related personal histories and preferences for services. To start, the school psychologist should establish a partnership based on mutual trust and respect and should work with parents and students to define collaboration and how they approach their work together. If needed, one way to help ensure that families are well understood is to include an interpreter or cultural broker in the collaborative process (Ingraham, 2000).

In addition to meeting the goals of the Convention, non-discrimination practices are also in line with the Code of Ethics of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA, 2011). A prevailing ethical principle of ISPA's Code of Ethics is *Respect for People's Rights and Dignity*. This principle calls for school psychologists to "promote and respect the dignity and worth of all people" (p. 2). In practicing cultural humility, school psychologists can serve as models for their colleagues and for the students at their school. Through their own practice of understanding and promotion of respect, school psychologists can help to create a school environment in which discrimination is considered unacceptable. Furthermore, school psychologists are in the unique position to develop initiatives that help educate others in the school and broader community about the importance of promoting and respecting children's individual identities.

For example, school psychologists might provide cultural competence training to teachers and administrators (Ingraham, 2000; Rogers-Sirin & Sirin, 2009). Cultural competence training might include education grounded in theories of professional ethics, moral development, and multicultural theory, exercises to build self-awareness, and basic skill acquisition to address discrimination and racism in schools (Rogers-Sirin & Sirin, 2009). Additionally, school psychologists can help to raise awareness of child rights by providing child rights education to parents, school staff, students, and members of the community including local policy makers. UNICEF's (2014) Child Rights Education Toolkit provides numerous exercises and tools for educating others on children's rights. In addition to providing education on the importance of the Convention's guiding principle of non-discrimination, school psychologists can develop school-wide programming as well as more individualized plans that help to create a school-wide culture of acceptance. The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning Guide (CASEL, 2012) is an excellent resource for examining evidence-based social and emotional learning programs that may be consistent with the culture of the school. As suggested in this section, there are numerous ways that school psychologists can work toward accomplishing the goals of the Convention's articles on non-discrimination in their direct interactions with students, families, school personnel, and the greater community.

The Right to Life, Survival, and Development

In addition to promoting the non-discrimination of children, the individual school psychologist also has the role of protecting and promoting children's *right to life, survival, and development.* Articles related to this guiding principle include Article 6, which recognizes every child's right to life and healthy, positive development; Article 29, which serves as an extension and expansion of Article 6, identifying education as critical to children's healthy and successful development; and Article 24, which champions children's rights to receive health services (e.g., medical assistance and health care) and to achieve positive health outcomes. The school psychologist's responsibility to promote children's individual growth beyond physical survival and toward thriving in their communities is reflected in Articles 19 and Article 28.

Article 28 addresses the right of children to a free and fair education, promoting the opportunity for children to succeed academically. The right to an education is an invaluable part of the right to development. One of the primary roles of school psychologists is to advocate for children's academic needs to ensure that students have access to fair and appropriate education (Forlin, 2010). For example, the school psychologist can ensure that children with IEPs or other accommodations have their plans properly implemented and receive a fair education. It is vital that school psychologists advocate for *all* children in the school. For those children who are not in school due to life circumstances, including homelessness or neglect, the school psychologist has the opportunity to work toward providing these children with access to education and necessary supports and protection. School psychologists should be aware of local laws and resources that are in place to support and protect children, in line with the Convention. Since school systems significantly vary between states, there are very different laws that govern how states must manage their resources and structure of supports provided to students. However, at the national level, the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct*, enlists psychologists with the role of recognizing and promoting fairness, justice, and equality (American Psychological Association, 2017). Psychologists must ensure that children are receiving appropriate services and are provided with the necessary resources and supports needed to succeed.

Article 29 builds on the right to education by outlining specific goals that should be achieved in providing children a comprehensive, fair, and culturally sensitive education. The school psychologist can use consultation with teachers and administrators if they have concerns about culturally insensitive treatment toward a student or if there are more systemic issues regarding the messages being promoted in the school. For example, if a student is being bullied due to their cultural practices such as following a diet specific to their culture, the school psychologist should ensure that teachers and administrators are actively involved in promoting acceptance and celebration of differences and respect for everyone. By collaborating with school staff, schoolwide issues such as verbal abuse and discrimination can also be prevented by regularly rewarding students for collaborating, respecting one another, and working toward a common goal. This can also be accomplished through the promotion of bullying prevention programs, which can be implemented to teach concepts of acceptance, respect, and cooperation. This form of protection is also outlined in the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* in Principle E: Respect for People's Rights and Dignity (APA, 2017). Psychologists should take necessary action to be aware of safeguards needed to protect children's welfare, particularly those who are vulnerable to acts of discrimination. For school psychologists, this means having an understanding and respect for cultural and other demographic differences and working with members of diverse groups to ensure that they are protected and respected in the school community.

In upholding Article 19, which calls for protection of children from violence or any form of harm, for students who have experienced a violation of their rights or are in danger, the school psychologist can provide students with a safe and open forum in which they can voice concerns and seek protection and correction. Once a student reports a violation to physical, sexual, or psychological safety, the school psychologist has the legal responsibility to seek further assistance via mandatory reporting laws (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2015). School psychologists should be aware of any potential threats facing a child and be familiar with the appropriate protective actions that should be taken. For example, a school psychologist should look for warning signs of physical abuse including bruises, cuts, scrapes, or casts as well as other less apparent signs such as changes in academic performance or emotional functioning. More generally, school psychologists have the role of protecting children from all forms of maltreatment including physical, psychological, and sexual abuse. School psychologists should be aware of warning signs for any form of maltreatment, as children might be afraid to advocate for themselves due to fear for their safety or concern about getting their parents in trouble (Myers et al., 2002). This means that school psychologists must be attune to the threats facing children and be willing to advocate for children whose well-being and safety are in danger. The school psychologist should address potential instances of abuse and offer compassion and support to the student and follow the appropriate protocol to report instances of abuse when they do occur.

Whereas working with and advocating for students are effective methods of protecting them from many of the threats to their health and well-being, it is also important to spread information regarding child protection to teachers and other school personnel. For example, in addition to being available to students, the school psychologist can work with administration to establish various options for students who are experiencing abuse or are in danger, including peer counseling and mentoring programs (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). School psychologists should be up to date on the child rights literature and be able to educate and consult with school personnel, parents, and the broader community about their roles and responsibilities in promoting safe environments and protecting students from harm (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014; see also Fiorvanti & Brassard, chapter "Child Protection: A Child Rights Approach for Schools", this volume).

School psychologists have multiple opportunities beyond direct violence prevention to promote children's right to life and survival. For example, the school psychologist should engage children in education about their rights, as well as work with the school's administration to adopt programs that provide students with protection from harm such as physical, psychological, or sexual abuse. *Safe Dates* and *Fourth R* are examples of evidence-based programs for adolescents that raise awareness of respect and safety in relationships (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). By informing students of their rights and also involving them in rights education, school psychologists can increase children's enjoyment of school and their self-esteem and academic motivation (Covell, O'Leary, & Howe, 2002; Jiang, Kosher, Ben-Arieh, & Huebner, 2014). Covell et al. (2002) found that a sample of students who participated in rights education gained knowledge on fair treatment and improved their understanding of their rights. In addition to understanding their rights, students can become empowered to make healthy life choices by being provided with information that covers topics such as sexual reproductive health, HIV/AIDS awareness, nutrition, smoking, alcohol, and illegal drugs. In promotion of the practices recommended in Article 24, which calls for preventative health measures and protection from illness, school psychologists should advocate for positive health awareness and management programs at their schools.

The responsibilities of the school psychologist related to life, survival, and development have been framed from a needs-based perspective. However, it is important to support children's growth and development by adopting a framework of thriving. For example, the psychologist can encourage children to pursue hobbies or other activities that are of interest to them and build on their strengths. In addition, by fostering positive relationships among students, the school psychologist can help students to expand their social networks and strengthen their support systems. To support positive development, school psychologists may use one of several strengths-based interventions that have been shown to have a positive impact on children's social-emotional functioning and behavior by facilitating positive development and building personal strengths (Proctor et al., 2011; Shoshani & Slone, 2013; White & Waters, 2015). Strengths-based interventions focus on building character strengths such as leadership, creativity, and self-regulation and help children recognize and utilize their own strengths which builds resilience (Park & Peterson, 2006). Following their classification of character strengths using the Values in Action (VIA) Project, an initiative that examined several key values and linked them to school outcomes, Park and Peterson (2006) found that the promotion of character strengths and social-emotional learning has important preventative implications for risks associated with children's academic functioning as well as school climate and teacher-student relationships. The school psychologist can work with teachers and students to facilitate, support, and evaluate strengths-based interventions. In addition to protecting children and upholding their rights, promotion of children's growth and success is essential to the school psychologist's role in upholding the guiding principle of *the right to life, survival, and development.*

Respect for the Views of the Child

The guiding principle, *respect for the views of the child*, states that children have the right to be listened to and taken seriously (Art. 12). Rather than adults simply making decisions on behalf of children, children have the right to express their views and opinions (UN, 1989). Adults in and beyond the school environment should provide children with opportunities to participate in meaningful decision-making. The Convention recognizes that children's ability to make informed decisions about their lives develops with age and that their views should be considered in light of their maturity. Regardless of developmental level, children should be provided with age-appropriate opportunities to form and express their opinions. Article 13 addresses the right of children to freedom of expression, including the right to seek and share information. The article states that children have the right to share information in any way they choose as long as this information is not damaging to themselves or others. Children are encouraged to use their preferred medium for expression, such as talking, drawing, or writing.

In contrast to the norms of the past, in part due to ratification or accession of the Convention by nearly all the world's countries, children throughout the world are more likely to be seen as having the right to participate in important decisions about their own lives (Ruck & Horn, 2008). In some ways, this can be attributed to the more advanced understanding of children's developmental abilities and to advocacy and promotion efforts of mental health professionals and educators on behalf of the Convention. Although we have come a long way, there is still much work to be done regarding children's participatory rights. Particularly in the context of school, children's voices are largely excluded (Kinloch, 2012). Kinloch (2012) refers to this exclusion of children's perspectives as the "silenced dialogue."

In a study that used participatory methodology to understand perspectives of youth about needs in their community, Greene, Burke, and McKenna (2013) identified the construct of adult-child imaginary, which brings into focus the disconnect between perceptions of adults and those of children. In this study, adults and children envisioned completely different needs for a community improvement project being developed for children. Adolescents served as the leading researchers in the study. Student-led walks and drives through the community, and subsequent student photography and group reflection, allowed the authors to effectively listen to youth. As a result, the community planners were able to honor the expressed needs of children in the community and develop something children wanted and needed. In conclusion, the authors stated, "If we don't listen to youth, we simply reinscribe our own ideas, privilege our own imagery of what a community must do and look like to flourish, and send strong and lasting signals that youths' contributions and ideas don't matter" (Greene, Burke, McKenna, 2013, p. 328).

In addition to being in compliance with the Convention, encouraging youth voice furthers the goals of school psychologists to help children succeed academically, socially, behaviorally, and emotionally. Multiple studies reveal that students excel when they know that their voices matter (Greene et al., 2013; Jennings, Parra-Medina, Messias, & McLoughlin, 2006; Jiang et al., 2014). Jennings et al. (2006) describes how meaningful it is for youth to identify problems within their schools and communities and then work toward planning, developing, and implementing plans for action. Whether using methods such as photo-essays, performance, digital storytelling, and mapping or simply having an adult listen to a child, promoting and respecting youth voices are imperative. Seemingly simple acts such as helping to identify a school problem or defining and telling one's story empower youth to become more engaged in their lives and their education (Jiang et al., 2014). In a study examining youth development in fifth graders, researchers found that a school activity promoting student voice and engagement improved fifth-grade girls' agency, belonging, competence, discourse abilities, and self-efficacy (Mitra & Serriere, 2012). Research consistently demonstrates that student feelings of belongingness and acceptance are positively related to academic success (Lam, Chen, Zhang, & Liang, 2015; Mitra & Serriere, 2012). In addition to respecting and promoting children's voices in individual work and research with children, school psychologists are encouraged to work with teachers, administrators, parents, and community members to create school cultures in which student voices flourish. (See also Nastasi, chapter "Applying Child Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples," this volume, for discussion of child participation in research).

Along with providing opportunities for youth to express their voices, it is best practice for school psychologists, as well as other adults, to listen to them and seriously consider their views. This is not to say that children are now "in charge" and should make decisions about their well-being without the guidance of adults, but it does mean that children are entitled to perspectives on matters that impact them and that their views should be taken seriously (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). Lansdown, Jimerson, and Shahroozi (2014) discuss the importance of children being involved in decisions about their education, including changes in school, program placements, decisions about retention or skipping grades, and even decisions about school exclusion.

Article 12 has multiple implications for school psychologists. First, and central among them, is that all children are capable of forming a view. Depending on the age and maturity of the child, the school psychologist may need to use creative methods to understand the views of the child. For example, Koller and San Juan (2015) used play-based interview techniques in their study examining young children's perspectives on inclusion. The researchers conducted semi-structured interviews during which children engaged in dramatic play with dolls and various other props serving the purpose of directing children toward topics of discussion related to inclusion. It is vital to remember that even young children have opinions, preferences, fears, and concerns. Although adults may not always be able to fulfill the wishes of children for various reasons, children should still be listened to and their perspectives should be respected.

Second, as Article 12 of the Convention states, all children are entitled to express their views on all matters affecting them. Children are entitled to be consulted and involved when it comes to decisions within the school, the family, the hospital, the community, their nation, or any other domain that impacts them. It is best practice for school psychologists to carefully describe potential treatment services, psychoeducational evaluation, and/or research to youth and make sure that they clearly understand everything prior to asking for their informed consent (Plotts & Lasser, 2013). Youth should be involved in decision-making about their treatment to the extent that is developmentally appropriate.

Third, it is important to go beyond considering age and maturity and to weigh a child's views depending on his or her level of understanding of an issue. Regardless of age, if a child has a certain amount of experience dealing with something that is impacting his life, he may be quite capable of making certain choices with the proper assistance of adults around him (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). Adults need to take the time to consider what children have to say and not dismiss their views simply because of their age or because they differ from those of the adults involved. It is important for a school psychologist to recognize all of these factors in one's individual practice and to educate other adults about them.

Given their many roles within a school, school psychologists have the capacity to promote children's perspectives and decision-making capabilities in many ways. For example, in school-wide prevention work, school psychologists can utilize participatory research methods, such as focus groups or individual interviews, to elicit the perspectives of students on the needs of the school. After gaining an understanding of the student perceived needs, school psychologists can collaborate with students in selecting programming that is most appropriate for the school. In consultation with teachers, school psychologists may educate them on using a child rights lens and help them to develop classroom environments in which student voices are not only encouraged but also actively solicited and elicited. Larkins, Lansdown, and Jimerson (Chapter "Child Participation and Agency and School Psychology," this volume) further discuss how school psychologists can promote child rights and respect children's participation through professional practice as well as systems-level advocacy and involvement in public policy making. In all of their roles, school psychologists have the opportunity to individually show respect for the views of the child and to promote this principle in others.

Case Studies

Case studies provide examples of complex scenarios and help to bridge the gap between theory and practice (Barkley, Cross, & Major, 2005). The following two case scenarios describe situations in which the school psychologists apply a child rights perspective. Each case presents a unique situation and explains how the school psychologist integrated the Convention's principles in problem solving. We encourage readers to consider similar situations that they have experienced in their practice and how they might apply Convention principles in their problem-solving approach. The following questions are suggested to frame applications in this regard:

- As an individual, how can the school psychologist improve his/her own practice to best adhere to the guiding principles of the Convention?
- How can the school psychologist build upon the existing strengths of children, families, schools, and communities to promote the rights of children?
- How can the school psychologist best collaborate with others to build a culture of child rights in the schools served?

Case Study #1: Joshua

Joshua is a new ninth-grade student at a large public high school in a town with a largely secular population. Joshua recently moved from a community which shared his family's religious beliefs and where he attended kindergarten through eighth grade at an all-boys private religious school. At his new school, Joshua is the only student who practices this religion. As part of his adherence to his religion, he has a specific form of dress that stands out from the casual attire of the other students. In addition to his dress form, he follows other religious practices that make him stand out to teachers and students. For example, he has specific dietary regulations and cannot eat any food provided by the school. For many of the students and teachers, Joshua is the first person they have met who practices this religion. Some of them have been very welcoming, while others have ridiculed Joshua for his unique practices. After hearing from a teacher that Joshua seemed quite isolated from other students in his class and her own observations of Joshua sitting at lunch on his own for a week, the school psychologist, Dr. Greene, set up a meeting with him. Prior to working with Joshua, she had also never interacted with a student of this religion.

Dr. Greene uses a child rights lens in case conceptualization and problem solving for all scenarios that she deals with at her school. True to the *non-discrimination* principle of the Convention (Art. 2), the school psychologist immediately recognized that it is the school's responsibility to respect and promote Joshua's rights and freedoms to practice his religious beliefs. In addition to following this Convention principle, Dr. Greene is also demonstrating an awareness of national law, particularly, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which protects individuals from religious discrimination along with ethnic, racial, and other forms of discrimination as well (The Civil Rights Act of 1964). To ensure the protection of Joshua's rights to practice his religion without discrimination, several steps were taken. After interviewing Joshua and his teachers, Dr. Greene came to understand that Joshua was experiencing discrimination from students and teachers alike. Upon realizing that she was not familiar with Joshua's religion, Dr. Greene recognized that she needed to take time to educate herself about his religion and to consider her own attitudes and biases. She started the process of learning about his religion by talking with Joshua about what his religion means to him, reading books about the religion, meeting with a local religious leader, and meeting with Joshua's parents to gain a better sense of the family's beliefs and practices. She understood that this was not conclusive and that she would have to continue engaging and questioning to increase her cultural competence. During a ninth-grade staff meeting, Dr. Greene voiced her concern about Joshua and led teachers in an activity that both educated them and gave them the opportunity to challenge the biases they held toward Joshua. Dr. Greene reminded teachers about the Convention's articles (Art. 2 and 14) that promote respect for children's individual identities and children's freedom of religion. She also reminded teachers about Articles 12 and 5, which call for the importance of respecting the rights and views of children and their parents. Finally, she encouraged teachers to learn more about the religion, to engage with Joshua and his family, and to consult with her as needed.

In addition to addressing the cultural competence of adults at the school, Dr. Greene recognized the importance of promoting children's voices within the school. Based on the Convention's principle of *respecting the views of the child* (Art. 12), Dr. Greene discussed ways that teachers could encourage students to express their views and actively participate in the classroom. One of her suggestions was for teachers to elicit the participation of students that were less likely to participate in class. Another suggestion was for teachers to promote students' cultural expression in their classrooms by creating assignments that provided opportunities for students to share their personal experiences. In a meeting with school faculty, Dr. Greene announced the plans to have a school-wide Cultural Diversity Day. This day would include activities designed to help foster school-wide acceptance and celebration of religious, cultural, and ethnic diversity. Dr. Greene planned to be the faculty sponsor for this day, but students were in charge of organizing and leading this initiative.

In her approach to Joshua's case, Dr. Greene also considered the Convention's principle on the *right to life, survival, and development* (Art. 6) and Article 19, which requires that children be protected from harm incurred at school. The verbal bullying from students and teachers that Joshua experienced was a form of psychological maltreatment and was unacceptable. In her meeting with teachers, Dr. Greene reminded them about the school's anti-bullying policies and discussed the importance of teachers enforcing these policies in their classrooms. She encouraged teachers to integrate positive learning experiences that celebrated religious diversity and respect for difference into their daily classroom activities. She offered to provide consultation to teachers that wanted to strengthen their skills in creating a classroom culture of acceptance. She explained to teachers that they should refer students to her if they were repeatedly engaging in bullying behaviors. She also encouraged teachers to inform their students about her Confidential Sharing Box. Students could leave notes in this box regarding problems going on at the school (such as harassment they experienced or witnessed) or positive reports about anything pertaining to the school. In addition to working with teachers to address bullying that Joshua and other students were experiencing, Dr. Greene collaborated with the other mental health professionals and administrators at the school to make students and families aware of their roles as support systems. As part of this initiative, she sent a letter home to all families explaining steps for seeking support in school, she held parent information sessions about common issues impacting students, and she publicized her student open door policy welcoming any student to visit her office to talk to her about bullying or other issues at school.

In addition to her other efforts, Dr. Greene worked directly with Joshua to help him with school adjustment. When starting their work together, Dr. Greene made sure to attain Joshua's consent and to include him in the development of his intervention goals and plan. She also made sure that Joshua understood the guidelines and limitations of confidentiality. Dr. Greene collaborated with Joshua and his family to promote optimal academic success and socio-emotional development. Together, they identified his long-term personal development goals (e.g., academic and social) and created a plan of action that incorporated his support systems both inside and outside of the school. In sessions, Dr. Greene helped Joshua to recognize and apply the strengths he had. Dr. Greene provided Joshua with encouragement to further explore his identity and to share his unique experiences with others, rather than feeling embarrassed about his identity. She also helped him develop coping skills to deal with adverse experiences that he encountered.

In working with Joshua, Dr. Greene took on a multifaceted approach to promoting Joshua's psychological well-being. Utilizing a child rights lens, she conducted consultation, prevention, intervention, and systems-wide support. This work promoted Joshua's rights and the rights of other students at the school.

Case Study #2: Isabelle

Isabelle is an 8-year-old fourth-grade student at a public elementary school in a small rural town. She and her family moved to the United States last summer, prior to the start of the current academic year. Isabelle's family struggles financially, with two other young children at home and a low household income to support these children. Isabelle frequently comes to school hungry, as she often has very little, if anything, to eat for breakfast. While her father is currently working two jobs, her parents are still struggling to pay their bills and put food on the table. Neither of Isabelle's parents speaks English, and although Isabelle took English language classes at her previous school, she struggles with reading comprehension and speech. Upon arriving at her new school, Isabelle was screened for her reading and writing abilities and was placed in the school's response to intervention (RTI) program, which is a multitiered approach to the early identification and support of students with learning and behavior needs. Isabelle has continued to struggle with reading, and her teachers notice little to no improvement in her speech. Furthermore, Isabelle is socially isolated, as she struggles to communicate with other students and exhibits social anxiety. She very seldom initiates conversations or participates in class. Her History teacher reported that during group work activities, she shows signs of anxiety including sweating and shaky hands. A couple of teachers have reached out to Isabelle to encourage her to participate more in class and socialize. During these conversations, Isabelle agreed to participate more in class, but did not end up doing so. One of her teachers, Mr. Stevens, recently set up a meeting with the school psychologist, Mr. Porter, to discuss his concerns regarding Isabelle.

After his meeting with Mr. Stevens, Mr. Porter has several concerns about Isabelle's functioning and her needs. His primary concern relates to the guiding principle of the convention on the *right to life, survival, and development* (Art. 6). As a school psychologist, Mr. Porter knows that he must ensure that Isabelle has the proper support for survival and healthy development. His first step was to meet with Isabelle to better understand her circumstances related to her health and nutrition. Upon meeting with Isabelle, Mr. Porter learned that her parents try hard to provide her with necessities such as adequate clothing, food, and a secure place to sleep. However, Isabelle reported that there are times when her family misses a meal. Mr. Porter was concerned that this could affect her development as well as her functioning in school. During this meeting with Isabelle, he also heard more about her academic struggles. Upon looking further into her academic supports, Mr. Porter found out that Isabelle is not receiving the speech and language services to which she is entitled. This violates the Convention's articles on providing children with a fair education and the opportunity to develop and succeed academically (Art. 28 and 29). Finally, he learned about Isabelle's social struggles and recognized the isolation that she feels and her desire to socialize and fit in with the other students.

Mr. Porter met with Isabelle's parents to discuss his conversation with Isabelle and to gain additional information. Due to the language barrier that exists, he engaged a bilingual interpreter who is a social worker in the district, has expertise in mental health, and is knowledgeable about issues related to the field of school psychology and Isabelle's circumstances. Including the social worker also helped to ensure multidisciplinary approach to working with Isabelle and her family. Mr. Porter informed Isabelle's parents that they have the right to be included in decisions regarding Isabelle's education, and he emphasized that he will continue to communicate with them regarding Isabelle and her status at school. He explored the parents' goals for their daughter and provided them with information about the services to which Isabelle was entitled. Mr. Porter also provided her parents with information regarding community resources for financial support and additional resources. He wanted to ensure that her parents knew that they had the support of the school staff and that the school planned to address potential problems related to Isabelle's health and well-being.

Mr. Porter recognized that Isabelle's family was just one of the many examples of families who are struggling from financial hardship in the local community. To address this issue, he worked with school administration to set up a canned food drive and donation bin for clothing that would be given to families in need of basic necessities in the community. Mr. Porter enlisted the help of parent volunteers and school administration to plan, organize, and set up this event.

Another pressing issue that Mr. Porter recognized was the lack of fidelity in the implementation of Isabelle's speech and language services. He met with administration and the school's speech-language pathologist to identify the services that Isabelle is entitled to and to develop a schedule for her to receive these services. As part of her right to a fair education (Art. 28), Isabelle is entitled to support for her language development that meets her specific needs, without which she is being prevented from reaching her potential (see Art. 29). Mr. Porter also recognized that other students might not be receiving the services and support that they are entitled to and discussed this with the administration, speech- language pathologist, and special education coordinator. Mr. Porter stressed the school's responsibility to work with students and their families to make sure that they are receiving the necessary supports and are aware of their student's progress.

In addition to her academic struggles, Mr. Porter also had concerns related to Isabelle's peer interactions and lack of participation in the classroom. He met with Isabelle's teachers to help them understand ways that they could engage her in class and encourage positive relationships with her peers. He recommended engaging Isabelle through learning more about her areas of interest and to encouraging her to participate during activities in these domains. Furthermore, he suggested that teachers offer Isabelle additional support to increase her comfort with participating in classes if she continued to struggle. Finally, Mr. Porter stressed the importance of the Convention's guiding principle of *respecting the views of the child* (Art. 12). He encouraged the teachers to support Isabelle in expressing her views and having her voice heard in the classroom. However, while these discussions are important to have with teachers, Mr. Porter also recognized the need to educate and, thereby, empower Isabelle. In his meeting with Isabelle, Mr. Porter provided her with information about her rights to express herself and to have a voice in the daily functioning of the classroom. Because Isabelle still exhibited anxiety about speaking and expressing herself, she was encouraged to use nonverbal forms of expression including drawing and writing when she felt uncomfortable. Mr. Porter also explored some of Isabelle's interests which included photography and soccer, encouraging her to participate in these activities both during and after school. Mr. Porter obtained a camera and a soccer ball from staff members that Isabelle was able to borrow for the year. He helped Isabelle to identify these activities as a way for her to interact with her peers and to increase her self-esteem. Furthermore, Mr. Porter introduced Isabelle to a fifth-grade female student that would serve as her student mentor. Together with Mr. Porter, the students met for lunch weekly and developed a strong bond.

In his work with Isabelle, Mr. Porter collected data from multiple sources to ensure that the provision of services was comprehensive and culturally sensitive. He met with Isabelle, her parents, teachers, and school administration to identify her needs and any concerns at home, in school, or in the community. Mr. Porter addressed these needs by taking Isabelle's rights into account during each step of the process and intervened to support her academic and social growth and development. In doing so, Mr. Porter considered Isabelle's strengths and interests and determined ways to incorporate these into his work with her. He also took steps to ensure that Isabelle and the other stakeholders were aware of her right to have a voice in decisions that affected her.

Conclusion

As the case studies demonstrate, school psychologists can most effectively protect and promote student well-being by using the Convention on the Rights of the Child as a framework to guide daily practice. For school psychologists, the first step to taking a child rights lens is learning about the guiding principles and related articles of the Convention and contemplating how one presently incorporates them into their practice. Next, school psychologists are urged to examine what they want to change and add to their practice in order to most effectively incorporate a child rights lens. After adopting the child rights lens in their practice, school psychologists are encouraged to share their knowledge of the Convention by educating others about child rights and advocating for children. Overall, the Convention on the Rights of the Child is a critical tool and resource that should be utilized to guide school psychologists toward a best practice approach to meeting the needs and interests of all children whom they serve.

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A Child Rights Framework for Educational System Reform

Laura C. Cornell and Jorge V. Verlenden

Abstract

The purpose of schools can be described as the provision of knowledge and skills to students that will promote their success in life and includes the development of social and emotional competence, personal ambition, and academic skills (Doll & Cummings, Transforming school mental health services: Population-based approaches to promoting the competency and wellness of children. Corwin Press, Thousand Oaks, CA, 2008). The promotion of psychological well-being should be central to the school, to which academic success and well-being are closely associated (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011). Schools need an overarching framework comparable to those that exist for academics to guide the creation of an environment that aims to comprehensively meet this larger purpose. Covell and Howe (2008) suggest the use of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereinafter referred to as the Convention; United Nations, 1989) as the framework of system design for schools. The Convention meets this need because it serves as a broad framework that promotes and protects individual rights and respects cultural values. In this chapter, we demonstrate ways in which the Convention can provide unifying principles that can guide schools in the development, integration, and review of systems that promote the attainment of larger goals of education. Specifically, we illustrate how to use the Convention as a framework to evaluate the alignment of policies, programs, and practices to the broader purpose of schooling described above.

> The role of education is to foster full development of human potential, respect for human rights and diverse cultural backgrounds, and individual responsibility within a free society (National Association of School Psychologists, 2012, p. 1).

Purpose of Schooling Historically

The purpose and mission of schooling has been debated since antiquity. Flekkoy and Kaufman (1997) and later Grover (2005) argue that the primary purpose of school should be to serve as a "workshop for democracy" (Flekkoy & Kaufman, 1997, p. 109). Similarly, Labaree (1997) describes the citizen's perspective as arguing for education serving the public good through preparing stu-

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dents to become citizens. Piaget also advocated for education as the facilitation of autonomy through the cultivation of independence, the reinforcement of social responsibility, and the encouragement of self-actualization (Hart & Hart, 2014).

One may conclude that the purpose of schooling should be focused on competencies achieved progressively over the long term and ultimately demonstrated through adulthood. Although mastery of skills and overall academic achievement may be part of a school's immediate aim, preparation for a lifetime outside of school should be part of the larger goal of schooling and should include the development of professional or vocational skills and interpersonal skills (Butler, 2012; Doll, Brehm, & Zucker, 2014; Labaree, 1997).

Doll and Cummings (2008) agree that the purpose of schooling is something greater and broader than just an academic or instructional mission. They argue that the promotion of psychological well-being should be a central aspect of school, since academic success and well-being are so closely associated (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011). Doll and Cummings (2008) go on to describe the purpose of schools as the provision of knowledge and skills to students that will promote their success in life and to assert that social and emotional competence, personal ambition, academic skills, and literacy should all be a part of a school's mission.

Schooling and the Convention of the Rights of the Child

In the United States, *No Child Left Behind* legislation (2001), *Race to the Top* initiatives (Civic Impulse, 2015), and *Common Core State Standards* (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010) have set clear criteria for academic programming and student performance evaluation. Similarly, at least 32 countries throughout the world have established performance evaluations that take many forms and represent desired academic competencies, from college entrance exams (e.g., Finland, Japan, Turkey) to yearly state tests (OECD, 2012). Consequently, school success is measured by these academic benchmarks. As described above, the purpose of schooling should encompass broader goals. However, in secular schools, the identification and operationalization of these universal values and principles is left to the discretion of the individual administration, department, or teacher.

Internationally, schools are increasingly utilizing social-emotional learning initiatives as mechanisms for improving school climate, with resources available globally in multiple languages (Elias, 2003). However, schools may not be integrating such programming throughout all operations of the school (Civic Enterprises, Bridgeland, Bruce, & Hariharan, 2013). Moreover, schools may not be utilizing a standard method for implementation and evaluation. Schools need to use an overarching framework comparable to those that exist for academics to guide the creation of a comprehensive environment that aims to meet their larger mission. Covell, Howe, and McNeil (2010) suggest the use of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereinafter referred to as the Convention; United Nations, 1989) as the framework of system design for schools. The Convention meets this need because it serves as a broad agenda that considers and protects individual and collective rights and does not impede cultural values. In this chapter, we demonstrate ways in which the Convention can provide unifying principles that can guide schools in the development, integration, and review of systems that promote the attainment of larger goals of education. Specifically, we illustrate how to use the Convention as a framework to evaluate the alignment of policies, programs, and practices to the broader purpose of schooling described above.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child codifies the rights of children worldwide and affirms the responsibility of individuals to uphold them (NASP, 2012). Rights represented in the Convention fall into three categories – provision rights, protection rights, and participation rights – all containing articles relating to whole-child education (Pillay, 2014). The National Association of School Psychologists (2012) identifies the following 11 areas as pertinent to schools:

- Prioritizing the best interests of the child
- Right to and goals of education
- Care for and protection of the child
- Respect for views and allowance of participation
- Survival and healthy development
- Health, mental health, and health services
- Access to physical and psychological care for and reintegration of child victims
- Opportunities for cultural experiences, leisure, and play
- Freedom from discrimination and respect for diversity
- Guaranteed protection of the rights of children with disabilities
- Respect for the shared rights, roles, and responsibilities of parents or guardians

The Convention consistently promotes the primary domains of child development including physical, cognitive, social-emotional, moral, and spiritual development (Hart & Hart, 2014). These domains comprise what educators and scholars refer to in arguments for the education of the whole child (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; ASCD, 2015). The Convention is the only official document that operationalizes the whole child through a set of standards and definitions and therefore provides a strong basis on which to begin the path to whole-child education (Hart & Hart, 2014). Given that all but one of the United Nations member states have officially committed to the Convention, it provides the closest representation of global consensus on whole-child development (Covell, 2012; Hart & Hart, 2014; UNICEF, 2009). Consequently, through this unified global agreement, the Convention has potential to guide schools as they establish and cultivate more developmentally comprehensive educational goals and practices. UNICEF, in conjunction with partner agencies across the globe, has created a manual based upon research and fieldwork in 155 countries that describes a process for implementing child-friendly schools' models, which are reflective of the articles of the Convention (UNICEF, 2009). UNICEF also provides a global legislative framework for guidance on educational policy creation and reform (UNICEF, 2007). These initiatives confirm the importance of a whole-child perspective as an international imperative.

The UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Manual describes the main features of child-friendly schools that exist across the world and offers guidance on implementation of whole-child practices worldwide. Their comprehensive manual includes background on whole-child developmental and learning theory, planning for design and construction of schools, and guidance on systems for learning and monitoring progress in a variety of diverse settings internationally. The Child-Friendly Schools Manual illustrates ways in which model schools have applied whole-child concepts globally in settings as various as China, India, Nicaragua, the Philippines, Turkey, and Uganda.

The framework proposed here compliments the UNICEF manual in that it describes a concrete method for reviewing many of the same systems and can aid in school evaluation. The proposed framework has been developed within the United States; however, the fundamental theoretical premise of whole-child development, the Convention on which it is based, and the practical elements of the framework are universal and can be applied internationally.

Systems and an Ecological Perspective

Regardless of geographical location, implementing whole-child comprehensive educational practices requires looking at the individual, family, and community in the context of school systems. Articles of the Convention take into account these multiple societal layers that impact children. Our recognition that multiple factors impact child development is based upon Bronfenbrenner's

(1989) ecological systems theory and the bioecological model (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994), both of which describe ways in which these systems interact. Ecological systems theory and the bioecological model reflect multilevel interactions of contexts and ways these interactions influence development. Individuals are affected by immediate interactions within the microsystem (e.g., direct relations with teacher, family, peers), more distant interactions at the level of the exosystem (e.g., school, church), and larger cultural beliefs within the macrosystem (e.g., values and norms). The interactions among all of these systems are signified by the mesosystem (e.g., relationships between teachers and parents). The chronosystem places these relationships in time and illustrates the importance of sociohistorical events. Ecological systems theory also links interactions between individuals and environment to well-being (Nastasi, Varjas, Sarkaar, & Jayasena, 1998; Nastasi, Moore, & Varjas, 2004). Different environmental experiences may be related to positive development or to compromises in well-being and negative outcomes (Williams & Greenleaf, 2012). Ecological systems theory provides strong rationale for school-based professionals to evaluate ways in which their systems are meeting the needs of students.

Doll et al. (2014) identify schools as ecological systems. Ecological systems theory and the bioecological model support current efforts to approach school reform utilizing public health models (Doll & Cummings, 2008; Hess, Short, & Hazel, 2012). Researchers such as Hoagwood and Johnson (2003) and Nastasi (2004) call for the integration of public health with public education to better serve the needs of all students. The public health model in general may be viewed as actions taken by society and in a collective fashion to promote health and wellness. The public health model involves assessment, evaluation, and intervention at the population level with a focus on promotion of well-being and prevention of problems (Hess et al., 2012). In a school, focus at the population level necessitates the development of systems of practice that promote well-being for all students. Systems are thus designed to encourage the creation of caretaking environments that nurture positive development. These systems offer protective supports to students and address social, emotional, and behavioral difficulties through tiered services[1] including promotion/prevention, intervention, and treatment (Doll & Cummings, 2008).

For public health initiatives to be applied with intentionality and to be effective in schools, careful evaluation of current systems of practice must be conducted (Hess et al., 2012). Systems of practice may include foundational principles such as school mission, vision, and values, as well as practical policies, evaluation practices, data collection procedures, professional development, and curriculum programming. These systems impact individual students, the student population as a whole, and, in turn, the success of the school as an organization within and serving the community. Ysseldyke, Lekwa, Klingbeil, and Cormier (2012) refer to these interactions as an ecological system of learning, created because the systems operating in schools impact both well-being and academic success.

Ecological systems theory is fully compatible with child rights and can be promoted throughout each level of the ecological framework (Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy", in this volume; see also Pillay, 2011; Williams and Greenleaf, 2012). Internationally, schools can use the principles of the Convention at a universal level to design and examine the interactions between child and environment that promote well-being and positive developmental outcomes and identify ways in which negative conditions may impede development. Research has demonstrated the effectiveness of utilizing the

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[1] Tiered school-based service delivery (e.g., response to intervention) represents a model of academic, social-emotional, behavioral, and mental health programing, which varies in relation to the needs of the students within the school population. Tiered models are typically comprised of three or four levels. The foundational level of Tier 1 represents school-wide evidence-based programming. Subsequent tiers or levels reflect targeted programming and interventions based on the nature of student needs and the severity of difficulties prevalent in the population (Shapiro, 2016).

Convention as a framework for school change. The Child-Friendly Schools Manual provides illustration of its application for school reform in international settings. Schools that implemented child rights-focused education saw enhanced school climate, improved student relations, and a greater sense of social responsibility (Covell, 2007; Covell & Howe, 2008, UNICEF, 2009). Therefore, the Convention can be used as a guide for the creation of a healthy ecological system of learning that promotes whole-child development.

The Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools

Articles of the Convention can be operationally defined in a school context to guide the development of whole-child educational initiatives (Hart & Hart, 2014). In this chapter, we use principles of the Convention to review and evaluate components of the ecological system of learning (see Fig. 1, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy", in this volume). We create a framework that uses a child rights lens to analyze whether the systems in a school promote whole-child development. This framework can be used as a model for organizational assessment with the ultimate aim of incorporating a child rights perspective into the foundational goals of schools.

In their assessment of cultural competence in a healthcare center, Fung, Lo, Srivastava, and Andermann (2012) identified eight salient domains of organizational functioning: (a) principles and commitment, (b) leadership, (c) human resources, (d) communication, (e) patient (client/student) care, (f) family and community engagement, (g) environment and resource, and (h) data and planning. We use the domains of Fung et al.'s Organizational Cultural Competence Framework (2012) to create a comprehensive *Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools* to guide schools in the application of the Convention to school system reform.

Table 1 depicts the Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools, which includes organizational domains and subdomains identified by Fung et al. (2012). The chapter authors developed definitions relevant to this chapter and identified applicable Convention articles for each domain and subdomain.

Application of the Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools

The application of each domain of the Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools (depicted in Table 1) is discussed in this section. Examples are relevant to general school settings and the overarching work of school psychologists, school leaders, and other organizations who work with children. Although an attempt was made to be comprehensive, the examples are not exhaustive. Instead, the examples should be used as a guide for reflection and to augment systems review in one's own unique setting. See Inset 1 for illustration of a meeting agenda to initiate school systems review through a child rights lens, in a hypothetical school and district.

Principles and commitment This domain is comprised of three subdomains: mission, vision, and values; policies and procedures; and accountability. All systems and operations are derived from these foundational elements. They drive not only school practice but also all decision-making. When working toward comprehensive school improvement and change, evaluation of these elements is imperative. Specifically, the mission, vision, and values need to align and convey a cohesive message that represents the goal of schooling (Adelman & Taylor, 2010). Community involvement and stakeholder collaboration in the creation of such documents will likely lead to higher levels of investment. Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 6 (Survival and development), Article 28 (Right to education), and Article 29 (Goals of education) of the Convention describe fundamental rights that school mission, vision, and values should embody in the pursuit of whole-child education. The school mission statement should represent the best interests of

Table 1 Foundational child rights framework for schools

Domains and subdomains[a]		Definitions[b]	Relevant Convention articles[c]	Guiding questions for systems review[b]
1. Principles and commitment	Mission, vision, and values	Mission, vision, and values are foundational documents upon which organizational consistency, cohesion, and constancy are established (Creemers & Reezigt, 1999)	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 6 (Survival and development) Article 28 (Right to education) Article 29 (Goals of education)	Are the domains of physical, cognitive, social-emotional, moral, and spiritual development represented in these documents?
	Policies and procedures	Schools establish rules and routines surrounding discipline, uniforms, attendance, and transportation, among others, which provide a roadmap for teachers, staff, students, and parents	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 13 (Freedom of expression) Article 14 (Freedom of thought, conscience, and religion) Article 16 (Right to privacy) Article 19 (Protection from all forms of violence) Article 23 (Children with disabilities) Article 28 (Right to education) Article 31 (Leisure, play, and culture)	Do policies reflect the best interests and rights of all children? Do discipline policies promote peace and respect for children? What do the children think of individual school policies and procedures?
	Accountability	Methods to hold people responsible for their assigned roles and obligations, as well as to account for personal and professional actions	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 4 (Protection of rights) Article 29 (Goals of education) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	How is knowledge of child rights conveyed throughout the school? How are staff assessed on their provision of child rights? How is holistic child development promoted, monitored, measured, reported?
2. Leadership	Senior management	Principal, board members, and primary administrative leaders who are responsible for making key decisions within the school regarding school-wide practices and finances	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 4 (Protection of rights) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	How are child rights promoted by leaders? Are the best interests of the child a primary consideration in financial decision-making? How are the voices and special knowledge/expertise of the children/students and parents included?
	Middle management	Department leaders, school psychologists, instructional coaches, and program coordinators who lead and supervise aspects of school activities	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 4 (Protection of rights) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	Does middle management discuss observed provision of child rights in feedback sessions?
	Practice leaders	Teachers, counselors, paraprofessionals, and operations staff who work directly with students and families	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 4 (Protection of rights) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	How are practice leaders integrating child rights into daily practice? Do staff actively reflect on their provision of child rights?

3. Human resource	Recruitment and retention	Search criteria, interview protocols, and hiring practices that help schools employ qualified candidates, as well as practices that increase the term of employment	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 29 (Goals of education) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	Are interview questions and hiring procedures reflective of a child rights perspective? How do staff voice concerns about child rights?
	Training and education	Workshops, coaching, courses, and resources that build knowledge and improve skills	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 29 (Goals of education) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	What training and ongoing support is provided on child rights and whole-child development? Is training differentiated to staff roles and experience?
	Recognition	Practices that showcase the work or efforts of staff members	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 4 (Protection of rights) Article 29 (Goals of education) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	How are effective practices that serve the best interest of children recognized?
	Work environment	Ways in which the physical environment of the school and interpersonal relationships affect staff	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 24 (Health and health services)	Describe the physical and interpersonal environment of the school. In what ways do descriptions reflect a rights-promoting climate?
4. Communication	Verbal	Formal and informal verbal conversations between all school stakeholders	Article 2 (Nondiscrimination) Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 16 (Right to privacy) Article 17 (Access to information)	Is the language used in the environment respectful of all? Under what circumstances are caregivers and community members contacted? Do conversations maintain confidentiality?
	Written	Formal and informal written correspondence between all school stakeholders	Article 2 (Nondiscrimination) Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 16 (Right to privacy) Article 17 (Access to information)	Do artifacts reflect the protection and promotion of child rights? What languages are used in home-school written communication?
5. Direct service	Curricula	Programming for academic, social, emotional, health, and wellness instruction at the universal and selected levels of support	Article 2 (Nondiscrimination) Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 23 (Children with disabilities) Article 29 (Goals of education) Article 30 (Children of minorities/indigenous groups) Article 31 (Leisure, play, and culture)	List all curricula used in the school. What domains of whole-child development are represented? What supports are provided to ensure the needs of all students are met? How are social-emotional skills formally developed? How and to what extent are the domains integrated to encourage a holistic approach?

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Domains and subdomains[a]		Definitions[b]	Relevant Convention articles[c]	Guiding questions for systems review[b]
	Implementation	Execution of selected programs	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child)	How is fidelity of implementation monitored? Do children and families have opportunities to provide feedback on programming?
6. Family and community engagement	Family	Primary caregivers and extended networks of support	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	What opportunities do caregivers have to engage with the school? How many families regularly participate? What trainings are available for caregivers?
	Community	Local community members and cultural and physical aspects of the surrounding environment	Article 2 (Nondiscrimination) Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	What is the nature of school-community interactions? What kind of outreach efforts exist?
	Public	Population outside of school community (citywide, statewide, nationwide)	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	How is the school communicating a child rights perspective to the population outside of the immediate community?
7. Environment and resource	Physical	School campus and its surroundings	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 19 (Protection from all forms of violence) Article 24 (Health and health services)	Is the physical environment clean, safe, and accessible to all? Do the physical surroundings promote health and wellness?
	Informational	Written and verbal communication used to inform	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 13 (Freedom of expression) Article 17 (Access to information) Article 42 (Knowledge of rights)	In what ways do the messages conveyed by the school (e.g., email signatures, school mottos, and mascots) represent whole-child values and initiatives?
	Social	Formal and informal opportunities for interaction among stakeholders (e.g., students, teachers, parents)	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 5 (Parental guidance) Article 15 (Freedom of association) Article 23 (Children with disabilities) Article 31 (Leisure, play, and culture)	Do *all* students have opportunities for engagement in activities that promote social, cultural, and physical development, as well as creativity?
	Resource	Material, financial, and human resources available to the school	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 24 (Health and health services) Article 27 (Adequate standard of living) Article 29 (Goals of education) Article 39 (Rehabilitation of child victims)	List current partnerships with community agencies. What other agencies are available to help promote and protect child rights?
8. Data and planning[d]	Data collection	Method of accruing available demographic, performance, and social-emotional information	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 4 (Protection of rights)	Are the methods of collecting data appropriate for the school setting (e.g., is consent necessary)? How are social-emotional data collected?

	Evaluation and planning	Process for measuring outcomes and decision-making	Article 3 (Best interests of the child) Article 4 (Protection of rights)	Are the data collected used to better meet the needs of children and ensure that their rights are protected?

[a] Domains and subdomains drawn from Fung et al. (2012)

[b] Definitions and guiding questions developed by chapter authors

[c] Convention refers to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989). Article titles based on UNICEF *Fact sheet: Summary of the rights under the Convention on the Rights of the Child* (n.d.). Articles were selected based on author perception of relevance to domains and those listed may not be comprehensive. Others may apply

[d] For additional guidance on the development of a rights-based accountability framework, see *Using Indicators to Promote and Monitor the Implementation of Human Rights: Report on the Work of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights on Indicators for the Treaty Bodies.* http://www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/indicators/docs/HRI.MC.2008.3_en.pdf. See also Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume, for suggested child rights indicators for schools

Inset 1: Sample Meeting Agenda for School Systems Review

School ABC has just received their annual review report from the superintendent of School District 123. They have identified areas for improvement including reducing suspension numbers, raising teacher satisfaction, and increasing student and family engagement. Seeing the relationship between the identified targets and child rights–based whole-child education, the school psychologist has proposed conducting the review through a child rights lens. Prior to the initial meeting, the team read and discussed the articles of the Convention and identified those relevant to the school and agreed upon the use of the Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools (Table 1) for the systems review.

Sample Meeting Agenda for School Systems Review: Domain 1	
Facilitator: School psychologist	
Participants:	Principal
	Assistant principal
	Curriculum director
	Special education director
	School social worker
Materials:	Copy of the school mission, vision, and values documents
	Copy of the school handbook and policy and relevant procedural documents
	UNICEF summary document of Convention articles
	The Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools
Systems review purpose: To unite school leaders in creating systems for the school that promote whole-child education *Meeting objective Day 1*: To assess the alignment of school mission, vision, and values with the Convention on the Rights of the Child, with the ultimate goal of revisions as needed	
Opening exercise: Participants share one to two sentences on their views of the purpose of schooling	
Read and review: Domain 1 of Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools and summaries of relevant articles of the Convention	
Analysis of current mission: • Read school mission • Facilitate group discussion based on guiding question: • Are the domains of physical, cognitive, social-emotional, moral, and spiritual development represented in these documents? • Identify key words that represent alignment • Identify missing elements • Identify key words that do not align • Record answers and ideas on board or chart	
Individual drafting: Have each participant draft a revised mission for the school individually Share drafts (e.g., post for gallery walk, share with a person next to you, share with the group)	
Collaborative drafting: Draft a new mission on board or chart paper, incorporating new ideas from the group	
Evaluation of new mission: Consider and discuss whether newly drafted mission is a statement that can be used to ground all subsequent systems, decisions, and practices of the school	
Next steps: • Plan to revisit at a subsequent meeting and revise as needed • Repeat process for school vision and school values • Plan for review and input from other stakeholders including teachers, parents, students, and community members (e.g., focus group sessions)	
Evaluation: Have participants share one element of the process that was effective and one element that they would like to modify for future meetings	

the child and be inclusive to all. The vision and the values should reflect a focus on the development of the whole child.

Policies should demonstrate understanding of the rights of the child and protect and promote those rights. Many articles of the Convention describe relevant rights for this broad subdomain. Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child), Article 13 (Freedom of expression), Article 14 (Freedom of thought, conscience, and religion), Article 16 (Right to privacy), Article 19 (Protection from all forms of violence), Article 23 (Children with disabilities), and Article 31 (Leisure, play, and culture) are especially pertinent. For example, discipline policies should promote well-being and skill building through the protection of the child, respect for privacy, and the establishment of a positive learning environment. Procedures for providing care for children with special needs should aim toward independence and support both students and families. Uniform policies should consider cultural practices and values of children and families. Day-to-day operations and procedures should reflect children's rights to play and express themselves. Programming and curricula should provide access to a variety of experiences. In addition, students should be asked to contribute input and feedback for the policies and procedures that affect them directly.

Accountability requires explicit methods to hold people responsible for their assigned roles and obligations, as well as to account for personal and professional actions and systems in which they are organized. Accountability practices should take into account the rights outlined in Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 4 (Protection of rights), Article 29 (Goals of education), and Article 42 (Knowledge of rights). Incorporating these articles into accountability measures can ensure that the school and staff are in fact meeting the goals outlined in the mission, vision, and values, therefore protecting and promoting the rights of all children so that they can reach their fullest potential. Teacher and staff evaluation measures should include items concerning the provision and promotion of child rights. Teacher coaching and feedback should address child rights issues in the classroom (e.g., repeated exclusionary practices, culturally and developmentally appropriate language), and professional development for teachers and staff should incorporate education on child rights and implementation. Accountability should also inform all policy leadership and their constituents of the effects for/on children that flow from principles and commitments.

Leadership Commitment of personnel is fundamental to the success of any initiative within a school (Fixsen, Naoom, Blase, & Friedman, 2005). The domain includes senior management, middle management, and practice leaders. Ideally, parents and students would also be included. In order to gain this commitment, all should receive training that underscores the importance of child rights and whole-child development. The speeches, memos, and interactions of senior management, including principals, board members, and other administrative leaders responsible for key decision-making, should promote a child rights perspective. They should conduct policy and program reviews that integrate an assessment of child rights provision and child outcomes. In this regard, finances should be allocated for initiatives that develop the whole child. Moreover, students should have the opportunity to give input during the creation of school policy.

Middle managers, including department leaders, school psychologists, instructional coaches, and program coordinators, lead and supervise aspects of school activities. Their observations and feedback should utilize a child rights lens to encourage whole-child educational practices in classrooms. Knowledge and understanding of the Convention will improve decision-making capacity regarding curricula and programming. Professional learning communities at this level may be used as an avenue for discussing, planning, implementing, and advocating for the provision of child rights throughout the school. A professional learning community is an evidence-based practice in which a group of colleagues work together to problem solve, gain new content knowledge, and, ultimately, learn collaboratively to enact change (Olivier, 2006).

The professional practice of teachers, counselors, paraprofessionals, and operations staff who work directly with students and families (i.e., practice leaders) should be child rights driven. Peer observations and lesson plan analyses should look for the integration of child rights into daily practice and the inclusion of children's voices in decision-making. Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 4 (Protection of rights), Article 5 (Parental guidance), Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child), and Article 42 (Knowledge of rights) describe rights salient to the roles and responsibilities of school personnel in this domain.

Human resource Human resource refers to recruitment and retention, training and education, recognition, and work environment. From the search for new staff to the day-to-day experiences of staff and students, the rights of the Convention can serve to ensure that an environment promotes positive well-being for all. The perspectives of students and families should help guide these processes. Within recruitment practices, interviews should include the presentation of the child rights-centered mission, vision, and values and inquiries about philosophical alignment and applications. To increase retention, administrators should provide a forum for addressing concerns about the provision of child rights that arise throughout the year. Training workshops, coaching, courses, and resources, including an interactive website option, that build knowledge and improve skills should underscore the importance of child rights and how the Convention relates to one's role as an educator. Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 5 (Parental guidance), Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child), Article 29 (Goals of education), and Article 42 (Knowledge of rights) can serve as foundational standards for these subdomains.

Recognition practices that showcase the work or efforts of staff members should include allotting time at staff meetings and space in weekly bulletins to highlight staff who model good practices that fully incorporate child rights. Staff should utilize informal opportunities to positively reinforce ways in which others practice the promotion of whole-child development and protect the rights of children. Along with the previously noted articles, staff should be recognized particularly for the provision of Article 4 (Protection of rights).

The ways in which the physical environment of the school and interpersonal relationships affect staff create the climate or work environment. Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 5 (Parental guidance), Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child), and Article 24 (Health and health services) outline relevant rights. A child rights-supportive environment is one where staff and students greet each other respectfully. In such an environment, self-care is recognized and respected as necessary to ensure that staff can successfully provide for students. Here, procedural systems contribute to a safe and rights-respecting atmosphere, where staff, families, and students feel that they can communicate openly with one another.

Communication Communication, verbal and written, formal and informal, should be frequent among all stakeholders, including children and parents, to promote transparency of goals. Interactions should reflect a shared language of respect. Pertinent terms from the mission, vision, and values should be a part of everyday vernacular and visible on signage (e.g., individual classroom visions written and posted outside of the doors). Within all communication, confidentiality should be appropriately respected (e.g., hallway and break room conversations, password-protected emails). Effort should be made to include languages other than English spoken by students. Communication should echo the rights described in Article 2 (Nondiscrimination), Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 5 (Parental guidance), Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child), Article 16 (Right to privacy), and Article 17 (Access to information).

Direct service Direct service is defined as the curricula, that is, programming for academic, social-emotional, and health and wellness instruction at the universal and tiered support levels and in the implementation of selected programs. Curricula should be developmentally appropriate and differentiated to meet the needs of each and all students in inclusive settings (see Hart and Hart, chapters "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning" and "Toward a Preferred Future for School Psychology", in this volume). Cultural, artistic, recreational, and leisure activities should also be incorporated into curricula (Article 31). Instruction should include teaching social skills throughout the day to develop the whole child. Decisions regarding curricula selection can be guided by Article 2 (Nondiscrimination), Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 23 (Children with disabilities), Article 29 (Goals of education), Article 30 (Children of minorities/indigenous groups), and Article 31 (Leisure, play, and culture).

Successful implementation of whole-child education through child rights is multifaceted and necessitates commitment, knowledge, and understanding of desired outcomes (Covell et al., 2010). Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 5 (Parental guidance), and Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child) provide parameters, guidelines, and a foundation for the implementation of child rights initiatives. A starting point should be the identification of facilitators and barriers to the implementation of child rights-infused programming. Feedback should be solicited from all stakeholders, including parents and children.

Family and community engagement Primary caregivers, extended networks of support, local community members, cultural and physical aspects of the surrounding environment, as well as the greater society are all integral to the promotion of child rights. Schools should provide multiple ways for caregivers to be involved in the school community including parent-teacher organizations, conferences, volunteerism, special projects, committee memberships, and social gatherings. Families should be offered training opportunities and support in the provision of child rights (Adelman & Taylor, 2008). Feedback on the integration of child rights in the school community should be solicited from families. The following articles may be used as strong points of reference: Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 5 (Parental guidance), Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child), and Article 42 (Knowledge of rights).

Schools should include the local community in the provision of child rights by offering information and training. Focus groups can be conducted to gain an understanding of cultural practices and local systems of support (Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016). In outreach efforts, child rights-centered messages should be communicated on promotional materials, flyers, banners, and the school website. Article 2 (Nondiscrimination), Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 29 (Aims of education), and Article 42 (Knowledge of rights) provide relevant background.

Environment and resource This domain is comprised of the physical, informational, social, and resource subdomains. The school campus and its surroundings make up the physical environment and should reflect and protect the rights described in Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 19 (Protection from all forms of violence), and Article 24 (Health and health services). Specifically, classrooms, hallways, and community spaces should be clean, safe, accessible, and facilitating to all. The environment should promote health and wellness through the provision of nutritious food, safe playground equipment, and access to developmentally appropriate learning space (e.g., school garden).

The informational environment of a school is created by the written and verbal communication used to inform the school community. Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 13 (Freedom of expression), Article 17 (Access to information), and Article 42 (Knowledge of rights) should be considered in informational transactions. Signs on the walls should espouse child rights-centered policies. Weekly or daily informational boards should be updated with events and themes for each grade level reflecting whole-child initiatives and programming and access to important community information. Bulletin boards and hallway displays should showcase student work.

Formal and informal opportunities for interaction among stakeholders (e.g., students, teachers, parents, community representatives) comprise the social environment. Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 5 (Parental guidance), Article 15 (Freedom of association), Article 23 (Children with disabilities), and Article 31 (Leisure, play, and culture) are especially relevant to this domain. Opportunities for play, creativity (e.g., arts, music, drama), and physical activity (e.g., physical education and sports) should be provided to all students. Regular school staff and family gatherings (e.g., parent breakfast meetings) should also be held.

Material, financial, and human resources are all available within a school. These resources should serve the best interests of children and the rights outlined in Article 3 (Best interests of the child), Article 24 (Health and health services), Article 27 (Adequate standard of living), Article 29 (Goals of education), and Article 39 (Rehabilitation of child victims). For example, schools should form partnerships with community agencies to help serve the needs and to promote and protect the rights of children (e.g., child rights organizations, universities, mental health organizations). Financial resources should be allocated to effectively implement whole-child educational initiatives.

Data and planning Formative and summative collection of student demographics, performance, and social-emotional functioning should be planned in advance and should include data on structure, process, and outcomes (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights: OHCHR, 2008). All stakeholder groups should be involved in universal screening, annual measures of school climate, and stakeholder focus groups. The objective of ongoing and end-of-year analysis of data should be to identify patterns of need, to evaluate program outcomes, and to inform potential new focus areas. Article 3 (Best interests of the child) and Article 4 (Protection of rights) are particularly useful for intentional data collection and planning.

The Role of the School Psychologist

The Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools can serve as a guide to child rights-informed systems consultation and the reform of schools. School psychologists work toward the goals of improving individual competencies of children and of building capacities of systems that serve the needs of students, encourage positive development, and promote well-being (Hess et al., 2012; Ysseldyke, et al., 2006). School psychologists have many roles within a school and possess a range of skills and depth of knowledge that position them to lead reform through systems consultation. (For additional guidance on the use of the Convention in consultation, see Verlenden, Adelson, Naser, and Carey, chapter "Application of Child Rights to School-Based Consultation", in this volume.) School psychologist collaboration with school personnel and families around child rights enhances the implementation of initiatives, programs, and policies that cultivate whole-child development and create a healthy ecological system of learning (Hess et al., 2012; Pillay, 2014). Just as the purpose of schooling is to cultivate the whole child, the goal of psychology, including school psychology, should also be to foster that development (Pillay, 2014).

The National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2012) in the United States explicitly connects child rights with the roles and responsibilities of school psychologists in their 2012 Child Rights Position Statement. Moreover, the mission statement of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) establishes the importance of the school psychologist in the promotion of whole-child development and the promotion and protection of the rights of children through direct service and consultation (ISPA, 2015). Both organizations recommend that school psychologists receive training on child rights to fully understand the Convention and to incorporate its principles into their practice. The Tulane University Child Rights Team[2] (TUCRT) has designed an interactive online school psychologist training curriculum for independent learning that can build a foundation of knowledge and have application to individual practice. Modules can be adapted for use in graduate school psychology training programs and continuing education.[3] Each of the learning modules is relevant to child rights system reform and the promotion of whole-child development by the school psychologist. These learning modules serve as a beginning for the broader application of child rights to the field of school psychology. As noted by the module authors (TUCRT, 2013), "The consistent respect for the rights of all children will not happen merely as a result of good intentions. Intentions must be accompanied by changes in the structures, processes, and behaviors designed, developed, and delivered to serve the best interests of children" (Module 4).

Conclusion

Child rights-driven systems are central to development of the whole child, fulfilling the purpose of schooling. The organizational structure; the mission, vision, and values; policies and procedures; and accountability practices all work together to create an ecological system of learning. Incorporating a child rights perspective into these systems ensures that the physical, cognitive, social-emotional, moral, and spiritual developmental needs of children are met. For this to happen, all stakeholders need to have the knowledge, skills, and mindset to build a child rights-supporting environment. This needs to be a system-wide effort that is embraced by all school personnel. For widespread implementation to be adopted and maintained, government agencies need to recognize the importance of child rights. Educational policies should reflect their commitment. The Convention exists to guide lawmakers in this endeavor. School psychologists are poised to help schools develop the strong structures of practice necessary to cultivate positive development of the whole child as outlined by the Convention through consultation, research, and advocacy (Hart & Hart, 2014).

As implementation of the Convention becomes widespread, research on the Convention's impact will be necessary. To date, research in schools concerning child rights has primarily focused on the teaching and awareness of child rights (e.g., Covell et al., 2010; Grover, 2005). Research on ways in which child rights models can enhance the larger school environment and change systems of practice is a potential area for exploration. For example, research on ways in which the Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools facilitates system change could strengthen its application.

The adoption and application of child rights is a large undertaking. The Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools is a good starting point for schools and school psychologists to work together to begin this reform, as the responsibility for the protection, provision, and promotion of child rights lies in the hands of all.

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[2] For access, contact Bonnie Nastasi, PhD, School Psychology Program, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA; bnastasi@tulane.edu

[3] A related training manual is available in the online resources for this handbook.

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Child Rights, Policy, and School Psychology

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Abstract

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child considers children to be citizens with inalienable rights and delineates what those rights should be. Nearly all States parties have ratified this treaty, agreeing to provide for and protect those rights. However, while strides have been made regarding legislative reforms, challenges remain in aligning federal and regional policies with the articles of the Convention. The current chapter highlights these opportunities and challenges and describes specific examples of States parties' actions as a result of the Convention articles. Additionally, this chapter describes specific legislative priorities that both influence and are influenced by the work of school psychologists such as educational funding, school placement policies, educational curricula and standards, the provision of mental health services in schools, and the design of laws and policies for children with disabilities.

Introduction

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (henceforth referred to as the Convention; UN, 1989) was adopted in 1989, followed by commitment (e.g., ratification) by States parties (nations). The Convention classifies children as citizens with claim to their own rights, entitled to special protections above and beyond those provided by their parents and caregivers, and it holds States parties responsible for providing for and protecting those rights (Covells, 2012). Rather than "paternalistic notions of children's needs," the Convention sets the standard for policies and laws to protect, provide for, and allow for the participation of children in decisions and processes that affect them (Butler, 2012, p. 15).

The UN sought to have all countries ratify the Convention by the year 2000. At this time, all States parties, with the exception of the United States, have ratified the Convention. (The United States signed the Convention in 1995 and helped draft many of the articles, but it has yet to be submitted to the US Senate for approval toward ratification.) Following ratification came the task of turning words and promises to action. This meant exploring what ratification would entail, namely, the manner in which the treaty would influence policies and practices regarding children.

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This current chapter discusses opportunities and challenges related to Convention-driven legislative reform, including specific examples of States parties' interpretations of Convention articles. Additionally, this chapter details specific Convention articles with implications for policies affecting the role of the school psychologist. Wernham (chapter "Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists," this volume) addresses how school psychologists can influence policy and practices through advocacy.

Laws and Policies Implied or Elucidated in the Convention

States parties are expected to implement the Convention "through the [progressive] adoption of rights-based laws, policies, and programs according to their evolving resources" (Covells, 2012, p. 39). Rather than detailing specific policies to be enacted, the Convention serves as a set of agreed-upon principles, which are organized into articles. However, many of the articles of the Convention set detailed standards. For example, Article 1 defines a "child" as an individual under the age of 18 and prohibits the service of individuals under the age of 15 into military service. Other articles are somewhat open to interpretation by individual States parties. For example, Article 27 requires States parties to "recognize the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral, and social development." Not only may ideas about an "adequate standard of living" vary among States parties according to sociocultural and socioeconomic factors, but they also may vary widely within the same country.

Some articles also have implications for numerous laws and policies. For example, Article 1, in defining a child as an individual under 18, implies that States parties set laws governing practices such as child marriage or criminal sentencing for juveniles. Similarly, individual policies and laws may be implicated in various articles of the Convention. For example, Article 2 requires that States parties protect children equally regardless of "the child's or his or her parent's or legal guardian's race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status." This implies both that States parties must set the same minimum marriage age and that they provide the same educational opportunities for both genders.

While the articles and principles serve as straightforward, comprehensive guidelines for applying human rights to those under 18, they were designed to allow for diverse interpretations in order to accommodate cultural differences between and within States parties. Unfortunately, this flexibility may at times lead to interpretations so broad that they lack adherence to the original spirit of the article. For example, in Saudi Arabia, consistent with the Convention, national law stipulates that individuals must be 18 in order to be tried as an adult. However, laws also allow judges to try a child as an adult at their discretion. This is evidenced in the highly publicized case of Ali Mohammed Baqir al-Nimr, who is currently (as of October 2015) sentenced to death for "crimes against the state" though he was 17 when the alleged offenses took place. Saudi Arabia is far from alone; many other countries (including the United States) have habitually waived the rights of individuals under 18 to be tried as juveniles, even in death penalty cases.

Difficulties in Legislative Reform

What leads to the stark contrast between ratification and implementation? In 2007, UNICEF launched the *Legislative Reform Initiative* to examine the provision of child rights in developing countries. They uncovered trends in the implementation of the Convention's principles within States parties' policies. For one, while the Convention calls for the "best interests of the child" to be a primary consideration when designing laws and policies concerning minors, this somewhat ambiguous standard can be interpreted differently based on each States party's ethnic, religious, and socioeconomic makeup (UNICEF, 2007b). As an example, UNICEF (2007b) found that States parties prioritized child protection laws, with a focus on immediate physical harm, while failing to give credence to other important areas, such as intellectual and emotional development and equal participation.

UNICEF (2007b) further illustrated the way in which "social" versus "legal" issues are approached and categorized in nation states. Indeed, social policies to combat child poverty were seen as "discretionary and distinct administrative initiatives that fall into the realm of social policy rather than enforceable law" (p. 11). Similarly, UNICEF (2007b) found that protection against exploitation and abuse was heavily relegated to the category of laws and penalties in most States parties examined, with few social policies designed to prevent such incidents. This contrasts with the Convention's Article 19 and the Committee's General Comment (13), which call for preventative interventions. Therefore, while protection laws directly, and reactively, addressed child exploitation and abuse through laws that punish offenders, little was being done in the way of preventing such incidents through changes in social structures (UNICEF, 2007b). As a result, UNICEF (2007b) found that ratification rarely led to large-scale changes in laws, policies, and traditions. Instead, the States parties reviewed in the initiative mostly addressed the principles of the Convention through "general children's acts and/or ad hoc legislation" (UNICEF, 2007b, p. 7).

The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereafter, referred to as the Committee) is the body of 18 international experts who oversee implementation of the Convention worldwide. They periodically provide feedback to individual States parties as well as provide additional context to and interpretations of CRC articles. The extent to which States parties adhere to the letter and spirit of the Convention can be traced through the Committee's Concluding Observations to individual States parties. For example, in its 2012 Concluding Observations to Australia, the Committee found that the country failed to comprehensively enact the Convention in national policy and legislation through a coordinated plan of action, policy initiatives, or budget planning (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2013). Indeed, the Australian Human Rights Commission (2013) explains that many Australian children continue to "fall through the gaps" (p. 19). Notably, as of 2013 Australia had failed to comprehensively end the practice of incarcerating juveniles in the same facilities as adults (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2013). The fragmentation of child rights-protective legislation, as the Committee explains, is partially due to the federal system of government in that country (UNCRC, 2012). Therefore, the Committee recommended that Australia both enact national child rights legislation and ensure that domestic laws conform to the Convention (UNCRC, 2012).

Children's rights watch groups as well as the Committee have suggested changes to the way that policies are designed and implemented that would embed child rights into key governmental decisions. The Children's Rights Alliance of Ireland (2015) gave that States party an "F" on its annual report card for the rate of child poverty in that country, despite social reform initiatives taking place and nationwide goals to drastically reduce the rate of poverty by 2020. As a solution, the Alliance suggested that each state department assess the social impact on the rate of poverty prior to making budgetary and programmatic decisions. Such a move would force governments to address child poverty, and child rights as a whole, in every federal legislative act, rather than merely through tertiary social policies and symbolic acts and initiatives that lack effectiveness. Similarly, the Australian Human Rights Commission (2013) suggested that the country take on a "child-specific approach" to budgetary planning through the establishment of "clear allocations to children in relevant sectors, specific indicators, and tracking and monitoring systems" (p. 21). (To access the most current information, see the *KidsRights Index*, which provides annual rankings of countries' adherence to and capacity for promoting and protecting child rights; published by the KidsRights Foundation, www.kidsrightsindex.org.)

Policy Changes in Response to Convention Ratification

Some States parties have enacted wide-scale changes in response to the Convention. For example, in Belize, the Supreme Court has established the Convention as legal precedence in the courts in place of prior domestic law through their Families and Children's Act (Covells, 2012). Similarly, in Belgium the Convention is "self-executing," in that it has been automatically established as legal precedence in any new claims brought to court (Covells, 2012, p. 40). Egypt and Ghana have introduced a comprehensive Children's Act that incorporates many aspects of the Convention (UNICEF, n.d.). However, there is no "perfect" States party in terms of Convention implementation, and the process of incorporating the Convention into domestic law and policy must be viewed as ongoing and multidimensional. The Committee suggests the Convention be used to guide the design of policies, programs, and legislation in the following ways:

1. Develop a comprehensive national agenda for children.
2. Develop permanent bodies or mechanisms to promote coordination, monitoring, and evaluation of activities throughout all sectors of government.
3. Ensure that all legislation is fully compatible with the Convention.
4. Make children visible in policy development processes throughout government by introducing child impact assessments.
5. Carry out adequate budget analyses to determine the portion of public funds spent on children and to ensure that these resources are being used effectively.
6. Ensure that sufficient data are collected and used to improve the plight of all children in each jurisdiction.
7. Raise awareness and disseminate information on the Convention by providing training to all those involved in government policy-making and working with or for children.
8. Involve civil society—including children themselves—in the process of implementing and raising awareness of child rights.
9. Set up independent statutory offices—ombudspersons, commissions, and other institutions—to promote children's rights (UNICEF, n.d., p. 1–3).

Considerations for School Psychologists

This current chapter focuses on domestic laws and policies that influence the extent to which school psychologists provide for children's rights in a school setting. (For implications of school-level practices and decision-making to the provision of children's rights, see other chapters in this volume.) The practice of school psychology varies widely among and within States parties; therefore, it is useful to arrive at a general definition of school psychology. The International School Psychology Association (ISPA) defines school psychologists as "professionals prepared in psychology and education and who are recognized as specialists in the provision of psychological services to children and youth within the contexts of schools, families, and other settings that impact their growth and development" (ISPA, n.d.)

It is important to note that while the practice of school psychology continues to grow internationally, many States parties may not yet have professionals working in schools that fit this definition. Jimerson, Stewart, Skokut, Cardenas, and Malone (2009) identified 83 States parties with at least some evidence of school psychological practice, including those that may utilize other titles (e.g., educational psychologists) but fulfill the general definition of school psychology noted above. The extent to which school psychology is practiced, however, varies between countries. Even within countries, such as in the United States, the scope of school psychological practice may vary across schools, regions, and/or states.

School psychologists, according to ISPA (n.d.), provide services to students under three broad domains: assessment, intervention, and consultation (ISPA, n.d.). These influences can be considered within an ecological framework, with the child at the center. As described in previous chapters (e.g., see Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy," this volume), school psychologists generally operate within a child's *exosystem* (such as the school community) and often serve as a *mesosystem* that connects various systems influencing the child. The surrounding *macrosystem* (national and regional) laws and policies, as well as *microsystem* (family, neighborhood, peers) affordances, influence the extent to which school psychologists are able to carry out their work and protect the rights of the children they serve. Although it could be argued that nearly every national and regional law has the potential to influence the provision of child rights, the following section describes domestic policies that directly affect the ability of school psychologists to carry out child rights-centered work with children.

School Assignment and Funding Policies

Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention call for access to quality education, and Article 2 specifies that these rights and, in fact, all child rights be provided without discrimination based on factors such as socioeconomic status, race, gender, and disability. Equitable access to schooling continues to be a primary focus of UNICEF and other human rights organizations (see https://www.unicef.org/education/bege_61657.html). In many countries, the quality of and access to public schooling are largely determined by one's geographic region, socioeconomic status, and/or gender. As an example, the Committee has recommended that Colombia develop a national strategy to raise the quality of education in impoverished rural areas (UNCRC, 2006a). As another example, in the United States, most education funding and decision-making power are handled at the state and local levels, and quality of public schooling can therefore vary widely. In 2010–2011, nearly half (43.4%) of the funding for US public schools was derived locally, often from property taxes (*Digest of Education Statistics*, 2013, Table 32). That same year, 23 of the 50 states spent more per pupil in high-income districts than low-income districts, arguably meaning that schools with the highest needs received the lowest funding (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d., Table A-1). In most instances, federal grants and programs made up the difference in funding (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d., Table A-6), thereby adding credence to the importance of national oversight and support.

In States parties that lack an affordable or free quality public education system, only children whose parents are wealthy enough to seek private education are afforded the right to a quality education. Related to this condition, the Committee has recommended that Pakistan increase spending on public education, citing low enrollment and literacy rates and poor quality of education overall (UNCRC, 2003b, para. 60). In Haiti, the Committee has expressed concern that education is primarily relegated to the private sector and has called for publicly run schools (UNCRC, 2003a, para. 52).

Access to free, high-quality schooling in many States parties may also be tied to factors other than socioeconomic status. Exclusion based on race, ethnicity, gender, religion, or disability is still a reality in many States parties. The Committee has expressed concern, for example, about disparities in school access in mainland China, "which negatively affect girls, children with learning difficulties, ethnic minority children, children living in rural areas and western provinces, and migrant children" (UNCRC, 2005a, para. 75). In statements to the Islamic Republic of Iran, the Committee has commented on “the disparity that continues to exist between boys and girls; the high dropout rates of girls in rural schools upon reaching puberty; the lack of female teachers in rural areas; and long distances between homes and schools, which keep girls at home, particularly after primary school” (UNCRC, 2005b). Similarly, for Greece, the Committee has expressed concern over the treatment of asylum-seeking and refugee children, including “xenophobia among teachers and students,” as well as difficulties in registering for school and in procuring certificates of graduation (UNCRC, 2002, paras. 66 and 67). The Committee has also admonished several States parties, such as France, to fully integrate students with disabilities into general education or “mainstream” schools (UNCRC, 2004a).

School assignment, school exclusion, and school funding policies directly affect the extent to which school psychologists can ensure the provision of these rights. School psychologists may not be present in underfunded school systems, or, if they are, they may be too overburdened to provide quality assessments, interventions, and school consultation for all students in need. States parties must ensure that education is prioritized in national budgets and that the quality of education available is the same for all its child citizens.

Conclusion

Equal access to quality education affects the extent to which school psychologists can provide quality services. Consider a school psychologist working in an adequately funded school system. This psychologist may be able to perform the full spectrum of services, giving adequate time and attention to all manners of service delivery. A school psychologist of equal training and ability in an underfunded system may, despite a belief in and appreciation for the Convention, be unable to perform his or her job at the highest quality, thus contributing to the unequal distribution of quality educational services. Further, when children are excluded from educational opportunities based on gender and other factors, school psychologists are unable to provide services to an entire population of children in affected communities.

A child rights approach to educational policy, on the other hand, recognizes that children have claim to “morally inalienable rights” that cannot be lost “regardless of behavior, family context, or parental wishes” (Covells, 2012, p. 39). Thus, States parties that take a child rights approach to school funding and inclusion would view national and regional governmental bodies that make school funding and inclusion decisions as “those who can be held accountable and against whom a claim can be made” (Covells, 2012, p. 39). According to the Convention, children without access to quality educational opportunities are not hapless victims of a failing system but are rather legitimate complainants entitled to unalienable rights. School psychologists can play a role in advocacy for educational rights, among other child rights. (See Wernham, chapter “Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists”, in this volume for further discussion of advocacy.)

The Purpose of Schooling: Educational Programming and Standards

The Convention (1989) defines a “quality education” as extending well beyond reading, writing and arithmetic. Article 29 states that, among other areas, education be directed toward “the development of the child’s personality, talents, and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential”; the “development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms”; and “the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples; ethnic, national, and religious groups; and persons of indigenous origin.” The Committee’s General Comment No. 1 (2001), providing clarification and guidance regarding Article 29, states that “education must also be aimed at ensuring that essential life skills are learnt by every child…not only literacy and numeracy but also life skills such as the ability to make well-balanced decisions; to resolve conflicts in a non-violent manner; and to develop a healthy lifestyle, good social relationships and responsibility, critical thinking, creative talents, and other abilities which give children the tools needed to pursue their options in life" (para. 9). National and regional primary education systems can help provide for child rights by the addition of a child rights curriculum as well as standards for social and emotional skill building. (Readers may find the following resources helpful: *A Human Rights Based Approach to Education*, UNCF/UNESCO, 2007; *Child Friendly Schools manual*, UNICEF, 2009.)

Social-Emotional Skill Building and Mental Health Services in Schools

The Convention is one of the first international documents to prioritize the psychological well-being in children at the same level as physical needs (Covells, 2012). Convention Article 27 calls for States parties to "recognize the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral, and social development." Similarly, Article 23 calls for States parties to provide opportunities for children with disabilities that make it possible for them to achieve "the fullest possible social integration and individual development." Additionally, Article 39 calls on States Parties to "take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration of a child victim."

Mental health services can be understood to encompass programs and services meant to address existing significant psychological problems, as well as to provide opportunities for the healthy psychological development of all children. Though the Convention does not specify that mental health services be provided in schools, schools provide an opportune setting in which mental health services can take place, particularly if defined to fit multiple tiers of service (i.e., promotion, prevention, correction). Indeed, for students with intensive needs, it is difficult to see how Article 29, which states that schools provide for "the development of the child's personality, talents, and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential," could be effectively carried out sans mental health services. Similarly, the Committee (UNCRC, 2001) states that education should ensure that "no child leaves school without being equipped to face the challenges that he or she can expect to be confronted with in life." Article 39 specifies that the "recovery and reintegration" of child victims should happen "in an environment [that] fosters the health, self-respect, and dignity of the child." This implies not only that schools have the role of applying acute care to children who have undergone trauma (in various interventions, including a form of therapy) but that schools are also obliged to implement trauma-informed practices within the overall environment in order to promote recovery. Furthermore, Article 28 on the right to education calls for school discipline practices that respect the dignity of the child and avoid practices that involve physical or mental abuse or neglect of the child and, thereby, threaten perpetration of trauma.

Intervention—including psychological intervention—is one of the primary three roles of school psychologists defined by ISPA (n.d.). School psychologists are poised to provide and oversee direct psychological interventions to students with mental health needs. Still, to date, only a fraction of children in need of mental health services have access to them. Globally, the percentage of children with mental disorders is estimated at about 20% (WHO, 2005). Neither low-income nor high-income countries are fully addressing these vast needs; less than one in three States parties has "an institution or governmental entity with clearly identifiable overall responsibility for child mental health programme in the country" (WHO, 2005, p. 17). Instead, these needs are met primarily through various non-coordinated entities such as schools, healthcare settings, and social services (WHO, 2005). For example, in the United States, several federal programs provide funds for mental health services in schools, yet only 7–16% of children in need of mental health services in the United States receive them (Maag & Katsiyannis, 2010).

School psychologists are also positioned to help shape and oversee the implementation of more universal mental health supports in schools, including promotion, prevention, and correction, in the form of social-emotional learning. Social and emotional skill building not only enhances positive outcomes and thus helps realize the promise of the Convention to provide for the optimal development of children; it also has the power to prevent negative outcomes for children in adolescence and adulthood, in turn better providing for the rights of future generations (Daniel, 2012). In the United States, the state of Illinois recently introduced grade-level social-emotional standards with three common goals: to (a) "develop self-awareness and self-management skills to achieve school and life success"; (b) "use social awareness and interpersonal skills to establish and maintain positive relationships"; and (c) promote demonstration of "decision-making skills and responsible behaviors in personal, school, and community contexts" (Illinois State Department of Education, n.d.).

The Committee has not explicitly suggested that States parties require social and emotional skill standards, though Article 29 would seem to require it, but many of the Committee's Concluding Observations seem to point in this direction. For example, the Committee suggested that Granada "review its educational programme with a view to improving its quality and relevance and ensuring that students are taught an adequate mix of academic subjects and life skills, including communication, decision-making and conflict resolution skills" (UNCRC, 2000, para. 25). The Committee has also commented on the overarching culture of education in some States parties, encouraging efforts to make schools more conducive to healthy psychological development. For example, the Committee wrote that the "excessively competitive nature of the education system" in Japan "has a negative effect on the children's physical and mental health and hampers the development of the child to his or her fullest potential" (UNCRC, 2004b, para. 49). Both the World Health Organization (2013) and UNICEF (2009) have advocated for child-friendly schools that include universal social-emotional learning programs as part of the promotion of healthy, safe schools.

Teaching Child Rights

A key tool in the provision and protection of child rights is making children aware of their rights and providing the tools through which they can self advocate. Article 42 of the Convention calls upon States parties to "make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike." Educating children about their rights and human rights in general embeds this framework into societal and cultural values, as well as policy and legislation (Covells, 2012, p. 50). Educational standards and curricula offer widespread and convenient avenues for teaching students about their universal rights. The Committee has included the addition of a human rights curriculum in several of its Concluding Observations to States parties. For example, the Committee recommended that the Syrian Arab Republic "include human rights education, including children's rights, in school curricula, particularly with respect to the development of and respect for human rights, tolerance, and equality of the sexes and of religious and ethnic minorities" (UNCRC, 2003c, para. 47). Similarly, the Committee called upon Hungary to use human rights education in schools to help combat "discriminatory and xenophobic attitudes" toward Roma children (UNCRC, 2006b, para. 19).

Many States parties have already included human rights education in schools. In this regard, the Committee praised Armenia for introducing a "special curricula…designed for teaching human rights, as well as the foundations of democracy and civil society" in primary schools (UNCRC, 2003d, para. 53). It should be noted that educational standards and curricula are some ways that child rights are encouraged, communicated, and taught in schools. As the Committee noted in its General Comment No. 1, the promotion of child rights in schools "includes not only the content of the curriculum but also the educational processes, the pedagogical methods, and the environment within which education takes place, whether it be the home, school, or elsewhere. Children do not lose their human rights by virtue of passing through the school gates" (UNCRC, 2001, para. 8).

Special Education Policies and Programs

As previously mentioned, Article 2 calls upon States parties to provide all rights delineated in the Convention to children without discrimination, including those with disability status. Additionally, Article 23 requires States parties to provide "special care" for children with disabilities "in a manner conducive to the child's achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development." School psychologists typically play an important part in the education of children with disabilities, from assessment and identification to the design and provision of interventions and services. According to ISPA (n.d.), school psychologists help in "determining the etiology of disorders, in planning and evaluating interventions, and in preventing the onset of disabling conditions." Therefore, policies and legislation regarding persons with disability have a direct effect on the extent to which school psychologists can ensure the provision of the rights of students with disabilities.

Internationally, programs and legal protections vary in regard to the education of children with special needs. In many States parties, persons with disabilities have legal classifications that confer special protections as vulnerable parties. This is due, in part, to the historical exclusion of persons with disability from education, employment, and social opportunities (UNCRC, 2006d). Unfortunately, though many States parties have taken steps to protect persons with disabilities, including children, the Committee has found that most countries need to significantly improve the treatment of children with disabilities (UNCRC, 2006d). Through periodic reviews, the Committee has identified problems ranging from "the exclusion [of children with disabilities] from decision-making processes" to "severe discrimination and actual killing of children with disabilities" (UNCRC, 2006d).

The Committee has made several recommendations to individual States parties regarding the education of children with disabilities in school. For example, the Committee recommended that Lebanon "ensure that public education policy and school curricula reflect … the principle of full participation and equality and include children with disabilities in the mainstream school system to the extent possible and, where necessary, establish special education programmes tailored to their special needs" (UNCRC, 2006c, para. 51). Similarly, the Committee recommended that Latvia "provide early childhood education and care and primary and secondary education for children with disabilities in a way that corresponds to the needs of these children, preferably in mainstream educational facilities, and is conducive to the child's achievement of the fullest possible social integration and individual development" and to "remove physical barriers to enable effective access of children with disabilities to schools and other institutions and services" (UNCRC, 2006b, paras. 40 and 41).

What Do Child Rights–Compliant Educational Policies for Students with Disabilities Look Like? In its General Comment No. 9 (UNCRC, 2006d), the Committee offered several recommendations on ensuring child rights to children with disabilities. Several of these can be applied to the provision of educational services for children with disabilities. These include:

1. *A separate budget set aside for the education of children with disabilities.* The Committee urges States parties to give special attention to the "survival and development" of children with disabilities "by developing and implementing special programs aiming at their inclusion in society and allocating earmarked budgets to that effect." This includes, but it is not limited to, additional training for teachers and service providers working with children

with disabilities, as well as assistive technology and related services.

2. *Measurable outcomes and progress monitoring for the education of children with disabilities*. The Committee calls on States parties to create a national plan of action for persons with disabilities that includes measurable outcomes and progress monitoring on specific success indicators. This implies that the educational progress of children with disabilities should be monitored above and beyond general accountability systems. For example, in the United States, schools are required to provide students identified with disabilities (special education students) with individualized education plans (IEP). These include, in theory, personalized goals and progress monitoring for students in special education based on specific educational needs.

   At the population level, States parties should ensure that valid and reliable methods of data collection are in place to track the performance and progress of children with disabilities disaggregated from the general population. Such a policy was enacted as part of the United States' 2001 No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001) which required public school districts to report the performance of students with disabilities on state standardized tests separately from general education performance. Measurement should go above and beyond reporting of test scores, however. The Committee encourages States parties to report data "which reflect the actual situation of children with disabilities." This implies that reporting also include meaningful qualitative data such as student observations and student, family, and stakeholder perspectives on student progress and performance.

   Additionally, reliable measurement and accountability is dependent upon accurate, effective diagnoses. Schools, districts, and States parties should ensure the use of evidence-based assessment practices that take into account culture, language, and individual student differences.

3. *A clear definition of "disability" that includes all children in need of special assistance.* The Committee notes that nonexistent or narrow definitions of disability prevent students in need from accessing needed services. The Committee does not go so far as to require States parties to adopt a specific definition of disability but quotes the definition provided in the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities as a guiding principle: "Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual, or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others" (UN General Assembly, 2007). They state that the definition of disability should be both generally accepted and easily understood.

4. *The inclusion of students with disabilities in any and all new and existing educational initiatives, policies, programs, and services.* The Committee stresses that children with disabilities should benefit from any and all services provided to the general child population in pursuit of the provision of child rights. For example, States parties that choose to include a child rights curriculum and/or standards must ensure that such programs are available and accessible to children with disabilities.

   Importantly, children with disabilities have the right to be educated in their least restrictive environment possible, which will most often include a general education setting that includes special supports. The physical and structural environment of schools should be designed to eliminate barriers to children with physical, cognitive, or emotional disabilities. Crucial to their success is evidence-based, specialized instruction that allows students full access to an education that develops their full potential while respecting their dignity. Additionally, educational placement and service decisions, to the greatest extent possible, should not be made without the child's participation and consent.

Other Policies Influencing the Work of School Psychologists

Several other issues outlined in the Convention affect the extent to which school psychologists have the access, resources, and systems necessary to provide for the rights of all children in their care. These issues should also be considered when designing national and regional educational policies. These include:

1. *The beginning and ending age of compulsory education.* See Articles 32, 40, and 28.
2. *Child participation in the design of educational curriculum and pedagogy.* See Article 12: Respect for Views of the Child and Article 14: Children's Right to Freedom of Thought, Conscience, and Religion.
3. *The storage and dissemination of children's personal records, including special education records.* See Article 16: Child's Right to Privacy and Article 17: Child's Access to Appropriate Information.
4. *School day scheduling.* See Article 31: Child's Right to Leisure, Play, and Culture.
5. *School disciplinary policies and practices.* See Article 37: Torture, Degrading Treatment and Deprivation of Liberty and Article 28, part 2, regarding school discipline.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed national and regional laws and policies influencing the extent to which school psychologists are able to provide for the rights of the children they serve. Specifically, the provision of child rights was tied to educational funding and school placement policies, educational curricula and standards, the provision of mental health services in schools, and the design of laws and policies for children with disabilities. Other issues to consider at a national, regional, and local level that directly affect the provision of child rights in schools include the extent to which States parties regulate disciplinary practices, beginning and ending age of compulsory education, school scheduling of play and recreational activities, the storage and sharing of children's personal records, and the extent to which children are involved in determining their own educational process. This chapter is meant to help school psychologists be sensitive to, knowledgeable of, and influential in regard to regional or national educational policies that (a) respect and provide opportunities to promote the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, (b) violate the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and need to be altered or eliminated, or (b) should be added to increase the provision of child rights.

School psychologists have the opportunity and the responsibility to act where possible to secure and protect child rights in laws, policies, and regulations, as well as in practice. School psychologists are not simply hapless participants in or victims of existing structures. Instead, they are uniquely positioned in many countries, regions, and localities as key interpreters of education law and policy for their schools and districts. Therefore, they have the opportunity and responsibility to influence change, along with allies, by promoting interpretations that serve the best interest of children. The chapter, "Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists" (in this volume) by Wernham is a valuable complement to this chapter by providing guidance on how school psychologists can advocate for the respect and realization of child rights in countries, regions, schools, and communities.

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Accountability for Child Rights by School Psychology

Markeda Newell, Heather Henderson Larrazolo, and Kai Tai Chan

Abstract

The purpose of this chapter is twofold: (a) to review the existing state of accountability systems for child rights and (b) to propose a model of accountability for child rights for school psychology. Currently, there is no consensus on how to monitor and evaluate the implementation as well as impact of the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child. Further, the integration of child rights school psychological service delivery is in its infancy. Nevertheless, substantive progress has been made toward developing accountability systems that include indicators and outcomes that are well-aligned with school psychological service delivery. Based on these efforts, a model for child rights accountability in school psychology is proposed. Specifically, a three-stage process, which includes (a) developing/selecting indicators of child well-being, (b) measuring progress on those indicators, and (c) evaluating those outcomes, is explained. School psychologists work in varied settings with unique circumstances and challenges. Therefore, it is important for each school psychologist to develop his/her own capacity to develop an accountability system that is reflective of the needs of the population and the rights of the child. Implications for training are discussed.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention; UN General Assembly, 1989) is the most comprehensive codification of the human rights of children in existence. The Convention includes 54 Articles with more than 75% of these Articles (i.e., Articles 1–41) addressing a range of educational, health, civil, and legal rights of children. With 196 nations or States parties agreeing to adhere to the Convention (as of April 2016), it is the most widely accepted standard for human rights in the world (Lee and Krappman, chapter "Status of Child Rights in the International Community", in this volume). Although the United States is the only nation that has not ratified the Convention, school psychologists in the United States have voiced their commitment to the Convention (National Association of School Psychologists, NASP, 2012). The commitment of

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school psychologists is significant because "school is the only government agency through which the Convention can be applied to the life and development of virtually all children across the majority of their developmental period" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 7). Given this opportunity, Hart and Hart (2014) proposed a new social contract for school psychology that implores school psychologists to expand services beyond the identification of students with disabilities to proactively support each and every child across all domains of service delivery. Although the notion of school psychologists expanding services beyond assessment is not new (see NASP Blueprint for Training and Practice III; Ysseldkye et al. 2006), the Convention provides a framework school psychologists can use to ensure that they are meeting children's needs in a manner that advances the rights of the child. Therefore, school psychologists must recognize that "education needs to go beyond academic attainment" (Lansdown, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014, p. 4) to include developing the whole child as well as the child's ability to actively participate in their own development. Importantly, child participation, as codified in Article 12 of the Convention, is central to the rights of the child and should be an integral part of service delivery (Landsdown et al., 2014). With this new social contract, school psychologists would not only embrace the role of child rights advocate within the confines of school but also go beyond those confines to impact the larger ecology of children. Although the conditions are conducive for school psychologists to actualize this new social contract, to date, challenges exist in bringing this expanded role to fruition.

Integrating School Psychological Service Delivery and Child Rights

School psychologists serve in a unique, pivotal role that makes them well-suited to serve as advocates for children's rights. To explain, although the profession of school psychology can vary around the world, school psychologists are prepared to primarily work in school settings, and they provide a range of educational and mental health services to children that must, first and foremost, advance the best interests of the child (ISPA Code of Ethics, 2011). Moreover, the position of school psychologists within the bureaucratic structure of schools also enhances their ability to advocate for children. As Nastasi and Naser (2014) explained, school psychologists fall within the mesosystem of children's ecology; therefore, they can connect various systems within a child's ecology as well as operate across these systems in order to ensure supports and services are provided in accordance with the rights of the child (see also Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy", this volume). Finally, international as well as national professional ethics and standards that govern the practice of school psychology dictate that school psychologists provide services that align with the Articles of the Convention. In an analysis of the major training standards and ethical codes for school psychology at both international and national (US) levels, Nastasi and Naser (2014) found that, cumulatively, the *International School Psychology Association Code of Ethics* (ISPA, 2011); ISPA (2008) *Standards for Accrediting Professional Training Programs in School Psychology*; NASP (2010a) *Principles for Professional Ethics*; NASP (2010b) *Model for Comprehensive and Integrated School Psychological Services*; NASP (2010c) *Standards for Graduate Preparation in School Psychology*; the American Psychological Association (APA, 2010) *Ethical Principles of Psychologists Code of Conduct*; and the APA (2003) *Guidelines on Multicultural Education, Training, Research Practice, and Organizational Change for Psychologists* addressed the guiding principles and categories of rights in the Convention (i.e., best interests, survival and development, nondiscrimination, participation, and protection). (See Woods & Bond, 2014, for a similar review of standards in the United Kingdom.)

While "the endorsement of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and attention to child rights issues in professional standards suggest a shared value for promoting and protecting the rights of all children through professional practice and advocacy, the lack of specificity about child rights in the standards limits understanding and implementation" (Nastasi & Naser, 2014, p. 42). Consequently, it is difficult for school psychologists to know what specific ethical principles or practice standards are addressing which child right(s) as expressed in the Convention. Moreover, to date, the school psychology community has not put forth specific, enforceable standards and indicators for school psychologists as they directly relate to child rights. Given this gap, it will be challenging for school psychologists to monitor their knowledge of, adherence to, and implementation of the Convention, which brings to bear the larger need for accountability.

Accountability for Child Rights

The struggle to develop an accountability system for school psychologists is hindered, in part, by the lack of a unified accountability system for the Convention itself. By adhering to the Convention, States parties are legally bound to implement the articles of the Convention in their nations and produce a report to the United Nations Child Rights Council every 5 years on their progress (United Nations Children Fund, UNICEF, 2007). In the guidelines for reporting (UNICEF, 2007), States parties are asked to explain any laws, policies, and/or processes they have put in place to advance child rights as delineated in the Convention. States parties are further asked to include data to indicate how much progress has been made as well as how their strategies have impacted outcomes for children, such as mortality rates, access to health care, and attendance in school (UNICEF, 2007). While the identification of the essential basic human rights for children coupled with the required reporting is an important milestone, one critical element is significantly lacking, and that is *accountability*.

According to UNICEF (Gibbons, 2015), "a cornerstone of human rights law is accountability, or, in its simplest terms, the ability to make certain that those charged with protecting and fulfilling child rights actually do what they are supposed to do, and, if they do not or cannot, that children and their representatives have some recourse" (p.4). Therefore, in order for the Convention to reach its maximum impact on child well-being, the United Nations (UN) must also develop an accountability system that all States parties must follow. The UN is well aware of the need for an accountability system. In fact, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Committee) authorized the International Institute for Child Rights and Development (IICRD) to bring together experts who could help advance the development of an accountability system for the Convention (IICRD, 2012). The first meeting of this group was held in February 2012 in Switzerland. Additionally, another meeting on accountability that included members of the Committee, Global Reference Group on Accountability to Child Rights and Well-Being, as well as representatives from other related organizations was held in January 2014 in France.

During these meetings, convened by IICRD, experts discussed the definition of accountability, current efforts on establishing accountability for child rights, barriers that make it challenging to develop an accountability system, and the steps needed in order to overcome those barriers. One of the major issues impacting the ability to develop an accountability system for the Convention is making it comprehensive enough to accurately capture the methods being used by all States parties while also nuanced enough to reflect the individuality of the local context within each State party (IICRD, 2012). Another significant barrier is the cost of monitoring systems, as well as the human resources needed to conduct the monitoring; this can be particularly taxing for nations with limited financial and human resources (United Nations (2014). Although this is a daunting task, a system of accountability that is not overly burdensome to States parties, yet sufficient to ensure that child rights are protected, is necessary.

Based on the UN report on accountability for child rights (Gibbons, 2015), an accountability system must include "…*standards* that those responsible are expected to meet, *indicators* against which performance is measured, and *monitoring* to produce data that assesses performance against standards" (p. 5). While there are myriad tools available to monitor progress (see Child Protection Monitoring and Evaluation Protection Group, CP MERG, http://www.cpmerg.org/technical-notes/), much more work is needed to identify indicators against which to measure progress toward as well as outcomes of establishing child rights (Ben-Arieh & Frones, 2011; IICRD, 2012). Given this need, there has been increased attention to the identification of indicators.

Indicators of Child Well-Being

Indicators are quantitative and/or qualitative markers of progress toward a specific goal or outcome. Thus, indicators can inform current status toward a goal (i.e., How well are we doing toward achieving a goal?) as well as help predict what could happen in the future (i.e., What do the indicators tell us about potential outcomes in the future?) (Ben-Arieh & Frones, 2011). In regard to the Convention, "[child] rights are implicitly understood as creating opportunities for well-being…" (Ben-Arieh & Frones, 2011, p. 463). To explain, the establishment of laws, policies, and practices that advance children's best interests, survival and development, nondiscrimination, participation, and protection cultivates and safeguards the current and future well-being of children. Hence, to develop indicators for the Convention, the articles must be turned into measurable indicators of well-being (Blanchet-Cohen, Hart, & Cook, 2009). Although it is clear that indicators of child well-being are needed, developing those indicators has been a quite arduous process.

Several organizations have begun the difficult work of developing child well-being indicators. Some of these indicators include Annie E. Casey Foundation Kids Count Project (http://www.aecf.org/work/kids-count/); Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (http://www.oecd.org/els/family/43570328.pdf); Child and Youth Well-Being Index (http://www.soc.duke.edu/~cwi/); Child Trends (http://www.childtrends.org); and the US Census Bureau Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) Child Well-Being Indicators (https://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/children/data/sipp.html).

Although these are important indicators of child well-being, they are not directly linked to the Convention. One set of indicators that are based on the Convention is the Early Childhood Rights Indicators. In 2006, the Committee formed the Early Childhood Rights Indicators Group to develop indicators for early childhood, and this group produced the Manual for Early Childhood Rights Indicators (ECRI) in December 2010. The ECRI includes 15 sets of indicators that correspond to the States parties reporting requirements. The indicators are designed to be monitoring tools that, along with corresponding benchmarks, can "help to identify inadequacies in laws, policies, and practices" in order to allow for the "progressive realization of rights in early childhood" (ECRI Group, 2010, p. 27). To measure progress on these indicators, States parties are asked guiding questions about their child rights structures, process, and outcomes. More specifically, they are asked questions about policies and procedures for each indicator (i.e., structure), questions about implementation of the policies and procedures (i.e., process), and questions about data on the status of children's well-being related to the indicators (i.e., outcomes). In addition, outcomes for the indicators include a combination of child-focused outcomes as well as adult-focused outcomes; therefore, participation of the child is integral to these indicators. Importantly, the ECRI group did not establish standards for success; rather success is based on measurable growth (e.g., increases in levels of awareness among relevant duty-bearers and rights holders about the Convention).

The ECRIs are a set of broad indicators that address several aspects of the rights of the child, per the Convention. However, the focus is limited to early childhood, which only includes children 8 years old and younger. The Convention addresses the rights of children aged 18 and younger; therefore, children aged 9–18 are not included in these indicators. Efforts are being made to address this gap. For example, Lansdown in collaboration with UNICEF developed the *Guidelines for Measuring the Participation of Children and Adolescents*, which evolved into *A Framework for Monitoring and Evaluating Children's Participation* (2011). The framework includes two levels of indicators that can be applied to children from birth to age 18. Further, Lansdown's framework specifically addresses children's rights to participation as delineated in Articles 5, 12, and 13–17.

In Landsdown's (2011) indicators for children and adolescents, the first level of indicators focused on the environmental conditions, which assess whether the environment (i.e., legal, political, social, and cultural) in which children live is conducive to safe, effective, and beneficial participation. Some indicators at this level include measures of legal entitlements (e.g., child-friendly court proceedings), right of access to information (e.g., free and compulsory education), awareness-raising on children's participation rights (e.g., child rights training for those working with children), opportunities to influence public decisions (e.g., children are consulted on local and national government decisions and resource allocations), and respect for children's participation in their daily lives (e.g., children participate in local community actions) (Lansdown, 2011).

The second level of indicators reflects a focus on the scope, quality, and impact of children's participation. Scope refers to whether child participation is consultative, collaborative, or self-initiated in activities such as identifying key issues as well as program planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating. Quality refers to how safe and productive child participation is, including guidelines for voluntary participation and ethical power dynamics between children and adults. Finally, impact is determined based on the goals of the program. For example, a program with the objective of promoting children's self-esteem through participation would measure impact on self-esteem (Lansdown, 2011). Although these indicators can be applied to all children and adolescents, they are limited to participation.

Summary on Indicators

Taken together, available indicators cover children from birth to age 18; however, the indicators are not always directly linked to the Convention. Moreover, when they are linked to the Convention, they either do not address all age groups or do not address all of the rights set forth in the Convention. As Ben-Arieh and Frones (2011) explained, currently, child well-being indicators are fragmented in that different organizations have different indicators of child well-being. Further, no uniform language or taxonomy exists for child well-being indicators. Consequently, it is difficult to identify one set of child well-being indicators that can be used across multiple organizations and agencies and that are vested in advancing child rights; the result is that the status of the well-being of children in the world remains unclear.

Despite the disjointed nature of the current child well-being indicators, Ben-Arieh (2000, 2005) has observed some important, positive developments in content of child well-being indicators. Specifically, child indicators have evolved from solely focusing on survival (e.g., mortality rates) to the inclusion of well-being (e.g., self-esteem, happiness, etc.). Overall, this movement from survival to well-being has marked a shift from primarily measuring what is absent in a child's life or what negative/risky behaviors they are exhibiting (e.g., drug use, pathology) to measuring what is present in the child's life that is positive/protective (e.g., family stability) as well as what positive behaviors children are exhibiting (e.g., graduation, employment). In addition to this shift, Ben-Arieh has also observed that the child well-being indicators are much more child-focused, meaning that indicators include measures with input directly from children instead of relying solely only adult reports.

In sum, the Convention is an important milestone in advancing children's rights, but to maximize this impact, a comprehensive accountability system is needed. The accountability system must have standards, indicators, and monitoring in order to ensure that children's rights are being safeguarded and promoted and that these rights are leading to positive outcomes.

While the work on an accountability system for the Convention is uneven and underdeveloped, enough work has been done to help school psychologists start to create a system of accountability for child rights in school psychological service delivery. Therefore, the next half of this chapter is devoted to providing a foundational framework for child rights accountability in school psychology.

Accountability for Child Rights in School Psychology

As explained earlier, school psychologists are in an ideal position to advance child rights, especially in the school setting. For this reason, school psychologists can and must be on the front lines of ensuring accountability to child rights. Given that the integration of child rights and school psychology is a relatively new idea, there are no existing standards, indicators, and outcomes on which to build an accountability system within the profession. However, given the diversity of schools and communities in which school psychologists work, this void affords school psychologists the opportunity to create standards and indicators that are reflective of the uniqueness of their contexts and the populations they serve. Therefore, an accountability system that school psychologists can modify to reflect local standards and indicators will be recommended.

The IICRD (Blanchet-Cohen et al., 2009) developed a *Child Rights in Practice Accountability Model* (CRPAM) that allows for a strong alignment between the Convention and school psychological service delivery. This model is structured such that service providers define their own standards, indicators, and processes for monitoring outcomes, thus making it well-suited to meet the needs of school psychologists who have integrated child rights into service delivery. Moreover, this accountability model is designed to continually inform policy and practice to ensure that child outcomes are always improving. The CRPAM embraces a child rights-based focus, which means that accountability is rooted in the legal and moral responsibilities of duty-bearers (Blanchet-Cohen et al., 2009). As Gibbons (2015, p. 11) explained:

> …children are not yet autonomous and must count on adults as intermediaries…children's intermediaries must have the vision to confront community norms, where that is an issue, and they need to be counted on to both develop children's capacity to participate, and to protect them from any risks to which participation in social accountability initiatives may expose them.

Given this child rights-based approach, the CRPAM is child-focused, which means that initiatives, standards, indicators, and outcomes should advance the best interest of the child as well as include participation from the child, to the extent appropriate (Blanchet-Cohen et al.). In addition, the focus of CRPAM is also on identifying and remedying the underlying structural causes of failures to safeguard child rights. In CRPAM, duty-bearers are committed to including and ensuring the rights of all children, and to that end, they are committed to fostering the appropriate partnerships (e.g., with children, parents, community members, school staff, educational administrators) to ensure that children's rights are protected throughout children's ecologies (Blanchet-Cohen, et al.). Taken together, CRPAM reflects a comprehensive accountability model that prioritizes the rights of the child as well as the responsibilities of the duty-bearers to ensure the protection of these rights. In order to maintain these foci within CRPAM, duty-bearers must develop a monitoring and evaluation system that (a) reflects children's social, political, economic, and cultural ecologies; (b) takes a systems-level approach so that structural factors can be addressed; (c) respects children's cultural and individual differences; and (d) builds upon children's strengths instead of only focusing on deficits (Blanchet-Cohen, et al.).

Based upon this conceptualization of child rights accountability, there are three domains across which duty-bearers must be accountable for child rights. The three domains include (a) the child, (b) the mechanisms, and (c) the mandate; these parallel the framework promoted by the ECRI and the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, which includes outcomes, process, and structure (see IICRD, 2012). The mandates are the laws, policies, and procedures put in place to advance child rights, while the mechanisms are the interventions or strategies implemented to enact the mandates. Finally, the child refers to the child well-being outcomes such as physical, psychological, social, moral, and spiritual health (Blanchet-Cohen et al.). Across these three domains, laws, interventions, and outcomes designed to advance children's well-being are monitored and evaluated. Therefore, school psychologists can use CRPAM to monitor and evaluate their own child rights initiatives.

Implementing CRPAM for School Psychology

Based on the CPRAM, a three-stage process is proposed (see Fig. 1) to assist duty-bearers in developing an individualized system to monitor and evaluate child well-being outcomes. For the purpose of this process, duty-bearers include school psychologists, other educational and community stakeholders, parents, and children. It is essential to include children, to the extent appropriate, as partners in this process because child participation in their own lives is codified in Article 12 (as well as others) in the Convention. As Lansdown and colleagues explained:

> The right of a child to express views and have them taken seriously throughout the school environment, would represent one of the most profound transformations in moving towards a culture of respect for children's rights, for their dignity and citizenship, and for their capacities to contribute significantly towards their own well-being. Indeed, respect for participation rights within education is fundamental to the realization of the right to education. (p. 4).

Therefore, children as well as parents must be integral to the development of the child rights accountability system.

The three stages, depicted in Fig. 1, include:

1. Develop and/or select the initiatives along with the indicators for the mandates, mechanisms, and child outcomes.
2. Identify the specific quantitative and qualitative measurement tools/procedures that will be used to monitor each indicator.
3. Evaluate overall progress in achieving intended child outcomes.

As shown in Fig. 1, the stages are cyclical because each stage informs the next, and the evaluation should inform the redesign of initiatives and indicators. This cyclical process is continu-

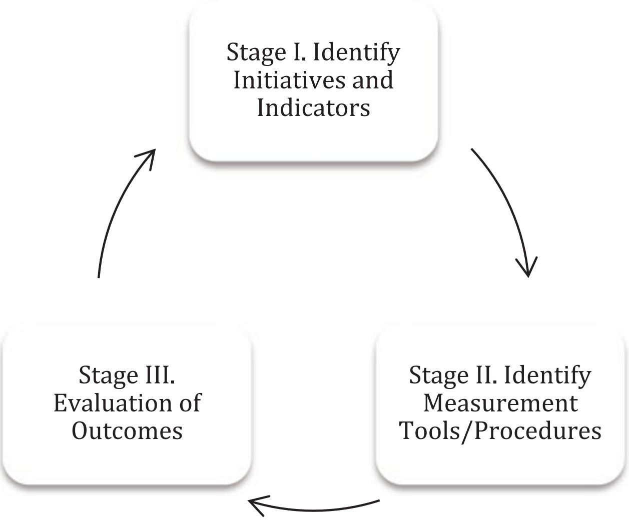
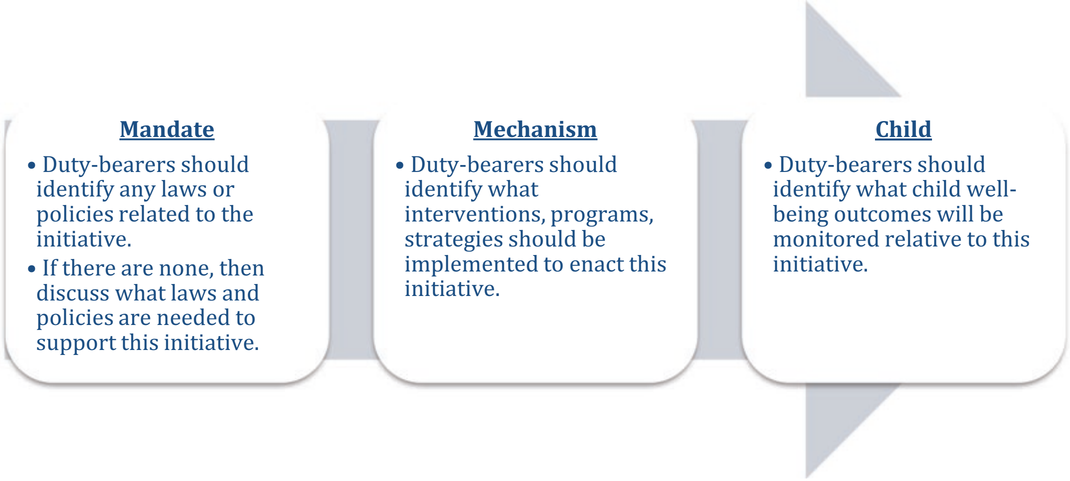

Stage I. Identify Initiatives and Indicators
Stage II. Identify Measurement Tools/Procedures
Stage III. Evaluation of Outcomes

Fig. 1 Implementation process of CRPAM for school psychologists. Three-stage process for developing a system to monitor and evaluate child well-being outcomes



Mandate
- Duty-bearers should identify any laws or policies related to the initiative.
- If there are none, then discuss what laws and policies are needed to support this initiative.

Mechanism
- Duty-bearers should identify what interventions, programs, strategies should be implemented to enact this initiative.

Child
- Duty-bearers should identify what child well-being outcomes will be monitored relative to this initiative.

Fig. 2 Process for developing CRPAM for school psychology—Stage I. Process for identifying indicators to monitor mandates, mechanisms, and child outcomes

ous and should never end because the goal is to continually improve child well-being outcomes.

Stage I Initiatives and Indicators During Stage I, as shown in Fig. 2, duty-bearers develop or select important initiatives they are undertaking or would like to undertake to improve child well-being outcomes (e.g., psychological or educational functioning). Once an initiative is identified, then the duty-bearers work together to identify, select, or construct important indicators in each domain (i.e., child, mechanisms, and mandates) that will be monitored to evaluate the efficiency and efficacy of efforts directed ultimately to advance on child outcomes.

As explained earlier, indicators should go beyond focusing on negative, risk behaviors to include positive, protective, and promotive behaviors as well. Further, the indicators must be child-focused and include not only objective but also subjective indicators (e.g., child and adult perceptions) on well-being (see Kosher, Jiang, Ben-Arieh, & Huebner, 2014; and Kim, Furlong, Ng, & Huebner, chapter "Child Well Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments", this volume). By developing indicators that address risk and protective factors, stakeholders create a system that reflects a resiliency perspective on child rights in that the protective indicators can help support well-being of children so that they are able to face adversity.

Stage II Measurement Once the indicators for the mandates, mechanisms, and child domains have been developed, the duty-bearers must then decide how each of these indicators will be measured. Ben-Arieh and Frones (2011) recommended that the measurement of indicators include the child as the unit of observation (i.e., child-focused) and that the observations are from multiple perspectives (e.g., child, parent, teacher). In addition to the child as the unit of observation, the measurement of indicators should be derived from multiple sources of information (e.g., surveys, interviews, observations). Finally, the measurement of indicators should include direct as well as indirect measures. For example, direct measures include tools that can be used to gather information about and/or from the child (e.g., child's acceptability of interventions, child's perspective on their growth). On the other hand, indirect measures are tools used to gather information about factors related to child outcomes, for example, measures on the number of children placed in special education, the number of certified teachers in the school, or the per-pupil expenditure (Ben-Arieh & Frones). These recommendations are consistent with the best practices of assessment for school psychology, which is for school psychologists to conduct multidimensional assessments (i.e., multiple sources, settings, and measures). Therefore, school psychologists have the knowledge and skills to develop high-quality measures for the indicators.

Indicators can be measured quantitatively and/or qualitatively. Duty-bearers must identify the specific measures that will be used to monitor each indicator within each of the three domains (i.e., mandate, mechanism, and child). Indicators should communicate not only that a mandate or mechanism is in place and has been implemented according to plan (i.e., integrity) but also how well students are responding to the initiative (i.e., child well-being outcomes) (Blanchet-Cohen et al., 2009). School psychologists are already familiar with a range of implementation integrity measures as well as child outcomes measures for academic, behavioral, and mental health functioning. These measures can be used to assess status and progress for the indicators, when appropriate. There are also a range of measurement tools available that are more specific to monitoring child rights indicators that can be used as well. For example, CP MERG has developed a data collection toolkit for child protection (CP MERG, 2013). More specifically, they provide a range of tools to measure children's knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and skills as well as tools to measure changes in structures, policies, and practices relative to child rights. Additionally, the Child-Centered Accountability and Protection Evaluation (CAPE) project provides a range of tools that duty-bearers can use to measure progress (Currie & Heykoop, 2012).

Selecting multidimensional measures is the first step of this process. Duty-bearers should also determine when the data will be collected, who will collect the data, and how often the data will need to be collected. Again, these decisions ensure that duty-bearers are accountable for collecting the requisite information to evaluate progress.

Stage III Evaluation of Outcomes Once duty-bearers have collected the monitoring data for each indicator across each domain, the data must be analyzed to determine how well mandates and mechanisms are being implemented and to what degree the mandates and mechanisms have improved child well-being. One of the major challenges in evaluating child rights indicators is determining the standard for success (IICRD, 2012). Determining success involves establishing standards by which the performance on indicators can be evaluated (Gibbons, 2015). Blanchet-Cohen and colleagues (2009) explained that success in the context of CRPAM concentrates on measurable growth, which means there is no set standard, but rather duty-bearers need to demonstrate what is necessary, acceptable, and/or desirable observable growth toward the goal. While this is also the current standard for the States parties reporting to the United Nations Child Rights Council (UNICEF, 2007), this standard has limitations because it is difficult to determine if child well-being is improving.

Garbarino (2011) proposed an alternative approach to evaluating child well-being outcomes that is more consistent with the principles of the Convention. To explain, he stated, "the UN CRC is founded upon the principle that quality of life outcomes for children should be uncorrelated with parental income and functioning" (p. 990). Therefore, to analyze monitoring data, duty-bearers should not only get counts (e.g., number of students attending school, number of students graduating) but also calculate correlations between indicators and family-level and/or nation-level socioeconomic status (SES) (Garbarino, 2011; Garbarino & Briggs, 2014). If child well-being outcomes are highly correlated with SES, then it may indicate that families and/or nations with more wealth are able to provide better-quality services to their children, which is counter to the goal of child well-being as codified in the Convention. That is, child rights are designed to improve well-being of all children from all background conditions. Thus, the standard is for child well-being outcomes to approach a zero correlation with family- and/or nation-level SES (Garbarino, 2011).

To extend Garbarino's (2011) recommendation, these correlations can be applied to other socially marginalized groups (i.e., racial, ethnic, linguistic, and religious minorities as well as lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender groups). Extending the analysis to these groups shows that being a member of a minority group should not be correlated with indicators for mandates, mechanisms, or child well-being outcomes because the quality of mandates, mechanisms, and well-being should not differ for minority children. Duty-bearers should analyze these data by group (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity, language) to ensure that specific groups of children are not being marginalized in the advancement of child rights (Convention, 1989; Lansdown, 2011) and that policies and practices are put in place to ensure that opportunities achieve the identified outcomes for all children, regardless of social status.

Taken together, duty-bearers should collect multidimensional data on each indicator across all domains. The data should focus on positive, promotive, and protective factors of well-being and include subjective (e.g., adult and child perceptions of their success, well-being, and satisfaction) and objective (e.g., mortality rates, graduation rates, academic performance outcomes) indicators. After collecting count data (e.g., number of students receiving a service, number of students graduating), calculating correlations between each indicator and minority status (e.g., SES, race, ethnicity, gender) would help duty-bearers not only understand the level of progress but also whether individual children, specific groups of children, and children collectively are equally benefitting from the child well-being initiatives.

Application of CPRAM in School Psychological Service Delivery The three-stage process is designed so that school psychologists along with relevant stakeholders and children can work together to develop or select child rights initiatives that will advance child rights and well-being. In order to better understand how to implement this three-stage process, an example is provided in this section.

Stage 1: Developing/Selecting a Child Rights Initiative The purpose of this stage is to develop or select an initiative to advance. Once the initiative is identified, then the indicators for that initiative can be developed. To begin, school psychologists should first create a team who can assist with this process.

Forming child rights team Given the complexity of addressing child rights initiatives, it is recommended that school psychologists assemble a child rights team that can focus on child rights initiatives. To do this, school psychologists can recruit a core team that might include an administrator, parent representative, child representative, pupil service representative such as nurse or social worker, and community representative. The core team would stay intact while other members are added/removed based on their relevance to the initiative being addressed. The purpose of the core team would be to develop and/or select child rights initiatives to advance. One approach to identifying child rights initiatives would be to create a survey that includes a range of child rights issues that could be addressed (e.g., access to mental health, dropout/school completion, home-school collaboration). This survey would be administered to staff, parents, students, and community members to identify the initiatives that are most important to these stakeholders. Once the initiative is identified, the team would reach out to other stakeholders to include on the team who can help address this issue. For example, if access to mental health services for children was identified as the most pressing concern among stakeholders, the team's next task would be to gather information about any current laws, policies, and data on children's access to mental health services in their local context.

Information gathering Given that the team now has a focus, the school psychologist should invite other relevant stakeholders to join the team to assist with this effort. For this initiative, it would be important to include stakeholders such as a children's mental health service provider in the community, a lawmaker with knowledge of this issue, a foundation or funding organization that provides financial support to address these kinds of issues, and a state- or district-level representative who can influence school-based policies.

Once the team is assembled, the team members should work to gather information on the current laws and policies related to children's mental health. They also should gather data on how children access mental health services, where they receive these services, what services they get, how often they access these services, how long they can receive services, and known barriers to children accessing the services (e.g., transportation, cost/insurance, lack of time, lack of service providers). The team should analyze this data to identify the gaps and/or barriers to children receiving mental health services in the community. Suppose the data revealed that children who live in poverty have the least amount of access to mental health services. The data indicate that the most common barriers to access for these children are (a) lack of access to mental health providers in their community and (b) cost of services. The team also learns that there are no laws or policies that ensure the provision of mental health services for children who live in poverty. Based on these findings, the team can develop a set of indicators that can be monitored to make sure access to mental health services for children living in poverty can be addressed.

Developing indicators to monitor initiative The team can use Fig. 2 to guide the development, monitoring, and evaluation of the indicators. For example, as shown in Table 1, the team must identify the mandates, mechanisms, and child outcomes for each indicator. As shown in Table 1, there are three indicators for this initiative that must be implemented, monitored, and evaluated.

Stages 2 and 3: Monitoring Progress and Evaluating Outcomes As stated earlier, child rights advocates must work toward the establishment of laws and policies (i.e., mandates) to ensure that child rights are upheld. Therefore, regardless of any interventions or programs that are developed, it is important for advocates to continually push for the establishment of laws and policies for the initiatives. Beyond advancing the mandates, the team has the responsibility of delineating the interventions or strategies that can be taken to make progress on the indicators. For example, there are several steps the child rights team can take to improve access to mental health services for children living in poverty. Once these steps are taken, the team has the responsibility of developing multidimensional child outcome measures to evaluate their progress. As can be seen in Table 1, child, parent, and other environmental data are collected. Further, subjective child and parent data (i.e., satisfaction) and objective data (i.e., number of children receiving services) are collected. The team must establish who is responsible for each aspect of the mechanisms and child outcome monitoring. The team can also set goals for progress monitoring that best suits the context. The example included in Table 1 is just one example of how school psychologists can begin to address child rights initiatives.

Implications for School Psychology Training

The development of child rights accountability systems is still in its infancy; however, school psychologists have the competence as well as the opportunity to make significant contributions to the monitoring and evaluation of child rights in school psychology. To start, school psychologists need to be trained on the content of the Convention as well as the process of developing and implementing an accountability system (i.e., identifying initiatives, mandates, mechanisms, child outcomes) that is appropriate for the local context and population. The purpose of this chapter was to begin the discussion of how school psychologists can start this process. Therefore, the biggest implication is training, as school psychologists must understand these tools before they can implement them in practice.

Table 1 Example of indicators for access to mental health services

Initiative	Indicators	Mandate	Mechanism	Child
Improve access to no- and/or low-cost mental health services for children who live in poverty	1. Ensure access to community-based mental health services for children living in poverty	No laws established; therefore, team must work to get law passed	Partner with legal aid organization and local politicians to raise the issue and advocate for passage of law Identify community-based agencies that provide children mental health services and identify strategies to increase access for children living in poverty Pursue state and national funding to support cost of access	Number of children receiving services at community-based agencies (by minority group as well) Number of services provided to children (by minority group as well) Length of time children receive the services (by minority group as well) Child report of satisfaction with quality of services (by minority group as well) Child outcomes on effectiveness of services in improving targeted concerns (by minority group as well) Parent report of satisfaction with quality of services (by minority group as well) Funding raised to support access to community-based mental health agencies Progress on getting law passed (e.g., law written, law is being considered by governing body)
	2. Improve number of mental health providers in school-based settings	No laws established; therefore, team must work to get law passed	Partner with legal aid organization, professional organizations, and local politicians to raise the issue and advocate for passage that requires every school to have at least one mental health service provider Collaborate with state and local education agencies to establish a policy that requires a mental health service provider in all schools	Progress on getting law passed (e.g., law written, law is being considered by governing body) Number of children in need of mental health services in schools (by minority group as well) Number of children receiving mental health services in schools (by minority group as well) Length of time children receive the services (by minority group as well) Child report of satisfaction with quality of services (by minority group as well) Child outcomes on the effectiveness of services in improving targeted concerns (by minority group as well) Parent report of satisfaction with quality of services (by minority group as well)

	3. Increase the number of children's mental health providers in high-needs communities	No laws or policies established; therefore, team must work to recruit mental health providers in these communities	Collaborate with training programs (e.g., child psychology) to develop partnerships for graduates to work in high-needs communities Collaborate with state and local stakeholders (e.g., departments of education, departments of health) to get funding to support the recruitment of graduates to work in high-needs communities	Progress on getting law passed (e.g., law written, law is being considered by governing body) Number of mental health providers working in high-needs communities Number of children receiving the services (by minority group as well) Length of time children receive the services (by minority group as well) Child report of satisfaction with quality of services (by minority group as well) Child outcomes on the effectiveness of services in improving targeted concerns (by minority group as well) Parent report of satisfaction with quality of services (by minority group as well)

School psychologists can begin with *The International Handbook on Child Rights and School Psychology*,[1] and the Child Rights Education for Professionals (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010) curriculum modules on child rights (see http://www.cred-pro.org/page/curricula-1). The modules cover topics ranging from the Convention, through levels of professional policy and practice, to accountability, all of which are needed to inform the design of an accountability system. School psychology trainers as well as practitioners can integrate these modules and readings into the training program and/or professional development opportunities (see also Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", in this volume). Once the content is understood, preservice and in-service school psychologists can practice developing accountability systems in their school-based settings. All of these efforts can result in data-based evidence that reveals how school psychological service delivery can improve the well-being of children.

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[1] The companion training manual (available as an online resource to this volume).

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Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates

Bonnie Kaul Nastasi and Shereen C. Naser

Abstract

Creating a culture of respect for child rights within professional school psychology requires that child rights are central to the ideology of professionals individually and collectively and that individual professionals have the knowledge, values, beliefs, and skills for engaging in child advocacy. To accomplish this necessitates review and possible reconceptualization or extension of professional preparation and development. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the competencies necessary for engaging in advocacy efforts and current representation of child rights in professional standards for training, practice, and ethics and to propose a course of action for initial preparation in university training programs and continued professional development of school psychologists. We also introduce the training materials (These training materials are available in a training manual which is a resource to this volume provided online at no charge by the publisher) developed through the collaborative efforts of ISPA, CRED-PRO, Tulane University, APA's Division 16, and Cleveland State University, and we conclude with recommendations for training programs and professional organizations.

Creating a culture of respect for child rights within professional school psychology requires that child rights are central to the ideology of professionals individually and collectively and that individual professionals have the knowledge, values, beliefs, and skills for engaging in child advocacy. To accomplish this necessitates review and possible reconceptualization or extension of professional preparation and development. Noting the limited attention to child rights within school psychology training programs and limited resources within the professional arena, the International School Psychology Association (ISPA)[1] embarked on a collaboration with the Child Rights Education

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[1] Through efforts of ISPA's Task Force on Professional Development and Practices (PD&P), chaired by Bonnie Nastasi, PhD, in collaboration with the Child Rights Section of Child Well Being and Advocacy Committee (CWBA), chaired by Stuart Hart, PhD; initiated around 2010.

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for Professionals Program (CRED-PRO)[2] of the International Institute for Child Rights and Development (IICRD), Tulane University's School Psychology Program (TU-SPP),[3] and subsequently with the School Psychology Division (Division 16)[4] of the American Psychological Association and Cleveland State University School Psychology Program.[5] The collaborative efforts, initiated around 2010, resulted in the development of training materials for school psychologists and increased attention to child rights in the context of professional ethics and social justice advocacy.[6] The publication of this handbook is an outgrowth of those efforts and intended to provide a resource for school psychologists interested in child rights advocacy. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the competencies necessary for engaging in advocacy efforts and current representation of child rights in professional standards for training, practice, and ethics and propose a course of action for initial preparation in university training programs and continued professional development of school psychologists. We also introduce the training materials[7] developed through the collaborative efforts of ISPA, CRED-PRO, Tulane University, APA's Division 16, and Cleveland State University. We conclude with recommendations for training programs and professional organizations.

Professional Competencies for Child Rights Advocacy

In chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy", Nastasi and Naser of this volume, Nastasi and Naser introduced a conceptual framework for envisioning school psychology's role in child rights advocacy (Figure 2 in chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy"; depicted here as Fig. 1). This model also informs our discussion of professional competencies and training of school psychologists, as articulated in this chapter. Within this model, the school psychologist is depicted as the *mesosystem* of the child's ecology to represent the role in facilitating promotion of child well-being through actions in key ecological contexts (e.g., school, family, community) enacted by key stakeholders (e.g., teachers, parents, community agencies). Engaging in this facilitative (mesosystemic) role with stakeholders requires that the school psychologist's actions are grounded in the professional mission (promoting child and contextual well-being) and guiding principles (e.g., ethics, child rights) for the profession. As depicted in Fig. 1, we envision child rights advocacy as fundamental to the various roles of the school psychologist (e.g., consultation, prevention, assessment) within multiple professional domains (practice, research, training, policy). Moreover, enacting a child rights advocacy role requires the development of professional competencies that include (a) knowledge of child rights, (b) beliefs and values consistent with principles of child rights and social justice, and (c) skills in participatory or collaborative consultation, organizational development, social change, leadership, policy, and research methodology related to program/institutional development and evaluation. We contend that these competencies can be effectively integrated into existing models of professional preparation and continuing professional development.

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[2] University of Victoria, British Columbia. Lead CRED-PRO Contributor: Stuart Hart, PhD, Deputy Director, IICRD. CRED-PRO was established to encourage and facilitate both the development and sustained implementation of child rights education programs for professionals to help realize the rights of all children.

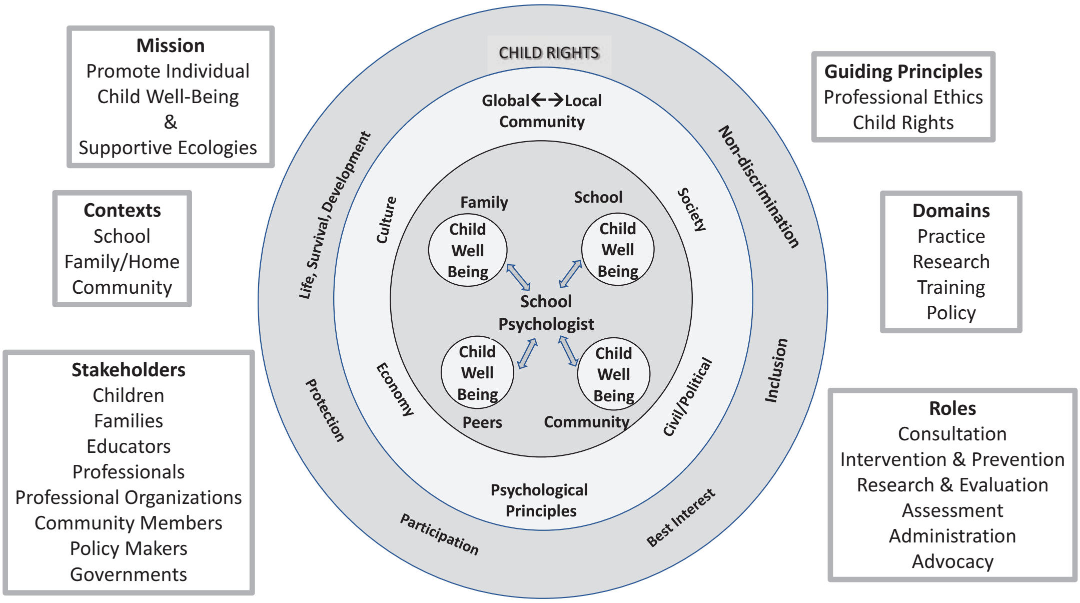
[3] New Orleans, Louisiana, USA. The Tulane University Child Rights Team (TUCRT), led by Bonnie Nastasi, PhD, Professor of School Psychology, and a group of school psychology doctoral students (initially, Shereen Naser, Berre Burch, Meredith Summerville, & Rosa Maria Mulser).

[4] The Social Justice-Child Rights Working Group, efforts chaired by Stuart Hart and David Shriberg.

[5] Under the leadership of Shereen Naser, PhD.

[6] Related publications and resources are cited throughout this document.

[7] These training materials are available in a training manual which is a resource to this volume provided online at no charge by the publisher.


Mission
Promote Individual Child Well-Being & Supportive Ecologies
Contexts
School
Family/Home
Community
Stakeholders
Children
Families
Educators
Professionals
Professional Organizations
Community Members
Policy Makers
Governments
CHILD RIGHTS
Global←→Local Community
Life, Survival, Development
Non-discrimination
Inclusion
Best Interest
Participation
Protection
Culture
Society
Civil/Political
Economy
Psychological Principles
Family
School
Peers
Community
Child Well Being
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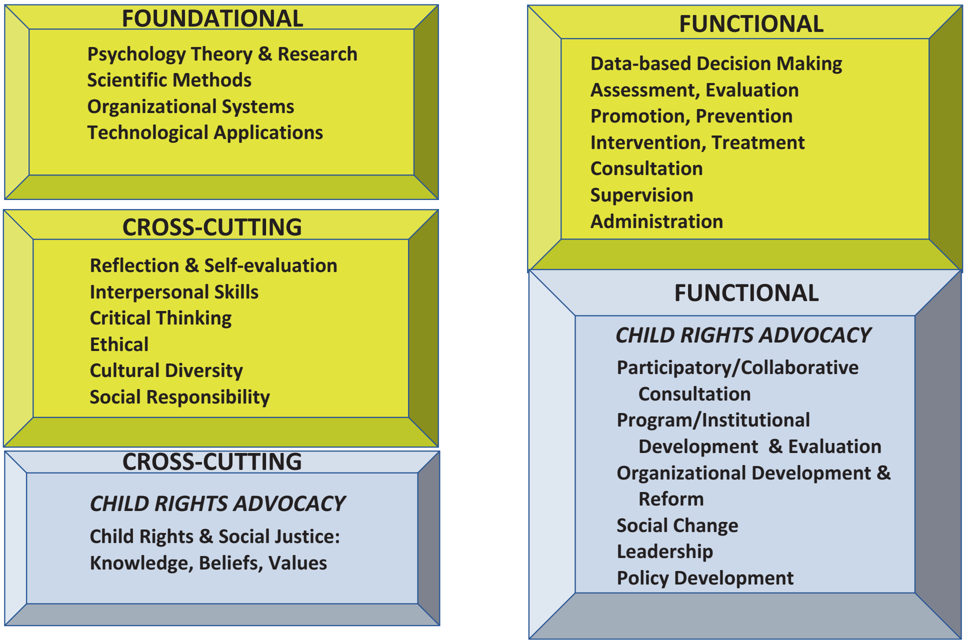
School Psychologist
Guiding Principles
Professional Ethics
Child Rights
Domains
Practice
Research
Training
Policy
Roles
Consultation
Intervention & Prevention
Research & Evaluation
Assessment
Administration
Advocacy

Fig. 1 Conceptual model for school psychology and child rights advocacy (previously depicted as Fig. 2, in chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy", Nastasi and Naser, this volume)

Existing Models for Professional Preparation of School Psychologists

Competencies for professional practice by school psychologists have been proposed by professional organizations such as the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) and, in the United States, the American Psychological Association (APA) and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) and are embedded in training and practice guidelines of the respective organizations (APA, 2017; Committee on Accreditation [COA], 2005; Hatcher & Lassiter, 2007; ISPA, 2018; Kaslow et al., 2007; Nastasi, 2010; NASP, 2000; National Council of Schools and Programs of Professional Psychology [NCSPP], see Peterson, Peterson, Abrams, & Stricker, 2006; Rodolfa et al., 2005; Ysseldyke et al., 2006). The proposed child rights advocacy competencies are intended to complement and extend these existing competencies in order to prepare school psychologists to engage in advocacy that promotes both child rights and social justice. Figure 2 depicts the established professional competencies and competencies specific to child rights advocacy within school psychology practice.

As depicted in Fig. 2, the professional competencies established by relevant professional organizations (APA, ISPA, NASP) can be categorized as foundational, functional, and cross-cutting. The *foundational competencies* include (a) psychology research and theoretical foundations in developmental, cognitive, social-cultural, biological-health, individual differences, and psychopathology; (b) scientific methods for research and evaluation; (c) interdisciplinary and organizational systems; and (d) technological applications. *Functional competencies* refer to skills related to practice and include (a) data-based decision-making, assessment, and evaluation; (b) promotion, prevention, intervention, and treatment; (c) consultation; (d) supervision; and (e) administration. The *cross-cutting competencies* to those skills that can be applied across all other competency areas include research, practice, training, and policy. These include (a) reflection and self-evaluation, (b) interpersonal skills, (c) critical thinking, (d) ethical-legal considerations, (e) cultural diversity, and (f) social responsibility. This set of competencies is intended to guide professional preparation and continuing professional development of school psychologists, internationally (as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Psychology Theory & Research
Scientific Methods
Organizational Systems
Technological Applications
CROSS-CUTTING
Reflection & Self-evaluation
Interpersonal Skills
Critical Thinking
Ethical
Cultural Diversity
Social Responsibility
CROSS-CUTTING
CHILD RIGHTS ADVOCACY
Child Rights & Social Justice:
Knowledge, Beliefs, Values
FUNCTIONAL
Data-based Decision Making
Assessment, Evaluation
Promotion, Prevention
Intervention, Treatment
Consultation
Supervision
Administration
FUNCTIONAL
CHILD RIGHTS ADVOCACY
Participatory/Collaborative Consultation
Program/Institutional Development & Evaluation
Organizational Development & Reform
Social Change
Leadership
Policy Development

Fig. 2 Professional competencies for school psychology child rights advocacy. The figure depicts the foundational, functional, and cross-cutting competencies included in existing models of professional practice (yellow shading), complemented by competencies relevant to child rights advocacy (blue shading)

identified by ISPA) and in the United States (APA, NASP). (Readers are referred to the respective references for guidelines specific to each organization.)

Extending Preparation to Include Child Rights Advocacy

To prepare school psychologists as child rights advocates, we are proposing an extension of professional competencies outlined by professional organizations and detailed in the previous section. These additional competencies (reflected also in Fig. 2) would prepare school psychologists with the necessary knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, values, and skills to engage in advocacy for child rights and social justice within the context of their professional practice.

The primary competencies embedded in child rights advocacy training are based on three constructs: advocacy, leadership, and social change. The definitions reflected in Table 1 guide our consideration of specific knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, behaviors, and skills to be included as outcomes for training. Competencies specific to child rights advocacy include both functional and cross-cutting abilities, as depicted in Fig. 2. The *functional competencies* would enable school psychologists to enact their role as "mesosystem" and to engage in the activities relevant to promoting and protecting child rights in partnership with other stakeholders and include (a) participatory or collaborative consultation, (b) program or institutional development and evaluation, (c) organizational development and reform, (d) social change, (e) leadership, and (f) policy development. The *cross-cutting competencies* specific to child rights advocacy include knowledge, beliefs, and values consistent with the principles of child rights and social justice.

We envision the development of these additional competencies to occur via both preservice and in-service training. Within professional preparation (training) programs, additional learning opportunities could be integrated within existing course work or through courses specifically focused on child rights and policy development. For example, participatory or collaborative consultation could be integrated into consultation courses, and program development, organizational development, and institutional development

Table 1 Definitions of key constructs for child advocacy competence

Construct	Definition	Source
Advocacy as competency	Engaging in actions to promote the development and/or implementation of policies to protect and promote children's well-being, learning, and development at all levels of the social ecology (microsystem, exosystem, macrosystem, mesosystem)	Nastasi and Varjas (2013)
Leadership	An integration of *transactional* (adapting to the context) and *transformational* (adapting the context to facilitate change) activity that requires the three components of leadership identified by Sternberg (2007): (a) Intelligence—including academic intelligence for critical analysis and practical intelligence for application of ideas and influencing others (b) Creativity—the capacity for generating ideas (c) Wisdom—applied to considering the needs of multiple stakeholders in seeking the common good. Requires balancing intrapersonal (own needs) with interpersonal (needs of others) and extra-personal (needs of external agents such as organizations, institutions, community)	Sternberg (2007), and Forman (2015)
Social change	Engaging in a collaborative or participatory process to facilitate innovation within an institution, organization, community, and culture, through participatory leadership style combined with collaborative consultation	Forman (2015), Mertens (2007), Nastasi, Moore, and Varjas (2004), and Nastasi, Varjas, Bernstein, and Jayasena (2000)

and reform could be integrated into course work on the development of universal programming for mental health and learning. Course work on program evaluation related to child rights advocacy could be integrated into existing courses relevant to research and evaluation, with an extended focus on the use of qualitative and mixed methods and action research designs. Child rights knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs could be addressed in ethics coursework. Social change, leadership, and policy development could be integrated into courses on the role and function of school psychologists, although in-depth coverage might require additional course work focused on policy.

Training Materials for Child Rights Advocacy

Through partnership of ISPA, CRED-PRO, Tulane University, APA's Division 16, and Cleveland State University, training materials[8] relevant to either preservice or in-service training have been developed. A full curriculum manual with related materials is provided as resource to this volume and available at no cost through Springer website. In addition, a set of self-study modules are available from the authors. In this section, we provide an overview of the training manual and the self-study modules. These training materials can be used to guide integration of child rights advocacy into professional preparation programs or through continuing education workshops.

Training Curriculum

The training curriculum includes an introduction to the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child and its optional protocols so that school psychologists are informed of the scope and implications of the Convention. In addition, using a developmental-ecological framework, the relationships among children's developmental, contextual, and cultural needs and rights are explored. The curriculum addresses the roles and responsibilities of school psychologists, particularly their practice in schools, and then explores the ways in which school psychologists can engage in child rights advocacy as they work with individual children and youth, other stakeholders (e.g., teachers, parents), and schools as systems. The activities in the curriculum provide opportunities for applying the articles of the Convention to practice, for example, assessment, intervention, and consultation. The training curriculum is organized into the following eight modules:

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[8] These training materials are available in a training manual which is a resource to this volume provided online at no charge by the publisher.

Module 1. The Child: Development, Needs, and Rights Within an Ecological Framework
Module 2. UN Convention on the Rights of the Child: Foundation for a Child Rights Approach
Module 3. Child Rights and the School Psychologist
Module 4. Respecting Child Rights in Practice: Role of the Individual Professional and Practitioner
Module 5. Respecting Child Rights in Systems of Practice: Promoting Well-Being, Learning, and Development in Schools
Module 6. The School Psychologist as Child Rights Advocate
Module 7. Supporting Children Within a Social Justice Framework
Module 8. The School Psychologist and Accountability for Child Rights

In addition to Modules 1–6 which focus specifically on applying child rights to school psychology practice, Module 7 addresses the integration of child rights and social justice initiatives, and Module 8 addresses accountability for the promotion and protection of child rights.

Self-Study Modules[9]

The self-study modules are an online curriculum designed to be completed by individuals, independently or as part of other coursework. For example, the first author has integrated the modules into a course on school-based consultation to frame the work of the consultant. These might easily be integrated into other skill-based courses as well as courses that cover ethics or introduction to school psychology roles and responsibilities. The following six self-study modules parallel the purpose and content of the training curriculum:

Module 1. The Child: Development, Needs, and Rights Within an Ecological Framework
Module 2. UN Convention on the Rights of the Child: Foundation for a Child Rights Approach
Module 3. Child Rights and the School Psychologist: Respecting Child Rights in Practice
Module 4. Respecting Child Rights in Systems of Practice: Promoting Well-Being, Learning, and Development in Schools
Module 5: Remember, Apply, Decide: Case Studies
Module 6. The School Psychologist as Child Rights Advocate

The self-study modules also include an assessment at the conclusion of the six modules to document completion and learning.

Pedagogical Guidelines

School psychologists who engage in professional preparation or continuing professional development are well positioned to facilitate the development of child rights advocates among professional school psychologists. This section provides guidelines for those engaged in professional development activities, at preservice or in-service stages. Of course, the first step is to develop one's own expertise in child rights and child rights advocacy. This is likely to require a phase of continuing professional development as part of one's commitment to lifelong learning. The guidelines addressed herein apply to both initial professional development and continuing professional development for anyone interested in developing expertise in child rights advocacy.

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[9] Self-study modules can be obtained from Bonnie K. Nastasi, PhD, School Psychology Program, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA; bnastasi@tulane.edu

As detailed in previous sections, we have proposed specific competencies for child rights advocacy that are intended to complement the typical professional competencies of school psychologists. These competencies are expected to facilitate expertise in advocacy, leadership, and social change (as defined in Table 1), and include (a) knowledge of child rights based in the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child and its related optional protocols; (b) attitudes, beliefs, and values consistent with principles of child rights and social justice; and (c) skills in participatory or collaborative consultation, organizational development, social change, leadership, policy, and research methodology related to program/institutional development and evaluation. As suggested by Fig. 2, these competencies can be integrated into the curriculum for preparing school psychologists as part of developing foundational, functional, and cross-cutting competencies. Some of these opportunities can be provided through instruction via coursework, self-study, workshops, webinars, etc. In this section, we also address the types of experiences that are critical to developing advocacy, leadership, and social change competencies. Those detailed here are based in part on recommendations for preparing transcultural systems-level consultants (detailed in Nastasi, 2017):

- Opportunities to confront existing knowledge, beliefs, values, and attitudes about the role of children in local and global society and their capacity to express their views and participate in dialogue about issues that affect them, for example, through self-reflection.
- Opportunities to develop and practice skills related to participatory consultation in the context of systems change and organizational development, for example, through supervised field experiences in school reform or development of new school-wide programs.
- Opportunities to engage in policy development, initially applied to working with local school policy-makers and administrators to examine and effect changes in policies to support child rights, for example, through supervised field experiences.
- Opportunities to develop and apply qualitative and mixed-methods research skills in the context of systems change, for example, working in partnership with local schools to collect and use data to inform decision-making related to school reform or development of new programs (again through supervised field experiences).
- Opportunities to engage in leadership activities (e.g., during supervised field experiences) that involve a participatory process of shared governance (Rhoades, 2005). This role could involve taking the lead on a school-based reform project, working directly with other leaders of stakeholder groups.
- Opportunities to engage in reflexive practice informed by evaluation data related to current efforts and guided by self-evaluation and constructive feedback from supervisors or peers.

These opportunities not only fit well within a structured program of professional preparation for school psychologists but also could become a part of continuing professional development with access to instruction, guided practice, and supervision (e.g., by peers or other professionals with relevant expertise). Professional organizations (e.g., ISPA, NASP, APA; local and regional counterparts) can facilitate such opportunities as part of their commitment to promotion and protection of child rights.

Future Directions

Professional organizations such as those highlighted herein (APA, ISPA, NASP) are making the commitment to promoting and protecting child rights as part of their missions and initiatives. These efforts are reflected in activities such as development of training materials (ISPA, APA's Division 16), position statements (NASP), and continuing professional development (ISPA workshops at annual convention). Yet, child rights advocacy has not made a noticeable appearance in ethical codes or training and practice guidelines (Nastasi & Naser, 2014; see also Woods & Bond, 2014). As a result, preparation for child rights advocacy is not yet integrated into professional preparation with a few exceptions (the university affiliations of the authors). This handbook and related training materials (training manual and self-study modules) are initial steps in the preparation of school psychologists to engage in child rights advocacy. Particularly in the United States, which has not yet ratified the Convention, it is especially important for school psychology training programs and professional organizations to engage in preparing school psychologists to be advocates within their own communities. The preparation of school psychologists to engage in child rights advocacy is consistent with our commitment to promoting learning, well-being, and health of all children and to promoting development of health-promoting contexts in which children live. As we have advocated previously (Nastasi & Naser, 2014), child rights are an extension of our ethical principles and could become explicit within ethical codes; such changes are the responsibility of professional organizations that set standards and their individual members. Finally, school psychologists are in an ideal position to influence stakeholders across the child's ecology (i.e., as the mesosystem; see Fig. 1) and to advocate for policies to support the protection and promotion of each child's rights.

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Part III

Major Purposes and Issues in Promoting and Protecting Child Rights in the School Community

Child Well-Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments

Eui Kyung Kim, Michael J. Furlong, Zi Jia Ng,
and E. Scott Huebner

Abstract

This chapter includes five sections that examine core issues related to children's well-being rights as articulated in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention; UN General Assembly, 1989). The first section addresses the importance of ensuring that *all* children are given the opportunity to provide input to assessments of their well-being and that comprehensive well-being assessments incorporate negative *and* positive indicators of well-being. The second section presents a conceptual framework for organizing child well-being research that incorporates key elements of the Convention. The third section addresses the notion that respect for children's rights implies that the most useful assessments of child well-being require additional measures of core, malleable social and psychological assets and risk factors that are known to be associated with child well-being. This perspective is based on the principle that monitoring systems should provide actionable information about each child that informs access to well-being enhancing support services and resources. In addition, an overview of the dual-factor model of mental health is used to illustrate a specific approach to measuring well-being that incorporates negative and positive indicators. The fourth section provides guidance for school psychologists on how to infuse well-being assessments into their professional practice and thereby advocate for children's rights. The fifth section concludes with a discussion of how the adoption of a holistic model of youth development, consistent with the Convention, offers school psychologists the opportunity to provide services that facilitate the well-being of all children.

In 1989, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention; UN, 1989). According to Melton (2005), the overarching principle of the Convention was the promotion of the dignity of children. The implication of this central principle was that adherence to the Convention implies that

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nations must do more than simply comply with each of the Convention requirements. Such a notion involves accountability practices in which adherence to the Convention is measured by more than "simple check-offs of whether particular practices are followed" (Melton, 2005, p. 918). In contrast, scholars have argued that such evaluations must be broad-based, taking into account objective, environmental conditions that are intended to contribute to children's rights and well-being, as well as the subjective, personal perceptions of the child recipients (Hart & Hart, 2014; Kosher, Jiang, Ben-Arieh, & Huebner, 2014). That is, although not neglecting the perceptions of children's caretakers, such scholars have emphasized that child rights monitoring and well-being status appraisals must *directly* take into account the evaluations of the impact of those structures and policies on the well-being of the children themselves. Such comprehensive assessments are required to discern whether the actions taken to promote children's dignity are indeed in their best interests from their perspectives.

Conceptual Model of Child Well-Being

What is well-being? Well-being has been defined in many ways, moving from an earlier, more limited focus on welfare and survival to the more recent focus on flourishing and *optimal* development. As early as 1948, the World Health Organization defined health or well-being as "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease" (p. 1). Such a biopsychosocial model formed the basis of many subsequent conceptualizations of child well-being. According to Ben-Arieh, Casas, Frones, and Corbin (2014), although the notion of child well-being is multifaceted and difficult to operationalize, it has become the "conceptual focal point for assessing the state of children and the discourses on their status" (p. 2). Similar to the quality of life construct (Schalock & Alonso, 2002), many scholars view child well-being as an overarching construct, which subsumes a variety of objective and subjective life domains (Randolph, Kangas, & Ruokamo, 2009). Although it may be unmeasurable directly, it provides a (a) sensitizing construct that underscores the child as the unit of analysis from a "positive" perspective and (b) unifying theme that provides a relatively systematic framework to organize and guide well-being-oriented research, policies, and practices.

The above perspective is consistent with Ben-Arieh's (2008) comprehensive overview of the field of child well-being and its measurement. In an important paper published in the first issue of *Child Indicators Research*, Ben-Arieh (2008) identified several overarching themes in the recent evolution of the field of child well-being conceptualization and measurement. These themes included a near universal acceptance of the Convention, which highlights promoting the *best* interests and *optimal* development of children. Ben-Arieh's themes also included the following: (a) the child should be the unit of analysis in accounts of their well-being; (b) children's current subjective experiences must be taken into account; (c) well-being is multidimensional in nature, although summary indices may be useful in some circumstances; and (d) well-being is more than mere survival and requires positive indicators that reflect personal strengths and environmental assets, not simply the absence of problems or deficiencies. All of these themes reflect a growing expansion of the boundaries of the construct and a concomitant need for (a) developmentally appropriate measures to assess and monitor children's well-being and (b) empirically based methods to promote well-being. The latter theme is consistent with Hart and Hart's (2014) interpretation that a fundamental theme of the Convention is that it "embodies the 'positive ideology' of the child that has been sorely needed throughout the world to guide related care, treatment, and aspirations" (p. 24).

To provide a framework to explicate the key parameters of the well-being construct, we introduce a conceptual model (depicted in Fig. 1) grounded in the Convention and children's well-being research. Consistent with the Convention, the *first* dimension (Domain) recognizes five

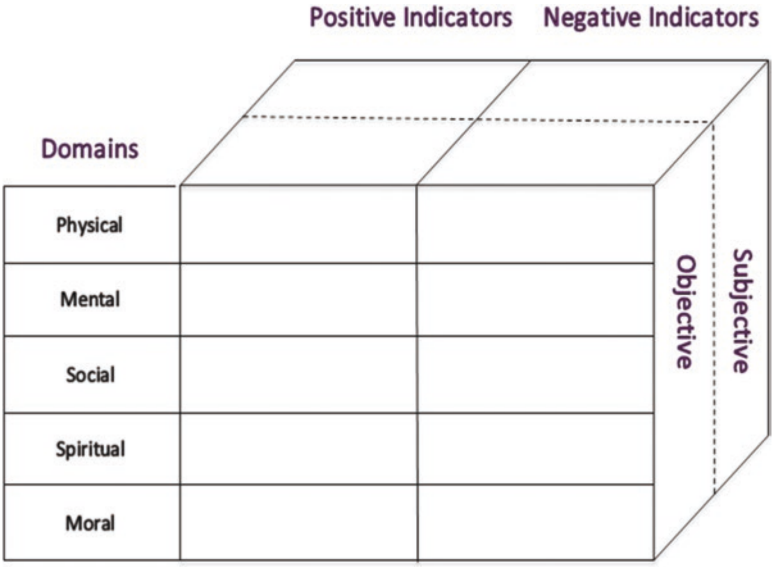

Fig. 1 Key parameters of child well-being conceptual framework incorporating domains (e.g., social), valence (e.g., positive), and perspective (e.g., subjective)

major domains of child development: physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral (see Fig. 1). Together, these domains exemplify a relatively holistic view of a child's personhood, which is consistent with the intention of the Convention to cover the full range of domains relevant to children's rights and well-being.

The *second* dimension (Valence) reflects the normative aspect of the well-being construct, as reflected in positive and negative indicators. This aspect recognizes that from a children's rights framework, well-being can be defined as the actualization of children's rights along a continuum ranging from complete fulfillment (positive outcomes) to complete nonfulfillment (negative outcomes) of a child's optimal functioning in the present and as projected into the future. In this manner, the model underscores the need to include both negative *and* positive indicators in comprehensive assessments of children's well-being. This balanced emphasis including positive indicators is consistent with the growing interest in positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and flourishing as an educational (Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich, & Linkins, 2009) and public health objective (Seligman, 2011).

The *third* dimension (Perspective) of the child well-being matrix reflects the two major reference points for evaluation: objective and subjective. In the tradition of social indicators research (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976), the objective reference point refers to externally evaluated reports of well-being (e.g., physical health of a child as rated by physician, parent report of a child's life satisfaction). The subjective domain represents a central principle of the Convention, that the voices of children themselves (e.g., a child's reports of her or his physical health and life satisfaction) should be considered in assessing and implementing child rights and well-being initiatives. Taken together, this 5 (child domain) × 2 (positive or negative valence) × 2 (objective or subjective reference) matrix provides a conceptual framework that may be useful in organizing, synthesizing, and communicating the results of child rights monitoring efforts and children's overall well-being status.

Although the matrix provides a possible heuristic tool to organize and synthesize child rights and well-being research and practices, it is not intended to explain the origins of individual or group differences in child well-being. A full picture of well-being in children needs to capture the direct effects and possible interactions among the personal and environmental assets and risk factors associated with well-being, taking into account gender, culture, and developmental considerations. This task is difficult, but efforts are likely needed to model the trajectories of children's development across time and settings to fully understand the development of child well-being. Nevertheless, such efforts should stimulate the most meaningful information for legislative bodies, funding sources, and child care workers (e.g., school professionals) to consider in the shared goal of creating conditions that advance optimal youth well-being.

An Application of the Well-Being Perspective for Monitoring and Promoting Child Well-Being

In contrast to the UN well-being Millennium Development Goals[1] that focus on objective aspects of the well-being mentioned in this chapter (e.g., eradication of poverty, reduced child mortality, and universal education; Ki-moon, 2007), recent attention has been given to child subjective well-being or happiness as a fundamental right (Dahl, 2015). To this, Seligman (2011) has added the aspirational goal that by 2051 at least half of the world's population will have achieved flourishing well-being as defined by his PERMA model (positive emotions, social engagement, positive relationships, life meaning, and accomplishment). Yet, as suggested in our previous conceptual discussion of well-being, this goal is a substantial challenge not only to attain but also to monitor progress toward, particularly during the formative stages of childhood and adolescence. In our view, efforts to assess multiple well-being domains have often focused exclusively on subjective population-based indicators of limited complexity (e.g., self-reported substance use). This focus is exemplified by the content of epidemiological surveys, such as the US Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (Eaton et al., 2012), which measures social-emotional health with single negative or "deficit-based" items, such as: "During the past 12 months, did you ever feel so sad or hopeless almost every day for 2 weeks or more that you stopped doing some usual activities?" Yet, when well-being indicators are considered, researchers often use opportunity samples and do not estimate true population patterns (e.g., Ravens-Sieberer et al., 2010). While both these approaches have value and contribute to a better understanding of children's well-being, neither approach fully adheres to the previously noted Convention principles that comprehensive child assessments go beyond indicators of well-being to address personal and environmental assets and risk factors associated with child well-being.

Furthermore, all children should be able to exercise their voices. Considering the importance of respecting children's voices in the Convention (see Article 12), this implies that each child has a right to have her or his personal voice heard—this literally means *all* children, not just a selected few or a random sample. Efforts to address this well-being principle, therefore, are facilitated by the development of measures that are equally valid and appropriate when reported by children worldwide and that provide information about malleable constructs that can be used to inform evidence-based strategies, fostering each child's well-being, regardless of sociocultural context. To further explicate this concept, we provide information about recently developed measures that potentially could be used to universally monitor malleable factors that foster the development of well-being indicators over time (see Appendix A). In addition, we address the principle that children's well-being represents a balance of negative and positive indicators by reviewing applications of the mental health dual-factor model (DFM) with children and adolescents (Greenspoon & Saklofske, 2001). Finally, we provide guidance for school psychologists on how to infuse well-being assessments into their professional practice in a way that respects Convention's principles: Assessment and monitoring should be done in a manner that provides valid and actionable information about each child and guidance on how to support each child's development of a sufficient number of assets to increase her or his well-being.

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[1] The UN extended and revised the 2015 Millennium Development Goals via the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals; see http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/

Well-Being Measurement Issues

Following the Convention, increasing attention is being paid to subjective child well-being, particularly since the 2007 UNICEF report on child well-being in well-resourced countries (Bradshaw & Richardson, 2009). Much previous research has been carried out to measure children's negative indicators, such as measures of psychological distress (e.g., Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Goodman, 1997; Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale-21, Mellor et al., 2014; Me and My School Survey, Deighton et al., 2013; and Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale, Schoenbach, Kaplan, Wagner, Grimson, & Miller, 1983); however, over the past 10 years, there has been increasing research and applied interest in developing measures of children's personal and environmental assets that facilitate child well-being. In addition to employing measures that provide a global index of overall well-being (e.g., Students' Life Satisfaction Scale, Huebner, 1991; and the Mental Health Continuum Short Form, MHC-SF; Keyes, 2005b, 2009), we need measures of *developmental assets*, ones linked more directly to psychoeducational strategies for fostering well-being that teachers and educators can use in school settings.

Balanced Measurement of Psychological Well-being

The recent emergence of efficient measures of malleable developmental asset constructs is promising; however, they are incomplete if used in isolation. In fact, even the balanced use of negative and positive indicators to monitor all children's well-being is incomplete without embedding it in an evidence-based conceptual model. One model that has had increasing attention is the dual-factor model of mental health (DFM), which simultaneously examines the juxtaposition of positive and negative indicators of mental health (Greenspoon & Saklofske, 2001; Keyes, 2005a; Suldo & Shaffer, 2008).

In the first study to operationalize a DFM conceptualization of mental health, Greenspoon and Saklofske (2001) employed measures of both positive (i.e., subjective well-being) and negative (i.e., internalizing and externalizing symptoms) indicators to assess the well-being of 407 elementary school students. In doing so, they proposed four distinct mental health groups. A series of discriminant function analyses were performed using several criteria to classify the positive and negative indicators as either high or low: *T*-score local norms for the Multidimensional Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS; Huebner, 1994) and published norms for Behavioral Assessment System for Children Student Report (BASC-SR; (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004) and Teacher Report (BASC-TR; Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004). The youth in Group 1 (high positive and low negative; optimal mental health group) and Group 2 (low positive and high negative; psychological disorder group) showed the expected patterns of mental health. However, the youth in Group 3 (low positive and low negative; vulnerable group) and Group 4 (high positive and high negative; symptomatic but content group) are typically undetected and uncared for within the traditional unidimensional well-being assessment approach based on the medical model, which simply identifies youth as displaying the presence or absence of psychological disorders (Suldo & Shaffer, 2008). This study thus provided initial support for simultaneously considering both negative and positive indicators when assessing child well-being in order to provide more nuanced information about children's well-being.

Other DFM studies following from Greenspoon and Saklofske's (2001) pioneer work have relied on predetermined values as a decision point (e.g., raw scores, samples means, standard deviations, or *T*-scores) to assign students into one of the four well-being groups (e.g., Antaramian, Huebner, Hills, & Valois, 2010; Kelly, Hills, Huebner, & McQuillin, 2012; Lyons, Huebner, Hills, & Shinkareva, 2012; Suldo & Shaffer, 2008). These DFM studies are summarized in Table 1 and provide examples of

Table 1 Studies using dual-factor mental health model to assess youth complete social-emotional health and well-being

	Studies using dual-factor model					
Study information	Greenspoon and Saklofske	Suldo and Shaffer	Antaramian et al.	Lyons et al.	Thalji	Venning et al.
Year published	2001	2008	2010	2012	2013	2013
Location	Western Canada	Southeast United States	Southeast United States	Southeast United States	Southeast United States	South Australia
Grades	3–6	6–8	7–8	6–12	9–11	7–12
N	407	349	764	990	500	3913
Strength measure	MDLSS	SLSS + PANAS–C	SLSS + PANAS–C	SLSS	SLSS + PANAS-C	SWLS PWBS SWBS
Strength criterion	*T*-score local norms	Top 70%	Top 84% *T*-score 40+	Top 72% *T*-score 40+	Top 74%	Top 78% 21–35 SWLS and 5–11 PSBS subscales 9 or higher
Reference group	"Local"	Study sample	Study sample	Study sample	Study sample	Criterion referenced
Distress measure	BASC-SR BASC-TR	CBCL-YSR	CBCL-YSR	CBCL-YSR	BASC-2 SRP-A BASC-2 TRS-A	DASS-21
Distress criterion	Not mentioned	*T*-score 60+ on internal and/or external composite 30% met criteria	*T*-score 60+ on internal and/or external composite 25% met criteria	*T*-score 60+ on internal and/or external composite 29% met criteria	*T*-score 60+ on internal and/or external composite 26% met criteria	Raw scores Number subscales in mild, moderate, or severe range 53% met criteria
Reference group	Published norms	Published norms	Published norms	Published norms	Published norms	Criterion referenced
Most healthy						
Hi strength Lo distress	Well-adjusted 43% 33%	Complete MH 57%	Positive MH 67%	Positive MH 64%	Complete MH 62%	Flourishing 42%
Hi strength Hi distress	Externally maladjusted 27%	Symptomatic but content 13%	Symptomatic but content 17%	Symptomatic but content 9%	Symptomatic but content 11%	Struggling 36%
Lo strength Lo distress	Dissatisfied 13%	Vulnerable 13%	Vulnerable 8%	Vulnerable 7%	Vulnerable 11%	Languishing 5%
Lo strength Hi distress	Distressed 44% 40%	Troubled 17%	Troubled 8%	Troubled 20%	Troubled 15%	Floundering 17%
Least healthy						

Note. MDLSS, Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (Huebner, 1994); SLSS, Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (Huebner, 1991); PANAS-C, Positive and Negative Affect Scale for Children (Laurent et al., 1999); CBCL-YSR, Child Behavior Checklist-Youth Self-Response (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001); BASC-2-SRP, Behavioral and Emotional Rating Scale-2-Self-Report of Personality (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004); SWLS, Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmnos, Larsen & Griffin, 1985); PWBS, Psychological Well-Being Scale (Ryff, 1989); SWBS, Social Well-Being Scale (Keyes, 1998); DASS-21, Depression, Anxiety, Stress Scale (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) how a system of universal well-being measurement could be conceptualized. In most DFM studies, participants were first classified according to traditional, negative indicators (i.e., presence of psychological symptoms). Such measures have included the Child Behavior Checklist Youth Self-Report (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001) or similar scales including internalizing and externalizing behaviors (e.g., Antaramian et al., 2010; Lyons et al., 2012; Suldo & Shaffer, 2008) or the BASC-2 SRP and TRS (e.g., McMahan, 2012; Thalji, 2013). Students were classified as demonstrating a high level of (negative) psychological symptoms if they had a DASS *T*-score of 60 or higher on internalizing, externalizing, or both scales. DFM studies have then classified youths as having either high or low (positive) subjective well-being using varying cut points, such as (a) a minimum mean raw score of 4 (on the six-point response scale) on Huebner's (1991) Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (e.g., 30% in the low subjective well-being category; Suldo & Shaffer, 2008); (b) a *T*-score of 40 or higher on the Students' Life Satisfaction Scale combined with positive and negative affect item responses (e.g., 16%–28% in low subjective well-being; Antaramian et al., 2010; Lyons et al., 2012); or (c) a raw score that corresponded to the proportion of students classified as having high or low distress (e.g., 23.5–26.4% in low subjective well-being group; McMahan, 2012; Thalji, 2013). DFM studies have then crossed the high-low subjective well-being and high-low psychological symptoms categories to create the four groups. Such an approach could be used to monitor indicators of youth well-being that take into consideration negative and positive of well-being components. Nonetheless, however promising the DFM approach, the research reviewed below suggests that additional study is needed before reaching consensus on well-being indicators that have broad cross-national validity.

In addition to exploring classification strategies, DFM studies have reported on the associations among the four commonly derived DFM groups and other quality of life indicators. For example, Suldo and Shaffer (2008) found that the four DFM groups in their study differed significantly in terms of academic outcomes, physical health, and social functioning. Students in the optimal mental health group had better reading skills, school attendance, academic self-perceptions, academic-related goals, social support from peers and parents, and self-perceived physical health, and fewer social problems than their peers. Additionally, Antaramian et al. (2010) reported group differences in student engagement, academic achievement, and environmental support for learning. For example, *vulnerable* youths and the youth with psychological disorders had similar risk levels for academic and behavioral problems, again highlighting the importance of a balanced system to monitor psychological well-being and demonstrating that DFM patterns covary with multiple, important life outcomes that comprise the broader matrix of child well-being.

Universal Well-Being Monitoring Using the Dual-Continua Model

Applications of the DFM classification approach have formed mental health classes using rational dichotomous cut points (i.e., high or low life satisfaction and high or low psychological distress). This approach will always produce four groups and have the limitation of being insensitive to underlying "profiles" of child assets (Rebelez, 2015). There are most likely more than just four categories of students based on their profiles of developmental assets. Examining the underlying profiles of assets might provide a more comprehensive picture of students' well-being (Kim, 2015). Furthermore, the absence of an empirical guideline for classifying students' well-being can result in large discrepancies with regard to the identification of students in need of support. Thus, in order for school psychologists to use a dual-factor model efficiently as part of a well-being assessment, there is a need for an empirically supported criterion for evaluating how measures of negative and positive child well-being indicators and measures of developmental assets and risk factors can be integrated to monitor child well-being most effectively to identify (a) the students in need of follow-up services and (b) the key personal and environmental conditions relevant to service delivery. Such an approach will help schools respond to needs and implement universal as well as targeted well-being promoting services.

Thus far, the DFM and other conceptualizations of more optimal mental health have been based on the use of rationally derived cut points that divide all children into high and low mental health categories. Although this approach has supported basic research, it is not a procedure that can be used universally to assess children's mental health because using a normative comparison rationale by definition will always produce high and low mental health groups. Additional research is needed to better understand how personal and environmental assets are associated with core child well-being indicators and which empirically identifies adequate and optimal levels of student assets associated with higher levels of subjective well-being. That is, school psychologists should be mindful of the questions: How much life satisfaction and how many personal and social assets are associated with adequate and thriving indicators of objective well-being? For example, Lenzi, Furlong, Dowdy, and Sharkey (2015) and Lenzi, Dougherty, Furlong, Dowdy, and Sharkey (2015) considered how the raw number of youths' psychological and social assets was associated with low levels of psychological disorder, involvement in risk behaviors (e.g., substance use), and exposure to bullying at school, all of which are other general measures of child well-being. These two studies, which drew from a sample of more than 11,000 California high school students, found that a total of 5 to 6 of 12 personal and environmental assets were enough to have a protective effect when subjective well-being was considered, although it was optimal to have 9 or more assets. Extending the analysis, Lenzi, Furlong, et al. (2015), however, found that greater protective effects were evident when assets were spread over multiple domains (e.g., belief in self, belief in others, emotional competence, and engaged living). Pennell et al. (2015) extended this analysis using a sample of Australian middle school adolescents and found that 16% of the variance in the students' subjective well-being could be attributed to individual Social Emotional Health Scale-Secondary (SEHS-S) factors (belief in self, belief in others, emotional competence, and engaged living), with a substantial increase of 32% explained variance when the combined interactive effects of the factors were considered. Efforts to promote children's well-being can be enhanced via research that increases understanding of how core personal and environmental assets are associated with well-being and pinpointing the minimal and optimal number and configuration of assets that foster robust well-being across the various child well-being domains. By fostering personal and environmental assets, we give the ultimate respect to an important right of each child, the right to use these assets in self-determined ways to shape the quality of her or his life, as has been promoted in the Search Institute's 40 developmental assets model (Scales, Benson, Leffert, & Blyth, 2000).

Recently, Dowdy et al. (2014) described the use of the dual-continua approach in applied school psychology contexts as part of school-wide screening for optimal mental health. They illustrated how two secondary schools used the SEHS-S in combination with the BESS (Kamphaus & Reynolds, 2007) and SDQ (Goodman, 1997) as part of universal well-being screening. The authors helped their partner schools use methods previously identified in research (e.g., Keyes, 2005b; Suldo & Shaffer, 2008) to place students into categories based on measures of negative and positive well-being. However, instead of using a single, predetermined cut point (e.g., *T*-score of 60+) to classify students into either *high* or *low* asset groups, they used *z*-scores to classify students into *low*, *low average*, *high average*, and *high asset* groups. When crossed with the three psychological disorder groups created by using *T*-scores from the BESS (i.e., *normal*, *elevated*, and *very elevated*), 12 logical groups were created. The authors combined a few similar groups that had small *N*s, with the remaining nine mental health groups demonstrating *varying* levels of positive and negative mental health. Results were provided to school care teams for evaluating service needs, prioritizing service delivery for students, and implementing interventions to foster students' strengths (Dowdy et al., 2014). Although this study also used a predetermined cut point to classify student well-being, it demonstrated the potential value of considering more complex patterns (i.e., subtypes) of well-being.

The development of well-being models that integrate negative and positive indicators is obviously in its infancy. More sophisticated models and methods are likely to emerge. Nevertheless, we believe the DFM and the dual-continua model represent major steps forward in understanding and promoting positive child well-being as well as preventing and/or ameliorating child psychological disorders.

Suggestions for School Psychologists to Advance Promotion of Child Well-Being

Consider how a student might respond to this question taken from the Students' Life Satisfaction Scale using its six-point response options (strongly disagree to strongly agree): "My life is going well." Knowing nothing else about a student, and if you asked just this one question, what concerns and follow-up questions might you have if she or he responded, "strongly disagree" or "moderately disagree"? Would you have, for example, any concerns about (a) how this student was doing in school classes, (b) how she or he was getting along with staff and peers, (c) whether the student was involved in any risky behaviors, and (d) what meaningful contributions he or she was making at school? Such a student's sincere and honest response to this one item would immediately signal concerns about his or her school life, family life, peer life, and/or community life; that is, it immediately shines a light on the more critical issue, the multiple, integrated components of a youth's objective and subjective well-being. Knowing the response to just this single subjective well-being indicator would compel a search to dig deeper and make sure that the student's needs were understood and addressed. In contrast, now consider how your professional calculus would change for a student who responded, "moderately agree" or "strongly agree." Rather than probing for possible personal distress or involvement in risk behaviors, a student reporting robust life satisfaction would naturally evoke inquiries about the ways which the student's life is going well—flourishing. This brief example illustrates the importance and value of incorporating (a) a well-being emphasis in school psychology practice, (b) the critical role of giving students a voice, and (c) the clinical relevance of each individual child serving as the unit of assessment. It also shows that the process of incorporating a focus on youth well-being does not need to be overly complicated and can be incrementally infused into everyday school psychology practice; but, where to begin?

Start with What You Have Control Over: Your Own Professional Practice

A place that nearly all school psychologists can start is to include well-being assessments (e.g., see Appendix A) into education referral assessment plans. Rather than immediately taking on the more complex challenges associated with broader system change, we have found that school psychologists have success when they begin by engaging in professional development to become familiar with well-being and asset-based assessments. A logical beginning place is to consider how to add well-being assessments into the social-emotional portion of a psychological assessment plan, a routine professional service of school psychologists. This addition not only respects each student's right to have their well-being assessed but also has an indirect effect in that it begins to expose colleagues and parents to information about students' personal and social assets. Accrued information will help provide a more holistic understanding of the student, and it also has the effect of slowly changing expectations about the purposes of education referral assessments. We have found that this awareness-building effect alone can eventually lead to system change as administrators and teachers who are most familiar with predominately deficit-emphasized assessments begin to ask, as we have heard: "Have we been asking the right question all along?" Merely introducing the well-being assessments reviewed in the Appendix into your daily practice can expand and enhance dialogues about students.

Beyond using well-being measures in educational assessments, school psychologists can use them to inform direct service delivery. For example, to help form judgments about a student's need for psychological counseling services, well-being measures can be used to evaluate and plan the implementation of targeted positive psychology interventions and other strategies that aim to foster youths' social-emotional health (e.g., Suldo, in press). How much more would parents be engaged in the educational process if at least some of the conversations about their children focused on what every parents wants, their child's happiness and well-being?

Integrate Well-Being Assessments with a School's Multitier Health Plan

When ready to move beyond your own professional practice, we have found that the school site is the next logical implementation context. After having been exposed to well-being assessments, it is important to assess the commitment of the principal and staff, much as in the whole-school positive behavior supports framework. We have found that schools are initially most comfortable with implementing anonymous surveys that focus on students' assets, resilience, and well-being. Such a whole-school survey can be used to provide surveillance of the status of students' well-being over time. For example, tracking the percentage of students at a school that moderately/strongly agree that their life is going well could serve as an indicator of the overall well-being of a student body. However, because general subjective well-being indicators do not provide proscriptive information, school psychologists can help schools obtain more detailed profiles of students' personal and social assets by using one of the assets-focused instruments described in the Appendix. For example, gratitude and empathy are two important personal assets that are positively associated with subjective well-being, but they are not direct measures of youth well-being. Nonetheless, when a school psychologist monitors students' gratitude, and other discrete assets, for example, they can help their schools target possible intervention domains. Schools with lower levels of student gratitude might implement a program to foster student gratitude (e.g., Froh et al., 2014). And, in directly fostering gratitude, empathy, and other personal and social assets, school psychologists will simultaneously facilitate youths' subjective well-being (Lenzi, Dougherty et al., 2015; Lenzi, Furlong et al., 2015).

As we have worked with schools that have implemented whole-school well-being assessment practices, we have found that nearly all of them eventually come to a decision point (Dowdy et al., 2014; Moore et al., 2016). Although they appreciate the information that anonymous well-being surveillance surveys provide about their students, they increasingly recognize that they can do more to help students if they have access to student-level information. We have heard from school administrators, teachers, and school psychologists that they want to know how the "population" of students is doing, but they increasingly express the desire to have real-time information about specific students who have less than optimal well-being, as this approach increases staff commitment and empowers them to action. And, a complementary, motivating interest for educators is to learn about, appreciate, and better understand how school contexts are contributing to the positive development and well-being of a majority of their students who have facilitative levels of personal and social assets and life satisfaction.

At this point, school psychologists play a key role in helping a school to formalize a whole-school student well-being strategy. Dowdy et al. (2014) and Moore et al. (2016) emphasize the importance of school psychologists not going it alone when implementing a whole-school well-being monitoring and screening process. If students are asked to identify themselves when completing self-report well-being assessments, then the entire school staff must prepare to address identified student needs. Moore et al. (2016) provide the following suggestions for school psychologists providing leadership implementing whole-school well-being assessment:

1. *Identify the key participants and plan.* Prior to completing any well-being assessment, form a coordination of student services team (COST) comprised of the school psychologist, administrators, teachers, psychiatric social workers, and community partners. The first objective of the services team is to assess staff commitment to implementing a school-wide social-emotional health plan and the access to the resources needed to meaningfully respond to identified student needs. Steps 2–5 are implemented once the services team is confident that it will be able to responsibly carry out school-wide screening or if a smaller pilot capacity building strategy is prudent.
2. *Select well-being instruments appropriate for the school context.* Consistent with the goals of complete well-being screening, the COST team gathers information on a range of well-being indicators and youth social-emotional strengths.
3. *Consent.* After discussing the benefits and consequences of passive and active consent, the COST team determines which is optimal for this school context.
4. *Administer the screener.* It is recommended that whole-school screening take place toward the end of the first month of school so as to facilitate providing students with services throughout the school year.
5. *Follow-up.* Following whole-school well-being screening, the results are shared with teachers and other support staff in order to carry out universal and targeted support services. The COST group reviews all student responses and moves forward with plans to implement individual and whole-school strategies to foster all students' well-being.

Conclusion Regarding Integrated Child Rights and Child Well-Being Perspectives for School Psychology

The profession of school psychology has historically been restricted to a primarily reactive, problem-solving orientation that has focused attention on limited aspects of children's functioning and their environments, particularly individual deficiencies and environmental risk factors (Hart, 2014; Sheridan & Gutkin, 2000). Based on a child rights perspective, Hart (2014) makes a compelling argument for a new social contract between school psychology and its clients. This contract involves the goal of school psychologists becoming leaders in a movement to promote the optimal, healthy, and holistic development of children in ways that recognize the uniqueness of each child and thus to "realize the child's full holistic potentials, uniqueness, and possibilities for responsible life in a free society" (Mcloughlin & Hart, 2014, p. 4) in a manner that is consistent with the notion of individual dignity for all children embedded in the Convention.

The aspirations of a children's rights agenda and the realization of children's well-being are inextricably interwoven such that integrated applications of a children's rights agenda and a child well-being perspective offer exciting opportunities to promote more proactive approaches to the practice of school psychology, consistent with the aspirations of the profession as articulated via individual nations (e.g., NASP, 2012) and at the international level via the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) and the Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO; 2010). In contrast to the traditional deficit-centered medical model approach, an integrated focus on child rights and children's current and future well-being should stimulate more comprehensive, holistic perceptions of children, recognizing opportunities for the promotion of optimal functioning in light of their unique potentials in the context of unique environmental circumstances. In turn, this should facilitate the development of more proactive, comprehensive child assessment and intervention approaches, necessitating methods that include the development and implementation of ongoing child well-being monitoring and well-being promotion systems through consideration of the utilization and promotion of personal and environmental assets as well as reductions in risk factors. With their focus on the mental and the social domains, the DFM and dual-continua models do not represent comprehensive transactional models encompassing all aspects of well-being as described in the introductory portion of this chapter; however, the use of these frameworks does illustrate the benefits of integrating positive aspects of functioning (e.g., subjective well-being; developmental assets) along with traditional mental health data (i.e., presence of psychological symptoms). For example, the DFM category of *optimal mental health* provides an example of an effort to approximate aspects of the notion of the promotion of *the highest levels of functioning* of children as advocated by the Convention. This category clearly exemplifies the contrast between the DFM and the traditional medical model that identifies positive functioning as simply the absence of psychopathology (Greenspoon & Saklofske, 2001; Keyes, 2009). More comprehensive well-being models and their associated measurement approaches shine a light on personal and environmental assets as well as deficits in understanding all children and bringing resources to bear on all children's development. The data afforded by such approaches could thus provide a portion of the information needed to fulfill the aspiration of providing an individual development plan (i.e., IDP) as recommended by Hart (2014) to meet the spirit of the Convention. Construed as an upgrading of the notion of an individualized education plan required for students with disabilities, IDPs would be developed for *all* children in an effort to respect their individuality and promote their optimal development. The use of subjective data as reported by the children themselves (e.g., the subjective well-being and assets components in the DFM model) is also consistent with one of the key assumptions of the Convention and the associated IDP that children should be included in decisions regarding their well-being in a collaborative way as early as possible (Ben-Arieh, 2008; Hart, 2014; Lansdown, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014; Melton, 2005).

As noted in the previous section, in order to provide individualized plans for individual children, school psychologists and related professionals would need to be prepared to develop individualized goals, methods, and evaluation procedures to address children's development at multiple levels, ranging from consideration of strategies that capitalize on considering personal and environmental assets and recognized risk conditions to promote well-being as well as to remediate "problems." Morrison, Brown, D'Incau, O'Farrell, and Furlong (2006) provide a useful, concrete example of a structure that would facilitate development of IDPs that incorporates risk factors *and* assets within a "developmental trajectory" perspective and recognizes the critical role of school, peer, and family contexts. Although not originally developed within a child rights framework, the proposed structure fits well with various aforementioned assumptions of the Convention, such as respect, wholeness, optimal development, and assessing malleable developmental influences on children's lives.

To recapitulate, a child's rights agenda fits well with a child well-being perspective in providing a core, guiding purpose for a more comprehensive profession of school psychology. This purpose is consistent with the "positive ideology of the child" (Hart & Hart, 2014) embedded in the Convention and exemplified in more comprehensive well-being models, such as the DFM, dual-continua model, and other approaches (see Kosher et al., 2014, for more examples). Together, the development and implementation of more holistic conceptual models, professional practices, and aspirations should aid school psychologists in ensuring a greater quality of life and well-being for *all* children, including the subjective views of each child and a demonstrated respect for the dignity of every child.

Appendix A: Measuring Malleable Developmental Assets

Although there are a number of malleable social and psychological constructs that could be included as measures of well-being assets and that have school-based applications (e.g., gratitude (Froh et al., 2014) and hope (Marques, Lopez, & Pais-Ribeiro, 2011)), scholars are beginning to reevaluate the protective power of single assets because they insufficiently reflect the array of assets adolescents need to navigate diverse, complex modern-day developmental challenges (Lenzi et al., 2015). For example, Larson and Tran (2014) argue that it is the integration of youth assets that fosters understanding and facilitates coping with contemporary developmental challenges. This conceptualization of well-being suggests that there are limits to measuring single assets, calling for the measurement of *sets* of assets that buffer youth against the development of behavioral and emotional problems and promote their well-being. Larson and Tran (2014) have proposed that flexible sets of assets are needed by youth as they face a range of contemporary challenges, which are made more complex by the range of economic and social conditions that children experience worldwide. In concert with Larson and Tran's call for research to increase understanding of youth's complex asset profiles, there has been substantial progress in the development of validated measures that can be used to assess malleable developmental assets, while recognizing that competent employment of well-being assessments must be grounded in cultural sensitivity (culture and language) and adherence to the highest technical standards of survey administration, scoring, and interpretation, as well as used in a manner that benefits the youths (International Test Commission, 2013). At a minimum, well-being-related measures need to provide empirical evidence showing that they demonstrate similar item functioning and structural invariance across genders, sociocultural groups, and languages. A brief review of available measures for researchers and practitioners to consider follows.

Positive Youth Development-Short Form (PYD-SF)

The PYD-SF was developed for longitudinal studies of the US 4H program. It includes the Positive PYD-SF (34 items) and the Positive Youth Development-Very Short Form (17 items; Geldhof, Bowers, Boyd et al., 2014; Geldhof, Bowers, Mueller et al., 2014). This scale measures Learner's 5 Cs of positive youth development – competence, confidence, connection, character, and caring/compassion (Geldhoff, Bowers, Boyd et al., 2014) – and has been used extensively in longitudinal studies.

PERMA Model

Kern, Waters, Adler, and White (2014) developed the 34-item EPOCH measure of engagement, perseverance, optimism, connectedness, and happiness to investigate Seligman's (2011) PERMA well-being model. In the short time since its development, schools, particularly in Australia (e.g., White & Waters, 2015), have infused PERMA's constructs into their educational practices. This instrument also has companion internalizing distress scales (depression and anxiety), which could be used within a dual-factor evaluation framework, as described in this chapter.

CHILD Trends Flourishing Children Project

In the United States, the CHILD Trends Flourishing Children Project (FCP; Lippman et al., 2014) has developed a set of 18 brief measures of positive constructs: *(a) personal flourishing* (gratitude, forgiveness, hope, goal orientation, purpose, spirituality), *(b) flourishing in school and work* (diligence and reliability, educational engagement, initiative taking, trustworthiness and integrity, thrift), *(c) flourishing in relationships* (positive friendships with peers, positive relationships with parents), *(d) relationship skills* (empathy, social competence), *(e) helping others to flourish* (altruism, helping family and friends), and *(f) environmental stewardship* (environmental stewardship). These measures build on the long tradition of monitoring positive youth development by the Child Trends organization.

Social-Emotional Health Survey-Secondary (SEHS-S)

The SEHS-Secondary (SEHS-S) is 36-item measure that is based on the supposition that as youth develop they address fundamental developmental tasks that have implications for their well-being. As this developmental process unfolds, a youth builds basic self-other cognitive dispositions (Crisp & Turner, 2014), and these dispositions help him or her to foster positive development and protect against psychological distress. In addition, the SEHS-S model indicates that these dispositions work in tandem to foster higher levels of well-being (Jones, You, & Furlong, 2013). Positive psychological assets' combined and interactive effects have been called *covitality* (Renshaw et al., 2014). See Lenzi, Dougherty et al. (2015), and Renshaw et al. (2014) for more complete descriptions of the conceptual and research groundings of SEHS-S components. The SEHS-S has been validated across multiple, diverse samples, with evidence provided for its structural invariance across US (You et al., 2014; You, Furlong, Felix, & O'Malley, 2015), Korean (Lee, You, & Furlong, 2015), Japanese (Ito, Smith, You, Shimoda, & Furlong, 2015), Australian (Pennell, Boman, & Mergler, 2015), and Turkish adolescents (Telef & Furlong, 2015). A primary school age version is also available (Furlong, You, Renshaw, O'Malley, & Rebelez, 2013). Information about the SEHS-S is available from www.michaelfurlong.info/research/covitality.html.

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Promoting Healthy Child Development: A Child Rights Perspective

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Abstract

The foundation for health and development is set out during the early years of life. Early child development (ECD) is the net result of an ongoing interplay between the biology of a child and the environments surrounding her/him. The quality of these environments and the quality of children's experiences within these environments have a determining role on ECD. The primary focus of this chapter is to explore a rights-based approach toward improving the qualities of these environments and, as a result, child health, development, and well-being. It discusses the four guiding principles of the United Nations (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child, where they cross paths with the science of child development, and how can they be used as a vehicle to maximize developmental outcomes for children. This chapter discusses child development within Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model and its different spheres and the elements within them related to child development and emphasizes the role of school psychologists as key players in one of the spheres within the model. Finally, it recognizes school psychologists as professionals who are well positioned to ensure children's developmental needs are adequately met within the school environment and in collaboration with other professionals, families, and policy makers. In doing so, school psychologists have the opportunity to maximize the developmental outcomes of children while fulfilling their fundamental human rights. This chapter closes with the conclusion that, in order for school psychologists to fulfill this crucial role, their professional training and practice models need to be aligned with the child rights standards set by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Child development entails the physical and psychological (cognitive, affective, and volitional) development of children from prenatal development through adolescence. While there are many developmental (e.g., ages and stages) and legal definitions for "child," which may vary across expert groups and nations, for the purpose of this chapter, we adopt the definition of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereinafter, the Convention) as "[…] every human being below the age of eighteen years […]" (Art. 1). The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (subsequently referred to as the

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Committee) also defines optimum child development as development within the five main domains of physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral (Arts. 17, 27, 32).

Significance of Child Development

Child development during the early years has been recognized as a potent social determinant of health (SDH). SDHs are the social, economic, physical environmental, and biological factors that influence healthy development (Center on the Developing Child, 2010). Previous research has demonstrated that supporting early child development (ECD) results in enhanced population health as many of the chronic health conditions such as obesity, diabetes (Barnes, 2012), hypertension (Hearst, Martin, Rafdal, Robinson, & McConnell, 2013), and osteoporosis (Winsloe, Earl, Dennison, Cooper, & Harvey, 2009) are rooted in problems that began during the early years. An improved state of ECD results in a more equitable distribution of health among and within populations. The report of the World Health Organization (WHO) Commission on SDH refers to ECD as a “powerful equalizer” that can attenuate, if not eliminate, some of the steep socioeconomic gradients observed in the distribution of health within and across nations (WHO, 2008). The science of ECD has demonstrated that early childhood experiences provide the foundation for school readiness and child well-being and that, when these experiences are toxic (such as chronic exposure to poverty and its associated issues), they often place children at risk for lack of preparedness to learn and, as a result, failure at school (Shonkoff et al., 2012). Providing children with safe and nurturing physical and social environments can help buffer some of the challenges faced by children living under stressful conditions such as poverty. Schools are such places and school psychologists are one group of professionals well positioned to partner with teachers, administrators, parents, community, and children themselves, to help children maximize their potential.

Given that ECD determines school preparedness and strongly influences school success (Lloyd & Hertzman, 2009), schools should be particularly interested in fostering healthy ECD. Poor ECD has been linked to negative school outcomes such as higher rates of behavioral referrals, academic difficulty, and difficulty with peer relationships (Anderson et al., 2003; Barnett, 1995). Through school partnerships, unfavorable ramifications of suboptimal ECD can be buffered and even rectified. For instance, timely detection of children who lag behind in one or more domains of development, and devoting individualized services and one-on-one or customized teaching assistance to these children, can help them catch up with their peers and therefore fill the gap in their preparedness to learn and increase their success in school and beyond.

In addition to resulting in a cohort of healthy children, a strong early childhood foundation can lay the groundwork for societies’ peace and harmony. Evidence indicates that achieving better developmental outcomes during the early years, as a result of participating in ECD programs, may lead to lower rates of juvenile arrest (Reynolds, Temple, Mann, & Robertson, 2001), reduced childhood antisocial behavior, and reduced crime and incarceration rates as adults (Schweinhart, 2013).

Lastly, there is an economic efficiency in investing in the early years. The gain is large, with no risk of potential loss, if investment is done properly. The existing data (Heckman, 2008; Lynch, 2004; Sagi-Schwartz, 2012) support the arguments that early interventions in child development can lead to a long-run stock of human capital, increased levels of skill acquisition, labor force participation, income, and ultimately a nation’s gross domestic product (GDP). A highly publicized Jamaican study evaluated the short-term and long-term benefits of early psychosocial stimulation and nutritional supplements for extremely disadvantaged children. The results revealed a significant difference in physical growth when the nutrition supplementation was combined with parental psychosocial stimulation of the children versus the group that only received the nutrition supplementation (Grantham-McGregor, Powell, Walker, & Himes, 1991). The subsequent follow-ups of the cohort indicated better school achievement and behavioral stability for these children in their teen years (Walker, Chang, Powell, Simonoff, & Grantham-McGregor, 2007) and higher economic outcomes as adults (Gertler et al., 2014). Other large-scale studies in low- and middle-income countries (LMIC) have shown that such early and affordable interventions may in fact be effective in improving the state of ECD globally as the majority of young children live in LMIC (Black & Dewey, 2014; Yousafzai & Aboud, 2014).

A global scan has revealed that the nations that invest in early years by as little as 1.2% of their GDP enjoy a more sustainable state of development and prosperity and provide more harmonious, just, and peaceful societies for their citizens (Irwin, Siddiqi, & Hertzman, 2007). Today, politicians and policy makers, in addition to researchers, have become aware of the significance of investing in the early years. The cost-effectiveness of such investments makes a compelling case (Rees, Chai, & Anthony, 2012). Although developmental outcomes of the early years impact the health and economic well-being of societies and shape the environments, these outcomes themselves are also greatly influenced by the qualities of the environments around children.

In general, the quality of child development is the net result of a constant interplay between genes and environments of children. In this interplay, often referred to as nature-nurture dyad, the two components do not have equal influences. There is a convincing body of evidence that demonstrates the great influence of environments on children's developmental outcomes (Phillips & Shonkoff, 2000; Shonkoff et al., 2012). Part of the reason for much attention being devoted to the nurture (environmental) component of this dyad was because it was understood that the other component (nature) was not modifiable. However, the work of epigenetic scientists on gene-environment interactions with identical twins provides important information about individual variability in developmental outcomes of these children, with identical genetic endowment, as a result of different caregiving environments. These studies, while reiterating the strong influence of environments, also point to the complexity of the interaction between nature and nurture (Deater-Deckard & Cahill, 2008).

The early conditions to which the child (in utero) and/or mother are exposed can influence the genetic endowment of the child while also sculpting the developing brain and leaving lifelong imprints. Sensitivity of the brain continues after birth. The existing evidence establishes that physical and emotional abuse and other gross adverse childhood events can be reliably linked to lasting, serious health consequences. However, it also indicates that small doses of less memorable ongoing adversities of childhood (e.g., the ongoing impact of poverty or the repeated dismissal of the child and her/his opinions by the caregivers) become embedded in neural circuitry and produce the vulnerabilities of adult life (Hertzman & Boyce, 2010). Therefore, raising healthy children requires the provision of environments that are safe, respecting, loving, and emotionally nonthreatening, provide opportunities for play and leisure activities, and stimulate physical, language/cognitive, and social/emotional development.

Although the intensity and accelerated rate of development during the early years makes this phase critical to human development, under the principle of brain plasticity, the development of human brain and, therefore, its receptivity to respond to the quality of environments stretches well into adolescence and even into early adulthood (Castellanos et al., 1999). Therefore, the adolescent period may present a second chance to set things right and bring the child, as well as the society, back on the more promising trajectory (WHO, 2014). This knowledge underlines the crucial role of school years in strengthening the success built prior to school entry or rectifying the suboptimal developmental outcomes of the early years.

A Framework for Child Development

Progress achieved to date in the area of child development has resulted in multiple frameworks from which a working model can be formulated. Among these frameworks is Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological model which views the development of children within the context of five nested systems of influence: the *microsystem*, *mesosystem*, *exosystem*, *macrosystem*, and *chronosystem* (Fig. 1; Eisenmann et al., 2008). (See also Fig. 1 in Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy", in this volume.)

Within the *microsystem*, the most proximal and potent component to children is the family environment. Family members provide direct human contact for children while mediating their contact with other important environments such as school and the neighborhood. Family characteristics such as family's social resources (e.g., parental skills and education) and economic resources also impact the developmental outcomes of children. The gradient effect of these characteristics, particularly during the early years, is the most powerful explanation for differences in children's health and well-being (Irwin et al., 2007) and children's educational and occupational success as adults (Dubow, Boxer, & Huesmann, 2009).

The interactions people have with each other in the *microsystem*, referred to as the *mesosystem* (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006), are not strictly hierarchical and can create dynamics that could impact children's development greatly. From very early ages, most children spend a good portion of their waking hours in school or in school-like settings. Schools are comprised of physical and social elements which help shape the development of the child. It is important for the school community to recognize the interdependent nature of the relationship between families and schools and value parents as integral partners in a child's education process. When school professionals are strongly committed to working

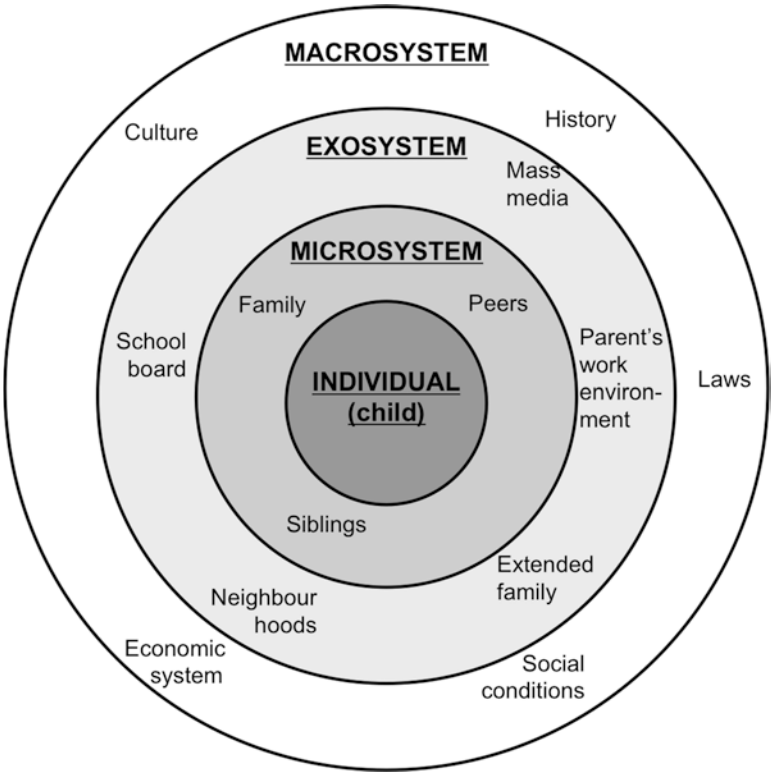

Fig. 1 Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory of child development. (Source: Eisenmann et al. (2008). Copyright 2008 by Springer Nature. Reproduced with permission)

with parents and engaging with them to support their children's education, the academic outcomes can be very positive (Khajehpour & Ghazvini, 2011).

School psychologists are part of a team of school adults that provide support for the successful integration of children and youth within the school community. According to the American Psychological Association (APA, 2015, p. 1), "The basic education and training of School Psychologists prepares them to provide a range of psychological assessment, intervention, prevention, health promotion, and program development and evaluation services with a special focus on the developmental processes of children and youth within the context of schools, families, and other systems." Thus, the role of the school psychologist can be seen as one that supports the overall growth and development of children within and across their primary systems of development. That is, by providing support to children within the context of the school, and by working with parents, other school professionals, and other interested parties, school psychologists can be viewed as partners and members of a team that can address the psychological, physical, social, spiritual, moral, and economic well-being of children and youth and ultimately provide them with tools and guidance they will need to reach their maximum potential.

Indeed, whereas school personnel, peers, and the physical aspects of schools can have a direct effect on child development, child development is also greatly influenced by the large institutional and structural aspects of societies referred to as the *exosystem* (e.g., school board decisions and government funding policies). In addition, there is a distal set of actors and actions, such as the relative freedom permitted by the government, cultural values, and customs, collectively referred to as *macrosystem*, that impact children's development. Lastly, all the patterns, environments, events, transitions, as well as the sociohistorical circumstances that children experience over the course of their lifetime create a continuum or system (the *chronosystem*) of influence and insert their collective effect on children's developmental outcomes (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). To add to the complexity of the issue, the impact of these factors and actors on child development is a bidirectional process, and children themselves influence the interactions of these actors (e.g., parents) with them through their characteristics and behavior (Bergmeier, Skouteris, Horwood, Hooley, & Richardson, 2014).

As children mature, they will take on multiple roles within the school community which can lead to positive and negative experiences. To successfully navigate this new territory, children need adult guidance and support. School psychologists can help facilitate this process by working with children, families, educational staff, and communities to support and address challenges to academic achievements and positive health outcomes, as well as advocate for policies that support positive school climates (NASP, 2010a, 2010b). That said, in order for schools, and more specifically school psychologists, to be able to partner with children, families, and communities, it becomes imperative that they understand their roles in promoting and protecting the rights of children within the school setting as significant contributors to children's overall academic success and well-being.

Child Rights: A Vehicle to Maximize Developmental Outcomes

As noted previously, early interventions to improve the quality of environments can decrease long-term effects of disadvantages (e.g., poor health, learning problems) and improve children's health, educational, and social outcomes. Thus, safeguards must be taken to assure the quality of environmental conditions to set the stage for achieving optimal child development. One such measure is adopting a rights-based approach to child development. The Convention provides the benchmarks for such an approach. The Committee, the monitoring body of the Convention, oversees a system of periodic country reports and provides guidance (i.e., Concluding Observations) through which accomplishments are noted, areas for improvement are outlined, and recommendations are made.

The 54 articles of the Convention collectively aim at helping children achieve their full developmental potential, with many key SDHs such as education, health services, basic material needs, and parent/caregiver environment enumerated as children's rights in the Convention (UNCRC, 2015). The Convention calls for the provision of specific resources and services needed to ensure that children will survive and develop to maximum capability. To facilitate this, the Committee has identified four guiding principles as overarching theme of all articles. Together these four principles confer a strong catalytic effect to achieving the full developmental potential for children. These principles are reiterated through specific articles. In this chapter, in the interest of clarity and brevity, the concept of child development is discussed within the scope of these principles rather than the full body of the individual articles of the Convention.

The *principle of nondiscrimination (Art. 2)* asserts that all rights apply to all children without exception. All discrimination,[1] either on well-known grounds such as gender or ethnic background or more covert factors such as discrimination based on the sexual orientation of a child, can be counterproductive to child development through different avenues. First, it may deprive the child from fully receiving the service/program in question. These differential provisions of services will contribute to and amplify differential health and developmental outcomes for different groups of children. Recent studies (Gee, Walsemann, & Brondolo, 2012; Williams & Mohammed, 2009) have linked racial discrimination with health disparities that persist beyond childhood and expand to the entire life course. Second, the mere act of being wronged and the feeling of being subjected to discrimination can cause a great deal of emotional distress and anxiety for a child and/or the caregiver. This anguish can interfere with the healthy psychological, social, and even physical development (Fisher, Wallace, & Fenton, 2000; Greene, Way, & Pahl, 2006), and it may also affect children's future parenting behavior in a negative fashion (Simons et al., 2002). Individuals experiencing discrimination may become more irritable, less responsive, and less affectionate parents and create a care environment that is less supportive and warm (Simons et al., 2006).

The principle of nondiscrimination applies to all rights of all children. Due to the indivisibility of human rights, if this principle is overlooked for a given right, it can result in the violation of a number of other rights as well. For instance, in some cultures, female children, compared to males, are often treated with a different level of respect with regard to their evolving capacities and are subjected to differential provision of life conditions and opportunities to develop their capacities. Other disparities in the treatment of children include (a) denial of access to education (Article 28: Right to education), (b) less time for leisure and play (Article 31: Right to play), (c) abuse (Article 19: Right to protection), and (d) child marriage (Article 6: Right to life and development). The impact of such prejudices can spread in other forms of discrimination such as providing more opportunities and responsibilities for a child who is perceived as being more capable of developing his/her capacities than a child who is not. Ultimately, this will enlarge the gap in the development of these two sets of children and will give rise to more health inequities (Lansdown, 2005).

Given that children and youth spend the majority of their time within the school environment, it seems imperative that part of the solution to addressing these cascades of problems should be done within the school community. Thus, when examining the principle of nondiscrimination within the context of the school community, the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) *Practice Model for Comprehensive and Integrated School Psychological Services* (NASP, 2010a, 2010b) has provided a set of standards that give guidance to school psychologists in partnering with teachers, school counselors, school support staff, administrators, parents, and other stakeholders so as to improve the academic and mental health outcomes of all children across race, class, gender, disability, and culture.

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[1] The Committee provides a full list of grounds of discrimination (UNICEF, 2007).

The second general principle of the Convention, the *principle of the best interests of the child (Art. 3)*, is closely connected to the principle of nondiscrimination. All organizations or individuals dealing with children, executive authorities, lawmakers (parliaments), and judicial bodies should ensure that in what they do, "…the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration" (Art. 3.1). In order to understand the best interests of the child, it is logical and necessary to listen to the child and understand his/her views.

Therefore, the third general principle of the Convention, *the principle of respect for the views of the child (Art. 12)*, is relevant to the second principle. It asserts that children have the right to say what they think should happen and to have their opinions taken into account when adults make decisions that affect them. This right requires that children are not viewed as mere recipients of care/service but instead are given the chance to be heard and participate in and influence the decisions that might affect them.

The emphasis in Article 12 and, in general, the whole concept of child participation is on respecting and considering the personhood and evolving capacities of the child. The right to participation (respect for the views of the child) does not necessarily mean that children can take complete responsibility for all decisions but clarifies that the child who is capable of forming an opinion on matters affecting him/her has the right to express that opinion freely and that his/her opinion should be given due weight in accordance with his/her age and maturity. The interplay between the principle of the best interest of the child and respect for the views of the child is one of the most interesting aspects of the Convention. The role of school community in this interplay is crucial. School psychologists are well poised to work with families and school personnel, first to help them understand developmentally appropriate ways in which children can participate and second, but even more importantly, to assist children in learning to use their voices to advocate for themselves, as there is no better person than the child to exercise his/her rights and defend them when needed. The school environment is a great place for children to develop this skill and provide a safe forum in which to practice it.

The fourth general principle of the Convention is *the right to life, survival, and development (Art. 6)*. All children have the right to life. The Convention places the obligation of assuring this right primarily on the government, as the principle duty bearer. Governments must provide this chance of survival and development for all children. However, the obligation also applies to all actions by all authorities, including parents (see Art. 5), as well as by relevant private institutions. Equally important, the Convention also concerns children collectively which has been interpreted by the Committee to mean it is applicable in both individual cases and to specific clusters of children such as, but not limited to, children born with disabilities. This interpretation, once again, inserts a nondiscrimination spirit into this principle and makes it even more relevant to political/policy terms.

Despite the intertwined interest and the synergies among the mandates of child rights and child development communities, as Philip Alston (2005, p. 825) expresses, the agendas of these two communities resemble "[...] ships passing one another in the night, each with little awareness that the other is there, and with little if any sustained engagement with one another." As child development is central to the interests of the Convention and becomes a raison d'être for this human rights treaty, the child development community, prominently including school psychologists, needs to engage more effectively with the child rights agenda. Given their expertise, school psychologists are well positioned to create and advocate for supportive environments that will allow children to grow, develop, and thrive.

Implementation of the above four principles within all systems, but particularly within schools, can set the tone for granting children equal value and at the same time guarantee them the necessary protection and promotion. Together these pillars (foundational principles) of the Convention form a unique attitude toward children while giving an ethical and ideological dimension to the Convention. The next section provides a brief history of the role school psychologists have played in advocating for children's rights in the school community.

Child Rights Considerations in School Psychologists' Practice

School psychologists are professionals who have expertise in education as well as psychology and by their very training must address the development of the child. Their expertise spans the areas of assessment, program evaluation, academic and socio-emotional intervention and prevention, and consultation with parents, teachers, administrators, and other stakeholders. Additionally, with the explosion of diversity within the school system (Ball, Pierson, & Mcintosh, 2011), school psychologists must take into account the ever-changing needs of the children, families, and communities that they serve by ensuring that their practices are culturally and linguistically appropriate (Ball et al., 2011). Their training and expertise provide them with the opportunity to ensure that children receive access to developmentally appropriate services according to their needs.

School psychologists are an important cohort of the child development professionals who have incorporated the principles of child rights in their work within the schools and the community prior to the inception of the Convention. In 1977, the International School Psychology (ISP) Committee partnered with the United Nations and United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) to address and promote the International Year of the Child and subsequently (1978) drafted what has become known as the Declaration of the Psychological Rights of Child (Catterall, 1979). These rights focused on children having access to an adequate and appropriate education, receiving emotional support from the adults in their environments, receiving encouragement and support to sustain their growth and development, being free from physical and mental abuse, building a positive self-esteem and receiving support for their strengths and weaknesses, participating and being heard on matters that affect their lives, engaging in the decision-making process, securing the right to establish positive relationships with peers and adults, and receiving specialized services where it was deemed appropriate (Nixon, 1980). These very principles are at the core of the work of school psychologists.

In 2012, the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), in the United States, published an updated position statement[2] that addresses the role of school psychologists in promoting and advocating for the rights of the child. The rationale behind the NASP statement was to remind the field of its responsibility to support and advance the rights of the child. In line with the earlier psychological rights, the position statement reminded school psychologists of their need to focus on children's right to education, the right to be free from physical and emotional abuse, the right to be heard and respected, the right to play and learn, and the right to receive special services when necessary. This updated position statement also calls on school psychologists to do what would be in the best interests of the child, to respect the rights of parents and guardians, to ensure they have access to adequate mental and physical healthcare services, to ensure they are provided with environments that will afford them opportunity for growth and development, and, finally, to ensure that they can maintain a positive identity free from discrimination. In addition to outlining the specific rights of the child which school psychologists must address in the engagement with children and families within the context of their profession, the NASP position statement also provides an overview of the role of the school psychologists in ensuring that children's rights are supported at multiple levels: at the individual level through their practices, at the systems level through their work in schools, and at the policy level through their advocacy work with national and international policy makers.

Today, although the United States has signed the Convention, it nevertheless remains the only country that has not ratified (i.e., officially committed to) the treaty. However, this has not prevented school psychologists from incorporating its principles into their daily practice within the school community. The NASP (2012) Position Statement on Child Rights advocates for the school psychologists in general, and the profession as a whole, to support and advance the rights of the child. According to NASP, the Convention is consistent with the core values espoused by school psychologists, which are to support the optimal mental health, growth, and development of children and youth. NASP argues that school psychologists, because of their training and expertise, are uniquely qualified to translate the Convention and advocate for the children's rights nationally and internationally. NASP asserts that several issues addressed by the Convention are particularly relevant to the work of school psychologists, including the role of education and the care and protection of the child, doing what is in the best interest of the child, listening to and respecting the voices of all children, listening to and respecting the voices of parents, ensuring children's right to survival and living healthy and productive lives, protecting children from abuse and neglect and ensuring that those children who suffer from such forms of abuse receive whatever is necessary for them to recover and be reintegrated into society, ensuring that children have a right to play, ensuring children's rights to be free from discrimination, and ensuring that children with disabilities enjoy a quality of life that provides them with dignity and self-respect (NASP, 2012; UNICEF, 2014). To that end, it becomes critical to have school psychologists as an integral part of the school community because they can understand and appreciate the Convention and have great potential to incorporate its principles into their work with children and families within the school community.

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[2] NASP Position Statement: https://www.nasponline.org/assets/Documents/Research%20and%20Policy/Position%20Statements/ChildRights.pdf

In addition to NASP, the International School Psychology Association (ISPA), an NGO affiliated with the United Nations (i.e., with ECOSOC credentials) and UNESCO and comprised of school psychologists from across the globe, is committed to ensuring the development of quality programs that will improve the educational outcomes for children.[3] The overall mission of ISPA is to promote the use of psychology to guide educational outcomes, to protect and promote the well-being of children and youth, to support parental engagement, to foster high-quality education nationally and internationally so as to inform best practices, to protect and advocate for the rights of children and youth, and, finally, to promote and advocate for regulations that protect all children from discrimination and violence.

Although school psychology professional organizations (e.g., NASP and ISPA) provide examples of good intentions for how the Convention should be operationalized within a profession/sector, the Convention must be operationalized to include, in practice, the factors that place children and youth at risk as well as those that enable them to thrive and excel in order to facilitate a rights-based approach to child development. This begins with the commitments of governments in the form of policies, laws, and other legally binding structures.

Child Rights and Policy Considerations for Child Development

In 2008, the World Health Organization Commission on SDH urged the international community to commit to equity from the start. The report stated that investment in child development, particularly during the early years, is one of the most powerful and significant actions that a society can take to set it on a path toward greater equity, improved population health, and a sustainable development. Accordingly, the Commission called for a strong commitment to an array of policies and investments to improve the environments in which children are born and raised (WHO, 2008). However, despite this clear declaration of significance by a global authority, the level of commitment of many governments does not reflect the significance of investing in child development. Worldwide, it has been estimated that at least 200 million children are not achieving their full developmental potential (Grantham-McGregor et al., 2007). This alarming statistic pertains especially to children living in the low- and middle-income countries (LMIC) of the world. However, the state of children of the developed world is not a story of glory either. For example, in the Province of British Columbia of Canada, one of the wealthiest jurisdictions of the world, one-third of young children arrive at school vulnerable in one or more domains of development, as measured by the early development instrument (EDI) score (HELP, 2015), and are therefore not ready to learn (Boivin & Hertzman, 2012).

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[3] International School Psychology Association (ISPA) Mission Statement, http://www.ispaweb.org/about-ispa/mission-statement/

To improve the conditions in which children live, grow, and learn, structural commitments are needed in the form of policies and laws and effective processes in the form of large-scale programs and initiatives to enact the commitments made through these structures. Finally, these structures and processes need to be monitored for effectiveness, which entails periodic data collection on children's health and developmental outcomes. An efficient monitoring system should be able to identify inequalities in child development over place and time across the whole population of children and point societies toward structural, programmatic, and societal factors that could serve to enhance developmental outcomes for children (Hertzman, 2004). If such monitoring system is accountable to an international system of vigilance, that would be a strong added feature. The Convention and its current monitoring system, as an international system of vigilance agreed upon by 196 governments across the globe, may serve such purpose for the agenda of child development.

Numerous arguments have been proposed for taking a rights-based approach and leveraging the Convention as an international instrument to enhance the state of child development. Helping every child to achieve his/her full developmental potential is at the heart of the Convention and its central goal (see Art. 29). To facilitate this, every government, prior to the ratification of the Convention, was required to undertake a review of its own policy frameworks and legislature to determine their degree of alignment with the principles of the Convention. This exercise is very productive to the agenda of child development as it sets the fundamental structure of the government to work for children, at least in principle. Additionally, by virtue of ratifying the Convention, the countries become States parties to the Convention, and all States parties have the obligation to support the fulfillment of all rights for children—rights to provision of services, to protection, to participation, and to survival and development of children—and to report on their actions to the Committee every 5 years. The reports must be evidence-based documents that respond to two overarching questions (OHCHR, 2012): *How are the governments, as the primary duty bearers under the Convention, upholding their duties to their children? How are the children, as the right holders under the Convention, enjoying fulfillment of their rights?* Through analysis of these reports (and alternative reports produced by civil society organizations), the Committee attempts to assess the state of children's rights, determine how well they are met, and what actions the States parties must consider toward progressive fulfillment of the Convention. The Committee's Concluding Observations (CO), which outline the issues requiring attention after the evaluation of country reports, add the final elements of accountability (at the Committee level) to this ongoing monitoring system as the COs are expected to serve as the blueprints for progressive realization of the Convention (UNCRC, 2016).

Accountability to an international surveillance system under the Convention can also promote good governance. It can improve the State's capacity to fulfill its responsibility to children through the feedback loop established between the Committee and the States party via periodic reports and the COs. The general principles, applicable across the full body of the Convention, can provide a set of values to guide the work of governments and other political and social actors through the development of legislative frameworks, policies, programs, and budgetary allocations as well as a set of standards against which these actors' performance can be reviewed and held accountable. Good governance and human rights reinforce one another (OHCHR, 2015). General Comment No. 5: General measures of implementation for the Convention on the Rights of the Child, issued by the Committee, explicitly states: "It is essential not merely to establish effective systems for data collection, but to ensure that the data collected are evaluated and used to assess progress in implementation, to identify problems and to inform all policy development for children" (UN CRC/GC/2003/5; UNCRC, 2003). Progress in and reporting on the implementation of the Convention is measured along nine major areas known as CRC reporting guidelines (Appendix A). These guidelines are designed to govern different elements of all systems of influence on children's development (e.g., *micro*, *meso*, *macro*, *exo*, and *chrono* systems; see Fig. 1). The Committee obligates the States parties to report on their commitments for improving children's lives in these nine areas such as, but not limited to, civil rights, disability, and violence against children.

If improving child development and well-being is a central objective of the Convention, which its implementation can achieve, then improving children's development would simply mean assuring that all rights articulated under the Convention are fulfilled for all children and youth. This would necessitate strengthening compliance to the Convention for all duty bearers and, in particular, the governments. Over thirty years has passed since the adoption of the Convention by the General Assembly, and, despite the exceptional extent to which the Convention has been ratified, compliance with it has been unsatisfactory. The existing issues with the current reporting and monitoring system, nevertheless, do not undermine the potential for power and the efficiency in taking a rights-based approach to child development and monitoring it; they simply add to the challenge of monitoring this approach and its impact on child development.

Adopting a rights-based approach and working within the ecological framework for child development have a number of policy implications. First, if outcomes are influenced by various contexts, then it is reasonable for policies to reflect these contexts as well. Although interventions relevant to a single context surrounding children have their place, the interconnectedness of all these contexts and the indivisibility of human rights necessitate an awareness of the impact of our actions related to one context on the various other environments surrounding children. This is crucial if we want to make a real difference and improve children's chances to survive and to thrive. Therefore, focus should move from policies designed to improve a single environment to policy clusters and series of interconnected programs that impact a number of interconnected environments.

Second, focusing on policies that simultaneously address multiple contexts requires interconnecting and coordinating the efforts of actors within different systems (*micro*, *meso*, *macro*, *exo*, and *chrono* systems) to produce the desired outcomes for children. Steps taken by one sector to improve the state of child development can have significant impact on the effectiveness of steps taken by other sectors. For instance, improving the educational attainment of children is a mandate of the education system, but its achievement relies on the contributions of many other components of the *microsystem* as well as other systems. According to available data (Hertzman, 2004), we know that in communities where language has been rich and responsive during the years leading to school entrance, children's literacy scores at school have greatly improved. Therefore, the task of enhancing children's literacy achievement starts during the early years through actions that improve the language exchange at home (e.g., programs that elevate maternal education, parenting workshops, and media messages) within the services that provide early care and education (e.g., qualifications and training of the childcare professionals, in-service education) and remedial actions through speech and language therapy. Such an approach not only calls for strong inter-sectoral collaboration and conviction, it also demands a strong commitment from all levels of governments.

Lastly, the concept of universal versus targeted policies is an important issue to explore. The available data (Hertzman, 2004; Power, Kuh, & Morton, 2013) on the state of child development during the early years (0–8 years) make it evident that there is a socioeconomic gradient observed in the rates of early developmental vulnerabilities. Based on this gradient, the difference in vulnerability rate is not simply between the poor and affluent children, but the vulnerability rate increases progressively as family income level decreases. This pattern persists in all three categories of low-, middle-, and high-resource countries. This demonstrates that there is room for decreasing developmental vulnerability by improving the environments in which most children grow up across the full socioeconomic spectrum and not only in those considered high risk. In other words, universal policies in support of child development would decrease the overall vulnerability rates of most young children in these societies, which would not result from policies that only target high-risk neighborhoods. These universal policies, however, should be accompanied by additional targeted policies, creating a cluster of policies that will have a proportionate universality. For example, schools could adopt policies that not only advocate for the protection of children from violence (Article 19: The right to freedom from all forms of violence) but also for policies that would empower children and youth to advocate for themselves (Article 12: Participation) (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). From the child rights point of view, the principle of nondiscrimination is reflected in the universality of such policies and initiatives. A needed compliment in this policy cluster is proportionality of a few other targeted policies (e.g., focused on children of low socioeconomic status, immigrant families, or children with disabilities) to highlight the significance of paying extra attention to children in need of special protection as defined in General Comment 7 of the Convention (UNCRC, 2006). Such policy clusters would have components such as universal preschool coverage, accompanied by policies to reverse the trend toward economically segregated neighborhoods by spreading lower-cost housing opportunities across the city/community. This would address the barriers to neighborhood access to the services and programs that are offered to improve child development and help to build neighborhood cohesion and social capital to benefit children as well as their caregivers.

In addition to the need to coordinate government structural commitments, in the form of policies, laws, and other legal frameworks, the processes need to be organized and managed in a synchronized manner (e.g., through a ministry of children or child ombudsman) while engaging the civil society and nongovernmental agencies to create safe and inviting spaces for children's participation. To maximize the outcomes for children, professionals that work with and for children need to incorporate both the science of child development and child psychology and the principles of the Convention into their actions.

Accountability to Children and Systems for Its Monitoring

Installing child-friendly policies and programs does not always guarantee favorable outcomes for children. Child development is affected by multiple factors coming from different directions, and, even within the best structures and within the most committed systems, efforts can fail. A healthy commitment to children requires being accountable to them in a timely manner and diligent monitoring. Monitoring is a systematic and purposeful observation of changes/progress made during the course of implementing a program or policy. Monitoring is the essence of accountability, and ongoing data collection is essential for monitoring.

An efficient child development monitoring system facilitates the existing structures and processes to advance the fulfillment of children's rights and report on changes in children's lives in response to established structures and processes. To accomplish this, we need to link data on structure and process and create longitudinal data sets that can become building blocks of a comprehensive system of monitoring child development. Therefore, sound systems of data collection should include periodic data on children's health and well-being, the structures and processes put in place to support their health and well-being, and the links among these components. Creating linkages between databases is crucial because when fragmented data sets are analyzed in isolation, we run the hazard of drawing false conclusions.[4]

The nine reporting guidelines/clusters of the Committee (Appendix A) are designed to govern different elements of all systems that influence children's development. Proper compliance necessitates a comprehensive and systematic data collection system that has linkages among its components. Under these nine clusters, the Committee is interested to know the actions of the governments as the primary duty bearers for a given right (structures and processes in place to support the right) and the outcome of these commitments on children.

In recent years, the OHCHR (2012) has advocated for the use of indicators as a tool to monitor human rights treaties and advises the application of three major sets: (a) structure-related indicators, which verify the commitments made to a given right (e.g., laws, policies); (b) process-related indicators, which verify the ways and mechanisms through which the States act upon their commitments (e.g., interventions, programs); and (c) outcome-related indicators, which are designed to capture the changes experienced as a result of the commitments and actions (OHCHR, 2012). In the following sections, we present an example of a global initiative to monitor children's rights through developing a tool that could facilitate this three-tier monitoring: monitoring structures, processes, and outcomes.

Monitoring the Actions of the Duty Bearers

By 2005, the Committee had realized that despite the clear definition of child as 0–18 years, many countries were not monitoring and reporting consistently on the status of young children (0–8 years). On the rare occasions that young children were discussed in the States' reports, it was limited to child mortality, birth registration, and basic health and welfare, which neglected broader considerations of the realization of child rights for young children as active social participants and rights holders. The implication of such inadequate awareness of young children's rights by the States parties was alarming as this could be indicative of the States parties simply overlooking their obligations toward young children (Vaghri et al., 2009). In response, the Committee drafted General Comment 7 (GC7): Implementing Child Rights in Early Childhood (UNCRC, 2006). Although GC7 represented authoritative guidance to the States parties to fulfill their obligations to young children, it had limited practical usefulness and remained underutilized. In 2006, a group of child development and child rights scholars operationalized GC7, using the three sets of indicators (also known as SPO framework; i.e., **S**tructure, **P**rocess, **O**utcomes) suggested by OHCHR, in order to solve this chronic problem with monitoring the CRC for young children. This group, later known as the GC7 Indicators Group, created 17 indicator sets, each set addressing a specific right pertaining to improving developmental outcomes during the early years modeling the guidelines from OHCHR. Soon after, a user-friendly manual was developed for the indicators (Vaghri et al., 2009) and pilot tested in Tanzania (2009) and Chile (2011). The Tanzania pilot demonstrated that the indicators could serve as a strong tool for national and inter-sectoral self-assessment to identify policies, programs, and outcomes related to early years and assess the degree to which conditions conducive to fulfilling children's rights have been provided. Subsequently, the indicators were digitized prior to the Chile pilot. On November 20, 2012, in recognition of the Universal Children's Day, the digitized GC7 indicators, known as the Early Childhood Rights Indicators (ECRI),[5] was launched via a public website.

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[4] Clyde Hertzman: http://archive.newswire.ca/en/story/337123/canada-s-fragmented-data-collection-system-yields-false-results

[5] Early Childhood Rights Indicators (ECRI), available at: http://crcindicators.uvic.ca/index.php/content/overview

ECRI exemplifies an integrated system of accountability to children that encourages longitudinal data collection, necessitates creating linkages between different data sets, and demands the presence of all stakeholders around the table. ECRI integrates the science of child development and human rights. It also operationalizes the fundamentals of the science of child development while using the benchmarks set up by the Committee. Such a system can inform policy through presenting data on the impact of these policies on the development and well-being of children over time. Additionally, since ECRI can facilitate evidence-based decision-making, it is more likely to increase government participation in the analysis of childhood outcomes and create opportunities for constructive dialogue. Moreover, upon its initial use, ECRI can be used to create baseline data as a reference point against which progress can be verified and measured over time. Last, but not least, ECRI provides guidelines and examples of best practices for all of the capacities in question and leads the users to the websites of those governments, organizations, or entities that have managed to build the capacity in question. This would assist the States parties greatly as a starting point in filling the missing capacities in their systems.

Examining the outcome data on children's health, education, social protection, and other aspects of their lives, vis-a-vis the data on the structures and processes in place to promote these outcomes, can provide invaluable information on what seems to work and does not work for children. Additionally, compilation of such data will create a national/regional snapshot to serve as the baseline for a solid accountability system, and when these measurements are repeated over time and place, then the trends can be examined. Lastly, when the process of data collection is participatory and engages all sectors involved in children's issues (e.g., health, education, and social protection), the task of responding to both positive and negative trends becomes a shared responsibility.

Child rights indicators are different from the indicators of child well-being. However, if child rights indicators capture the interaction of the States parties with their children, with the goal of strengthening capacities of both the rights holders (children) to claim their rights and the duty bearers (the States) to fulfill their responsibilities, these indicators can be used to improve the well-being of children by guiding the development of better and more supportive policies and practices. Research suggests that improvements in children's environments, in time, will improve their prospects for full development (Gertler et al., 2014; Grantham-McGregor et al., 1991; Walker et al., 2007). Therefore, child rights indicators might serve as a viable proxy for child development indicators. For example, if the environments allow for children's participation in decision-making on matters that affect them (Article 12 of the Convention: Right to participation and Indicator 7 of ECRI), this participation might lead to more supportive conditions around the child and, with its added stimulation, may result in improved development of their brain and central nervous system (Avants et al., 2012), which itself will be conducive to a better health and well-being (Boivin & Hertzman, 2012). The right to participation has often been referred to as one of the challenges of the Convention (UNICEF, 2016). School psychologists, given their unique status within the school community, can work with children to ensure they have a voice in the decision-making processes that affect their lives. For example, they can encourage children to advocate for themselves, particularly with respect to being bullied or victims of violence, thereby providing children with the opportunity to build self-esteem and self-efficacy to promote successful educational outcomes (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). Existence of adequate and proper processes is a very important enabling factor for children to claim and exercise all their rights including their rights to participation. The following subsection is devoted to discussing some of the processes that could enhance accountability to children.

Monitoring the Processes

Here, we address the processes of accountability of particular relevance for school psychology. In doing so, both the practice and training of school psychologists are addressed.

Practice model of school psychologists Today schools and school personnel have been called upon to monitor the academic and health outcomes of students within the classroom as well as across the school community. The overarching goal of such monitoring is to ensure that school psychologists are providing the best possible services and interventions that adequately address the needs of the children, families, and communities they serve. To ensure that school psychologists can provide high-quality services, it has been suggested that there be an alignment between the education and training, the regulation of practice, and professional associations (Woods & Bond, 2014). One such model, the NASP Practice Model, revised in 2010 (see NASP, 2010a, 2010b), serves as the official blueprint for how to provide student- and system-level services to promote positive academic, behavioral, and mental health outcomes for children and youth. This 2010 Practice Model is consistent with NASP's (2012) Position Statement on Child Rights which focuses on the role of the Convention in the work of school psychologists, because when school psychologists engage children in identifying their academic strengths and weaknesses, empower them to advocate for themselves and learn to manage conflict, engage parents and communities to support positive child outcomes, and support violence-free schools, they are in fact supporting and promoting children's rights.

In addition to the NASP model, other models have been proposed calling for the evaluation, monitoring, and implementation of best practices by school psychologists to support positive outcomes for children and youth. For example, Woods and Bond (2014) have called for the linkage between (a) the principles of the CRC, (b) the education and preparation of school psychologists, (c) the regulatory body, and (d) the professional associations within the United Kingdom. These authors call for a more explicit linkage between the CRC from the top down through regulation, education and training, and professional associations rather than the implicit approach which is used by most school psychologists (Woods & Bond, 2014). They argue that when the approach is implicit, there is the possibility for the actual spirit of the CRC to be missed and the implementation of the articles by States to be esoteric, thereby making them difficult to monitor. Thus, the authors suggest that the field strategically thinks about making an explicit link between the CRC, regulation, governance, and the practice of school psychologists who are on the frontline and tasked with providing services that promote and protect the well-being of children and youth within the school community (Woods & Bond, 2014).

Education and training of school psychologists The NASP (2012) Position Statement on Child Rights addresses the importance of training school psychologists in understanding and using the Convention to support and advocate for the rights of children in their professional responsibilities. The Association reaffirms its commitment to ensuring that graduate students as well as all professionals have access to opportunities that will allow them to evaluate and operationalize the connection between the Convention and their profession. In addition, NASP recognizes that, as children grow and develop, their participation in their own learning produces changes in education and decision-making, thereby providing reasons for school psychologists to take an active role in facilitating children's development and education. Drawing on the work of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) and Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO)[6] (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010), and recognizing that parents, families, and communities are integral to the development and education of children, NASP encourages school psychologists to use their expertise and training to establish partnerships that will promote the well-being of children through a child rights framework (NASP, 2012).

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[6] Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO): www.iicrd.org

Respecting these considerations, Nastasi and Naser (2014) proposed a model that would integrate professional ethics, practice, and development with the articles of the Convention to address the lack of detail about the Convention in the current standards. They assert that advancing such a model would ensure that children's rights are more adequately promoted and addressed by school psychology professionals. Thus, moving forward, as school psychologists take on more integral roles in ensuring the healthy growth and development of children and youth across the world, it will become increasingly important for professional associations to work together to develop new models such as the one proposed by Nastasi and Naser (2014) to ensure that school psychologists receive training and professional development using a child rights framework. Their work complements the contributions of Woods and Bond (2014) which call for the strategic linking of the CRC with education and training, regulation of practice, and professional associations within the United Kingdom.

Recommendations

In order to advance child development to its full potential, societies must show collective effort. These efforts can start with the structural commitments of the governments in the form of policies and policy clusters designed to improve all five systems of the ecological model within which children are born, live, grow, and learn. At the national policy level, comprehensive and inter-sectoral approaches to policy making and decision-making work best for child development.

The processes for enacting the structural commitments (child-friendly policies and laws) should be implemented with much care and close monitoring to assure that they are inclusive and grounded on respecting children's rights in every sense. Home and school environments are two proximal environments of children where they spend most of their lives. Coordination within as well as across these two environments, and other environments that influence the conditions of these two proximal environments, is crucial to the success of child development.

As school psychologists increasingly attempt to incorporate the principles of the Convention into their everyday work, whether at the individual level (i.e., through practice, research, assessment), the institutional level, or through their work in advocacy and policy, it becomes ever more critical for the full body of their professional standards to be aligned with the Convention (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). Thus, to ensure that school psychologists have a clear understanding of the Convention and how to integrate it into their work with children, families, and other professional groups and entities, initial graduate training or ongoing professional development that incorporates the Convention into curriculum has been recommended, which includes professional development curriculum (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010[7]) and the self-study modules[8] (Tulane University Child Rights Team, 2013). The purpose of the curriculum is to provide school psychologists with the training and tools that they need to support and advocate for the healthy growth and development of children and families within the school community. The ISPA-CRED-PRO professional development program includes eight modules with the first three addressing child development and children's rights, the next two addressing the roles of school psychologists in advancing and protecting the rights of children within their practice, and the last three modules addressing advocacy, social justice, and accountability; this program is designed for formal group training sessions (e.g., classroom or workshop format). The Tulane self-study modules, based on the professional development program, include five modules that focus on child development, child rights, and promoting and protecting child rights in practice and are designed for individual professional development. Going forward, it is recommended that such a comprehensive curriculum be made available to provide initial training for school psychologists at the beginning of their careers and as a part of ongoing in-service training for those already in the field. Access to such information will go a long way in providing school psychologists with the foundation they need to support and advocate for the children through a child rights framework.

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[7] This training curriculum (as manual) is available as an online resource that accompanies this volume.

[8] For information about the self-study modules, contact Bonnie K. Nastasi, PhD, Tulane University School Psychology Program, bnastasi@tulane.edu

Lastly, outcomes for children should be monitored closely through ongoing and high-quality data collection systems. This is crucial in order to be able to examine the effectiveness of interventions across jurisdictions and stimulate dialogue that could inform policy and programs.

Conclusion

Although some inequalities of child development can be explained by the existing and predisposing biological conditions, a significant portion is explicable by the attributes of the environments which children interact with. While societies and cultures differ greatly, children's well-being matters in all. Therefore, in caring for our children and their health and development, we must pay attention to the quality of their environments. Political and economic factors can block children's access to nurturing environments that would meet their fundamental needs and, thereby, hamper their development. Delicate issues of States and cultural sovereignty can also create obstacles to addressing systemic dysfunctions that hinder development and allow adversity. Though cultural, political, economic, social, and environmental circumstances vary across the globe, there are common elements of children's well-being that could provide a means through which the States can diagnose and address weaknesses and promote the assets in their own systems for assuring the well-being of children. The articulation of agreements on what is in the best interests of the child in the Convention serves to set a standard of care that can focus all States parties on their obligations with respect to children. Well-established democracies have a role to play by setting good examples and contributing to the improvement of child development across the globe. They can accomplish this by demonstrating how to organize truly effective systems of accountability through child-friendly policies, effective programs, and high-quality data collection and monitoring systems. School psychology as a profession and school psychologists in particular can make significant contributions by using their unique capacities to provide services to ensure positive academic and socio-emotional outcomes for children, advocate for policies to address the distinctive and diverse needs of children within the school community, and consult with the multiple stakeholders, parents, teachers, administrators, and communities to ensure the protection and promotion of the rights of children and youth within the school community (Burns, 2014).

Appendix A: Reporting Guidelines of the Committee[9]

1. General measures of implementation (Arts. 4, 42, and 44, para. 6, of the Convention)
2. Definition of the child (Art. 1)
3. General principles (Arts. 2, 3, 6, and 12)
4. Civil rights and freedoms (Arts. 7, 8, and 13–17)
5. Violence against children (Arts. 19, 24, para. 3, 28, para. 2, 34, 37 (a), and 39)
6. Family environment and alternative care (Arts. 5, 9–11, 18, paras. 1 and 2, 20, 21, 25, and 27, para. 4)
7. Disability, basic health, and welfare (Arts. 6, 18, para. 3, 23, 24, 26, 27, paras. 1–3, and 33)
8. Education, leisure, and cultural activities (Arts. 28–31)
9. Special protection measures (Arts. 22, 30, 32, 33, 35, 36, 37 (b)–(d), and 38–40)

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[9] (UNCRC, 2015)

(a) Children outside their country of origin seeking refugee protection (Art. 22), unaccompanied asylum-seeking children, internally displaced children, migrant children, and children affected by migration
(b) Children belonging to a minority or an indigenous group (Art. 30)
(c) Children in street situations
(d) Children in situations of exploitation, including measures for their physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration
(e) Children in conflict with the law, child victims, and witnesses of crimes and juvenile justice
(f) Children in armed conflicts (Art. 38), including physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration (Art. 39)

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The Child's Right to Physical Health

Raúl Mercer and Karina Cimmino

Abstract

Health is no longer a concept that is diametrically opposed to disease. From this approach, the WHO definition has been somewhat restricted in its meanings and scope. This chapter will provide conceptual bases for school psychologists to understand the multidimensionality of health and the need to incorporate several approaches to facilitate the understanding and reading of the different aspects that contribute to health as a social construct in continuous transformation. Thus, we will make a journey through the biomedical approach, the biopsychosocial approach, the social determinants approach, the life-course approach, the salutogenic approach, the inclusive development approach and, finally, the rights approach to health. All approaches coexist and are not mutually exclusive. Applying a single approach to health is an expression of methodological and conceptual reductionism. Incorporating the rights approach applied to health shows a remarkable change of paradigm since considering health as a human right, all people have the same right to health and quality of life. Under this scope, health is not a commodity. To understand the dimension of rights, school psychologists must know the meaning of rights and how to guarantee, respect and fulfil them within the school environment. School psychologists must act as advocates for the rights of children. Similarly, the role of the school psychologists as health promoters through work with the educational community (students, families and teachers) will be emphasized. Schools constitute health settings where health promoting strategies, conceptual foundations, leadership, understanding of health dimensions, and development of intersectoral strategies are required as opposed to traditional models of school health. Some examples of health promotion are integrated from sex education, healthy nutrition, and the right to health.

Understanding Child Health Through Various Conceptual Scopes

When we think about health in the Western world, the referent that comes to mind more often is "disease" and "health as an absence of disease". However, this conception is limited and does not account for all its complexity. According to the concept of health, the definition given by the

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World Health Organization in 1948 is well known and applicable:

> Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. The enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being without distinction of race, religion, political belief, economic or social condition.

This definition has the importance of characterizing health as a positive issue, different from not being sick; includes mental and social aspects, and not only biological ones; and presents health as a fundamental right. Nevertheless, on the one hand, the definition proposes health as a "state", an aspect that obscures its dynamic and continuous process. On the other hand, this definition speaks of health as a "complete well-being", a concept that lacks accuracy, being subjective and varying according to social contexts and cultures.

Refining the definition of health, it could be said: *Health is a dynamic process multi-determined and socially and historically built.* It is formulated on a process of interaction between the subject and his/her socioeconomic and cultural environments. This dialectical construction is carried out according to the opportunities offered by the socioeconomic, community and family environments to promote health in all its dimensions (social, physical and mental, i.e. psychological) and by individual and daily choices in relation to the values and available options in particular contexts.

Health could also be defined as: *A basic and dynamic force of our daily living, which our beliefs, our culture and our economic, physical and social frameworks influence* (Epp, 1986). This concept of health responds to a complex vision that requires different lenses. Interpreting health from a single point of view can result in a counterproductive and biased view of reality. Hence, in the beginning of this chapter, we invite you to consider alternative ways of conceptualizing health through the incorporation of different lenses (paradigms) such as biomedical, biopsychosocial, social determinants, life course, salutogenic (relating health, stress and coping), rights and inclusive development. Of course, these are not the only ways to conceptualize health; there are many more, but at least it is a stimulus to investigate them, to recognize their existence and to make us uncertain about the permanent search for the changing meaning of health and the ways of interpreting and influencing it.

The Biomedical Model

Academic-scientific medicine is based on the biomedical model. It focuses on the study and treatment of diseases, considering them as particular entities independent of patients, conceiving the human body as an anatomical structure with well-defined morphological and functional aspects and framing disease as a morphological and/or functional lesion and the medical doctor as the technical professional who repairs it. Therefore, its aim is to cure the disease with an accurate diagnosis and application of a correct treatment according to evidence-based medicine (EBV[1]), in an effective and efficient manner. It considers that health problems, including those of mental health, are due to disorders in physical and chemical mechanisms and can be explained if their molecular basis, genetic or external physical or biological agents are discovered.

According to this approach, people's health needs are determined by their physiochemical constituents with little attention to their psychological and social dimensions. The investigation of the causes of disease and therapeutic procedures is concentrated narrowly on material evidence ignoring the complex reality of the human being. The biomedical model is:

- *Curative*: its main objective is to cure diseases and avoid death and has difficulties facing the chronic pathologies and final stages of life.
- *Objective*: only considers what can be measured with some technique, needs a figure of

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[1] EBV: a positivist approach to health based on the utilization of systematic reviews of research studies to answer questions dealing with diagnostic, treatment and other medical interventions.

normality to have a referent on targets for action, has difficulty understanding the psychosocial dimensions of the person and maintains a certain distance from the patient to avoid burdening the professional with a subjective orientation.

- *Biological*: its object of attention is the human body, on which basis it establishes the diagnosis and treatment. If it does not find biological data that confirm the patient's symptoms, the problem is described as "functional".
- *Reductionist*: the study and analysis of reality is achieved by fragmenting it in its components; the best result is served the smaller and delimited the fragment studied.
- *Dichotomous*: it considers the human being divided into two dimensions: the somatic and the psychic, and health problems generally affect one of the two spheres independently.
- *Sectorial*: it makes a fragmentation of the health in organs requiring an expert for each problem of patient health.
- *Prescriptive*: the physician is the expert in health problems and the responsibility of the patient should be limited to correctly complying with the diagnostic and therapeutic direction prescribed by the professional.

The Biopsychosocial Model

The biopsychosocial model had its beginnings in the general scientific paradigm shift that began in the twentieth century with the general theory of relativity and the uncertainty principle of quantum physics. The basis of the model in this new way of understanding the reality of the human being does not contradict the biomedical but completes it, just as it has happened in the rest of the sciences. To understand this model, its adherence to principles of uncertainty and its major contributions must be understood.

Principles of uncertainty:

- It is impossible for the observer to be completely objective, rather than somehow always being part of the observed.
- Causality in science is always multiple, complex and non-linear. In analysis, the conclusions obtained are not fully in line with reality.
- The beginning of a natural phenomenon and its subsequent development is imprecise; the prognosis of what is going to happen is guided by the principle of uncertainty.
- Although a natural phenomenon is fragmented to study it better, its reality is still global and not fragmented.
- The context where the phenomena occur is part of the phenomena; it is difficult to extrapolate experiences and be impartial.
- The family doctor uses principles of uncertainty in his daily work to best serve his or her patients.
- The biomedical model focuses attention on the multiple biological health problems of the person and the biopsychosocial model focuses on care for the health of the person and his or her family in a global way.

The main contributions of the biopsychosocial model to medicine are as follows:

- Health and disease are on a continuum and are part of the same process. In a particular person, the boundaries between health and illness are blurred.
- The health-disease process is multidimensional, that is, biological, psychological, social, family, environmental and cultural factors interact, positively or negatively, continuously.
- The role of the health professional is to help patients in all phases of the process, promoting health, anticipating illness, healing or relieving symptoms, recovering or rehabilitating functions and accompanying in the final stages of life.
- The organization and development of medical care should focus on the needs of the patient as the first priority in the relationship.
- The health professional should be a great communicator and have skills to establish a good personal relationship with patients.

- The doctor, in addressing the health problems of patients, should consider that the patient, his/her family and society are a great system that interacts continuously.
- The health professional incorporates the patient into the model of clinical care considering the patient's knowledge, beliefs and expectations for the health and illness processes.

The Social Determinants Model

When the school psychologist observes a health problem in a student, it is unusual for overriding emphasis to be placed on the symptom as an expression of the health problem. Generally, we talk about the causes of illness when we refer to the immediate or underlying factors (an infection, a trauma or a stressful situation). But in other circumstances, we speak of the "causes of causes" by mentioning those contextual factors that affect the development of a health problem. These structural causes are called social determinants of health.

The social determinants of health (SDH; WHO, n.d.-a) are the conditions in which people are born, grow, live, work and age. These circumstances are shaped in small to large part by the distribution of wealth, power and resources at global, national and local levels. The social determinants of health are mostly responsible for health inequities, that is, the unfair and avoidable differences in health status seen for population groups within and between countries. Health equity and social determinants are acknowledged as a critical component of the post-2015 sustainable development global agenda (SDGs; UN, 2017) and of the push towards progressive achievement of universal health coverage (UHC). If health inequities are to be reduced, both SDH and UHC need to be addressed in an integrated and systematic manner.

The poorest of the poor, around the world, have the worst health. Within countries, the evidence shows that in general the lower an individual's socioeconomic position, the worse will be the person's health. There is a social gradient in health that runs from top to bottom of the socioeconomic spectrum. This is a global phenomenon, seen in low-, middle- and high-income countries. The social gradient in health means that health inequities affect everyone. For example, if we look at under-5 (i.e. children under 5 years of age) mortality rates by levels of household wealth, we see that within counties the relation between socioeconomic level and health is graded. The poorest have the highest under-5 mortality rates, and people in the second highest quintile (5th) of household wealth have higher mortality in their offspring than those in the highest quintile. This is the social gradient in health. This same phenomenon is observed when we analyse the school success (or health) situation in children living in marginal urban neighbourhoods where the living conditions affect their health status and school performance. For this reason, health for far too many depends very little on corrective health services, because the influence of determinants of health far exceeds that of access to healthcare services, which is only one of multiple determinants. Some of the determinants of health that should be considered are as follows: socioeconomic conditions, access to potable water and sewage and excreta collection services, education of parents and children and adolescents, food, possibilities of play, the protection and care of adults towards children, the environment and culture.

The Life-Course Model

Well-being is influenced by experiences that stretch right across the life-course. A good start in life is important to equip us to deal effectively with inevitable setbacks and challenges, but how do you measure and quantify what that good start is? There is growing evidence on the importance of early life experiences on people's health and future quality of life. These influences can have their origin both during the gestational period and before in conditions that are transmitted in an intergenerational way. Early childhood is a crucial developmental period, and it can be measured and assessed in several ways, some of which also predict aspects of health and well-being throughout life. Children who have a good start in life not only have healthier and happier childhoods but also enjoy far-reaching beneficial effects in adulthood (Bartley, 2012).

The life-course approach refers to the study of patterns or changes that occur with age, which are linked to social and cultural structures subject to historical changes. In the course of life, the content is shaped in the process of individual development through changes driven by personal maturation and social forces. The life-course approach is a theoretical perspective, a conceptual framework and not a model itself. This approach reflects the convergence of diverse ideas from many sources. The term life course has often been used interchangeably with other terms, such as life span, life history or life cycle; all three terms are part of the vocabulary of the course of life approach, but are not synonymous.

The concept of period or stage, for example, as it has been used by developmental psychology, specifies the descriptive aspects of the research of a certain period of life. The study of the stages of life can also link behaviour in two or more stages of life. However, a life-course approach goes beyond specific studies of a period such as childhood or early adulthood, solely, to achieve the study of the whole course of life and the understanding of its effects from the previous and into the next generation (intergenerationality).

Because the life-course approach places individuals in an historical context, at the centre of this perspective is temporality, which is expressed in the following: (a) the chronological age that marks a point of development as an index of a moment in the aging process; (b) the social age, which identifies age patterns in social roles and calendars; and (c) the historical time that is expressed through the contextual study of people, according to the year of their birth, and which considers the relationship of members of a specific cohort to their experience of history and social change (Mitchell, 2003).

In a life-course perspective, trajectories that extend over time, such as family or work, are considered as well as short-term changes or transitions, such as entering and leaving school, first job or marriage. Every transition in the course of life is embedded in a path that gives it form and meaning. Thus, for example, changes in work are fundamental elements of the trajectory of working life, and births and the arrival of a child are key events in the trajectory of a family. These events and associated changes in roles do not necessarily occur in a given sequence but emerge from the interactive, synergistic totality of events to which the individual is exposed, including the individual's intrapersonal experience. The concept of life-course involves social phenomena differentiated by age; however, these are conceptualized differently from the idea of uniform stages of life cycle that must be solved.

It is possible to identify six central principles in the life-course approach:

1. The socio-historical and geographic location
2. Life in development
3. Heterogeneity or variability
4. Linkages of life
5. Human agency and personal control
6. The past's shaping of the future

The ideas of trajectory and inflection points through life, which divide the course of a trajectory into parts, are key assumptions in the life-course approach that describe the direction and changes in specific points of the biography of a person. In this way, a trajectory can be understood as the continuation of a position, achievement or development. In other words, it can be seen as the snapshot of inertia that expresses life and that results from the sum of the forces that drive the personal history towards a certain destiny. In contrast, a turning point is the interruption in a path; it is a detour along the way. In fact, the essential feature of a turning point is that it changes the direction of a path.

A trajectory is the stable component of influences towards a life destination and is characterized by a certain probability of occurrence. A trajectory, or trend line, in other words, refers to the tendency and persistence in the life-course patterns but is not necessarily defined as the indicator of probability that a certain result will occur unalterably. Rather, a trajectory can be understood by the linear increase in probability occurring over time, by a decreasing nonlinear probability or by other combinations of these possibilities.

The implications of the life-course approach for school health are varied. In addition to educational trajectories, there are also health trajectories. We understand health as a process that is built on a day-to-day basis. Hence, the experiences and components that occur in the first years of life (including school age) will in some way affect the future life of the individual.

Preventing Adverse Child Experiences and Physical Health Through a Life-Course Model (the ACEs Study)

Adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) are situations which lead to an elevated risk of children and young people experiencing damaging impacts on health, or other social outcomes, across the life course. ACEs include situations such as being abused or neglected; living in households that experience domestic violence, drug and alcohol misuse, ill mental health, criminality or separation; or living in out-of-home care. In many cases, multiple ACEs factors are experienced simultaneously (Allen & Donkin, 2015). Children and young people who are exposed to ACEs are at a greater risk of death or injury before reaching adulthood and of premature mortality later in life. For example, women who were exposed to two or more ACEs factors before age 18 have an 80% higher risk of dying by age of 50 compared with those who were not exposed to any ACEs factors (Kelly-Irving et al., 2013). Those who are exposed to ACEs factors are also more likely to experience a range of illnesses, including cancer, heart disease, lung disease, liver disease, stroke, hypertension, diabetes, asthma and arthritis (Felitti & Anda, 2009). ACEs factors also increase the risk of ill mental health. The World Health Organizations estimates that 30% of adult mental illness in 21 countries could be attributed to ACEs factors (Kessler et al., 2010).

According to the social determinants model, social gradients are associated with ACEs. While all ACEs factors are present across society, inequalities in wealth, poverty and education impact the chances of experiencing ACEs. Children of a lower socioeconomic status are more likely to be exposed to ACEs factors compared to their more advantaged peers. Aside from these socioeconomic factors, there is a range of other risk factors for ACEs, including poor and harmful parenting approaches and the relative stress under which families live. There is evidence that ACEs are "transmitted" across generations, so that the children of parents who experienced ACEs in their own childhood are also more likely to experience ACEs (WHO, 2013). This situation exacerbates inequalities in gradients of health across generations.

School psychologists have an essential role in taking action on the prevalence and impacts of ACEs at the school level. Because ACEs conditions flow from actions applied to and influences of structural social conditions (social determinants), it is necessary to recognize the magnitude and the consequences of ACEs to improve health, reduce inequalities within generations, prevent the transmission of disadvantage and inequality across generations, and improve the quality of life for children, young people, and adults.

The Salutogenic Approach to Health

The graphic representation of the *river of life* (Fig. 1), described by Eriksson and Mittelmark (2017), presents clearly the development of medicine (care and treatment) and public health (prevention and promotion). Specifically, the logical and historical development of public health towards health promotion involves four stages (de los Santos, Valverde, Rodriquez, & Garcia, 2011). The *first* stage consists of education for health and health promotion (they coexist). The *second* stage involves protecting health and preventing diseases. Protection would aim to avoid the risks of falling ill. According to the metaphor, it would try to place barriers to the river to prevent people from falling into it. Prevention would try to prevent diseases through active intervention with people themselves (e.g., use a life jacket to keep people from drowning). The *third* stage

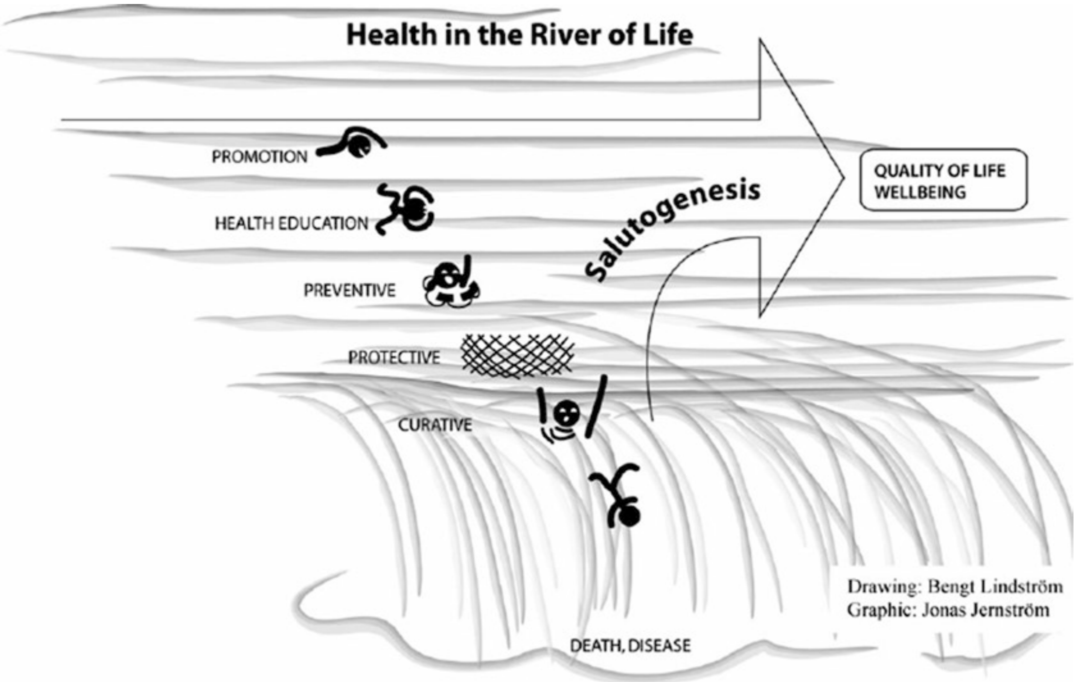

Fig. 1 The river of life. (Source: Eriksson & Lindstrom, (2008); https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Health-in-the-River-of-Life_fig1_5496746; https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/dan014 (Reprinted with permission of the author))

consists of treating diseases ("saving people from drowning"), using expensive technological tools and well-trained professionals. Returning to the metaphor of the river, the efforts would be directed to "to teach the people to swim". From health promotion, the responsibility for action would extend beyond the traditional health sector, so that health would be understood as a human right to achieve through the coordination of the whole society. The *fourth* stage would be characterized by the improvement of the understanding of health, well-being and quality of life. The ultimate goal of the activities of health promotion is the creation or facilitation of the preconditions necessary for the development of a healthy life. That is, the key to the process is to learn to reflect on the options that exist according to the situations that occur in life, applying wisdom to take advantage of those that generate health, those that improve the quality of life, and those that develop the sense of coherence.

According to the salutogenic paradigm, the metaphor of the river is different. In this case, it would be the "river of life", where the main direction in the flow of water occurs horizontally, although throughout its entire path there is a vertical drop of water, in the form of a waterfall. At birth, people fall into the river and float with the current. The main direction of life is not death and disease, represented by the waterfall. On the one hand, some people are born near the opposite side of the waterfall, where they can float easily, life opportunities are good, and people have many resources at their disposal, such as in a state of lasting well-being. On the other hand, other people are born near the waterfall, in discomfort or illness, where the struggle for survival is more difficult and the risk of being at edge of the waterfall is much greater. The river is full of risks but also of resources (social assets) (Lindstrom & Eriksson, 2006).

Salutogenesis is an asset approach where the focus is on resources for health and well-being, that is, the good life. There are many theories, principles and constructs under the salutogenic umbrella (see Fig. 2). The concept of salutogenesis was first coined by Aaron Antonovsky to stand for the origin of health. Sense of coherence

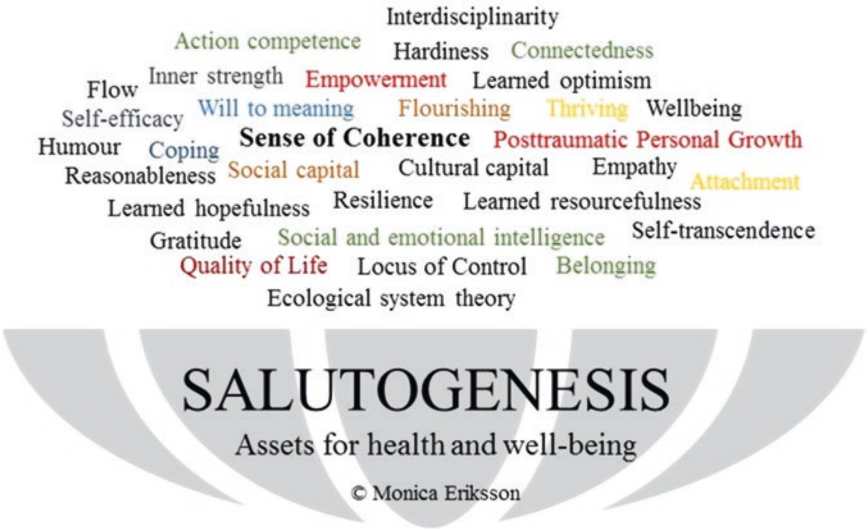
Interdisciplinarity
Action competence
Hardiness
Connectedness
Flow
Inner strength
Empowerment
Learned optimism
Self-efficacy
Will to meaning
Flourishing
Thriving
Wellbeing
Humour
Coping
Sense of Coherence
Posttraumatic Personal Growth
Reasonableness
Social capital
Cultural capital
Empathy
Attachment
Learned hopefulness
Resilience
Learned resourcefulness
Gratitude
Social and emotional intelligence
Self-transcendence
Quality of Life
Locus of Control
Belonging
Ecological system theory
SALUTOGENESIS
Assets for health and well-being
© Monica Eriksson

Fig. 2 The salutogenic umbrella (assets approach). (Source: Eriksson & Mittelmark, (2017), page 103. (Reprinted with permission of the author))

(SOC) is one of the key concepts (Antonovsky, 1983, 1987). According to Antonovsky's (1987) definition, SOC is:

> a global orientation that expresses the extent to which one has a pervasive, enduring though dynamic feeling of confidence that (1) the stimuli deriving from one's internal and external environment in the course of living are structured, predictable and explicable; (2) the resources are available for one to meet the demands posed by these stimuli; (3) these demands are challenges, worthy of investment and engagement. (p, 19).

However, salutogenesis is much broader than only focusing on the sense of coherence.

Why is it important for the school psychologist to know the salutogenic approach? It is not uncommon for a child to be stigmatized simply for having a personal or family problem or to be living in a disadvantaged social context. The salutogenic approach works on the social assets of all people and their contexts in which they live. It is a way to rescue the positive value of health through actions on health promotion. Summarizing, the "umbrella model" of salutogenesis is holistic by definition considering that it integrates dimensions and approaches that bring wisdom of each into a coherent synergistic force.

The Child Rights and Health Approach

Human rights are universal legal safeguards and moral/ethical principles intended to (a) protect individuals and groups against actions and omissions that interfere with their freedoms and good quality of life and (b) promote respect for their dignity and freedom and opportunity to pursue good quality of life. The existing legal frameworks in the field of human rights oblige governments and other rights holders to fulfil certain obligations.

Human rights are:

- Universal (without exclusions of any kind)
- Inalienable for all human beings (cannot be withdrawn, transferred, transmitted to another or marketed)
- Equal (no rights are more important than others, no hierarchies)
- Indivisible
- Interdependent (the validity of one is a precondition for the performance of others; the violation of one ends up affecting others)
- Cannot be suspended or withdrawn
- Inherent (inborn, children are born with them)

- Progressive/cumulative (they have an evolutionary character; they advance in formulation through new recognitions as society evolves)
- Effective (have certainty and reality)
- Centred on the intrinsic dignity and equal value of all human beings
- Impose obligations of action and omission, particularly to States and agents of States
- Guaranteed by the international community
- Protected by law
- Protecting individuals and, to some extent, groups

With regard to the rights of children and adolescents, the most relevant universal treaty is the Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention; UN, 1989). The Convention constitutes both the minimum and aspirational framework for the recognition and respect of the rights of children and adolescents; combines in a single treaty civil and political, economic, social and cultural rights; and considers rights as interdependent and complementary to ensure the integral protection of children and adolescents. The impact of the Convention has been very important, being the specific international instrument for the protection and promotion of children's human rights that has enjoyed great acceptance and international recognition. The Convention is the human rights treaty most ratified globally, with the exception of the United States (which has signed indicating intention to consider ratification, but which has not yet ratified).

The generation of a culture of rights in a society is crystallized by seeing that all citizens are informed and aware of the responsibility they have to promote, demand and enforce human rights and to assure that the State makes use of its resources and policies to be in compliance. In this scenario and unlike other social groups, the exercise of rights by children and adolescents is a function of their evolving capacities applied in relationships with adults and adult-led establishments. Hence, the protection of rights in the early years is mediated by adults (families, caregivers) and institutions providing services (school and health services among others).

The endorsement of the Convention and attention to child rights issues in professional standards suggest a shared value for promoting and protecting the rights of all children through professional practice and advocacy. To fully realize the import of child rights in school psychology, detailed guidelines, resources, training activities and experiences are needed. Ultimately, this might mean revising standards with more specific reference to the Convention and/or inclusion of issues that cover the scope of the Convention articles. In addition, the Convention could inform ethical decision-making, research, practice and professional development in school psychology. Thus, the Convention on the Rights of the Child could guide the interpretation and implementation of professional standards and improve the professional skills (Nastasi & Naser, 2014).

The approaches described are not mutually exclusive. On the contrary, the salutogenic approach can be integrated with the rights approach insofar as it is based on the capacities of people and the way they are recognized, valued and enhanced. We think that both approaches (rights and salutogenesis) can be considered individually or collectively. In the second case, these approaches offer the opportunity to school psychologists for the promotion of resilient environments that are respectful of the rights of the child.

The Inclusive Development Approach

The inclusive development approach champions the full rights and citizenship of all children. In doing this, it encourages values, norms and procedures to give all children, independent of their characteristics and their adult support systems, access to and influence on any activity and service related with childhood policies (McDonald, 2011). The expected results of the inclusive development approach imply, among others, access to an experience of belonging and opportunities for learning that promote the maximum potential of personal and family development. Consequently, the defining characteristics of inclusion that should be represented in programmes serving the child are high quality, access, participation and support. The essential components of the inclusive development framework are presented here.

Pillars of inclusive development

- *Rights*: Make services visible and benefits, information and resources available; and eliminate physical and bureaucratic barriers to access (see previous section on rights approach).
- *Universal design*: Integrate "special" supports into places, services and programmes which serve the entire population, to benefit all people and not just those with disability.
- *People-centred*: The supports, services and benefits should focus on the person and be timely for the resources and modalities required. Apply proactive strategies that bring the resources to the access point.
- *Participation*: Formulate play and learning in a variety of ways that promote empowerment, agency and co-responsibility of participation. Activities should provide a sense of belonging and influence to every boy and girl.

This orientation encourages school psychologist to see that they and their school community appreciate and champion that disabilities of children are an aspect of diversity and not a reason to segregate or discriminate against them.

Foundations of the Importance of Child Physical Health for School Psychologists

Mental and physical health are two faces of the same token! Considering the health paradigms reviewed in the previous section, and the influences of positivism in the sciences, we find that, in practice, the roles of health professionals are dissociated. In this sense, those dedicated to mental health generally do not consider physical health, and vice versa. Therefore, we consider that the first obstacle to be removed to assume the role of school psychologist is to think of health integrally and with its multiple determinations, dimensions and interdependences. In this sense, the school psychologist should consider boys, girls, children and adolescents as a whole, and each holistically. For example, problems of childhood obesity are not only the responsibility of nutritionists, doctors or nurses but also involve the school psychologist, as this problem affects the overall health of the children. Addressing obesity necessitates working across disciplines and contemplating the multiple determinants of health. Being overweight or obese is not only due to physical causes but also to mental health issues. In turn, children with these problems may experience low self-esteem that influences their performance in school or their interpersonal relationships, causing further low self-esteem, depression and eating for comfort.

We can list innumerable problems of health that appear in the school and are only considered from the physical aspects, for example, problems of growth and development, sexuality and respiratory diseases, among others. Approaching such problems, their features and associates in isolation predicts intervention failure. For these reasons, working in the prevention of physical health problems is an inherent part of the school psychologist's role and, obviously, should not be done through an isolated approach. Instead, it is incumbent upon us to recognize and assume responsibility for the physical dimension of health, to guarantee the well-being of the children and adolescents who experience school life.

The Healthy Child: Between Standards and Expectations

To start thinking about this topic, we might ask ourselves: *What is a healthy child? What is a "normal child"? What images of boys, girls, children and adolescents come to our mind when we think about them?* It is important to clarify our ideas about these questions because it is the starting point for working with and for students, their families and the child's larger circle of caring. In this sense, we often hold stereotypes of "healthy" or "normal" that constitute barriers to collaborate for the integral development and well-being[2] of children. Consciously or unconsciously, we carry out acts of biased discrimination, which are generally based on stereotypes that we have acquired throughout our personal and professional socialization. For example, many professionals uncritically repeat prejudices against the migrant population, and this is reflected in the treatment and care of children. Stereotypes are often barriers to identify and address when considering child protection issues. All children can be subjected to having their rights violated, so health professionals must have awareness of these situations that predispose such action. Children from all socioeconomic backgrounds can suffer from violence (abuse and neglect) within their families. The terms "well-constituted", "dysfunctional", "appropriate" and "inappropriate" are commonly used in the language of school psychologists, generally hiding prejudices that can act as barriers. For example, in relation to protection issues, these barriers can be translated when considering that certain problems may be present only in boys with certain family profiles. There is a need to revise these conceptions based on prejudices.

We need to ask ourselves: *How, in our practices, do we factor in the socioeconomic and cultural context in which the children and their families live?* School psychologists often complain that families of children with physical or behavioural problems do not attend school appointments. Given this situation, it would be good to consider: Why do we think that these families do not attend? What is required for them to attend? What happens when they attend? Sometimes these families are approached without considering their living conditions, and, therefore, the school psychologist may blame them or propose solutions that do not fit their real possibilities. To illustrate:

> "I have scheduled several appointments for Jimmy to treat his asthma, but his mother has never taken him. She simply does not care" (School Psychologist). This raises such questions as: Do we truly listen to these families? How do we identify their needs, real possibilities and strengths in providing support?

Changing the Paradigm: The Role of School Psychologists in Promoting Health in the School Community

The school psychologist has the power to positively influence the well-being of the entire school community; however, this potential is not often developed. Among the reasons that limit this potential, we mention the following:

1. School psychologists, like most professionals related to the health sciences, are trained in the paradigm of disease, risk, prevention and care. In this way, problems related to children and adolescents are generally assessed and addressed exclusively according to risk factors. Following this model, it is thought that if a child is exposed to certain risk factors,[3] for example, the absence of parents for a long time during the day or child doesn't attend school, he/she is more likely to exhibit behavioural or learning problems.
2. School psychologists' interventions focus mainly on identifying and/or addressing child and adolescent risks and difficulties. From this paradigm, it is considered that the school psychologist is the one who knows the problems that can affect the well-being of the children and adolescents and what must be done to improve them.
3. The risk-difficulty-loaded approach tends to stigmatize the child and his living conditions. For example, if a child has parents with addiction problems, it immediately follows that the child may present behavioural and/or learning problems and these aspects imply a biased approach to the situation.

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[2] The WHO's definition of health recognizes the physical, mental and social domains for emphasis; the Convention on the Rights of the Child adds the spiritual and moral domains (see Articles 17, 27, and 32).

[3] Risk approach: considers any characteristic or quality of a person, community or the environment known to be linked to a high probability of damaging health.

4. Considering that representations about the roles of school psychologists are built in processes of interaction with other actors, it is common for the school to expect and demand from the school psychologist these types of interventions and to expect they only to pay attention to problematic cases.

The aforementioned aspects are accepted as part of the school psychologist's role. Focusing on this approach exclusively, however, limits the possibilities of influencing the integral health and well-being of the child and of the different members of the educational community who influence the child. This situation must be changed.

First, it is important to extend beyond the risk approach and simultaneously advance promotive and protective factors and mechanisms. The promotive and protective factors are defined as the following: the aspects of the social environment and family and competences of the individual that favour their integral development towards holistic well-being and that help to overcome unfavourable situations. In this sense, research on human development, psychology, health and education caution against solely considering the role of psychosocial support in the development of psychosocial skills and resilience in adverse conditions and the need for promotive and protective interventions by mental health professionals, including school psychologists.

Second, and based on championing a broader and more comprehensive approach, the health promotion paradigm can be a guiding framework and open different paths for school psychologists to take advantage of their potential to positively influence the well-being of children, adolescents and adults in the education system. For this purpose and reasons previously set forth, we should start by defining health promotion.

The promotion of health represents a paradigm shift in public health, as part of a positive concept of health, and asks: What are the causes of health? How do we know and maintain them? "Health promotion" has its origins in the report of Lalonde (1974) and in the Ottawa Charter (1986). Health promotion focuses centrally on the empowerment of individuals and communities, building their capacities and supportive conditions, so that they can choose healthy options and reduce aspects that may be risky. It has five operating areas[4]:

1. Formulation of public policies
2. Strengthening community participation
3. Creating healthy environments
4. Development of personal skills and competencies
5. Reordering of health services, with emphasis on primary care

Remember that health is understood as a social and historical construction, resulting from the interaction of biological, psychological, social, environmental, political and cultural factors. As such, it is linked to the holistic well-being and integral development of people and, from a positivist orientation, is a right and a resource for good quality of life. From this point of view, school psychologists and the different members of the school community are considered to be involved in the construction of health, well-being and quality of life. This sets the expectation that they will carry out actions in the different operational areas of health promotion (e.g., institutional policies, regulations, physical and psychosocial environment, health education, participation) to positively influence the integral development of people. Arguably, if school psychologists are to live an integral approach, they should not only consider individual and problematic cases; they should also intervene in factors that promote health of the students, teachers, and parents and should involve all dimensions of school life, adopting an ecological perspective.

Let's return to the example of the boy with respiratory problems. Despite the numerous appointments made by the school psychologist, his parents did not take him to service opportunities. How could we address this problem from the health promotion approach? These and many other such questions are best addressed in the context of schools that have a broad and deep understanding, appreciation and commitment to integral health promotion.

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[4] The healthy educational environment approach is based on the PAHO/WHO 1995 School Health Promotion model. It considers three interrelated components: health education with an integral focus (emphasis on life skills), creation and maintenance of the school as healthy physical and psychosocial environment and articulation with health and food services.

Why Health Promoting Schools?

Health and education are intimately connected. Good health enables children to attend school, which in turn equips them with the knowledge to make better decisions about their health, and eventually positively influences their employment opportunities and income. In a circular manner, this in turn enables better health. Meaningful and relevant education is fundamental in empowering children to gain better control of the social determinants that impact their health and health equity. As such, health promotion should be treated as an integral component of education.

Schools always influence – either positively or negatively – the health and well-being of their students, teachers, parents and staff. Because schools are not always aware of their capacity to influence health and well-being, it is important to help schools develop awareness and capacity and to harness it for effective health promotion. The health promoting school approach stimulates policymakers to "rethink the school". This includes rethinking overall organizational structures, school policies, pedagogical methods for teaching and learning, physical and psychosocial environments and parent and community participation. Several studies have demonstrated the importance of supportive school environments in promoting health and well-being, which is necessary for academic success (Brown, Jones, LaRusso, & Aber, 2010; Cohen, 2001; Schaps, Battistich, & Solomon, 2004; Thapa, Cohen, Higgins-D'Alessandro, & Guffey, 2012). Thus, the health promoting schools' strategy aims to go beyond simply improving health to encourage schools to rethink their entire pedagogical mission and vision.

Schools provide the platform and opportunity to deliver targeted health messages and interventions. Many risk and opportunity factors are interrelated and are influenced by the settings where people work, go to school, interact and play. Thus, creating healthy school environments will foster the development of healthy children and improve learning (Samdal & Rowling, 2013).

School Psychologists and the Strategy of Health Promoting Schools

To rethink the school psychologist's role in health promotion, it is useful to know the strategy of a health promoting school and how it can enrich school psychologists' work:

> A Health Promoting School is one that constantly strengthens its capacity as a healthy setting for living, learning and working (WHO, n.d.-b).
>
> A Health Promoting School is a school *that systematically programmes* and *designs actions* to create a healthy physical and psychosocial environment for all its members; …it is a school that *creates conditions and opportunities* which allow all its members to make healthy choices…it is a school that *accomplishes its pedagogical functions with quality*, taking into account the integral development of its students, and …it is a school that *guarantees the rights to health and education.* (Cimmino, 2013b, June).

Health promotion and health promoting schools are driven by policy and practice development. Research evidence supports the key components of the health promoting schools framework (Stewart-Brown, 2006). Research studies provide evidence on the effectiveness of integrated, holistic and multifactorial strategies in addressing certain health topics and improving health-related behaviour (Fung et al., 2012; Grydeland et al., 2013; Langford et al., 2014; St. Leger, Kolbe, Lee, McCall, & Young, 2007, 2010). Researchers have reported positive effects for programmes that promote mental health, physical activity and healthy eating and little or no evidence of effectiveness for the prevention of substance use. In these studies, the school health

Table 1 Comparison between traditional and promoting approaches to school health

Traditional school health approach	Health promoting school approach
Concept of health	
Limited – Biological absence of disease	Multidimensional
Strategy	
Prevention of diseases and health services	Health promotion, enhancement of protective factors and reduction of risk factors
Role of the school	
Passive – The health sector perceives the school as "a stage" at which to develop healthy behaviour among a "captive population"	Active – All education stakeholders participate. And the school contributes and influences how health is constructed
Leadership	
The health sector leads the implementation of the HPS programme	The school community leads the implementation of the HPS programme and is supported by health professionals and NGOs
Attitudes	
(a) The health sector is considered to be the "possessor" of health knowledge	(a) School staff are recognized for their ability to influence, either positively or negatively, students' health and well-being
(b) Teachers feel that they are not qualified to engage in health promotion and that this is not part of their role	(b) School staff accept health promotion as an integral part of their role, and not as an additional task or responsibility
Depth of integration	
Not systematic and not integrated into school policies or educational goals	Systematic, continuous and integrated into both school and classroom policies and educational goals
Health dimensions	
Unidimensional – Considers either health education or service provision or sanitation	Complex and multifactorial – Plans activities in several domains: School policies, health education, service provision and physical and psychosocial environments
Intersectoral model	
(a) Health professionals work "in" the schools but not "with" the schools.	(a) The health sector trains school stakeholders and builds capacity to address health issues
(b) The health sector defines schools' health priorities for them.	(b) The school community and stakeholders, in collaboration with other sectors, define their own health priorities.
(c) Health professionals implement the health projects and teachers facilitate conditions to develop the actions.	(c) School members implement the health projects, and health professionals collaborate and support them according to their needs.

Source: Cimmino (2013a, April)

promotion programmes that were effective were more likely to be complex and multi-factorial. That is, these programmes were composed of interventions in several of the following domains: school policies, curriculum, school physical and psychosocial environments, community links and participation and school health services. These activities were also systematic, intensive and implemented over a long period of time. School health programmes that applied a whole-school approach generally produced better outcomes than those implemented only in the classroom and focused only on providing health education.

The concept of health promoting schools represents a shift away from the traditional paradigm towards a more comprehensive approach to health in schools. To understand the concept of a health promoting school, it is important to highlight how it differs from the traditional approach (see Table 1; Cimmino, 2013a, April).

How Can Schools Be Health Promoting?

To be considered health promoting, schools should adopt an integrated approach to health promotion that involves most of the following six key factors[5]:

1. *Healthy school policies*: Establish policies that are documented and approved practices for influencing the school's actions in promoting health and well-being of the school and the wider community.
2. *School physical environment*: Provide a safe, secure, clean, sustainable, conducive and healthy environment for learning.
3. *School's social environment*: Foster positive relationships among and between students, staff, parents and the wider community. Create an environment of care and trust.
4. *Community links*: Promote family, community, school, organization and other stakeholders' involvement and participation and build connections and partnerships.
5. *Action competencies for healthy living*: Include health education and life skills development in the formal and informal curriculum.
6. *School healthcare and promotion services*: Facilitate access to health and social services and liaise with health professionals who can contribute to the school's health project.

The integral approach to a healthy educational environment implies the assumption of an active role on the part of the school in the care and maintenance of the health and quality of life of the entire educational community and is aimed at facilitating the integral development of its members, and not just to avoid diseases. The application of this approach invites constant revision of the educational establishment as a whole, its forms of operation (norms and policies), the physical conditions of the establishment (e.g., hygiene, safety, accessibility), the teaching modalities and learning and the strategies of linking the students and the educational community. It, therefore, demands planning and organization for each of these dimensions to generate and foment quality of life and integral development. This approach aims to improve the psychosocial climate of the educational environment and, therefore, favours the learning outcomes, and not only the results of health and quality of life.

The holistic approach to healthy educational environment involves complex and multidimensional interventions in educational settings. Support and guidance are available in studies that provide evidence of the effectiveness of actions to promote health and development in the educational field. These studies (as described in the previous section) suggest that for such interventions to be effective, they must be multifactorial, encompassing different dimensions and components of work: institutional, physical and psychosocial environment, policies, services and involvement of the community.

What Does it Mean to Work with a Holistic Approach in the Healthy Educational Environment?

A holistic approach in a health educational environment has the following components (Cimmino, 2016):

- The active leadership of the educational environment in the construction of the health and well-being of its members.
- Training activities to strengthen the educational community in its promotion of development and improve quality of life.

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[5] WPRO/WHO "Health Promoting School: Framework for action", 2009

- Participation of educational community in the identification of health needs and problems and in the planning activities to address them.
- Work on different dimensions/components of the educational environment simultaneously, systematically and continuously.
- Integration of the objectives of the Healthy Educational Environment Strategy with the objectives and activities of the educational institution.
- Working in an intersectoral and multifactorial way, seeking the interaction of the educational environment with other organizations in the community.

Promoting the Child's Right to Health

Many times, the rights of children are thought of as abstract and far from reality. However, rights offer fundamental principles to guide our purposes, policies and practices. It is important that the school psychologist understands this in the fullness of its meaning. This underscores that school psychologists, as adults and professionals who perform in school, have the obligation to promote and protect the rights of the children and not to act only in cases of rights' violations.

The right to health should be conceptualized within a comprehensive approach to health. As we have seen in the previous section, health is a multi-determined social construct, to be framed in positive terms and recognized as an essential resource for life. This provides the school psychologist with broad and deep possibilities in their daily work for generating professional and institutional conditions necessary to promote and guarantee this right to children. In this sense, the health promoting schools strategy, based on a whole-school approach, can be very useful, especially applied by the school psychologist through collaboration to promote the right to health in the educational community.

Fundamentally, we must consider that the rights approach implies considering children and adolescents as "subjects" with the possibility of expressing opinions and points of view and participating in deliberations and actions regarding the issues that concern them. School psychologists should assume a high level of responsibility for creating the necessary conditions in the school community's environments and daily practices (in the classrooms, programmes and free space) that will assure participation of children. For this, on the one hand, it is important to review the existing modalities and mechanisms for the participation of all children of all ages in school psychologists' daily work in the school environment. On the other hand, the work of the school psychologist is closely linked to situations of child protection and the child's right to health and integral development. Thus, school psychologist policies and practices should be carefully examined and enhanced towards serving the goal of promoting child protection and well-being within the right to health.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child, in its conceptions of protection, encourages a paradigm shift to "Comprehensive Protection of Children[6]". In this approach, the child is considered as a "subject of rights", implying that the child has an active role to play in the child's own protection and related decisions. At the same time, from this point of view, intervention models too often have been applied with exclusive consideration of situations of risk and protection from these risks. Added to and integrated with this orientation should be serious consideration of the assets and positive potentialities and opportunities of the individual, the family and community environment.

Creating the conditions of genuine access to, and exercise of, the right to health for children and adolescents also requires a critical reflection by school psychologists on their own services and roles to make sure stereotypes are not reproduced, avoiding all types of discrimination and encouraging equality of opportunities for boys, girls and children of all ages and backgrounds. Regarding the application of the principle of non-discrimination to promote and guarantee the right to health, we must recognize who our students are and understand that there is currently no single way of being a child. There is no “one childhood” but “childhoods and adolescences” marked by different contexts and conditions of life. Beyond some evolutionary recurrences, the context of children’s development, such as ethnicity, social class, culture and rural or urban environment, provides experiences in very different ways which form their biographies. Respecting this plurality is a responsibility for those who work with children and young people. Therefore, when thinking about strategies to promote the right to health, these differences should be taken into account by the school psychologist to understand, redesign and create interventions so that the diversity of childhood and adolescence is not exclusively recognized in the theoretical domain. At the same time, recognizing plurality and diversity should not make us lose sight of the equality rights. That is, recognizing differences should tend to consolidate equity, and not on the contrary to naturalize inequalities.

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[6] FLACSO (2008). Child protection in health practices. In CRED PRO, FLACSO, and UNICEF, *Child's Rights and Health Services: Health professional training material*, Chap. 5. Buenos Aires, Argentina: Author.

Respecting all these factors, to promote the right to health in their practices, school psychologists can and should contribute to the revision and adaptation of school policies and norms to appreciate this right by the construction of a favourable physical and psychosocial climate in the school. In the sections that follow, using sexuality and nutrition as issue examples, we suggest ways the school psychologist can generate the necessary conditions to promote the right to health through the daily approach of different themes related to the health and integral development of childhood.

Promotion of the Right to Integral Sexual Education

Sexuality is one of the most present and most hidden topics in educational institutions. Generally, sexuality is understood from a vision limited to the physical and, particularly, to the genital aspects. Within this logic, school psychologists are generally called upon to address this issue when some specific situation related to sexuality breaks out and teachers do not know what to do, for example, when someone finds a student with pornographic material or when students are touching intimate parts of their bodies. School psychologists may also be expected to address sexuality to prevent teenage pregnancies or sexually transmitted infections.

It is important to recognize that sexuality goes far beyond the physical and its genital aspects. It is an inherent and constitutive part of the person, linked to integral development and well-being, and an area to be covered by human rights for all children according to the holistic nature of the Convention. Therefore, addressing this issue only to prevent risks or to address emerging problem situations reduces the possibilities for school psychologists to positively influence sexuality functioning and development and the sexual and reproductive rights of students.

The school psychologist as a resource of the school community participates in the process of constructing the subjectivity and sexuality of its members, by virtue of having the capacity to influence the ways in which the school life is organized, explicitly (through norms) and implicitly (through attitudes and practices). Therefore, the school psychologist can help the school to create conditions necessary to promote fulfilment in this rights area of children. School psychologists should review and analyse how the rules and practices of the school contribute daily to enhance or obstruct the comprehensive psychosexual development of its students and take actions to reformulate them if necessary. The approach to sexuality education should therefore enlighten work on this topic in the classroom and include applications to other dimensions or components of the school, such as healthy school policies, and the physical and psychosocial environment of the school.

Among other things, to promote the right to sexuality education, we must offer to students conditions that will help them define their own life views and pathways and guarantee them access to the highest possible levels of health, information, education and choice making. Arguably, from the early years, children should have adequate information and training in comprehensive sexuality education. This will contribute to the fullness and protection of the sexuality of children and adolescents and to the possibility of exercising and demanding their rights on this dimension of their lives and promote their full development as individuals and citizens. To achieve this, the school psychologist can (Cimmino, 2013c, June):

- Promote healthy coexistence including positive relationships between teachers and students and between students and the community.
- Respect the confidentiality and privacy of students.
- Create specific spaces and use methodologies that favour the participation of students and the expression of their subjectivity and identity, that is, listen to, and take into account, the opinions of the students.
- Develop school and classroom policies and procedures that promote gender equality and equity and that respect diversity.
- Generate proposals that promote equal opportunities among boys and girls.
- Avoid all types of discrimination, including for reasons of sexual orientation.
- Promote the development of psychosocial skills in their practices.
- Collaborate in the construction of life pathways towards autonomy.
- Provide conceptual and practical tools to teachers on sexuality so that they can deal with it on a daily basis.
- Promote community-based activities of comprehensive sexual education by inviting integral involvement of families and the broader community.
- Facilitate access to services linked to sexuality in the community; this includes not only traditional sexual health services but also care services that address gender violence, sexual abuse and mistreatment.

Promoting the Right to Health through Healthy Nutrition

Considering the example of obese and overweight children in school can help us rethink the ways that the school psychologist can address this health problem through health promotion. The school psychologist can address this issue, not only from physical or psychological dimensions but also from a multidimensional perspective, including the individual, group and institutional domains. For example, the school psychologist can generate activities to address the promotion of healthy eating in the following ways:

- Conducting workshops on healthy nutrition aimed at students and families.
- Generating regulations aimed at promoting the consumption of healthy foods at school (both in school cafeterias and for foods brought from home).
- Promoting development of students' psychosocial skills to improve their self-esteem and allow them to make informed and critical choices about the foods they consume.
- Promoting the participation of children and their families in all activities related to improving nutrition in school and out of school.
- Providing support to teachers to address these issues in their classes.
- Promoting the increase of physical and sports activities in the school.
- Encouraging physical spaces for recesses so that students can play games that involve movement or practice sports.
- Identifying and evaluating healthy food practices of different cultures and promoting their incorporation into the school.
- Referring children with serious nutritional problems to health services and following them at school.

Final Reflections

We have tried in this chapter to share an introductory vision on health, its conceptualization and its multiple approaches and, through this, to deal with health and its associated expectations in terms of quality of life and well-being. We have presented some conceptual frameworks related to health which we hope will be useful for the reader. In all cases, health should be recognized as a right and not a commodity for exchange. The social determinants of health explain how conditions negatively affect health when there are situations of deprivation associated with poverty, lack of education, work and decent living conditions. In this context, social inequities can be considered as the greatest pandemic that affects humanity, since the situation of exclusion and marginalization affects the full exercise of rights and citizenship, particularly for children.

Considering health as a complex construct, interventions in its interests require the participation of multiple professions and disciplines, and among those, most critical for the school community is school psychology. The importance of not medicalizing health gives strong justification for school psychologists to assume a role in promoting health, combining integral and developmental models, to achieve and sustain well-being. Given their professional background, school psychologists must also assume their roles as advocates, promoting and defending the right to health of students in schools. Similarly, school psychologists can act on the conditions of coexistence and inclusiveness in the school environment so that institutions become living and learning spaces for all the students without any kind of discrimination. In this regard, school psychologists must help school communities recognize and avoid the risks associated with stereotyping as it does not allow for the full development of human potentials.

School psychologists should fully operationalize their advantaged position of professional expertise and influence to champion the transition from the risk reduction and preventive approaches to promote health based on assets (Search Institute n.d.) and opportunities. And they should do this at the individual and collective levels, for the “failure” of the health of a child is not just a personal problem but an institutional failure.

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Promoting Children's Mental Health in Schools: A Child's Rights Framework

Thomas J. Power

Abstract

This chapter discusses the roots of a child rights orientation to promoting children's mental health based in psychology, education, and neuroscience, including (a) a family-centered approach to services, (b) a community-responsive approach to service delivery, (c) a social justice orientation, (d) a positive psychology model, (e) a life course framework, (f) a multitier prevention model, and (g) a developmental-ecological framework. Using these models as a foundation, this chapter describes strategies for promoting children's mental health that may be useful in achieving the aspirations of the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child. These strategies include establishing the school as the child development home of each child and linking this system with the child's medical home in pediatric primary care and the child's personal, cultural home in the family. Additional strategies include enacting school policies reflecting a deep commitment to universal strategies for promoting each child's mental health and designing individualized development plans to address the educational and mental health needs of each child. The chapter concludes by describing examples of indicators for tracking progress in promoting children's mental health in schools.

The ethics and aspirations of the field of school psychology are consistent with a child rights approach to advocating for children, as delineated in the UN (UN, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (Hart & Hart, 2014; Nastasi & Naser, 2014). However, research, practice, and training models developed in school psychology, and the implementation of these models, generally fall short of these aspirations. A child rights orientation challenges the field of school psychology to expand its agenda for addressing the needs of children and adolescents. Further, this orientation challenges the field to venture beyond its traditional focus on individual- and systems-level change to become more invested in advocacy and policy change that will improve the lives of all children. This chapter discusses (a) challenges to the field of school psychology in advancing a child rights agenda, (b) key principles of a child rights approach for addressing children's mental health needs, (c) theoretical and empirical foundations for a child rights framework for promot-

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ing children's mental health, and (d) strategies for how the field of school psychology can expand its agenda by adopting a child rights framework to address the mental health needs of all children and adolescents.

School Psychology's Challenge in Advancing the Rights of the Child

The following are some examples of how the field of school psychology may fall short of addressing the aspirational goals of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN General Assembly, 1989), particularly with regard to mental health issues. First, the focus of school psychology historically has been on advancing the mission of schools, which has placed emphasis on promoting learning and academic skill development. Promoting the comprehensive development of children, including development in the cognitive, social, emotional, and moral domains, is certainly recognized as important, but the development of the whole child has not consistently been the central focus of schools and school psychologists. Second, in educational systems mental health issues generally are viewed as important in so far as they pose barriers to learning. The emphasis in schools typically is to reduce or eliminate mental health barriers to learning as opposed to promoting children's mental health in the context of fostering children's overall health and well-being. Third, in the United States and some other countries, the public school is responsible for ensuring that all children get a free, appropriate education in the least restrictive environment, but schools (and school psychologists) are not required or even urged to ensure the optimal development of each child. Fourth, schools have made significant strides to prevent discrimination, but the focus of anti-discrimination efforts historically has been directed mostly on children with disabilities. Not until recently have other forms of discrimination (e.g., bullying and harassment based on sexual orientation, weight status, appearance) been recognized and addressed. Fifth, the role of school psychologists is to understand the unique needs of each student and help each child develop his or her talents and abilities. However, school officials and school psychologists often place such a strong emphasis on the equitable distribution of educational resources that this principle can take precedence over the principle of promoting the full potential of each child.

Key Tenets of a Child Rights Approach to Promoting Children's Mental Health

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989; hereafter referred to as the Convention) places a major emphasis on education. The following are some of the key tenets of the Convention that pertain to promotion of children's mental health in an educational context.

Development of the Whole Child

A child rights approach takes the position that schools are contexts for child development that need to focus on the development of the whole child (Art. 6 and 29). A holistic approach to child development promotes children's growth across all domains of functioning, including the physical, cognitive, social, emotional, spiritual, and moral domains (Art. 17, 27, and 32). Health and mental health issues are not viewed merely as problems to be solved or barriers to learning that need to be reduced. The promotion of children's health, mental health, well-being, and character is an end in itself, central to learning, and vital to the mission of schools (Hart & Hart, 2014).

Development of the Child to the Fullest Extent Possible

Based upon Article 29, promoting the development of each individual to the fullest extent possible is a critical goal of education. It is not sufficient to provide students with an appropriate or adequate education and address problems and deficits when they arise. Children have the right to attend a school that is committed to helping them achieve their highest potential as persons, and not only as academic learners. In this regard, the role of the school psychologist is to collaborate with school professionals, families, and communities to enable each child in school to attain his or her potential.

Development of Each Child's Authentic Self

The development of the unique talents and personality of each child is an absolute priority (Art. 13). Children have the right to attend a school in which professionals are committed to understanding the preferences, strengths, temperament, and personality style of each child and helping the child to develop as authentic, unique individuals. School professionals understand that children often communicate their unique needs and values to their parents, and therefore it is essential for educators to collaborate effectively with parents to understand the voice of children. Of course, there is recognition that valuing the talents and personality of each child must be accomplished in a socially just and equitable manner, acknowledging that developing the authenticity of each child cannot infringe on the development of another child's authenticity.

Promotion of Each Child's Right to Expression

Understanding the authentic self of each child requires that children have the right to express their thoughts, preferences, and feelings; and school professionals have the responsibility to provide opportunities for child self-expression and listen when children speak (Art. 13 and 14). When children are very young, their actions may convey more meaning than their words, so careful observation of children at play and work is essential. As soon as it is developmentally appropriate, children need to be provided information about their education and welfare in terms that are understandable to them, and they need to be given opportunities to share information and perspectives that may contribute to decisions that impact their lives.

Protection of Children from Discrimination and Victimization

Children have the right to be treated with respect and to be educated in an environment in which they are protected from discrimination and victimization due to aggression and exclusion (Art. 2). The field of school psychology has a laudatory history of protecting children with or at risk for disabilities, including serious emotional and behavioral disorders and health conditions. However, it has not been until recently that the field has extended its focus to children who experience discrimination and victimization due to bullying and various forms of aggression, including relational forms of aggression involving social exclusion (Leff & Crick, 2010).

Foundation for a Child Rights Orientation to Mental Health

A child rights orientation is rooted in many existing models in psychology, education, and neuroscience that address the mental health needs of children. The following is a description of some of these models that pertain to the practice of psychology in schools.

Family-Centered Approach

An educational approach that highlights the central role of the family is fully consistent with a child rights orientation (Art. 5, 9, 10, 18, 20, and 21). Communicating effectively with the family and involving the family in educational decision-making leads to the formulation of educational practices that foster the unique, authentic personality of each child.

Family involvement in education also enables children to attain their full potential in schools.

Families can be involved in multiple ways: (a) sustaining strong caregiver-child relationships, which promotes child self-regulation and successful interpersonal relationships outside the family (Pianta, 1997); (b) supporting their child's education at home (e.g., homework assistance, parent tutoring), which can foster the development of organization, time management, and planning skills (Langberg et al., 2011); and (c) collaborating with teachers (an extended family model), which can promote stronger teacher-student relationships (Dearing, Kreider, & Weiss, 2008), thereby improving academic and social outcomes. Recent research has highlighted how improvements in parenting practices (Booster, Mautone, Nissley-Tsiopinis, Van Dyke, & Power, 2016), family involvement with children's education in the home (Holloway & Kunesh, 2015), and family-school collaboration (Sheridan, Bovaird, Glover, Garbacz, Witte, & Kwon, 2012) can make a difference in student's performance in school.

Community-Responsive Approach

The involvement of community members in school decision-making and service provision is a critical approach to ensuring that school professionals understand the unique cultural background and identity of each student in their classrooms. Enlisting community members in meaningful roles in the school as paraprofessionals is one method of involving the community in the educational process.

Community members can be highly effective as classroom aides and academic tutors (Power, Dowrick, Ginsburg-Block, & Manz, 2004), as well as playground supervisors and coaches (Leff, Costigan, & Power, 2004). Supporting community members to be effective in these roles and to make meaningful contributions to school decision-making requires strong support from school administration and a willingness on the part of school professionals to become fully engaged with paraprofessionals using a partnership-based model, based on the principles of participatory action research and intervention (Nastasi, Moore, & Varjas, 2004). Through an iterative, participatory process, paraprofessionals become empowered to advocate for the unique, culturally specific needs of each student, and school professionals become receptive to the wisdom of these community partners and skilled in partnering with key representatives of the community (Manz, Power, Ginsburg-Block, & Dowrick, 2010).

Social Justice Orientation

A child rights orientation maps closely onto a social justice approach to school psychology (Hart & Shriberg, 2014). Fundamental to a social justice approach is protecting the rights and opportunities of each student and promoting nondiscriminatory practice in schools (Shriberg et al., 2008). A social justice orientation recognizes that students vary dramatically in the privileges and opportunities they have to succeed in school and that school professionals and the systems in which they operate generally have subtle biases that favor some students and serve as a disadvantage to others (Shriberg, Song, Miranda, & Radliff, 2013).

Many students through no fault of their own or their parents are vulnerable to discrimination in the form of victimization or exclusion by peers, teachers, and school administrators. A social justice orientation highlights the responsibility of school psychologists to identify discrimination when it occurs, conduct an analysis of the roots of the discrimination, and partner with key stakeholders in developing a plan to eliminate discrimination and promote equal opportunity. The roots of discrimination often are embedded in the fabric of the institution as manifested in its policies, procedures, and practices. As such, a social justice advocate identifies ways to raise tough questions about institutional discrimination and participate in a process to reduce and eventually eliminate any practices that may lead to educational disparities and create an educational environment that promotes the optimal development and is responsive to the authentic self of each student.

Positive Psychology

In response to the historically strong emphasis in applied psychology on identifying disorders and reducing deficits, the positive psychology movement emerged in the 1990s (Seligman, 2002). The focus of positive psychology is building strengths and talents and promoting health and well-being. Positive psychology is fully consonant with a child rights orientation in that it promotes the attainment of the full potential of each child and the use of approaches that enable children to flourish.

The application of positive psychology includes a focus on changing the beliefs and attitudes of the child as well as changing contexts of development to promote a person's fulfillment. Assessment strategies rooted in a positive psychology orientation are based on a dual-factor model of mental health that affirms the importance of assessing the strengths and assets of the individual and context, in addition to identifying deficits of the individual and contextual challenges (Suldo & Shaffer, 2008). With regard to prevention and intervention, strategies based on positive psychology fit well as Tier 1 (universal) approaches, and they are consistent with a resilience approach to intervention at Tiers 2 (selected) and 3 (targeted; Molony, Hildbold, & Smith, 2014). Prevention and intervention strategies based on positive psychology have focused on the development of many virtues and strengths, including optimism, hope, gratitude, life satisfaction, happiness, and engagement in life (Froh, Sefick, & Emmons, 2008; Gilman, Dooley, & Florell, 2006; Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich, & Linkins, 2009).

Life Course Framework

Based upon research in neuroscience, the life course model posits that early life experiences have a significant impact on the developing brain, which can influence the course of development across the life span (Forrest & Riley, 2004). Much of the research has focused on the effects of chronic stress on the neurobiology of the developing person (Shonkoff, Boyce, & McEwen, 2009). The life course model has been adapted to refer to an approach to education and service delivery that protects children from trauma and chronic stress, strengthens developmental assets, and promotes the attainment of long-term developmental goals, including autonomy, self-determination, and the realization of one's full potential (Evans, Owens, Mautone, DuPaul, & Power, 2014).

Consistent with Article 29 of the Convention, a life course model asserts that the educational system has a responsibility to prepare children for responsible life in a free society and the full development of independence, civic responsibility, and self-actualization. To prepare students for self-determination and self-actualization, school professionals have the responsibility to educate children to be organized, self-regulated, effective in stress management, skilled in problem-solving and conflict resolution, and competent in social interactions. To do so, it is critically important to involve children as fully as possible, according to their evolving capacities (Art. 5, 12, and 14), in planning and decision-making and to educate them in self-management skills. It is recognized that behavior management by teachers and parents, classroom accommodations designed by educators, and pharmacologic treatment are required in many cases to address mental health problems, but whenever possible the ultimate goal is to prepare the individual for self-management using the minimal amount of scaffolding (i.e., external support) needed.

Multitier Prevention Framework

The multitier prevention framework, which is firmly rooted in psychology (Durlak, 1997), education (Sugai & Horner, 2006), and medicine (Institute of Medicine, 1994), is highly consonant with the major tenets of a child rights orientation. This model is designed to address the needs of all children, including those who are thriving, those who demonstrated emerging risk, and those who are struggling and manifest problems with clear impairment, and emphasizes the promotion of mental health as well as the reduction of risk and impairment (Glover & DiPerna, 2007).

There are numerous examples of universal (Tier 1) programming in schools to promote children's overall health, including mental health. For example, classroom-based programs have been developed to promote children's social and emotional learning, and their application in schools has been widespread (Elias, Zins, Graczyk, & Weissberg, 2003). Programs to promote friendship and cooperative behavior and to prevent violence and bullying have been developed for application in classrooms, and evidence of their efficacy is emerging (Leff et al., 2010). Further, programs focused on health education, including nutrition and fitness education based in classroom and lunchroom settings, have been demonstrated to be feasible to implement and effective, although sustaining the outcomes of these programs has proven to be challenging (Hoffman et al., 2011). In addition, given the relatively high incidence of child maltreatment and violence, especially in high poverty neighborhoods, the use of universal strategies for providing trauma-informed care to children from high-risk communities has been strongly recommended (Ko et al., 2008).

Tier 2 and 3 approaches, such as check-in, check-out (Crone, Hawken, & Horner, 2010), and conjoint behavioral consultation (Sheridan & Kratochwill, 2008), by definition, are focused on risk reduction and problem resolution. A child rights orientation to Tier 2 and 3 approaches is to incorporate strategies for promoting children's resilience and self-management skills into these school-based problem-solving programs. The 40 developmental assets distilled by the Search Institute are highly useful in identifying child assets and community resources that can promote resilience and youth self-determination. Developmental assets have been identified for youth across developmental levels. Examples of these assets applied to adolescents include maintaining effective communications with family members, establishing strong relationships with adults outside the family, attending a school with a warm and caring climate, having opportunities to engage in meaningful roles in school and the community, and having opportunities to become involved in community service (http://www.search-institute.org/content/40-developmental-assets-adolescents-ages-12-18). Emphasizing the advancement of developmental assets in mental health service delivery for promotion, prevention, and remediation reduces the stigma of these services and increases the likelihood that youth will become invested in care and sustain the use of intervention strategies.

Developmental-Ecological Model

Children can develop in a healthy manner and achieve their potential when they are engaged in strong, meaningful relationships with others. The developmental-ecological model affirms the primacy of relationships within systems as well as across systems. Critical relationships within systems include caregiver-child, teacher-student, primary care provider-child attachments, and peer relationships. Critical relationships across systems include family-school, family-primary care provider, and school-primary care provider relationships (Power & Bradley-King, 2013). As a whole, school psychologists have embraced the developmental-ecological model, and this framework has informed key documents in the profession, such as the *Blueprint for Training and Practice III* (Ysseldyke et al., 2006). Further, pediatric school psychology, which is rooted in this model, has emerged as a sub-specialization within the field. Pediatric school psychology works at the interface of the family, school, and pediatric health system and promotes partnerships and coordination among these systems of care (Power & Bradley-King, 2013).

The developmental-ecological model is consistent with models of care that have been highly influential in mental health (systems of care) and primary health care (medical home; Mandell, Guevara, & Pati, 2007). As such, the mental health and primary care systems have been primed to work across systems to promote the mental health of children, although connections between these systems and schools generally are underdeveloped, thereby placing parents in the untenable position of having to coordinate communications (Power, Blum, Guevara, Jones, & Leslie, 2013). Another critical aspect of developmental-ecological theory is the macrosystem, including policies that have an influence on the development of children in systems and the ability of key stakeholders to work in partnership across systems. Given the importance of policies at the local, state, and federal levels, school psychologists and other child-serving professionals have a critical role in advocating for policies that promote children's rights and foster the optimal development of children.

School Mental Health Strategies Informed by a Child Rights Perspective

A child rights orientation is aspirational. Although this perspective is consistent with the ethics, culture, and theoretical foundation of the field of school psychology, formulating strategies to operationalize this ideal can be challenging. The following is a description of some models and strategies that may be useful in achieving the aspirations outlined in the Convention.

School as Child Development Home

Pediatric primary care experienced a paradigm shift around the year 2000 with the emergence of the medical home model (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2002). This model identified the pediatric primary care practice as the coordinating center of medical care for each child patient. This model has particular relevance for children with chronic health conditions who require the services of multiple health providers. According to this model, primary care providers have central roles in ensuring that children receive the medical care they need, including the services of specialists, and that information critical to the care of children is integrated in a meaningful, useful manner for patients (Mandell, Guevara, & Pati, 2007). Family-centered care is a hallmark of this model. Providers, families, and patients work in partnership and engage in shared decision-making to promote the health of children. Another hallmark of the medical home model is a sustained attachment between provider and child, which promotes a trusting healthcare partnership and continuity of care across infancy, childhood, and adolescence. The medical home model has substantially improved the care of children with chronic health issues, and this model has been proposed as a useful way of addressing the chronic needs of children with mental health conditions. However, the adequacy of this model for addressing children's mental health needs has been questioned, given the constraints placed on primary care providers to offer psychosocial services to children and families (Toomey, Finkelstein, & Kuhlthau, 2008). It should be noted that models of care integrating behavioral health services into primary care practices are beginning to address the limitations of the medical home model and offer great promise to children with special mental health needs (Power et al., 2014).

The medical home model may serve as an exemplar for how schools can integrate efforts to promote children's comprehensive development over the course of their preschool, school-age, and adolescent years, thereby promoting the principles of the Convention. There are multiple child development centers in the lives of children; these include family, primary care practice, and neighborhood agencies and programs, such as faith-based institutions, after-school programs, and recreation centers. However, it could be argued that no other system but the school has the investment ***and*** concentration of resources over the course of childhood and adolescence to promote children's development. The school provides a context for ongoing tracking of child progress, facilitating the identification of, and allowing for course correction when, problems arise along the course of development.

In the context of school as child development home, teachers are child development specialists. Their purpose is not only to develop academic skills but also to promote the overall development of children, including their cognitive abilities, social and emotional well-being, and moral character. School psychologists, counselors, social workers, and nurses are experts in health and mental health who collaborate with teachers to enable them to be successful in their child development efforts. Obviously, families serve a unique role in the development of children and are experts in knowing the unique talents and personality characteristics of their children. Through partnerships with families, school professionals can strengthen their relationships with students and tailor their instructional approaches to address the unique needs of each child. Further, these partnerships invite families to become more involved in their children's education and guide families in how to do so successfully. Community agencies also serve a vital role in the development of children. As such, it is important for school professionals to be well connected with leaders in the community who are invested in promoting critical aspects of child development to complement the work being done in schools, such as socialization, leisure and play, and character development.

Figure 1 depicts the complementary nature of the family, school, and primary care health systems in promoting the comprehensive development of children and adolescents, consistent with the principles of a child rights orientation. The family serves as the personal/cultural home for the child; the school serves as child development home; and the pediatric primary care practice serves as the medical home. For children with significant mental health problems that cannot be addressed adequately by the family, school, and primary care practice working in collaboration, the resources of public and private mental health agencies need to be summoned to promote children's optimal development.

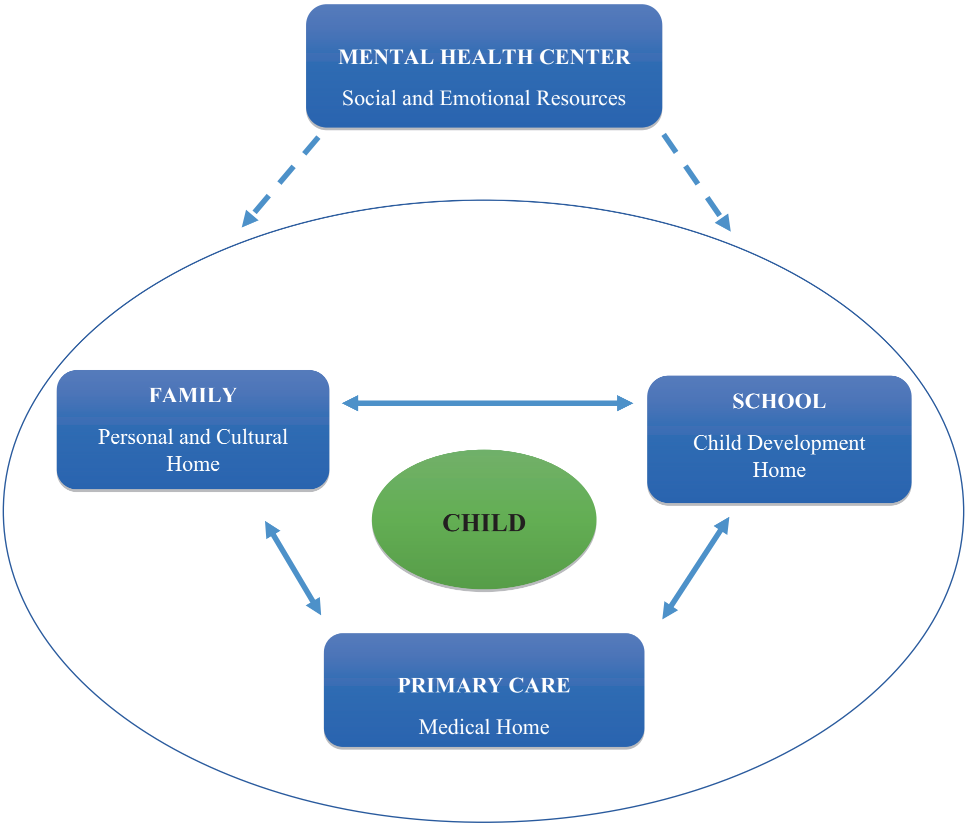

Fig. 1 The complementary functions of the family, school, primary care practice, and mental health system in promoting children's mental health

Deep Commitment to Universal Strategies for Promoting Mental Health

Schools that adopt a child rights orientation understand that advancing children's mental health promotes optimal development and learning. Promoting mental health involves an investment in universal strategies to promote social and emotional learning, including behavior regulation, emotion regulation, social skill development, and problem-solving. Promoting behavior regulation may take the form of educating students in organization, time management, planning, and self-evaluation skills, which are necessary for students to become independent, self-regulated persons (Abikoff et al., 2012; Langberg, 2011). Emotion regulation involves many skills including emotion identification, face and body awareness, recognition of environmental cues, identification of cognitions linked with emotions, appropriate channeling of emotions, and emotion expression (Leff et al., 2009). Social skill development involves identifying the emotions of others, reading social cues, interpreting the intent of others' actions, regulating one's own emotions, and engaging in effective social problem-solving skills (Lockman & Wells, 2004). Social problem-solving involves specifying the problem, delineating reasonable goals to be achieved, brainstorming potential solutions, evaluating each option, making a decision and acting on it, and evaluating the consequences (Chang, D'Zurillo, & Sanna, 2004).

To maximize their effect on students, universal strategies to promote mental health need to be integrated into the fabric of the school. In the classroom, teachers can provide instruction to students, incorporate key concepts into the curriculum, model the principles in their own actions, provide opportunities for students to practice the skills with feedback, and reinforce spontaneous use of social and emotional skills. In the lunchroom and playground, students are provided clear expectations for behavior, games and activities that likely will generate prosocial behavior, role models of effective social interaction, guidance in social problem-solving and conflict resolution when needed, and opportunities to earn reinforcement for responsible, collaborative social behavior (Leff, Costigan, & Power, 2004). Further, to promote generalization across school and family situations, teachers invite parent participation and collaborate with parents on strategies to promote effective behavior control, emotion regulation, and social problem-solving.

Individualized Development Plans for all Students

A key principle of the Convention is to promote the comprehensive and optimal development of each child. Composing individualized development plans (IDPs) for each student is one way of operationalizing this principle (Hart & Hart, 2014). To be effective, IDPs require family involvement and stipulate long-term goals, short-term objectives, measureable outcomes, and specific activities linked with each objective. Also, IDPs should represent an agreement between the child, family, and school to implement the mutually developed plan and evaluate outcomes. Table 1 describes important characteristics of IDPs.

Learning Collaboratives to Improve School Mental Health Programs

Promoting the mental health of all students and developing children to the fullest extent possible require that school professionals are responsive to the priorities and values of community members who reside in the neighborhoods surrounding the school (Holloway & Kunesh, 2015). School professionals need to become engaged in meaningful partnerships with community members on an ongoing basis. These partnerships enable school professionals to understand and appreciate the culture of families living in nearby neighborhoods and develop plans to achieve key community priorities (Power, 2015). One method of doing so is to establish learning collaboratives, consisting of school professionals and key community stakeholders who are strongly invested in

Table 1 Characteristics of individualized development plans based on child rights principles

Dimension	Individualized development plans (IDP)
Targeted students	All students
Goal of plan	Progressive attainment of full potential and well-being of child
Scope of plan	Comprehensive/holistic – All aspects of development
Focus of goal-related activities	Assuring resources and their application to capacity and strengths development
Role of child	Full, active participant in planning, contributing, and monitoring; progressive attainment of management of IDP
Role of family	Active participant in planning, monitoring, and promoting for full development of unique personality of child
Role of school community	Resource mapping and coordinated support for full holistic development of child by child, family, school, faith community, and physical and mental health professionals
Mandate	Ethical and moral mandates for IDP integrity should be generated within school communities. IDP could be legally binding with federal enactment of policy change to establish commitment to the development of each and every child

the success of the school and high-quality education of its students.

Successful learning collaboratives incorporate the principles of participatory action research (Nastasi et al., 2004) to ensure that each member is fully engaged in the process and has an equal voice, the group has a shared mission, and the work of the group is directed to address consensually determined goals and objectives. Through learning collaboratives, school professionals, parents, and community members work on quality improvement projects designed to improve the mental health needs of each student in the school. Effective quality improvement projects are goal-directed, iterative, data-based, practical studies that follow the well-established plan-do-study-act methodology (Kilo, 1998). These projects are informed by important concerns in the school and community about the mental health needs of students and in turn inform future actions by the school and community.

Advocacy for Children's Mental Health

Educational practices, school resources, mental health services, and cross-system relationships between schools and health practices in the community are governed and shaped to a large extent by public policies that operate at the federal, state, and local levels. For example, educational laws pertaining to children with disabilities and special needs, which have been implemented in numerous countries, have revolutionized the way in which schools address the learning, behavioral, and emotional needs of students. These public policies have had a profound impact on the priorities of school districts, how schools operate, and how children's mental health needs are addressed in educational settings. Given the impact of public policy on school practice and resources, it is critically important for school psychologists and other school mental health professionals to advocate for policies that are consistent with the principles of the Child Rights Convention and that promote the development and mental health of all children.

Indicators of Progress

What indicators could be used to identify whether a school system is making progress in promoting children's mental health in schools based upon a human rights framework? Three domains of measures or indicators have been identified by the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2012); these include (a) structure (e.g., regulations and policies that govern school practice), (b) process (e.g., training programs, and prevention and intervention programs), and (c) outcomes at the level of the child (e.g., adult and peer relationships, academic engagement). Table 2 provides examples of indicators of progress related to children's mental health in each of these domains.

Table 2 Indicators of progress related to promoting mental health in schools

Domains of indicators	Examples of indicators
Structure	School policies that mandate individualized development plans to promote the mental health of each student School policies that mandate the investment of teachers in promoting family involvement to promote the mental health and education of students
Process	Universal programs in schools to promote the mental health of each student Training programs for educators in strategies to promote family involvement to foster children's mental health
Outcomes	Caring, responsive teacher-student relationship for each student Strong, collaborative family-school relationship for each student

Conclusions

Although the ethics and aspirations of the profession of school psychology clearly are consistent with the principles of the Convention, models of practice and implementation of these models generally fall short of these principles. The mission of schools and role of school psychologists have tended to be limited to a focus on discrete aspects of child development, in particular cognitive abilities and academic skills, and not the comprehensive development of the child, including the health, mental health, and moral domains. Further, school psychologists are commonly directed to provide children with an appropriate education, not necessarily one that will enable students to achieve their full potential. The Convention challenges the field of school psychology to question existing models and practices for promoting children's mental health.

A child rights orientation is rooted in numerous models and approaches developed in psychology, education, and medicine, which provide the framework for enabling the profession of school psychology to advance the principles of the Convention. These models include (a) family-centered education, emphasizing the critical importance of family involvement in schooling; (b) community-responsive education, affirming the need for school professionals to work in close partnership with community members to address the mental health needs of children from the neighborhoods surrounding the school; (c) social justice orientation, acknowledging variations in privilege and victimization that exist in schools and the right of all children to the support and resources needed to develop their full potential; (d) positive psychology, which emphasizes the assets of individuals and the contexts in which they develop, in contrast to their deficits, and advocates for the use of strategies that will enable individuals to flourish; (e) life course model, which stresses the critical importance of early life experiences to the development of the individual across the life span, thereby highlighting the need for children to develop self-regulation, stress management, and problem-solving skills; (f) multitier prevention model, highlighting the importance of providing prevention and interventions services to all children including those who are healthy, those with emerging risk, and those with demonstrated mental health problems; and (g) developmental-ecological model, affirming importance of relationships within and across systems for the developing child.

The chapter discussed several strategies rooted in these models to advance the tenets of the Convention. One strategy is to establish the school as the development home of the child, strongly connected with the personal home of the child in the family and the medical home of the child in pediatric primary care. When children's mental health needs cannot be addressed by the family, school, and primary care practice, the resources of public and private mental health agencies can be summoned to support these systems of care. Another strategy is for school administrators, school psychologists, and teachers to make a deep commitment to universal strategies to promote children's comprehensive development, including programming for the classroom, lunchroom, playground/sports field, community, and family. An additional method for advancing the principles of the Convention is for schools to require that an individualized development plan be developed for all students. This plan outlines goals, objectives, and strategies that will enable students to become their authentic selves and realize their full potential as learners and persons. Further, learning collaboratives consisting of school professionals and community members can be formed to develop and implement quality improvement projects that will enable the school to promote the mental health of each of its students. Finally, school mental health professionals need to evaluate the impact of current policies at the local, state/province/regional, and /national levels on child development and advocate for policy changes that will advance the principles of the Convention, thereby promoting for the comprehensive development of each child.

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Child Protection: A Child Rights Approach for Schools

Christina M. Fiorvanti and Marla R. Brassard

Abstract

This chapter describes how child protection – protecting children from abuse and neglect and promoting their well-being – is conceptualized in a child-rights informed school psychology practice framework. The goal of such practice is to prevent violence and neglect before it occurs by valuing all children and creating school environments and communities that promote their full development. This approach focuses on promotion and prevention by raising consciousness about human and child rights, creating open dialogue, teaching skills (including how to protect oneself from abuse and speak up if it occurs), building stronger relationships, implementing and evaluating effective policy, increasing child participation, and embracing advocacy – all of which improve school climates. When maltreatment does occur, the goal is to respond in a way that both protects *and* supports the child and the family. The chapter describes effective child protection practice from an international perspective, recommends country and local goal setting for monitoring progress relevant to child protection, lists resources organized by student age and tier in a multitier framework from universal prevention (i.e., tier 1) to targeted intensive intervention (i.e., tier 3), presents a case study to illustrate aspects of the framework, and calls for school psychologists to participate in integrated developmental and intervention science and advocacy as part of global efforts focused on child rights and children's well-being.

Clarification of Child Protection from a Child Rights Approach

"A child rights-based approach to child caregiving and protection requires a paradigm shift toward respecting and promoting the human dignity and the physical and psychological integrity of children as rights-bearing individuals rather than perceiving them primarily as 'victims'" (United Nations General Assembly, 2011, p. 3; this citation refers to General Comment 13 on Article 19, hereafter referred to as "General Comment 13"). This chapter describes how child protection – protecting children from abuse and neglect and promoting their well-being – is conceptualized in a child-rights informed school psychology practice framework. The goal of such

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practice is to prevent violence and neglect before it occurs by valuing all children and creating school environments and communities that promote their full development. However, when it does occur, the goal is to respond to maltreatment in a way that both protects *and* effectively supports the child and the family. School psychology, from a child-rights informed perspective, is inherently and importantly focused on universal prevention, early intervention, and promotion of child well-being, as outlined in *School Psychology: A Blueprint for Training and Practice III* (NASP, 2006; See also Hart & Hart, 2014). This approach focuses on promotion and prevention by raising consciousness about human and child rights, creating open dialogue, teaching skills (including how to protect oneself from abuse and speak up if it occurs), building stronger relationships, implementing effective policy, monitoring progress, and increasing child participation, all of which improve school climates.

Importance of Child Protection to School Psychology

In most parts of the world, children spend more time in schools than in any other organized setting outside of the family. In developed nations, students are at school generally half of their waking hours for half of the days each year for 12–13 years. In low-resource countries, many children have been unable to consistently attend school. The United Nations has made primary school enrollment a priority for low-resource countries, and now 93% of the world's children are enrolled at this level, with most out-of-school children in conflict-affected countries in the Middle East and North Africa or those in high population growth areas in sub-Saharan Africa (UNICEF, 2015). Because of the almost universal experience of schooling, school psychologists, embedded in the school context and serving the whole school as well as individual children, are well positioned to advocate for child-rights informed practices in schools and to serve as the first line of defense against violations of child protection. They are also in a primary position to collaborate with other community professionals, governmental, and nongovernmental organizations (NGO) in reaching out to children who are not yet attending school on a regular basis, as working toward consistent attendance for all children is a key step in allowing schools to achieve their maximum helping potential. When children attend school on any basis, schools are a prime location to deliver universal prevention, monitor each student, support parents, and provide early intervention and necessary support to maintain safe children and families.

"Schools are...capable of intervening to prevent or reduce physical, psychological, and sexual maltreatment, including exploitation, occurring within or outside the school; and capable of assisting in reducing or overcoming the negative child development consequences of maltreatment" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 15). On a more basic level, school has the capacity, and the responsibility, to be a safe, stable, supportive, structured, consistent, welcoming environment for all children, regardless of what is happening in the other parts of their lives. Offering all children a climate of respect in a safe environment where they feel heard and experience even one positive relationship has the potential to offset a tremendous amount of negative experience.

Historical Context for the Relationship Between School Psychology and Child Protection

From the beginning of school psychology's involvement in child rights, child protection has been a central focus for conceptualization of rights in a school context. In the 1970s, Cal Catterall established child rights advocacy within school psychology by spearheading a 35-nation promotion of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child as part of the International Year of the Child in 1979 (Catterall, 1979a, 1979b). Since then, school psychologists and school psychology organizations (International School Psychology Association, ISPA; National Association of School Psychologists, NASP; Division of School

Psychology in the American Psychological Association, APA) have played a major role in international and domestic efforts to enshrine child protection and the promotion of child well-being in the Convention (1989), in guiding "Comments" on articles and themes of the Convention (United Nations General Assembly, 2011, p. 3), in State Party law, in position statements (ISPA, NASP, and Division 16), and in conference themes at ISPA in 1979, 1983, 1991, and 2014 (Hart, 2014). School psychologists have taken a leading role in professional training on child rights for school psychology. In conjunction with the ISPA and Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO), the Tulane University School Psychology program developed a child rights curriculum for school psychologists.[1] In 2014, in celebration of the 25th anniversary of the Convention, all six US-based school psychology journals published one or more articles on the role of school psychology in applying child rights to critical issues (Mcloughlin & Hart, 2014), including child protection (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014).

Extant and Potential Benefits of Child Rights to Child Protection

Children are powerfully affected by the biopsychosocial contexts in which they develop, contexts that shape psychological and health outcomes throughout the lifespan. Research evidence is overwhelming that psychological, behavioral, and health problems co-occur and are significantly related to preventable conditions in childhood, including the following: (a) aversive social conditions and hostile interpersonal interactions, particularly all forms of parental maltreatment, exposure to spousal discord and domestic violence, bullying, and harsh school discipline; (b) toxic physical environment conditions, such as lead exposure, substance use during pregnancy, and poor nutrition; and (c) poverty (Biglan, Flay, Embry, & Sandler, 2012; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine of the National Academies, 2009). Longitudinal studies have found a strong relationship between subjection to more negative experiences in childhood and the occurrence of more mental and physical health problems (e.g., heart disease, depression, type 2 diabetes, obesity, cancer, chronic lung disease) resulting in a lower level of functioning in adulthood (e.g., Caspi, Harrington, Moffitt, Milne, & Poulton, 2006; Horwitz, Widom, McLaughlin, & White, 2001; Kessler, Davis, & Kendler, 1997; Schilling, Aseltine Jr., & Gore, 2007; Thomas, Hypponen, & Power, 2008). The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Study explored this relationship in close to 10,000 individuals and found a significant graded relationship between negative and harmful exposures in childhood and the development of health risk factors, mental illness, and life-threatening medical conditions, meaning the greater number of traumas experienced as a child, the greater the amount and degree of health and psychological problems over one's lifespan (Felitti et al., 1998.) Adverse experiences during childhood greatly increase one's likelihood of struggling with lifelong conditions.

Studies are rapidly identifying the mechanisms through which childhood experiences become "biologically embedded" (Hertzman, 1999), including evidence from neuroscience, epigenetics, molecular biology, and genomics (Essex et al., 2013; Shonkoff & Fisher, 2013). Early experiences appear to affect later adult health through cumulative damage over time that accelerates normal aging and/or through adverse environmental conditions during sensitive periods (Shonkoff, Boyce, & McEwen, 2009). Children exposed to toxic stressors, such as child maltreatment, a mentally ill or substance abusing parent, or domestic violence, have altered brain development, including neuroendocrine and immune functioning, implicated in impaired ability to learn as well as adult chronic diseases (see Jaffee & Christian, 2014, for a recent review). The compelling evidence that "many common chronic and mental disorders have modifiable precursors that arise during childhood" has led to a call for "life-course health policy" (Forrest & Riley, 2004, p. 155), with "adult disease prevention that begins with reducing early toxic stress" (Shonkoff et al., 2009, p. 2256).

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[1] The training manual is available as an online accompanying resource to this volume. See also Tulane University Child Rights Team (TURC, 2013) and Table 2 for information about the self-study version.

The negative implications of adverse childhood experiences and childhood trauma, including poor health outcomes, mental health concerns, difficulties with emotional regulation, limited executive functioning skills, and poor social skills, contribute tremendously to limit and corrupt one's ability to become a functioning adult who can establish loving relationships and contribute meaningfully to society. In this regard, promotion of child well-being and prevention of adverse experiences for children carry long-term and widespread reach and have the potential to interrupt intergenerational transmission. A promotive and preventive, child-rights informed approach to child protection promises to not only greatly reduce the amount of human suffering and associated negative outcomes but also to minimize cost involved with "managing" lifelong conditions, which is much greater than the cost to prevent them.

INSPIRE: Seven Strategies for Ending Violence Against Children (2016), an evidence-based resource for protecting children from violence published by the World Health Organization with the contribution of eight other globally oriented organizations (e.g., World Bank, Center for Disease Control and Prevention, UNICEF), perfectly illustrates such a preventative and promotive approach. INSPIRE aims to help countries attain their Sustainable Development Goals for 2030 (SDGs, described below) and support the Convention by identifying critical priorities that are amenable to intervention with current resources and making these resources widely available. Among the seven strategies are Education and Life Skills, with subgoals of increasing school enrollment, providing a safe and enabling school environment, improving children's knowledge of how to protect themselves from child sexual abuse, teaching life skills and social training, and preventing adolescent intimate partner violence by mobilizing all stakeholders to do their part.

Exploration and Illumination of the Relevance of Child Rights Principles to Child Protection

The Convention articulates many Child Rights Principles that are relevant to child protection on the whole, as well as the role of school psychology in child protection. While the entire document is important to the implementation of a child-rights informed approach, principles of particular significance to this chapter include (labeled here to recognize central meanings):

- Article 2 The Right to be Treated Fairly Without Discrimination
- Article 12 The Right to be Heard and Participate
- Article 19 The Right to Freedom from Violence
- Article 20 The Right to Special Care for Those Without Family
- Article 28 The Right to an Education
- Article 29 The Right to Education That Promotes Optimal Development and Respect for the Rights of Others
- Article 32 The Right to Fair and Safe Working Conditions
- Article 34 The Right to Protection from Sexual Exploitation
- Article 35 The Right to Protection from Abduction and Trafficking
- Article 36 The Right to Protection from all Exploitation
- Article 42 The Right to Knowledge About One's Rights (UN General Assembly, 1989)

The ideals and goals put forth in these articles work in conjunction to advocate for the protection and nurturance of children in our school communities. The rights of children laid out in the Convention go far beyond condemning maltreatment and injustice; they promote children's rights to survival, dignity, well-being, health, development, and education. While Articles 19 and 32–36 speak specifically to the protection of children from all forms of violence and exploitation, the other cited articles articulate conditions to which children are entitled that support their positive development and lay the groundwork for schools and communities in which all students feel respected, respect others, and have the skills to succeed. This is the foundation for child-rights informed child protection.

While we strive for all children to receive the rights of the Convention, it is critical to the feasibility of this mission to clarify that the ideals expressed in these rights are necessarily realized in different ways across the world. The United Nations recognizes that each country's goals relative to the Convention are affected by their level of development. The World Bank has categorized countries by their income level, primarily using gross national income per capita (https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519). These designations are used by world organizations in their reports on progress toward initiatives, such as those expressed in the 17 Sustainable Development Goals for 2030 (http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals) adopted in September 2015 to end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure prosperity for all; and Convention implementation (e.g., UNICEF, World Health Organization). Low-resource countries might focus their child protection efforts on ensuring that all children are registered at birth, so that they are eligible for citizenship, health care, and schooling, and preventing the child marriage of girls (UNICEF, 2015). The Child Protection and Advocacy Project Model offers a comprehensive intervention framework for community leaders in low-resource countries that are interested in strengthening child protection and prevention systems, including building capacities in the children themselves (World Vision International, 2012). Medium resource countries might focus on implementing already adopted child protection laws for reporting and intervention, training teachers in positive discipline, or preventing school staff's sexual and physical abuse of children (UNICEF, 2012). High-resource countries may focus on preventing bullying by peers (Bradshaw, 2015) and implementing evidenced-based interventions to prevent child maltreatment (Brassard & Fiorvanti, 2015; Sanders & Kirby, 2014; Wolfe et al., 2009; Wolfe, Crooks, Hughes, & Jaffe, 2001). Countries at all resource levels may have some interventions in place to prevent child sexual abuse, exploitation, and trafficking (Plummer, 2013). It is important to acknowledge that the variability of resources and protection within each category (e.g., high resource) can be as great as the variability across categories. For example, rich countries have pockets of extreme poverty and child residents experiencing many violations to their rights, while poor countries have groups of children who are well protected. Across the world, regardless of resource level, marginalized communities and groups are at the greatest risk for victimization.

Building the Foundation for Child Protection and Promotion

While this chapter focuses on the role of child rights-oriented school psychologists serving preschool through high school populations, we cannot wait to intervene until children are in school. In order to truly realize the potential for a child rights framework to revolutionize child protection, early intervention is key; kindergarten is too late for children born into adversity. The epigenetic effects of parental stress and health prior to conception and during the prenatal period (Lane, Robker, & Robertson, 2014) and the effects on children of growing up in low-income environments and with less educated parents are linked to differences in brain development that place children at a disadvantage before they start school (Noble et al., 2015). Children who are subjected to more adverse childhood experiences (including all types of abuse, exposure to domestic violence, and living with adults who have been incarcerated or have mental illness or substance abuse issues) are more likely to develop depression, suicidality, substance abuse problems, and illnesses like cancer and heart disease, in adulthood (Felitti et al., 1998.) Negative childhood exposures set the stage for a lifetime of increased risk.

Universal prenatal care for all women and universal health care for children, including developmental and mental health screenings at well-child checkups, are critical starting points (Briggs et al., 2012). Changing cultural norms about use of violence by caregivers is also critical, knowing that prevalence of caregiver use of severe violence with young children varies tremendously across countries, even those at similar income levels (Lansford & Deater-Deckard, 2012). Home visiting programs (MacMillan et al., 2005), early intervention as needed, and high-quality preschools for all who wish to attend help to bolster children's social-emotional and cognitive development so that they are ready to learn and get along with others. Ensuring that children get to school consistently is a key step in meeting the needs of all children, particularly those who are at risk. There is an education dosage effect that most strongly impacts poor students in the early grades; being present really matters. Unfortunately, poor children are five times more likely to miss school than children from wealthy households (UNICEF, 2015), often because of child or caregiver health problems (Ready, 2010), the economic needs of the family for the child's labor, inability of the family to pay school fees, or war. Notably, being present at school does not necessarily mean that students are ready to learn. The experience of trauma, abuse, neglect, and poverty have significant impact on the brain's ability to learn, remember, process, and organize itself; students exposed to trauma have more trouble concentrating and completing schoolwork (National Child Traumatic Stress Network, www.nctsn.org). To be effective, schools need the children they serve to be healthy and mentally prepared to attend school, including being well-rested, fed, and psychologically safe.

Application of Child Rights to Child Protection for School Psychologists: Individual Practice, Systems Level Efforts, and Advocacy

The key efforts by which a child-rights approach to child protection is realized for the field of school psychology, including individual professional practice, systems level efforts, and advocacy work, rest on building safe, positive school climates through universal prevention and early intervention. A child-rights approach to child protection has a dual focus on preventing harm and promoting well-being for all students. While it is essential for schools to be prepared to provide appropriate and timely responses to incidents of abuse and harm (Crosson-Tower, 2003), this chapter proposes a more expansive conceptualization of child protection where schools assume the role of educating students to be self-respecting individuals and respectful community members. In order to truly end child maltreatment, it is critical to provide every child with a safe environment in which to learn the rights to which they are entitled, to fully grasp their responsibility to respect the rights of others, and to develop the social-emotional skills to form positive relationships and solve problems in constructive ways.

The course through which schools can achieve the aforementioned goals take a variety of forms: awareness, dialogue, training, relationships, participation, policy, environment, evaluation, and advocacy. Recommendations at the general level are made here to guide schools to create a climate in which individuals in the school community are informed about child rights and child protection, engage in conversations about child rights and child protection, impart children with skills to form positive relationships, act independently and function in a way that respects others' rights, apply inclusive policy that protects the rights of all, monitor progress, and work toward continued improvement. As stated above, these processes are essential and necessary in striving toward the protection of all children from harm and the promotion of well-being and competency for all students. Specific recommendations are also provided here for school psychologists in supporting families at risk for child maltreatment or other adverse childhood experiences and responding in the most effective way to suspected incidents of abuse and neglect. See Table 1 for a case example illustrating how a school psychologist might implement the various forms of child promotion and protection in a real-world situation.

Table 1 Case example illustrating the use of a child-rights informed approach in school psychology

Case example	Using a child-rights informed approach to nurture teacher-student relationships, promote positive discipline, and prevent psychological maltreatment
The story	Addie waited anxiously as Ms. Snow returned the English papers, hoping for good news to bring home to her mom. Ms. Snow came to her row and handed her the paper with an exasperated look on her face. “You didn’t put much time into it, did you?” Ms. Snow said loudly enough for everyone else to hear. A few of the children smirked at the comment. Addie was mortified and angry. Not only did she get a bad grade, the teacher embarrassed her in front of her classmates. She grabbed the paper and marched toward the door. “Why should I care about this class? It’s boring and you’re a terrible teacher!” Ms. Snow was upset at Addie’s disrespectful comment. She wrote Addie a detention for her behavior. Frustrated and helpless, Addie stopped coming to class altogether
The solution	The key principles of a child-rights informed approach to child protection can be implemented in combination to address the violation of this student’s rights and help to prevent future violations of rights for this student and others
Awareness	The first step in preventing and addressing psychological maltreatment by teachers is to help teachers understand what it looks like, how it impacts students, and what it means to respect students’ and humans’ rights. A model example of this process was demonstrated by Bajaj (2011) in southern India. Teachers participated in a human rights education program that educated them about common child rights violations in schools and allowed them to examine their own actions and relationships. The program significantly improved the teachers’ relationships with their students and their students’ families and communities. Teachers must be made aware of the prevalence of violations of child rights occurring in schools and the negative outcomes of children who experience psychological maltreatment. Psychological maltreatment is the most common form of maltreatment experienced within schools and it often has a lasting, devastating impact on psychological well-being and everyday functioning (Hart & Hart, 2014). Furthermore, students who experience teacher victimization are more likely to be victims of peer bullying and are at risk for numerous psychological and health problems (Khoury-Kassabri, 2011). We can help teachers like Ms. Snow to become personally aware and invested in the significance of respecting human rights and, therefore, of respecting child rights. One way to do this is to help Ms. Snow imagine how she would feel in Addie’s situation and think about how she would have wanted the situation handled herself
Dialogue	Create an honest dialogue within the school community so that students can share concerns openly, colleagues can broach the issue with teachers, and teachers can ask for help in dealing with particularly challenging students. Integral to accomplishing this is to communicate two messages to everyone in the school community. The first is that psychological abuse (e.g., contempt, destructive criticism) is the most damaging thing one can do to a relationship – it is toxic – and it has harmful psychological and physical consequences for the person targeted (Brassard & Donovan, 2006; Gottman, 2001; Hart et al., 2011). The second is that resolving conflicts constructively brings people closer and makes them want to cooperate with one another. If her school is able to communicate these messages to all staff and set the precedent that individuals will be supported rather than punished, it is possible for Ms. Snow’s colleagues to approach her about this situation and support her to remedy the problem. For example, when Ms. Snow vents to another teacher about her frustration with Addie, the teacher can empathize with Ms. Snow’s experience and ask Ms. Snow what she would like to see happen with Addie. More likely than not, Ms. Snow wants Addie to return to class and wants her to become more engaged. The colleague can share an experience when she found that improving the relationship with a student accomplished these goals. She could then offer tips to Ms. Snow about how to improve her relationship with Addie.
	Not every school psychologist or teacher would feel comfortable having such a conversation with a colleague and certainly not every colleague would be receptive. Sometimes incidents have to be reported to a supervisor who can meet to discuss the incident in a nonjudgmental manger, acknowledging that behaviors can be misinterpreted. Regardless of the teacher’s response, the supervisor must make it clear that it is the teacher’s responsibility to take steps to make sure that others do not misinterpret the behavior as psychologically abusive. The principal can offer suggestions to the teacher for improving their relationship with the student. If this standard is modeled and enforced, the norms of a school community change and conform to psychologically positive standards, including teachers asking for support when needed.

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Case example	Using a child-rights informed approach to nurture teacher-student relationships, promote positive discipline, and prevent psychological maltreatment
	After Ms. Snow is made aware that she hurt Addie's feelings and engaged in psychological maltreatment, she can begin to remedy the situation by broaching it with Addie privately and apologizing for her actions. She can share her own hurt feelings and ask Addie for her ideas about how to improve their relationship. The Collaborative and Proactive Solutions Approach is a helpful model for problem-solving with students who display challenging behaviors (Greene, 2008). In addition, Ms. Snow will be more successful if she uses a soft (versus hard) start up to begin, uses "I" statements, and avoids blaming or criticism (Gottman, 1999). Emotion coaching and constructive conflict resolution should be modeled and taught as part of administrator, school psychologist, and teacher training programs and school curriculum at all levels (for particularly accessible material for parents and teachers, respectively, see Faber & Mazlish, 2012; Faber, 1995; their approach is effective with adult-adult relationships as well)
Relationships	Relationships with teachers are an important component of school engagement and connectedness. Addie and Ms. Snow clearly have a strained relationship and would benefit from working to improve their partnership. Evidence-based programs and resources are available that train teachers how to establish stronger relationships with their students and how to manage classroom behavior in a respectful, nurturing manner (see Table 2). Other programs train teachers to assess the peer ecology and act in ways that promote children's social development (Hamm, Framer, Dadisman, Gravelle, & Murray, 2011; Pianta, Mashburn, Downer, Hamm, & Justice, 2008), resulting in better outcomes, perhaps through building teachers' empathy for victims and reducing their tolerance for aggressors (Saarento, Boulton, & Salmivalli, 2015; Troop-Gordon, 2015). If Ms. Snow can empathize with Addie's situation and consider the many factors that may have impacted Addie's lack of engagement in her class, she can begin to consider how to effectively engage Addie and how to rebuild her trust and respect
Student participation	If we give them the opportunity, students can tell us how they have been treated and how they would like to be treated. Classroom meetings are a Tier 1 support that provides an opportunity for students to share experiences in a safe, open forum, discuss ideas for how the situation could have played out differently or how the situation could be improved moving forward, and practice positive verbal problem-solving skills. However, it can be a challenge, especially initially, to create a safe space where students can honestly report teacher psychological maltreatment (or inappropriate sexual behavior or physical abuse) without negative repercussions. One option is to establish a student committee where students can anonymously report mistreatment by adults and other peers at school and brainstorm possible solutions (Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). Another practice that can help ensure psychological maltreatment of students is acknowledged and addressed when it occurs is to conduct ongoing surveillance of violence and well-being within the school community twice a year. Using brief, anonymous surveys that allow students, teachers, and staff to report on how they are treated, their treatment of others, and their sense of personal well-being and school belonging is a way to include everyone's opinion and experience in maintaining a psychologically and physically safe school climate
School policy	It is essential that schools have policies outlining the expectations for all school community members to uphold the rights of others, along with the provision of education and training when violations occur. Students should be involved in choosing classroom rules that apply to both students and teachers and ensure that everyone receive the respect they deserve. Ms. Snow might spend a portion of class allowing the students to brainstorm some rules and expectations that will help them to learn better and be more successful in her class. When the class has set rules against psychological maltreatment, such as "Use kind words with others" and "Treat others with respect," it is easier for a student like Addie to express her concern with the teacher's comment
School climate	When schools are able to embrace a child-rights informed framework by building awareness, creating open dialogue, improving relationships, giving students a voice, and implementing positive policies, school climate thrives

Awareness

Awareness involves educating all members of the school and local community about child rights and the relationship between child rights and child protection. It is important to note that training teachers and other staff members to notice the warning signs of abuse and know when and how to report to a child protection agency is necessary but not sufficient to a child-rights informed approach to child protection. Brassard and Rivelis (2006) offer detailed expertise in guiding school personnel to recognize the common symptoms of abuse at different developmental stages of the child, to identify parent behaviors that suggest cause for concern, to report in ways that maximize the likelihood that a supportive relationship can be maintained with the family, and to better understand how the experience of abuse significantly impacts student behavior, social skills, and academic performance at all ages. With the simultaneous goals of preventing harm to children and promoting their well-being and optimal development, awareness means that all staff members, students, and parents understand the rights of children and their own roles in protecting and promoting these rights. It is critical that all community members, from teachers to bus drivers to cafeteria workers, not only gain awareness for child rights, but also have their consciousness raised about human rights on a personal and meaningful level (See Table 1; Bajaj, 2011; Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014). The invaluable impact of connections and strong positive relationships with adults at school, as well as the significant negative effects of violations of child rights, should be highlighted to staff members. It is important that everyone in the school community be informed about the tremendous impact on society of protecting and promoting children's rights as well as the significance of their role in achieving this goal (Crosson-Tower, 2003) and the devastating impact when teachers, in particular, are perpetrators of abuse (e.g., Brendgen, Wanner, & Vitaro, 2006; UNICEF, 2012).

An essential step in building awareness is to educate children and their parents about the rights of children and how they can help uphold those rights. School-based child abuse prevention programs address many of these goals, including educating students, teachers, and parents about child's rights; raising the topic for safe discussion; helping students gain awareness about when their rights are being violated; and teaching students the skills to take a stand and ask for help (See Table 2 for programs appropriate for all ages and child-friendly materials on child rights).

Dialogue

Dialogue involves building a mechanism for the open, honest, and regular discussion of child rights and child protection in schools. These discussions can take place in various forms and should involve all school community members. By approaching child protection from a child rights standpoint where the needs of the child as a whole are considered, the emphasis can move from responding to suspected abuse to engaging in ongoing dialogue about how to best support the child and family. School psychologists and teachers must feel prepared to broach a productive and positive discussion with parents about their concerns and build an honest dialogue with students.

Ideally, these conversations should focus on ideas for supporting and helping the family and begin long before a call is made to child protective services (See Table 1; Brassard & Rivelis, 2006, and Crosson-Tower, 2003, offer specific examples of starting dialogue with children and families). It is critical that teachers and school psychologists set the stage for open discussions about child protection and other mental health needs by building strong, positive, trustful relationships with families from the start of the school year (Family-School Partnership Model: Lines, Miller, & Arthur-Stanley, 2011). The Second Step Child Protection Unit, Talking about Touching, and Safe Child programs offer educational materials for teachers and parents to help them feel comfortable talking about abuse and safety with children (See Table 2 for citations).

Research indicates that teachers are the most likely professionals to whom children disclose

Table 2 Evidence-based interventions and resources for school psychologists implementing a child rights approach

Area for development	Evidence-based interventions and other valuable resources	Target population	Citation and/or website
Guidance for professionals on human and child rights education	Tulane University Child Rights Team Curriculum[a]	School psychologists	Tulane University Child Rights Team (TUCRT) (2013)
	A human rights-based approach to education for all	All school staff	UNICEF (2007a), http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/A_Human_Rights_Based_Approach_to_Education_for_All.pdf
	A model code on education and dignity: Presenting a human rights framework for schools	All school staff	Dignity in Schools Campaign (2013), www.dignityinschools.org/files/Model_Code_2013.pdf
	Human rights education for teachers	Teachers and teacher educators	Bajaj (2011)
Education and awareness for students	Child-friendly version of the convention on the rights of the child	Students in grade K to 8th	UNICEF (undated-a), https://www.unicef.org/rightsite/files/uncrcchilldfriendlylanguage.pdf
	Youth for human rights free information kits	Students ages 10–17 years	Youth for Human Rights (2002–2017), http://www.youthforhumanrights.org/freeinfo.html
	Children's bill of rights	Students in grade K to 8th	Children's Bill of Rights Secretariat (1996), http://www.newciv.org/ncn/cbor.html
	Safe you and safe me Child-friendly version of the study on violence against children	Students ages 7–12 years	Save the Children (2006), http://srsg.violenceagainstchildren.org/sites/default/files/images/childrens_corner/Safe_You_and_Safe_Me.pdf
	Adolescent-friendly version of the study on violence against children	Students ages 12–18 years	UNICEF (undated-c), http://www.unicef.org/violencestudy/pdf/Study%20on%20Violence_Child-friendly.pdf
Open dialogue	Glasser's classroom meetings	Students in grades K to 12th (briefer meetings for younger students)	Erwin (2004); Glasser (1969)
	Just Community approach	Students in grades fifth to 12th	Power and Higgins-D'Alessandro (2008)
	Teaching students to be peacemakers	Students in grades K to 12th	Johnson and Johnson (2002)
Safety skill development for students	Stay safe program	Students in grades pre-K to 6th	MacIntyre and Lawlor (1991), http://www.staysafe.ie
	Safe child program	Students in grades pre-K to 3rd	Kraizer and Coalition for Children (1994–2005), SafeChild.org
	Talking about touching	Students in grade pre-K to 3rd	Committee for Children (1985–2001), www.cfchildren.org/child-protection/talking-about-touching
	Safe dates [b]tiers 1 and 2	Students in grades 6th to 12th	Foshee and Langwick (2004)
	Fourth R [b]tiers 1 and 2	Students in grades 6th to 12th	Wolfe et al. (2001), www.youthrelationships.org

Social-emotional skill development	Classroom-based social emotional learning programs (CASEL)	Students of all ages and school staff	Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL; undated) www.casel.org
	Positive behavioral interventions and supports [b]all tiers	Students of all ages	Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports: OSEP Technical Assistance Center (undated), www.pbis.org
	Second Step: Student Success Through Prevention Program [b]tiers 1 and 2	Students in grades pre-K to 8th	Committee for Children (2008), http://www.cfchildren.org/second-step
	Incredible Years classroom dinosaur curriculum [b]tiers 1 and 2	Students ages 3–8 years	Webster-Stratton (2011), http://incredibleyears.com/programs/
	Center on the social and emotional foundations of early learning (CSEFEL) [b]tiers 1 and 2	Students ages 0–5 years and their teachers/parents	Center on the Social and Emotional Foundations of Early Learning (CSEFEL; undated), http://csefel.vanderbilt.edu/
	Head Start Trauma Smart [b]all tiers	Preschoolers and their caregivers/school staff	Holmes, Levy, Smith, Pinne, and Neese (2015), http://traumasmart.org/
Training and skill development for parents and teachers	*Incredible Years* parent programs and *Incredible Years* teacher classroom Management program [b]all tiers	Parents of children ages 1–12 years; teachers of children ages 1–8 years	Webster-Stratton (2006, 2012), http://incredibleyears.com/programs/
	Triple P Positive Parenting Program [b]all tiers	Parents of children ages 0–16	Sanders et al. (1998), http://www.triplep-parenting.net/
	Early Childhood Mental Health Consultation [b]tiers 1 and 2	Parents and school staff for children ages 0–5 years	Georgetown University Center for early childhood mental health consultation (CECMHC; undated), http://ecmhc.org/
	The *Collaborative and Proactive Solutions* (previously collaborative problem-solving) model: CPS [b]tiers 2 and 3	Parents and teachers of children ages 6–16	Greene (2008, undated), http://cpsconnection.com/, http://livesinthebalance.org/
	NCTSN *Caring for Children who Have Experienced Trauma* workshop [b]tiers 1 and 2	Foster and adoptive parents	National Child Traumatic Stress Network (2010), http://www.nctsn.org/products/caring-for-children-who-have-experienced-trauma
	Calmer Classrooms [b]tiers 1 and 2	Teachers and school staff of students of all ages	Downey (2007), http://www.traumainformedcareproject.org/resources/calmer_classrooms.pdf
	Fix School Discipline Toolkit for Educators [b]all tiers	Teachers and school staff of students of all ages	Public Counsel (undated), http://fixschooldiscipline.org/info@fixschooldiscipline.org
Relationship building and bullying prevention	*Check and Connect* [b]tiers 2 and 3	Students in grades K-12	Institute of Community Integration at University of Minnesota (undated), http://checkandconnect.umn.edu/
	Peer group connection	Students in grades 5–12	Center for Supportive Schools (undated), http://supportiveschools.org/solutions/peer-group-connection/
	Fourth R [b]tiers 1 and 2	Students in grades 6th to 12th	Wolfe et al. (2001), www.youthrelationships.org
	Steps to respect: A bullying prevention program	Students in grades K-3	Committee for Children (2001), http://www.cfchildren.org/steps-to-respect
	Second Step: Student Success through Prevention Program [b]tiers 1 and 2	Students in grades pre-K to 8th	Committee for Children (2008), http://www.cfchildren.org/second-step

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Area for development	Evidence-based interventions and other valuable resources	Target population	Citation and/or website
Child participation	*A framework for monitoring and evaluating children's participation: A preparatory draft for piloting*	Teachers and school staff of students of all ages	Lansdown (2011), crin.org
	SoundOut school consulting	Teachers and school staff of students of all ages	Fletcher (2013), http://www.SoundOut.org
	PARTNERS youth violence prevention program	Students ages 10–16 years	Leff et al. (2010)
	Friends to friends intervention	Students in grades 3rd through 5th	Leff et al. (2009)
	Speak Out, Listen Up! Tools for using student perspectives and local data for school improvement	Teachers and school staff of students of all ages	Harris et al. (2014), https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs/regions/west/pdf/REL_2014035.pdf
School climate	*Best Practices: Building Blocks for Enhancing School Environment* [b]tiers 1 and 2	Teachers and school staff of students of all ages	Blum (2007)
	School culture scale (SCS)	Students in grades 6th to 12th	Higgins-D'Alessandro and Sadh (1998)
	Indicators of preferences for school safety survey (IPSS)	Students in grades 6th to 12th	Booren and Handy (2009)

[a] Curriculum materials consist of a training manual, available online as an accompanying resource to this volume in addition to the self-study manual referenced in the table

[b] Indicates tier(s) for which this intervention can be used. If no indication, intervention is Tier 1 (universal prevention)

abuse; they should be prepared to have that conversation with students and families, and knowledgeable about next steps (Brassard & Rivelis, 2006). It is typically more effective for professionals to maintain a stance of genuine concern and curiosity to gather information in an objective way, rather than to immediately assume wrongdoing.

In addition to dialogue about child protection specifically, it is equally critical that students learn the communication and problem-solving skills that will allow them to engage in meaningful, productive relationships and to advocate for themselves. Students should learn about and participate in classroom activities related to their rights starting as young as possible. School-wide and classroom meetings can be held where individuals raise issues and discuss them together in a safe environment with an emphasis on democratic decision-making, problem-solving, and personal responsibility to the common good (Just Community Approach: Power & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2008; Glasser's Classroom Meetings: Glasser, 1969; Erwin, 2004). Starting in preschool, it is critical that students begin to learn how to recognize and communicate their thoughts and feelings and to use verbal problem-solving strategies to deal with problems, rather than aggression or avoidance (e.g., CSEFEL, Incredible Years Dino School, Second Step; see Table 2). Dialogue includes daily classroom discussions and continues through all grades. Teaching these skills universally prepares all students to communicate their feelings and ask for help should a situation arise in which their rights were violated and abuse was occurring.

Relationships

There is no element more important for child protection than positive relationships. Sometimes connections develop naturally, but often we must impart individuals with the skills to build strong, respectful relationships. Programs are available to help support teachers and parents to build strong relationships with children with whom they have more trouble connecting (e.g., Collaborative and Proactive Solutions; see Table 2). For students, evidence-based programs that teach social-emotional skills, self-regulation, social skills, coping skills, conflict resolution, problem-solving skills, and communication should be implemented starting in preschool (e.g., Classroom-Based Social Emotional Learning Programs; see Table 2). The evidence showing the benefits of such universal programs in improving academic functioning, social skills, attitudes, and indications of well-being is quite strong (see Taylor, Oberle, Durlak, & Weissberg, 2017, for a recent meta-analysis of 82 school-based social emotional learning programs, 38 outside of the United States). School-wide positive behavior initiatives encourage all school members to practice pro-social values, such as respect, kindness, generosity, compassion, loyalty, and empathy (e.g., Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; see Table 2).

Strengthening relationships among and between students, teachers, and other school community members are also key elements in creating a positive, respectful, and safe school environment (Blum, 2007). Close relationships with students allow teachers to accurately monitor student progress and provide support when necessary. Informed monitoring is particularly critical in addressing the potential for students to harm themselves and others, and to make the appropriate referrals for intervention and support (Hart & Hart, 2014). Crosson-Tower (2003) offers guidance to educators on their role in child protection, from identification to reporting to supporting children and families afterwards. The strength of parent-teacher relationships is significantly related to parent's willingness to support and work with teachers and schools to meet shared goals (Fiorvanti, 2015; Stoner & Angell, 2006).

Training

Beyond building awareness, it is essential to teach professionals, teachers, parents, students, and community members the skills necessary to foster a child-rights informed school. The process of training practicing school psychologists and trainees to undertake the role of child-rights informed school psychologists is discussed in a later section. Evidence-based prevention programs should be implemented to educate students of all ages about their right to be protected and to teach them practical skills to help keep themselves safe from maltreatment and violence (e.g., Second Step Child Protection Unit; Stay Safe Program; Talking about Touching; see Table 2; see Brassard & Fiorvanti, 2015, for a recent review of elementary and preschool programs). These programs empower children to stand up to adults when their rights are being violated and to feel safe speaking up and asking for help. Universal prevention programs focused on child rights and protection and social-emotional learning play a particularly critical role in addressing child protection because they reach students who may not have been identified as needing individual support. Estimates suggest that many students who are experiencing abuse and neglect will not be identified; universal programs can educate these children, teach them important protective skills, and instill them with the courage to ask for help (Brassard & Rivelis, 2006; Brassard, Rivelis, & Diaz, 2009). It is equally important that we teach students about the rights of others and train them to uphold their responsibility to respect others' rights; these skills will allow them to develop strong relationships and become better citizens (e.g., Fourth R; Just Community Approach; Safe Dates; see Table 2).

School staff and parents should be educated about the effects that trauma and maltreatment can have on children and should be taught how to support children who have experienced trauma and are exhibiting challenging behaviors as a result (e.g., Calmer Classrooms; Head Start Trauma Smart; NCTSN Caring for Children who Have Experienced Trauma Workshop; see Table 2). Parents and teachers often struggle to manage challenging behavior problems while maintaining a positive relationship and respecting the rights of children. Research has demonstrated that evidence-based parenting education programs can be an effective intervention for parents involved with the child welfare system (Beckmann, Knitzer, Cooper, & Dicker, 2010; Marcynyszyn, Maher, & Corwin, 2011). Schools can offer universal programs to teach parents and educators effective behavior management and relationship-building skills, as well as consultation to support adults to implement these skills under the stress of dealing with challenging behaviors. Triple P Positive Parenting Program for parents (Sanders, Turner, & Markie-Dadds, 1998) and the Incredible Years program (Webster-Stratton, 2006) for parents, teachers, and children are evidence-based tiered models appropriate for varying levels of intervention and compatible with the cognitive-behavioral training models of many school psychology programs. School psychologists may choose to incorporate more child rights' concepts into these programs, particularly the importance of child participation and respecting children's voices. Certain child abuse prevention programs, such as the Second Step Child Protection Unit, include modules for staff training to support all school personnel in recognizing the signs of abuse and responding appropriately (see Table 2). It is important that all staff be trained to identify abuse and respond effectively and that school psychologists be trained to provide evidence-based interventions or make referrals for appropriate treatment (see Brassard et al., 2009, for guidance to school psychologists on evidence-based treatment for trauma and abuse depending on an individual student's presenting concerns). Finally, it is impossible for teachers to support students when they are themselves burnt out and exhausted; schools must support educators in managing the stress of their jobs and practicing self-care. School psychologists offer critical consultation to teachers in all of these situations.

Participation

School psychologists working from a child-rights perspective strive to empower students by giving them a voice and a choice in their lives. Schools around the world are typically top-down institutions, where adults make decisions that impact students; a child-rights informed school is collaborative, with adults and students forming partnerships and making decisions together. Giving students a meaningful voice in the school community and stronger relationships with teachers increases their feelings of agency, belonging, and competence (Mitra, 2004). In terms of child protection, one can reasonably expect that children who are allowed to, and encouraged to, express their views on matters that affect them would be more likely to communicate their thoughts and feelings, giving them the tools to protect themselves and seek help as needed. Children growing up in communities where no one asks their opinions or listens to their concerns learn that their voices do not matter and that the things that happen to them are not in their control. Students who report that adults at school do not listen to their views or value their opinions feel powerless and subsequently disengage from school by not applying themselves or dropping out (Mitra, 2004). In contrast, when students have input into the decisions and policies of their schools, they are more invested, feel more connected to their schools, and take more ownership for creating change (Lee & Zimmerman, 1999; Mitra, 2004; Fletcher, 2013). Child-rights informed approaches to school psychology not only teach children about their rights but also help students to understand their responsibilities to respect the rights of others and work toward a common good (e.g., Just Community Approach; Glasser's Classroom Meetings; see Table 2).

Policy

First and foremost, every school would benefit from adopting the Convention as part of school policy and vision, particularly in the United States where the Convention has not been ratified on a national level. Promotion and prevention efforts should be required for every school, including annual and integrated curricula that teach children and adolescents about their rights and how to protect themselves from abuse and to not abuse others (see erinslaw.org; Brassard & Fiorvanti, 2015; Foshee et al., 2004). One prevention program, the Second Step Child Protection Unit, includes an administrator module with guidance in developing informed child protection policies and procedures (Committee for Children, 2014). School administrators can also explore examples of independent school policies on child protection for schools around the world (Association of International Schools in Africa, 2014; Department of Education Northern Ireland, 1999). In particular, the International Task Force on Child Protection offers helpful materials for schools in thoughtfully assessing their current child protection policies and determining necessary steps toward better policies and procedures (Engelbrecht, 2014). Schools should also be aware of federal policies related to child protection services in their country; for example, in the United States, the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act (CAPTA) provides funding for prevention, intervention, and research related to child protection (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2011). Plummer (2013) explores the cultural considerations surrounding child abuse prevention policies and efforts.

It is essential that staff in every school receive training to notice the signs of abuse. All schools should implement mandated reporting policies that are culturally informed and focused on supporting both the victims and perpetrators and teaching new skills to prevent the same occurrence from happening again, rather than on punishment that only serves to make the relationship worse. Guidance for school personnel in involving families and preserving family-school relationships when reporting suspected abuse can be found in Brassard and Rivelis (2006). It should be clearly understood within schools that reporting suspected abuse is necessary but not sufficient, as it serves a reactive function rather than promotive and preventive. The ultimate goal of identifying and reporting abuse is always to provide support and appropriate intervention to families, rather than to punish or stigmatize individuals in need. Child-rights informed school policies on child protection necessarily include that school-based supportive interventions are provided promptly upon noticing any warning signs, referrals are made when more specialized services are necessary (e.g., substance abuse treatment, domestic violence support, parenting program, individual therapy) and follow-up is provided to ensure that families have accessed recommended services (see Brassard et al., 2009, for detailed guidance). As child-rights informed school psychology is both promotive and preventive, it is critical that school policies and administrators protect the time of school psychologists and other staff members to deliver universal interventions; collect evaluation data; track student progress in academic, social-emotional, and physical domains; and plan prevention efforts.

In terms of universal promotion of well-being for all students, school discipline policies would greatly benefit from being informed by child rights. Zero-tolerance discipline practices (in which students are suspended or expelled for transgressions without any discussion or consideration of the specific situation) are common and violate the rights of students to be educated (Article 29), to be heard and to participate (Article 12), and to have their parents heard and able to offer guidance and support (Article 5). Article 28 upholds the rights of children to receive school discipline that respects their dignity (Hart & Hart, 2014). *The model code on education and dignity: Presenting human rights framework for schools* (Dignity in Schools Campaign, 2013) provides a detailed plan for developing respectful discipline policies and practices that embrace the goal of supporting "all children and young people in reaching their full potential" (p. 3). An example of helpful, educational, effective, positive, and nonpunitive national policy can be found in Sweden's initiatives to eradicate the use of corporal punishment (Durrant, 2003; Fiorvanti & Brassard, 2014).

When implemented effectively, school policies and rules can be very powerful tools to support child protection and discourage rights violations as they teach students and staff the expectations for behavior toward others. Policies are most helpful when they are educational (explain the behavior you want to see), explicit (clear and direct), accessible (presented in a format that all can understand and posted for all to see), logical (explain the need for the policy), reasonable (students can follow the rule), stated positively (state what to do, not what not to do), and predictable (frequently reviewed and consistently implemented) (Durrant, 2003; Newcomer, 2007; Sugai & Horner, 2002). Schools and teachers can effectively present rules and policies through positive behavior support strategies that include posted rules, direct instruction in the expected behavior, reviewing the rules on a regular basis, intentionally noticing and praising students when they follow expectations, and following the rules themselves (Table 1 for case example; Sugai & Horner, 2002). The consequences of not following a particular rule should be outlined in the policy and should emphasize education and support rather than punishment. To avoid unnecessarily alienating and shaming an individual, the goal of a consequence should be to educate and support the individual in order to prevent the incident from occurring again and promote the development of skills so one is better equipped to manage the situation in the future.

Environment

The ultimate goal in child-rights informed school psychology is to build a positive school community where all individuals feel safe, supported, respected, and heard. Positive school climate is a popular topic in research and involves numerous elements (e.g., bullying prevention and intervention, LGBTQ alliances, inclusive education for students with disabilities, positive behavior interventions and supports). Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, and Pickeral (2009) offer a definition of positive school climate as one that "fosters youth development and learning necessary for a productive, contributive, and satisfying life in a democratic society [and] includes norms, values, and expectations that support people feeling socially, emotionally, and physically safe. People are engaged and respected. Students, families, and educators work together to develop, live, and contribute to a shared school vision" (Cohen et al., 2009, p. 182). Research has clearly demonstrated that positive school climate is related to enhanced student academic achievement and success, attendance, motivation and self-esteem, behavior, mental health and wellness, healthy development and risk prevention, effective school violence prevention, and teacher retention (Blum, 2007; Cohen et al., 2009). Furthermore, students who feel more connected to school are more likely to trust and respect their teachers, show concern for others, effectively use problem-solving and conflict resolution strategies, and refrain from engaging in violent and risky behaviors (Blum, 2007; Karcher, 2004). Positive school environment is the cohesive result of the successful implementation of the other key processes.

Evaluation

As with any evidence-based program, evaluation is a key component at all stages of implementation in order to sustain delivery and improve outcomes. A needs assessment should be used to explore the current areas of concern, opportunities for positive change, and priorities of the various stakeholders. Progress monitoring (see section "Application of Child Rights to Research for Child Protection") helps to ensure that prevention and intervention efforts are implemented as intended and inform helpful changes along the way. Post-evaluations elucidate the effect of the efforts and point to possible areas for improvement. It is also critical to perform a thorough assessment of rights violations in order to understand the cause of the incident and determine how to prevent the same occurrence in the future. Child-rights informed school psychology goes a step beyond the usual evaluation procedures to allow students to have an active role in assessment, interpretation of results, and decisions about how to proceed. Tools are available to effectively engage students in the evaluation and research process and produce meaningful student involvement (Harris et al., 2014).

Advocacy

It is fully expected that the implementation of a promotive and preventive child-rights informed school psychology practice may be met with resistance and skepticism, and, therefore, advocacy work is key. At least in the short term, child-rights informed school psychologists who work through a promotive and preventive framework will likely have to convince school boards and other school personnel of the value of this approach as well as locate funding for training and implementation. It is essential that school psychologists be well-versed in the research findings that document the significant benefits of promotive and preventive efforts and collect data necessary to document positive outcomes in their own schools. The United States' Child Welfare website (childwelfare.gov) offers a free media toolkit with sample materials for professionals on how to spread the message and advocate for the prevention of child maltreatment and promoting child well-being (see Table 2).

Application of Child Rights to the Education of School Psychologists in Child Protection

Transitioning to a cohesive child-rights focused field of school psychology has several implications related to the training of school psychologists. It is essential that school psychologists be educated during graduate school in human rights and child rights as they relate to the practice of school psychology and child protection. School psychology accreditation organizations should mandate the completion of coursework in the promotion of child rights and the prevention of violations to child rights.

The first step in educating school psychologists in a child-rights informed approach to child protection is to build an understanding of the rich history of human rights research and theory and the child rights movement (http://www.cred-pro.org/group/internationalschoolpsychologycurriculum). Next, it is important for school psychologists to gain awareness of the magnitude of benefit to the school community and society at large from undertaking a promotion and prevention framework to child protection. This awareness is essential to help school psychologists invest their own energy in the effort as well as to recruit and secure the assistance and funding necessary to sustain such a framework. After those prerequisites are met, school psychologists can be trained in the many ways to apply the theories of child rights in their schools through the key processes discussed above (awareness, dialogue, training, relationships, participation, policy, environment, evaluation, and advocacy) and the use of relevant evidence-based strategies (see Table 2). As child-rights informed school psychology is both promotive and preventive, it is important that school psychologists are thoroughly trained in the various roles involved with this approach, including the following: delivering universal interventions; consulting with educators and parents; building strong relationships with students, families, and educators; fostering meaningful student participation; collecting data on student progress and program evaluation; planning targeted intervention efforts based on data analysis; and advocating for a child rights approach in the school, district, and through professional organizations and state and federal government.

The shift to child-rights informed school psychology requires a shift in goals and desired outcomes, as well as a shift in the expected timeframes of these goals. The positive changes associated with child-rights informed practice (e.g., stronger relationships, greater awareness of the significance of rights, more open and honest dialogue, greater respect for the rights of others, and fewer violations of rights) are not expected to happen overnight or within a school year. Schools and school psychologists attempting to transition to a promotive- and preventive-focused framework for service delivery would benefit from ongoing consultation and assistance in order to overcome the short-term hurdles and reach the long-term successes.

Application of Child Rights to Research for Child Protection

The United Nations, through its various treaties, programs, initiatives, and agencies/allies (e.g., UNICEF, the Convention, World Health Organization, Millennium Development Goals, Sustainable Development Goals), has organized a global effort to use standardized measures to collect ongoing, internationally comparable, data on the conditions of children and their families around the world (e.g., the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey). These measures are being used to assess the degree to which countries are compliant with the Convention (e.g., Britto & Ulkuer, 2012), to generate hypotheses that can be examined in future research (e.g., Lansford & Deater-Deckard, 2012), and to develop an integrated developmental and intervention science (Wuermli, Tubbs, Petersen, & Aber, 2015).

Ongoing assessment of key indicators is crucial for progress in child protection and well-being at every level: nation, state/region, district, and school. UNICEF has collaborated with governments to track progress using routinely collected data, track progress over time with periodic surveys (e.g., Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, face-to face interviews by trained staff with household members in over 100 low- and middle-resource countries), and fill gaps in databases, especially information on particularly vulnerable populations (e.g., Roma, aboriginal peoples) using analytical tools such as the Multiple Overlapping Derivation Analysis (http://www.unicef-irc.org/MODA). In high-income countries (those in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development), UNICEF publishes regular report cards on child well-being, again with a particular focus on those most vulnerable (e.g., migrants, single-parent households; UNICEF, 2007a, b). At the regional or local level, there is a surprising amount of online data available on rights-related benchmarks at state and city levels as well (e.g., www.centernyc.org/betterpictureofpoverty). School psychologists can access this information to get a sense of how their country and specific target population are doing.

To provide a meaningful assessment of the degree to which his or her school has implemented the Convention, the school psychologist can work with stakeholders, consisting of youth, parents, and other school personnel, to collectively identify 8–10 articles that are especially relevant to their school community's level of development and sociopolitical context. For example, Articles 2, 12, 19, 27, 28, 29, 31, 33, 34, and 42 are especially relevant to high-resource countries as standards of student well-being. Initial assessments can identify priority problem areas to target (e.g., to what extent do children have a voice in decisions that affect them, experience violence, and receive a quality education?) and serve as benchmarks to which future assessments can be compared and the effects of intervention efforts evaluated.

Primary and secondary source data can be collected and analyzed for each of the selected articles using currently available data on key indicators from the community (i.e., child protection/CPS reports, food security/nutrition) and the school (i.e., rates of attendance, students with disabilities, discipline processes and outcomes, learning outcomes). For some of the articles (e.g., Article 19 on the right to freedom from violence), additional information on students' experiences of violence and support from parents, peers, other family, and school personnel will need to be gathered annually through brief, anonymous surveys that have been validated for use across the world (e.g., ICAST, Zolotor et al., 2009; Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance Survey, Center for Disease Control and Prevention http://www.cdc.gov/healthyyouth/data/yrbs/index.htm; and the Developmental Assets Profile, http://www.search-institute.org/surveys/DAP). For other articles (Article 42 the right to knowledge of one's rights, Article 12 the right to be heard and participate), there will be no currently available data, and a measure may need to be identified from the research literature (e.g., Lansdown, 2011; Larkins, Lansdown, & Jimerson, 2020) or created.

Data can be collected at least annually to identify intervention targets as part of school improvement planning processes in order to build more supportive school environments over time. Data can be analyzed to show how different subgroups (e.g., ethnicity, immigrant status, years in the country, religion, socioeconomic level, homelessness, sexual minority) have varied outcomes across indicators to reveal specific strengths or needs among various groups (e.g., subgroups that are doing well in particular areas can provide ideas about what they are doing to achieve successful outcomes). Focus groups can be conducted with stakeholders to gain deeper insights about respondents' experiences related to priority articles to generate clearer hypotheses about mechanisms that either enable or prevent the impact on well-being.

As can be seen from the discussion above and Table 2, there are many evidence-based programs, implementable by or in collaboration with schools, that promote child well-being and protect children from violence at all three tiers (i.e., Tier 1 as universal prevention efforts, Tier 2 as targeted intervention, and Tier 3 as intensive targeted intervention where the other tiers have been insufficient). The challenges for school psychologists are (a) selecting developmentally appropriate programs for their schools; (b) adapting them, if necessary, to make them culturally appropriate for their setting or purpose (see Kumpfer, Pinyuchon, de Melo, & Whiteside, 2008; Leff et al., 2010); and (c) developing a system to routinely gather information on student, staff, and parent experiences related to school so all voices can be heard, needs addressed, and the curriculum evaluated and improved. Information gathering can come from a variety of sources including summaries of Glasser's Class Meetings and Distributed Justice Hearings as well as end-of-semester anonymous surveys on student and staff well-being; school climate; academic/work engagement; adverse experiences at school, at home, and in the community (e.g., child maltreatment, teacher/staff psychological abuse, peer victimization, discrimination); and positive experiences and supports at school, at home, and in the community (e.g., strong student-teacher relationship, meaningful student participation, family involvement). If rigorously executed, school-based research can inform local practice and "identify powerful and scalable solutions that can reach more children and youth throughout the world" (Wuermli et al., 2015, p. 61).

Conclusion: Recommendations Toward Advances in School Psychology Application of Child Rights for Child Protection

School psychologists have played an important role in advocating for child rights and human rights at the international level. In order to fully achieve a child-rights informed framework for school psychology as a field and to transform child protection toward a multitiered proactive, promotive, and preventive interventions, we must unite with a consistent message and goal. The Convention should be utilized by professional organizations, accreditors, and licensing boards to inform ethical codes, training requirements, and professional policies and standards of practice. Intensive early intervention and universal prevention efforts are the cornerstones of child protection with an emphasis on child rights and child well-being. Evidence-based programs that teach social-emotional skills and relationship building, promote learning and mastery of academic subjects, and give children a voice in their education have the power to change how our children interact with one another and with the world for years to come. School psychologists, as a cohesive and influential group, are in a prime position to fight for these critical intervention efforts and to conduct rigorous research on their adaptation and effectiveness in schools worldwide.

In order to achieve a child-rights informed field of school psychology for child protection, it is essential that the goals of education and schooling shift to reflect the overwhelming evidence that childhood exposure to adverse experiences have long-term and widespread negative impact on children and weigh on society. The mission of all schools and communities is to embrace and support the well-being of every child. Schools must view each student as a human being with great potential who requires nurturing and protecting. The goals of education have to expand from measuring academic success and engagement with tests, attendance and grades, to measuring well-being and overall functioning by assessing whether a student can form healthy relationships with peers, exercise self-regulation, use appropriate skills to problem solve, identify and verbalize feelings and thoughts to others, utilize coping skills, understand how one's actions impact others, and accept and offer constructive feedback to work toward improvement.

The process of shifting these goals, and viewing students as whole human beings with immense potential who deserve investment, starts with raising consciousness for school psychologists and all school staff members. When adults in schools value the importance of human rights, it will be possible to create a climate of respect and safety for all school community members. Schools must prioritize psychological and physical safety at school, the only environment they control, and school psychologists can take a leadership role in creating awareness, appreciation, and application of human and child rights throughout the school community. They can do this by the following: (a) having no tolerance for abuse of students by teachers or other school personnel, of students by peers, or among staff; (b) training and supporting teachers in the identification and reporting of abuse; (c) offering each child the opportunity for a positive relationship with an adult; (d) providing the supportive structure and predictability that are so critical for children who do not experience them at home; (e) teaching students their rights and their responsibility to uphold others' rights; (f) implementing universal child abuse prevention programs and safety skills training; (g) implementing social emotional learning curricula with emphasis on feelings, emotion regulation, self-esteem, communication, and relationship building skills; (h) conducting ongoing surveillance of school climate; (i) teaching staff to make appropriate referrals to support families; (j) advocating for a promotive and preventive framework to child protection; and (k) empowering students to stand up for themselves and their views by encouraging meaningful student participation. Finally, giving children the right to be heard on issues that affect them maximizes the chance that schools can meet students' unique needs.

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Child Participation and Agency and School Psychology

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Abstract

The obligation to respect, protect and promote the right for children to express their views and for these to be taken into account in decisions that affect them is at the heart of the UN (Convention on the rights of the child. Available: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm) Convention on the Rights of the Child and is echoed in the UN (Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities (CRPD). Available: https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities.html) Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. This right applies to all children, regardless of age and disability. It requires that children receive adequate information and that their views are given due weight. The UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities stresses that participation in a school environment is a fundamental part of ensuring the provision of inclusive education. Adopting a participatory approach is in line with international ethical standards for school psychology and can help reach some key professional goals. International standards and examples of practice provide guidance on the application of a participatory approach in the case-based and systemic work of school psychologists. Children must be seen as competent to express their views about their own engagement with school psychology services, education planning and assessments of their needs. Their views should inform decisions and, in some situations, they should be enabled to make decisions for themselves. Children who are supported by school psychologists can contribute important perspectives, improving learning environments through school councils, guiding education institutions and informing government policies. Children have worked in decision-making committees, alongside school psychologists and education service managers, to co-produce aspects of their educational services and oversee improvements that children themselves have suggested. Children have effectively monitored practice and investigated possible solutions through research and evaluation. Children, together with parents and professionals, have also engaged in advocacy and policy-making, bringing about legislative change. Training resources are available to

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enable school psychologists to spread a culture of participation.

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989; hereinafter referred to as the Convention) was established by the UN General Assembly resolution 44/25 of November 1989, entered into force in September 1990 and is now virtually universally ratified. The Convention is monitored internationally by a body of 18 elected experts, called the Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereinafter occasionally referred to as the Committee). Its role is to hold governments accountable to the commitments they have made to respect, protect and promote children's rights. The Convention embraces a broad vision of children's education, demanding that children are supported to reach their full potential and helped to acquire the values, skills and confidence necessary to contribute to and enjoy social life. The obligation to respect, protect and promote the right for children to express their perspectives and for these to be taken into account in decisions that affect them is at the heart of the Convention:

> *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.
2. For this purpose, the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law.

This right of children to express views and have them taken seriously applies to the education context and, if fully implemented throughout the school environment, would provide a significant step towards creating a culture of respect for children, their rights and capacities as citizens. This would also enhance children's well-being. Unfortunately, a culture in which children's views are taken seriously in decision-making remains relatively rare in schools around the world. Failure to create pedagogical environments in which children's views and opportunities for participation are taken seriously can lead to children's disengagement from education.

Recognition of children's capacity to express informed views, and the duty for these to be taken into account, can also be seen as a guiding principle for school psychology. In international standards on ethics and roles for school psychologists, these principles can be seen at work from the moment of initiating assessments and throughout associated decision-making processes (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). At more strategic levels, children's participation also can support school psychologists' work in research and advocacy (see Nastasi, 2014, and chapter, "Applying Child-Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples", this volume). Children's involvement in education planning does not have to be limited to those instances where the law places an obligation. Participation in decision-making can be integrated into routine practice; this is strongly encouraged by people with disabilities, advocates, researchers and teachers (Agran, Snow, & Swaner, 1999; Johnson & Emanuel, 2000; Martin & Williams-Diehm, 2013; National Council on Disability, 2000). Mason, Field, and Sawilowsky (2004) argued that research evidence over two decades reveals that multiple positive outcomes (e.g. improved communication, advocacy and academic skills) are more likely when children have this increased involvement in their educational planning. There remains much work to be done to make this a routine practice.

This chapter, Child Participation, Agency and School Psychology, begins with a brief description of children's participation rights within the Convention and some of the detailed guidance on interpretation of Article 12. The chapter reviews the link between school psychology and child participation, how attitudes to children's participation have evolved and some of the recurrent challenges to children's participation highlighted in the extant literature. This chapter then explores the potential for expanding children's participation in contexts linked to school psychology, drawing on examples of how children and their advocates are making progress towards children expressing their views, being listened to, making choices about and influencing the ways resources are used to support their rights at interpersonal, institutional and systemic levels. The chapter concludes with recommendations and a brief summary of the chapter.

Interpretation of Participation Rights by the UN Committee

Child participation rights are constituted by Article 12, in combination with rights to associated freedoms, of expression (Art. 13); of thought, conscience and religion (Art. 14); of association (Art. 15); and the rights to privacy (Article 16) and to access information (Art. 17). Together, they recognize children's individual agency, in the sense of capacity for self-determination in forming their own views, and they provide for children's agency in the sense of influence over decisions about their lives and other issues that affect them. Article 12 is one of the general principles of the Convention, meaning it should "be considered in the interpretation and implementation of all other rights" (UNComRC, 2009: para 2). School psychologists are encouraged to consider opportunities in which individual- and systems-level approaches to child participation can be adopted, with particular attention to the Committee's guidance on how to implement Articles 12, known as *General Comment 12* (UNComRC, 2009). General Comment 12 (paras 15–19) asserts that it is important to seek and listen to children's views on relevant decisions, to give them due weight in all contexts and to provide information and advice to enable children to make informed

Table 1 Selected key points from UN guidance on Article 12

*All children are capable of expressing views regardless of age (*UNComRC, 2009*, para 17–21).* The founding assumption should be that children are capable of expressing their views and no age limit is placed on a child's right to be heard in all matters affecting her or him. Age-based assumptions of developmental stages should not guide decisions about whether or not to seek a child's views; even young children have valid perspectives on the issues that concern them although these may be expressed through body language, play, emotional engagement or creative arts. Children with disabilities should be enabled to use any aids or mode of communication necessary to facilitate their expression of views, and minority language needs should be recognized (UNCom, 2009; para 21). At the same time, participation is a right, not a responsibility, and in a school environment, where there are expectations that children should take part, it is particularly important to ensure that children are also free to choose not to express their views.
*Weight must be given to children's views (*UNComRC, 2009*, paras 28–45).* Children's views, whenever they are formed reasonably independently, must be considered "as a significant factor" in decision-making on matters that affect children (UNCom, 2009: para 44). The term "matters that affect them" should be interpreted broadly, and the General Comment describes the extensive list of areas in which this right applies, including in the family, in healthcare and in education. Children's views should never be ignored or dismissed. Rather, the weight that is given to their views generally should increase in line with their individual capacity. Combining Article 12 with Article 5 (which recognizes that children have evolving capacities) highlights the way in which children's capacity will increase with the opportunities they receive and the concomitant responsibility of parents/carers and professionals to move from a role of providing direction to one of providing guidance as a child's capacity develops (UNComRC, 2009, para 84) (see also Vaghri, Flores, & Moitabavi, chapter "Promoting Healthy Child Development: A Child Rights Perspective", this volume). The process of giving due weight to children's views is not a one-off event but rather a continuous effort. Children require opportunities in order to develop their capacities for independent decision-making. Children should also receive feedback about how seriously their views were considered, so that they may make an appeal, complain or seek other redress. Although giving weight to children's views on decisions that affect them (Article 12) and taking all decisions in their best interests (Article 3) are sometimes posed as contradictory, the General Comment makes it clear that "there can be no correct application of article 3 if the components of article 12 are not respected" (UNComRC, 2009, para 74). Children's views should therefore be considered when making assessments of their best interests.
*The expression of views must be supported through access to information (*UNComRC, 2009*, paras 80–83).* Expression of views and access to information should be supported through provision of varied and appropriate means and media. Articles 13 and 17 (the rights to freedom of expression to receive and access information in appropriate formats) are prerequisites of Article 12. Children require accessible, relevant and age-appropriate information, as well as time to explore their views in spaces here they feel safe if their participation is to be meaningful.

choices. Table 1 gives a summary of key points in this guidance related to children's competence to give views, the weight their views should be accorded and the need for information to be provided to them in appropriate forms. Suggestions regarding the relevance of this guidance for school psychology are provided.

Through its elaboration of Article 12, General Comment No. 12 provides a set of basic requirements for the implementation of children's right to be heard and influence decisions (UNComRC, 2009, paras 132–134). These involve ensuring participatory activities are transparent and informative, voluntary, respectful, inclusive, safe and sensitive to risk, accountable and use appropriate child-friendly methods. Promoting safety and sensitivity to risk relates to the provision of relevant and adequate information about confidentiality and ensuring that there will not be negative consequences when children voice concerns. In contexts that are authoritarian or where levels of violence are high (which may include schools in some contexts), safety can also be promoted by providing means through which children can express their views anonymously, as this may enable the expression of views which are critical of adults. The requirement that participatory activities are inclusive is also particularly relevant for school psychologists as the tendency can be for children whose behaviour or communication style does not fit with school norms to be excluded from collective participatory opportunities; this is counter to the principle of inclusivity. It must be recognized that individual children and groups of children have the right to express their views on all relevant matters that affect them. There is also acknowledgement of the need for adults to be supported with training to enable them to effectively facilitate participation.

General Comments on other Articles of the Convention also reinforce the need for participation across all areas of children's lives. Of particular relevance is General Comment No. 1 (UNComRC, 2001: para 8), which states:

> Compliance with the values recognized in article 29(1) clearly requires that schools be child friendly in the fullest sense of that term and that they be consistent in all respects with the dignity of the child. Participation of children in school life, the creation of school communities and student councils, peer education and peer counselling, and the involvement of children in school disciplinary proceedings should be promoted as part of the process of learning and experiencing the realization of rights. (UNComRC, 2001, para. 8)

The UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities General Comment 4 (2016) makes it clear that this participatory approach should extend to children and young people with disabilities[1]:

> Guaranteeing the right of children to participate in their education must be applied equally to children with disabilities – in their own learning and individualized education plans, within the classroom pedagogy, through schools councils, in the development of school policies and systems, and in the development of wider educational policy.

Linking School Psychology to Participation Rights

The participation rights expressed in the Convention acknowledge children's capacity to form views, their right to relevant information and the opportunity to express views and the obligation for these to be given due weight in decision-making. They do not assert an absolute right to autonomy for children. Indeed, neither adults nor children experience absolute autonomy as we are all connected in relationships of interdependence and constrained by matters such as personal commitments, social obligations or lack of resources (Cockburn, 1998). However, most legal frameworks operate with a presumption of autonomy for adults but lack a presumption of autonomy for children. These constraints are imposed, for example, through age-based limitations in relation to medical consent, sexual consent and compulsory schooling. Acknowledgement of children's capacity to form views and right to expression of these does however mark a radical departure from late modern dominant models of childhood which asserted that children should remain silent until spoken to (Archard, 2004).

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[1] This terminology has been adopted as standard throughout the book, but the authors of this chapter are fully committed to the social model of disability in line with the preferences of disabled people's organizations' and UK guidance http://www.ombudsman.org.uk/__data/assets/pdf_file/0019/33337/FDN-218144-Introduction-to-the-Social-and-Medical-Models-of-Disability.pdf

Being able to listen to children and to establish a trusting working relationship is a core skill needed by school psychologists and a foundation of all clinical work (Jimerson, Oakland, & Farrell, 2007). In its earliest days, and perhaps reflecting dominant models of childhood from those times, the profession had a greater emphasis on observing and testing children (Fagan, 1992) rather than listening to them. In many countries, school psychology emerged as a discipline with the rise of compulsory education for all children. As children became drawn into schooling, opportunities arose for closer study of, and comparison between, children. Relatively standardized expectations about their behaviour and expected achievement levels developed (Walkerdine, 1984), and other patterns of behaviours were labeled as disruptive or problematic. School psychologists emerged as important professionals prepared to address some of these challenges and provide assessment, guidance and interventions to facilitate the social and cognitive competence of children. Children provide alternative perspectives and new insights into their own lives that cannot be understood by school psychologists without creating opportunities to listen to them. When provided with information from multiple perspectives they can competently contribute to decision-making about their own care and collectively, they can inform research agendas and policy questions, highlight key issues impacting on their lives and explore strategies, policies and programmes that are likely to address their key concerns.

Adopting a participatory approach can help school psychologists reach some key professional goals. Taking children's views and experiences into account within the family, at school and in other settings enables children to develop their self-esteem, respect for others and cognitive skills (Covell & Howe, 2005; Kirby & Bryson, 2002; Kränzl-Nagl & Zartler, 2010) and to build self-confidence through achieving personal goals (Chawla & Heft, 2002). When decision-making is informed by children's own perspectives, outcomes appear to be enhanced (Lansdown, 2011). More positive long-term outcomes in nursery settings result with the adoption of child-centred approaches responding to children's initiation of play activities (Schweinhart et al., 2005; Schweinhart & Weikart, 1997). International research in education suggests a positive relationship between the general well-being of students, their involvement in learning, academic self-esteem and achievement in some subjects (Hannam, 2003). In a wide body of research, participatory activity is associated with a positive learning environment, greater respect for teachers, increased commitment from students and enhanced attitudes to learning, resulting in improved attendance, and completion of homework (Bragg & Fielding, 2003; Rights Respecting Schools, 2012). In situations of violence, providing children with information about their rights to protection and creating an atmosphere in which children feel safe to report concerns and the necessary procedures through which they can raise concerns means violations of rights are far more easily exposed (Willow, 2010).

Complementarity between participation rights and school psychology are then seen in the application of the core skill of listening to the practice of systemic advocacy, to ensure that education services hear and respond to children's views. Indeed, school psychologists can work in participatory ways alongside children across micro, meso and macro systems to contribute to the realization of children's rights in and through education. This can occur within individual practice, institutions and agencies, and through changing the wider public policy field that influences children's lives. Listening to children, considering their views and the changes they say are needed, is only a first step.

In a second step, school psychologists also are encouraged to consider broader questions relevant to fostering children's participation in their education, such as the following: *How can we ensure that all children have the freedom to* *express their ideas? How can we give appropriate weight to each idea children propose in relation to decisions about their education and psychological interventions? Should children's behaviour, if they do not express ideas verbally, be read as an expression of their wishes and feelings on issues that concern them? How can children's opinions be mobilized to influence decision-making so that services change in response to the views of the children using them? In what ways might children contribute through research, training and advocacy, to our understanding of our professional and policy development needs?* The remainder of this chapter aims to provide some answers to these questions with reference to examples of literature from children's participation studies and contemporary practice within education, from across the globe.

Learning from Children's Participation Studies

The aforementioned questions resonate with some of the central debates about children's participation across a wide spectrum of everyday life activities, services and systems. Learning from participatory practice in other spheres can help guide a rights-based participatory approach to school psychology. Formal participatory structures for children and young people (inside and outside of schools) have been criticized as underrepresentative of disadvantaged young people and children (e.g.Tisdall, 2013; Wall, 2011). These structures can enable some children and young people to express their views and exercise influence (Wall, 2011), but the extent to which views expressed in these arenas can be seen as collective voice (Arnot & Reay, 2007; Mannion, 2010) is highly contested. Further, Percy-Smith (2010, p. 108) cautions against a "preoccupation with political, rather than other forms of participation". Although all spheres of social life may be seen as political, Percy-Smith highlights the need to focus on everyday interactions and recognize expressions of views and achievement of influence within these. In everyday school settings, however, children may provide "schooled" responses when asked for their views in that they may say what they think adults want to hear (Hill, Davis, Prout, & Tisdall, 2004). Participatory rights-based approaches must therefore provide ways for all children to build trust in the adults who are working alongside them, recognize and provide a diversity of formal and everyday mechanisms through which children may express their views freely and provide a range of methods for communication, suited to children's preferred communication styles. In addition to children's words, we need to consider that children's behaviour, especially when it challenges rules, is a form of communication. Rule breaking behaviour may be an act of citizenship which is motivated by a claim for a more just balance of rights and responsibilities or resources (Larkins, 2014).

The extent to which children's expressions of their views actually result in them achieving influence or transformation is variable so it is helpful to identify how child-led change can be facilitated (Crowley, 2014; Johnson, 2014; Lansdown, 2011). Participatory initiatives may simply be a tokenistic exercise in listening without any real intention of action. Organized participation initiatives may also be a way of educating children into conformity with dominant political ideology and acceptance of existing systems (Raby, 2014). An understanding of the way in which power operates through interpersonal and structural relationships is therefore needed (Gallagher, 2008). Mannion (2010, p. 337) notes that "to act powerfully through participation is to manipulate resources in order to produce effects among others". Children's influence appears to be more effective where they speak directly to those making decisions, where committed advocates work on their behalf, where they are given control over resources and where they participate alongside adults not only expressing their views but also taking action to bring about the changes that they seek (Lansdown, 2011; Larkins, Kiili, & Palsanen, 2014; Nuggehalli, 2014).

Because participation is about influence as well as voice, it is also useful to talk about agency. Mayall (2002, p. 21) suggests that children are clearly social actors in the sense that they take part in relationships, have feelings and seek justice but that they are also agents when in "negotiation with others, with the effect that the interaction makes a difference – to a relationship or to a decision, to the workings of a set of social assumptions or constraints". Children's participation rights and their capacity for agency should not be translated into an obligation that children participate or an expectation that they should have to act on their own, without adult support. Rather, learning from Vygotsky (1978, in Lansdown, 2005), it is useful to consider how children's self-efficacy is related to their environment and can be developed through provision of adult support and other resources.

Realizing Participation Rights Through School Psychology

The interpretation of Article 12 by the Committee clarifies that respecting, protecting and promoting children's participation rights is compatible with the roles of school psychologists. However, like all participatory practice, school psychologists face challenges in terms of ensuring children's views are heard and have influence. In these sections, we therefore consider examples of how the Convention and participatory practice can inform school psychology work at interpersonal, institutional and then systemic levels.

Professional Practice with Individual Children

Nastasi and Varjas (2013, pp. 38–39) define four aspects of the school psychologist role that engage with children individually on a casework basis. In consultations, school psychologists use communication and collaboration skills to identify and address student problems with teachers, parents/carers, or schools. This is supported by assessment and then intervention (preventive or corrective) with individual students or through changing learning environments. Advocacy may also be fulfilled at an individual level.

Promoting children's participation rights in these aspects of case work would begin with ensuring that children are provided with adequate information about the school psychology service (Art. 17) and then creating an environment in which it is safe for them to express their views about whether to engage with the service or not (Art. 13). Information should be provided to the child so that an informed decision can be made. The format in which information is given and the communication skills and techniques that are used at initial consultation and in ongoing assessment should be adapted to suit each individual child. For instance, students who have low levels of cognitive development may require very simple, concrete examples of what specific intervention strategies may be helpful to address academic challenges. It may be important to check-in with the student on an ongoing basis, as support services are provided, to determine what the student's views are regarding the success of the support services.

Although professionals and family members may believe it is appropriate for a child to receive support services, a child's capacity to express informed views about such decisions should be presumed (UNComRC, 2009, para 20), and these views should be given due weight unless there is clear evidence that the views have not been formed independently (UNComRC, 2009, para 44; see also UNComRC, 2016). In some circumstances, a young person may seek support without parental consent. Influenced by the Convention, law and practice in many countries now recognize the notion of the evolving capacities (as expressed in Article 5). As a child becomes increasingly experienced and independent, parental authority correspondingly diminishes and the role of parents and other persons legally responsible for children transforms from "direction and guidance into reminders and advice and later to an exchange on an equal footing" (UNComRC, 2009 para 84). This process of transition enables and promotes children's optimum development (Article 6) including within the sphere of education. Accordingly, the Committee recommends that governments should review or introduce legislation recognizing the right of children to take increasing control of decisions affecting their lives and introduce minimum age limits consistent with their right to protection, best interests and respect for evolving capacities. The Committee also stresses that recognition should be afforded to the right of any child who is below that minimum age and able to demonstrate sufficient understanding, to be entitled to give or refuse consent to decisions affecting their lives. Where the law permits, an educational/school psychologist therefore can see young people under the age of 16 without parental consent provided that she/he is satisfied that the young person who is independently seeking support is of sufficient understanding (awareness and state of mind) to make an informed decision. Similarly, if a child wishes to engage in a consultation and parents/carers do not wish the service to be provided, due weight should be given to the child's views. In certain circumstances, this may mean overriding parents' wishes.

Approaches towards children's competence to give or refuse consent vary considerably, but there are some minimum standards suggested. In British Columbia, Canada, the law reverses the presumption of consent. In other words, the child is presumed to have competence to give consent to receiving a service, the onus being on the parent, professional or ultimately the courts to override it. South Africa also provides that children from 12 years can consent to treatment (Lansdown, 2011, p. 97). In all cases, the educational psychologist should encourage a child to discuss the matter with his/her parents/carers and, with consent from the young person, may speak directly to the parents/carers and advocate for the child's wishes as appropriate. Conversely, if a child wishes to not engage, efforts should be made to ensure this does not lead to negative consequences, for example, this should not be read as further non-compliant behaviour.

The obligation for children's views to inform elements of their educational planning is enshrined in legislation in some countries. In the United States, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) Amendments of 1997 (Public Law 105–17) provides for children and young people with disabilities, aged 14 years and over, to be invited to participate in individualized meetings focused on the student's transition (under Sec. 300.347(b) (1) or (2)) and for decisions to consider the student's interests and preferences (34C.F.R. 300.344 (b) (1) and 300.29). In other circumstances, the student may attend the Individual Education Planning meeting "if appropriate" (Sec. 300.344(a) (7)), particularly if the parents concur that it is appropriate. Within Europe, children's participation in their own educational plans is less developed than in other aspects of their care and development planning (Day et al., 2015), but in some countries there are still legal obligations or routine practices that ensure this occurs. For example, in Sweden children's rights to participate in decisions about their education is enshrined in the 2010 Education Act (see Lansdown, 2011), and, in Slovenia, making choices and expressing views about planned activities are routine for children in preschool education (Day et al., 2015).

Once a child has engaged in an initial consultation, the child should be treated as a reliable informant and active partner in his/her own assessment, intervention decisions and individual education plans. Children's views on both the assessment of their needs and any intervention should be sought whether or not they are deemed to have capacity to make the decision (Article 12, UNComRC, 2009). Providing children with the information they need to make informed choices and the opportunities to express their views builds capacity and enables children to take a greater role in assessment and intervention decision-making as their capacities evolve. This has implications for medium- and long-term interventions as it requires professionals to revise their assessments of a child's competence as and when children's capacity to form informed views develops. Children also require information about how to challenge any decisions that are made and who can provide support with this process (Lansdown, 2011).

As the educational planning process can sometimes be very formal, school psychologists can promote participation by advocating for children's wishes, whether or not children themselves choose to attend. School psychologists may also be able to use their communication skills and understanding in order to advise on changes in the educational planning process, so that children can more fully and directly participate in this process.

Professional Practice within Institutions

The school psychology roles already discussed (consultation, intervention and prevention, assessment, and advocacy) plus the additional professional roles of research and evaluation (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013, pp. 38–39) all function at an institutional level (within schools and other educational establishments) and at systems level (across wider policy, practice and social environments). The General Comment on Article 12 makes it clear, too, that participation rights apply to groups of children as well as individuals. Accordingly, school psychologists need to consider how to engage children as a constituency in informing policy, practice, resource allocation and research agendas.

Building institutional environments in which children feel confident and have the space and opportunities to speak, be heard and have influence is vital if children's individual and collective participation is to become a reality. When children and young people, who are not used to being listened to, are provided opportunities to be heard, they do not suddenly acquire the skills and confidence to articulate their views at a point of crisis in their lives. It is therefore essential to create a culture of participation so that they can use these skills in a receptive environment, when they are needed (Lansdown, 1994).

The Rights Respecting Schools (2012) initiative run by UNICEF UK developed a model for promoting participatory cultures. In this programme, schools implement a set of standards including the commitment to awareness and respect for children's rights and embed routine practices of informing, listening to and promoting the influence of children within schools (Nolas, 2015). Similarly, for children who have not previously had access to effective services, it can be difficult for them to identify what they might like to do or what should be provided (Morris, 2001). Their aspirations are necessarily circumscribed by their experiences, particularly in the case of children with disabilities, girls, or members of other groups who face discrimination. This can be addressed by providing children with information about potential options and facilitating consideration and communication in their regard.

Internationally, in an increasing number of schools and education institutions, formal participation structures such as school councils have been established. Research across the European Union (Day et al., 2015, p. 5) shows legislation relating to child participation is more in evidence in education than in any other sector as all 28 member states "include some degree of provision for child participation within their general Education Act or Code". In some countries, it is compulsory or even a legal requirement to consult with the school's council on certain issues, such as the requirement to consult with pupils during the development of a code of conduct which is expressed in the 1996 South African Schools Act 84 (Lundy, Kilkelly, Byrne, & Kang, 2012). However, opportunities to participate in school decision-making structures vary considerably between countries and institutions, and even where these structures are established, some groups of children tend to be excluded. Thus, school psychologists might embrace the role of ensuring that children who use their services have access to opportunities to participate in these structures.

Where successful and inclusive, these formal structures can provide children with opportunities to initiate change in their learning environments. They also provide professionals with opportunities to consult with and harness the energy and enthusiasm of young representatives to identify and bring about improvements within their schools. For example, in Mali, Cameroon, Guinea and Guinea-Bissau, some children have organized themselves into children's governments which diagnose problems in their schools, create ministries to respond to these issues and then initiate action, sometimes drawing in the support of community leaders and parents, to bring about improvements (Lansdown, 2011).

At its most advanced level, the promotion of children's rights in identifying and addressing institutional issues involves children being in the places where decisions about policies and resources are made, so that they are co-producing services (Larkins et al., 2014; O'Kane, 2015). In Scotland, a local government accepted the recommendations of a commission on bullying which involved 12 young people aged 14–24 who collected and reviewed evidence. Implementation of these recommendations was then overseen by a board of staff, elected politicians, parents and children and young people (Tisdall, 2013). In Bangladesh, Save the Children and their NGO partners have supported School Management Committees (SMC) in which children take part in monthly meetings, with parents and teachers, to develop school improvements plans, also addressing issues like bullying and corporal punishment (O'Kane, 2015, p. 57).

Practice is also well developed regarding the involvement of children in monitoring, evaluation and research. Research exploring participation opportunities conducted by disabled children and young people[2] (VIPER, 2013) provides examples of young service users' collective engagement contributing to problem-solving through research and evaluation activities. For example, in the UK in 1999, a disabled people-led organization (Alliance for Inclusive Education), employed young project workers with disabilities, advised by a group of young people with disabilities, who then carried out research on the experience of children with disabilities (Wilson & Jade, 1999). In 2000, a group of mental health service users directed research by one of their peers to explore the need for case advocacy in residential mental health settings (Langdon & Larkins, 2000). Guidance on how to carry out rights-based research with children with disabilities on education, health and other aspects of service provision has been produced by children themselves (Larkins & Young Researchers, 2014). Even where research is not peer led, a minimum requirement for research to comply with children's participatory rights is to ensure that children themselves have information about the study and provide informed consent (Alderson, 2000). Their capacity to influence the research process can also be enhanced by providing methods suited to their communication style, and enabling them to suggest questions and themes for investigation, as well as being informants (Nastasi, 2014; O'Kane, 2000).

A further step that can lead to change at institutional levels, to move towards children having a greater influence over the services they use, is to involve children in recruitment of staff. This approach, where children sit on interview panels or hold their own panel interview, has been adopted in social care, social work, advocacy and health settings as part of a strategy of prevention which would enable children to guide the selection of staff who have the necessary interpersonal skills to engage with them appropriately (VIPER, 2013).

Participation Rights in Systems and Policy

Some of the strides towards participatory institutions described above may seem beyond reach, as in the short term what any individual school psychology professional can achieve is somewhat determined by the environments in which she/he is working. However, at the heart of the professional role lies a commitment to systematic change, and although school psychologists' central responsibility is to promote children's mental or psychological well-being, when promoting the best interests of children from a holistic perspective, they may advocate to secure needed services on any aspects of well-being (Nastasi, 2014). Children's participation fosters well-being and, if some environments are not initially receptive to enabling children's participation, then advocacy at a systems and policy level may help a more open culture emerge in which children's views can be heard, respected and given due weight in influencing decisions. Children can also take an active role as participants in this systemic advocacy.

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[2] Children and young people who were co-authors of this report described themselves as "disabled children and young people" in contrast to the terminology used throughout the chapter which is commonly accepted in some countries such as the United States to refer to this population as "children and young people with disabilities".

Children's participation in advocacy at a systemic level in some ways resembles children's advocacy within institutions but takes place at the wider policy-making level (municipalities, communities, governments and non-governmental organizations [NGO]). In Myanmar, for example, boys and girls have come together to influence an international NGO's education interventions (O'Kane, 2015, p. 96). Where children work alongside parents, professionals and decision-makers at municipal and government levels, innovative solutions have been found to the issues of concern to school psychology. In Latvia, students, parents, pedagogues (whose profession resembles aspects of school psychology), school directors and local officials together developed a guide and training for mediation in school to enable peaceful conflict resolution (EAN, 2014, p. 39). Advocacy to ensure access to education for all children, and especially children with disabilities and others who may come into contact with school psychology services, has been particularly important. In Montenegro, children, parents and professionals lobbied government policy-makers to adopt new provisions for mainstreaming education of children with special needs, and this was enacted into education law in 2004 (Lansdown, 2011).

General Comments 12 (UNComRC, 2009) and 20 (UNComRC, 2016) require that children and adolescents, respectively, are given opportunities to express their views on all matters that affect them, and this includes the development of national and international policies on education. Again, facilitating children's participation at this level can help ensure that curriculum design and education delivery take into account the needs and interests of all children. For example, in 2009–2010 in Finland, nearly 60,000 children took part in a consultation on the redesign of the national curriculum (CoE, 2011). And, in Bangladesh, in a context where many education interventions designed to reach out to street-connected children fail because street-connected children are not asked their views about education, participatory workshops have been used with children from all occupational categories to ensure that their views guide the design of appropriate education (Lansdown, 2001). Children's involvement in policy-making at a national level has been embraced in some countries, with the establishment of standing committees for children that connect with relevant government ministries. In Sweden, for example, the Child Reference Group of 40–50 children aged 13–18 was set up by the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs (Lundy et al., 2012, p. 401). National and international child, student or youth organizations, for instance, the Asian Youth Council, the Arab Youth Union, the African Youth Network, the Caribbean Federation of Youth, the European Youth Forum, the Latin American Youth Forum, the Pacific Youth Council and the Pan-African Youth Movement, can also provide platforms for children to influence education policy and provision (Lansdown, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014). Ensuring the autonomy, independence and representativeness of such organizations is crucial, and a key advocacy role for school psychologists might again be to campaign for these structures to use inclusive working methods, such that they become inclusive of users of school psychology services, some of whom may feel less comfortable in formal hierarchical power structures.

Alongside support for inclusive formal structures, school psychologists may also lend their advocacy and practical support to education campaigns in which children take the lead. More than 500 children in inclusive education clubs in Senegal took part with NGOs in awareness raising in communities (resulting in 40 children with disabilities being enrolled into their local schools) and in a "campaign walk" calling for government action on "Education for All with enough resources" (O'Kane, 2015, p. 54). Also in South Africa, in 2011, children, young people and adults took part in protests (a march and a camp) to demand adequate public school provision (Tisdall, 2013).

The importance of training professionals in children's rights, including the right to participate, is underlined in a number of General Comments (UNComRC, 2003, 2009, 2016) and in the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006). Training can help influence the development of an inclusive culture of participation across all levels of school psychology activities. In this regard, children have taken a leading role in delivering training on participation and the rights of children with disabilities in a variety of environments. The ongoing need for such training is underlined by the recent review of participation across the European Union which identified a common need to "better equip teachers and other child professionals with practical skills to facilitate participation" (Day et al., 2015, p. 23). The European project, *Hear Our Voices*, provides a training toolkit appropriate for use with young people and staff for supporting the participation of children with intellectual disabilities in their schools (http://www.childrights4all.eu/). It provides guidance on how children can be involved in planning, monitoring and advocacy and is available in Bulgarian, Czech, English, French, German, Spanish, Polish and Portuguese (FRA, 2015, p. 53). A training manual (Larkins & Bilson, 2016) for participatory work with Roma children and young people in nine European languages is also available, and this model has proved effective in working with Roma and other marginalized children to improve educational opportunities. In Peru, within the Regional Directorate of Education of Junin and Local Education Management Units, training on children's participation has been rolled out to teachers across the municipality, and young people are learning how to influence municipal planning (O'Kane, 2015). In the United States, the NASP-approved training programmes, for example, strive to develop practitioners' understanding of children's rights and promote children's participation in individual practice, schools and at system and public policy levels.[3]

Accountability in Participation

To understand whether the participatory environment being developed is genuinely creating opportunities for children to express themselves and be taken seriously, it is important to monitor and evaluate the processes and systems that have been introduced. This work must be done in collaboration with children themselves. The aim is not to find fault but to build understanding and strengthen the capacity to move forward. Three dimensions of participation need to be evaluated (Lansdown & O'Kane, 2014). The first dimension relates to the scope or extent of children's participation, that is, how influential they were and at what point in any process were they able to be involved. The second requires scrutiny of the quality of their participatory experience and how far it meets the nine basic requirements for ethical and meaningful participation described above. Finally, the evaluation needs to assess the outcomes of the children's participation both on them as individuals and in terms of the goals that they hoped to achieve and changes they wanted made. This process can help children and school psychologists jointly determine how to work together to create real participation. Support for child-led rights-based monitoring may take time to achieve, as in El Salvador, where the "Defensorias" a Council for the Human Rights of Adolescents was initially faced with anger and contempt when they spoke at parents' committees in school (Lansdown, 2011). However, the 150 young people with and without disabilities who participated gradually experienced a change in that defensive culture and began to receive reports of rights abuses and responded with advice on legal provisions and where to access help.

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[3] See also the training manual, intended for an international audience of school psychologists and other mental health professionals working in schools, which is an accompanying online resource for this volume. The manual was developed through a partnership of ISPA, IICRD, APA's Division 16, Tulane University Child Rights Team and Cleveland State University. A set of self-study modules is also available; for information, contact Bonnie Nastasi, Tulane University School Psychology Program, bnastasi@tulane.edu

Conclusion and Recommendations

A commitment to children's participation, in the sense described in this chapter, requires a continuous process of ensuring cultural shifts, so that children's views are routinely sought and respected and so that professionals and services become responsive and accountable to them (Kirby & Bryson, 2002). This does not require that children make all decisions themselves but rather that they are routinely part of the process and have some influence on decisions. Embedding this way of working in the professional practice of school psychologists and allied professionals is essential, as children's everyday lives are connected to professional practice in multiple ways. If participation is seen as separate from everyday interactions, there is a risk that it becomes an exercise in providing the appearance of involvement that masks underlying aims of ensuring compliance with existing patterns of inequality (Raby, 2014).

School psychologists' intervention is important in organized participatory activities such as at school, community, governmental and international levels, to ensure that these arenas are respectful and enabling environments where children gain a sense of their rights and experience real influence, rather than becoming disengaged through experiences of disrespect or disregard for their views. School psychologists can further advocate for participatory activities and structures that adopt methods to enable the inclusion of all children, rather than favouring those who are high achievers or comfortable in formal environments. Ensuring that all children have access to opportunities to take part in formal committees and more informal issue-based groups is a vital way of enabling children who are in contact with school psychology services to have opportunities to shape these services and the policies that affect their everyday lives in education (e.g. on curricula, inclusion, discipline, bullying and education planning). A key role here may be the promotion and co-provision (with children and young people) of training in participatory methods and rights-respecting ways of working.

Alongside collective activities, school psychologists can also lend their support to informal, spontaneous or issue-based activities in which children take a lead to campaign for their rights or to challenge injustice within existing rules and policy. Where children have not identified these issues or injustices themselves, there of course remains a role for school psychologists to advocate for provision which they believe would promote children's rights. But to fully adopt a participatory approach would mean at least being informed by children themselves about whether and how school psychologist ideas on suitable intervention and prevention strategies could coincide with the views of children themselves. If school psychology professionals can engage with children's participation at all these levels, not only would assessments and interventions benefit from a closer understanding of children's perspectives but also claims for the services that we know children need might be reinforced by evidence from children' themselves. School psychologists, working together with children, parents and supportive professionals and policymakers, would provide a potent combination for engagement in lobbying and other action to bring about changes though individual casework, within institutions and across policy and practice more widely.

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Preparing Children for Responsible Citizenship: The Role of Psychology and Education

F. Clark Power, Deano Pape, and Stuart N. Hart

Abstract

Preparation of the child for responsible citizenship in a free society is one of the most demanding and important expectations set by the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child. In this chapter, the nature and importance of applying moral and psychological approaches toward this purpose are explored and related. Through exposition of challenges to inclusion for children in peer activities, the need for supportive democratic processes is established. In this regard, a model for "democratic deliberation through civil discourse" is proposed as a promising fundamental mechanism. This model, as a reconfiguration of the "Ethics Bowl" debate framework, is formulated for pervasive and progressive developmental implementation across school stages and community sectors. The significant benefits likely to accrue from contributions by school psychology are identified.

Article 29 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter the Convention; UN General Assembly, 1989) prescribes that education should "prepare children for responsible life in a free society." This is a bold and daunting challenge for teachers, administrators, and school psychologists. This article goes well beyond the more modest mandate to help children to become socially adjusted or socially mature. Responsible life in a free society entails a sense of civic participation in a society that is based on respect for personal autonomy and democratic processes rooted in respectful discourse. Article 29 elaborates that responsible participation entails "a spirit of peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples" as well as a respect for "human rights and the fundamental freedoms" of others (UN General Assembly, 1989).

Preparing Responsible Citizens

Educating children for a responsible life in society has a clear ethical component that goes well beyond but includes developing children's competencies and skills needed for their economic well-being and personal flourishing. School psychologists can draw on a variety of psychologically based approaches with vast supportive literatures that purport to help schools to develop children as responsible members of society. We discuss four of these: positive youth develop-

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ment (PYD), social and emotional learning (SEL), prosocial education, and character education. Although these approaches have somewhat different foci and histories, their psychological foundations and educational applications tend to converge. As valuable as these approaches are in helping to establish a school environment that supports children's well-being and academic success, they do not address in sufficient depth what features ought to be present in an environment that supports children's development as responsible participants in a democratic society. We thus propose a fifth approach, *democratic deliberation through civil discourse*, which draws on a model of ethical debate. We believe this approach provides a moral direction for constructing a school environment that promotes the development of the competencies needed for responsible democratic political discourse and engagement.

Education for Moral Development

The field of moral education since the mid-1960s has been deeply influenced by Lawrence Kohlberg's cognitive developmental psychology and to a lesser extent by his just community approach to moral education (Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1989). Kohlberg opposed the relativistic orthodoxy among the social scientists of the 1950s and 1960s that morality reduced to the norms and values of a particular society. Instead, he argued that morality is objective as it is based in justice, as defined by the golden rule (Gibbs, 2014; Kohlberg, 1981, 1984). Drawing on the work of Jean Piaget (1965), he posited that children construct their moral reasoning and judgment through interactions with their environment. Kohlberg did not diminish the importance of the environment in the process of development, but he also maintained that children actively developed their consciences through reflection and dialogue on matters of right and wrong. Kohlberg (1981) rejected the view espoused by many character educators that moral education consists of passively internalizing the norms and values of one's society.

Inspired by Socrates, Kohlberg believed that moral education ought to encourage students to question the status quo and to develop moral principles that reflect the ideal of the good. Kohlberg's initial approach to moral education presented students with hypothetical moral dilemmas that forced them to choose among conflicting moral values and justify their choices with persuasive reasons (Reimer, Paolitto, Hersh, & Hersh, 1983). Over the past five decades, a substantial body of research has demonstrated the effectiveness of the moral discussion approach in a wide variety of contexts and cultures (Araki, 2014; Lind, 2016; Power & Power, 2012). Despite research supporting the moral discussion approach, the application of the approach in schools and extracurricular activities, such as sports teams, has been limited. Moral discussion leaders must facilitate dialogue and engage in Socratic questioning (Kohlberg, 1981; Power & Power, 2012). Leading moral discussions requires more skill and preparation than giving a lecture.

Kohlberg himself recognized the difficulty of leading classroom discussions of hypothetical and historical dilemmas in autocratic schools. In his best-known educational essay, "Educating for Justice," Kohlberg (1981) concluded that a serious approach to moral education would require a new approach to schooling itself: "The Platonic view I've been espousing suggests something still revolutionary and frightening to me if not to you, that the schools would be radically different places if they took seriously the teaching of real knowledge of the good" (p. 48). Kohlberg regarded most classroom moral discussions as limited and artificial because they are removed from deliberation about real life issues. Moreover, like Durkheim (1925/1973), he believed that that best kind of moral education would engage students not as isolated individuals but as members of a democratic school community. This emphasis on collaborative decision-making and community-building was the basis for the just community approach (Power et al., 1989). It has informed educational interventions throughout the United States, Europe, and Asia (Althof, 2003; Lee, 2004; Oser, 2014; Oser, Althof, & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2008; Power & Power,

1992) and has been applied to extracurricular as well as school settings (Power & Seroczynsky, 2014).

Challenges to the Moral Education Approach

As influential as Kohlberg's approach has been, particularly within the academic community, its challenge to conventional methods of teaching virtue through didactic instruction, clear and consistent disciplinary policies, and role modeling provoked considerable controversy. Through the 1980s and into the 1990s, the character education movement emerged, which championed a traditionalist approach to teaching virtue. Led by a loose coalition of policy-makers, social scientists, and philosophers, such as President Ronald Reagan's Secretaries of Education, William Bennett (1993), Kevin Ryan (1989), and Edward Wynne (1989), the character education movement defined itself as a traditionalist alternative to what they regarded as Kohlberg's progressive reformist approach. Leaders of the character education movement advocated what they called an Aristotelian approach focused on instilling personal virtues, such as loyalty and self-control through the formation of habits. They believed that children need strong authority figures and good examples for their moral formation rather than dilemma discussions and democratic meetings, which they believe reduced to liberal indoctrination or permissive relativism.

Over time, the polarized disputes between the moral and character camps abated as proponents of both approaches identified areas of common ground. In fact, instead of becoming adversaries, moral and character educators became allies in a common cause. Rather than signaling opposition to Kohlberg's approach to moral education, a new character education movement emerged. Led by well-known moral educators, such as Thomas Lickona (1991), the new movement adopted a "big tent" philosophy welcoming all ideological and theoretical positions.

As the area of character education broadened to include a wide variety of educational methods and definitions of virtue, the once tight-knit moral education field broadened as well to include theories and constructs beyond the development of moral judgment. Among these are social domain theory, which focuses on morality as one of the three distinctive categories of social evaluation (e.g., Killen & Smetana, 2015; Nucci, 2001; Nucci & Turiel, 2009); moral identity theory, which focuses on the role of the self in moral agency (Blasi, 1984); and the Integrated Ethical Education approach, which applies a skills approach to the development of virtues. (Narvaez, 2006). These post-Kohlbergian approaches drew liberally from nonmoral research traditions but remained rooted in a rational developmental view of what constituted moral maturity.

In the last decade, the social psychologist Jonathan Haidt and his colleagues (Haidt & Graham, 2007) have presented the coalition of character and moral educators with a fundamental challenge to their central assumptions about the nature of morality and the feasibility of moral education. Drawing on evolutionary psychology, neuroscience, and cultural anthropology (e.g., Schweder, 1991), Haidt and Graham (2007) have proposed a "new synthesis" in moral psychology. In an article provocatively entitled, "When Morality Opposes Justice," Haidt and Graham (2007) argue that the Kohlbergians' definition of morality as justice and care is a reflection of their own partisan liberal ideology, which is only a piece of a much bigger moral pie. Haidt and Graham (2007) counter that the ideology of many political conservatives is rooted in equally valid "moral principles" based on moral values upholding group solidarity, authority, and purity, stating, "We argue that the principles of principled conservatism go beyond fairness to include principles that liberals do not acknowledge to be moral principles, such as unconditional loyalty to one's group, respect for one's superiors, and the avoidance of carnal pleasures" (p. 4).

Haidt and Graham (2007) draw on research from Haidt and Joseph (2004) in originally identifying five different moral systems or intuitive foundations embodied in cultures throughout the world: (a) care/harm, (b) fairness/cheating, (c) loyalty/betrayal, (d) authority/subversion, and

(e) sanctity/degradation, to which Haidt (2012) later added (f) liberty/oppression. In Haidt's view, these systems are like "taste buds" that lead to positive or negative emotional reactions to social phenomena and become the basis for enculturated norms and values. In addition to criticizing Kohlberg's narrow focus on the morality of justice, the second foundation, Haidt (2012) also criticizes his appeal to the primacy of moral reasoning informing judgments leading to action. Haidt believes that moral reasoning generally functions to provide post hoc rationalizations of intuitively generated choices. Accordingly, moral education cannot be expected to lead individuals with different moral foundations to reach a moral consensus. If Haidt is right, liberals and conservatives are doomed to disagree because their ideologies are built on rationally irreconcilable intuitive differences, with liberals understanding, appreciating, and championing primarily three of the foundations (i.e., care/harm, fairness/cheating, and liberty/oppression) and conservatives endorsing all six (Haidt, 2012).

The new synthesis provides no dialogical path to reconciliation. In fact, the new synthesis reopens old debates between cognitive moral developmentalists and relativistic social scientists and between liberal moral and conservative character educators. Ironically, Haidt's moral psychology leads us to an impasse as we look for ways for preparing children to confront differing moralities within their own societies and the international community itself. How can the next generation hope to resolve value differences when those differences are rooted in preconscious intuitions about right and wrong? Although Haidt's new synthesis may help to explain why moral disagreements appear to be intractable, it leaves us in a moral morass of conflicting moral viewpoints.

Beyond Ideology: Psychological Approaches

As we can understand in light of this brief historical sketch, efforts to teach about ethics or values in schools have led to serious and acrimonious disagreements between liberals and conservatives about what values or virtues ought to be taught and how they should be taught. Psychological approaches, such as positive youth development (PYD) and social and emotional learning (SEL), have sought to get beyond this impasse by side-stepping "hot" political and moral issues and focusing on psychological outcomes that we may agree on, such as health, self-awareness, and social functioning.

Positive Youth Development (PYD)

As its name implies, PYD emphasizes children's strengths and potentials to lead a good and responsible life. PYD's positive view of children contrasts with what Lerner (2005) describes as an older "deficit model," which focuses on children's limitations and failures. From the perspective of applied psychology, PYD focuses not on fixing what is wrong with children but in fostering what is right. A second essential characteristic of PYD is its deep interactionist perspective. PYD draws on theoretical constructs put forward by Bronfenbrenner (1979), Dewey (1966), Overton (1973), and Lerner (1978) that respond to the nature-nurture controversy by explaining human development as a systemic interaction between personal genetic and contextual environmental influences. PYD links the development of the individual with the development of society and the various groups that make it up (e.g., family, school, and neighborhood).

In addition to being interactionist, PYD is integrative, regarding children and their environment holistically from a systems perspective. Within that framework, Lerner (2002) describes the goal of PYD at the level of the individual as "thriving" (p. 15), which is more than simply personal flourishing. According to Lerner, individuals thrive when they contribute to those around them and experience personal success. This begs the question of how to discern what constitutes a contribution to others and what qualifies as success. According to Lerner, a thriving individual makes contributions that are "culturally valued" (p. 16). Presumably he characterizes "success" similarly. Yet Lerner goes on to describe the thriving person as a leader who "improves social life and social justice" (p. 17). This standard for assessing the social worth of contributions to society and personal success goes beyond what is culturally approved at a particular point in time. Working for social improvements and social justice requires recognizing that aspects of the existing social order are unjust or failing to serve the common good. PYD offers a sophisticated and comprehensive framework for understanding the complexities of human interaction. Yet PYD fails to provide principled ways of resolving basic conflicts between those who would uphold the status quo and those who oppose it.

Social and Emotional Learning (SEL)

SEL is based in the principles and perspectives of PYD and provides school psychologists with classroom-ready programming grounded in well-accepted theory and research. Proponents of SEL emphasize that it is value-free in contrast to moral education: "Moral education focuses on values and social-emotional learning focuses on the skills and attitudes needed to function in relevant social environments" (Elias, Parker, Kash, Weissberg, & O'Brien, 2007, p. 248). Like PYD, SEL attempts to avoid conflicts over values by taking a purely psychological approach with the aim of promoting the well-being of the whole child. Rather than trying to address discrete behavioral problems with, for example, targeted programs for preventing bullying or substance use, SEL offers a systemic approach that provides a "foundation for empathic responding and prosocial action" (Schonert-Reichl & O'Brien, 2012, p. 312).

SEL's approach to understanding one's own and others' emotional responses and relationships thus constitutes a propaedeutic to more focused approaches to character, moral, and civic education. Schonert-Reichel and O'Brien (2012) argue that social and emotional competencies provide a "path to becoming caring and contributing citizens" (p. 312). They also argue that attending to social and emotional issues within schools is an important way of promoting children's mental health. In the United States, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention estimates that approximately one child in five copes with a mental health disorder in a given year (Merikangas et al., 2010). Similar estimates hold for children throughout the world (e.g., Merikangas, Nakamura, & Kessler, 2009). SEL responds to children's need for school-based resources that serve not only to prevent mental health problems but also to nip them in the bud. Like PYD, SEL does more than prevent or treat health problems. SEL provides a comprehensive compendium of resources for fostering competencies related to self-understanding and self-esteem, perspective-taking and relationship-building, self-regulation and goal-setting, conflict resolution, decision-making, and citizenship (Durlak, Domitrovich, Weissberg, & Gullotta, 2015). SEL material is available internationally (Elias, 2003; Schonert-Richel & O'Brien, 2012; see also, CASEL website www.casel.org).

One of the most significant contributions of SEL to schooling more generally is its broad advocacy for the social, nonacademic dimension of education. Attempts to address this dimension in a serious and coordinated way date back to John Dewey (1966). Yet strikingly little progress has been made in establishing social and emotional learning as a part of the school curriculum. Part of the problem has to do with proponents' as well as critics' depictions of socio-emotional learning competencies as "soft skills" or as addressing the "heart" and not the "head." As we shall see more clearly in the following discussion of prosocial education, social and emotional learning has an important cognitive dimension, which develops as a result of perspective-taking, problem-solving, and reflection. In our view, PYD and SEL deserve a place in the curriculum not only because they facilitate academic learning but also because they are an essential part of the academic learning itself.

Prosocial Education

Prosocial education, like PYD and SEL, encompasses a wide array of educational programs with the common purpose of addressing children's personal and social needs and development. In fact, the two-volume *Handbook of Prosocial Education* (Brown, Corrigan, & Higgins-D'Allesandro, 2012) includes chapters on PYD, SEL, moral, character, and civic education, as well as chapters focusing on the prevention of harassment, intimidation, and bullying, school climate and culture improvement, service learning, and mindfulness. The *Handbook* also includes chapters that refer to prosocial education as an approach of its own. In the Preface, the editors lay out the history and rationale for the *Handbook*. They explain that their project emerged out of a frustration with the failure to take hold in school of a wide array of well-designed programs that address students' nonacademic lives. Like the proponents of PYD and SEL, they sought to provide an "umbrella" for these programs that would identify common objectives and methods and constitute a "common front" in bringing about educational reform.

The editors argue that prosocial education needs to be incorporated into the process of schooling to complement the overemphasis on academic achievement alone. As the editors put it, "We rallied against the lack of leadership in bringing the socializing goals of education into proper alignment with increasing stress on the academic and cognitive side of development" (p. xvii). One of the editors, Higgins-D'Allesandro (2012), states that prosocial education refers to "non-academic" capacities (p. 12). Elsewhere, she notes that prosocial education prepares children for the "tests of life" and not a "life of tests" (p. 17). Although the editors use prosocial as a generic label that includes the constructs and concerns addressed by PYD and SEL, the term prosocial is also used to refer to a research tradition focused on actions undertaken to benefit others which includes but is not limited to altruistic actions that entail self-sacrifice (Carlo, 2006). Much of the current research conducted on prosocial development (e.g., Eisenberg, Eggum, & Di Giunta, 2010) is based on Batson (1991) and Hoffman's (2000) studies of empathy. Educational applications of prosocial research involve not only developing children's sensitivity to the feelings of others but also levels of prosocial reasoning that require reflection about the needs of others and society more generally (Carlo, 2006; Carlo, Eisenberg, & Knight, 1992). Because it is grounded in empathy and focused on a concern for others, prosocial education may thus be regarded as a subset of PYD and SEL.

Although prosocial education is often conflated with character and moral education, prosocial education does not provide principles for deciding among the competing claims of the self and others. Caring about others and even taking their perspective is an important part of moral functioning, but ultimately individuals must assess and prioritize among different courses of action. Empathy may motivate moral concern and action but requires critical judgment if it is to lead to responsible action. This is especially the case in adjudicating among conflicting courses of political action. For example, policies that require fair hiring practices make it more difficult to hire family members or people with whom one may feel more familiar or comfortable. Empathy may lead one to favor "one's own kind" but justice dictates that people should be hired based on their qualifications. Character education, although typically included as an element of PYD, SEL, and prosocial education, is itself an umbrella approach encompassing diverse virtues and teaching practices. In fact, Berkowitz and Bier (2005) define character education broadly enough to include PYD, SEL, and prosocial education: "Character is the composite of those psychological characteristics that impact the child's capacity and tendency to be an effective moral agent, i.e. to be socially and personally responsible, ethical, and self-managed (p. 4)." Although this definition emphasizes social as well as personal responsibility, like PYD and SEL, character education encompasses an almost unlimited range of psychological variables relating to agency and self-regulation.

Unlike prosocial education, however, character education includes the cultivation of achievement-related virtues, such as hard work, perseverance, and most recently grit (Duckworth, 2016). Lickona and Davidson (2005) distinguish achievement-related virtues from prosocial virtues, such as justice and kindness, by differentiating performance character from moral character. Within this framework, performance character focuses on the pursuit of mastery or excellence while moral character focuses on relationships, including the relationship with self. Although moral and performance virtues are generally desirable, they are not considered of the same worth. For example, teachers may emphasize the virtues of hard work and persistence in the classroom while failing to give proper attention to the virtues of cooperation and honesty. Policymakers and school administrators may justify their failure to allot time and resources to PYD, SEL, or prosocial education as rooted in a virtuous concern for academic excellence in a highly competitive culture. Fiscally conservative politicians may believe that cultivating grit in children from low-income families will work just as well as a more equitable distribution of resources.

The character education coalition goes beyond PYD, SEL, and prosocial education, by calling attention to the importance of cultivating values and virtues both in students' personal lives and in the class environment. Yet the major weakness of many conceptualizations within the character education coalition has been a failure to provide principles for organizing and prioritizing among values. The leaders of the character education coalition have laudably embraced a wide variety of programs aimed at forming virtues that ostensibly contribute to social harmony and personal thriving. Yet, character education programs, like PYD, SEL, and prosocial education programs, fail to provide a sophisticated morally principled approach that helps students to engage the conflicts and inertia that plague their societies and the global community. As Kohlberg (1981) put it, by trying to be all things to all people, character education often ends up being "wishy washy" (p. 35).

The Distinctive Role of Moral Education in Developing Responsible Citizens

All of the umbrella approaches to children's personal and social development provide rich resources for the school psychologist. Yet, in our view, the Convention on the Rights of the Child calls for more than helping children to thrive, building their social and emotional skills, or even developing their character. In our view, acting as a responsible member of society demands a moral commitment to work for social justice in a highly discerning manner. In a study of college students' descriptions of their ideal selves (the self that they aspired to become), Power and Power (2008) found that although 85% of the respondents referred to moral virtues related to their interpersonal relationships, such as honesty and kindness, only 37% mentioned virtues related to the wider society or global community. They also found that students with societally oriented moral self-descriptors were significantly more likely to become politically engaged than interpersonally oriented moral self-descriptors. This finding indicates the importance of educating students in ways encouraging them to see themselves as members of society in addition to being individuals and members of family and friendships groups. How individuals acquire a social perspective is a topic in need of further research. However, we do know from research on the moral atmosphere of schools that taking the perspective of a group as a whole can be cultivated through the just community approach to moral education (Power et al., 1989). We also know that membership in an extracurricular group, such as a sports team, band, or drama club, can cultivate a sense of responsibility for others outside of one's peer group (Power & Seroczynski, 2014).

All of the approaches that we have reviewed recognize the psychological importance of establishing healthy peer group relationships and the dangers of peer isolation and rejection. Membership in a group helps meet a basic need for belonging (e.g., Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Moreover, from the perspective of character education, participation in a group is a good way to develop the virtue of loyalty, which benefits both the individual group member and the group itself. Yet from the perspective of moral education, the virtue of loyalty cannot exist in isolation, particularly apart from considerations of justice and liberty. It is not a virtue to be loyal to a gang that preys upon or threatens those outside the gang. Haidt (2012) understands loyalty as arising out of an intuition based on an evolutionary history of forming tribal associations and cultivated through in-group experience. Loyalty appears to be a necessary disposition for living in any kind of society. Moreover, loyalty may well motivate taking a responsible leadership role within the group by opposing group norms that may be unjust. Yet loyalty in and of itself does not guarantee such behavior. In fact, appeals to group loyalty are typically made to stifle dissent from an established group norm.

In our view, preparing for responsible membership in a free society entails loyalty not necessarily to the existing norms of the society but to its ideal norms. Those ideals may vary according to the society's particular history and needs but should be consistent with the demands of justice based on respect for the equal rights of all. Loyalty to the ideals of a democratic society demands taking a legislative role in advocating for social change.

The Challenge of Inclusiveness and Moral Transformation

All of the approaches that we have discussed recognize the importance of building a school and classroom environment that encourages children to develop the competencies that will serve them as adult citizens. Few of these approaches, however, address in any sustained way what kinds of formal and informal organizational structures are needed for such development. Failing to examine these structures, which influence the hidden values curriculum of schools (Giroux & Penna, 1983), results in a tacit acceptance of the status quo.

One of the most penetrating analyses of the moral environment of the elementary school is Vivien Paley's (1993) classic, *You Can't Say You Can't Play*. The title of Paley's book comes from her attempt to address the painful fact that children begin excluding others from their playgroups at school as early as kindergarten. Paley writes that one can observe in the kindergarten the beginnings of a power structure in which "certain children will have the right to limit the social experiences of their classmates" (p. 3). As this structure becomes embedded up the elementary grades and into the middle grades, an informal peer hierarchy develops dictating the boundaries of social inclusion: "a ruling class will notify others of their acceptability, and the outsiders learn to anticipate the sting of rejection" (p. 3).

Paley (1993) illustrated how this structure operates and its hurtful effects with an incident from her own kindergarten class. A student, Angelo called her over to comfort "shy" Clara, who was crying. Clara explained what was going on to her teacher, "Cynthia and Lisa builded a house for their puppies and I said can I play and they said no because I don't have a puppy I only have a kitty. They said I'm not their friend" (p. 14). Paley acted as many teachers do and asked Cynthia and Lisa to let Clara play with them. They refused. Lisa stood her ground and explained, "It was my game. It was up to me." The PYD, SEL, and prosocial approaches provide important resources for helping students to develop the self-awareness, social skills, and coping mechanisms to negotiate this routine conflict on the playground. Paley responded as a "caring" teacher in empathically attending to the social dynamics of her classroom and intervening in a nonthreatening way to assist Clara. She approached Cynthia and Lisa in a gentle way, asking, not ordering, them to include Clara.

Lisa offered a plausible argument for her position. She claimed that because she had started playing with Cynthia, she had the right to include or exclude Clara. Damon's (1980) research on the development of young children's conceptions of distributive justice shows that children as young as 4 years old recognize the need to give reasons to support their claims in conflictual situations. He noted that their reasons develop from simple assertions of want to self-serving rationalizations and finally to objective appeals to principles of equality, merit, and equity. Damon's (1990) research and studies of social cognition (see Gibbs, 2014) suggest that, contrary to Haidt (2012), children's reasons may be more than rationalizations. Moreover, moral education approaches that involve discussion and deliberation demand that teachers take children's reasoning seriously. Paley (1993) could have interpreted through an SEL lens that Lisa's assertion of her right to decide whether or not to allow Clara to play with her and Cynthia was due to her insensitivity to Clara's feelings or a lack of empathy. From a character education perspective, she could have interpreted Lisa's refusal to comply with her request to include Clara as a failure to respect authority or even as an act of disobedience. Paley also could have taken Lisa's side. After all, Lisa and Cynthia were playing nicely until Clara intruded. Perhaps Paley should have suggested that Clara play with Angelo, who had initially responded to her distress. If Clara really wanted to be included in Lisa and Cynthia's group, Paley may have suggested that Clara ask her parents for a dog or find another way into Cynthia and Lisa's play group.

Paley (1993) decided to take Lisa's argument seriously. Did Lisa really have the "right" to exclude Clara? Put more generally, should children be free to play with those whom they like? The PYD and SEL literatures make clear the psychological dangers of peer rejection and exclusion (e. g., Waas, 2006). Allowing children to exclude others may thus come with a price. Simply being sensitive to the negative consequences of peer rejection does not, however, lead to a solution of the problem. Forcing Lisa to be "nice" to Clara by including her may not be considerate of Lisa, who is simply defending her freedom to choose her playmates.

Rather than frame the matter as an interpersonal conflict or as a matter of individual conscience, Paley (1993) proposed, for class consideration, a novel classroom rule: "you can't say you can't play." Paley's proposal was a radical one, and she knew it. Lisa's appeal to her "right" to exclude whomever she wanted was based on a time-honored tradition. If Paley believed that exclusion was wrong, why not appeal to individual consciences of the children in the classroom? By proposing a rule forbidding exclusion, Paley asked the children to take responsibility for the class as a whole. In our view, Paley practiced democratic deliberation in a way that engaged her students to act not only as individuals but also as members of a mini-political society. This is the kind of education that we believe prepares the citizens of tomorrow. It is an education that, first, helps children to realize that they are members of a society; second, helps them to become aware of the unspoken rules of that society; and third, puts them in a legislative role, giving them the power and the responsibility to change the rules that govern their social lives in school.

Predictably, Paley's (1993) proposal met with considerable opposition; only 4 of the 25 children in Paley's kindergarten class agreed with it. Not surprisingly those four were those most frequently excluded. Paley took her proposal for a "you can't say 'you can't play'" rule up through the higher grades and encountered increasingly stronger opposition. By the time children get to the fifth grade, peer exclusion has become a fact of life. Yet coupled with this sense that exclusion is inevitable, she discovered a dawning realization that change was possible. When Paley discussed her proposed rule with the fifth graders, some acknowledged that it would be a good rule in an ideal world. Most the students, however, thought the rule was impractical or would require a long, deliberate process of implementation. For example, one student explained: "It would take years to get used to. You really have to start in kindergarten" (p. 100). Another student hardened to the reality of exclusion objected to even proposing such a rule because it would create the false hope that exclusion really could be overcome: "In your whole life you're not going to go through life never being excluded. So you may as well learn it now" (p. 100).

With some prodding from Paley (1993), however, some students mused about the possibility of changing. If exclusivity had become a habit, maybe it was possible to replace it with a habit of inclusion. One student, however, countered that by the fifth-grade habits were set in stone: "When you get older, some people really don't care. You're a little meaner" (p. 100). Others were not so sure. One girl argued: "People can be trained to be nice or to fight. Or both ways, like us" (p. 100). The children then traded memories about painful rejections. Paley noticed that no one described the experience of doing the rejecting. Although not all children were routinely rejected, many had been snubbed, even by those they thought were their friends. In this phase of the discussion, Paley helped students to not only explore their own feelings but also examine in their own terms the nature-nurture controversy. We might characterize the discussions that Paley initiated as a form of group therapy (Glasser, 1998). Paley provided a safe and secure context in which children could share painful feelings and frustrations about their social interactions. She was at all times inviting and affirming. Many children spoke up in the group meetings. A few children approached her privately to thank her or to add their own stories. By bringing the phenomenon of peer exclusion into the open, Paley had a better grasp of the extent of the problem and was in a better position to comfort the victims. She was also able to sensitize those who did the excluding, those whom the younger children described as the "bosses."

Although Paley's (1993) intervention had demonstrable therapeutic benefits, we will miss its significance if we see it in purely psychological terms, as a psychotherapeutic process rather than as a legislative-moral process. Paley's goal in pressing for a rule went beyond promoting empathy or prosocial action. Paley wanted to expose and transform the moral fabric of the school itself. Through her discussions with students and teachers, she concluded that by kindergarten, "structure begins to be revealed and will soon be carved in stone. Certain children will have the right to limit the social experiences of their classmates. Henceforth a ruling class will notify others of their acceptability, and the outsiders learn to anticipate the sting of rejection" (p. 3).

On one level, Paley (1993) succeeded in raising consciousness about the desirability of building a just community in which every child had a voice and was accepted. If classrooms are to promote every child's thriving, then inclusivity should be the norm. The real problem, as it turned out, was that the children did not believe that they or their peers could live up to such a norm. They agreed on the ideal of inclusion, but their experience in school convinced them such an ideal was an impossible dream. Ironically, Paley noted, and we can confirm, many, if not most, teachers agree with the children that the ideal is too much to ask of everyone and each individual will have to navigate toward social acceptance on his or her own. All too often teachers settle by rules that forbid overt physical aggression and name-calling without ever engaging the covert structures of power and rejection. Even teachers who regularly involve students in making rules democratically are reluctant to challenge the status quo by proposing a "You can't say" rule. Although some teachers are not attuned to the problem of exclusion to begin with or lack the conviction to advocate for a rule that seems to trespass against others' freedom, many teachers lack confidence in the power of democratic deliberation to make meaningful social change. They understand, quite rightly in our view, that the rule cannot be imposed on students from above or simply voted on. For the rule to work, students must not only agree with it but also must be willing to support and enforce it. Is this even possible?

By the end of book, Paley's (1993) patient advocacy appears to pay off, as she shows that once students adopt the rule, they have some success in upholding it. Those who were once on the outside feel they are a part of the classroom community, and those on the inside are making an effort to be more welcoming. Paley's classroom is not the only example that democratic moral education can lead to significant social environmental as well as personal development.

To Paley's (1993) account, we can add the documented successes of just community alternative schools and programs in building norms that forbid bullying and peer rejection and mandate caring for all members, including and especially those who are unpopular (Power et al., 1989; Power & Power, 1992, 2012). Admittedly, it is difficult to follow in Paley's footsteps. Paley could have settled for a purely psychological goal and focused on fostering empathy for children who experience peer rejection. She turned peer rejection into a moral and political issue by asking the children to choose between adopting a policy of inclusion and allowing the "popular children" to exclude their peers at will. Paley then engaged the children in a developmentally appropriate process of democratic deliberation.

Democratic Deliberation Through Civil Discourse

Building on Paley's (1993) example and the previously cited approaches to moral deliberation and discussion, we conclude our chapter by recommending the application of a hybrid form of the "academic debate" model for use by children, youth, and adults. At all times in history, human beings individually and collectively have held a variety of opinions and have acted upon them to the benefit or detriment of quality of life for themselves and others. While we have amazing thinking and reasoning powers (see Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume; Kaku, 2012), too often these are employed to confirm preferred beliefs (Nickerson, 1998) and avoid cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). The present state of extreme disunity and divisiveness in and across the nations of the world (e.g., between law enforcement and minorities; religious extremists, liberals, and conservatives) threatens all institutions, ways of life, and life itself. It seems to be exacerbated significantly by electronic media which has spawned highly partisan news and comment sources and weakened programs of balanced exploration, debate, and shared experience. This has put democratic practices, including democratic deliberation, at risk.

Occasionally, maybe rather often, when presented with a challenge or dilemma of this magnitude, the answer is present but not recognized fully for its promise to this purpose. This is one of those times! In this chapter, the interventions of positive youth development, social emotional learning, prosocial education, and character development have been recognized for their significant but insufficient contributions toward the goal of achieving responsible citizenship. Added to and in concert with such child development programs, we believe the democratic deliberation through civil discourse approach, operationalized in the academic debate model proposed here, is teacher-friendly and holds great promise for helping children to engage in responsible and productive behavior based on moral principle and an open-minded search for truth. The subsections that follow suggest employing the variations of the Ethics Bowl example to establish viable frameworks for civil discourse and provide preliminary guidance for its application in school communities with contributions by school psychologists.

Civil Discourse in the Ethics Bowl Form of Academic Debate

Respectful argument, discourse supported by knowledge, reason, and a genuine search for truth, is at the heart of academic debate. *Debate*, as defined by the National Speech and Debate Association, "involves an individual or a team of debaters working to effectively convince a judge that their side of a resolution is, as a general principle, more valid. Students in debate come to thoroughly understand both sides of the resolution, having researched each extensively, and learn to think critically about every argument that could be made on each side" (retrieved 1 June 2017 at https://www.speechanddebate.org/membership/). Inherent in this conceptualization is the "switch-side" possibility, that is, the requirement for participants to be ready to argue each opposing position of resolution to an issue. This paradigm is familiar to teachers and professors who have applied it in their classes (James Garbarino, Loyola University Chicago, personal communication, 2017).

Debate on arguments of substance generally does not deal simply with information but with values, ethics, and morals of relevance to the human condition and quality of life. For example, serious debate would not attend to the question of whether vaccinations for measles reduce the likelihood of measles, which can be answered based on available data. However, it would be authentically debatable to consider the question of whether families should be required to have their children vaccinated to prevent measles and to suffer penalties if they do not, which would address human rights, the significance given to side effects, and the public health danger represented by non-vaccinated persons. The Ethics Bowl debate model has relevance in that it

> provides the opportunity to learn about applied ethics through the analysis, research, and critical discussion of ethical case studies that incorporate real world ethical conflicts from politics, business, international affairs, popular culture, and their personal lives. It is a competitive event formatted around collaborative moral reasoning and critical thinking rather than "winning" through the use of rhetorically effective argumentation. The Ethics Bowl sets a unique stage for thinking about ethical concepts, beliefs, and actions by introducing students to tough situations where "hard ethical thinking" can find an obvious practical use for collaborative problem solving (retrieved 1 June 2017 at https://nhseb.unc.edu/files/2013/09/A-Guide-to-Preparing-for-the-National-High-School-Ethics-Bowl.pdf).

The following directions provide a sequence of steps for using the Ethics Bowl format to foster civil discourse employing moral values and ethical dilemmas. These steps can be formulated for application within a class, the school, the community, or higher levels of organization.

Step 1. Preparation. This is a vitally important step in any discussion, but particularly in any type of analysis of ethical and moral dimensions of a topic. Start by creating a case study with the fundamentals needed for a baseline discussion. For example, let's consider the topic of school uniforms. Many students are interested in the issue of what appropriate apparel for schools is and what limitations the school administration can impose. The case study (no more than two pages; possibly embedded in a vignette read by and/or to the potential participants and in language accessible to them) should introduce the following questions:

(a) Why is the issue of school uniforms important today? Establish that the topic is significant and relevant.
(b) What actions may schools (public and private) take to limit choices related to clothing? Explain the benefits to the schools of either adopting specific policies regarding clothing or establishing a formal uniform code.
(c) What harms come from limiting student choice in clothing? Discuss briefly the counterpoints, such as freedom of expression and affordability of clothing.
(d) What laws, codes, or guidelines could be considered? Briefly discuss what some schools have done. Provide examples and relevant research as support (include a references page).

The key with the case study is to make it objective. Reading or hearing the summary should promote a balanced understanding of the issues involved and establish conditions for further research as desired and needed. A good case study also provides enough material that, if time for research is not available, the students could still engage in a meaningful and useful discussion of the significant issues at hand. (The case study, or summary of issue context, might be generated by the students in their own words through a process facilitated by adults [e.g., teachers] or peers.) Be sure that everyone has the case study or case studies in advance of the discussion and that everyone is familiar with Ethics Bowl (debate) rules and procedures.

Step 2. Present and Clarify the Dilemma. Depending upon the age of the students, you may want to present the case study in writing and let the students read it and discuss the issues involved in the case study. As part of your presentation, however, be sure to explain how the Ethics Bowl/debate process works and share some sample questions that may be posed as part of the debate. (If this debate model becomes a regular part of school community life, its framework and practices will become integral to the way issues are addressed and, therefore, eventually require less framing.) The Ethics Bowl involves dividing students into teams of at least three and no more than six. The students will present a response to a question based upon the content of the case study. The students have a brief period of time (say, 5 to 10 minutes, although you may choose to provide more or less time) to prepare their statement to the other team. Because the students should be thinking about arguments in advance of the Ethics Bowl itself, they should spend most of that preparation time deciding which students respond to specific aspects of the case study and gathering information in support of the various or opposing resolutions to issues. As a facilitator, create some sample questions that may be considered in response to the case study. Here are some examples of questions you might pose based upon the school dress code issue presented above:

(a) Is the imposition of a dress code by a school unethical (or unfair)?
(b) Is the imposition of a dress code by a school a violation of one's freedom of speech (or right to choose)?
(c) Is it ethical (right or wrong/good or bad) for students to be allowed to wear anything they want?
(d) Is the wearing of specific clothing in school a moral activity (right or wrong/good or bad)?
(e) Is it ethical (right or wrong) for schools to require students to purchase and wear a school uniform?

The questions can be modified based upon the age of the students and the details of the case study. For younger ages, some additional work may need to be done to present the issue in a more accessible way. Instead of a formal case study, you might create a skit performed by older students for the younger students. In the example above, you could create a skit in which two students are talking about how fair/unfair the dress code is. Alternatively, you could model an interaction in which a school administrator is gently reprimanding a student for violating the dress code. Using narratives is a terrific way to engage younger students and show them some of the issues related to the dilemma and various ways to approach them.

Step 3. Discuss Perspectives on the Dilemma (and, if applicable, potential solutions). In the Ethics Bowl format, teams are presented with a question related to the case study, with one team creating a statement in response to the question posed. The team should clarify the ethical dilemma posed within the question, present an ethical or moral framework appropriate for the position taken, and then propose an action, perspective, or solution to the dilemma (5–10 minutes). The opposing team should discuss responses to the first team's analysis and approach to the ethical dilemma. That team then presents a response to the first team (5 minutes). The first team responds to the second team's arguments and ideas (5 minutes). And the first round of the Ethics Bowl concludes with questions from the judge panel (10 minutes). (As an alternative, the issue/dilemma could be posed to a set of debate candidates, a total group process could generate optional/opposing resolutions, two teams could be formed both with the responsibility to prepare to champion all major opposing resolutions, and on day/time for the debate they could be assigned the side they would take, with rounds following for reaction and deeper treatment.) Here is an example of an approach in response to one of the questions above (this is just an example; there are many, many ways to respond to various types of arguments and ideas). Using the second question above, *Is the imposition of a dress code by a school a violation of one's freedom of speech?*

(a) *Introduction*. The students discuss a situation within the case study in which a student was expelled from school for a day for wearing a shirt with an expression on it which the school regards as potentially offensive to a number of students.
(b) *Framework*. The team is going to argue that the answer to the question is yes; it is a violation of freedom of speech. The framework considered is based upon the constitutional protections afforded all citizens of the United

States, even for those who are under the age of 18.

(c) *Perspectives/ solutions*. The team may wish to describe why student expression is needed in schools; the team may describe school-wide discussions regarding the nature of expression and how student voices can be used as tools to promote unique voices; the team may focus on why expressing one's voice is more beneficial than the potential for offending or distressing another group.

The question selected in this case is one of the more difficult of the proposed set, as it raises issues that not only involve ethics but also legal dimensions of the topic. Be sure to pick a question and case study based upon the age and grade level of the students.

Step 4. Discuss the dilemma in small groups. Before the Ethics Bowl is conducted, it is best to have some small group discussion of the arguments that may be presented. If you divide the students up into small groups, you can assign each group a different question based upon the case study and ask each group to present some of their arguments and ideas to all participants. This may spark some additional discussion among the students and lead to productive discussions. Even if you do not have younger students involved, you may want to have the students create skits, or do some type of performance-based activity to get them up and moving around. As mentioned above, performances and narratives add a completely different perspective to the topics and can enrich the debates.

Application in the School Community

An understanding and appreciation of the nature and values of civil discourse will be necessary across constituents in the school community if a rigorous and pervading program is to be constructed, owned, and implemented by that community. This will require provision of information to and consultations with school community leaders. Optimally, this body would include representatives of local government and a wide array of community services and administrative, teaching, special services, parents, and students involved in local education. Consultations should respect the spirit of civil discourse, that is, full opportunity to respectfully explore and debate relevant factors and determination of most promising course(s) to serve informed interests. Acceptance and investment in civil discourse by the school community will logically be premised to a large extent on the benefits likely to accrue, the feasibility of organizational designs, and the ready availability of supports for implementation.

Multiple benefits consistent with school community values can be championed as expectations from the civil discourse initiative. Both through intention of design and incidentally, a pervasive program of issue identification, clarification, investigation, and debate should advance individual and community critical thinking, discernment, mutual respect across involved parties, direct action, and advocacy, all contributing to ascending democratic citizenship. Effective progress applying civil discourse toward these ends, by its very nature, can advance participant empathy (especially appreciation for views other than one's own); reading, language, and communication competency; and numerous character competencies, such as delay of gratification, perseverance, and grit. Civil discourse can be designed with the intention to explore, advance, and bring into conscious management the values Haidt (2012) considers to be intuitively based: caring, fairness, liberty, loyalty, authority, and sanctity. It can also be designed to deal with laws/rules/crime, ethics and social contracts, and morality and universal principles.

Credible and practical organizational plans and frameworks are essential for acceptance and implementation of a civil discourse initiative of the nature proposed here. Applying the spirit of civil discourse, this is probably best done by school community engagement processes that explore/investigate existing or potential organizational frameworks, possibly employing an appreciative inquiry approach (Hammond, 2013), and that formulate long range plans with a strategic set of early-, intermediate-, and later-stage components leading to sustainability. Initial steps will be particularly important in establishing the reality of positive expectations and the network of persons, programs, and experiences for further development. Consideration of early pump-primer steps might include empowerment of interest groups to organize face-to-face and cyberspace civil discourse programs involving departments, teachers, and students in social studies, civics, and history classes; in student councils/government; and/or in clubs. Experimental seed-form events can be analyzed and extended/expanded based on results and opportunity. The Glasser (1975) Class Meeting is a good procedure for identifying issues of concern to children and youth, and the Ethics Bowl (ethicsbowl@unc.edu), as considered here, provides a model for structuring research and debate/discourse on issues at the secondary school level. Two conceptual frameworks will be particularly important for long-term planning: child development and the social ecology. A developmental approach (Vaghri, Flories, & Mojtabavi, chapter "Promoting Healthy Child Development: A Child Rights Perspective", this volume) should be envisioned and progressively operationalized to start civil discourse at the earliest ages and advance through young adult status to foster achievement of its values and practices as a way of life. Paley's (1993) case study illustrates the fruitfulness of this approach. Moreover, Bruner (1960), Damon (1990), and Coles (1997) have provided encouragement and evidence of success for involving young children in such processes. A social ecological approach (see Bronfenbrenner, 1974; Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume) is an essential guide to frame programs that will empower the individual to apply civil discourse internally (intrapersonally) to guide personal understanding, discernment, and decisions as well as interpersonally in multiple collectives faced with issues.

School communities choosing to employ a civil discourse program will not start empty handed. There are numerous resources available at varying levels. The schools may have a history of involvement in academic debate, with teams and coaches (past and present) available to provide guidance and be involved. The local community and state may have debate societies who would be interested in facilitating the initiative. Certainly, the National Speech and Debate Association, with a representative co-authoring this chapter, will be interested in the civil discourse initiative and available to assist as appropriate. The school community is very likely to have speech and language specialists, speech teachers, and other communication experts, as well as experts in philosophy, ethics, logic, politics, group processes, and child development who would be strongly enthusiastic contributors. Among these resources should be counted school psychologists whose potential contributions will be highlighted in the last section. Additionally, there are possibilities for generating from the news, community concerns, and school personnel, parents, and students an unending list of topics for consideration in civil discourse. The results of chapter author brainstorming quickly produced the following list of possible topics for selected grade levels: grades 1–3, riding your bicycle to school, cafeteria food choices; grades 4–6, choosing your teacher, school uniforms, who should make school rules; grades 7–9, use of cell phones in school, consequences for bullying – punitive discipline or restorative justice, same sex classes, no cut sports; grades 10–12, open campus, student courts to handle discipline, religious studies, the anthropic principle, socialism versus capitalism, states' rights, melting pot or mosaic culture. Querying children, parents, and teachers at these levels will probably produce a much better list and promises to provide a sustainable process for future topics.

Contributions by School Psychologists

As human development specialists, undergirded by child rights values, school psychologists can make significant contributions to a civil discourse approach. They can be valuable members of the leadership group by helping to design and oversee implementation. Their special roles might include bringing child development knowledge to bear; facilitating group processes and consultations; helping assure that all components advance desired goals for individual, subgroup, and community development; and assuring application of accountability indicators and systems of measurement and evaluation. There are three conditions imperative to full development and expression of the civil discourse model toward which school psychologists can make critical contributions through such roles. The initiative must (a) advance traditional high-priority commitments of the school community for child learning (e.g., language, quantitative, and critical thinking competencies); (b) become highly integrated in school life (i.e., goals, curriculum, processes, and evaluation) beyond special event, one-off, or occasional occurrence; and (c) result with a satisfying frequency of action toward improved quality of life by putting the weight of research, argument, and discernment into practice (e.g., school rules are changed; student membership is established on the leadership groups in the school and community; the cafeteria menu is changed; dangerous sections of the school and community are illuminated, secured, and/or transformed). School psychologists will understand the elements and dynamics of each of these challenges and can join, facilitate, and, at times, lead initiative networks of the school community to realize these conditions. In this regard, they should be particularly helpful in orienting involved parties to the potential for and best ways to achieve mutual support and synergy among the goals and processes to advance broadly applicable competencies, such as respect for others and alternative views, self-esteem, and of the initiative: for example, honest, open, and scholarly pursuit of truth and respectful dialogue in its interest to progress toward shared purposes.

Finally, it is important to recognize that the human/child rights implications and applications of a democratic deliberation through civil discourse approach can also be strengthened by the involvement of school psychologists. They can help cooperating parties identify good and effective ways to assure appropriate child participation (Article 12 of the Convention) across planning, implementation, and evaluation; opportunities for all children to be involved (Art. 2); protection from various forms of harm, including intimidation and humiliation (Art. 19); respect for and opportunities to advance and apply ethical and moral principles, values, and beliefs (Art. 12); and identification and development of the relevant talents and potentials of each child (Art. 29), all in the best interests of the child (Art. 3) to achieve well-being (Art. 17, 27, 32).

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Influences and Opportunities of Culture

Philip Cook

Abstract

This chapter seeks to set children's rights and culture in the context of current interventions in school psychology. The chapter explores the influences and opportunities for working across cultural differences and better understanding the dynamic nature in which children are both shaped by culture and are themselves shapers of culture. In doing so, this chapter attempts to focus greater attention on issues relating to culture, childhood, and the implementation of the United Nations (UN, Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter, referred to as the Convention) in the context of school psychology. Specific sections addressed in the chapter include defining culture and its intersection with child development; policy initiatives (tracing the culture in children's rights); parallel changes and actions related to these policies; status of culture and child rights; future actions needed; and implications for School Psychology (what can be done through individual practice and systemic policy interventions to facilitate better integration of cultural considerations).

It could be argued that almost all human rights endeavors, including school-based interventions, involve aspects of culture. This is especially important to keep in mind as so many of our great social opportunities and challenges are grounded in differences based on culture, ethnicity, and identity. This is especially relevant in the case of children's rights where issues of migrant, refugee, ethnic minority, and indigenous children underscore the importance of culture as a protective or potentially harmful influence on children's well-being and capacity to grow and thrive.

Culture is often identified as the "complex web of human relationships and beliefs, values and motivations which lie at the heart of a society" (de Cuellar, 1995, p. 24). Culture can be further defined at social and psychological levels, as follows.

Social Level

- Cultural activities (e.g., child-rearing, making and enforcing laws, providing material support for children, producing goods)
- Cultural values, schemas, meanings, and concepts (e.g., meaning of childhood, youth, notions of family, and old age)
- Physical artifacts (e.g., shaping of the person-made and natural environment and the physical space allocated for children's development and participation)

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Psychological Level

- Psychological phenomena (e.g., understanding of self, emotions, perceptions, motivation)
- Personal agency (e.g., the active constructing and reconstructing of cultural phenomena)

Human rights embody a set of moral values shared by a society and give legal meaning to these values. They uphold democracy and also challenge democracy. For example, rights are enacted into law by democratically elected governments, while also offering protection to minorities from the majority. Rights imply a social obligation and create a basis for reciprocity, in which sense they are indivisible, for if I am to claim my rights, I must also protect yours. Embracing our right to be equal is therefore about protecting the right to be different (Ignatieff, 2000). Respect for and protection of the right to be different have been declared and codified in a wide variety of international documents. Table 1 presents primary examples. The role of culture and the transmission of cultural childhood patterning are central to understanding this process.

Table 1 International agreements supporting the right to be different

1948: Universal Declaration of Human Rights
1950: European Convention on Human Rights
1959: Declaration of the Rights of the Child
1960: UNESCO Convention against Discrimination
1965: International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
1966: International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
1966: International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights
1979: Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
1989: Convention on the Rights of the Child
1992: Declaration of the Rights of Persons Belonging to National, or Ethnic,
Religious and Linguistic Minorities
OAS Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples
ILO Convention 169 on Indigenous and Tribal Peoples
UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples

Note: Conventions are legally binding for ratifying State parties. Declarations are non-binding moral commitments (UNOHCHR, 2017)

Ultimately human rights support the right to respect for children's human dignity. To appreciate and honor this, we must explore the cultural aspects of development of personhood as well as the way culture(s) influence children's development, including the role of culture in and out of school. As already stated, human rights equality manifests itself in how we deal with our differences. To understand this process is to understand the role of culture in the home, community, school, and other social spheres. In particular, we must look to the local expression of rights, for as Eleanor Roosevelt so eloquently stated, "Rights can only be understood in the smallest places closest to home" (Roosevelt, 1958). To understand culture and rights in these "small places," we need to explore concepts of child-rearing, kinship, sense of identity and place, and personal agency within the social realms of home, school, community, and state.

At the heart of the notion of human rights lies the concept of realizing capabilities, "the capacity of individuals to set themselves goals and accomplish them as they see fit" (Nussbaum & Dixon, 2012, p. 559). This process of evolving agency, or capacity, is often culturally defined and primarily shaped by the social construction of childhood through child-rearing practices. Twenty-five years after the Convention came into force, it is apparent that many of the great child rights challenges demand the creation of a rich cultural context for application of the universal legal text of the Convention; otherwise the Convention may remain more a text than a lived reality. The Convention in all countries but the USA has been ratified or committed officially, and related policies have been encouraged and developed, including rights-based education policies. However, greater integration in national and local levels of government is still needed to directly impact the child in his or her family, school, and community. Similarly, many of the most pressing child rights challenges for children living in the shadow of the Convention involve the need to better understand culture and to integrate the Convention into strategies building on cultural assets or local protective factors while helping to stimulate local dialogue to transform cultural values, beliefs, and practices that hinder the realization of each child's human dignity. Examples of child rights sectors where these cultural challenges are especially critical include but are not limited to girls' access to education, children who are socially excluded or living in poverty, children living in communities with high levels of violence or armed conflict, children affected by HIV/AIDS, children experiencing abusive labor practices, and children involved in sexual exploitation.

Many other variables play a role in shaping childhood, including emerging challenges such as vulnerability caused by political instability and the increasing threats of children affected by sectarian violence and terrorism; children involved in migration with their families or on their own; children affected by climate change; and the emerging influences of technology on childhood (Cook, Heykoop, Anuntavoraskul, & Vibulphol, 2012). Culture remains a central theme in these social challenges as it shapes unique social opportunities and threats as well as the personal attitudes, values, beliefs, and behaviors of individuals facing these situations (Masten, 2014). If societies are to begin addressing these threats, following the great success of the Convention's near universal ratification, it will have to involve a better understanding of the cultural context of children's lives.

Moving the Convention from ratification to reality therefore presents three challenges that are explored in the next section.

1. *Creating a context for the text of the Convention.* To make sense of the implementation of the Convention by better understanding children's rights in the context of culture and human development
2. *Examining cultural change in light of development trends*. To examine the ways in which culture changes and is shaped by some of the forces of social trends and to specifically assess the implications this has on children's vulnerability and potential for healthy development and capacity to thrive
3. *Understanding the child as a participant in culture*. To better understand cultural influences from the perspective of the child, including examining the role of boys and girls as shapers of culture across the life span from young children to adolescents and youth

The Convention, Culture, and Human Development

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) is ambivalent on the role of culture in the lives of children. Upon a close reading of the Convention text, we perceive a depiction of culture as a double-edged sword affording both opportunities and challenges for children's full and healthy development. For the most part, though not exclusively, the Convention places considerable emphasis on the issue of nondiscrimination and importance of children's cultural rights. The preamble to the Convention sets the tone for the 54 articles by underscoring "the importance of the traditions and cultural values of each people for the protection and harmonious development of the child." Specific articles in the Convention address the importance of culture in children's development; the following sections are relevant:

- *Article 2*: "enjoys the fulfillment of all rights "irrespective of… race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin."
- *Article 4*: "with regard to economic, social or cultural rights, States Parties shall undertake such measures to the maximum extent of their available resources."
- *Article 5*: "States Parties shall respect the responsibilities, rights and duties of parents or, where applicable, the members of the extended family or community as provided for by local custom… to provide… appropriate direction and guidance in the exercise by the child of the rights recognized in the present Convention."
- *Article 8*: "States Parties undertake to respect the right of the child to preserve his or her

identity, including nationality, name, and family relations."

- *Article 14*: "States Parties shall respect the right of the child to freedom of thought, conscience and religion."
- *Article 20*: provides for the care of a child deprived of a family environment; "due regard shall be paid to … the child's ethnic, religious, cultural and linguistic background."
- *Article 29*: states that the child's education shall be directed towards, inter alia, "the development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values;" and "the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin."
- *Article 30*: "In those states in which, ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities or persons of indigenous origin exist, a child belonging to such a minority shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group, to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practice his of her own religion or to use his or her own language."
- *Article 31*: "States Parties shall respect and promote the right of the child to participate fully in cultural and artistic life and shall encourage the provision of appropriate and equal opportunities for cultural, artistic, recreational and leisure activity."

The themes of positive development through cultural contact can be summarized in regard to establishing a rich, nourishing social-emotional environment that enables children's development in ways that foster diverse human talents. The Convention, however, does not uniformly enshrine or sanction culture. It also focuses on potential harm and presents challenging conflicts. An example of possibilities for harmful cultural practices related to the Convention is found in Article 24.3, which declares the need for State parties to "take all effective measures with a view to abolishing traditional practices prejudicial to the health of the child." The inclusion of Article 24 Section 3 in the drafting of the Convention was meant to curb obviously harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation and other damaging social norms, observances, and exercises. The implications of the "best interests of the child" (Article 3) are more obscure and ethically challenging, however, when considering cultural practices that may be abusive, such as traditional initiation or healing ceremonies in which children may be subjected to lengthy periods of isolation as a "traditional" punishment for certain crimes committed against family or community (e.g., theft, domestic violence). More difficult areas for consideration of harmful or helpful cultural practices are encountered in certain forms of child labor that deprive children of opportunities for formal education, yet may offer benefits of greater social inclusion, development of self-esteem, and the capacity for participation in important personal and family-based economic activities.

Most child rights analyses of culture are interested in the legal implications of implementation. There is considerably less information on the social science theory of the children's development as seen through the lens of different cultures, and even less research on the individual differences of children in culture or in their role as shapers of culture.

Culture and the Care, Protection, and Thriving of Children

Although cultural differences in child-rearing seem obvious at first glance, these differences are often unrecognized by intervention program planners applying a scientific way of approaching problems. As Myers (1992) points out in his book, "The Twelve Who Survive: Strengthening Programs of Early Childhood Development in the Third World," "the ecological, economic, social and political conditions for urban industrial middle class individuals who shape policy and programming often differ dramatically from those of the people on the receiving end of such programs" (p. 40).

So called expert knowledge is often derived from an American or Euro-centric conceptual basis that denigrates local experiential knowledge and traditional wisdom derived from a particular context in which the program is to operate (Bissell, Boyden, Cook, & Myers, 2008; Boyden & Mann, 2005; Myers & Bourdillon, 2012). Such practices are frequently defined as harmful without defining exactly what harm means. There is therefore a need to unravel the less tangible aspects of culture and their impact on children. These include aspects of myth, ritual, healing, storytelling, learning, emotional and social intelligence, culturally constructed play, notions of evolving identity, belonging and connection, and justice. All of these have bearing on healthy human development. Developmental theorists such as Martin Woodhead (Woodhead & Montgommery, 2002) point out that culture is increasingly mentioned in child development theory as a key determinant in the shaping of developmental pathways. In fact, as Woodhead clarifies, culture is increasingly being seen as a core catalyst of human development, recognizing the close ties between innate patterning of development and the role that culture plays in shaping developmental outcomes. It is recognized that each child's development will take various directions or pathways, as opposed to rigidly determined stages, based on each child's *developmental niche* (Super & Harkness, 1986). This niche is comprised of cultural values influencing children's development, specific child-rearing patterns, and the environmental conditions influencing variations in healthy growth and development (Cook, 2015).

Employing an adaptation of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) social ecology model, the following could be considered among important cultural considerations in the life of a child from the perspective of a child's development:

- Social construction of childhood (onset and stages of childhood, construction of adolescence, distinction between children and adults).
- Prenatal, neonatal, and postnatal practices and the care and support for women in general and pregnancy more specifically.
- A child's family environment (extended, nuclear, single parent, also patrilineal, matrilineal), role of other significant persons—children (e.g., siblings) and adults (priest, elder, other women).
- The role of school and the structuring of formal and non-formal education.
- The support of community (urban, rural, stationary, migratory, pastoral, hunter gatherer) and community institutions such as informal and formal education, religion, health care, and protective institutions.
- Initiations or other rites of passage that help children in the transitions through the stages of childhood and from childhood to adulthood. Included here are practices of socialization towards individualist or collectivistic values. The latter issue is especially important in addressing the reciprocal and duty-bound nature of children's rights.
- The broader context of childhood in the nation state, including conceptions of child, obligations to children, existence of culturally supportive institutions, multi-culturalism policies, support for cultural rights, and issues of ethnic sovereignty within state, and place of ethnic minorities and indigenous peoples.
- The environment, both human and nature based, as it shapes culture and childhood and is shaped by these forces (existence of play spaces, spaces for traditional children's games, places of safety, healthy environments).

In summary, there is a growing realization that child rights must be framed in each of culture's objectives for full and healthy human development. For example, while play is found in all societies, the purpose of play differs in promoting a range of development outcomes from helping foster social intelligence to supporting technical and motor skills.

Human Development

As the implementation of the Convention deepens from legislation to social policy and practice at the level of the individual child, issues of rights must be more closely tied to notions of culture and human development (Himes, 1995). Human development can be described as a process that increases people's choices in terms of their attempts to lead long and healthy lives, to have a sound education, to enjoy a better standard of living, to have access to many other social necessities, and to realize their potentials. The concept distinguishes between the formation of human capacity and the use that people make of their acquired capabilities. Indeed, development itself can be seen as expanding human freedoms and human rights (Nussbaum & Dixon, 2012; Sen, 2000).

Since the early 1990s, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) has applied a human development perspective to monitor the well-being of nation states. Obviously, the ways in which countries define development are heavily influenced by cultural values placed on notions of development, poverty, and human capital (Anthorpe, 1997). Associated development goals have been further refined and promoted towards implementation in the post-2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which attempt to set the global development agenda across all cultures, for example, in relation to right to education, educational standards and quality, and the need to bring a gendered understanding to education (UN Sustainable Development Goals, 2015, https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org).

The concept of human development also helps bridge the gulf that often exists between children's civil and political rights and their economic, social, and cultural rights. While many Western advocacy agencies and institutions place great emphasis on the civil and political rights of young persons, the reality for many children in both developing and so-called developed countries is that these rights are buried by fundamental issues of economic and social equity disparities. This requires a broader discussion of sustainable development and social inclusion of vulnerable young people. A human development approach is needed that is appreciative of culture and bridges the gap between these two supportive sets of rights (civil/political and social/economic) and offers opportunities to develop practical tools that combine concepts of rights with a development perspective in promoting the well-being of children, their families, and communities. In considering the connection between human rights and development, a focus on culture and the integration of local knowledge helps ground concepts of children's survival, protection, development, and participation in a meaningful context for implementation and monitoring of the Convention. An understanding of local knowledge emphasizes the importance of *context,* and examples of cultural context in relation to school psychology include families prioritizing girls' versus boys' education, the integration of work and school, scheduling of holidays for communities dependent on seasonal agricultural or hunting and gathering activities, and community perceptions of stress and resilience.

Human development variables include several critical ameliorating factors such as poverty alleviation, resource mobilization, and social inclusion and integration (incorporating issues of gender, human rights, and sustainability). When applying this framework, culture then becomes the context for exploring local diversity in expressing these factors.

Many of the goals for linking human rights, human development, and culture are articulated in the report of the World Commission on Culture and Development, *Our Creative Diversity*, compiled by former UN Secretary General Javier Perez de Cuellar (1995). This report emphasizes the need for a broadening of the Western-based notion of development beyond purely economic terms devoid of culture. The report of the World Commission targets this issue by emphasizing that:

> Culture…however important it may be as an instrument of development (or an obstacle to development), cannot ultimately be reduced to a subsidiary position as a mere promoter of (or an impediment to) economic growth. Culture's role is not exhausted as a servant of ends – though in a narrower sense of the concept this is one of its roles – but is the social basis of the ends themselves. Development and the economy are part of a people's culture. (p. 15)

The findings from the de Cuellar (1995) report identify a number of areas of unity among almost all cultures, which can be defined as a set of global ethics rooted in common values of respect for human dignity and well-being (e.g., values of human dignity, equality, diversity). In the opinion of the creators of the report, one of the most encouraging recent trends has been the identification of international standards of human rights. The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the most widely ratified human rights treaty in history and, therefore, represents a powerful global ethic whose basic principles span all cultures.

Another important set of ethical principles identified by the World Commission on Culture and Development (De Cuellar, 1995) covers democracy and the protection of minorities. A current challenge is to identify potential supports and obstacles for these ethics in cultural values shared at the individual, collective, national, and international level.

Cultures are neither isolated nor static, but interact and evolve. Pluralism is meaningless and potentially destructive if not undergirded by a solidarity of shared values, including mutual respect, enabling those concerned to take democratic initiatives and manifest their creative imagination in tangible ways. Against this backdrop, children and youth are not merely recipients of selective and arbitrarily transmitted cultural norms and values; they are also active players in shaping and adapting culture. Thus, developmental notions of inclusion and integration must find meaning when integrated with the universal Articles in the Convention promoting participation in civil society and implemented in life in ways that build on traditional wisdom supporting children's survival, protection, development, and participation. The landmark De Cuellar report (1995) has had wide ranging impact on global development thinking and resulted in a set of seven dimensions for human development and culture. These seven dimensions of the Report of the World Commission on Culture and Development are cultural economy, social participation, governance and institutionality, education, heritage, communication, and gender equality. The dimensions have been applied globally and are still being monitored through a set of applied indicators, referred to as the Culture for Development Indicators (UNESCO, 2017; http://www.unesco.org/new/en/culture/themes/cultural-diversity/cultural-expressions/programmes/culture-for-development-indicators/more-information).

What are some of the factors creating cultural change in the lives of children? To better understand the culture of childhood today, we need to examine some of the forces shaping this change.

Current Drivers of Cultural Change

Research evidence has shown that prolonged intergenerational exposure to various social stressors, for example, protracted communal violence, extreme poverty, or the effect of pandemics such as HIV/AIDS or Ebola, can weaken or change cultural supports for children. Three significant research examples illustrate these shifts and their impact on children.

The first example is drawn from research in South Africa (Cook & du Toit, 2005) in which boys, youth, and traditional Sotho Elders highlighted the perceived negative changes in cultural initiation ceremonies. These ceremonies, referred to as Mountain Schools, have become increasingly economically corrupted and abusive in nature with boys being kidnapped and held for ransom until parents pay an initiation fee. All three groups (boys, youth, Elders) described the demise of important culturally grounded life skill education for youth. Traditionally, respected Elders with deep and specific training in circumcision and ritual teachings guided youth aged 18–22 in a 3–month intensive rite of passage from childhood to adulthood. Now, however, as a result of social breakdown caused by apartheid, poverty, and HIV/AIDS, children themselves often run these schools as a form of economic activity. Boys of pre-initiation ages (10–16) are often coerced and in some cases kidnapped into Mountain School ceremonies. These schools run substandard training over a couple of weeks, in which initiates are often starved, physically abused, and placed at great risk of HIV contamination through the use of unsterilized razors. Participatory Action Research conducted with boys and Elders involved in the schools has started to address these challenges in creating safer ceremonies that still provide a culturally recognized transition from childhood to adulthood (L. du Toit, personal communication, 2015).

The second example is drawn from a longitudinal study of maternal mortality in Yemen, a country with one of the highest rates of maternal mortality. Over the course of 10 years of intensive community research with girls, their mothers, and grandmothers, Save the Children USA (2014) has shown a significant decrease in care of pregnant women and newborn infants, resulting in many women holding beliefs of expected imminent mortality for themselves and their children.

A third set of examples deals with the issue of socially sanctioned infant death. Nancy Scheper-Hughes's (1987) research in an urban barrio in northeast Brazil explores how prolonged high rates of infant mortality are related to culturally sanctioned child neglect leading to death. Specifically, Scheper-Hughes and her Brazilian colleagues identified a culturally determined pattern of infant neglect in which malnourished or physically disabled children with perceived high mortality risk were severely neglected to the point that many of these children died. This neglect and early death was frequently described as an intervention of "angelic" forces that socially determined a child's early readiness for death and facilitated socially acceptable distancing of mother from child. Similar practices of female infanticide have also been identified in parts of India and in the Tarumarha people of Northern Mexico (Scheper-Hughes, 1987). The cultural sanctioning of children's death is frequently explained by anthropologists in terms of a social priority being placed on maternal survival over child survival in order to ensure the long-term survival of the group.

Cultures around the world continue to change in relation to global patterns of human adaptation to threats and opportunities. Recent examples of cultural adaptation include the effect of climate change on child-rearing in Southeast Asia (Vaddhanaphuti & Jirattikorn, 2011) and the impact of violence affecting family religious beliefs in Mexico with the rise in popularity of "Narco-saints" (Grillo, 2012). An additional factor shaping cultural change worthy of consideration is the impact of globalization, especially through the popular media, which has resulted in the spread of certain values and beliefs that are either positive or negative for children. These include positive influences such as the diffusion of the culture of rights (particularly individualistic notions of rights) as well as negative changes such as the promotion of derogatory stereotypes of violent young men of color. In Canada and much of North America, this has taken a decidedly negative form as the media has played a significant role in fueling stereotypes of young people as a danger to society mirrored in perceived dramatic increases in youth violence, during a period when actual rates of youth crime have declined (Statistics Canada, 2017).

Similarly, environmental change, particularly global climate change, is a force shaping cultural patterning on children and child-rearing. An example is the impact of global warming on Inuit children in many Arctic communities. Studies by the Arctic Council indicate a disturbing trend where young people's capacity to participate in traditional cultural activities such as seasonal hunting has been significantly curtailed due to global warming resulting in the melting of the permafrost, early ice breakup, and shifting ice flow patterns (Ford, McDowell, & Jones, 2014). Many of these influences act in concert to create rapid cultural change that undermines the access of youth to key cultural mechanisms reinforcing healthy self- and collective identity and efficacy through physical, social, moral, cultural, and spiritual development.

The Role of Children in Shaping Culture

Children are not only influenced by the adults in their life space or social ecology (Bronfenbrenner, 1979); they also in turn exact an influence on adults. Recent research findings in the field of evolutionary psychology indicate that a central part of our unique humanity is our inherent drive to engage with other human beings and the world, a process that starts in utero and continues throughout the various stages of childhood (and adulthood). Human beings need other people to thrive biologically, psychologically, and socially. Thus, participation starts from an early age and evolves in age-related ways. Participation is most prevalent in the small and close social spaces of childhood and youth, particularly in the family, as a precursor to participation in the broader social spaces of community and society (Rogoff, 2003).

Children's extant capacities and developmental promises are supported or diminished by the care and attention they receive from parents, friends, relatives, neighbors, teachers, and other potentially nurturing adults (Cook, 1999, 2015; Cook, Ali, & Munthali, 1999). This nurturing component of individual well-being is so strong that evidence indicates that, even under situations of extreme adversity, children often show incredible resilience when relations with one caring person are sustained (Ungar, 2005; Werner & Smith, 1992).

Creating opportunities and building skills for interacting and relating are key features of full and healthy human development. From birth, the child has the capacity to attract adult's attention and influence adult behavior. Research indicates that interactions between babies and adults are neither arbitrary nor random (Rogoff, 2003; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Studies of both early and middle childhood development also show that while children are dependent on adults, they frequently exercise greater "agency" or capacity for controlled interaction than was previously accepted to be the case. The degree of agency expressed by each child is dependent in part on the many stages of development. The environment and hence the culture and differing cultural niches in which a child lives are, however, primary influences on the unique pathways already discussed for individual development (Cook, 2015; Super & Harkness, 1986). Indeed, reflected in Rogoff's (2003) research, as cultures merge it is increasingly more useful to describe children as participants in different cultures as opposed to being members of a single culture (Cook, Heykoop, Anuntavoraskul, & Vibulphol, 2012; Masten, 2014).

Findings from research on child resilience take this notion one step further in describing the potential role children are increasingly assuming in significantly shaping their local cultural environments (Boyden & Mann, 2005; Fraser, 1997; Ungar, 2005; Werner & Smith, 1992). Many of these studies demonstrate how children living in great adversity take certain elements of culture (e.g., traditional skills, spiritual beliefs, rituals for forming attachments) and shape them to meet their survival and development needs. Examples of situations where children have changed cultural values and practices include (a) the role of Tamil and Singhalese children as peacebuilders in Sri Lanka; (b) working children's movements in India changing the responsiveness of local *Panchayats*, or local Elders councils, to accepting working children in mediating labor disputes; (c) North American young people's dynamic role in environmental activism; and (d) children's key role in reducing the incidence of HIV/AIDS and social mores on sexual transmitted diseases in Uganda and Senegal (see Cook, Blanchet-Cohen, & Hart, 2004).

Child participation does not negate the role that key adults played in some of these examples, for the capacity for social and cultural change is greatest when young people and adults are involved in shared decision making and social agency (Driskell, 2002). It does, however, underscore the malleability of culture and the inherited and socially transmitted capacity for children as change agents in this process.

Conclusions and Recommendations for School Psychologists

A number of conclusions can be drawn in supporting a positive integration of culture in school psychology practice and policy. In supporting individual students, an understanding of culture can help promote children's rights to a healthy and full development, by recognizing the multiple influences of peers, family, and community across the life span from birth through early childhood, adolescence, and youth. This includes peer relations, positive rituals, rites of passage, and day-to-day activities that reinforce a child's sense of positive identity, self-esteem, and agency. As described in the chapter, culture can be a double-edged sword and the Convention's guiding principles of non-discrimination, best interests of the child, life survival, and development, and meaningful participation can be applied to engage in discussions with parents and the child to mediate harmful cultural practices and cultural phenomena such as early marriage, female genital mutilation and cutting, and the emergence of culturally rooted youth gangs. Other considerations for school psychology practice includes adapting psychological assessment tools to various cultural contexts; being sensitive to cultural forms of communication in counseling interventions (e.g., lack of eye contact between children and adults, use of cultural metaphor to understand various complex psychological conditions, differing gender roles for boys and girls); and understanding diversity in kinship patterns and role of key adults such as religious leaders, healers, and local neighbors across cultural communities. Systemic policy considerations involve applying a rights-based approach, rooted in the Convention, to understanding and promoting positive cultural traditions that enable children's healthy personal identity, human development, and sense of agency and social justice across genders and the life span; including a school district and broader educational policy focus on a rights-based cultural protocol that is both open to broad cultural differences and sensitive to important unique cultural attitudes, beliefs, and practices (e.g., the intercultural antipathy of many North American Indigenous peoples to schools based on historical experiences with colonization and residential schools); establishing culturally sensitive tools for assessment procedures; training school psychologists and teachers in culturally sensitive assessment and counseling procedures (e.g., in many cultures counseling is a foreign concept that may require additional explanation); and partnering with local students, parents, and community leaders from diverse cultural backgrounds in establishing and revising these policies.

A number of recommendations can be made in helping link concepts of children's rights, culture, and child well-being, particularly in educational environments. These include:

- The Convention is a useful lens in understanding the influence of culture on child well-being, especially in negotiating competing rights in supporting the right to be different.
- The Convention should be a platform for further exploration of the importance of culture in childhood and the role of education in supporting positive cultural practices. In this process, greater links need to be made with anthropological research on the children's development and children's everyday lives within their peer groups, families, communities, and schools across diverse cultural contexts.
- There is a need for more research and critical dialogue with children and other stakeholders, especially families and key community members in understanding the cultural processes of human development.
- There is a need to develop new methods for carrying out research on this topic in culturally grounded, child-centered ways, using different means of expression for collecting information (e.g., drama, artistic expression, play) guided by the Convention.
- Regional frameworks on the Convention, such as the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, are useful for addressing issues of implementation of the Convention in culturally appropriate means.
- Educational policies, and school psychology interventions, should build on this evidence base in designing empirically informed, empathic, and child-engaged learning environments.

Only when we begin addressing the issues of culture and children's rights will we be in a position to take the next steps in operationalizing the Convention in support of culturally informed lifelong learning, development, and well-being. Ideally, this process also will result in a greater insight into the richness of human cultural diversity and the critical role that children play in weaving the web of culture through an array of healthy human development outcomes, within schools and across our nations.

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The Child's Right to a Spiritual Life

Fred B. Bryant, James Garbarino, Stuart N. Hart,
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Abstract

This chapter explores meanings of religion and the spiritual for the child and the human condition; associated relevance of and imperatives for child rights, development, functioning, and well-being; and the ways various and diverse school communities can respect and promote the child's right to a spiritual life, assisted by school psychology.

In her masterful exploration of "The Case for God," religious scholar Karen Armstrong (2009) concludes that the foundation for all religion is a process of coming to a silent encounter with the infinite absolute. It is only then, in the silent awe of contemplating the universe directly, that insight into the fundamental nature of reality arises. It is the translation of this silent insight into words that is the essence of religion. This chapter explores meanings of religion and the spiritual for the child and the human condition; associated relevance of and imperatives for child rights, development, functioning, and well-being; and the ways various and diverse school communities can respect and promote the child's right to a spiritual life, assisted by school psychology. These topics are organized within two major sections: (a) the child's right to a spiritual life and (b) support for a child's right to a spiritual life from psychology and the school community.

Sit meditating for 40 days and 40 nights (as did Jesus) or sit meditating under the Bodhi tree (as did the Buddha) or sit alone in the desert (as did Mohammed) or go up to the top of the mountain (as did Moses), and a human being can catch the divine. Inevitably, the human words (and thus dogma, practices, and policies) that flow from this silent encounter with the divine are imperfect, because human beings are themselves imperfect and not "divine." Pope Francis captures this from a Christian perspective when he endorses the way his namesake, Saint Francis of Assisi, approached Christian religious teaching: "Preach the Gospel at all times, and when necessary use words." It is in the implementation of transcending love and awe in the face of the universe that religions are born. But the more they focus on "the word" rather than "the silence," the more religions are prone to go astray and move from "spirituality" to religious orthodoxy and dogma.

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This is how we read relevant research reported by a variety of social scientists (e.g., Ellison, Gay, & Glass, 1989; George & McNamara, 1984; Wright, Pratt, & Schmall, 1985). Jessor and Jessor (1977, p. 22) refer to the role of religious experiences as the basis for "a personal control against problem behavior" in youth. Shortz and Worthington (1994) found that "spiritually based" coping activities (e.g., "trusting God for protection and turning to him for guidance," p. 174) were most significantly related to positive coping behaviors (e.g., Positive Focus and Interpersonal Support). Additionally, summarizing Haidt's (2013) analysis of related expert opinion, historical evidence, and research, we find that religious affiliation and involvement generally provide benefits through fostering cooperation, cohesiveness, solidarity, trust, effectiveness, generosity, civic involvement, sacrifice, and survival beyond such advantages associated with secular ways of life. Looking across all of the research considered in this chapter, it is reasonable to conclude that religion is beneficially protective and promotive to the degree that it embraces and communicates messages of love and inclusiveness (rather than judgmental rejection and emotional brutalization) and involves youth in a loving community of peers. This premise provides a logical bridge to larger issues of spirituality.

Defining Spirituality

In this chapter, we focus primarily on spirituality and spiritual development, as opposed to religion or religiosity. Following common practice in contemporary social science (Oman, 2013), we conceive of religion as "an extrinsic organised faith system grounded in institutional standards, practices, and core beliefs, while spirituality is intrinsic personal beliefs and practices that can be experienced within or without formal religion" (Phillips, 2003, p. 249). Recognizing the conceptual overlap between spirituality and religiosity, we consider theory and research with respect to both of these constructs in reviewing the relevant literature and in proposing programmatic interventions designed to nurture spiritual development in children.

As Sheldrake (1992) has perceptively noted, spirituality is a concept whose meaning everyone claims to understand until they have to define it. Despite numerous attempts over many years to create a uniform theoretical framework, there remains no single, universally accepted definition of spirituality. Indeed, spirituality is difficult not only to define, but also even to describe (King, 1992; Meehan, 2002). There is, nevertheless, an emerging consensus that spirituality is a multidimensional rather than unitary phenomenon (Miller & Thorensen, 2003).

During the past two decades, theorists have accordingly proposed a multitude of conceptual definitions of spirituality that generally encompass the notion of a personal search for meaning, connection, wisdom, and self-transcendence in relation to something beyond the here and now (Oman, 2013). These conceptualizations range, for example, from a personal quest for deeper understanding and purpose (Lin, 2006), to a search for existential meaning (Doyle, 1992), to a transformative sense of identity within one's community and the world (Hay & Nye, 2006; O'Murchu, 1997), to a relationship with "the sacred" (Pargament, 2007) or with "a divine being, divine object, Ultimate Reality, or Ultimate Truth as perceived by the individual" (Hill et al., 2000, p. 66).

Although a single, universally accepted definition has eluded scholars, there is general agreement that spirituality is indeed a part of human nature that emerges early in life. For example, Wangerin (1986) argues that all children share a common experience of spirituality as they become aware of something that transcends the self. In his classic book on children's spirituality, child psychiatrist Coles (1990) described children as "seekers" and "young pilgrims" struggling to make sense of the purpose of life, and he emphasized the emergence of spirituality in children's lives as a natural part of their healthy development. Some writers have even argued that children have an innate pre-linguistic, evolutionary predisposition toward spirituality that is universal (Hay & Nye, 2006; Hyde, 2008a).

Investigating more than 4000 accounts of personal spiritual and religious experiences, Hardy (1979) found that about 15% of respondents reported powerful childhood occurrences relating to a sense of unity or of a caring personal deity that were of lasting importance throughout their lives. Similarly, Hoffman (1992) documented hundreds of narrative descriptions of life-altering childhood spiritual experiences that occurred between ages 3 and 15. Thus, there is strong evidence that children are capable of meaningful spiritual experiences (Piechowski, 2001).

The core existential issue, particularly for those with traumatic experiences, is the question of "meaning." Van der Kolk (1994) asked incoming psychiatric patients, "Have you given up all hope of finding meaning in your life?" Among those who experienced major trauma prior to age 5, 74% answered "yes." Among those who experienced major trauma after age 20, the figure was only 10%. Based on Van der Kolk's (2003) interviews with thousands of adults in which he asked this same question, we conclude that the baseline in the general population for losing hope of finding meaning in life is something on the order of 1%.

Trauma provokes a crisis of meaning, particularly for children who do not have a personal history of meaningfulness to draw upon, but we must put these findings in the context of normal child development. Van der Kolk (1994) reported on individuals who presented themselves to psychiatric facilities in crisis. There is good reason to think that *overall,* children have a firm grasp of the spiritual nature of reality—a grasp that often is displaced or neutralized with socialization in Western, materialistic models. Thus, Silverman and Worden (1992) reported that within a sample of children who had experienced the death of a parent, some 57% reported speaking to the dead parent. Some 43% felt they received an answer, and 81% believed their dead parent was watching them. In contrast, Kalish and Reynolds (1973) reported that only 12% of adults report such direct contact with the dead. This suggests that the spiritual domain is very important to children and their development, so important that we believe it should be considered a basic human right.

Positive Psychology and Spirituality

Spirituality not only strengthens children's resilience and ability to cope with adversity and misfortune but also enhances their capacity to enjoy and appreciate their lives, find fulfillment, experience wonder, and feel gratitude in everyday life. We believe that emerging research from what is being called "positive psychology" sheds important new light on the meaning and dynamics of spiritual development. In particular, the experience of awe and the capacity to savor (i.e., to attend to, appreciate, and enhance) positive experience are core constructs in positive psychology that overlap conceptually with spirituality and spiritual development.

There is a primordial connection between spirituality and the human experience of awe (Cappellen & Saroglou, 2012; Keltner & Haidt, 2003). Keltner and Haidt (2003) have defined awe as a feeling of wonder experienced when confronting an external stimulus that is vast and incomprehensible. Awe is associated with the perceived presence of something greater than the self, an expansion of one's frame of reference, feelings of personal insignificance in the face of vastness, and an increased sense of the self as part of a greater whole (Shiota, Keltner, & Mossman, 2007). And LaPierre (1994) has argued that spirituality inherently involves an appreciation for the mystery of creation. Indeed, awe has been termed the spiritual emotion (Keltner & Haidt, 2003) because of its strong connection to religious and spiritual transformation and development.

Experiences that promote awe may well cultivate spiritual development. Along these lines, Keltner and Haidt (2003) have argued that "awe-inducing events may be one of the fastest and most powerful methods of personal change and growth" (p. 312). Indeed, May and Ratcliff (2004) have suggested that settings that foster wonder and awe promote spiritual experiences in children. We believe that the child's right to develop and experience awe is crucial to spiritual development. Children's experiences of awe may be a crucial addition to the growing body of research applying the Adverse Childhood

Experiences Scale that demonstrates the negative impact of adversity on a wide range of measures assessing health and well-being (Edwards, Holden, Felitti, & Anda, 2003), for it argues for the creation of a parallel scale that might be called "Awesome Childhood Experiences" (C. Bethell, personal communication, April 24, 2015).

The capacity to attend to and appreciate positive experience has been conceived as involving what has been termed *savoring* or cognitive and behavioral processes that regulate positive emotions (Bryant, Chadwick, & Kluwe, 2011; Bryant & Veroff, 2007). One form of savoring that is especially relevant to inner spiritual experience is the process of *marveling*, through which individuals experience awe and wonder in response to a sublime or humbling external stimulus that embodies great majesty, power, rarity, or mystery (Bryant & Veroff, 2007). The awe experienced through marveling is conceived as a basic human experience that reflects the roots of spirituality (Bryant & Veroff, 2007). As Bryant et al. (2011) noted, "young children seem to have an innate sense of awe and wonder in relation to the world around them, something adults often seem to lose and long to regain" (p. 120). Extending the work of Bryant and Veroff (2007), we propose that the process of marveling at the incomprehensible vastness and complexity of nature facilitates spiritual development by connecting people with what they see as the larger enduring forces outside the physical world.

Likewise, Schneider (2009) has emphasized the process of awe-based awakening as a fundamental process in raising children's awareness of the spiritual side of life. According to Schneider (2009), awakening to awe requires that certain conditions first be met, including the capacity to subsist, to slow down, to savor the moment, and to focus on what one loves and time to reflect and contemplate in natural settings both alone and with others. Schneider (2009) also noted conditions that interfere with awe-based awakening, including poverty and deprivation, haste, closed-mindedness, and preoccupation with money, status, or consumerism. Significant adults are essential in a child's life to provide the necessary support and security to facilitate children's experience of awe in relation to nature (Kellert, 2002), a fact that underscores the importance of these social influences in fostering children's spiritual development. We believe that this body of evidence provides a robust justification for validating and extending the right to a spiritual life enshrined in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989; subsequently referred to as the Convention) and provides a clear mandate to schools to pursue actively this agenda.

Spirituality and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child

We believe that the differentiation between the silent personal appreciation of existential awe and the human institutionalization of that awe parallels the ongoing differentiation between spirituality and religion. The UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child in several places offers guidance explicitly regarding the matter of children having a human right to religion and a spiritual life, including language that is applicable to schools.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall respect the right of the child to freedom of thought, conscience, and *religion* (emphasis added).

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 29

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

(a) The development of the child's personality, talents, and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential.

(b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations.

(c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language, and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own.

(d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national, and *religious* (emphasis added) groups and persons of indigenous origin.

(e) The development of respect for the natural environment.

Articles 17, 27, 32 Each of these Articles specifically reference the same set of human domains for securing and promoting health, development, and well-being: physical, mental, social, *spiritual* (emphasis added), and moral.

How do the provisions in the Convention Articles relate to the role of the schools in promoting and respecting the human right of children to spiritual development? We believe that the Convention's language protects religion and promotes spiritual development as well, whether it be in the mandates to protect freedom of thought, conscience, the practice of religious traditions, and to promote spiritual well-being on the one hand, or, on the other hand, respect for the natural environment and forming beliefs freely but in keeping with developing capacities.

We are not the first to propose that children have the right to spiritual development. Over a quarter-century ago, Hill (1989) argued that it is essential that spiritual elements "receive due attention in the education of all children" (p. 169). Likewise, Crompton (1998) claimed that spirituality is essential to the development and healthy adjustment of the child and that children have the right to spiritual development—a freedom that should be protected by legislation. And more recently, Roehlkepartain (2014) noted that

> "There is a broad consensus that all children in all societies have, in the words, of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the right 'to freedom of thought, conscience and religion,' and parents and guardians have the rights and duties 'to provide direction to the child in the exercise of his or her right in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child' (United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 1989)" (p. 81).

Supporting the notion of spiritual growth as a central aspect of human existence, theorists have conceived of spiritual transcendence as a specific dimension of personality development (Piedmont, 1999). Indeed, Maslow (1969) considered self-transcendence to be the ultimate motive in the hierarchy of human needs (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). However, the full realization of this highest need is well served by having lower-order needs (i.e., physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, self-actualization) first be met.

Education and Spiritual Development

Reflecting a growing awareness of the vital importance of spiritual development, spirituality has become an integral part of the educational curricula in many societies around the world (Zhang, 2012). For example, schools are now mandated by law to promote spiritual development among children in Australia (Hyde, 2008b), New Zealand (Bone, 2005), and many European countries (e.g., Rolph, 1991). In the United Kingdom, for example, schools are legally required to promote children's spiritual development, as first stipulated in the 1988 British Education Reform Act and extended through the 2011 Education Act (Zhang, 2012). In reflecting on these broad-sweeping educational initiatives, Watson (2000) has noted that educators have implicitly assumed that spirituality is a universal human attribute and that this inherent trait can be developed by formal classroom methods. However, defining the concept of spiritual development in a way that enables its precise measurement over time is challenging.

As with spirituality itself, the concept of spiritual development has been defined in a variety of different ways. Although not without its critics (Marples, 2006), the UK's Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (OFSTED, 2004) has defined spiritual development as "…the development of the nonmaterial element of a human being which animates and sustains us and, depending on our point of view, either ends or continues in some form when we die… the development of a sense of identity, self-worth, personal insight, meaning and purpose" (p. 12). Alternatively, Benson, Roehlkepartain, and Rude (2003) defined spiritual development as "the process of growing the intrinsic human capacity for self-transcendence, in which the self is embedded in something greater than the self, including the sacred… the developmental 'engine' that propels the search for connectedness, meaning, purpose, and contribution… shaped both within and outside of religious traditions, beliefs, and practices" (pp. 205–206).

Scholars have offered a variety of recommendations for enhancing children's spiritual development in educational settings. To meet the child's educational needs for spiritual development, for example, Binder (2011) has recommended the creation of "spiritual literacy learning environments" (p. 31) that would provide meditative practice through visualization, including narrative journals and drawings, to nurture children's spiritual literacy. Similarly, Mountain (2007) has advocated the use of creative arts activities that engage children in learning that is "intimately related to spiritual development, involving self-understanding, understanding relationships, wider environmental connectedness and connection with the divine" (p. 191). In addition, Brown (2013) has argued that Eastern movement forms, such as Karate, Judo, Aikido, and Yoga, that focus on the cultivation of self-knowledge and spirituality through physicality are invaluable for developing children's spirituality in school and physical education settings. Still other scholars have emphasized the link between children's spiritual development and physicality in exercise, sports, and play (Hyde, Ota, & Yust, 2012) as well as the importance of stillness and silence as a means of nurturing spirituality (Hyde, Yust, & Ota, 2010). This latter agenda (stillness and silence) seems particularly problematic in many schools, with their focus on constant activity and students' addiction to internet-based social media and smartphone-based texting (Jenaro, Flores, Gómez-Vela, González-Gil, & Caballo, 2007; Nalwa & Anand, 2004).

Spirituality and Adaptive Functioning

The right to develop spiritually is essential in children's lives because of the adaptive relationship between spirituality and optimal human functioning. A vast body of empirical evidence has linked spirituality and religious involvement among adults to resilience in the face of stress and adversity (Pargament, Falb, Ano, & Wachholtz, 2013), protective avoidance of risky behaviors (McNamara, Burns, Johnson, & McCorkle, 2010), higher levels of subjective life quality (Lun & Bond, 2013), lower risk of psychopathology (Baetz, Bowen, Jones, & Koru-Sengul, 2006), and greater longevity (McCullough, Hoyt, Larson, Koenig, & Thorensen, 2000). A summary of the recent analyses of the benefits of religious affiliation (Haidt, 2013) is provided in the first section of this chapter.

Many of these same beneficial relationships between spirituality and adjustment in adults also have been found among children and adolescents. For example, studying spirituality and well-being in children, ages 8–12 years, Holder, Coleman, and Wallace (2010) found that spirituality was positively predictive of children's levels of happiness. Exploring spirituality and adjustment in children, ages 8–11 years, Stoyles, Stanford, Caputia, Keating, and Hyde (2012) found that both inward and outward spirituality predicted higher levels of self-esteem and hope.

Investigating spirituality among adolescents, Kelley and Miller (2007) found that spirituality was associated with higher levels of life satisfaction, forgiveness, and positive coping.

Extending the view that spirituality is beneficial to children, adolescents, and adults, some writers have even proposed that "spiritual intelligence" provides an adaptive problem-solving mechanism that enables individuals to overcome adversity and attain goals throughout life (Emmons, 2000; Hyde, 2004). For example, Emmons (2000) defined spiritual intelligence as being

> characterized by (a) the capacity for transcendence; (b) the ability to enter into heightened spiritual states of consciousness; (c) the ability to invest everyday activities, events, and relationships with a sense of the sacred; (d) the ability to utilize spiritual resources to solve problems in living; and (e) the capacity to engage in virtuous behavior or to be virtuous (to show forgiveness, to express gratitude, to be humble, to display compassion) (p. 10).

Reviewing over 500 studies on the impact of religious involvement across a wide range of faith traditions on human functioning, Johnson (2008) concluded that religious influences both protect youth from harmful outcomes, including health risks, depression, suicide, risky sexual behaviors, alcohol and drug use, and delinquency; and promote beneficial and prosocial outcomes, including longevity, civic engagement, well-being, hope, purpose and meaning in life, self-esteem, and educational attainment.

Support for the Child's Spiritual Life from Psychology in the School Community

The Basis for School Psychology Support

This chapter has established that interest in spiritual and religious experiences is a natural part of a child's healthy development. Furthermore, it has shown that involvement and practices by persons in these areas are related to a wide range of personal and social benefits. We have also provided abundant evidence that children's rights, particularly as established through the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, provide specific support for championing the spiritual development and lives of children. Augmenting this ample support of the child's right to a spiritual life, Melton (2010) has argued that there is a natural flow from religious beliefs to human rights and that religious beliefs are foundational to children's rights—particularly as expressed through respect and love for the uniqueness and dignity of each person. An additional and quite substantial connection between human rights and religion deserves recognition: The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child represent humankind's best operationalized expression of the omnireligion-endorsed "Golden Rule," by setting standards for the treatment desired for self and to be assured for others (http://www.religioustolerance.org/reciproc2.htm; see Hart and Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume).

The primary commitment of psychologists working in the school community is to advance the health, development, and well-being of young persons. School psychology has a history of early appreciation and progressively greater contributions to and applications of children's rights (see Hart and Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume). Consistent with its overarching purpose and commitment to children's rights, there are multiple reasons to apply school psychology's expertise and influence to promote the spiritual life of children and youth. In this section, we discuss ways of framing and implementing interventions in this regard.

Purposes and Possibilities for Support

Grimmitt (2002) has provided a conceptual framework for advancing spiritual life in association with religion. This framework includes the following three categories: (1) *learning religion* through the teaching of a single religion "from the inside" with the goal of achieving belief or strengthened commitment to it; (2) *learning about religion* via descriptive and historical approaches in which religion is taught "from the outside" to achieve comparative understanding of the histories, principles, content, expressions, and influences of various religions; and (3) *learning from religion* as an educational process in which material from religions is explored to advance self-understanding, character, and moral and spiritual development (see Hull, 2002). Promotion of spirituality outside of religion can be considered within this framework. Various school community objectives are served which fall within these categories (e.g., historical literacy, pro-social skills, life-long learning).

A wide variety of opportunities exist for psychologists to respect and contribute toward the fulfillment of the child's right to a spiritual life. These contributions can flow through the channels of service frequently cited in this book: the individual school psychologist working directly with individual students and with those who influence students; the psychological and educational service systems of the school community; and school psychologists, individually or collectively, fulfilling expert-citizen roles through advocacy for relevant policies and practices. In the remainder of this section, we use these categories to organize a sample of suggestions for such contributions. Before doing this, however, we must address two considerations.

Two Cross-Cutting Considerations

Child Participation and Agency A child rights perspective argues that religious or spiritual education must be founded on respect for the evolving views, maturity, and choices of the child, while also respecting the associated rights of the child's parents to provide guidance consistent with the child's advancing capacities (Art. 14 & 5). This viewpoint emphasizes the importance of exploring religious and spiritual life history, status, and future desires and expectations with the children of concern and their parents. The results of these explorations can be incorporated into intervention goals and strategies.

Concept Mapping "Concept mapping" is a social science process used to develop an interpretable picture of conditions, ideas and concepts, and their relationships, relevant to purposes (http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/conmap.php). The school psychologist's standard practice of investigating, documenting, and interpreting relevant past, present, and both likely and potential future conditions of the child and the child's surroundings (e.g., family, neighborhood, school, community), a "concept mapping," should be applied to spiritual and religious issues. The following are illustrative examples of key questions to address concerning these issues. At the *individual child* level: What is the child's history of spiritual and religious experiences, beliefs, interests, needs or desires; what are the parents' related experiences, perspectives, desires, and resources? How do or might school, neighborhood, peers, and community factors facilitate or impede the child's spiritual and religious life? At the broader *school community* level: What is the nature and level of citizenry involvement in related activities and institutions? What are the relationships among influential religious, spiritual, government, and school groups? What are the histories of religious and spiritual education policies and practices in or related to schools and desired by the community? Who are the existing or potential champions for spiritual and religious development? What are the local and higher level related laws, regulations, supports, and impediments?

Individual Psychologist Interventions: *Promoting a Search for Meaning*

In *Man's Search for Meaning*, Frankl (1946/1997) established the importance of coping with staggering adversity by personally discovering core truths about the meaning of life in order to sustain it. A perusal of the literature on liberal arts education reveals that development of the capacity for and the active pursuit of meaning are repeatedly identified as central objectives. "Is there a story?" and "Am I in the story?" are considered profound questions for human beings, the only living entity known to be capable of existential thought (Hart, 2014). Parents, schools, and communities, adequately stimulated, might join this chorus to assure their children are supported in pursuing answers to these questions, going beyond the shallowness of preoccupation with academic achievement and readiness for higher education and future occupation.

Arguably all areas of knowledge and discourse provide material for this search (e.g., science, history, literature, the arts, philosophy, values). The "search for meaning" construct, addressed extensively throughout earlier sections of the chapter, may be a particularly useful portal for school psychologists to use to direct attention and support toward advancing the child's right to a spiritual life. At the individual child level, the search for meaning can be effectively promoted as an essential undertaking for each child at any age and stage of development, susceptible to approach through multiple strategies. If the school is applying the individual development plan model (IDP; Hart, 2014; Hart & Glaser, 2011; Hart & Hart, 2014; Hart & Hart, chapter "Toward a Preferred Future for School Psychology", this volume), then the search for meaning can be one of the long-term goals for continuous developmental attention.

This approach has strong relevance for spiritual development, which Thompson and Randall (1999) indicate "concerns the broad search for transcendental meaning that may be as simple as a young child's inquiries into how the world came into being or as complex as a theologian's metaphysical analysis" (p. 88). Thompson and Randall contend that spiritual development focuses on such key questions as:

- What is the meaning of and purpose of my life?
- Who am I?
- Why am I here?
- What is my future?
- What defines the differences between right and wrong?
- Why should I act rightly?
- Why is there so much wrong in the world?

Within and associated with these questions, opportunities for experiencing marveling and awe could be intentionally promoted (e.g., presentation and contemplation of the vast and incomprehensible). Exploring possible answers to questions and issues such as these, and others important to the child, could be among the IDP objectives for the search for meaning. The route toward these objectives might include mentoring (by a parent, relative, teacher, or clergyperson) across long periods to include related study and development in any and all experiences of the child, including school experiences that do or do not directly deal with such issues.

The three schemes of learning, learning about, and learning from religion and spirituality (Grimmitt, 2002) can be presented to the parents and child for pursuit as alternative paths in exploring such questions, recognizing that these schemes are not mutually exclusive. If the first learning scheme is emphasized, this might mean applying individual and/or group preferred-religion study opportunities outside of the school day (e.g., weekend church/temple-based education), released school time religious study options if available, or enrolling in a religious school. The learning about or from religion alternatives might be realized through school system courses on world religions or personal study subject options available through the school. School psychologists should help children and their parents make a viable plan for developing the spiritual life of the child if, when adequately informed, they set this goal.

Systems-Level Interventions: *Promoting Character Development*

Character development is perhaps equal to or more important than intelligence and academic achievement in determining life success (Tough, 2012). Appreciation, commitment, and dedication of resources for character development can be accrued within school communities, if they are adequately informed. School psychologists can champion character development at classroom, school, school system, and school community levels. Character development provides a promising portal for inclusion of opportunities to advance spiritual and religious life, even under the constraints of rigorous separation of church and state (McDowell, 2013). Definitions of the construct of character development usually identify grit, perseverance, and optimism (or hope) among its components, all of which can be facilitated by spiritual and religious growth. For example, being trustworthy, a highly valued character trait, is a recognized asset of spiritual and religious life (Haidt, 2013).

To be effective in facilitating a school community's advances toward including or strengthening character development in its programs, school psychologists will need to act individually and collectively (as a system of services) to achieve the necessary intervention preparedness to work cooperatively with educational and administrative school systems toward these goals. School psychologists will need to know the rationale for character development, its various forms and implementation alternatives, and how to evaluate and upgrade programs. For concrete examples, see Project Wisdom (http://www.projectwisdom.com), Kipp Schools (http://www.kipp.org/about-kipp), Schools of Character (http://character.org/schools-of-character/), and related research (Tough, 2012), government efficacy studies (US Department of Education, 2010), and related publications (http://www2.ed.gov/teachers/how/character/edpicks.jhtml).

A reasonable pursuit of character development within schools arguably necessitates consideration of the transcendental core of spiritual and religious life, intuitively and empirically related to sustaining expressions of character traits, including under duress. The search for meaning, as previously described, is facilitated through character development; for it is best founded on knowing what is important and one's responsibilities and opportunities in that regard. The need for inclusion of faith in character development can be read into Martin Luther King, Jr.'s statement: "Our scientific power has outrun our spiritual power. We have guided missiles and misguided men" (see http://blog.ucsusa.org/science-religion-and-dr-martin-luther-king-jr-222). In a similar vein, Shadyac (2013) presents a graph juxtaposing his estimates of the line of humankind's rapidly ascending ability to exert power in the universe, for good or evil; and the line representing our grossly lesser ethical/moral progress which hovers at a quite low level. *Learning religion* can be championed for multiple reasons, including its potential to educate character toward implementing major religious tenets (e.g., treat others as you would be treated, care for the needy, be compassionate, achieve self-discipline, exercise good judgment). *Learning about religion* can illuminate shared positive and promotive personal and social values. *Learning from religion* can extend from learning about religion or can be experienced in highly relevant character development programs such as *Learning to live together: An intercultural and interfaith program for ethics education* (see https://arigatouinternational.org/en/what-we-do/ethics-education), developed by Arigatou International in cooperation with UNESCO and UNICEF.

Expert-Citizen Advocacy Interventions: *Promoting Community Support for Spiritual Life Through Holistic Development and Well-Being*

This chapter and available information on the ways the world's religions conceptualize the child and associated responsibilities and aspirations (Browning & Bunge, 2009) provide supportive background for expert-citizen child advocacy roles. An "expert-citizen" is a person with recognized specialist (often professional) expertise in an area of relevance to public discourse, whose perspectives, therefore, can be appreciated to bring added value in combination with his/her otherwise basic citizen contributions. It is notable that, in most parts of the world, religious schools, sometimes private or sometimes state run or supported, might allow for a full range of learning, learning about, and learning from religion (see Hull, 2002). Challenging but not insurmountable conditions exist in many parts of the world; for example, China has banned all teaching of religion; no proselytizing is allowed in French public schools (including the wearing of religious symbols or clothing); all Muslim children in Pakistan must be involved in Islamic studies; Turkey has banned religious education in secular schools; and the separation of church and state imperative in the First Amendment of the United States Constitution has produced a confusing mix of incorporation and exclusion of spiritual and religious opportunities in its public schools (see IARF, 2002; McDowell, 2013). Concept mapping of national and community factors and consultation with religious, school, and community leadership are warranted to clarify related conditions, interests, opportunities, and challenges and to work toward a shared vision, design, and cooperation for advances.

Depending on findings from mapping and consultation, a school psychologist might set out as an "expert-citizen" to promote spiritual development and well-being directly or through its contributions to secular values. The full holistic development of children could be a useful portal to champion, as it can combine both direct and indirect approaches and fit both secular and religious/spiritual interests. Consideration by relevant parties of (a) the UN Convention's promotion of physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral development (See Art. 17, 27, & 32) and (b) the research evidence establishing the benefits of spiritual and religious involvement to persons, groups, and communities provides a good basis for pursuing related deliberations. Multi-group meetings and/or consultation with group subsets or specific groups, those with potential for influence, can be applied to work toward shared priorities and identification of the particular strategies and contributions appropriate to each group. Religious institutions and systems (e.g., churches and schools) and families might take primary responsibility for enabling a child to "learn religion"; and community cultural, leisure, recreation, and health services, and secular schools might make significant contributions to "learning about" and "learning from" religion (see, e.g., National Geographic Sacred Journeys, https://www.childrensmuseum.org/opening-soon-national-geographic-sacred-journeys). Local and national media (e.g., film, television, music, theater) can make contributions in all three areas and these could be catalogued and stored in highly accessible ways.

Contributions by public or state schools deserve particular attention in community programs, as they are often the primary channel for educating children. As previously noted, concept mapping of possibilities is essential. In the United States, for example, the public schools are most likely to contribute to the learning about and learning from religion by offering courses on the nature and history of world religions; considering spiritual and religious themes in more general history, literature, political science, sociology or ethics courses; and possibly by making space for learning religion through legally sanctioned released time for religious study (see McDowell, 2013). Within the varied opportunities, mandates, and restrictions on public education, there are fundamental conditions for advancing spiritual life that might be widely supported. In this regard, Thompson and Randall (1999) have encouraged recognition of the following:

- Hope may, in fact, be the essential minimum condition for a standard of living that is barely "adequate" for spiritual development (p. 102).
- Among the more important influences on religious understanding are developmental changes in reasoning, self-understanding, and moral judgment (p. 90).
- Religious and spiritual development reflect … the evolving understanding of self in relation to matters of ultimate concern (p. 93).

What school—public or private—would take a stand against these tenets and would be less than pleased to be a member of the community actively and effectively contributing toward them? Maybe they would also commit to removing hindrances and creating opportunities and supports for awe, marveling and deep reflection in its regard, and ascending spiritual intelligence. Psychologists in the school community can serve all these purposes.

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The Child's Right to Quality Education and the School Psychologist

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Abstract

The right to education has been recognized by the international community—through many conventions, recommendations, statements, political declarations, and national and international reports—as a human right. In spite of these official declarations and a consensus of the nations, the realization of this generous objective has met many obstacles, and millions of children (especially girls) still are out of schools and have not had their education right recognized. In this article, the author describes the long track followed by the Education For All Movement to reach the goals as defined at the 1990 World Conference on Education for All (WEF) in Jomtien, Thailand (UNESCO, World declaration on education for all and framework for action to meet basic learning needs, 1990), and renewed at the 2000 Dakar, Senegal, WEF I (UNESCO, The Dakar Framework for Action, 2000) and at the 2015 Incheon, South Korea, WEF II (UNESCO, Education 2030. Incheon declaration and framework for action: towards an inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all, 2015a). Though national governments have the responsibility of implementing educational programs and coping with the objectives of development adopted by the international community, the role of the civil society and of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) is just as important. To allow all children the right to a quality education, the contribution of societal and NGO professionals must be supported. Among these professionals, school psychologists bring their expertise and make a difference in the implementation of educational programs taking into account the child's personality and its development.

Abbreviations

CNCDP France	Commission Nationale Consultative sur la Déontologie des Psychologues (National Consultative Commission on the Deontology of Psychologists)
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECOSOC	Economical and Social Council (of United Nations Organization)
EFA	Education For All
GMR	Global Monitoring Report on EFA (Annual publication)

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NGO	Nongovernmental organization
UNESCO	United Nations for Education, Science and Culture Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WEF	World Education Forum

The Significance of Education

> Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world. – (Nelson Mandela, 2003)

Respecting its importance, education has been recognized as a fundamental human right that occupies a central place in human rights, as it is a right in itself and indispensable for the exercise of all other human rights (Bokova, 2013).

Education as a Human Right

The Right to Education was included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations [UN], 1948), the United Nations (UN) Declaration on the Rights of Children (United Nations [UN], 1959), the Convention against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO, 1960), and in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations [UN], 1989). The first World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal (WEF I; UNESCO, 2000), reaffirmed education as a fundamental human right and set objectives for achieving Education for All (EFA). The Millennium Declaration (United Nations [UN], 2000) affirmed by world leaders the same year and reaffirmed at the UN Summit (United Nations [UN], 2005), recognized the impact of education on sustainable development, and formed an agenda for reducing poverty and improving lives. Two goals of the Millennium Declaration (MDG) echo EFA goals N°4 and N°5: MDG4 (Compulsory and free Primary Education) and MDG 5 (Gender Equality). Within education at large, *literacy* is a first step to successful lifelong learning as formulated by Irina Bokova, Director General of UNESCO (Bokova, 2013):

> Literacy is a basic right and an essential motor for human development. It paves the way to autonomy, the acquisition of skills, cultural expression and full participation in society. Literacy is therefore much more than an educational priority. It is the investment of the future "par excellence". Literacy is essential to eliminate poverty, reduce infant mortality, reduce demographic growth, establish gender equality and insure sustainable development, peace and democracy.

Despite these generous and renewed declarations, nearly 800 million human beings, of whom two-thirds are women, are illiterate, and 58 million school-age children do not have access to schooling (Global Monitoring Report; UNESCO, 2015b).

International Promotion of the Child's Right to Education for Children

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989; hereafter, referred to as the Convention) declares broad and specific support for education in Articles 28 and 29, which are of particular relevance to School Psychology. Portions of these Articles are provided here.

> Article 28
>
> 1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:
>
> (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
> (b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
> (c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;
> (d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
> (e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of dropout rates.
>
> Article 29
>
> 1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

(a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
(b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
(c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;
(d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
(e) The development of respect for the natural environment.

The Convention, adopted in 1989 without dissent by the UN General Assembly, has met many obstacles to become a reality in many countries, including developed countries. The international community has tried to reach the Convention's objectives and, under the banner of the UN (especially UNESCO and UNICEF), has produced various related recommendations. Presented here are goals and related results for the Jomtien World Conference on EFA and the World Forum on Education.

At the Jomtien World Conference (UNESCO, 1990), the principle of a right to Education For All (EFA) was adopted by the international community and gave UNESCO various means to realize this ambitious project, for example, the Working Group on EFA and the High Level Group on EFA. At the first World Education Forum (UNESCO, 2000), UNESCO was given the leadership for achieving the six goals of EFA (see Table 1) through a 15-year plan (2000–2015). Four goals (1, 2, 5, 6) were especially dedicated to the Right of Children to Education.

Despite significant progress, many countries could not reach all the EFA goals. According to the Global Monitoring Report on EFA (UNESCO, 2015b, p. 3–4):

> On the positive side, the number of children and adolescents who were out of school has fallen by almost half since 2000. An estimated 34 million more children will have attended school as a result of faster progress since Dakar. The greatest progress has been achieved in gender parity, particularly in primary education, although gender disparity remains in almost a third of the countries with data. Governments have also increased efforts to measure learning outcomes through national and international assessments, using these to ensure that all children receive the quality of education they were promised . . . . [Despite this progress,] there are still 58 million children out of school globally and around 100 million children who do not complete primary education. Inequality in education has increased, with the poorest and most disadvantaged shouldering the heaviest burden. The world's poorest children are four times more likely not to go to school than the world's richest children, and five times more likely not to complete primary school. Conflict remains a steep barrier, with a high and growing proportion of out-of-school children living in conflict zones. Overall, the poor quality of learning at primary level still has millions of children leaving school without basic skills.

Table 1 Six goals of education for all (EFA; UNESCO, 1990, 2000)

1. [a]*Expand early childhood care and education*. This goal calls for better and more possibilities to support young children, their families and communities, in all the areas of child development, including physical, cognitive, emotional, and social.
2. [a]*Provide free and compulsory primary education for all*. This goal sets the objective of seeing that all children, girls as well as boys, go to school and finish primary education.
3. *Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults*. This goal places the emphasis on the learning needs of young people and adults in the context of lifelong learning.
4. *Increase adult literacy by 50%*. This goal calls for a certain level of improvement in adult literacy by 2015. It states that it should be 50% better than it was in 2000.
5. [a]*Achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015*. This goal calls for an equal number of girls and boys to be enrolled in primary and secondary school by 2005. *Gender parity* means the same enrollment for boys and girls by 2005. *Gender equality* means equal support for and overall achievement in education for girls and boys by 2015.
6. [a]*Improve the quality of education*. This goal calls for improvement in the quality of education in all its aspects, aiming for a situation where people can achieve excellence.

[a] These goals (1, 2, 5, 6) are especially dedicated to the Right of Children to Education

Challenges Associated with Achievement of the Right to Education

The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereafter, referred to as the Committee), the expert body established by the Convention to monitor its implementation by States Parties, provided a report in 2003 in which main factors of the expected failure of the EFA program were analyzed (David, 2003). Contrary to the 1990 Jomtien World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) and the 2000 Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000), the Convention includes *legal obligations for all states that have ratified the treaty*. The right to education, as spelled out in Articles 28 and 29, is *not an option* for States parties, *but rather an obligation* under international law, which needs to be reflected in domestic law, policies, institutions, and programs. The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1999) considers this right as "unequivocal," but the monitoring work of the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child shows that this obligation remains a challenge for a great number of States parties. David (2003, p. 45–46) provides three examples:

1. "Swaziland would undertake the implementation of the right to free primary education to the maximum extent of available resources and expects to obtain the co-operation of the international community for its full satisfaction as soon as possible."
2. "Nepal did not make primary education compulsory."
3. "Other countries, such as Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Guatemala, Jordan, Paraguay, Senegal, Yugoslavia and Zimbabwe, have been criticized by the Committee for failing to guarantee this right."

The Convention itself does not define the number of years that primary education is supposed to cover, therefore leaving states with much flexibility to set the related age limit. The 1990 Jomtien Declaration (UNESCO, 1990), which refers to both basic education and primary education, conveys additional imprecision. It also says, "Basic education should be provided to all children, youth and adults" (UNESCO, 1990, p. 4). The Jomtien Declaration does not refer to the right to education and, thereby, runs the risk of weakening the concept.

The Committee has noted that "in several countries, despite legal guarantees, free education is not necessarily without costs. Some public primary schools do request some types of fees. Others bear excessive indirect costs for parents that are generated by the high costs of learning materials, including books, transportation, food, and uniforms" (David, 2003, p. 45). In some countries, children who are not officially registered cannot enroll in school (e.g., Algeria, Argentina, Brazil, China, the Democratic Republic of Congo, India, Kenya, the Russian Federation, and Vietnam). As such, the right to education for millions of children is denied worldwide every day as a consequence of an administrative failure to respect their right to an identity (UN, 1989, Art. 7). In his report, David (2003) gives many other reasons why the right to education is not really applied (p. 43–49):

- "The Committee expressed concern regarding the potential discrimination faced by children who do not wish to attend religious classes" (p. 43).
- "The Committee is especially concerned by the use of corporal punishment by teachers as a means of discipline and the phenomenon of bullying" (p.44).
- "The Committee observed that in some States Parties (for example Nicaragua, Guatemala and Suriname), the official age for ending compulsory education is not synchronised with the minimum age for access to employment, leaving children who drop out of school in a grey zone that could lead some of them to work illegally under dangerous conditions" (p. 49).

Goals of Education for All: From Dakar (2000–2015) to Incheon (2015–2030)

A post-2015 agenda was prepared and adopted at the 2015 Incheon, South Korea, World Education

Forum (UNESCO, 2015a). In their final report, entitled *Education 2030: The Framework for Action (FFA)*, the Forum analyzed why the former EFA program defined in Dakar (UNESCO, 2000) could not reach all its objectives. It also recommended better coordination between Education 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) especially SDG 4 (compulsory and free primary education) and SDG 5 (gender equality), which are specifically dedicated to education (UN, 2015). The Framework is composed of three sections. *Section I* (pp. 4–6) outlines the vision, rationale, and fundamental principles of Education 2030. *Section II* (pp. 6–23) describes the global education goal and its associated *seven targets*. This section proposes (a) a structure for coordinating global education efforts as well as governance, monitoring, evaluation, and reporting mechanisms; (b) ways of ensuring that Education 2030 is adequately financed; and (c) partnerships to realize the agenda globally, regionally, and nationally. *Section III* (p. 23–32) outlines several *means of implementation and related strategy options* covering: (a) governance, accountability, and partnership; (b) effective coordination; (c) monitoring, follow-up, and review for evidence-based policies; and (d) financing.

Five key themes have been selected and adopted by the international community (UNESCO, 2015b; UN, 2015) to frame the education agenda for 2015–2030. They are provided here with brief descriptions of central meanings or purposes.

1. *Right to Education for All*. The World Education Forum will take stock of what has been achieved since 2000 and build the path to Education for All in 2030.
2. *Inclusive education*. Inclusion requires adopting a holistic approach to education from early childhood onwards to incorporate the learning concerns of marginalized and excluded groups and addresses the *four pillars of learning*: learning to know, to do, to live together, and to be (UNESCO, 1996).
3. *Equity in education*. Equity in education is a means to achieve equality of opportunity for development towards well-being in life. It intends to provide the best opportunities for all students to achieve their full potential and act to address instances of disadvantage which restrict educational achievement. It involves special treatment/action taken to reverse the historical and social disadvantages that prevent learners from accessing and benefiting from education on equal grounds.
4. *Quality education*. Quality learning is not only essential for meeting people's basic needs, but also fundamental in fostering the conditions for global peace and sustainable development, along with the basic need to acquire attitudes, values, and skills as well as information. Teachers, peers, communities, curriculum, and learning resources must help prepare children to recognize and respect human rights globally and to value global well-being.
5. *Lifelong learning*. Lifelong learning is about meeting the diverse and context-specific learning needs of all age groups, including the acquisition of basic literacy and technical skills through both formal education and effective alternative pathways to learning. Adult learning and education, TVET (Technical and Vocational Education and Training) and literacy all represent significant components of the lifelong learning process.

The Importance of Civil Society and NGO Support for the Right to Education

In 1990 at the Jomtien Conference the role of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) was clearly confirmed through three mechanisms (UNESCO, 1990):

1. *The Collective Consultation of NGOs on Education for All (CCNGO/EFA)*. This mechanism aims to facilitate civil society participation in the Dakar follow-up. The CCNGO/EFA organizes regional civil society forums.
2. *The Global Campaign for Education (GCE)* initiated by three important NGOs: Oxfam, Education International, and Action Aid. GCE lobbies for the right to education and participates in the international coordination mecha-

nisms of the High Level Group and EFA Working Group.

3. *The NGO Liaison Committee* is the communication and liaison channel on EFA matters to the NGOs in official relationship with UNESCO.

After Dakar, The International School Psychology Association (ISPA) gave an active contribution in the Working Group of NGOs for EFA; an ISPA representative was Secretary of this group and was elected at the Liaison Committee of NGOs (Secretary General, 2009–2011). ISPA colloquia in 2008, 2010, and 2012 organized by the UNESCO-NGO Working Group gave ISPA opportunities to present the role of psychologists in the field of education and to show how "School Psychology does make a difference." In 2013–2014, ISPA was a member of the organizing committee (as Secretary) of an International Conference on Literacy and Lifelong EFA (UNESCO-NGO Working Group, 2014) supported by the Liaison Committee of NGOs in partnership with the Education Sector of UNESCO. Beyond the strong commitment of ISPA to children's rights through its Child Well Being and Advocacy Committee (ISPA-Child Well Being and Advocacy Committee, 2009) and its three sections (i.e., Children's Rights, EFA, Social and Emotional Learning), the organization is recognized as important for exploring the ways for school psychologists to help children in having their right to education recognized worldwide. In this respect, leaders in school psychology have to reconsider their roles as psychologists in the field of education.

Education and School Psychology

How should school psychologists be concerned about the right of the child to education according to Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention? Though these Articles were submitted to, and agreed on, by States parties who are obligated to make them effective, all citizens of the world and especially all professionals working in the field of education should be vitally concerned with these two Articles.

Article 28 focuses on structure and provision for education. Primary education should be compulsory, should be accessible to all children, and, to reach this objective, should be free. Although the financial aspect is emphasized, the mention of *all children* is a way to introduce the concept of inclusive education, which was declared later. Secondary education (including technical and professional education) and higher education are recommended as a first step to continuous and lifelong education. Article 28 recommends "Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children" (UN, 1989).

Article 28 also calls for schools to respect the dignity of the child when establishing disciplines policies and practices.

Article 29 is more related to school psychology's missions and practices by setting the purposes of education as enabling the child to develop his/her capacities (physical, cognitive, affective) to their highest potential (UN, 1989; Art. 29.a). Additional statements (Art. 29.b and 29.c) insist on development of both respect for human rights and respect for the cultural identity of the child. Sections 29.d and 29.e aim to promote development of a responsible and tolerant citizen of the world with ecological consciousness.

Responsibilities for promotion and protection of children's rights related to education, as detailed in Articles 28 and 29, are within the purview of school psychologists and other educational professionals. The challenge for professionals working in the field of education, and especially for school psychologists, is to make their day-to-day practice advance the intentions of the Convention and the recommendations of the project *Education 2030*. However, in many countries, the training and cultural background of school psychologists do not prepare them to meet this challenge. The next section addresses the role of the profession of school psychology in promoting children's right to education within an historical context.

Related Historical Context of School Psychology

School psychology embodies clinical and educational models which can be applied ecologically and systemically to champion and respect children's rights. Specific consideration should be given to how school psychologists play a role in the concrete implementation of the right to education as defined in the Convention. Historically, even before the name school psychologist was used by Hugo Munsterberg (in 1898) and the activity defined by the German psychologist Stern (in 1911), the profession was devoted to the study of children with learning difficulties at school. Lightner Witmer (USA), who is sometimes considered the first school psychologist in the world, opened a psychological clinic at the University of Pennsylvania at the end of the nineteenth century. In France, it was also Alfred Binet's idea to help students when he built his test to measure the intellectual development of school children (Fagan, 2012). This child-centered clinical approach, usually founded on a medical model, as confirmed in most current studies, has been widely used by school psychologists (Farrell, 2004). As Hart and Hart (chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume) explain, "The profession has been chiefly constrained by external and internal forces to problem and deficit orientations and to a reactive mode benefiting a relatively small portion of children deserving their support". Such a conception is not favorable to the development of a quality education for all as recommended in UNESCO orientations. The new social contract between school psychology and its clients, as recommended by Hart and Hart (chapter "Toward a Preferred Future for School Psychology", this volume), requires promotion of the full holistic development and well-being of all students, necessitating changes in current school psychology practices. It also requires new models for school organization and for teaching as well. If school psychologists wish to contribute to this new organization of the services in an enlightened school system, they have to change their own view on their work to meet not only the individual needs of all children but also the needs of the school community as a whole.

The social ecology provides multiple and vast opportunities for service and contributions by school psychologists. According to the ecosystemic model (Barker, 1968; Bronfenbrenner, 1979, Guillemard, 2006; see also conceptual model in Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume), school psychologists should act at several levels of the child's ecological system: *Level 1, ontosystem* (the individual child); *Level 2, microsystem* (family, peer group, etc.); *Level 3, mesosystem* (interactions among levels); and *Level 4, exosystem* (school, community, local organization, local government). As a citizen member or activist in national and international NGOs, the school psychologist also may have influence at *Level 5, macrosystem* (e.g., social, cultural, economic factors), through professional organizations (e.g., British Educational Psychology Association, American Psychological Association, European Federation of Psychological Associations, International School Psychology Association) or coalitions of NGOs (e.g., national coalition of NGOs on children's rights, Child Rights Connect), on recommendations adopted by the United Nations and other International agencies (e.g., UNESCO, ECOSOC, European Council). At all five levels of the child's ecosystem, the school psychologist *must* work cooperatively through multidisciplinary teamwork for effectiveness and efficiency.

The role of the school psychologist, however, is multifaceted. In many countries, school psychologists work in services organized on a geographical basis and are responsible for answering to the school community, including the expectations and needs of its children, families, teachers, students, and administrators. Furthermore, school psychologists typically engage in individual clinical work with students, which requires primary commitment to the child as client. This role may conflict with other aspects of their work (e.g., teachers' continuous training or parental education). In some countries, school psychological services are combined with other services (e.g., medical, social, special education). Such an organization may facilitate teamwork among several professionals working together to solve a problem which requires several approaches and could not be totally solved by a single professional. The inherent complexity of the school psychologist's role and disparate commitments are likely to require varied, and sometimes contradictory, actions. Consequently, school psychologists must be not only generalists with a global vision of local situations but also specialists who are able to work individually or in teams (with teachers, administrators, parents, etc.) to address specific situations or cases. Moreover, the school psychologist must be able to maintain an advocacy role to ensure that the child's right to education is promoted and protected, which we explore in the next section.

Tracks for Action

How can school psychologists become significant actors in the world campaign for education? This section addresses specific "tracks for action" that encompass the broader mission of advocacy for child rights within the Framework for Action, with particular attention to promotion and prevention through systems-level work.

Role of Professionals Within the Framework for Action

The Framework for Action (Education 2030; UNESCO, 2015a, p. 24) describes detailed objectives and targets for Education 2030, defines modalities to reach these objectives and targets, and gives special attention to and promotes the roles of professionals (teachers and education support personnel; UNESCO, 2015a, p. 24). The Framework considers that professionals should:

1. Use their professionalism and commitment to ensure that students learn.
2. Bring classroom realities to the forefront of policy dialogue, policy making, and planning and provide a bridge between policy and practice, contributing through their experience as practitioners and their collective insight and expertise to overall policies and strategies.
3. Promote inclusion, quality, and equity and improve curricula and pedagogy.

School psychologists can also play a critical role in achieving goals of Education 2030.

Contributing Towards Well-Being and a Safe School

School psychologists may play a prominent role in the achievement of the six Dakar (UNESCO, 2000) goals and the five themes selected in Incheon (UNESCO, 2015a). Access to education is important, but this leaves the question of what kind of education. Many countries have been satisfied with reporting statistics of the number of children enrolled in primary school programs. This narrow emphasis on enrollment has resulted in failure to attend to the pupils dropping out before the end of the program or to address quality of programming. To be successful, education programs must be of high quality, requiring numerous supportive conditions.

Material conditions for good learning Some of the necessities are easy access, safe buildings with good sanitary conditions, furniture, and school books for all students. School psychologists may not be responsible for building schools, designing furniture, and defining accessibility through bussing, but they may play a role as consultant (Guillemard, 2012a).

Qualified teachers and school staff "To teach Latin to John it is necessary to know Latin but it is also important to know John." This old saying illustrates the necessity for teachers to have good psychological knowledge of their students if they are to teach them efficiently and effectively. If teachers receive a good quality and quantity of psychological knowledge in their initial training program (e.g., stages of child development, motility, cognition, affectivity), this will have to be augmented and renewed during periods of professional practice for effectiveness with real children. That is why psychologists should be providers of in-service education for teachers. School psychologists have the expertise to organize individual interviews, group workshops, and other interventions in which teachers can express their needs and explore present controversial and challenging situations regarding individual children, subgroups of children, or all the children in the classroom(s). The contribution of psychologists to the training of school staff may be helpful to the full range of personnel, from building care services to paraprofessionals and assistant teachers, senior teachers, and administrators, at all levels of development, talent, and need.

Inclusive school All children deserve quality education in schools where their needs and potential—physical, cognitive, affective, and creative—can be developed optimally. This issue is of dramatic importance for school psychologists in their role as students' helpers. They may contribute significantly to the establishment of school-wide programs allowing children to overcome barriers and obstacles towards achieving their full development. This conception of prevention argues for helping children grow from (and even before) birth along the life development path and to implement successful strategies for all conditions as soon as possible.

Prevention: A Young Child-Centered Approach

In 2012, the International Conference of UNESCO NGOs (2012), held in Paris to open the Global Action Week for World Education Campaign, was entitled *Early Childhood: Seeds for the Future*. One of the most promising tracks for school psychology practices to impact quality education is to develop actions towards young children before they enter the primary school and to concentrate their time and energy on the early child years of education. In this regard, the *Early Childhood Care and Education* (ECCE; Guillemard, 2012b) model may serve well.

Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)

The field of ECCE involves many closely related and interconnected issues such as physical and mental health, nutrition, education, the family and mother's economic independence, and gender equality. The argument can be made that services should be organized in unified systems to promote sustainable child development and that such services will probably be more efficient than specialized services working under the umbrella of several ministries (Moss, 2012).

ECCE as first objective of the Education for All (EFA) policy ECCE was the first objective (out of 6) of the EFA policy adopted at the World Education Forum (UNESCO, 2000) under the leadership of UNESCO. Its importance has been reaffirmed at the Moscow conference (UNESCO, 2010) where the UNESCO member states declared that (Preamble 2, p. 1):

> We adopt a broad and holistic concept of ECCE as the provision of care, education, health, nutrition, and protection of children aged 0–8 years of age. ECCE is therefore a right and an indispensable foundation for lifelong learning. Its proven benefits are manifold, and include better health and nutrition, improved educational efficiency and gender equity, greater employability and earnings, and better quality of life. ECCE policies are also recommended in the Declaration of Incheon (UNESCO, 2015a).

Role of school psychologists in ECCE The role of school psychologists in ECCE has been specified internationally in various statements adopted by professional organizations. According to the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, USA), "School psychologists (have to) work with young children to facilitate learning and development of those skills that are necessary for later schooling success" (NASP, 2015, p. 1). But schooling success is not the unique goal of school psychologists who are also, and may be more, committed to the improvement of children's well-being, gain in self-esteem, and development of social skills.

The concept of "at risk" child Many authors have insisted on the necessity of evidence-based observation to identify young children "at risk." The "at risk" concept is enlightened from two perspectives:

1. *Ethical point of view*, the major risk being definitive labeling. For example, if a 3-year-old child does not speak in the classroom, the school psychologist can promote a knowledge-based understanding that this condition should not lead to premature labeling as an autistic syndrome.
2. *Efficacy point of view*, for example, the school psychologist can place child characteristics in a developmental context, recognizing that the child is changing month after month, day after day, and that it is important to give him/her enough time to cope with new environments.

Prevention and the school psychologist The International School Psychology Association (ISPA; http://www.ispaweb.org/), and especially its Child Well Being and Advocacy Committee (CWBA; http://www.ispaweb.org/committees/), has been involved in Education for All actions. An extensive part of school psychologists' work is dedicated to prevention. In concert with this orientation, psychologists usually initiate and develop partnerships in early childhood professional networks. In France, major partners for psychologists are educators and teachers, doctors (pediatricians, child psychiatrists), social workers, and, of course, families (particularly mothers). As French school psychologists have opportunities to meet all children (a role they share with school doctors) beginning at age 3 or younger (French Ministry of Education, 2013) until the end of the primary school, they have good opportunities for continuous observation and enough time to decide which is the best moment to help the child and how (Guillemard, 2012b). Their teamwork with specialized teachers, school staff, and families may be organized in cooperation with health and social professionals usually in at least two ways:

1. Helping children and families when a possible illness or disorder is suspected and directing them towards the relevant medical setting; and/or
2. Supporting teachers and families in building a safe and quality school environment which offers all children a feeling of well-being, including self-esteem, autonomy, and willingness to grow up and to learn.

General philosophy of prevention for the youngest children "Give them the time they need to grow" (Guillemard, 2012b)**.** Psychologists consider their preventative action in a global perspective and not only as targeted on children who could be labelled "at risk." They wish to allow children enough time to cope with the preschool environment that is so different from their home experience.

Professional Practices for a New Social Contract Between School Psychologists and Their Clients

School psychologists may play a major role in helping children to overcome learning difficulties. They may facilitate, protect, and help secure self-esteem, which is probably the most important feeling needed to win the learning challenge (Guillemard, 2006). In the process of supporting children with special needs, school psychologists may bring their expertise to enable educators, especially parents and teachers, to effectively promote desired education. Finally, they contribute in changing the human and organizational context of learning to build a school community capable of advancing child well-being. If school psychologists wish to contribute optimally to the school community, they probably will have to change their views on their work. School psychology that is able to meet not only the individual needs of all children but also the needs of the school community as a whole should change its perspective and add social, systemic, and ecological approaches to an individual clinical approach (Guillemard, 2006).

Even if school psychology has been generalized in developed countries, its principles could be used in any country preparing a national plan of education for all. NGOs and foundations working in developing countries to implement education programs (either formal or non-formal education) could use the expertise of school psychologists especially those with international and cross-cultural experience.[1]

In developed and emergent countries, where school psychology does exist, there are still many needs that are not met. Countries like the USA, the UK, France, and Germany have sophisticated school systems in which many students have not succeeded in completing the curriculum in secondary education; either they have dropped out before the end of their studies or they have not completed the requirements for final diplomas. Most of these students have experienced failure early in their school life. In these countries, school psychologists could be better utilized, providing that their tasks are organized differently.

Too often, the major work of school psychologists consists in identifying individual children whose performances or behavior are seen as symptoms of psychological problems. In this respect, the school psychologist does not work differently from a clinical psychologist. In some cases, he/she works as a therapist instead of working in improving programs, quality of life in schools, and teacher training. However, there are many examples of school psychologists who have used their knowledge to help schools in offering more resources and opportunities to their students. Such contributions include:

1. Actions to develop and promote literacy (reading, spelling) among minorities (in mother tongue or official national tongue), including children (especially girls) and adults (especially women).
2. Non-formal education for mothers to prepare them to promote sound psychological development (e.g., cognitive, emotional) for young children.
3. Education in post-war countries (education towards peace and tolerance).
4. Training of teachers in countries building or re-building their school system.

Children's Rights and the Psychologist: A French Experience

In November 2014, The French Association of Educational Psychologists, Secion Ile de France-Paris, organized a forum entitled "Children's Rights and the Psychologist" (AFPEN-IDF, 2014). One of the key lecturers, Claire Silvestre-Toussain, made an interesting analysis to show the complementarity between the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the French Psychologists' Code of Ethics (CNCDP/ Commission Nationale Consultative de Déontologie des Psychologues/National Consultative Commission for the Deontoloty of Psychologusts; CNCDP, 2012).[2] The French Code of Ethics is not dedicated to children but to the relationship between the psychologist and his/her client (child or adult). In the Code, it is clearly expressed that "The psychologist refers his/her practices to the fundamental rights of human beings, dignity, freedom, protection, as mentioned in national, European and International legislations." This is coherent with the Convention's Article 29 sections that follow:

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[1] Due to France's historical tradition as a country built on migrations and colonization, there is an important literature describing the specific psychological issues linked to migration. The Transcultural Psychology and Ethnopsychiatry French School was founded in the 1960s under the influence of Georges Devereux and developed by ethnopsychiatrists like Tobie Nathan and Marie-Rose Moro (University Paris VIII) who often were key lecturers at the National Conferences of the French Association of Educational Psychologists (AFPEN). As a former country of colonization, and in application of the French Law, children living in French overseas territories must attend compulsory school from ages 5 to 16. They may, when needed, meet a school psychologist who has to consider the local context and adapt his/her professional practices to different cultural contexts like French Guyana (South America), French West Indies and Caribbean (Guadeloupe, Martinique), Mayotte and La Réunion (Indian Ocean), Saint Pierre et Miquelon Islands (North Atlantic Ocean), Nouvelle Calédonie, and French Polynesia (Pacific Ocean). The presence of an important immigrated population (including children) from North Africa (Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia), Western Africa, and East Asia (Vietnam, Cambodia) is a factor which may explain the development of Cross-cultural Studies and consultants of Ethno-Psychiatry and Ethno-Psychology in France. Several examples (in French) of School Psychology practices in these contexts may be found in the "Practical Handbook of Psychology in Educational Settings" by J. C. Guillemard and S. Guillard (Masson Publishers, Paris 1997). These include examples from French West Indies and French Guyana, colonies in the Indian Ocean, and adaptations for migrant children in France.

[2] For similar analyses related to ethics standards for other countries, see Nastasi and Naser (2014), USA, and Woods and Bond (2014), UK. Nastasi and Naser also provide an analysis of international standards developed by the International School Psychology Association (ISPA).

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:
    (a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
    (b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations.

Study of the Code of Ethics (CNCDP, 2012) is supposed to be included in the training of school psychologists in France. However, it is not really known, nor is it applied, by all the psychologists in their day-to-day work. The CNCDP (National Psychologists Deontology Committee), a board of independent and volunteer practitioners, gives advice and recommendations to people who have a complaint about a psychologist's practices and to psychologists who are harassed by their employers or their clients. The CNCDP reports numerous cases in which psychologists (including school psychologists) have violated he Code of Ethics. According to Silvestre-Toussaint, the Code of Ethics should be better known by school psychologists. This remark is particularly appropriate for the Convention which should be deeply known and understood by psychologists. Other contributors to this colloquium presented various relevant case studies, examples of which follow.

JP Rosenczveig, a lawyer and former Judge at the Bobigny's Children Court (near Paris), entitled his lecture: "Rights of children, who benefits?" He discussed the contradiction between the rights of children and the right to (have) a child at any price, referring to the current debate in France about adoption of children by gay families and the controversial issue about surrogate mothers (a practice which is forbidden in France). He has questioned, "What about the right of children to have parents, to know their biological parents?" He mentioned that the concept of rights is always moving in the field of family legislation and he added that it is easier to produce a new law than to change our minds. School psychologists, when they work on the relationship between a child and his/her parents in a conflictual context, must know what the law says and what serves in the best interests of the child.

Geneviève Djenati, a former trainer and coordinator at the School Psychologists Training Centre/University Paris V, insisted on the responsibility of adults, especially parents, to give children their rights. Working with the child and his/her family, the school psychologist may allow the child to have his/her rights recognized. She describes the case of Pauline, an 8-year-old girl, referred by the school for learning difficulties, hyperactivity, and attention deficit. After several interviews with the family (high socioeconomic status) and the child, the psychologist discovered Pauline was not allowed to play at home because her parents needed calm and silence after their work. The father added they also needed the weekend for rest. Pauline's request for attention was not heard in her family. Learning and behavior troubles disappeared when the adults (who became involved in couple therapy) allowed Pauline to have the right to be a child.

Nicole Bailly led a workshop entitled "Which rights for the poorest children and their families?" Nicole has worked as a psychologist for many years in Parisian suburbs where marginalized populations (often migrant people) have been gathered. She was a representative, with this chapter's author, of the Association of School Psychologists at the French Council of Associations for Children's Rights (COFRADE). She also worked with an International NGO, ATD Quarter World. She insists on the necessity for teachers to know the families from marginalized populations, their expectations, and their reluctance towards the school system and to allow the children to use their right to education. In pre-elementary schools (children aged 3–5), she organized interaction groups for teachers and families (especially mothers). She insisted on the necessity to include, in both initial and pre-service training of teachers, theoretical and practical work to achieve better knowledge and recognition of marginalized families and she indicated that the study of the Convention could be a good introduction to this training.

Dominique Maurice, a school psychologist working near Paris, studied the situation of handicapped children *vis-a-vis* the right to an inclusive education. She tried to prove through her professional experience how the right to education for handicapped children may be distorted on behalf of the "child's best interests" by administrative constraints imposed on professionals (teachers, psychologists, caretakers) and by the demanding behavior of some families which may lead to paradoxical requests to the psychologist. In this case, the psychologist may be in a situation of "double bind"[3] as conceptualized by the systemic approach (Watzlawick, Helmick-Beavin, & Jackson, 1967). In an article of the ISPA newsletter (*World Go Round*), Peter Farrell (2004) describes two situations which echo those presented—10 years later—by Dominique (2014).

> *Case 1*
> The school psychologist had done the job (i.e., individual assessment, interviews with the family and with teachers, final report) to keep a student mainstreamed in general education. But the LEA (Local Education Authority) had a vacancy in a special school. "The LEA had no money to fund the mainstreaming … and protracted argument would result in no services being provided to help the child" (p. 2). After uncomfortable discussions with the family and with her colleagues, the school psychologist, though reluctantly, agreed with the LEA's request and rewrote her report to recommend the special school. In this case, the school psychologist had worked to meet the LEA's needs rather than the child's needs for a best education.
>
> *Case 2*
> Parents considered their son as a dyslexic and expected a diagnosis of dyslexia from the psychologist in order to get additional resources and to benefit from application of special arrangements in his forthcoming examinations. In this context the school psychologist was under considerable pressure and was driven to write the desired report though she did not consider the child's problem was dyslexia.

In both cases, the right to a quality education meeting the real needs of the child has not been recognized and the school psychologist behaved unethically.

Francine Corman represents French school psychologists at NEPES (Network of Psychologists' Associations in Educational Systems), a standing committee of the EFPA (European Federation of Psychologists Associations). She led a workshop about the rights of the child and the training of professionals acting in the school system. She referred to a recent French law (Bailly, 2014; Corman, 2014) in which the school is responsible to contribute to the reduction of inequality between children; provide best opportunities to learn according to their potentialities; respect their rhythms; and develop the capacity "to live together." As a consequence of this law, teachers are going to be trained to construct and implement a program aiming to help students to know their rights and the social and moral values recognized in the Constitution of the French Republic. In all French schools, the French Declaration of Human Rights and Citizenship must be posted. Francine Corman also enumerated various experiences led by school psychologists at the individual level, at the level of the classroom and of the school, and in training sessions for teachers. In considering a brief overview of the CRED-PRO (Child Rights Education for Professionals) and Tulane University Child Rights Education programs for school psychologists, she judged that this program should be very useful for psychologists to help them bring child rights fully into their work with teachers and parents (Nastasi & Naser, 2014).

Educational Experiment on Child Rights in a Primary School

In respect for Corman's suggestion, we have looked for recent situations in which school psychologists (as leaders or partners) had contributed to make the Convention on the Rights of the Child known, understood, and applied. A great number of individual attempts have been made to inform children and to help them to become aware of the meaning of children's rights in the classroom, in the school, and in the city. The following example is illustrative.

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[3] A *double bind* is an emotionally distressing *dilemma* in *communication* in which an individual (or group) receives two or more conflicting messages, and one message negates the other. Double-bind theory was first described by Gregorry Bateson and his colleagues in the 1950s.

Christine Desaubry, a school psychologist, describes the program she has developed with young students in a primary school of a suburb close to Paris (C. Desaubry, personal communication, 2015). In this primary school the teacher of the 4th form (9-year-old students) meets many difficulties to establish a studious and cordial atmosphere in the classroom. A project based on the knowledge of children's rights was developed with the school psychologist and two special teachers (support personnel team). Most pupils were not ready to learn efficiently. They entered frequently into conflict. They did not respect classroom rules and were often aggressive and sometimes rude with the teachers. The goal of the project was to change the pupils' behavior, to make them more tolerant to the others. It was also expected that behavior modification could facilitate learning.

Methodology of the program The 32 pupils of the class were distributed into 4 groups of 8 pupils each. Each group was under the leadership of one adult, namely, the teacher of the class, the 2 special teachers, and the psychologist. Three sessions were planned.

1st session: Right to an identity After a session of presentation (My name is, I am a boy/girl, I am … years old, …), two articles of the Convention were selected: the right to an identity (UN, 1989, Arts. 8 and 9) and the right to education (Arts. 28 and 29). The session leader presents the Convention, mentions that this year is the 25th anniversary of the Convention, and asks the pupils if they know which rights concern them. Then he/she reads Articles 8 and 9 (right to an identity); a dialogue is opened with the following questions: "Who can tell me what the word *identity* means? What does it mean for you? Why is it important to have an identity? What is nationality? What does it mean to be a stateless person?" To conclude this exchange, the children are invited to draw a self-portrait and to write their first name under the picture.

2nd session: Right to education After a reminder of the previous session, the pupils are invited to watch a slide show. In it, they see children on their way to school in several countries of the world. A time of exchange allows consideration of notions of danger, effort and safety connected to the way to school for these children. Then a simplified version of Articles 28 and 29 is read. The following questions are asked: "What is education? Have all the children access to education? Why? What is illiteracy?" Then a questionnaire is distributed to the pupils about their own way to school. Each of them gives a written answer: "How do you go to school? Do you go alone or accompanied? How long is your way to school? Do you feel safe on the route?"

3rd session: Protection against violence and protection of private life A reminder of the rights discussed at sessions 1 and 2 is made with possible additional comments from the children and/or from the adults. Then a simplified version of Convention Article 19 (on protection from all forms of violence) is read and a comic strip which presents some situations of bullying is discussed with the children. Children are asked if they have met such situations in their daily life and what they can say about these situations. They are then asked to imagine what they might think and feel if they were the victim and what they might think and feel if they were the aggressor. They are also asked if it is possible to laugh at everything with anybody. To close the session, pupils are invited to draw a situation of bullying.

Finally, the children have been asked what they have felt and thought at the end of the program. The program has been found to relate meaningfully to UNESCO's four pillars of learning (UNESCO, 1996), as follows:

- Self-esteem (learning to be)
- Respect for others (learning to live together)
- Adaptation to multiple situations (learning to know, learning to do)
- Desire to learn (learning to be, learning to know)
- Empathy between children (boys and/or girls) (learning to live together)

The small interaction groups in which each participant has learned to listen to the others and to share his/her feeling on topics of concern (particularly children's rights) produced new behaviors, modified the relationship between the participants (pupils and teacher), and started new group dynamics, facilitating cooperation and the pleasure to live and work together in the classroom. This experience would have benefitted from consideration of other articles of the Convention. Nevertheless, even in so short a time (3 sessions), results are promising. The school psychologist, in association with the teachers, can thus inform the pupils about their rights but also help make them aware that, if it is important to have one's own rights recognized, it is also important to recognize the other's rights. Considering the right to a quality education (UNESCO, 2015a), framed by Delors' Four Pillars of Learning (UNESCO, 1996), even modest attempts like Desaubry's deserve our interest. We ought to improve, extend, and develop more ambitious programs: a worthy objective that requires information and training for all the adults involved (teachers, educators, volunteers).

Conclusion

In too many countries, children's rights are not recognized. The right to education is still an unreachable dream for millions of children worldwide. But even in developed countries not all the children have their rights to a quality education respected, either because the school cannot meet their special needs or because it could not encourage or sustain their desire to learn before they dropped out. In this respect, school psychology can make a difference and the new social contract with school psychologists' clients (Hart and Hart, chapter "Toward a Preferred Future for School Psychology", this volume) may be relevant.

Is it enough to give children the right to a quality education? Probably not. Another idea discussed in this paper is that education is a fundamental human right that must be respected according to declarations, treaties, conventions, and recommendations promulgated by the international community under the banner of UN organizations. However, the recent history has provided much evidence that verbal and/or written declarations even endorsed by international leaders, individually or collectively, have not been transformed into concrete actions. Fifteen years after the WEF I in Dakar, EFA goals have not been reached for the 27 million children who have never entered a classroom, and there is a growing number of children and adolescents out of school because they are poor, girls, or living in conflict zones (UNESCO, 2010).

Moreover, are we sure that Education for All is a desired goal in all parts of the world? Probably not. The objectives of EFA 2015 (UNESCO, 2000) and those of Education 2030 (e.g., gender equity; UNESCO, 2015a) are not values unanimously shared in some countries who are member states of the UN, for ideological and/or religious reasons. Shall we give up? Certainly not! But we have to adapt our strategies and framework of actions to the current historical context.

The slogan "Think globally, act locally" may offer psychologists a meaningful general guide for practices. Think globally implies that school psychologists should have a theoretical reference. As suggested in a previous section (Guillemard, 2006), the prospective eco-systemic paradigm seems relevant. It allows us to act as a world citizen, an NGO activist or a member of the civil society to contribute and participate by collective action, class action and/or lobbying, in political changes at the higher level (macrosystem in Bronfenbrenner's typology) with subsequent consequences at the national, local, or community level (microsystem/mesosystem). In the perspective of Education 2030, financing educational policies is a major issue which impacts a school system. The International Commission for the Financing of Education (UNESCO, 2016), settled by UNESCO after the WEF II 2015, has recommended:

- Raise financing resources, number and diversity of donors: to reform fiscal policy, to fight against tax evasion.
- Optimize and control funds using select relevant targets (more money for early childhood

education, primary and secondary schools rather than higher education).

- Establish priorities: developing countries (e.g., Sub-Saharan Africa) and marginalized populations living in these countries.
- Raise financial aid in these countries (but not in developed countries where other strategies are needed).
- Concentrate efforts on equity and quality by focusing on teachers' training and status.

We also need a broad definition of education and learning which cannot be centered on academic skills only. The recommendations of the International Commission on Education for the twenty-first century (UNESCO, 1996) can change the conception of teaching and help build a school providing safety and well-being to children and adults. In such a school, children could:

- Learn to know and learn to learn.
- Learn to do by acquiring various skills and the competence (individually or in a team) to deal with many situations depending on the local/national context.
- Learn to live together by developing an understanding of the others and being able to manage conflicts, respecting values of tolerance, mutual understanding, and culture of peace.
- Learn to be by acting with autonomy, judgment, and personal responsibility, by developing one's personality and one's potential talents (physical, artistic, etc.).

This vision of education should guide educational reform and teachers' training. The Delors' report (UNESCO, 1996) has raised some (rare) criticisms (Tawill & Cougoureux, 2013) such as the following: It would be still too much in a context of globalization in terms of economics and development of new technologies; it would give education too many responsibilities to overcome the tensions generated by societal change; it would not give many indications to move from the current situation to the ideal one. However, the humanistic orientation of the Delors' report remains a strong support to build a democratic school, respecting children's rights and developing a culture of peace.

The second part of the slogan, *act locally*, gives the school psychologist a track to implement the social contract with children, families, teachers, school assistants, and school administrators to extend its efficiency and power within the limits of the society's laws, rules, and standards. As influential actors in the field of education, school psychologists can make a difference. They know how to help people make the most of their potentials and life's opportunities and to create change for themselves and others; and they know how to change interactions between people in a group or in an organization. The Preamble to the Constitution of UNESCO (UNESCO, 1945, p. 1) declares that "since wars begin *in the minds* of men, it is *in the minds* of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed." If education is the key to change the minds of men (inclusive here), then school psychologists can be important contributors for this change.

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Article 31: Play, Leisure, and Recreation

Marianne Mannello, Theresa Casey, and Cathy Atkinson

Abstract

The focus of this chapter is the role of play within educational settings, including the ways in which school psychologists can support play development and children's right to access play. Playing is at the heart of early years' education and is central to children's learning, as well as their physical, mental, social, and emotional health and well-being. Through playing, children develop resilience and flexibility, contributing to physical and psychological well-being. The chapter begins by setting out the different dimensions of children's play, before considering the potential contribution of play to children's experience within educational establishments, in both the classroom and unstructured play times. Tensions between supporting play for its intrinsic value to children and using play for instrumental purposes are noted. Strategies for supporting and developing children's play are considered, followed by an exploration of the role of the school psychologist in promoting, protecting, and providing for the right to play in educational establishments. The chapter is underpinned by research evidence which indicates that playing contributes to the healthy development of children. Furthermore, it reinforces that playing is an integral part of childhood and when play and playing are valued, it follows that children are valued. UN Committee on the Rights of the Child General Comment No. 17 (on the right of the child to rest, leisure, play, recreational activities, cultural life, and the arts) has been described as the "most urgent contribution to this complex field" (Brooker and Woodhead. The right to play. Open University. Maidenhead, UK: Open University, 2013, p. ix) and is taken as a key reference point for this chapter.

The Historical Context to Children's Right to Play and the Role of the International Play Association

Article 31 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter sometimes the "Convention" and referenced to UN General Assembly, 1989) recognizes the right of every child to rest, leisure, play, and recreational activities and to free and full participation in cultural and artistic life. The rights expressed within Article 31

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are related and, while they often overlap and enrich each other, they have distinct characteristics.

Although a right to rest and leisure was laid down in Article 24 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948, a right to play was not mentioned. That the child's right to play is included in the Convention, alongside the rights to rest and leisure, was achieved in part by the International Play Association's (IPA) advocacy. IPA (1979) produced its *Declaration of the Child's Right to Play* at the IPA Malta Consultation held in preparation for the International Year of the Child, which was revised at later conferences. Historically, however, the right to play has remained overlooked (IPA, 2010) and the actions and policy following the Convention have not addressed children's right to play (David, 2006), certainly in terms of educational policy at a local level. For example, in the context of schools, Pellegrini and Blatchford (2002) suggest that both in the UK and USA the importance of recess (break time) in schools has not been sufficiently prioritized and is not well understood despite being central to Article 31. To respond to this, IPA began the work of requesting a General Comment (i.e., guide) on Article 31 at the triennial IPA World conference held in Hong Kong in 2008. IPA soon established a group of international co-signatories to the request. A literature review was commissioned by IPA and published by the Bernard van Leer Foundation (Lester & Russell, 2010) and a Global Consultations Project involving partners in eight nations identified major global trends in barriers to children's play (IPA, 2010).

Following the decision of the Committee on the Rights of the Child in 2011 to publish a General comment on Article 31, IPA was invited to manage the drafting process, the objectives of which were to support the understanding of the importance of Article 31 and relevant legislative guidance to ensure its implementation. General Comment No. 17 on Article 31 was subsequently published by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereafter "Committee") in February 2013 (UNCRC, 2013). Within General Comment No. 17, the Committee defined leisure, play, and recreational activities as summarized in Table 1 (UNCRC, 2013).

Table 1 Analysis of leisure, play, and recreational activities in Article 31 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child

Leisure
Free or unobligated time in which play or recreation can take place.
Does not involve formal education, work, home responsibilities, performance of other life-sustaining functions, or engaging in activity directed from outside the individual.
Discretionary time to be used as the child chooses.
Play
Any behaviour, activity, or process initiated, controlled, and structured by children themselves.
Takes place whenever and wherever opportunities arise.
Non-compulsory, driven by intrinsic motivation and undertaken for its own sake, rather than as a means to an end.
Involves the exercise of autonomy, physical, mental, or emotional activity and has the potential to take infinite forms (which will change and be adapted throughout the course of childhood), either in groups or alone.
Key characteristics of play are fun, uncertainty, challenge, flexibility, and non-productivity
Caregivers may contribute to the creation of environments in which play takes place.
Recreational Activities
An umbrella term used to describe a very broad range of activities, including, inter alia, participation in music, art, crafts, community engagement, clubs, sports, games, hiking and camping, pursuing hobbies.
Consists of activities or experiences, chosen voluntarily by the child, either because of the immediate satisfaction provided or because he or she perceives that some personal or social value will be gained by accomplishing them.
Often takes place in spaces specifically designed for it.
While many recreational activities may be organized and managed by adults, recreation should be a voluntary activity. Compulsory or enforced games and sports or compulsory involvement in a youth organization, for example, do not constitute recreation (UNCRC, 2013, pp. 5–6).

Importance and Contribution of Play for Children

> I like playing so much but sometimes we are given too much work both at school and at home. Teachers and parents should be told to give us time to play. We must be allowed to play. (Michael Ogutu, child participant in the IPA Global Consultation on children's Right to Play, Nairobi, Kenya, 2010)

This section explores the fundamental positive role of play for the well-being of children and young people. We address the range of benefits play holds for children, clarify the barriers children experience to accessing their right to play, consider how the school environment might enhance the realization of the right to play for the pupils served, and explore how school psychologists can support children's play at individual, group, and systemic levels.

The importance of play for children's physical, emotional, social and intellectual well-being has been well researched and documented over the years (Lester & Russell, 2008, 2010). To children themselves, playing is one of the most important aspects of their lives; they value time, freedom, and quality places to play (IPA, 2010). Children have an inborn urge to play; indeed, research suggests that playing has an impact on the physical and chemical development of the brain. Some of the key characteristics of play—uncertainty, challenge, and flexibility—can influence "children's ability to adapt to, survive, thrive and shape their social and physical environments" (Lester & Russell, 2008, p. 126).

Through play children experience a range of emotions including frustration, determination, achievement, disappointment, and confidence; and through practice they can learn how to manage these feelings (Sutton-Smith, 2003). Play, leisure, and recreation contribute to children's mental health in many ways, for example:

- The self-directed nature of play supports children to master skills at their own pace which contributes to self-esteem, confidence, and a sense of achievement (Howard & McInness, 2013).
- Socializing with their friends on their own terms gives children opportunities to build social competence, to have fun, and to relax (Blatchford, Pelligrini, Baines, & Kentaro, 2002).
- Fantasy play allows for imagination and creativity and can enable children to make sense of and "work through" difficult and distressing aspects of their lives (Burghardt, 2005).
- Belonging is promoted through play as children participate in rituals and customs that support a feeling of connectedness and being included (Sutton-Smith, 2003).
- Peer play helps to promote emotional regulation, autonomy, and language development and is linked to positive academic outcomes (Fantuzzo, Sekino, & Cohen, 2004).

Despite the well-documented benefits of play, children face considerable barriers to play. Rising urban populations, urban planning and design which does not consider children's play needs (IPA, 2016), violence in all its forms, the commercialization of play provision, child labour, and increasing educational demands are all affecting children's opportunities to enjoy their Article 31 rights (IPA, 2010). Fears for children's safety and a tendency to over protect and avoid risk can also diminish access to play (Lester & Russell, 2010).

Article 31 rights apply to all children of all ages and abilities, without discrimination of any kind. School psychology literature often focuses on the role of play in the learning and development of young children (Broadhead & van der Aalsvoorlt, 2009; Whitebread, Coltman, Jameson, & Lander, 2009). However, play is also valued by secondary aged children as a component of learning. Jarvis (2009) interviewed 76 students, aged 11–15, and found that many reported aspects of their learning to be mechanistic and artificial. Instead they found games-based activities fun and enjoyable and were motivated to read by materials they engaged with during leisure time, such as comics and magazines. It is also important to acknowledge children's right to play across contexts (e.g. school, family, neighbourhood, faith community). However, to date empirical research into the development and effectiveness of play initiatives and interventions has tended to take place within school, rather than within family or community contexts (Gill, 2014).

The Relationship Between School Psychology and the Right to Play

Most child developmental theories of play (e.g. Groos, 1901; Piaget, 1962; Vygotsky, 1966) offer a "deferred benefits" position which is widely represented within the educational literature on play (Lester & Russell, 2008). Despite "play as preparation" being the dominant perspective, there are inherent difficulties or weaknesses with this approach. Lester and Russell (2010) conclude that play behaviour differs from its "real" world equivalent, where a child's day is planned, often by adults, within specific times, spaces, and routines (Sutton-Smith, 1997). They describe play (p. 7) as "***as if***" behaviour—both set apart from reality and also having some relationship to it—which manifests in many ways (e.g. pretend play, language play, games with rules, construction play, rough and tumble). Research suggests that the existence of play may be linked to the need for children to adapt to the demands of their environment and ultimately to survival (Hughes, 2012; Lester & Russell, 2008; Prout, 2005). Playing has different motivations and is unpredictable, exaggerated, and deliberately quirky. Such play behaviour is usually more concerned with the means (the actual behaviour) rather than the ends (its function).

Lifter, Mason, and Barton (2011) characterized two important perspectives on play—the behaviourist and the constructivist—which have dominated the literature in the field of early intervention and early childhood special education. However, common features between these two bodies of literature agree that play is:

- Important in a child's experience.
- Offers opportunities for assessing development.
- A potentially important area for intervention.

Each of these common features is important in understanding the potential role of the school psychologist in supporting and developing children's play. Additionally, Lifter et al. (2011) highlighted the benefits of play for all children, advocating its ability to increase learning in natural settings and to be used adaptably for embedding new skills, making assessments, and undertaking social interactions within multiple contexts. These different benefits are explored in the following section, which considers children's play rights and their relevance to the work of school psychologists.

Adult Involvement in Children's Play

What children do should not be viewed as an imperfect version of adult behaviour, but instead as appropriate and adaptive to their period of childhood. In this way play should be about supporting a child to be a happier and healthier child and not simply becoming a better adult (Lester & Russell, 2010). However, there are different perspectives on the *use* of play for instrumental purposes, particularly when considered from the perspective of the Article 31 rights of disabled children (see also Art. 23), for whom play may be largely valued by adults as a vehicle for "therapeutic or rehabilitative activities" (UNCRC, 2013, p. 13). Goodley and Runswick-Cole (2010) argued for the "emancipation" of play from the domains of assessment and intervention for disabled children stating:

> Disabled children's play has been characterised as disordered and deficient and, as such, has been valued only as a means by which developmental goals can be achieved. Whereas play for typically developing children has been seen as of intrinsic value, for disabled children play has all too often been seen as instrumental. The recognition of childhood and play as important in their own right is crucial for the emancipation of disabled children's play. (p. 510)

Adults can encourage self-directed play through the provision of time and stimulating environments; however, as a general principle, adults should be cautious about getting too involved when children are playing, as outlined in Table 2.

Table 2 The role of the adult in supporting children's right to play

Adults should get involved in children's play when:
Children invite their involvement, either directly or more subtly (e.g. by a facial or non-verbal gesture) (Sturrock & Else, 2003).
Children need adults to act as a resource, such as providing support or if a child is unhappy or distressed (Play Wales, 2013).
There are serious disputes that the children have been unable to resolve themselves (Play Wales, 2013).
There is a risk of violence, harm, or danger (Hughes, 2012).
When there is a hazard that has not been detected by the child (Play Wales, 2013).

Children's development can be promoted by supportive and caring adults who create opportunities and places where children and young people can play freely and with confidence (UNCRC, 2013). These places should allow children to encounter a wide range of opportunities and possibilities, where the adults involved understand the nature and importance of all aspects of children's play and work to support it.

Observing children at play and understanding play behaviour provides adults with unique insights and understanding into the child's perspectives. Unstructured play opportunities provide an effective environment to enable understanding and communication between children and adults; they also create opportunities to provide guidance and stimulus (UNCRC, 2013). Furthermore, the Committee recommends that all professionals working with or for children, or whose work impacts on children's ability to realize their right to play, should receive training which helps them to create and sustain environments in which the rights under Article 31 can be most effectively realized by all children (UNCRC, 2013).

Play and School Environments

Children's human rights are "interdependent, interrelated and indivisible" (Fronczek, 2009). There are particularly strong links between Article 31 and Articles 28 (*Right to education: All children have the right to a primary education, which should be free*) and 29 (*Goals of education: Children's education should develop each child's personality, talents and abilities to the fullest*). Implementation of play rights under Article 31 is essential to achieving compliance with Article 29 rights. The Committee (UNCRC, 2013, pp. 9–10) emphasizes three key points:

- That the rights under Article 31 are of positive benefit to children's educational development.
- That inclusive education and inclusive play are mutually reinforcing and should be facilitated during the course of every day throughout early childhood education and care (preschool) as well as primary and secondary school.
- That research has shown that play is an important means through which children learn.

Schools can make unique contributions by providing regular and protected time, space, and opportunities for play, with adults in a position to create physical and social environments that support play. The Committee noted, however, that while investment tends to provide for structured and organized activities, the importance of time and space for spontaneous play should not be overlooked, and societal attitudes to encourage creative play and recreation should be supported (UNCRC, 2013). International evidence suggests that school recess initiatives aimed at enabling and enriching play opportunities are linked to a range of improvements in academic and social skills, attitudes, and behaviour, social relations between different ethnic groups, and adjustment to school life (Gill, 2014). There is however an inherent tension between the self-directed quality of children's play as defined in General Comment No. 17 and a focus on the achievement of outcomes, the latter often adult driven (Lester & Russell, 2008).

The school day should allow time and space for children to relax and play with their friends. Children spend a significant amount of time in school; therefore the space should be designed to be inclusive and flexible. At a systems level, providing an environment which offers time and space for playing, alongside positive and tolerant adult attitudes, can help support children to navigate peer relationships, regulate their feelings, and experience and enjoyment.

General Comment No. 17 (UNCRC, 2013) advises collaboration with children, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and community-based and service-level organizations. It notes that educational environments, such as schools, play a major role in fulfilling Article 31 obligations, as summarized in Table 3. Schools should provide a quality play environment, such as that defined in Table 4, where children and young people are able to make a wide range of choices and have many possibilities to invent and extend their own play.

Table 3 Analysis of the role that educational environments play in the realization of Article 31 rights

Physical Environment of Settings
Provision of:
Adequate indoor and outdoor space to facilitate play, sports, games, and drama, before during and after school.
Active promotion of equal play opportunities for girls and boys.
Adequate sanitation facilities.
Safe and regularly inspected play landscapes and equipment.
Playgrounds with appropriate boundaries.
Equipment and spaces designed to enable all children, including those with disabilities, to participate equally.
Play areas providing opportunities for all forms of play.
Play areas with adequate protection, designed and developed with the involvement of children.
Structure of the Day
Opportunities for rest and play should be guaranteed, in accordance with the child's age and developmental needs.
School Curriculum
Time and expertise must be allocated for children's learning and participation in cultural and artistic activities, including music, drama, literature, poetry and art, as well as sports and games.
Educational Pedagogy
Learning environments should be active and participatory and offer opportunities for playful activities and engagement, especially in the early years.

Table 4 A quality play environment

Play Wales (2015) describes quality play opportunities as those which offer all children and young people the opportunity to freely interact with or experience the following:
Other children and young people—with a choice to play alone or with others, to negotiate, cooperate, fall out, and resolve conflict.
The natural world—weather, the seasons, bushes, trees, plants, insects, animals, and mud.
Loose parts—natural and man-made materials that can be manipulated, moved and adapted, built and demolished.
The natural elements—earth, air, fire, and water.
Challenge and risk taking—both on a physical and emotional level.
Playing with identity—role play and dressing up.
Movement—running, jumping, climbing, balancing, and rolling.
Rough and tumble—play fighting.
The senses—sounds, tastes, textures, smells, and sights.
Feelings—pain, joy, confidence, fear, anger, contentment, boredom, fascination, happiness, grief, rejection, acceptance, sadness, pride, and frustration.

Play Rights and the Role of the School Psychologist

School psychologists can support teachers and parents in helping them to understand the importance of freely chosen play and their role in supporting it. This links to Article 12 of the UNCRC (respect for the views of the child) and Article 29, which acknowledges the right of children to an education which develops their personalities and strengths. School psychologists can help children to realize their right to play by promoting the importance of play at every appropriate opportunity, with parents and caregivers, and with school management and school staff. The right to play, leisure, and recreation can support key areas of activity in the school psychologists' role. The National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2010) describes how school psychologists can provide both direct and indirect support to improve academic achievement; promote positive behaviour and mental health; support diverse learners; create safe, positive school climates; and strengthen family-school partnerships. These areas are discussed in turn, to illustrate the potential contribution of children's play rights.

Improve Academic Achievement

Playing allows children to learn in their own way and interact with new and novel concepts in ways that are rarely stressful. Through experimentation, interaction, and adaptation, children learn outside of the usual structure of classrooms. School psychologists can make the case for rich play opportunities within school playtimes. Children who are deprived of opportunities to play are less able to sit still and concentrate (Holmes, Pellegrini, & Schmidt, 2006). Studies have shown that access to playtime initiatives (e.g., through providing traditional play activities, playground equipment, loose parts, and staff who understand play) has resulted in happier children, significantly fewer incidents and accidents, and children returning to class ready to learn (Gill, 2014).

Lifter et al. (2011) highlight that play offers opportunities for assessment and intervention regarding academic development. School psychology research supports the use of interactive play opportunities to create contexts that may offer greater ecological validity in assessment beyond that attainable through more traditional standardized methods, particularly for younger children (Kelly-Vance & Oliver Ryalls, 2008; Waters, 1999; Waters & Stringer, 1997).

Promote Positive Behaviour and Mental Health

School psychologists are well placed within the school community to support the overall health and well-being of students. In this regard, it is proposed that their expertise in understanding the physical and psychological (i.e., cognitive, affective, and volitional) needs of children can help to create positive school-wide practices to promote children's right to play. Play is a natural mechanism through which children better understand their thoughts and feelings and "prevent or resolve psychological challenges and learn to manage relationships and conflicts through a natural, self-guided, self-healing process" (UNCRC, 2013, p. 10). Play can be a way for children to make sense, cognitively and affectively, of what is happening to them. It can be a means of "playing out" material in a way that is restorative and healing (Sturrock & Else, 1998). Traumatic memories are not always accessible through language and instead may emerge gradually through imaginary play (Akhtar, 2011).

Children may express a range of strong emotions through their play. Sutton-Smith (2003) proposes that play acts as a moderator of these emotions, giving them a voice while preventing them from overwhelming the child. Play can also be a safe space for children to practice coping with and regulating these emotions. Certain emotions are linked to the motivation for specific kinds of play so that "individuals who play more will be more capable of controlling their emotional lives in terms of their capacities for performance strategy, courage, resilience, imagination, sociability, or charisma" (Sutton-Smith, 2003, p. 15). Schools may find play disruptive or uncomfortable when children play through emotions such as anger or fear. School psychologists can help schools and educational environments to understand this function of play behaviour and to create an environment that allows school staff to recognize this and to respond appropriately to children's feelings.

School psychologists can mentor other adults to understand and appreciate that children can learn to give and share through playing. During playtimes, children negotiate space and resources. Allowing older children to play and interact with younger children promotes a mutual sharing of games, ideas, materials, and places. This contributes to a feeling of nurturing for older children, and younger children benefit from the extension of their play experiences (Blatchford, 1998).

Support Diverse Learners

According to General Comment No. 17, children and young people from diverse ethnic and cultural groups can face significant barriers to accessing local play provision, due to discrimination and hostility, and should be able to celebrate and enjoy their own culture within the context of their play. Another vulnerable group is disabled children, whose play opportunities may be limited by perceived or physical barriers or by negative stereotypes and attitudes (UNCRC, 2013). All children have a right to access provisions where they can experience possibilities to play freely and to associate with children different from themselves. McIntyre and Casey (2007) found that "a sense of inclusion is more dependent on friendships and fun than simply being in the same locations as others" (p. 200). The school psychologist can make the case for sufficient time, space, and resources to be made available during the school day for play conditions likely to promote a sense of inclusion. School psychologists can also advocate for recognition of the agency and competency of all children, including those who may be vulnerable to not fully accessing their right to play and work with school-based professionals to identify and overcome issues, such as physical access, bullying and communication, which may limit their play opportunities.

The development of play skills is particularly important to children with diverse needs, such as children living in poverty, children in institutions, and children in situations where there is conflict or humanitarian or natural disasters (UNCRC, 2013). In this regard, school psychologists have reported that play interventions can support children with special educational needs and disabilities (e.g. Thomas & Smith, 2004) and mental health issues (e.g. Ewing, Monsen, & Kwoka, 2014).

Create Safe, Positive School Climates

Increased interest is being given to negative behaviour, with policies often being strongly interventionistic and/or disciplinary (Department for Education, 2014; Nash, Schlösser, & Scarr, 2016). With a view to placing the focus on solutions rather than problems, school psychologists can make the case for providing opportunities for children to engage in free play within the school day. Russell (2006), in an action research project with playworkers working with children identified as displaying challenging behaviour, found that understanding the ways in which children played, "rather than focusing on unwanted behaviour allowed the development of a more constructive relationship and opportunities for children to play out narratives within a safer frame" (Lester & Russell, 2008, p. 218).

Play during recess can have psychological benefits, including improvements in attentive learning behaviour (Pelligrini & Davis, 1993), opportunities for peer interaction and exercise (Pellegrini & Blatchford, 2002), and social benefits for different ethnic groups (Blatchford, Baines, & Pellegrini, 2003). Furthermore, free play is important in providing opportunities to access structured activities for play during recess which can be enabling, inclusive, and help to reduce aggressive behaviour (Murphy, Hutchison, & Bailey, 1983). To date, however, there is very limited evidence of school psychologists having input into promoting recess activities which improve play access, and available evidence tends to be limited to small scale or unpublished studies (e.g. Atkinson, 2007). School psychologists can help to ensure that adequate time is given for recess, that it is accessible to all children, and that, seen as a right, it is not shortened or withdrawn as a form of punishment.

Strengthen Family-School-Cultural Relationships

School psychologists can provide parents with the information and confidence to support their children to play in their communities and, in doing so, can help parents and other community members become advocates for play, playing, and childhood. Many school psychologists in the UK are involved in community-based interventions which support attachment and positive emotional development, such as the Incredible Years programme, which with play at its roots can bridge home and school (Webster-Stratton, 2006; Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2003).

Children can be involved in developing play interventions across different cultures and contexts. Leff, Costigan, and Power (2004) suggest that a participatory action research (PAR) approach can be beneficial. This approach combines empirically based intervention techniques and strategies with input from key school and community stakeholders. Atkinson (2007) also used PAR to support staff and pupils in one elementary school in developing a "Playground Pals" scheme to improve access to play opportunities.

Finally, school psychologists have an advocacy role for play provision to ensure that the school environment supports their work with children and that appropriate time, space, resources, and, where appropriate, adult mediation are available to support children's access to play in both under-structured and unstructured conditions.

Policy Considerations for the Helping to Realize the Right to Play

Perhaps the strongest policy implication of General Comment No. 17 is with regard to legislation and planning. The Committee (UNCRC, 2013) proposed legislation to ensure the realization of Article 31 rights for every child and recommended a timetable for implementation. This legislation should recognize that all children must be given sufficient time and space to exercise these rights. In 2012, Wales was the first country in the world to introduce a requirement to assess and secure sufficiency of play opportunities for children, through its Children and Family Wales Measure (Welsh Government, 2012a). As such it "stands as a beacon to the rest of the world in its approach to supporting children's rights generally, and children's right to play specifically, at a time when the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child had just published a General comment on article 31 of the UNCRC" (Lester & Russell, 2013, p. 11). By establishing a framework through Statutory Guidance and a toolkit (Welsh Government, 2012b), municipalities were afforded the opportunity to apply new and experimental responses in accounting and planning for children's play.

In terms of local, school-based policy implementation, the school psychologist can support development of a school play policy, which states the value of children's play and the school's commitment to supporting children's play opportunities. The policy should be developed in cooperation with a representative body of the school pupils. It should be shared with the children, staff, and parents and be included in the school prospectus. Key points to consider in a school play policy are outlined in Table 5.

Table 5 School play policy assertions

Key points to consider in a school play policy (Play Wales, 2016, p. 20):
The importance of all pupils having sufficient time and good places to play freely as part of their day.
That to children, playing is one of the most important aspects of their lives.
The positive contribution that schools can make to children's lives by valuing their urge and desire to play and providing for a broad range of play opportunities before, during, and after the school day.
That children will naturally create and/or seek out play challenging situations and that on occasions they may have accidents or get dirty, wet, or upset.
That any potential risk of harm to children needs to be balanced with the potential for good that may come from their taking part in play. This section can affirm that the school will do its best to avoid children coming to serious physical or emotional harm by carefully managing the play opportunities that are provided.
That adults' attitude towards, and understanding of, children's play behaviour will have a significant effect on the quality of the play opportunities offered within and outside school.
That the school will seek out training opportunities and support research among its staff so that they are confident to facilitate children's freely chosen, self-directed play.

Primary Recommendations Toward Advances in the Application of Article 31 Rights for School Psychology

Play is generally agreed to be something that children do naturally and instinctively. All children have a right and a need to play; most will play anywhere at any time, particularly where there are other children around, unless they are very tired, ill, hungry, hot, cold, anxious, or afraid (Lester & Russell, 2010). Many children benefit from adult support to be able to make the most of their play as "while play is a robust phenomenon… it can be compromised if conditions are not supportive" (Lester & Russell, 2010, p. 41).

To apply Article 31 rights, school psychologists should be aware of the importance of play and promote the conditions that support it. They should champion provision of physical and social environments within which children can interact and which assure that children's right to play is not compromised. As well as highlighting the obvious educational and developmental benefits of play-based interventions and activities, the school psychologist should ensure that the school community does not dismiss playing during unstructured time as frivolous or non-essential. General Comment No. 17 identifies and recom-

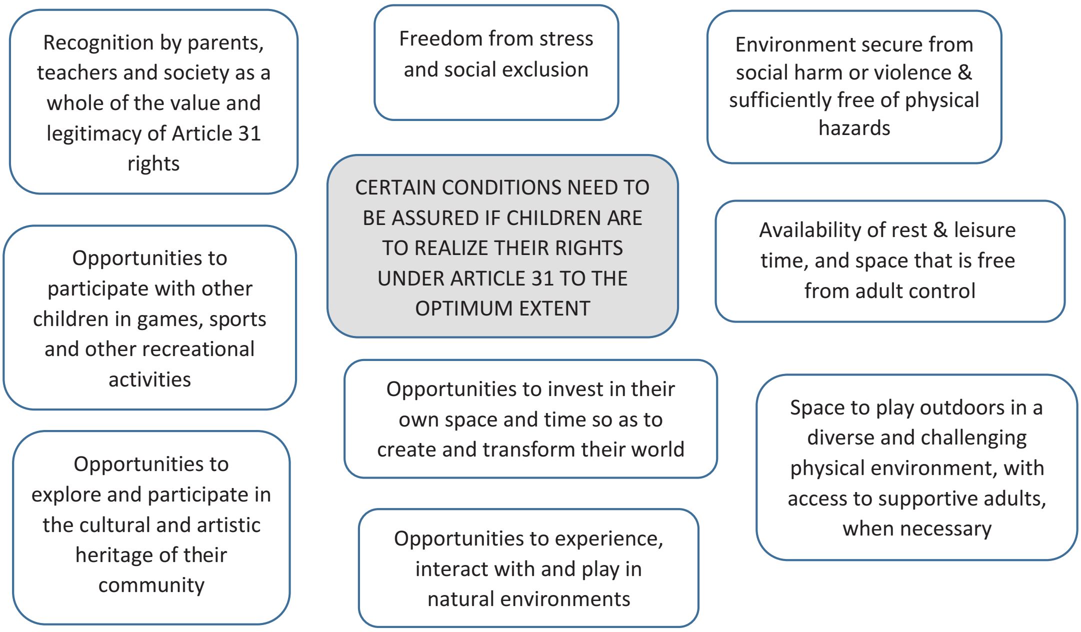
Recognition by parents, teachers and society as a whole of the value and legitimacy of Article 31 rights
Freedom from stress and social exclusion
Environment secure from social harm or violence & sufficiently free of physical hazards
CERTAIN CONDITIONS NEED TO BE ASSURED IF CHILDREN ARE TO REALIZE THEIR RIGHTS UNDER ARTICLE 31 TO THE OPTIMUM EXTENT
Opportunities to participate with other children in games, sports and other recreational activities
Availability of rest & leisure time, and space that is free from adult control
Opportunities to invest in their own space and time so as to create and transform their world
Space to play outdoors in a diverse and challenging physical environment, with access to supportive adults, when necessary
Opportunities to explore and participate in the cultural and artistic heritage of their community
Opportunities to experience, interact with and play in natural environments

Fig. 1 Factors for an optimum environment for children's Article 31 rights. (Adapted with permission from "Promoting the Child's Right to Play (2013) Summary United Nations. General Comment No. 17 on the right of the child to rest, leisure, play, recreational activities, cultural life and the arts (Article 31)" Copyright 2013 by International Play Association (IPA))

mends a range of factors for an optimum environment for creating the context for the realization of Article 31 rights, as illustrated in Fig. 1.

Conclusions/Summary

School psychologists are well positioned to assist adults and children to foster environments that support play**.** Playing is crucial for children's immediate and longer-term development. Children who are denied opportunities to play suffer serious negative effects to their health and well-being. Play interventions should acknowledge play's characteristics and allow sufficient flexibility, unpredictability, and security for children to play freely (Lester & Russell, 2010). Playing is important for, but more importantly to, children and young people.

Children's play is often chaotic, frantic, and noisy, and children's play spaces are often messy, disordered, and idiosyncratic. School psychologists can help other adults to understand that children's conception of a desirable play space does not look like an adult's. They can help to prioritize children's time to play freely both during and after the school day. When children's free time is overly supervised and organized or children are overprotected, their free choice, the very thing that makes their behaviour play, and right to play, is taken away. School psychologists have an important role in the promotion and protection of play. They can help other adults consider children's play spaces as important environments that should be promoted and protected. They can advocate that children's play is essential for healthy development and well-being; it is a legitimate behaviour and their human right. By being aware of the child's right to play and its definition and importance, school psychologists can take action to promote and protect it as a childhood right within the school and wider community.

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Child Rights and Economic Status

Amanda Clinton and David Shriberg

Abstract

A child rights framework is particularly meaningful for school psychologists interested in addressing economic status issues that impact children across the world. This chapter considers children's rights as they relate to economic disparities globally. It begins by highlighting the importance of the topic for school psychology and providing data on the issue of economic poverty as it pertains to child development and professional practice. Also considered is a general perspective on the relevance of a social justice framework, together with the relationships between child rights and school psychology, to economic status. Further, child rights are defined, and sustainable development goals related to child economic poverty are examined. Finally, general recommendations for applying child rights to issues of resources and the role of school psychology and school psychologists are addressed.

Child Rights and Economic Status, Limitations, and Opportunities

Data from the World Bank indicate that, although the overall number of people living in extreme economic poverty across the globe has declined significantly over the past 30 years, at least 1/3 of the world's children – some 400 million – continue struggling in abysmally impoverished circumstances, surviving on merely $1.25 a day (World Bank, 2013). Furthermore, these circumstances contribute to putting children at high risk for negative health, learning, and social outcomes. As stated by World Bank President, Jim Yong Kim, "Children should not be cruelly condemned to a life without hope, without good education, and without access to quality health care. We must do better for them" (http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/speech/2016/10/03/speech-by-world-bank-president-jim-yong-kim-the-world-bank-groups-mission-to-end-extreme-poverty).

Many factors converge to make poverty "a complex, multidimensional phenomenon" (World Bank, n.d., p. 26). Poverty is not only a lack of material resources; a complete definition of poverty recognizes the way in which economic limitations may result in a lack of access to secondary resources like education, healthcare, safe housing, and work opportunities. Of equal import, economic poverty implies significant psychological consequences, including a lack of a voice and power within one's own society to

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advocate for equal rights, social justice, and positive change (World Bank, n.d.)

A negative stereotype of persons who are economically disadvantaged has been that they are lacking in talent and motivation. Young children, in particular, may be susceptible to unidimensional thinking that leads to categorization of individuals of high socioeconomic status (SES) as more able across domains from academics to athletics when compared with low SES peers; as children's cognitive skills advance in adolescence, however, youth differentiate particular talents when asked to compare low and high SES groups, rather than suggesting all children from low-resource homes are less capable than their high-SES peers (Woods, Kurtz-Costes, & Rowley, 2005). Data support the assertion that "poverty is not a lack of character, it is a lack of cash" (Bregman, 2017, 14:33; Mani, Mullainathan, Shafir, & Zhao, 2013) and surveys from samples from Africa to the United States suggest that young generations are shifting opinions to recognize that equal access rather than personal attributes explains economic gaps in their respective countries (Beegle, Christiaensen, Dabalen, & Gaddis, 2016; Moses, 2012).

As school psychologists, we must do better for the world's children quite simply because the implications of economic poverty – which often result in limited opportunities due to a lack of access to basic and secondary resources – are significant in terms of the influence on educational, cognitive, social, emotional, and behavioral life outcomes. Insufficient financial resources impact child development in many ways. The influence may directly impact the individual in terms of physical growth, particularly brain development (Hackman, Farah, & Meaney, 2010), social skills acquisition (Lee, 2011; Philipsen Hetzner, Johnson, & Brooks-Gunn, 2010), academic learning (Lee, 2011), and long-term opportunities and outcomes (Holz et al., 2015). Such outcomes result from poor prenatal care and nutrition, and limited access to educational and enrichment opportunities, and the long-term influence of both as a child grows and learns. Impacts may also be broad and influence global health (Attree, 2006) and world economies (Blanden, Hansen, & Machin, 2010). School psychologists are uniquely poised to make a contribution to the betterment of children's economic status in the world. As experts on child development, socialization and behavior, learning, and mental health, school psychologists can actively advocate on behalf of social justice and child rights, particularly as they pertain to the needs of children living in economic poverty.

One of the most meaningful ways to begin addressing economic status through the lens of school psychology is to apply a human rights framework to the issue (Shriberg, Song, Miranda & Radliff, 2013). When human rights are considered, it is possible to look at child economic poverty not only in terms of its current status, but also with the greater aim of improving equity and opportunities for children across the globe. A starting point to achieve this aim is for school psychologists to become familiar with the first goal of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDG; UN, 2015), which is to "end poverty in all its forms everywhere." This chapter examines child development within the framework of human rights as it relates to economic impoverishment and abundance and the potential role of the study and practice of school psychology in addressing these issues. Inasmuch as school psychology focuses on providing services and support to children, this chapter focuses on child rights as a subset of human rights. Additionally, the overlap between a child rights and social justice framework is highlighted.

Determining the nature of the relationship between human rights or child rights, in particular, and social justice is important for school psychologists who aim to address issues of imbalance between children from families with insufficient economic resources and limited related opportunities and those who are born into homes where the economic situation is secure and options abound. In relatively straightforward terms, "human rights" is defined as "rights regarded as belonging fundamentally to all persons" (www.m-w.com), such as human dignity and equality among persons. In the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR; UN General Assembly, 1948), human rights include, for example, life, liberty and security of person, legal protections, property ownership, the right to a nationality and the right to freedom of thought. In the case of children under the age of 18, child rights are referred to in broad terms in the UNDHR to include social protections and basic education. For school psychologists, addressing issues related to economic inequality within a human rights framework means building a bridge between aspirational goals of child rights and action-oriented agendas that challenge the injustices faced by children living in low SES countries or communities.

This chapter highlights the relevance of child economic poverty for school psychology and provides data on the issue. The chapter considers the UN's (2015) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), along with specific child rights and principles, as they relate to children who grow up in low-resource situations. Social justice also is introduced as a framework for action that both overlaps with and compliments child rights. Finally, general recommendations for applying child rights to issues related to economic poverty are offered and the roles of school psychology and school psychologists in this process are addressed.

Implications of Child Poverty

Child poverty is a global problem. It exists not only in developing countries but also in industrialized nations. In the United States, an estimated 22% of all children live in families that survive on less than $23,550 annually, thus falling below the federal poverty level (Addy, Engelhardt, & Skinner, 2013). In the European Union (EU), an estimated 28% of children have been identified as "at risk" for living in poverty and 11% classified as "severely affected by material deprivation" (Kern, 2015). In EU countries particularly hard hit by the 2008 recession, child poverty has soared in recent years. For example, Greece's child poverty rate is estimated at 40% while Spain registered a 36% child poverty rate (UNICEF, 2015). Child-specific data in regions of the world such as Africa are more difficult to obtain, but general indicators show that 43% of Africans (or approximately 330 million people) live below the poverty level (Beegle et al., 2016).

The child poverty numbers are particularly striking in developing countries. According to UNICEF (2015), if the global community does not focus on the world's poorest children as outlined in their fifteen-year roadmap, millions will be chronically malnourished, at serious risk of disease, lacking basic education, and could potentially die. As described by a United Nations report, "falling into poverty in childhood can last a lifetime, because rarely does a child get a second chance to learn and grow healthy" (Ortiz, Moreira Daniels, & Engilbertsdóttir, 2012). The same report explains that, for this reason, child poverty must be conceptualized broadly and include rights violations ranging from poor nutrition, inadequate protection from harm, limited education and lack of access to healthcare, as well as exploitation and discrimination (http://www.unicef.org/esaro/5483_child_poverty.html). That is, attention to child rights needs to take a contextualized approach that incorporates myriad factors impacting opportunities and outcomes, rather than a strict view focused on income levels.

According to Article 3 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of a Child (subsequently referred to as the Convention; UN, 1989), the "best interests of children must be the primary concern in making decisions that may affect them" for which reason "adults should do what is best for children" notably in terms of policies, funding determinations, and passing laws (http://www.unicef.org/crc/files/Rights_overview.pdf). School psychologists must endeavor to end childhood economic poverty as advocates and professionals, since growing up in an environment with extremely limited resources is the antithesis of the best interests of a child and it is the school psychologist who often assesses and intervenes in cases where poverty has resulted in significant negative cognitive or behavioral impacts.

In 2006, the United Nations General Assembly adopted an international definition of child poverty in which they recognized that “children living in poverty are deprived of nutrition, water and sanitation facilities, access to basic healthcare and services, shelter, education, participation and protection” and that this type of deprivation is “most threatening and harmful to children…leaving them unable to reach their full potential and to participate as full members of society” (UNICEF, 2007). School psychologists play a key role in helping children achieve to the best of their ability across contexts and, as such, should be aware of the implications of the way poverty violates child rights by compromising the likelihood that children will “reach their full potential.”

Cognitive, Social-Emotional, and Behavioral Implications of Poverty in Childhood

As defined by UNICEF (2005), children experience poverty “as an environment that is damaging to their mental, physical, emotional and spiritual development.” For the school psychologist, this means that the child who has grown up in settings of significantly limited resources often demonstrates broad negative effects. Socioeconomic status wields a strong influence over childhood experience and the impact of poverty on the developing child can be significant. Indeed, growing up with low socioeconomic status (SES) is associated with substantially worse health and impaired psychological well-being, and impaired cognitive and emotional development throughout the life span (Hackman et al., 2010). Limited food, educational, and familial resources may result in a range of challenges as a child grows due to their impact on brain development which, in turn, influences all levels of well-being and all types of human functioning (Hackman et al., 2010). The remainder of this section discusses the evidence base related to the influence of socioeconomic status on child development, including cognitive and academic, social-emotional, and behavioral.

Cognitive and academic development Cognitive development in childhood is related to socioeconomic status in that level of family income is associated with measured intellectual quotient and achievement from the time a child initiates schooling in early childhood through completion of studies in adolescence (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002; Duncan, Yeung, Brooks-Gunn, & Smith, 1998; Guo & Mullan-Harris, 2000; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network, 2005; Sirin, 2005). Language functioning is the process that suffers the greatest negative impact as a result of factors associated with poverty. The impact of poverty may be observed in terms of vocabulary depth, for example. Children from homes where income is limited demonstrate drastically reduced word knowledge as compared to children whose parents are considered professionals (Hart & Risley, 1995). Furthermore, SES has been shown to be positively correlated with differential activity levels in parts of the brain associated with understanding and producing language (Raizada et al., 2008). Specifically, children from low SES backgrounds show reduced functioning in specialized linguistic areas of the brain, particularly the inferior frontal gyrus.

In addition to wielding a negative impact on language development, low SES has been shown to influence executive functions and memory systems. A study by Noble and colleagues (Noble, McCandliss, & Farah, 2007), for example, demonstrated differences in impulse control in a sample of New York City public school children who lived in homes classified as very low SES, compared to a group of peers in the same school system whose parental income ranked in the high SES range. The children from significantly low-resourced homes performed at lower levels on measures of executive function, while children from families with greater economic resources showed higher levels. Specifically, SES had significant predictive power on measures requiring cognitive flexibility or sustained auditory attention. In fact, executive function and language systems have been shown to be disproportionately affected, when compared to other functional regional systems of the brain, in samples ranging from the United States to India (Mani et al., 2013; Noble, Norman, & Farah, 2005).

Traditionally, one of the primary roles of the school psychologists, working in educational settings across the globe, has been assessment of cognition and learning. In the United States, for example, this includes measurement of a child's intellectual quotient (IQ) and respective academic skills, such as reading, math, and writing in addition to related processes, such as memory/attention, processing speed, or visual-spatial skills. Often, determinations of learning disabilities have been based on the identification of a significant difference between IQ and achievement scores in conjunction with an underlying processing deficit, titled the "discrepancy model." More recently, school psychology has shifted its focus to the response to intervention (RtI) evaluation method and approach that allows for a more dynamic interpretation of a child's learning (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006).

Since poverty has been shown to negatively impact brain development which, in turn, is observed through assessment results and performance on academic tasks, a child rights perspective necessarily requires that the school psychologist support efforts to reduce its impact. Various options exist to accomplish this. These may include emphasizing early childhood education since early intervention has been shown to be ameliorative, for example, in studies of orphaned children in former communist countries in Eastern Europe (Almas et al., 2012). Additionally, enriched academic environments that take the context of poverty into consideration can help to advance child learning. These may include extended school days (Gabrieli & Goldstein, n.d.), parent-child programs that help increase family involvement (Mortenson & Mastergeorge, 2014; Riesch, Anderson, & Krueger, 2006), or tutorial options such as reading or math support (D'Angiulli, Siegel, & Maggi, 2004). Assessment should be carefully approached by taking the impact of poverty on development into consideration and making careful interpretations of results and meaningful recommendations.

Social-emotional development The ability to recognize others' emotions and to engage in productive social exchanges are skills that have been recognized as critical to success in life. As described in a fact sheet developed by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP; US national organization), these types of social-emotional skills "enable us to know what to say, how to make good choices, and how to behave in diverse situations" (http://www.nasp-center.org/factsheets/socialskills_fs.html). In the child development literature, social emotional maturation encompasses a continuum of behaviors ranging from internalizing (depression, anxiety) to externalizing (aggression, acting out) as well as attention and emotion regulation (Philipsen Hetzner et al., 2010). In terms of application of social emotional skills, particularly in school settings, observations of children's ability to demonstrate empathy, control their impulses, and make pro-social choices are considered important. Although given lesser attention in the research addressing the impact of poverty on children, it is recognized that resource-poor childhoods can wield a negative impact on social-emotional development (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002; Clinton & Amesty, 2009; Evans, 2004; Philipsen Hetzner et al., 2010).

Children who grow up in poverty, on average, display more problems regulating their emotions (Liberzon et al., 2015) and focusing their attention (Izard, King, Trentacosta, & Morgan, 2008), and higher levels of externalizing and internalizing problems than peers from families living above the poverty line in samples from both the Global North and the Global South (Dzator, Dzator, Asante, & Ahiadeke, 2016; Philipsen Hetzner et al., 2010). The depth, persistence, and timing of poverty may all exert a specific influence over the way in which social-emotional learning is impacted by economic status. Children who experience the deepest levels of poverty demonstrate the most negative outcomes in terms of development of emotion regulation, attention, impulse control, and related behaviors (Dearing, McCartney, & Taylor, 2001; Duncan et al., 1998). Severe poverty has been shown to be related to significant increases in both internalizing and externalizing behaviors, including anxiety, depression, aggression, and acting out (Brooks-Gunn, Leventhal, & Duncan, 1999). However, children whose families experience even a marginal 10% increase in income have demonstrated reduced social emotional problems and lower externalizing behaviors (Costello, Compton, Keeler, & Angold, 2003; Dearing et al., 2001).

The length of time a child endures poverty is critical to her social-emotional development. Chronic poverty appears to be related to increased internalizing problems such as depression and anxiety, while more acute downward shifts in socioeconomic level are related to more externalizing behaviors, including hyperactivity and inability to respond to feedback (McLeod & Shanahan, 1993). School psychologists often engage in direct training or consultation regarding social-emotional learning. In terms of child rights, therefore, school psychologists need to be aware of how growing up in an economically under-resourced setting can be particularly stressful and might put a child at risk for negative behavioral consequences. Similarly, school psychologists can help strengthen social-emotional skills and encourage children and families to emphasize positive social problem-solving models that foster proactive solutions to conflicts (Clinton, Edstrom, Mildon, & Davila, 2015).

Behavioral development Problematic behavior such as refusing to follow rules, acting out, aggression towards peers, stealing, or violating the rights of others in childhood and adolescence results in significantly compromised quality of life into adulthood. A US Public Health Service (2000) report indicated that behavioral problems result in the "greatest reduction in quality of life" for children from toddlerhood through adolescence (US Public Health Service, 2000). According to the same governmental public health services report, behavioral difficulties are associated with myriad negative outcomes such as poor achievement and school dropout and delinquency (US Public Health Service). Additionally, behavioral problems in early childhood tend to persist and, as such, are frequently related to long-term psychiatric issues (Briggs-Gowan, Carter, Bosson-Heenan, Guyer, & Horowitz, 2006).

Poverty has been identified as a community-level risk factor for behavior problems in childhood (Dodge & Petit, 2003). Socioeconomic status at birth as measured by income, occupation, and parent education has been shown to be "one of the strongest and most consistent of all risk factors for later conduct problems, throughout the childhood and adolescent years" (Dodge & Petit, 2003). Coming from a resource poor family is a stronger predictor of long-term behavioral problems even after accounting for broader community contextual influences (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002).

The expertise of school psychologists is frequently solicited in cases of behavior problems. Since poverty is associated with the types of externalizing behaviors that teachers, administrators and parents often struggle to manage, school psychologists who work with children from low SES backgrounds will likely address behavioral issues. School psychologists who apply a social justice lens (defined in the next section) to their work will want to approach behavior referrals with a biopsychosocial framework by understanding how familial and community factors related to low SES can influence children's behavior.

Defining Child Rights in the Context of School Psychology

As has been highlighted in other chapters of this book, the Convention established a model framework for children's rights worldwide in November of 1989 (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CRC.aspx). As described by Hart and Pavlovic (1991), the Convention (a) recognized children to be persons, (b) emphasized the dignity of all children and that children should be taken seriously, and (c) established implications for mental health services. Furthermore, the Convention highlights the important role a positive and nurturing family plays in a child's health and well-being, as well as the importance of international collaboration as a means of improving children's living conditions globally, specifically where high-resource countries can support countries in development. This international treaty lays out foundational rights for all children, covering aspects of life both directly (e.g., the right to an education) and indirectly (e.g., the right to live in a safe home) related to positive school experiences. Perhaps most directly germane to school psychology are the right to a free education (Article 28), the right for this education to be respectful of the child's personality and culture (Article 29), and the right of child with a disability to "a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance, and facilitate the child's active participation in the community" (Article 23), which is inclusive of the right to education (UN, 1989). One expects that all school psychologists would support the Convention Articles. But how can these principles be incorporated into school psychology through theory and practice? In this regard, social justice has the potential to be a useful framework for supporting children's rights.

Social justice can be defined as, "full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs. Social justice includes a vision of society in which the distribution of resources is equitable and all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure" (Bell, 2013, p. 21). Many, if not all, of the components of this definition of social justice speak to child rights. For example, both social justice and child rights speak to the importance of supporting all children, ensuring the children receive the proper resources to flourish, and a commitment to the safety and well-being of children. The broad mission of school psychology includes attention to and support of academic success and social and emotional well-being of children, and critical examination of the climate in which education takes places (Kosher, Jiang, Ben-Arieh, & Huebner, 2014; National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), 2010). Critical to conceptualizing the child's best interests (Art. 3) within Convention is the centrality of child well-being. Thus, to promote the child's best interests, the domains of physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral well-being (Art. 17, 27, 32) must be addressed in a comprehensive and holistic manner (Hart & Hart, 2014). School psychologists aim to support children's progress across these realms.

NASP describes school psychologists as professionals who support student learning, behavior, and mental health in order to facilitate their emotional, behavioral, social, and academic success across settings (http://www.nasponline.org/about_sp/who-are-school-psychologists.aspx). These professional practices align well with social justice, which may be redefined as the manifestation of human rights and, in the context of school psychology, particularly child rights. Indeed, social justice principles not only readily inform practice in school psychology but also highlight the motivation for many professionals entering mental health fields, particularly those emphasizing work with children. For this reason, considering child rights is a logical expansion of addressing economic inequalities for children (Garbarino & Briggs, 2014).

Child Rights and Social Justice: From Aspiration to Action with Children Living in Poverty

In examining the connection between social justice and children's rights, Shriberg and Clinton (2016) argue that both concepts can be potent reminders of why school psychologists entered the profession. Values can motivate and sustain us professionally, but ultimately these aspirations need to translate to practice if school psychologists are to reach their maximum potential as change agents (Shriberg, Wynne, Briggs, Bartucci, & Lombardo, 2011).

How then can this be achieved? Social justice largely comes from tenets of multiculturalism, where advocacy is the primary action step and issues of cultural diversity (particularly diverse socio-economic status) the most common context from which this advocacy springs (Clare, 2009). This advocacy can involve individual, school, community, or macro-level approaches. For example, at the school level suppose that in a given school a disproportionate number of children from low-income backgrounds are referred for special education evaluation. A school psychologist may conduct these evaluations in a manner consistent with culturally responsive practice, but if the school psychologist is not questioning why such a large proportion of low-income students are being referred for special education, this person is likely falling short of her/his potential to act as an agent of social justice. That is where advocacy enters the picture. Consistent with this line of thought, in December 2014, the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) voted to amend its mission statement. As Bartolo (2015, p. 2) articulates, the new mission statement:

> went two steps further. It stated that our mission goes beyond the condemnation of discrimination. It obliges us firstly to work towards the 'promotion of structures that prevent and protect all children from discrimination'. We cannot sit back and just condemn discrimination. We have to work towards replacing those structures that are discriminatory. We have to be advocates not just for changing the behavior of individuals but for changing of classrooms, schools, and society so that any barriers to equal respect and dignity and access to resources for any member or group of members are removed.

This goal is captured in the new social justice initiative in school psychology in the United States: This orientation towards supporting and defending child rights through social justice advocacy can also be seen as a tool for promoting core prevention principles. Primary prevention and group-level intervention programs as well as individual treatment protocols should be utilized by school psychologists who work with children from low resource families. This is important because data indicate that children from low SES backgrounds often present with unique needs that may result from the unique daily stressors faced by children living in poverty, such as chaotic environments (Evans, Gonnella, Marcynyszyn, Gentile, & Salpekar, 2005) or violence (Buckner, Beardsley, & Bassuk, 2004) or from the reality of homes where options for addressing problems are limited due to lack of resources (Clinton et al., 2015) or support (Cluver, Fincham, & Seedat, 2009).

Prevention and intervention curricula that address the learning, emotional, and behavioral needs of children should consider challenges that poverty presents. Children at high risk of school failure or mental health problems can be targeted for skill building that emphasizes decision making and resilience (Little, Axford, & Morpeth, 2003).

Advocacy is critical for advancing child rights and social justice in support of children receiving proper educational services, particularly low-income students who are disproportionately referred. Across the globe, school psychologists are involved in working to provide access to children with special needs. Describing a situation where large numbers of children were being excluded from access to school, Daniels (2010) provides an overview of efforts of school psychologists and other specialized support personnel in South Africa to address barriers to full participation in school, such as lack of access and lack of appropriate school-based support to children with special needs. Similarly, Forlin (2010) describes the movement in Hong Kong from segregation towards full inclusion of students with disabilities.

Conclusions

School psychologists are concerned with the dignity and well-being of children across the globe. Poverty has significant implications for children's learning; cognitive, physical, and emotional development; and behavior. This concern makes school psychologists natural advocates for child rights, including promotion of access to resources required to have their needs met in order to achieve full potential. One clear case for child rights is the situation of youngsters born into poverty. School psychologists who wish to alleviate poverty and overcome its negative effects can take action through advocacy from school to governmental levels as well as ensure the use of evidence-based programs that take into consideration the context in which children from low-resource environments are living and growing.

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The Promotion of Family Support

Gloria E. Miller and Jessica Colebrook

Abstract

The *United Nations (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child,* the premier international childhood human rights treaty, celebrated its 25th anniversary in 2014. In this chapter, we review collaborative home, school, and community practices and programs delivered within a multi-tiered system of support that have the potential to empower families as they seek to care for and guarantee their children's safety, protection, and potential. Cultural considerations in providing such support internationally are raised and pre-service training and professional development strategies are forwarded to ensure school psychologists are positioned to play local, national, and global roles in partnering with and supporting families to promote the ideals contained in the Convention.

The United Nations (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (i.e., hereafter referred to as the Convention) has been identified as the foremost international ideology regarding the physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral well-being of children (Hart & Shriberg, 2014). Officially adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1989, the Convention contains 54 Articles; the first 41 consisting of guiding principles regarding human worth, freedom from discrimination, and the right to realize one's potential (Hart & Hart, 2014). A child's right to a family is identified in Articles 9 and 20, and the family's responsibility for directing and guiding their children is firmly recognized in Article 5 and throughout the Convention (Hart & Hart, 2014). Families, however, are not expected to safeguard or nurture children's human rights alone (Miller, Colebrook, & Ellis, 2014). The joint responsibility of societal institutions (states or governments) to partner with families in this endeavor is emphasized in Article 18. From an ecological-systems perspective, schools become increasingly prominent societal spheres of developmental influence as children mature (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). A child's learning, talent, and ability rights outlined in Articles 28 and 29 are strengthened when key individuals across home, school, and communities reciprocally and positively collaborate (Fine & Carlson, 1992). The foundation of such collaboration is that educators and primary caregivers share responsibility for children's safety and holistic development (Williams-Washington, Melon, & Blau, 2008).

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Family Support and the Role of the School Psychologist

The professional standards and ethical guidelines associated with school psychology internationally and in the United States closely align with the ideals articulated in the Convention (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). These ideals emphasize a commitment to identify, repair, correct, and prevent overt as well as veiled oppressive and unfair practices (Clare, 2013) and to advocate for children's survival, development, and education (Shriberg & Desai, 2014). School psychologists are ethically and professionally bound to promote children's well-being, autonomy, and self-determination (Hart, 1991). Because of this practice orientation, many view school psychologists as the ideal purveyor of social justice locally and globally (Gutkin & Song, 2013). In this chapter, we focus on school psychologists' role in partnering with families to ensure the principles embodied in the Convention are afforded to children with and without special needs throughout the world. Similar to McGoldrick, Carter, and Garcia-Preto (2011), family is defined as a group of people bonded through blood, social, and/or legal connections who share both a known history and an unknown future.

Proficiency in collaborative family support is a critical domain of practice in the most recent professional model forwarded by the National Association of School Psychology (NASP, 2010). Competencies associated with this domain, titled *Family-School Collaboration Services*, include "knowledge of principles and research related to family systems, strengths, needs, and culture; evidence-based approaches to support family influences on children's learning and mental health; and strategies to develop collaboration between families and schools" (NASP, 2010, p. 7). More than 30 years of research link such competencies to increased family school engagement and to positive child health, academic, social, and vocational outcomes (Christenson & Reschly, 2010; Jeynes, 2010). School psychologists have an important role to play in the promotion of authentic and meaningful collaboration with families to ensure children's human rights. In the remainder of this chapter, we consider family support in the context of a multi-tiered system to guarantee Convention rights and provide recommendations to prepare school psychologists to advance these ideals.

Multi-tiered Family Support

School psychologists in the United States work within a multi-tiered framework to ensure that a coordinated system of support is available for students and families (Stoiber, 2014). A multi-tiered system of support, applicable in various forms throughout the world, requires universal, targeted, and intensive efforts between homes, schools, and communities that increase in specificity and strength depending on a family's preferences, resources, and child needs (Miller, Lines, & Fleming, 2014) (See Fig. 1).

At the universal level, a family-centered, strengths-based philosophy should be adopted and infused into educational policies and daily routines for all students (Christenson, 2004; Dunst, 1987, 2002). Family support at this level is designed to foster positive relationships, welcoming environments, and two-way communication and to ensure that families and educators share cultural expectations about the child's schooling (Lines, Miller, & Arthur-Stanley, 2011). At the upper tiers, targeted and intensive school-based and/or community supports are offered to build upon a child's and a family's resilience, priorities, and resources (Dowling & Osborne, 2003; Dunst & Trivette, 2009). Services are more frequent and individualized to alleviate specific family circumstances and address serious threats to a child's well-being, health, and/or mental health (Jones, 2013a). A list of potential practices reflecting supportive partnership practices at each tier can be found in Table 1.

Effective multi-tiered family support embodies three critical characteristics. *Relational support* is the backbone and at the heart of any family-school partnership. Relational support is fostered when there is mutual respect, trust, sensitivity to, and appreciation of the role each partner plays. Universal approaches to enhance

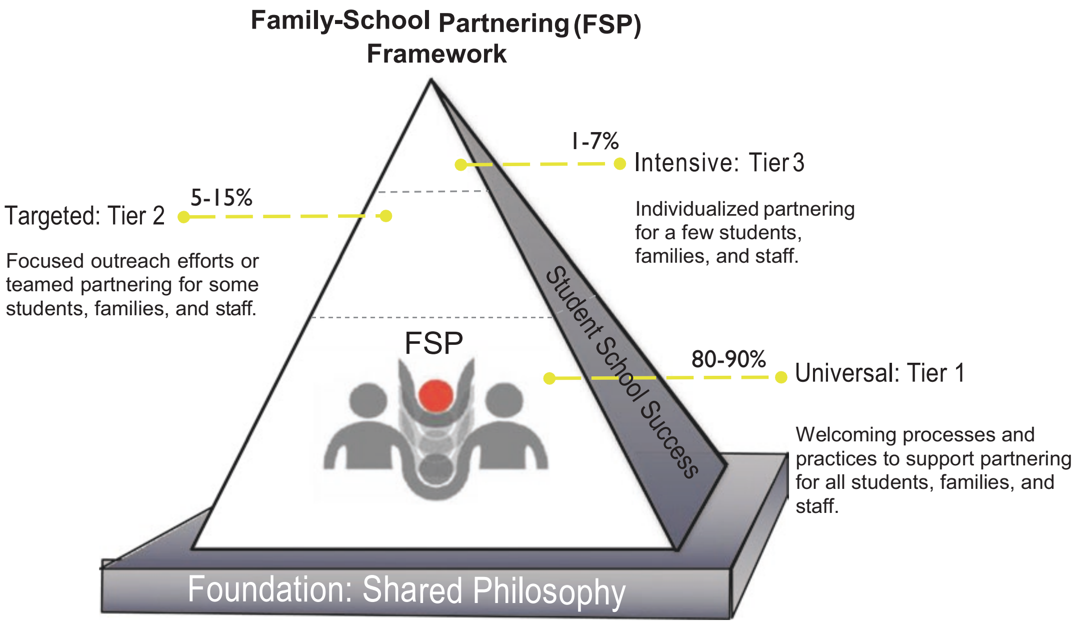
Family-School Partnering (FSP) Framework
1-7%
Intensive: Tier 3
Individualized partnering for a few students, families, and staff.
Targeted: Tier 2
5-15%
Focused outreach efforts or teamed partnering for some students, families, and staff.
Student School Success
FSP
80-90%
Universal: Tier 1
Welcoming processes and practices to support partnering for all students, families, and staff.
Foundation: Shared Philosophy

Fig. 1 A tiered family-school partnering framework

Table 1 Practices to support multi-tiered family support

Universal Level
Communicate the belief that families are equal partners in a student's success.
Create a warm, friendly, and welcoming environment.
Publicize a variety of ways families can engage with the school.
Share evidence of positive outcomes resulting from strong family-school partnerships.
Use partnering language ("we") in all school documents and at all school meetings.
Make certain every family has access to resources to support learning at home.
Provide education on how to support student development.
Seek family input on school-wide decisions.
Provide staff training and time to support families.
Contact every family personally at the beginning of every year.
Create an ongoing, two-way communication system so families can share ideas.
Ensure students know school and home are working together.
Seek family feedback on partnering efforts.
Targeted Level
Reach out individually to families who are hesitant or uncomfortable.
Explain the role and rationale for family participation in decision-making.
Mutually develop individual student plans to enhance success.
Provide time for family and school teams to collaborate on student plans.
Send home regular progress reports and updates on any plan developed.
Offer networking opportunities for families to meet and participate in small communities.
Tell students how school and home are working together to ensure their success.
Seek family feedback on partnering efforts.
Intensive Level
Facilitate or offer individual assistance.
Assist in identifying and mobilizing community resources and support.
Overcome conflicts when needed.
Seek family feedback on partnering efforts.

relational support are designed to foster a joint understanding of each other's hopes and dreams for a child's future. The goal is to reduce feelings of distress, isolation, and disengagement and to increase feelings of belonging to ensure the school is a welcoming and safe environment for all (Miranda, 2014). School-wide family support relationships are created and sustained when school practices and policies view families as experts about their child's strengths and needs (Christenson, 2004) and by efforts to build social support networks (Walker & Sage, 2006). Such networks are created by providing a time and place at the school for families to convene and converse. Communities of support are particularly vital to reengage disenfranchised families (Nzinga-Johnson, Baker, & Aupperlee, 2009) and to welcome newcomer, immigrant, refugee, or asylum families unfamiliar with a new educational system (Ortiz, Flanagan, & Dynda, 2008). At the upper tiers, relational support efforts also seek to bring the community into the school and the school into the community (Jones, 2013a). The former may be accomplished by hosting cultural events and gatherings or providing public services and resources at the school. The latter may be achieved by encouraging and providing time for school members to conduct home visits or by having the entire school participate in significant community service (e.g., constructing or revitalizing a neighborhood playground or garden).

Psychoeducation offered as guidance, instruction, or coaching is a second feature of multi-tiered family support. Psychoeducation support at the universal level is often provided through community forums, workshops, or school-wide presentations and designed to promote understanding of child development and general health or mental health issues (McIntyre & Garbacz, 2014; Miller, Lines, & Fleming, 2014). At the targeted and intensive tiers, such support spotlights specific issues of concern to families or students. Home visits, conjoint consultation, and collaboration across home, school, and community environments are characteristics of upper tier psychoeducational efforts (Dunst, 2002; Sheridan, Clark, & Christenson, 2014). Home-school alliances are strengthened since families are encouraged to openly discuss child-rearing and other issues faced in promoting a student's well-being (Edwards, 2011). Such shared conversations increase everyone's appreciation of consistent expectations across settings and the need to jointly monitor a student's progress. Families who are supported in their triumphs and challenges and who believe their ideas are fully considered, also feel more efficacious about engaging in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey, Whitaker, & Ice, 2010).

Effective sponsorship is the third attribute of a multi-tiered system of family support. Such support is designed to help overcome institutional, social, and economic barriers to school engagement that can hinder student success (Pushor, 2010). At the universal level, coalitions with local businesses, religious institutions, and community service organizations are formed to offer greater access to affordable child-care, after-school programs, or homework assistance (Adams, Westmoreland, Edwards, & Adams, 2006). As an example, employers might be asked to allow family members to participate in school meetings and other organizations might be asked to cover the cost of travel to attend such meetings. Sponsorship support at the upper tier levels is more individualized and differentiated (Edwards, 2011; Williams & Crockett, 2013). Upper tier sponsorship may include emergency assistance (e.g., housing, medical aid) and resources to help defray living or schooling expenses (e.g., food vouchers, uniforms). The overarching goal is to enable families to achieve sustainable self-sufficiency by providing support on how to activate and advocate for their own and their child's rights and entitlements (Dunst & Trivette, 2009; Engelbrecht, Oswald, Swart, Kitching, & Eloff, 2005). Supportive sponsorship is especially critical for families unfamiliar with the majority culture or with limited resources about how to navigate and negotiate for critical services (Dunst & Dempsey, 2007; Pejic, Hess, Miller, & Willy, 2016).

Family Support Programs to Ensure Children's Rights

Comprehensive reviews of family support efforts have identified successful multi-component programs that promote significant physical, behavioral, and mental health improvements in children and family members (Hoagwood et al., 2010; Ireys, Chernoff, Stein, DeVet, & Silver, 2001; Kutash et al., 2012). The most favorable family and child outcomes are found when support is jointly delivered by a mental health practitioner and family co-leader (Hoagwood et al., 2010; Ireys & Sakwa, 2006). Family support co-delivered by a school or community professional and a peer who has faced and overcome comparable circumstances provide encouraging models of personal empowerment, and peer co-leaders who share cultural and/or experiential backgrounds often are viewed as more credible sources of information (Wu, Tsang, & Ming, 2014). Co-delivered family support is especially critical when cultural norms view help-seeking outside of the family as a "weakness" or suggest that the only avenue to seek help is within one's community (Hogan, Linden, & Najarian, 2002; McCabe, 2008). In such instances, peer facilitators can build bridges between current and historical family support practices (Robbins et al., 2008). Examples of jointly delivered evidence-based family programs that incorporate relational, psychoeducational, and sponsorship support at each tier of a multi-level system are described in this section.

Universal Family Support Programs

Two co-delivered universal family support programs are the *DARE to be You* and the *Keys for Networking* programs. Family support in the *DARE to be You* program focuses on promoting youth resiliency in families with preschool children (Miller-Heyl, MacPhee, & Fritz, 1998). Primary caregivers attend a series of workshops led by preschool educators and peer facilitators to promote parental self-efficacy and self-esteem. Relational support is fostered when parents share child-rearing strategies. Psychoeducational support focuses on decision-making, stress management, family relationships, family-school communication, and child behavior management. Sponsorship is fostered since sessions occur at local child care sites where children can simultaneously attend sessions to reinforce similar concepts and where daycare staff and community service providers can come to receive professional development.

In the *Keys for Networking* program, trained peer mentors are linked to incoming families to create informal relational support networks (Adams et al., 2006). Psychoeducational support is designed to meet individual family priorities, interests, and needs, including specific training on legislation, legal rights, and entitlements. Sponsorship is provided through shared travel and child care and families are guided in child advocacy activities. Families who complete the program report and demonstrate greater involvement in their child's schooling and are eligible to become paid peer workshop facilitators.

Targeted Family Support Programs

Two co-delivered targeted level family support programs are the *Vanderbilt Caregiver Empowerment* and the *Parent Connectors Programs.* The *Vanderbilt Caregiver Empowerment* program is designed to increase family involvement in their child's mental health treatment (Bickman, Heflinger, Northrup, Sonnichsen, & Schilling, 1998). Family caregivers receive 11 h of group training delivered collaboratively by a parent advocate and a clinician. Relational support is provided by collaborating with other parents to formulate and make child care decisions. Psychodeucational support is provided about mental health diagnosis, assessment processes, and systems. Sponsorship support is designed to build parents' assertiveness, communication skills, and participation in goal setting and problem solving. Families who received this training over those who did not via a randomized controlled study increased their knowledge of the mental health systems and reported greater self-efficacy about accessing services for their children (Bickman et al., 1998).

The *Parent Connectors Program* is designed to support families with school-aged children who receive special education services for emotional disabilities (Kutash et al., 2012; Kutash, Duchnowki, Green, & Ferron, 2011). Over the course of 9 months, families receive relational support via weekly calls from a parent peer who has a child receiving similar services. Psychoeducational support is provided during parent-to-parent phone calls, face-to-face meetings, and three educational lectures on children's mental health, community resources, and school services. Child care and travel costs are covered so peer-to-peer dyads can meet informally and jointly attend sessions. Families who complete the program report increased life skills and coping strategies and a greater understanding of the special education process. Children from these families have higher rates of school attendance and show marked improvements in reading (Kutash et al., 2011, 2012).

Intensive Family Support Programs

Several programs characterize more intensive co-delivered family support. The *Multiple Family Group Program* (McKay, Gonzales, Quintana, Kim, & Abdul-Adil, 1999) provides support to inner city families whose children exhibit serious conduct difficulties. Family members and family-invited extended family and community representatives (i.e., clergy) attend 16 weekly sessions to talk about pressing child-focused mental health and educational concerns. Relational and psychoeducational support is provided as participants share personal stressors, coping strategies, and ideas to enhance social interactions and relationships within the family. Instruction is provided on group identified issues such as the use of consistent rules and consequences to enhance children's behavior. Group members practice new skills and communication approaches and provide feedback to each other with and without children present. Sponsorship support occurs as participants are coached to locate and access resources and negotiate for desired services. In a large controlled study, significant improvements in youths' social skills and reductions in oppositional and inattentive behavior were obtained when families completed the program (McKay et al., 1999).

Conjoint behavioral consultation shares many parallel features by involving families and educators in joint decision-making designed to build family capacity and strengthen relationships between family members and school staff (Sheridan et al., 2012). This collaborative, data sharing process leads to jointly developed interventions and evaluation plans that lead to reduced healthcare costs and early detection and management of serious behavioral health conditions (Sheridan et al., 2009).

School-based Wraparound is similarly designed to support distressed families and children with serious emotional and behavioral concerns (Eber, Breen, Rose, Unizycki, & London, 2008; Eber, Nelson, & Miles, 1997). Families invite members to convene a "wraparound team" that typically includes a mental health facilitator, the identified child or children, immediate and extended family members, and community agency representatives. Wraparound services are comparable to *Family Group Conferencing* employed in New Zealand to intervene in child abuse and neglect cases. As part of this latter approach, family members invite extended family and community members to attend meetings with child protection workers and community agency professionals (Connolly, 2006; Ministerial Advisory Committee on a Maori Perspective, 1986). Teams come together during a series of meetings in both approaches to discuss commitments and responsibilities that ensure adequate child care and safety. Relational support is provided as the team focuses on student and family strengths and works to develop natural community supports and interagency services that honor family values, traditions, and cultural norms. Psychoeducational support, including shared decision-making, occurs in phases as families and team members learn to trust each other to develop long-term solutions to enhance children's well-being and protection. Family-driven decisions are approved and reinforced by designated community agencies who agree to sponsor and monitor the family's ongoing progress and responsibilities. These intensive family support approaches typically enable the identified child or children to remain within their family and cultural network and have resulted in reduced recidivism rates and positive long-term child outcomes (Crampton, 2007; Dalder, 2006; Eber et al., 2008).

Culturally Responsive Family Support

Governmental institutions, such as schools, must work together with families to honor children's best interests (Art. 3), to ensure their survival and development (Art. 6), education (Art. 28 and 29), autonomy (Art. 12–16), leisure (Art. 31), and cultural identity (Art. 30) and to protect them from all forms of exploitation, cruelty, and abuse (Art. 19 and 32–38). Since the family is the system with the most vested interests in a child's well-being, culturally responsive support fortifies a family's capacity to promote child development and learning (Fine & Carlson, 1992). Culturally responsive support considers family identified needs, values, beliefs, and routines and capitalizes on family strengths, social networks, and resources (Dunst, 2002; Dunst & Trivette, 2009). Cultural modes of learning are stressed (Nastasi, Varjas, Bernstein, & Jayasena, 2000) that honor the "funds of knowledge" families bring to the table (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005). Such support also recognizes that human rights exist within geographic, historical, political, and economic contexts linked to poverty, dismal living conditions, and oppressive religious and/or governing regimes (Oakland & Jimerson, 2007). Limited access to food, shelter, clean water, or healthcare and prolonged exposure to war and suffering can interfere with a family's ability to guarantee children's Convention rights.

Global support for families must recognize the associated effects of trauma and the personal courage and fortitude it takes to assimilate into a new culture (Fernando & Ferrari, 2013; Stermac, Clark, & Brown, 2013; Watamura & Kim, 2015). Family support developed through this lens requires that school psychologists advocate for social justice to ensure equitable access to education and other human rights (Hart & Shriberg, 2014; Shriberg, Song, Miranda, & Radliff, 2013).

No single approach can fit all circumstances and systems of support developed in the United States or Europe may not be acceptable or available in non-Western or developing countries (McCabe, 2008). Such awareness can overcome misunderstandings and mismatches that interfere with the best-intentioned support efforts (Graue & Hawkins, 2010). Other considerations to support families in their efforts to ensure children's education, autonomy, and protection rights can be found in supplemental General Comments to the Convention (United Nations, n.d.).

Cultural Considerations Regarding Education Rights

Progress has been made to fulfill the United Nations' Millennium Development Goal of universal primary education (United Nations, 2015). The number of children of primary school age not in school has decreased by almost half since 2000 (United Nations, 2015). Unfortunately, there are countries where significant numbers of children are not enrolled in school and where schooling is curtailed due to the cost of uniforms or materials, the need to travel over long distances, or because children must stay at home to care for younger siblings so parents can work or find work (Yousafzai, 2013). Education rights can also be restricted due to institutionalized disparities when education is offered only to certain social classes (e.g., higher-income families) or segments of the population (e.g., males or children without disabilities) (Auerbach, 2011; Yousafzai, 2013). Successful collaboration to overcome such obstacles must merge family economic and student education needs, possibly by offering a later school start, an extended school year, intensified or compacted schooling, time off during critical agricultural seasons, or publicly funded education beyond 18 years (Bourdillon, Levinson, Myers, & White, 2010).

When families enter a country with educational policies and practices that differ from those previously experienced, they often are bewildered by new expectations or practices (Yosso, 2005) and may experience mixed feelings and discomfort with associated schooling expectations, policies, and practices (Hamilton, Marshall, Rummens, Fenta, & Simich, 2011). To help realize the educational ideals reflected in the Convention, school psychologists must ensure that families understand non-obvious characteristics associated with a new educational system (Miller, Thomas, & Fruechtenicht, 2014). This requires open discussions of cultural similarities and differences. In the United States, there is an expectation of parent school engagement that is unfamiliar to many families from different cultural backgrounds even though they care deeply about their children's well-being.

Family support is most successful when respect for cultural differences begins with a school mission recognizing families' vested interest in their child's well-being and continues when front office greetings and school messages are sent in a family's home language and when all forms of parental engagement are encouraged (Lines et al., 2011). Displays of cultural art and shared cultural activities promote acceptance and understanding of valued customs and beliefs and also provide relational support in the context of a child's schooling (Miranda, Radliff, Graves, & Worrell, 2014).

Family support efforts can be improved with the help of cultural mediators who communicate in the family's native language to fortify home, school, and community partnerships and increase family member's ability to successfully navigate educational decision-making (Doran-Myers & Davies, 2011; Miller & Nguyen, 2014). This is especially important when a child has or is suspected to have special needs. In many cultures, seeking or accepting extra child services is rejected or avoided due to a strong predisposition to handle family issues privately (Ishay, 2004) and to stigmatizing beliefs that a child's disability is "shameful" or may be seen as retribution for a life transgression (Kayama & Haight, 2013). Cultural conversations can address these and other partnering challenges by illuminating family hierarchy, structure, and views of the child (Dowling & Osborne, 2003) and identifying similar and dissimilar schooling expectations and traditions (Jones, 2013a & 2013b).

The design of transitional services that respect family values and traditions allows newcomer families to adapt effective parenting and educational engagement strategies in a new country (Pejic et al., 2016). Family members who feel their culture is accepted and understood report greater trust in professionals (Li, 2010), comfort with collaboration (Nzinga-Johnson et al., 2009), and confidence in how to participate in their child's schooling (Miller & Nguyen, 2014). When time is taken to consider a child's right to an education through a family's cultural lens, corresponding increases in children's achievement and school retention are reported (Engelbrecht et al., 2005; Wu et al., 2014).

Cultural Considerations Regarding Autonomy Rights

Many Convention principles promote a child's evolving development, performance, and self-determinism (Hart, 1991; United Nations, 2009). For example, Article 29 moves beyond an emphasis on education by stressing a child's right to be taken seriously and to develop his/her personality, talents, mental, and physical abilities. Many other Articles within the Convention also emphasize a child's right to freedom of thought and expression and to participate in decisions that impact the daily life experiences (e.g., Articles 12–16). Promoting and protecting these rights can be difficult in cultures where interdependence and community are valued over independence and individuality and where more emphasis is placed on the family unit versus the child's best interests (McCabe, 2008). Families may appear to avoid spotlighting a child's performance since success is not necessarily measured by how well a person achieves alone (i.e., high grades in school) but rather by how well he or she fulfills an expected role within the family and/or community (Tileston & Darling, 2009). Moreover, in many cultures, a child's freedom of choice is secondary to that of the elders or is superseded by the authority of specified adults in the family (Hamilton et al., 2011). In many societies, children are not asked for their opinions and their autonomy is not encouraged in making critical life decisions (i.e., selecting a spouse or career path). Finally, the age at which a child enters into adulthood also differs greatly around the world and, in some cases, is determined with community and family input (UNICEF, 2015).

Sensitivity to these cultural values, norms, and traditions must be recognized since they can create a tension between directing and protecting versus promoting children's autonomy and self-determination (Hart & Hart, 2014). Efforts to increase children's participation in educational and life decisions must be developed jointly within the context of family and community values (Pushor, 2010). Families need to understand that fostering a child's independence, privacy, and participation in decision-making can improve school and life opportunities, lessen resistance, and increase investment in parental preferences. Explanations can help clarify how critical thinking, mutual problem solving, and conflict resolution are life skills that contribute to academic and vocational success (Lansdown, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014). During meetings with the family, child participation also can be tacitly modeled and encouraged by asking children for their opinions. Families are more likely to appreciate and support these child rights when time is taken to provide a clear rationale for how such rights can be balanced with and incorporated into critical cultural practices (Ben-Arieh & Attar-Schwartz, 2013).

Cultural Considerations Regarding Protection Rights

Families and government agencies (i.e., schools) are responsible for safeguarding children from discrimination and harm (see also United Nations, 2011). Articles 20 and 21 stress a child's right to have adults look after his/her well-being and protect the child from all forms of violence, cruelty, and maltreatment, including physical and/or mental abuse, neglect, and exploitation. Cultural considerations to support families in protecting these rights must focus on non-punitive discipline that respects a child's dignity and physical integrity (Hart, Durrant, Newell, & Power, 2005). Recognizing that corporal punishment remains a commonplace practice across the world, family support must elicit diverse opinions regarding child-rearing (Fontes, 2005). Such discussions can promote a greater understanding of cultural differences in values, ethics, and legal regulations and provide a coherent explanation of non-violent practices (Koonce & Harper Jr., 2005). School psychologists must recognize these cultural discrepancies and provide guidance on alternative disciplinary approaches so that entrenched beliefs and attitudes regarding harsh discipline can be challenged and alternative approaches can be promoted through community and spiritual leaders and organizations (Fontes, 2005).

Cultural sensitivity also is needed to provide effective emotional and educational support when unstable conditions exist that make it difficult for families who deeply love their children to properly nurture, care, or protect them. In these situations, culturally relevant family support can be fostered by inviting friends, extended family, and respected community members to facilitate decisions on how to best promote a child's future care (American Humane Association, 2013; Crampton, 2007). Temporary or permanent removal from the family and home may be required in cases where a child's safety and well-being are compromised. In such situations, school psychologists can ensure these decisions are planned to promote a family's and child's best interests by checking that guardians in out-of-home placements respect the child's ethnicity, religion, culture, and language, by monitoring a child's progress over time, and by promoting culturally sensitive family reunion plans or adoption proceedings.

Recommendations for Professional Preparation and Development

Twenty-first century educators must be prepared to endorse the principles contained in the *United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child* (Hart & Shriberg, 2014) and to support families in this endeavor (Quezada, Alexandrowicz, & Molina, 2013). Pre-service training and ongoing professional development is needed to introduce school psychologists to the rights afforded to children in the Convention and the social justice and multicultural considerations it engenders (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013; Shriberg et al., 2013). Such training must provide a framework to advance awareness and the integration of these principles (Gutkin & Song, 2013). One curriculum has been specifically developed for this purpose with input from all major school psychology professional organizations in the United States and internationally (Nastasi & Naser, 2014)[1].

To help realize Convention ideals, school psychologists must become effective school consultants and agents of social justice (Li & Vazquez-Nuttall, 2009). This requires international multiculturalism (Hurley & Gerstein, 2013; Lowman, 2013) and transnational competence (Newell et al., 2010). The preparation of school psychologists must promote a keen appreciation of cultural values and life circumstances of families around the world (Ishay, 2004), especially in regard to partnering with immigrant and refugee families (Kugler, 2009). Pre-service and continued training experiences are needed to advance this knowledge and to promote the application of these qualifications (Nastasi, Moore, & Varjas, 2004). This includes training in active listening without judgment and the incorporation of family cultural beliefs, routines, and traditions when planning home, school, and community support (Nastasi, Varjas, Bernstein & Jayasena, 2000; Harry & Klingner, 2007; Miranda et al., 2014). Immersion activities, international exchanges, and cultural sharing conversations with families from diverse backgrounds can foster partnerships with families worldwide (Jones, 2013b; Miller, Thomas, & Fruechtenicht, 2014) as can instruction in participatory culture-specific (Nastasi et al., 2000) and ecological consultation (Meyers, Meyers, Graybill, Proctor, & Huddleston, 2012).

School psychologists must have multiple concrete opportunities to engage with culturally and linguistically diverse communities and receive timely feedback on the design, implementation, and evaluation of efforts to translate Convention ideals into relevant family support practices (Pushor, 2010). Professional supervision and peer feedback on interpersonal attitudes, family-centered practice (Dunst & Trivette, 2009), and collaborative problem solving before and after a professional enters the field can lead to public health policies and practices that promote and secure children's Convention rights (Nastasi et al., 2000). Continued professional development also is needed to enhance involvement in advocacy efforts that can safeguard children's Convention rights and address social injustices at the local, national, and international level (Hazel, Laviolette, & Lineman, 2010; Shriberg & Desai, 2014). Professional growth in these areas is fostered by direct contact and exchanges to influence policy and practices across diverse communities and through assignments that require attendance at public hearings, demonstrations, or community forums or participation in legislative lobbying (Coleman, 2012). Finally, pre- and post-graduation preparation should include instruction on strategies to evaluate and analyze social justice efforts so that resulting outcomes can be used as a catalyst to promote organizational and societal change (Hess, Short, & Hazel, 2012; Kutash, Duchnowski, & Lynn, 2006) (see also Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", this volume).

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[1] See also the training manual, intended for an international audience of school psychologists and other mental health professionals working in schools, which is an accompanying online resource for this volume. The manual was developed through a partnership of ISPA, IICRD, APA's Division 16, Tulane University Child Rights Team, & Cleveland State University. A set of self-study modules is also available; for information, contact Bonnie Nastasi, Tulane University School Psychology Program, bnastasi@tulane.edu

Conclusion

As of 2015, all but one United Nations member, the United States, had ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNICEF, 2015). Recognizing this, Hart (2014) called for school psychologists to play a more active role in championing "the healthy, holistic development and uniqueness of each and every child" (p. 1). This call is similar to that of Clare (2013) who eloquently urges school psychologists to not be swayed or disillusioned by impressions of the complexity and magnitude of global injustices, but rather to be strengthened "by a resolve to bring our considered and lived professional wisdom to bear in inquiry and action to support the well being of all" (p. 60). Indeed, school psychologists, because of their professional training and ethical commitment to equity and social justice, are ideally positioned to advance these ideals through culturally responsive partnerships with families.

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Respecting the Rights of the Child in Sports: Not an Option

Paulo David

Abstract

The Rights of the Child have been universally recognized for three decades through the adoption of the UN (Convention on the rights of the child. United Nations, Geneva, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child, but awareness about this international human rights treaty and its implementation remain extremely weak in the field of competitive sports. There is no doubt that the practice of competitive sports can greatly advance the sound and holistic development of every child. Nevertheless, sports also potentially carry grey zones and dark sides that can result in the violation of the rights of children. Practice shows that young athletes can become victims of various types of abuse, exploitation, violence, and injury. Violations of other rights can also affect children in sports, such as the right to be free from discrimination; right to health, including to be protected from doping practices; and right to education. The rights of the child are not optional; they are a legal obligation in all countries that have ratified the Convention, and sports cannot escape this reality. Policies, legislation, safeguards, and institutions need to be adapted to comply with minimum standards and requirements of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, to ensure that sports remain a positive experience for every child. There needs to be more awareness raising, training, advocacy, independent monitoring, and enforcement of the rights of the child in the context of competitive sports. School psychologists can play a lead role in this regard.

Since the rights of the child have been universally recognized in 1989 through the adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (subsequently referred to as the Convention; UN General Assembly, 1989), the world of sports is not immune from respecting the rights of children. Nevertheless, the reality is that still today, sports remain one of the domains in which the rights of the child are often ignored or overlooked.

Historically, sports[1] have developed as a top-down, hierarchal, paternalist, strongly regulated, and rigid social system. Over time, the involvement of children in sports, especially in competitive sports, has mainly been promoted, conceptualized,

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[1] In the context of this article, "sports" refer to organized competitive sports, whether in amateur or professional context.

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organized, regulated, and managed by adults. The participation of children in the development and running of sports is almost non-existent. The Convention is challenging this reality as it promotes the role of child at the centre of its activities and of decision-making, in line of course with the child's evolving capacity, age of discernment, and maturity. This international human rights law treaty recognizes children (defined by the Convention as all persons below 18) as active *subject of law* progressively empowered to exercise their own rights.

This chapter of the Handbook examines the implications of the Convention on the practice of sports. The chapter also explains the reasons child rights needs to be promoted and respected in the field of sports, and the added value of such a process. Particularly important is the need to ensure the quality and safety of the sport system for children and, above all, soundly guarantee, "The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential" (Article 29.1.a, Convention). The chapter also considers how the Convention can be a powerful tool to assist young athletes[2] towards excellence and exploit all the benefits sports can bring.

Why We Need to Care About Child Rights in the Context of Sports

The Convention was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1989 and has been ratified almost universally.[3] The Convention is one of the nine core international human rights treaties and is a legally binding instrument. Therefore, States parties to the treaty must adapt their laws, policies, programmes, and institutions to the minimum standards and requirements enshrined in the provisions of the treaty. This means that child rights need to penetrate all sectors of society, for example, from the schools to the military, from the family to the sport context, with no exception. The human rights of children apply everywhere and to all persons below 18 years of age, in the public as well as the private domains.

Since 1989, the Convention has brought a paradigm shift worldwide in the way adults relate to children in society, reflecting a change in viewing the child from a needs-based approach to a rights-based one. This means that public authorities and the society as a whole must not care only about meeting the basic needs of children, but rather realizing their rights as they apply, for example, to education, to health, to freedom of expression, to privacy, and to prevention from violence, as they are (or should) be recognized in national laws and policies.

Sports is one of the most popular activities worldwide. Every day, millions of children engage in a sports activity. In most situations, sports bring positive elements to the development of children; there is no doubt about this. These elements include but are not limited to sound physical and psychological development, social and educational skills, prevention of health hazards, building self-confidence, development of resilience and autonomy, discovering how to deal with losing and winning, and learning how to focus on and reach objectives. Much literature exists on the global benefits of a sporting activity for children (Bailey, 2006; Biddle & Asare, 2011; Fedewa & Ahn, 2013; Weinberg & Gould, 2018). This chapter instead looks at the dark side of sports and how to prevent and address children's rights violations in sports. One can roughly consider that approximately 70% of children largely benefit and are empowered through their involvement in competitive sports, and 10% are victims of some forms of human rights violation. The remaining 20% constitute a grey zone in which children are put at risk (David, 2005). If ten, or even less, percent of children's involvement in sports results in a human rights violation, the number of such violations worldwide remains of very serious concern and requires all adults to reflect on this phenomenon and take the necessary measures to limit the negative impact of sports on children to the maximum possible extent.

Sports is not above the rule of law, and therefore public authorities and all involved are required to respect the rights children in all aspects of sports. Over decades, sports have been largely self-regulated, which is of course permitted as long as internal regulations do not lead towards child rights violations. For example, a sports club or federation cannot in its internal rules or practice discriminate towards children with disabilities or based on gender, ethnic, religious, or other identity.

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[2] In the context of this paper, "young athletes" refer to all athletes below the age of 18.

[3] As of 2020, the Convention has been ratified by all States of the world (196 States parties), with the exception of the United States (that has only signed the treaty indicating the intention of considering ratification in the future).

But beyond the legal aspect, the added value to enforce children's rights in sports is multiple. First, child rights include a strong participation element. This can empower children and assist, for example, in preventing both burn-out and drop-out syndromes, as through children's involvement, including in decision-making, there is increased chance to keep them motivated by their own sports involvement. Second, children's rights, as defined in the Convention, also greatly assist in making the sports field a more secure and safe place for children, as this chapter explains. Finally, respecting children's rights in sports also provides victims of violations with accountability, rehabilitation, and redress options (David, 2015).

The Links Between Children's Rights and Sports

All States have the overall responsibility to ensure law enforcement. With regard to respecting international human rights law, it is largely recognized by the United Nations (UN Committee Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 2012) and others that public authorities have three types of legal obligations:

- To *respect* rights, requires States to refrain from interfering directly or indirectly with people's enjoyment of their human rights (as established in law)
- To *protect*, requires States to take measures that prevent third parties from interfering with human rights
- To *fulfil*, requires States to adopt appropriate legislative, administrative, budgetary, judicial, promotional, and other measures towards the full realization of human rights measures

These three fundamental types of obligations fully apply when one considers children's rights in sports. The Convention clearly engages non-State actors including parents, sport clubs and organizations, coaches, and managers. This means that if States have direct responsibility to promote and protect child rights in sports, third parties have an indirect responsibility. Wrongdoing by a sports coach or a physical education teacher, for example, the physical or sexual abuse of a child, require State intervention. Public authorities also must encourage and support third parties in promoting child rights in sports and preventing their violations.

The violations of rights to which children are the most vulnerable through their involvement in competitive sports are as follows:

- Discrimination (Article 2, Convention)
- Health-related risks resulting from intensive training (Article 24)
- Health-related risks, such as concussion, especially injuries provoked by contact sports (Article 24)
- Physical abuse (Article 19)
- Psychological abuse (Article 19)
- Sexual abuse (Article 19)
- Violence (Article 19)
- Doping (Article 24)
- Right to education (Article 28 and 29)

Other main risks of violation cover civil rights and freedoms, transfers and freedom of association, economic exploitation, and trafficking and sale of young athletes.

Promoting Sports as a Means of Child Development

When child rights are applied in competitive sports, sports can prove to be a powerful tool in supporting child development. The Convention promotes a holistic approach to development of the child, and sports does provide to the child many and varied opportunities to develop holistically, balancing physical and psychological development with life-coping skills, such as resilience, self-confidence, working, emotional regulation, and social and cognitive learning abilities. When the Convention provisions are promoted and fully respected in the context of sports, it can bring to the children knowledge and skills that can benefit their health, education, social, physical, and intellectual development. Sports is a tool assisting children to develop their evolving capacities to their maximum potential, through all these diverse learning areas, in the spirit of Article 29.1.a.

Protecting Children from Abuse, Exploitation, Violence, and Injury in Sports

The Convention, especially through Article 19, focuses heavily on preventing and combatting "…all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse…". It obliges States to take all appropriate measures to "protect" the child from all these forms of human rights violations "while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or *any other person* who has the care of the child" (emphasize added). By "appropriate measures", Article 29 of the Convention includes the following:

> …social programmes to provide necessary support for the child and for those who have the care of the child, as well as for other forms of prevention and for identification, reporting, referral, investigation, treatment and follow-up of instances of child maltreatment described heretofore, and, as appropriate, for judicial involvement

The Convention makes it clear that both relevant public authorities and those involved in sports for children have obligations and responsibilities towards protecting the integrity of the child.

Since 2000, the American Academy of Pediatrics considers that intensive training and competitive sports put children in the category of "at risk populations" (Committee on Sports Medicine and Fitness, 2000). Research indicates that the levels of abuse and violence in youth sports are considerable (David, 2005; UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, 2010). The following metadata are based on a range of varied studies from different countries:

- Physical abuse/corporal punishment: 5–17.5% (Rhind, McDermott, Lambert, & Koleva, 2015)
- Sexual harassment or abuse: 6–62% of girls, 3–37% of boys (Brackenridge, 2001; Hartil, 2009)
- Psychological maltreatment, including emotional abuse: up to 75% in the United Kingdom (Alexander, Stafford, & Lewis, 2011; David, 2005)

Even a conservative reading of these figures raises extreme concerns in view of the number of children involved in sports worldwide. This does not necessarily mean that these types of child rights violations occur more often in than outside sports, but it clearly shows that sports is not immune to these phenomena. (Table 1 provides a typology of abuse, neglect, and violence in sports.)

Severe injury in youth sports has received increased attention in recent years. Obviously, a physical activity such as sports, in addition to bringing health benefits, can lead to potential injury of the child. No cost analyses exist on the child health-related benefits of the practice of sports balanced with the cost of child-related sports injuries, and such analyses could bring useful consideration to the debate. Contact sports, such as football, American football, rugby, ice hockey, boxing, and basketball are especially concerning as to the risk of serious injury, such as concussion. With the improved preparation of athletes, the increased sophistication of their equipment and the higher levels of striving for results, sports games have increased over the last decades in terms of speed, force, and impact of contacts. Concussion in sports has become a topic of heated debate in view of the number of grave accidents which have occurred in amateur as well as professional sports, referred to as the "silent epidemic" or the "invisible injury".

Data about concussions among young athletes are lacking, highlighting the need for more research. In the United States, concussions represent an estimated 8.9% of all high school athletic injuries (Gessel, Fields, Collins, Dick, & Comstock, 2007). Girls are reported to have a higher rate of concus-

Table 1 Typology of main forms of abuse, neglect, and violence in sports

Physical	Sexual	Psychological	Neglect
Excessive intensive training	Verbal comments and harassment	Excessive pressure (for results)	Failure to provide proper attention
Systematic insufficient rest	Physical advances	Verbal violence and humiliation	Deliberate negligence
Corporal punishment	Abusive touching	Emotional abuse (including blackmailing)	Imposed isolation
Imposed severe food diets	Forced intercourse and rape	Bullying (also physical abuse)	Deliberate ignoring of injury
Peer violence, including "hazing"	Gender-biased discrimination	Encouragement for stigmatizing and dehumanizing opponents	
Encouragement of "play hard" or "play hurt" attitudes		Encouragement for cheating	
Imposed usage of doping products		Invasions of privacy	
Imposed obligation to play despite injury		Discouraging critical thinking and age appropriate autonomy	

sion than boys in similar sports (Dick, 2009). The reason for this difference is still unknown. In 2015, the US Soccer Federation unveiled a series of safety initiatives aimed at addressing head injuries in the sports, including a policy that sets strict limits on youth players heading the ball (i.e., purposely using the head as an instrument to hit and propel the ball). The new guidelines prohibit players age 10 and younger from heading the ball and will reduce headers in practice for those from ages 11 to 13 (Strauss, 2015).

The Convention requires, in relation to sports injuries, broad prevention and awareness programmes and campaigns, easy access to health-related information, strict respect for care and rehabilitation medical protocols, and independent medical monitoring. The holistic health of the child must be in all cases the primary concern, rather than the interests or the results of the team. Article 24 of the Convention, relating to the child's right to health, requires of States parties that "all segments of society, in particular parents and children, are informed, have access to education and are supported in the use of basic knowledge of child health and nutrition, … the prevention of accidents".

Protection from Doping

Believing that athletes wait to turn 18 years of age to use doping products is a naïve view. Research indicates that between 1 and 10% (3–5% as an average) of young athletes use illicit products to increase their chance to win; some studies indicate even higher percentages (David, 2005). If young athletes take doping products, this can only happen with the complicity or assistance of adults who are controlling doping through its production, access, purchase, distribution, and administration. Research and actual cases of doping have shown that children can easily be coerced and manipulated into doping, including without being aware of it. Doping can take a form of abuse and exploitation of children by adults, who use the young athlete as a disempowered object, rather than a subject of rights, to achieve their own objective without informing the child about his/her absorption of unauthorized (and sometimes illegal) products. This happens in total violation of Article 33 of the Convention (protection from use of illicit narcotic drugs), Article 19 (protection from all forms of abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment, or exploitation), Article 17 (right to access appropriate information, especially with regard to well-being and health), and Article 24 (right to health).

The involvement of the medical community in doping practices is at times questionable and even disturbing, especially when it relates to children. Some medical doctors active in sports are complicit to the "victory at all cost" mentality, rather than being guided by maintaining and reaching high standards of health for athletes. In general, when athletes under 18 have been caught by sporting authorities (including the Court of Arbitration for Sports – CAS), they have been sanctioned on the same grounds as adults (David, 2005) and the principle of limited or partial responsibility has not been recognized. This is contrary to Article 40.3 of the Convention that requires States to establish "…laws, procedures, authorities and institutions specifically applicable to children".

Protection from All Forms of Discrimination

Freedom form biased or prejudiced discrimination is a fundamental human right that cannot be derogated in any situation. Non-discrimination is part of in international customary law and the key pillar of all international and regional human rights treaties. Article 2 of the Convention is crystal clear in its intention to outlaw all forms of discrimination against children, but the monitoring work of the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child nevertheless shows that worldwide children are still largely victims of discrimination (UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, 2010).

Only rare solid research findings exist concerning discrimination in youth sports. Anecdotal information seems to indicate that many forms of discrimination do occur, generally mirroring trends that already exist in the communities at large. Cases of discrimination in sports have occurred not only on all the grounds recognized by Article 2 of the Convention, "race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status" but also "on the basis of the status, activities, expressed opinions, or beliefs of the child's parents, legal guardians, or family members."

Enabling Children to Fulfil the Right to Education

The right to education is a fundamental pillar of the development of a child (Art. 28 and 29) and a key process for children as much as for adults to become empowered actors of their own rights. The sports experience can assist children to accomplish sound educational achievements by teaching them how to focus, to deal with objectives and challenges, to concentrate, to perform at the right moment, and to keep self-control during exams, for example. But sports can also distract children away from education, especially if sports coaches or trainers give highest priority to their own self-centred objectives, not taking into account the right of the child to education and its requirements, including respect for the child's right to rest (Art. 31; David, 2006). The pressure to win and the intensive training requirements, especially at an early age, can easily distract children away from their education. The sports actors cannot neglect the child's right to education by giving priority to training and competition. Evidently, while some children have risen to become wealthy sports professionals, they certainly represent a very small minority of cases. Many have been poorly advised and guided by adults, including sometimes by parents, and sacrificed their schooling without achieving a sports career and are left uneducated to survive with little or no qualifications for the labour world (David, 2005).

Empowering Young Athletes

It is not by accident that the Convention focuses on "the rights of the child" rather than on "the rights of children". Each child is unique and should be considered as such, according to the Convention. The latter recognizes in various provisions the "evolving capacities" (Art. 5 and 14) and "maturity" (Art. 12) of the child in the exercise of his or her own rights. Evolving capacities vary greatly from one child to another (Lansdown, 2005). As actors of their own development, children are recognized to exercise their rights progressively, in accordance with their age and maturity. Therefore, childhood is considered as a uniquely dynamic period towards adult age during which children and adolescents are gradually empowered to function autonomously and participate in decision-making (Art. 12). The

Convention empowers children so that they can progressively exercise their rights, including protecting themselves from abuse, exploitation, violence, discrimination, and any other type of violation.

In an overwhelming number of countries and contexts, children are not yet empowered in their sports context. Adults generally control all processes, all rules, and all decisions. A change of attitudes and mentalities is required to properly apply child rights to sports by involving them much more in sharing views and decision-making. No research exists on understanding how sports are meaningful to children, and, in the majority of cases, adults do not try to understand what truly motivates young athletes (Messner & Musto, 2014). Often it is assumed children only want to win and become champions. Adults shape or apply a framework (competitive sports) usually without even understanding what the key actors think and want.

Article 12 of the Convention is also a fundamental provision for the respect of child rights. It emphasizes that "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". This is referred to usually as a "participatory right" (in opposition to the more known and understood traditional "protection rights") and the same applies to the civil rights and freedoms captured in Articles 13–17 of the Convention (such as the child freedoms of expression, thought, and association).

In light of Articles 12–17 of the Convention, a key pre-condition to ensure the rights of young athletes is to progressively empower them. The rights of the child cannot be protected without having their voices and views taken into account. The traditional sport environment, still often fuelled by paternalism and unilateral decision-making by adults, is generally still very far from being able to move the young athlete from a passive object in the hands of parents, coaches, managers, and others involved in sports, to a capable and competent partner in striving towards common objectives and sports results.

The key elements leading towards motivation of young athletes in participating – for some intensively – in sports and related competitive activities have been increasingly researched since the1990s. Empowerment, participation in decision-making, progressive autonomy, enjoyment and pleasure, and the feeling that the young athlete's own values and objectives line-up with those coming from the sports environment (coaches, managers, sport officials, etc.) are part of those key elements that fuel the child's motivation. In opposition, when young athletes feel they completely lose control over their sports objectives, they feel like passive objects in the hands of adults shaping their sports career, experience no more joy and fun, and, in extreme situations, feel exploited. Such situations can lead towards depression, violence, burnout, self-destruction, and/or antisocial behaviour (Hughes & Hassan, 2015; Jaakkola, Ntoumanis, & Liukkonen, 2016; Weinberg & Gould, 2018; Winsely & Matos, 2011).

Towards an Accountable Sports Environment and a Child-Centred Sports System

Respect for human rights requires a system of accountability with checks and balances between the rights-holders and the duty-bearers. As discussed in previous sections, States have overall obligations and private actors, from parents to sports coaches and federations, have direct and indirect responsibilities. In other words, public authorities are required to take all necessary measures to prevent third parties, such as private individuals or entities, from generating through their behaviours human rights violations. For example, physical or sexual abuse of a young athlete cannot occur in a training centre under the simple argument that it is a private one. The State has a *due diligence* obligation to ensure it has taken all preventive and corrective measures to respect human rights in all situations. This implies that public authorities are to be held accountable for promoting, preventing, and protecting child rights in sports and expected to take appropriate measures to provide redress and rehabilitation in case of violation. The rule of law also applies to each sport's sphere and therefore each actor has accountability. Human rights violations cannot be justified just because it is a "game" or "sport". Establishing whether child rights are respected in sports requires independent reporting and monitoring systems that allow alleged victims to report a violation and the State to ensure that its policies and laws are properly complied with by all actors of each and the overall sports system.

A child-rights friendly sports system is the one that ensures that the child is at its centre. Making the child central in the sports system safeguards that the full range of human rights will be promoted and respected. Article 3 of the Convention requires that "In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration". The best interests of the child are realized when all its rights are protected. A child-centred sports system can be articulated around the ten fundamental principles listed in Table 2.

Respect for child rights in sports might limit the possibility of developing successful champions. Some sport actors argue that human rights provides no added value to sports and rather is limiting its development and the search for success. This view is mainly due to the almost non-existent consideration and understanding of human rights in the context of sports, though a slow evolution is underway. It is certainly achievable for a sports system to train and prepare empowered champions while putting them at the centre of the process and respecting holistically all their human rights and their dignity.

Table 2 Principles of a child-centred sport system

1.	Equality, non-discrimination, fairness
2.	Best interests of the child
3.	Evolving capacities and maturity
4.	Subject of rights, progressive exercise of rights
5.	Consultation, the child's views and opinions, informed participation
6.	Appropriate direction and guidance
7.	Mutual respect, support, and responsibility
8.	Highest attainable standard of physical, psychological, and social health
9.	Transparency, monitoring, and accountability
10.	Excellence

From Debate to Action

The debate on the respect for the rights of the child in the context of sports has long been totally taboo. When in the late 1990s, the first reports on cases of sexual abuse of children in sports hit the media in the United Kingdom and later in other countries, the sports system was shaken by an earthquake and feared massive withdrawal of children from sports by parents. In reactive mode, sport authorities at all levels responded by taking measures for preventing and combatting sexual harassment and abuse in sports. This was symbolized in the adoption of the International Olympic Committee Consensus Statement on Sexual Harassment and Abuse in sports (2006). However, overall not much was discussed or undertaken by concerned parties to address other key child rights issues which have remained totally marginalized for a long time.

Human rights has barely penetrated the sports sphere so far, even if today some slow progress can be noticed (UN Special Rapporteur, 2016). The Convention requires relevant State bodies and private sports bodies to fully integrate human rights law and standards in policies, rules, bylaws, and practice.

A few good practices have emerged in some countries since the adoption of the Convention in 1989. In 2001, the Irish Sports Council and the Sports Council for Northern Ireland took the lead and adopted the "Code of Ethics and Good Practice for Children's Sport" that stated:

> As citizens, adults have a responsibility to protect children from harm and to abide by government guidelines in responding to and reporting child protection concerns. This responsibility exists wherever such concerns might arise, whether inside or outside sport. Guidelines contained in the Code of Ethics and Good Practice for Children's Sport in Ireland took account of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and in accordance with government guidelines.

The same year, and as a result of the sexual abuse scandals that emerged in the United Kingdom, The Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU) was established, thereby pioneering a partnership between a major national child protection organization (NSPCC) and national sports organizations with the objective of minimizing the risk of child abuse during sporting activities.

By far, the most powerful initiative to protect the rights of the child in sports was taken in 2009 by the Parliament of Sweden when adopting its new sports policy entitled "What sports wants". This policy requires that "Sports for children and young people up to 18 years should be conducted from a child rights perspective and follow the United Nations Convention on the Rights on the Child". The policy empowers the Swedish National Centre for Research in Sports to conduct periodic and mandatory monitoring of aspects related to child rights in sports, and, when the latter are not respected, the Swedish Sports Confederation (SSC) is empowered to undertake economic and financial sanctions against a sports federation. As a result of this policy, for the first time in 2012, the Swedish Gymnastic Federation lost all its State funding for lack of respect for child rights (Eliasson, 2015).

Another good practice is the reform in 2003 of the "Regulations on the Status and Transfer of Players", revised in 2015 by the *Fédération Internationale de Football Association* (FIFA). FIFA modified its regulations after hundreds of cases of sale and trafficking of children in football, mainly from Africa and Latin America to Europe, had been revealed by media and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) during the 1990s (David, 2005). Strict implementation of this regulation has shown that FIFA does not hesitate anymore in sanctioning hugely powerful economic sports clubs, such as FC Barcelona (in 2015), Real Madrid and Atletico Madrid (in 2016) and Chelsea (2019) that were forbidden to purchase adult professional players for 1 year in order to protect the rights of young footballers. FIFA explained: "FIFA works hard to protect the rights of players under the age of 18 – whether male or female, amateur or professional". This is done through the enforcement of regulations prohibiting the international transfer of minors, or the first registration of minors in a country other than their own, except in specific circumstances (cf. Art. 19 of the Regulations) that must be approved by the subcommittee appointed by the Players' Status Committee. As such, the provisions relating to the protection of minors need to be strictly applied. This has been confirmed on various occasions by the Court of Arbitration for Sport (Federation Internationale de Football Association, 2016).

The International Olympic Committee (IOC), as the main moral authority in sports, has not yet taken necessary steps to promote and protect the rights of the child in sports. The IOC should start by launching a comprehensive audit of its Charter, regulations, and practices against the requirements of the Convention; this "compatibility study" would be the basis for a sound child rights policy within the sport movement.

Recommendations

To adequately apply the Convention in sports, including preventing the violations discussed in this chapter, the following are recommended.

1. *Awareness raising*. A key challenge is that the sport world is largely unaware of child rights and how child rights can increase the quality of sports services, decrease and limit inherent risks, and assist in ensuring that young athletes blossom holistically, while striving for excellence.
2. *Training and advocacy*. Volunteers and professionals involved in the sports system, whether directly in contact with children or not, need to be trained in child rights to be able to properly ensure their promotion and protection. Once trained, sports volunteers and professionals need to advocate for the respect of child rights in sports.
3. *Normative review and law enforcement*. All sports policies, regulations, and rules, including those emanating from autonomous sports bodies, need to be made compatible with the requirements of the Convention. States have

the obligation to take measures to ensure that the rule of law is respected in the sports sphere the same way it is outside, including in private settings when required.

4. *Monitoring and individual complaints mechanisms*. Periodic independent monitoring is a natural component of human rights as it is the main tool used to collect factual data and information independently and allows for situational analysis relating to law policy implementation. Therefore, monitoring mechanisms have to be put in place. This also applies to individual channels for complaints for young athletes that require being safe, confidential, and accountable.
5. *Empowerment of young athletes*. It is essential that the views of the child are called for and given due weight when sport-related decisions are made. Empowering children by integrating their views also will empower young athletes to be better protected from abuse, neglect, and exploitation in and outside sports. Finally, empowering young athletes is assisting them to develop their self-esteem, self-confidence, and sense of responsibility.
6. *Redress, remedy, and rehabilitation*. It is fundamentally important that every violation of child rights is given adequate redress and remedy. Such redress can be applied, whenever appropriate and desirable as well as depending on the gravity of the violation, without resorting to judicial proceedings (such as mediation or internal sanctions towards the perpetrator) provided that human rights and legal safeguards are fully respected.

Recommendations for School Psychologists

In addition to the general recommendations, when appropriate, school psychologists should follow and assist in implementing, the following.

1. *Holistic understanding of each child.* In light of the Convention, school psychologists need to follow closely children involved in sports from a holistic perspective. This means that they will link sports practice and achievements in the broader life of the child, including but not limited to schooling performance, social interaction, mental and physical health, and community involvement. By doing this they can understand when intervention measures are required to avoid or overcome a child rights violation in or outside sports.
2. *Assess and promote the physical and athletic/sport potentials of each child*. School psychologists should work with the school community to see that the physical health, coordination and stamina, and athletic/sport potentials of each child are included in programs holistic child assessment and promotion. This may include organizing and facilitating cooperation among professionals providing medical and mental health, physical education/fitness, training and coaching, general education, child/family counselling, and consultation services, to assure child rights principles pervade policy and practices, including giving priority to the best interests of the child and respect for the child's views.
3. *Engagement with sports leadership in school and community*. School psychologists must engage and raise awareness of all those having responsibilities in school and youth sport, including at the community level. In doing so psychologists should systematically emphasize that the practice of sports and related implications and objectives need to be balanced with the cognitive, educational, physical, social, and emotional requirements of child and youth development. Sport should at no cost disrupt that balance as the full holistic development and well-being of the young person should always remain the sole objective. The child's holistic education and well-being should never be threatened or sacrificed to obtain so called hypothetical "sport results".
4. *Understanding the motivation of children in sports.* It is essential that adults understand the true motivation of each child involved in sports to properly respect the child's human rights. This requires competence, time, and listening by school psychologists when they work with young athletes. When the motiva-

tion of the young athletes is meaningfully deconstructed and understood, both the child and the persons involved in the sports environment can discuss mutual objectives to be reached in a sound and satisfactory manner.

5. *Monitoring of health and education related issues.* It is important for school psychologists to follow closely the sound holistic development of the child and therefore they need to be tooled and empowered to monitor the psychological, physical, and social, spiritual and moral health of child athletes (see Art. 17, 27, and 32). The same applies to the child's right to education (Art. 29) that requires special attention of school psychologists. The passion and pressures that exist in sports make this environment vulnerable to abuse, violence, and exploitation patterns. School psychologists can periodically assess the evolution of the young athlete in his/her holistic development and environment and propose preventive or corrective measures when required. They can also establish research projects to evaluate larger group of athletes that can lead towards improved practices and policies.
6. *Recognize the pivotal role of school psychologists.* School psychologists can play a pivotal role in ensuring respect for child rights in sports as they can assume a neutral position among the varied stakeholder groups with diverse interest related to sports, especially parents, school teachers, sport managers, sponsors, coaches, and trainers. In case of conflict of interests or potential risk of child rights violation, school psychologists can educate and consult all parties and bring impartial and informed perspectives to ensure that decision-making fully respects the rights of the child. School psychologists are ideally placed to mediate when required.

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Part IV

Professional Roles and Responsibilities for Child Rights

Application of Child Rights to School-Based Consultation

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Abstract

Consultation, one of the central roles of a school psychologist, is a strong method for the promotion of child well-being at a public health level (Doll, Cummings, Transforming school mental health services: population-based approaches to promoting the competency and wellness of children. Corwin Press with National Association of School Psychologists, Thousand Oaks, 2008). As an evidenced-based service delivery model, consultation enables school psychologists to use a prevention framework of practice that better serves the needs of entire student populations (Hess et al., Comprehensive children's mental health services in schools and communities: a public health problem-solving model. Routledge, New York, 2012). The United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child continually calls for efforts to ensure the provisions of the United Nations (Convention on the rights of the child. United Nations, Geneva. Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/crc/, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (Convention) are widely known and understood (Committee on the Rights of the Child, Report of the committee on the rights of the child. United Nations, New York. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/documents/ga/docs/55/a5541.pdf, 2000; United Nations, General Assembly, Report on the committee of the rights of the child. A/67/41. Retrieved from http://www.refworld.org/pdfid/50a0cd982.pdf, 2012). This chapter serves to educate school psychologists on the Convention and to demonstrate how the Convention could be integrated into the consultation practice of a school psychologist. Through case examples that utilize primary forms of consultation, the chapter illustrates ways in which the Convention can strengthen the consultation process and improve outcomes for consultees and students. By engaging in consultation with a child rights lens, school psychologists improve the overall quality of their consultation practice as well as their capabilities overall.

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For decades, consultation has been viewed as a method to promote well-being and enhance mental health functioning (Capella, Frazer, Atkins, Schoenwald, & Glisson, 2008). Recently, efforts have been undertaken to establish data-informed assessment of consultation as an evidenced-based practice. Results point to consultation as a strong method for promotion of psychological well-being at a larger public health level and for use as an evidence-based intervention strategy (Doll & Cummings, 2008). Consultation is one of many roles of the school psychologist. As described by Erchul and Sheridan (2008), consultation is an indirect service model involving consultant, consultee(s), and client(s). School consultation most readily seeks to improve the well-being, learning, and/or adjustment of a student (client) or group of students through improvement of the knowledge, skill, and overall capacity of consultees (e.g., teachers, social workers, administrators, parents). Consultants support problem-solving efforts of consultees by providing professional assistance as well as influence. In turn, consultees are better equipped to directly address client (i.e., student) needs, to establish practices that promote client well-being, and to implement evidence-based interventions, as needed.

This chapter demonstrates how the Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations [UN], 1989; subsequently referred to as the Convention) could be integrated into the consultation practice of a school psychologist. First, a short background on the history of consultation and a review of the importance of consultation in school psychology are provided. Next, the role that the Convention could take in consultation is described. Finally, through case examples that utilize common forms of consultation, we demonstrate how to integrate the Convention into consultation and thereby strengthen the consultation process and outcomes.

Historical Context of Consultation

With the aim of enhancing the well-being of a group of disadvantaged youth, Caplan (1970) established consultation as a valid method to promote well-being of a whole population rather than focusing on specific needs of one individual at a time. Caplan first identified the utility of consultation when working with a large immigrant population of children in Israel. He determined that by advising residential instructors and caregivers, rather than attempting to work individually with the thousands of children in need of service, he could be far more effective in meeting needs and promoting psychological well-being of the children (Caplan, 1970). Broadly, Caplanian consultation involved an interactive process between a consultant and consultee that aimed to address problems associated with the treatment of clients and/or the implementation of programs to address the needs of clients. In these ways, the consultation process enhanced the ability of consultees to serve the needs of their clients (Caplan, Caplan, & Erchul, 1994). Since Caplan's (1970) influential work, the field of consultation has flourished and has expanded from an indirect mental health service delivery mechanism to an established practice in many human service areas including psychology, counseling, education, nursing, social work, and business. Research on school-based consultation as an evidence-based practice has also grown (e.g., Erchul & Sheridan, 2008; Kress & Elias, 2013; Meyers, Meyers, & Grogg, 2004). Research supports the effectiveness of school-based consultation as a modality for service delivery (Reddy, Barboza-Whitehead, Files, & Rubel, 2000), enabling school psychologists to move away from the previous test-and-place or wait-to-fail model, which results in the delay of services (Erchul & Mertens, 2010).

Consultation and the Role of the School Psychologist

The consultative role of school psychologists has increasingly gained importance and is now seen as one of the most powerful ways to meet the academic, social-emotional, and behavioral needs of the majority of students at the group and systems level (Burns, 2011; Ysseldyke et al., 2006). Erchul and Martens (2010) define school consultation as collaboration between a consultant (i.e., change agent) and consultee (e.g., school staff). The two entities engage in systematic problem-solving in which the consultant uses social influence and offers professional support and development (Frank & Kratochwill, 2008; Erchul & Martens, 2010). In general terms, consultation has more recently been defined as "using communication and collaboration to facilitate problem solving to address individual or systemic issues and/or facilitate change" (Nastasi & Naser, 2014, p. 8). As such, school consultation may serve corrective, facilitative, preventative, and promotive functions (Erchul & Martens, 2010).

In fact, it is recognized that one of the primary roles of school psychologists is to serve as change agents in the school, and this role involves intentionally changing the beliefs, attitudes, and/or behaviors of others (Erchul & Martens, 2010). The *Paradox of School Psychology* asserts that "to serve children effectively, school psychologists must, first and foremost, concentrate their attention and professional expertise on adults" (Gutkin & Conoley, 1990, p. 212). School psychologists' ability to offer indirect services to individuals who support children is critical. In many contexts, there are not enough trained mental health professionals to provide services to the clients who need it. When individuals who are trained in complementary areas (e.g., teachers) participate in consultation, they are able to gain skills that help them offer quality direct services to children. New skills learned through consultation often generalize to novel or similar problems that arise, thereby increasing the capacity of the individuals and systems that receive consultation (Sheridan & Cowan, 2004).

In this capacity, school psychologists are able to guide teachers and schools in the creation of environments where academic skills are developed, where students feel safe and protected, and where the development of social and emotional competencies are encouraged and supported (Ysseldyke et al., 2006). Due to the emphasis on skill building for the consultee, consultation creates systems that are highly sustainable and have long-term impact (Reddy et al., 2000). Furthermore, by increasing school staff capacity, school psychologists can balance support for immediate problems with support that helps teachers and school officials develop mechanisms to address similar issues at a larger level and put into place systems that better serve all students (Kress & Elias, 2013). In their role as consultants, school psychologists impact a variety of domains that help to facilitate positive growth and optimal functioning (Williams & Greenleaf, 2012).

The Role of the Convention in Consultation

Articles of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) are consistent with the overarching principles of school consultation and goals of school psychologists who are frequently engaged in this process. Specifically, the Convention offers a foundation for policy reform at the national and international level as school psychologists work to promote institutional change that will enhance the well-being of children and youth (Williams & Greenleaf, 2012). The Convention serves as a unifying language that enables school psychologists to articulate a consistent rationale for the protection of children and promotion of their rights. In this way, school psychologists, in particular, in their role as consultants, have the capacity to serve as both guardians of and advocates for the rights of children at the individual, systemic, and broader advocacy levels. The school psychologist as consultant serves in the capacity of a mesosystem, which facilitates interaction between important entities (i.e., microsystems or exosystems; see Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume). In this way, the school psychologist as connector and facilitator helps ensure that child rights are protected and promoted across key contexts. School psychologists serving as consultants are situated at the intersection of the schools, families, and communities they serve and thus are in an excellent position to influence others in ways that result in the protection and promotion of child rights (Capella et al., 2008). School psychologists are uniquely poised to serve in the capacity of consultants, advocates, and protectors.

The International School Psychology Association (ISPA), the major professional organization that influences and represents school psychology worldwide, has enthusiastically endorsed the Convention and supports professional practice consistent with the Convention. ISPA has developed professional standards, outlined in the ISPA Code of Ethics (2011), which are consistent with the Convention (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). These standards specifically recognize the responsibilities of school psychologists to promote and protect child rights within their various roles and at various levels of service delivery. With support from ISPA and with guidance from Dr. Bonnie Nastasi and Dr. Stuart Hart, the Tulane University Child Rights Team developed a workshop curriculum[1] along with online self-study modules that provide foundational instruction on the UNCRC and its potential to improve school psychology practice (see Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", this volume). Additionally, Nastasi and Naser (2014) developed a model for integrating child rights with professional standards and practice in school psychology. Their model helps to facilitate use of the Convention and guide implementation across contexts of professional practice, including consultation.

Consultation inherently involves a collaborative problem-solving process that leads to the development and implementation of effective and culturally, contextually, and developmentally appropriate ways to solve problems and remove barriers (Erchul & Sheridan, 2010). The Convention provides school psychologists in their role as consultants with a lens to explore opportunities for positive change and as a method for influencing others to protect the needs and rights of children. Specifically, the Convention articles can be used as a framework to identify goals for interventions, evaluate services, and develop and monitor policies at a systemic level.

This chapter applies three distinct consultation frameworks: conjoint behavioral consultation, consultee-centered consultation, and Participatory Culture-Specific Consultation. A brief definition of each consultation model is provided within the relevant case study. These three consultation frameworks were selected for their application to the Convention, to the cases described in the chapter, and to school system reform. However, other models of consultation may also be considered for use and for application of a child rights lens. For further investigation of consultation models used by school psychologists, see resources listed in Appendix A.

Case Studies

Case studies are a valuable educational tool commonly used to illustrate and facilitate contemplation of complex topics in one's field of study. They serve to bridge the gap between theory and practice (Barkley, Cross, & Major, 2005). The following case scenarios present opportunities for considering ways to integrate child rights into the consultative work of school psychologists. Utilizing several primary approaches to consultation, the case scenarios demonstrate how to approach consultation using a child rights lens. Each case presents a unique situation, describes a model of consultation that may be used as a framework for problem-solving, and highlights Convention articles and relevant parts of the ISPA Code of Ethics (2011). Readers may benefit from considering situations specific to their practice and how they may apply different models of consultation while incorporating the child rights framework in consultation. Readers may also benefit from considering the following reflective questions as they read each case study.

- How can consultation help build upon the strengths inherent in the children, families, schools, and communities served?
- How can consultation be used to connect systems to remove barriers and facilitate the realization of child rights?
- How can consultation influence broader ecologies and legislation at the local, state, national, and international levels?

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[1] Accompanying this volume is an online training manual for implementation of the curriculum; for information on the self-study modules, contact Bonnie Nastasi, Tulane University, bnastasi@tulane.edu

Case #1: Thomas

Thomas is a 15-year-old tenth grader who was recently diagnosed with schizophrenia. During a period of intensified emotional difficulty, Thomas experienced confused patterns of thought, hallucinations, and behaviors reported as bizarre, some of which were noticed by teachers and classmates. At times, Thomas had outbursts at teachers and expressed fear that classmates were trying to control his actions. Thomas is currently receiving psychiatric care outside of school and takes antipsychotic medications. The school psychologist at the high school Thomas attends was apprised of his diagnosis and has begun offering psychosocial treatments to help Thomas deal with some of the everyday challenges of his illness as well as to facilitate positive relationships at school and home. In her professional role as a consultant, the school psychologist will serve as an intermediary between the school and family.

This instance will utilize a *conjoint behavioral consultation model* (Sheridan & Kratochwill, 2007) in which the school psychologist works with teachers, family members, and the student to meet the needs of the student and to promote psychological well-being. Conjoint behavioral consultation is solution focused and relies on a collaborative problem-solving approach to address academic, social, and/or behavioral needs of students. Individuals (e.g., teachers, parents, school psychologist) engaged in the consultation process collaborate to identify and define problems as well as to conjointly develop plans to address the needs of students. Using a conjoint behavioral model, consultants seek to promote parental engagement, strengthen relationships, and improve positive academic, socioemotional, and behavior outcomes (Sheridan, Clarke, & Burt, 2008). Similar to multisystemic family therapy (Henggeler et al., 2009) and family group conferencing (Robertson, 1996), conjoint behavioral consultation uses a systems perspective to promote change. However, multisystemic family therapy and family group conferencing place direct demands of compliance on the student/youth. Specifically, multisystemic family therapy adopts a treatment orientation (Henggeler et al., 2009) in which therapists work directly with parents and youths, often within the home setting, to address specific and oftentimes severe problematic behaviors with the goal of improving the youth's ability to make decisions and the parent's ability to monitor behavior. Likewise, family group conferencing involves a student/youth who has been involved in an isolated problematic incidence along with other relevant individuals (e.g., parents, teachers, social worker). Family group conferencing aims to address a specific offense that has been perpetrated by the child as well as identify ways for the child to rectify the wrongdoing (Burford & Pennell, 2000). In contrast, conjoint behavioral consultation does not overtly use a treatment orientation. Instead, conjoint behavioral consultation uses a cross- systemic problem-solving framework to promote positive outcomes as well as to strengthen home-school partnerships, which are fundamental to school improvement and to addressing needs of children (Christenson, Whitehouse, & VanGetson, 2008; ISPA, 2011; National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2012). Conjoint behavioral consultation involves multiple steps and numerous discussions to identify the needs of the student as well as to collaboratively develop plans for intervention, implementation, and evaluation.

According to the United Nations, approximately 650 million people have an identified disability, and individuals with disability constitute the world's largest minority. However, only 45 countries have antidiscrimination and other specific laws to protect individuals with disability (UN, 2006). Schizophrenia is relatively rare in comparison to other disabilities, affecting 1.1% of the US population (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2014) and approximately 1% of people worldwide (World Health Organization [WHO], 2016). However, like any disability, the symptoms of schizophrenia and their effects on an individual's functioning can have serious negative consequences if not treated responsibly.

Schizophrenia is a chronic, severe, and disabling brain disorder that affects individuals throughout the world. People with the disorder may hear voices, believe others are trying to control or harm them, and demonstrate unusual behaviors, including delusions and dysfunctional ways of thinking (Asarnow & Kernan, 2008). Family members and members of the broader community play a vital role in the treatment and well-being of an individual with schizophrenia. Specifically, individuals with schizophrenia may have difficulty caring for themselves and meeting school and other daily responsibilities. Consequently, they must rely on others for help. Even though the disorder is serious and can be debilitating, individuals with schizophrenia, as with other disabilities, have deep capacity and potential. Treatment can relieve many symptoms and can help individuals lead productive and meaningful lives in their communalities (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2014).

The school-based mental health provider serving as a consultant has the potential to provide important support for Thomas, his family, and the school. The school psychologist is also well positioned to advocate on behalf of Thomas to ensure his needs are met within both the school environment and community. The articles of the Convention (1989) as well as the ISPA Code of Ethics (2011) have the potential to guide one's practice as a mental health provider, consultant, and advocate to promote and protect Thomas' rights (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). These articles and standards can be utilized as overarching guidelines to follow in one's effort to provide direct service, consultation to teachers and families, and broader systems and community advocacy.

Schizophrenia is a disability that may carry a great deal of social stigma because the disorder poses complex challenges for treatment and the symptoms are often misunderstood (Asarnow & Forsyth, 2013). As a result, children as well as adults with the disorder can be marginalized by their communities. In light of this, it is critically important to advance the concept that children and young people with schizophrenia as well as other disabilities are entitled to specific rights, including considering their best interests (Art. 3), promoting survival and optimal development (Art. 6), nondiscrimination (Art. 2), promoting their participation (Art. 12), and protecting them from harm (Art. 19). Through conjoint behavioral consultation, the school psychologist can ensure Thomas' rights are protected. Along with these overarching guidelines, several other Convention articles are pertinent to Thomas' case.

Specifically, *Article 23* of the Convention states that children with any kind of disability have the right to care and support so they can live full and independent lives. *Article 24* additionally requires that children not only have the right to care and support, but they have the right to *high-quality* healthcare. To that end, *Article 25* maintains that all treatments provided should be thoroughly reviewed for their efficacy and that schools should provide optimal care in a safe environment that preserves the dignity of the child. Bringing together the family and the school utilizing a conjoint behavioral consultation model will ensure that the highest-quality supports are in place for Thomas.

Furthermore, the *Prevailing Ethical Principles: Respect for People's Rights and Dignity* section of ISPA's Code of Ethics (2011) maintains that professionals should strive to ensure that the welfare and dignity of youth they serve be upheld at all times. One way that the school psychologist can uphold Thomas' welfare and dignity is to take precautions to protect his privacy. In accordance with the ISPA Code of Ethics (*Professional Standards: Section II, Confidentiality*) and *Article 16* of the Convention, confidentiality of information should be ensured, and details of Thomas' case and situation should be carefully safeguarded. During consultation with teachers and other school staff, only pertinent information should be shared (i.e., information necessary for meeting Thomas' needs and promoting his well-being).

Article 12 of the Convention provides another way to ensure that Thomas' welfare and dignity may be upheld. Specifically, Article 12 maintains that children have the right to be included in decisions and the right to say what they think should take place. The Convention recognizes that the level of a child's participation must be appropriate to the child's level of ability and maturity, areas in which the school psychologist's expertise can serve to guide involved parties. As decision-making regarding assessment and treatment occurs, the Convention calls for adults to elicit and consider Thomas' opinions, involving him in the decision-making process as much as possible. Treatments that are respectful and have demonstrated efficacy should be selected. The World Health Organization (2016) and the National Institute of Mental Health (2014), among other organizations, offer guidelines and resources for evidence-based treatments and psychosocial interventions as well as culture-specific modifications. Psychosocial treatments are important in helping individuals with schizophrenia develop skills for living with the disorder and learn to cope with its challenges. As the school psychologist working in a consultation role with Thomas and his family, it will be important to specifically help Thomas understand the nature of his disability in order to encourage his active participation in the treatment process, make informed decisions about his own care, and develop skills to help him advocate for himself.

Since the ISPA Code of Ethics (*Professional Practices: Section C1, Colleagues and School Staff*) requires school psychologists to establish working relationships with other professionals and with family members, a conjoint behavioral consultation will best ensure that the most effective treatment options are in order. Once Thomas and his family understand basic facts about schizophrenia, they can develop a plan to prevent and respond to relapse and develop skills to deal with ongoing symptoms. By having Thomas play an active role in intervention, he will be able to use these skills to meet the demands of school, care for himself physically and mentally, and develop and maintain peer relationships. By helping the family develop coping strategies and problem-solving skills as well as connecting them to community resources and supports, the school psychologist will enable family members to make sure that Thomas successfully adheres to treatment and medication regimens.

For example, due in part to his symptom of confused thinking, Thomas may have difficulty maintaining attention in class and completing work within expected parameters. Through conjoint behavioral consultation, the school psychologist will meet with Thomas, his family, and teachers to set realistic goals for academic achievement and concrete steps for achievement. As part of this plan, practices that help manage attention difficulties and that not only consider his individual needs but also protect his rights will be put in place. Some of these practices may include modified Check-In/Check-Out[2] (Dart, Cook, Collins, Gresham, & Chenier, 2012), specific class seating, positive reinforcement, and modifications of task analysis. While such evidence-based practices are not designed to remediate the confused thinking that Thomas experiences, they would target specific observed behaviors and would help teachers, family members, and Thomas in developing skills that can help him to manage his attention and encourage his success in the classroom. During the initial meeting and in further consultation, the school psychologist can educate teachers, parents, and Thomas about potential challenges meeting expectations. Rather than simply applying general behavioral consequences that may be in place at the school, working conjointly, consequences that are closely aligned with Thomas' strengths and needs can be developed.

Case #2: Adrijana

School psychologists can play an important role in buffering the negative effects of displacement on youth. Consider the case of Adrijana, an 11-year-old girl who has been displaced from her home in Croatia due to armed conflict. Adrijana and her family escaped from their home in the middle of the night, sending Adrijana to live with an aunt in a Western country, while her parents stayed behind in an attempt to reestablish jobs and a new home within Croatia. As a result, Adrijana has very limited contact with her parents. Adrijana does not speak the language of her new home, though she is glad to have her aunt for communication support. Adrijana's new teachers have contacted the school psychologist because Adrijana is having significant difficulty concentrating in class and making friends with other students. Subsequently, as a part of the intervention process, the school psychologist has begun to engage in consultation with Adrijana's teachers.

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[2] Check-In/Check-Out is a widely implemented Tier 2 (secondary or targeted) intervention in which students check in with an adult at the start of their school day to assess whether they have the material and mind-set to have a successful day. A daily progress report is used to track student performance throughout the day. At the end of the day, the student checks out with the same adult. A reward system is used to reinforce positive behaviors (Dart et al., 2012).

Tens of thousands of people are displaced each day from their homes due to war, conflict, or natural disaster forcing them to seek shelter in different cities or even countries (United Nations Refugee Agency [UNHCR], 2014). This displacement can have a particularly grievous impact on vulnerable populations such as children. Of the 51 million refugees counted in 2013, over half were under the age of 18 (UNHCR, 2014).

While many youth show great resilience in the face of conflict, the experience of loss and disruption can have a unique negative impact on a child's psychological well-being (Garbarino, Kostelny, & Dubrow, 1991). For example, children who are displaced due to armed conflict are exposed to more traumatic events than those who remain in their homes (Ajdukovic & Ajdukovic, 1993; Thabet, Abed & Vostanis, 2002). Displaced youth are faced with damage to their homes and communities, loss of personal property, and family stressors such as parental job loss. These stressors, along with the lack of stability and uncertainty about when life might return to normal, tax youth's coping efforts and cause additional distress, increasing the risk of mental health problems (La Greca, Silverman, Vernberg, & Prinstein, 1996; Vernberg, La Greca, Silverman, & Prinstein, 1996). Furthermore, displacement from their communities and possible separation from family disrupt social networks that might normally serve as protective factors against the development of mental health disorders such as posttraumatic stress (Vernberg et al., 1996)

In her professional role as a consultant, the school psychologist will work with Adrijana's teachers. She will use *consultee-centered consultation*, a framework in which the school psychologist works to help enhance specific skills of a third party so they can better serve the needs of their students (Hylander, 2012; Sandoval, 2003). A primary task of consultee-centered consultation is to help the consultee consider multiple views of well-being, development, and system-related issues. Improved understanding, knowledge, and skills that lead to increased problem-solving abilities of the consultee are enhanced and the formation of stronger relationships between the consultee and the individuals being served is faciltiated (Knotek, Kaniuka, & Ellingsen, 2008).

The Convention and the ISPA Code of Ethics (2011) provide guidance to the school psychologist on how to work with Adrijana's teachers moving forward. In considering Adrijana's case, the school psychologist recognizes that Adrijana may be in need of extra social support due to her displacement and may be struggling with symptoms of posttraumatic stress (e.g., depressive symptoms, difficulty sleeping, and difficulty with concentration). Her teachers are in a position to serve as supports; however, they have limited knowledge and experience when it comes to working with displaced children. Through consultee-centered consultation, the school psychologist will work with Adrijana's teachers to enhance understanding of ways in which they can support Adrijana.

Since arriving at the school, Adrijana has demonstrated signs of depression including heightened reactivity to teacher feedback, difficulty with concentration, and persistent sadness. Teachers recognize Adrijana's academic capabilities and strengths as a student; however, these issues are affecting her academic success and her ability to connect with peers. Her teachers expressed limited confidence in adequately supporting Adrijana and frustration with working with Adrijana's current family arrangement.

The focus of the *consultee-centered consultation* will be the education of Adrijana's teachers concerning situations faced by displaced children and concerning the effects of trauma and chronic stress on behavior. In individual consultation with teachers, the school psychologist can also identify ways in which teachers can strengthen their relationship with Adrijana and better serve her needs. This would also be an appropriate time to examine teacher views on and experience with serving refugee students.

Several articles of the Convention offer rationale for the necessity of ensuring displaced children's needs are met. First, in order to address confusion about Adrijana's living situation, the school psychologist can introduce teachers to ways in which a child rights lens can help teachers better understand her displacement. *Articles 9* and *10* of the Convention state that a child has a right not to be separated from their parents and a right to be reunified with their parents in case of separation. These articles are a testament to the recognized importance of parental involvement and connection to a child's well-being. *Article 20* states that children deprived of their family environment have the right to special protection, and *Article 22* states that Adrijana has a right to special protection and help due to her refugee status. Although it may be optimal for Adrijana to be with her parents, because of the political situation, this need cannot be currently met. It is all the more important to ensure that Adrijana's current environment includes adequate supports including the promotion of ties with family and encouragement of supportive relationship within her community.

Article 20 of the Convention states that children "in a state of limbo" and displaced without their parents have a right to the best environment possible. In this case, Adrijana's best interests are served by living with her aunt. Her aunt provides social support, continuity of her upbringing, and congruency with Adrijana's cultural and linguistic background. This alternative is much more appropriate than relegating Adrijana to state custody. Therefore, Adrijana's aunt is the best alternative to Adrijana's parents in this case. Adrijana's aunt has shown initiative in working with the school, and the school psychologist will work with teachers to further promote this connection between the school and Adrijana's family. Adrijana's aunt can also act as a cultural broker[3] between Adrijana and the school.

Furthermore, the ISPA Code of Ethics (*Professional Standards: Professional Responsibilities, D.*) emphasizes the need to respect the role of a parent in a child's life. In addition to the consultation promoting the relationship between teachers and Adrijana's aunt, the school psychologist can recommend strategies to teachers for helping Adrijana maintain connection with her parents. For example, the school psychologist may suggest that teachers help Adrijana write letters to her parents and may give teachers skills to facilitate healthy discussions about family rather than shying away from discussions about Adrijana's life prior to relocating. The school psychologist may also make an effort to connect school personnel (e.g., teachers and school administrators) with Adrijana's parents in order to keep them abreast of her academic progress and involve them in educational decisions that affect Adrijana. These attempts can help affirm the importance of Adrijana's parents in her life as well as ensure that the various adults in her life are working together to support her optimal development, learning, and psychological well-being. Adrijana's aunt, serving as cultural broker, may be able to facilitate this communication and provide important information about how best to maintain contact with parents.

Article 2 states that all children should have freedom from discrimination, and *Article 29* states that children have a right to education that promotes full development of potentials and respect for human rights, identity, and democracy. ISPA Code of Ethics (2011) also states that school psychologists "are sensitive to cultural differences and knowledgeable of appropriate ways to provide services within multi-cultural settings" (p. 3). These guides provide rationale for examining teachers' perspectives, including their attitudes and biases on working with refugee children. Although *consultee-centered consultation* is an indirect service model and therefore not designed to provide therapy for teachers (Erchul & Sheridan, 2008), this form of consultation encourages the examination of beliefs held by the consultee. By exploring these perspectives together, teachers can learn more about themselves and grow in their cultural competency (Ivey, Ivey, & Zalaquett, 2010). Adrijana's situation provides an opportunity for the teacher to learn more about Adrijana's culture and about the lived experiences of Adrijana's family and other refugees. The school psychologist can serve as a facilitator of discussion and provide resources to the teacher that would enhance the teacher's cultural competence overall.

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[3] The National Center for Cultural Competence (2004) describes the role of the cultural broker as bridging, linking, and mediating between individuals of different cultural backgrounds. Cultural brokers aim to enhance understanding, reduce conflict, and advocate on behalf a group or individual.

Lastly, the ISPA Code of Ethics (2011) states that while the school-based mental health professional should be working to meet Adrijana's needs, this job is not his or hers alone. The ISPA Code of Ethics states, "School psychologists strive to develop cooperative working relationships with school staff and other colleagues. They recognize the need to function as a member of a team within schools, educational settings, other institutions, and communities" (p. 6). Therefore, integrating Adrijana into the school setting should involve a number of individuals working as a team to promote and protect Adrijana, including a myriad of school professionals. The *consultee-centered consultation* can serve to enhance this team and build the capacity of teachers and staff to better meet Adrijana's needs and enable them to meet the needs of students facing similar situations.

Case #3: Tamilore

School psychologists have the capacity to promote change on a system-wide level and may be called upon to consult with leaders to initiate reform on a local, national, or international level. Consider the case of Tamilore, a 9-year-old girl living in an under-resourced rural village. She is one of many girls with limited access to a primary education. Tamilore has attended school since she was 6 years old. She loves math, learning about history, and seeing her friends at school. In the upcoming year, Tamilore will not return to school because her parents cannot afford to pay for books and school uniforms for both her and her older brother. Since education is considered more important for males in her village, Tamilore's parents have decided that their son will continue attending school and that Tamilore will stay home and contribute to working on the small family farm until she is married. Tamilore's parents wish they could afford to send her to school, but they are also worried about her safety during the 5-mile walk to the school. While Tamilore has pleaded that her brother can keep her safe on the walk, and that she will work on the farm when she is not in school, her parents have made it clear that she simply cannot continue attending school. Systems consultation using the *Participatory Culture-Specific Consultation model* (PCSC), a culturally sensitive action research model (Nastasi, Varjas, Bernstein, & Jayasena, 2000; Nastasi, Moore, & Varjas, 2004), incorporates collaboration between all parties involved, making possible a community effort to address the problems that interfere with Tamilore's educational opportunities.

The PCSC is uniquely designed to incorporate collaboration, evolving processes of change, and cultural sensitivity. The needs, opinions, and perspectives of multiple entities are not only considered but also are central to problem identification. Moreover, in utilizing a PCSC model, consultants recognize that individuals external to the organization may bring unique points of view or knowledge that may help those within the system to identify areas for potential change or improvement.

Much like Tamilore, millions of girls throughout the world do not have the opportunity to complete even a primary education (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] 2013). Although the worldwide gender gap in education is continuously decreasing, there are approximately 4 million more girls out of school than boys (UNESCO, 2013). Primary reasons that contribute to girls not having access to school include gender discrimination, early marriage and pregnancy, funding, child/domestic labor, violence against girls in schools, lack of government schools, lack of proper sanitation facilities, and lack of encouragement (Right to Education Project, 2013). The gender gap in education further exacerbates the worldwide gender disparities in literacy rates, employment opportunities, and income attainment (World Economic Forum, 2014).

The Convention and the ISPA Code of Ethics (*Prevailing Ethical Principles: Respect for People's Rights and Dignity*) provide school psychologists with rationale supporting the importance of advocating for gender equality in the immediate school setting and beyond. The Convention includes a number of articles that focus specifically on the rights of all children to equal access to education and information. *Article 28* of the Convention recognizes that all children have a right to education and explicitly states that primary education should be compulsory and available at no cost to all. *Article 12* states that children have the right to be listened to and taken seriously. Finally, *Article 13* and *Article 17* are key to the protection and promotion of the rights of children and youth to receive appropriate access to information and to have the freedom to share information in a way they choose as long as that information does not damage them or others.

Utilizing the PCSC framework, the school psychologist can form partnerships to include children, ensuring that their right to be heard is protected. Together with community stakeholders, including children, teachers, religious figures, parents, and community organizers, a consultation team can be formed. This team can then work together to identify the specific problem in the community regarding girls' limited access to education and to identify goals. These goals can specifically address the needs of the community and also work toward protecting the children's rights to access education.

In accordance with both the PCSC model and *Article 28*, the school psychologist can collaborate in consultation on educational opportunities that best fit the needs of the community. For instance, the team may consult on the development of options beyond general education, such as vocational education. In addition, the team might advocate for the development of programs that offer financial assistance for students in need. For families such as Tamilore's that need daughters to work during the day, perhaps the community could work toward developing a night school or other option that suits the community culture such as incorporating an educational setting into the workplace (for related recommendations, see Miller & Colebrook, chapter "The Promotion of Family Support", this volume). In addition, school psychologists may work with the community to address other barriers to attendance at school. Systems consultation often expands to a government level. The team might need to work with government agencies to investigate ways to build safer paths to schools or to provide public transportation.

Additional articles of the Convention elaborate upon the right to education and include a full list of freedoms to which all children have the right, regardless of differences in gender or other identifying factors. *Article 29* focuses on the right of a child to develop "personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential." The article expresses that children should be given preparation to live life in a free society. Additionally, *Article 31* states that children have the right "to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts." Furthermore, *Article 17* discusses the rights of all children to have access to information and materials that are aimed at "promotion of social, spiritual, and moral well-being and physical and mental health." All these articles provide support for the promotion of equal rights for males and females in order to facilitate the development, learning, and psychological well-being of all children. The PCSC framework is appropriate for examining and integrating perspectives across cultures (Meyers, Truscott, Meyers, Varjas, & Collins, 2008; Nastasi, 2017). This framework can be used to understand how the Convention articles best apply to this community. By working within the community, culture-specific interventions that protect these rights can be developed and implemented.

In agreement with the goals of advocacy for equal rights supported by the Convention, the ISPA Code of Ethics (2011) states, "psychologists strive to promote and respect the dignity and worth of all people" (p. 2). Within their schools, school psychologists are responsible for promoting the rights of all students and advocating for equal opportunities regardless of individual differences. Furthermore, the ISPA Code of Ethics guides school psychologists to go beyond their immediate schools and work toward social justice for all children stating:

> Consistent with the reciprocal commitment between their profession and society, school psychologists are committed to the principle that all people are entitled access to and benefit from the contributions of school psychology. Thus, they strive to promote free access to educational, social, and psychological services, to promote changes in schools or other educational practice settings that are beneficial to children and youth as well as educational staff, and to minimize biases. (p. 3)

The ISPA Code of Ethics and the Convention strongly support advocacy for gender equality in all settings. In Tamilore's case, to meet these expectations, systems consultation using the PCSC framework can beneficially address the challenges faced by her under-resourced community.

Conclusion

Consultation is an integral part of a school psychologist's work. As the field continues to evolve, consultation has become an increasingly important service model that enables school psychologists to utilize a public health and prevention framework of practice that better serves the needs of entire student populations (Hess, Short, & Hazel, 2012). The Convention provides strong guidance and rationale to school psychologists for promoting the rights and serving the needs of all children.

As part of their consultation work, school psychologists can promote an understanding of child rights to help ensure that schools, families, and educational systems meet the needs of students. The United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child continually calls for greater effort to ensure the provisions of the Convention are known and widely understood (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2000). *Article 42* of the Convention states that governments that have ratified the Convention should make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known to both adults and children alike. School psychologists in their role as consultants have a remarkable opportunity to increase their own and others' knowledge about child rights as well as develop plans for action related to the protection and promotion of child rights.

One way to increase knowledge about the application of the Convention in daily practice is to seek continuing professional development surrounding this topic. ISPA has initiated a project involving several groups to develop child rights training materials for school psychologists. The outcomes of these efforts include a full professional development curriculum (International Institute of Child Rights and Development [IICRD], 2010)[4] and online self-study modules (Tulane University Child Rights Team [TUCRT], 2013) for use in a variety of contexts such as graduate educational institutions and continuing professional development contexts. The curriculum and self-study modules discuss children's rights and needs using an ecological framework, provide information about the Convention and its articles, and examine the varied roles of the school-based mental health professional as a consultant, practitioner, system change agent, and broader advocate. Exploring these professional development opportunities can broaden their knowledge and help them better disseminate information about child rights to others. Furthermore, school psychologists are encouraged to utilize these resources to conduct training sessions with teachers, school staff, administrators, and parents and to encourage children's understanding of their individual rights.

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[4] An accompanying training manual for implementation of the curriculum is available online from Springer; for information about the self-study modules, contact Bonnie Nastasi, Tulane University, bnastasi@tulane.edu

Appendix A

Resources on Consultation Models

Consultation is an integral part of a school psychologist's work. Consultation by school psychologists can serve several purposes, including the development of school-wide prevention and promotion strategies that support student well-being and educational performance, as well as the development of specific interventions for groups or individual students. Consultation generally follows a problem-solving framework and includes the consultant (i.e., school psychologist), consultee (e.g., teacher, allied professional, caregiver), and client (e. g, student).

School psychologists use several models of consultation. Some models focus on academics (e.g., instructional consultation); other models attend to behavioral and social-emotional development. In all models, consultation generally incorporates several common stages: the establishment of a consultative relationship; the operationalization of presenting concerns; the implementation of interventions; and the collection of data for evaluation.

In contrast to individual intervention, consultation has the potential to broaden the impact of school psychologists' applied practice by positively influencing multiple individuals and systems through support around common difficulties. That is, consultation enables the school psychologist to serve a larger proportion of the school population and to promote more long-lasting change because of the resulting increase in knowledge, skills, and self-efficacy of individuals and systems charged with meeting the needs of children.

In this chapter, applications of three types of consultation were illustrated:

- *Conjoint behavioral consultation* (Sheridan et al., 2008; Sheridan & Kratochwill, 2010) – A solution-focused approach that relies on collaborative problem-solving among multiple stakeholders to jointly develop plans to address academic, social, and/or behavioral needs of students. Benefits of this model include parental engagement, strengthened relationships, and improved positive academic, socioemotional, and behavioral outcomes.
- *Consultee-centered consultation* (Knotek et al, 2008) – A facilitative model of consultation that aims to enhance specific skills of the consultee in order to better serve student needs. Through the consultation process, the consultant and consultee work together to build an understanding of social, cultural, psychological, economic, and/or linguistic factors that may relate to areas of concern. Benefits of this model include improved understanding, knowledge, and skills, which lead to the formation of stronger relationships and increased problem-solving abilities of the consultee.
- *Participatory Culture-Specific Consultation model* (PCSC: Nastasi et al., 2000, 2004) – A culturally sensitive, iterative model that integrates research and stakeholder collaboration to identify and address issues of concern. PCSC is rooted in participatory action research and thus views the perspectives of all community members as central to the identification and operationalization of problems as well as to the development, implementation, and evaluation of interventions, all of which ensure key stakeholder involvement when addressing community problems. Benefits of this model include its emphasis on cultural sensitivity as the needs, opinions, and perspectives of multiple entities are considered to be central to problem identification and resolution.

For more information about these and other types of consultation, see further readings listed below.

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The Counseling Field and the Rights of the Children

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Abstract

This chapter reviews the intersection between the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the counseling field. The first section introduces the Convention and highlights its central tenets regarding the mental health of children. This section also discusses the conceptualization of children as holders of their own rights to comprehensive care and reviews the Convention's articles most relevant to the work counseling professionals do in schools. The second section presents different ways in which intentional counseling and microskills can help achieve the goals of the Convention, followed by descriptions of such effective counseling practices. The third section introduces the implications of neuroscience for counseling children, as well as the contribution of neuroscience to social justice. The chapter ends with ways to infuse Convention-based counseling practices in schools and in counseling children.

The 25th anniversary celebration of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention; UN, 1989) commemorated a historic commitment of the United Nations to the wellbeing of children around the world. The Convention is anchored in the conviction that every child is born with the right to survival, food and nutrition, health and shelter, education, participation, equality, and protection. Also foundational was the realization that children under the age of 18 require special legal protections (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, UNICEF, n.d.).

The Convention offers a set of non-negotiable standards and obligations organized in 54 articles and two optional protocols (see Appendix of this volume). The four core principles of the Convention are (a) nondiscrimination; (b) devotion to the best interests of the child; (c) the right to life, survival, and development; and (d) respect for the views and opinions of the child (UNICEF, 2015). Helping children reach their full potential is at the pinnacle of the Convention (UNICEF, 2014e; see Article 29).

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UNICEF believes that helping children reach their potential will positively impact humanity's progress and reduce poverty. This is especially important as children represent the largest percentage of the world's impoverished population. Accordingly, early investments in children's physical, intellectual, and emotional development, as well as the removal of the barriers affecting their physical and mental health, should be a universal priority given their central role in the future of our societies and the betterment of our world (UNICEF, 2015).

The work of school psychologists, school counselors, school social workers, teachers, and administrators seems related to many of the Convention articles. Surprisingly and in spite of the existence of the Convention since 1989, we found almost no direct reference to the internationally accepted Convention in the codes of ethics of these professions. A similar observation has been made by Wood and Bond (2014) regarding the ethics code of school psychologists. The professional guidelines of school psychologists are somewhat consistent with those in the Convention, but consistency is implicit, rather than explicitly defined (Woods & Bond, 2014), and lacks the specificity of the Convention articles (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). Furthermore, many new publications in these fields never reference the 26-year-old Convention.

This chapter reviews the relevance of the Convention for counseling children and adolescents and discusses ways in which current counseling skills and practices could be guided by the Convention. Counseling has been described as a set of theories of counseling (see Seligman & Reichenberg, 2013) and a set of transtheoretical skills and practices (see Ivey, Ivey, & Zalaquett, 2014, 2015, 2018; Zalaquett, Ivey, & Ivey, 2019). Both descriptions are essential as it is necessary to learn the conceptual foundation of counseling and to master the skills and interventions that emerge from these theories for effective practice (Ivey et al., 2014, 2015, 2018; Zalaquett et al., 2019). For the purposes of this chapter, counseling refers to counseling skills and practices.

The implementation of the Convention has the potential to advance and significantly impact the integration of social justice into counseling practice. As eloquently stated by Hart and Hart (2014), the integration of children's rights in policy and practice has the potential to move us "beyond reactive problem oriented interventions to give primacy to proactive promotion of the wellbeing and full holistic development of the child, employing a prospective human development model emphasizing progressive achievement of self-stewardship for all children" (p. 6). Furthermore, Convention-guided counseling practices may have the potential to advance the profession nationally and internationally.

What Is the Convention on the Rights of the Child?

The Convention is an international treaty that recognizes the human rights of children, defined as persons up to the age of 18 years. The Convention is the most widely ratified human rights treaty in history with 196 countries ratifying the document (UN, 2019; UNICEFUSA, 2015). The Convention establishes that States parties voluntarily adopting the Convention must ensure that all children, without discrimination in any form, benefit from special protection measures and assistance; have access to services such as education and physical and mental health care; can develop their personalities, abilities, and talents to the fullest potential; grow up in an environment of happiness, love, and understanding; and are informed about and participate in achieving their rights in an accessible and active manner.

States parties agree to hold themselves accountable before the international community. The United States played an active role in drafting the Convention and eventually signed the document but has not yet ratified (UN, 2019). Around the world, the Convention has served to advance the best interest of children within an ecological context that includes the communities and societies that surround them (Hart & Hart, 2014).

The Convention gives emphasis to the physical, mental (i.e., psychological), social, spiritual, and moral domains of child development, and the right to healthcare, education, protection, and the time and space to play (UN, 1989; UNICEF, 2014b). The Convention asserts the right of all children to requisite physical, psychological, spiritual, social, and cultural needs to ensure optimal growth, development, physical health, psychological wellbeing, and learning. “The rights contained in the Convention represent officially recognized obligations to children—a bedrock of universal values to be applied to all children, in all sectors of life, by all persons, at all times” (Hart & Shriberg, 2014). According to the Convention, the human rights of children are the responsibility of adults (e.g., parents, educators, mental health professionals) and societies (e.g., governments, agencies, policy makers). Children are to be treated as human beings, with their own voice, who deserve to be heard and should play an active role in the decisions made about them (UN, 1989).

Since its inception, the Convention has had a positive international impact. Some notable accomplishments of the Convention are the significant reduction in the child mortality rate and violence and neglect perpetrated on millions of children around the world, an improved consensus of the definition of childhood across states, a rising enrollment in schools, and a movement toward listening to the views of children (UNICEF, 2014a). For the first time in 2006, child mortality fell to 9.7 million, which was less than half the number who died before reaching the age of 5 in 1960 (Worldwatch Institute, 2015). These are significant accomplishments and represent the collective efforts of the parties involved in the Convention. Still today, about 17,000 children under the age of 5 die every day from mostly preventable causes; in some countries, girls are kept from schools to do house chores; 16.2% of US children live in poverty (US Census Bureau, 2019); and many children are the subjected to a variety of different forms of abuse, violence, and trauma (Bissell, 2014). Although significant achievements have been made, there are still many contributions and much progress to be made. The recent anniversary of the Convention provides an impetus to review the role of counseling and the ways it aligns with the Convention; the ways in which counseling can be informed by the Convention; and the ways in which counseling can serve to advance children’s rights, promote children’s best interests in schools, protect them from harm, and support their physical, emotional, psychological, spiritual, and social wellbeing.

Defining the Child Rights Approach

The conceptualization of child rights is respectfully expressed in the guidelines provided by the United Nations Statement on a *Common Understanding of a Human Rights-Based Approach to Development Cooperation* and by the Committee on the Rights of the Child (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013). As indicated by Nastasi (2013), the human rights-based approach (a) furthers the realization of child rights as laid down in the Convention and other international human rights instruments; (b) uses child rights standards and principles from the Convention and other international human rights instruments to guide behavior, actions, policies, and programs (in particular nondiscrimination; the best interests of the child; the right to life, survival, and development; the right to be heard and taken seriously; and the child’s right to be guided in the exercise of his/her rights by caregivers, parents, and community members, in line with the child’s evolving capacities); and (c) builds the capacity of children as rights holders to claim their rights and the capacity of duty-bearers to fulfill their obligations to children. Schools and organizations that embrace a human rights education reflect and promote human rights such as nondiscrimination and inclusion, dignity and respect, accountability, participation, and empowerment of learners, educational staff, and parents (OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights, Guidelines on Human Rights Education for Secondary School Systems, 2012, p. 21).

The New Vision of the Child Advanced by the Convention

The Convention provides support and guidance toward a paradigm shift in the way children are counseled and highlights the responsibility of adults and societies in supporting children's achievement of their full development, while establishing their non-negotiable rights. The new vision of the child offered by the Convention establishes the child's needs as legally binding rights. In this view, children and adolescents are neither the property of their parents nor are they helpless objects of charity. They are not passive recipients of benefits or objects of negotiable rights. They are human beings and are the holders of their own rights. Every child is an individual and a member of a family and a community, with rights and responsibilities appropriate to his or her age and stage of development. Recognizing children's rights in this way firmly sets a focus on the whole child (UNICEF, 2014c). This new vision highlights the importance of providing counseling services to all children in need and establishes that it is their right to receive such services.

The Convention in Schools

Nastasi (2013) suggests the following Convention articles as most relevant to the work school psychologists, counselors, and educators do in schools:

Article 2. Nondiscrimination regardless of individual characteristics
Article 3. Best interests of child considered, protected, and wellbeing ensured
Article 5. Respect for parental rights to provide guidance, consistent with the child's evolving capacity
Article 6. Right to life, maximum survival, and development
Article 12. Respect for views of child, right to be listened to and taken seriously
Article 16. Right to privacy
Article 17. Right of access to information
Article 19. Right to protection from all forms of violence
Article 23. Right of children with disabilities to special care and support
Article 28. Right to education and respectful school discipline; states/governments to encourage regular attendance and reduce dropout rates
Article 29. Goals of education—promote full development of potentials, respect for human rights, identity, and democracy
Article 31. Right of access to recreation and play (artistic, cultural)
Article 42. Must make the principles and provisions widely known to adults and children

(See Appendix of this volume for a full list of the Convention articles and optional protocols).

Counseling work conducted in any educational context (e.g., public, private, religious) could embrace the Convention standards to promote children's psychological (i.e., cognitive, affective, volitional) and physical wellbeing. School community professionals (e.g., school psychologists, school counselors, school social workers, educators, and administrators) can collaborate to offer the most effective models to educate children and promote their development in a comprehensive way. These school professionals could educate and collaborate with community service providers, agencies, and parents to offer wraparound services to children that embrace the guidelines of Convention. Convention-guided services have the potential to make schools the catalysts for community participation on behalf of the children.

The Counseling Field, Microskills, and Intentional Counseling

Counseling is an interpersonal process, generally concerned with helping people of all ages and backgrounds cope with the issues and opportunities they encounter. Counseling is often associated with the professional fields of school psychology, school counseling, clinical mental health counseling, social work, teaching, and leadership, but many others use the "attending" skills and the "influential" skills associated with counseling (Ivey et al., 2015).

Listening is the foundation of counseling and is central to the first goal of counseling in schools: enabling students to tell their stories. Through narrative exploration, students can be guided to rewrite their stories and act on their stories and concerns in new ways. The initial task of the counseling process is to expand students' possibilities for intentional response and action (Ivey et al., 2014). Figure 1 presents the listening and influencing microskills—communication skills of counseling that help interact more intentionally with others to effect change.

The microskills figure (Fig. 1) summarizes the successive steps of intentional counseling. The foundation of these skills is informed by ethics, multicultural competence, wellness, neuroscience, and positive psychology. The figure illustrates the progressive process of utilization of the basic counseling skills, the five-stage structure of the counseling interview, and advanced counseling skills. The first part of the figure presents the microskill of attending behavior followed by observation skills. These are followed by the basic listening skills of questioning, paraphras-

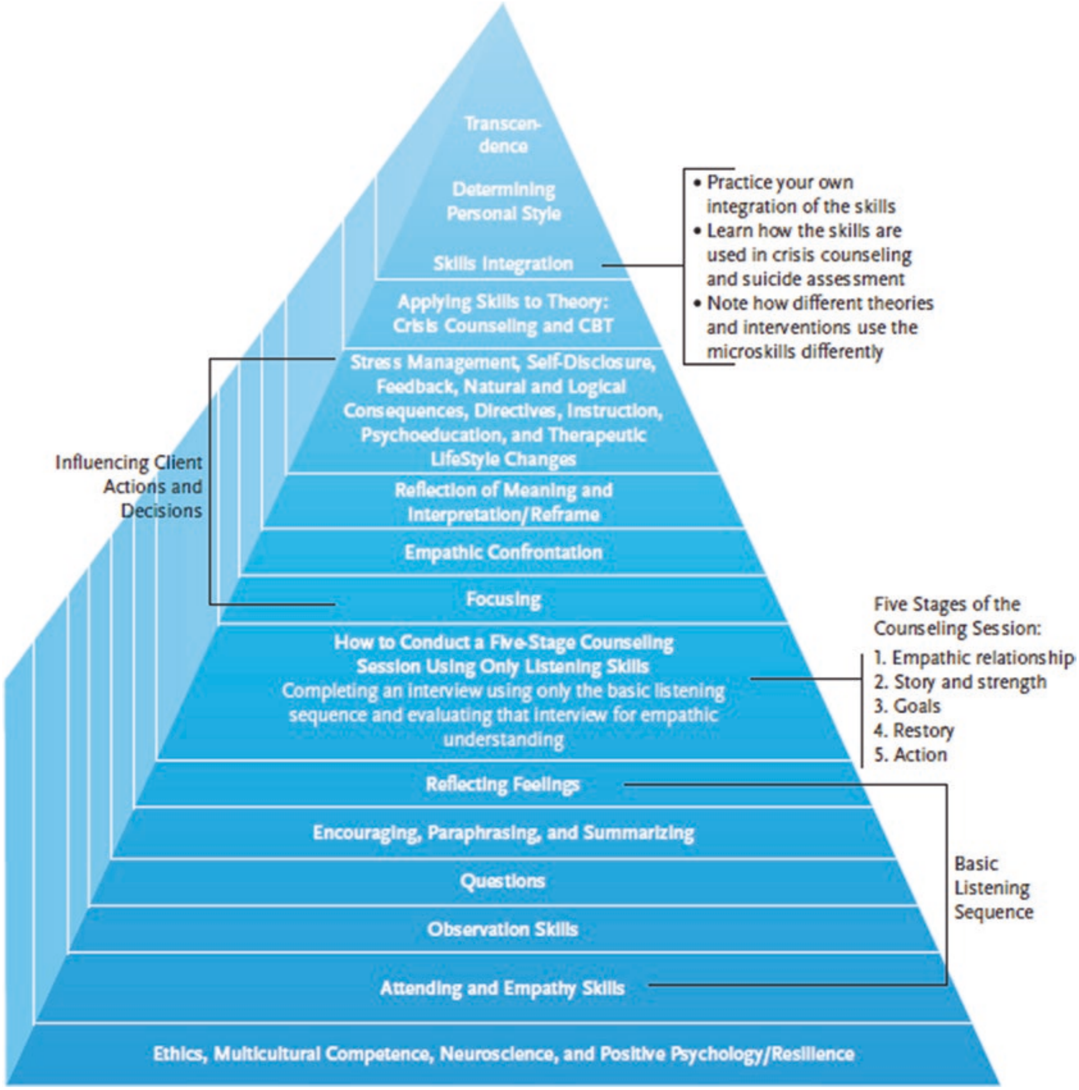
Transcen-dence
Determining Personal Style
Skills Integration
Applying Skills to Theory: Crisis Counseling and CBT
Stress Management, Self-Disclosure, Feedback, Natural and Logical Consequences, Directives, Instruction, Psychoeducation, and Therapeutic LifeStyle Changes
Reflection of Meaning and Interpretation/Reframe
Empathic Confrontation
Focusing
How to Conduct a Five-Stage Counseling Session Using Only Listening Skills
Completing an interview using only the basic listening sequence and evaluating that interview for empathic understanding
Reflecting Feelings
Encouraging, Paraphrasing, and Summarizing
Questions
Observation Skills
Attending and Empathy Skills
Ethics, Multicultural Competence, Neuroscience, and Positive Psychology/Resilience
• Practice your own integration of the skills
• Learn how the skills are used in crisis counseling and suicide assessment
• Note how different theories and interventions use the microskills differently
Influencing Client Actions and Decisions
Five Stages of the Counseling Session:
1. Empathic relationship
2. Story and strength
3. Goals
4. Restory
5. Action
Basic Listening Sequence

Fig. 1 The microskills hierarchy. (© 2018 Allen E. Ivey. Reproduced courtesy of Cengage Publisher)

ing, reflecting of feelings, and summarizing. The five-stage structure provides a framework for integrating the microskills into a complete counseling session and provides a system to use in consultation and additional services. Finally, the influencing skills to help children explore personal and interpersonal conflicts are shown. Focusing on the contextual elements of the issues would help reveal and promote sensitivity to cultural and contextual variables related to the child's concerns. Empathic confrontation would foster growth and change. Interpretation/reframing, feedback, self-disclosure, and logical consequences would help highlight possibilities for influencing students more directly and, in turn, promote action (Ivey et al., 2018). (See Ivey et al., 2014, 2018, for a description of each of the microskills and their anticipated outcomes.)

The microskills, which are used in various degrees by all counseling and psychotherapy theories (Ivey et al., 2015; Zalaquett et al., 2019), can be applied to all levels of the school and surrounding socio-ecological systems, such as those described in Bronfenbrenner's ecosystem model: the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, the macrosystem, and the chronosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). Furthermore, counseling skills are used within each of the school psychology roles described by Nastasi and Varjas including (a) consultation, (b) intervention and prevention, (c) research and evaluation, (d) assessment, (e) administration, and (f) advocacy (2013, pp. 38–39). Counseling and the counseling microskills are ubiquitous to all of the professions and practices mentioned above and the practice roles in which these professionals engage. Additionally, these skills are applicable to all levels of the ecosystem in which schools are embedded and to each of the levels of intervention in schools and communities. Although not stated explicitly, counseling can help and has helped in the implementation of actions guided by the Convention.

An example of the utilization of these skills in line with guidelines set by the Convention is the use of counseling skills to help children and families affected by HIV (Ivey et al., 2014). Subsequently, the Convention's guiding principles can be useful for all school community professionals and other stakeholders to inform their practice, professional development, service, and research. Protecting children and adolescents from contracting HIV, and providing essential medical and social services to those affected by HIV and AIDS, is necessary for the exercise of these children's rights. In the context of HIV and AIDS, the right to health (Article 24) is indeed key, but the impact of HIV/AIDS affects all the children's rights—civil, political, economic, social, and cultural. The children's rights to nondiscrimination (Article 2); to have their interests be a primary consideration (Article 3); to life, survival, and development (Article 6); to have their views respected (Article 12); and to receive an education (Article 28) offer major guidance at all levels of HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care, and support. These articles have the potential to guide the formulation and promotion of child-oriented, strategies, laws, policies, and programs to combat the spread and mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS at national and international levels.

Convention-Informed Counseling

The counseling field and the implementation of counseling skills are informed by a number of constituents such as professional organizations, legislations, funding sources, and accreditation, licensing, and certification bodies. Some of these entities, such as those establishing professional ethical guidelines, display similar aspirations and practices suggested by the Convention (Garbarino & Briggs, 2014; Nastasi & Naser, 2014). However, current professional guidelines, although well intended, do not cover all of the articles nor adhere to the international perspective of the Convention (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). Additionally, in spite of the intentions of current professional guidelines, the focus on the rights of the children is not sufficiently evident or specific. These conditions limit the understanding and implementation of child rights (Nastasi & Naser, 2014).

The Convention specifically, and in a nonnegotiable way, promotes and protects the survival, development, and wellbeing of children, extending human rights to individuals from birth to age 18. To address several of the existing barriers to recognizing child rights and social justice, Nastasi (2013) summarizes some of the primary barriers to the implementation of the Convention:

1. Tradition and attitudes toward children: Adult knows best, discriminatory attitudes.
2. Children's invisibility: Ignored impact of governance on children; lack of children's voices.
3. Economic constraints: Poverty, lack of access.
4. Lack of democratic traditions: Law and policy to implement Convention; limited child representation.

School community professionals have a significant responsibility to modify these barriers, protect the rights of children, and ensure the guidelines of the Convention inform their practice. Hart and Hart (2014) and Nastasi (2013) suggest that adopting the Convention may help achieve the Convention's goals: "To make the vision of the convention a reality for every child, it must become a guiding document for every human being" (UNICEF, 2010, p.73).

The Convention, with its social justice and ethical principles, provides guidelines for ensuring and advocating for the promotion and protection of the health, wellbeing, education, and safety of children worldwide. The Convention could inform ethical decision-making, research, practice, and professional development in school psychology, school counseling, and other school professionals. Thus, the Convention could guide the interpretation and implementation of professional standards (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). By doing so, these professionals will give rise to Convention-guided counseling.

Using Convention-Guided Counseling Skills and Practices

School community professionals are uniquely qualified and positioned at the intersection of school, family, community, and society to promote and protect child rights. As stated earlier, Convention goals (UNICEF, 2015) are child-centered. The Convention's main goal is to provide all children the opportunity to survive, develop, and reach their full potential, without discrimination or bias. The Convention sees children as the direct holders of rights that are non-negotiable. Every child is an individual and a member of a family and a community, with rights and responsibilities appropriate to his or her age and stage of development. Furthermore, adults and governments are held responsible for the wellbeing and positive development of children who need to be heard and involved in this process. The Convention offers the strongest framework for most, if not all, the work school community professionals do.

Using Convention-guided counseling and the counseling microskills, school community professionals can exert an impact on each of the current areas of the UNICEF's strategic plan for 2014–2017 (UNICEF, 2014d):

1. Health
2. HIV and AIDS
3. Water, sanitation, and hygiene
4. Nutrition
5. Education
6. Child protection
7. Social inclusion

The following examples illustrate national and international applications of Convention-guided counseling in each of these areas.

Health A key objective in the area of health is to reduce the rate of mortality in children under the age of 5 years through improved and equitable use of high-impact maternal, newborn, and child health interventions from pregnancy to adolescence and through the promotion of healthy behaviors. Use of counseling microskills such as listening, questioning, checkouts (or questions to ensure accuracy of our responses), the five-stage structure of the counseling session, and psychoeducation can prove successful in educating young mothers about best child-protective behaviors, learning about felt barriers, and ensuring mothers' understanding and commitment to action. The five-stage counseling session can be utilized to demonstrate empathy and draw out the strengths in the story of mothers. The counseling process can be integrated with medical practices to provide wraparound services for mothers' prenatal, during, and postnatal care (Dossett, Shoemaker, Nasatir-Hilty, Daly, & Hilty, 2015). School mental health providers can collaborate with pediatricians to provide mothers with the best physical and mental healthcare. This could include mental health providers and pediatricians educating each other on the various social, emotional, and physical experiences mothers are encountering. In turn, these professionals can use psychoeducation to promote the adoption of evidence-based healthy behaviors such as exercise in young mothers (Prather, Spitznagle, & Hunt, 2012). For instance, counselors can inform clients about the mental health benefits of exercise during pregnancy for both the mother and the child, including decreased depression and anxiety in mothers (Perales, Refoyo, Coteron, Bacchi, & Barakat, 2015; Shivakumar et al., 2011) and potentially improved neurodevelopment in infants (Prather et al., 2012). Such interventions exemplify application of articles such as *Article 5*, Parental guidance; *Article 6*, Survival and development; *Article 18*, Parental responsibilities, state assistance; and *Article 19*, Protection from all forms of violence.

HIV and AIDS Preventing new HIV infections and increasing the use of proven HIV prevention and treatment interventions are a major goal in this area. Implementing a microskills approach when counseling a client with HIV means understanding and working through the client's emotional distress associated with the diagnosis and drawing strengths from the client's story (Blonna, Loschiavo, & Watter, 2011). These efforts are supported by the Convention *Article 5*, Parental guidance, and *Article 24*, Health and health services.

Microskills of counseling have been used effectively in the education of mothers with HIV and the training of health workers. An example of effective counseling and its potential to positively impact HIV prevention efforts are described in a study by Sagna and Schopflocher (2015). In sub-Saharan Africa, childhood HIV infection accounts for 91% of the 3.4 million HIV-positive children in the world (Sagna & Schopflocher). Sagna and Schopflocher report that, often, children acquire the HIV virus via mother-to-child transmission (MTCT), referring to periods of pregnancy, birth, or breastfeeding. To address this epidemic, many sub-Saharan countries have developed an antenatal care routine that includes HIV counseling and testing (Sagna & Schopflocher). HIV pretest counseling includes educating mothers about safe behaviors, MTCT, and the benefits of being tested; additionally, pretest counseling has been found to increase consent to HIV testing (Sagna & Schopflocher). Thus, using the microskills to connect with mothers with HIV and then utilizing psychoeducation around MCTC and safe behaviors during and after pregnancy could have an impact on preventing future HIV infections. Furthermore, guided by a social justice perspective, these professionals could use these microskills to advocate and educate about safe behaviors within the larger community surrounding the school. School mental health professionals can offer groups for mothers and parents, work with school health professionals to provide health screenings, and work with administrators and teachers to promote safe behaviors among students and parents alike. Such interventions exemplify application of articles such as *Article 2*, Nondiscrimination; *Article 5*, Parental guidance; and *Article 24*, Health and health services.

Water, sanitation, and hygiene The main goals here are to eliminate open defecation, increase the use of safe drinking water through improved and equitable access to safe drinking water sources, and improve hygiene practices. Dangour et al. (2013) report that in low-income countries, chronic undernutrition impacts an estimated 165 million children under the age of 5 years and acute undernutrition effects 52 million children. Chronic undernutrition leads to decreased height, and acute undernutrition leads to thinness—both forms of poor growth lead to increased risk of illness and death in children (Dangour et al., 2013). Multiple factors lead to undernutrition, one being diarrhea, an infectious disease connected to poor water, sanitation, and hygiene (Dangour et al., 2013). The use of psychoeducation and logical consequences around the connection between child undernutrition and poor water, sanitation, and hygiene can be used to promote interventions, such as hand washing (Ejemot-Nwadiaro, Ehiri, Meremikwu, & Critchley, 2008), which could lead to decreased transmission of infectious diseases like diarrhea and meeting the goals outlined by UNICEF. The role of the school community professionals in furthering these efforts is essential as they can facilitate the learning of these issues, raise awareness about self-advocacy behaviors, and assist in the development of action plans and active implementation by children and parents. School community professionals can provide information to children that they can understand. This might include a school-wide program that emphasizes hygiene and healthy eating behaviors. These practices exemplify the following Convention articles in action: *Article 3*, Best interests of the child; *Article 4*, Protection of rights; *Article 6*, Survival and development; *Article 17*, Access to information; and, *Article 27*, Adequate standard of living.

Nutrition A major goal is to support global efforts to reduce undernutrition through improved and equitable use of nutritional support and improved nutrition and care practices. Undernutrition refers to stunting, wasting, and malnutrition, as well as obesity or overconsumption (Onis, Ezzati, Mathers, & Rivera, 2008). Onis et al. (2008) report that maternal undernutrition could lead to increased risk of pregnancy complications such as the need for caesarean delivery or intrauterine growth restriction, which increases the chance of stillbirth. Undernutrition negatively impacts children, with 21% of children under 5 years of age dying from intrauterine growth restriction low birth weight, stunting, and wasting (Onis et al., 2008). School community professionals can contact local farms to promote the idea of sustainable farming where the school works together to grow their own healthy foods and advocate and collaborate with local and international resources to provide funds to carry out these efforts. In addition, implementing the skills of psychoeducation and logical consequences, as well as using counseling interventions such as the Therapeutic Lifestyle Changes or TLCs (Ivey et al., 2015), has the potential to reduce undernutrition through increased understanding of personal and systemic barriers to healthy diets and increased awareness of and access to resources (Ivey et al., 2015). Examples of TLC include exercise, nutrition, meditation, cultural health, and helping others. Many students and their families, regardless of race or ethnicity, are hungry, abused, or suffering from trauma. Perhaps some of the family members may be stressed, unemployed, or seriously ill. These clients may consider it a luxury to find the time to study better nutrition, to exercise, or, particularly, to meditate. Mental health and other school community professionals can invite nutritionists and other specialist to teach the basics of nutrition or other health-related matters. Furthermore, mental health professionals can help students alleviate stress or achieve greater resilience by encouraging exercise, deep breathing, visual imaging of family strengths, short relaxation training, or engagement in helping others which builds compassion and changes the way the brain functions (Fowler & Christakis, 2010; Seppala, Rossomando, & Doty, 2013). TLCs are best implemented after a student feels safe in the relationship, and counselors have learned through listening to their stories of challenges and strengths. Counseling needs to start with the listening microskills. Once their story is brought out and goals and alternatives are explored through the influencing skills, students and parents need to move to generalization and action. This includes homework and action plans. Such practices exemplify the following Convention articles in action: *Article 3*, Best interests of the child; *Article 4*, Protection of rights; *Article 6*, Survival and development; *Article 17*, Access to information; *Article 24*, Health and health services; and *Article 27*, Adequate standard of living.

Education To provide access to quality education for both boys and girls through improved learning outcomes and equitable and inclusive education are essentials goals here. The use of all of the microskills in schools has been supported by research (Ivey et al., 2014, 2015). Velsor (2004) also asserted that microskills help counselors to act more purposefully with children. Encouraging, paraphrasing, summarizing, and attending behavior might be helpful for school community professionals working with children. All of these microskills respect Article 12, the right of the children's views to be heard and considered, and the Convention's emphasis on the evolving capacities of the children. In this context, children can learn how to live more effectively with situations that they cannot change such as war, rape, death, an accident, and a chronic illness (Ivey et al., 2015). In addition to *Article 12*, these practices exemplify the following Convention articles in action: *Article 3*, Best interests of the child; *Article 6*, Survival and development; *Article 17*, Access to information; *Article 27*, Adequate standard of living; *Article 28*, Right to education; *Article 29*, Goals of education; and, *Article 38*, War and armed conflicts.

Child protection The global efforts here are to prevent violence, abuse, exploitation, and neglect (Article 19) through improved and equitable prevention and child protection systems. Abuse and violence against children are observed around the world; thus, the ultimate goal here is to free children from all forms of violence, as no form of violence against them is seen as justifiable. School community professionals can help create a secure environment for all children (Article 2), including homeless children, in which they can receive support, which is essential for their wellbeing and academic success (Daniels, 1992; United Nations, 2011). Again, use of the microskills for education, prevention, and treatment is essential here. Hearing children (Art. 12) affected by trauma or neglect provides the foundation for a successful and collaborative relationship and opens the door for effective processing and recovery. The microskills of questioning, summarizing, and reframing have central roles in some of the most effective treatments for children. Moreover, the use of the five-stage counseling session, a framework for trauma-focused counseling behavioral intervention for children, may aid in the implementation of this approach (Cohen, Mannarino, & Deblinger, 2006). School community professionals use of the microskills and the legal and ethical guidelines applicable should help create a safe context for children to report instances of aggression, physical and sexual abuse, bullying, or trauma (See U.N., 2011, The right of the child to freedom from all forms of violence, for a detailed discussion of violence against children and its prevention and treatment.) Such practices exemplify the following Convention articles in action: *Article 2*, Nondiscrimination; *Article 3*, Best interests of the child; *Article 4*, Protection of rights; *Article 6*, Survival and development; *Article 12*, Right to be heard; *Article 17*, Access to information; *Article 24*, Health and health services; and, *Article 27*, Adequate standard of living.

Social inclusion Global efforts to reduce child poverty and discrimination against children through improved policy environments and systems for disadvantaged children represent the core objectives in this section (Article 2). Poverty has deleterious impacts on children and adolescents' wellbeing, academic achievement, social development, and victimization of bullying (Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997; Engle & Black, 2008; Tippett, & Wolke, 2014). Counseling, social work, and other human development and relationship related professions are inherently social justice professions that can work collaboratively to reduce disparity. For example, the elementary school counselor can work with school officials to set up policies against bullying and harassment, and the counselor in the community agency might act as advocates with the children experiencing abuse (Ivey et al., 2015). All of the microskills will serve to empower, reduce vulnerability, and build resilience of children and parents to external challenges. Additionally, implementation of the microskills may help enhance culturally sensitive responses to those affected by poverty or discrimination.

Counseling advocacy, counseling for social justice, multicultural counseling, and best practices for establishing school and community partnerships are also essential to achieve UNICEF's (2014d) strategic plan. Counseling advocacy involves systems change interventions, as well as the implementation of empowerment strategies to help students understand their own lives in context and become self-advocates (Art. 12 and 29) (Lewis, Arnold, House, & Toporek, 2002). According to Lewis and colleagues, through counseling, students can identify their strengths and resources; identify the social, political, economic, and cultural factors that affect them; recognize systemic or internalized oppression and barriers; and develop and implement self-advocacy action plans. The model for establishing school–family–community partnerships presented by Bryan and Henry (2012) offers another example of effective comprehensive counseling interventions on behalf of children.

According to Nastasi and Naser (2014), the use of the Convention for guiding interventions, ethical decision-making, professional preparation, and practice adds greater specificity regarding child rights (e.g., expanding content to include issues covered by Convention Art. 1–42). Infusing the child rights into the implementation of counseling microskills and interventions would enhance the protection of children and facilitate their development. Furthermore, the use of Convention-based counseling skills and interventions can advance their integration into our professional practices.

Implications of Neuroscience and Neurobiology for Child Counseling

As mentioned above, Nastasi and colleagues denote the importance of using the articles of the Convention as guiding principles for counseling interventions. An example of this concept is the integration of neuroscience and neurobiology as underpinnings to inform counseling interventions used with children and adolescents in school and community settings. Counseling and education change the brain. New and useful neural connections are made through every lesson of the session, if the work is effective (Zalaquett & Ivey, 2014, 2018). The rapid movement toward integrating neuroscience and neurobiology into the training of educators and counselors (Ivey et al., 2014, 2018) demonstrates current efforts to ensure empirically supported practices are used in the treatment and education of children. In the following section, we discuss the neuroscience behind learning and decision-making in children and how these developments in the field are supported by the articles of the Convention.

Some Physiological Background of Learning and Executive Functioning

The attentional system is an excellent example of how neuroscience can inform teaching, counseling, and psychotherapy. According to Petersen and Posner (2012), we need to think of three aspects of attention and memory—alerting, orienting, and executive functioning—as described in this section.

Alerting Sensory attention must come first. The counselor provides a stimulus that is recognized by perceptual systems of seeing and hearing. Sight is important as it conveys critical nonverbal modifiers such as body language, and we learn best if we use a prosodic vocal tone appropriate to the cultural background of the child. These sensory perceptions are picked up by the brainstem and the energizing amygdala, but the input must be such that the energizing amygdala is actually activated, which usually means "interesting and stimulating." Alerting impressions remain in the brain typically less than a second, although powerful stimuli can be picked up and remembered for long periods, due to their strong activation. In both counseling and teaching, getting this basic sensory attention needs to come first and the importance of immediate attention can easily be lost—after all, it is less than a second.

In working with children, maintaining alertness and vigilance is ultimately tiring to the prefrontal cortex, and the ability to learn, remember, *and* think is reduced. This concept was illustrated in an Israeli study that found that judges gave both Jewish and Palestinians before them shorter sentences in the morning (Danziger, Leva, & Avnaim-Pesso, 2011). Subsequent research studies have illustrated that due to the developing nature of the specific parts of their brain, children tire as the day moves along (Best & Miller, 2010; Korkman, Kemp, & Kirk, 2001). Finland, as an example, works against this by ensuring that children have 15 min of playtime each hour, thus producing one of the highest educational outcomes (Miller & Almon, 2009). It can be said that the US school system is "de-alerting" our children, and their brains pay a price.

Orienting We prioritize sensory information by selecting where to put it. Information is passed on through the limbic system to the prefrontal cortex and, hopefully, through the memory system of the hippocampus to be stored throughout the brain. Short-term memory follows, which we really need to think of as necessary for sensory perceptions to stick. Research reveals that we can hold seven plus or minus two items for about 10 s, but others suggest only five plus or minus two. At this point, information is either lost or passed on to other parts of the brain. This suggests that there is real need to keep presentations basic and add complexities after a foundation is established. Repetition is typically needed to ensure that data goes into long-term memory.

Executive functioning With this foundation, it is important to consider executive functioning, where we develop inferences about objects of attention, make decisions, balance emotion and cognition, and work through conflict. It is here that the brain becomes the "mind," and many more structures become involved. Obviously, the goal of counseling and education is to increase executive functioning. Although the prefrontal cortex is central, other areas such as the anterior cingulate cortex work with emotional regulation and error control.

Obviously, much more is involved, but we believe that awareness of the biological background of learning can enhance our efforts to produce learning and change. Knowledge of this foundation can directly impact our efforts to uphold several articles of the Convention. For example, *Article 23* (Right of children with disabilities to special care and support) and *Article 28*, *29*, *and 31*(which encompass children's rights to education, outline the goals of education, and their right to recreation and play, respectively) are further supported by biological evidence that adherence to these articles can positively impact the brain development of children.

The Social Justice Implications of Neuroscience and Neurobiology

Although it may seem implicit that the articles of the Convention embody the core principles of the social justice movement, these implications are also supported by neuroscience and neurobiology. Stress, for example, is the number one enemy of alertness, orienting, and executive functioning (Ivey & Zalaquett, 2011). Poverty, abuse, bullying, experiencing racism, sexism, and other forms of oppression all injure brain development (Zalaquett & Ivey, 2014, 2018). Neural loss that can be permanent even occurs in fetal development if the mother is severely stressed. Reardon (2015) reviewed the literature in this area and notes the low-income children have less brain surface area, particularly in areas dealing with language and decision-making skills, where we find the importance of attention and executive functioning. In addition, she notes that these children have overall smaller brains (Noble et al., 2015). Moreover, genetics enters and child telomere length is shorter (Mitchell et al., 2013).

Counseling and education have failed to give full attention to this area of research. These concepts are explicitly supported in *Articles 2 and 19* of the Convention. These articles indicate the lives of children should be free of discrimination due to individual characteristics and free of all forms of violence (respectively). Adherence to these articles would improve the overall lives of children and provide environments that support healthy brain development. Furthermore, we need to continually keep the best interest of the children in mind. Whether the primary issues experienced by children are the product of biology or the product of a system that, continually over the generations, keeps certain citizens out of the mainstream, we can all keep the best interest of each and every child at heart (Art. 3). Neuroscience and the neurobiology of brain development indicate children are resilient and effective education and counseling can change negative patterns.

What Can We Do? The Need for Understanding and Social Action

First, we need to understand that any child we work with is going to undergo some stress. In fact, unless there is some stress, there is no alerting, no orienting, and obviously no contribution to executive functioning. But overstress in the classroom or in the counseling office is not going to help. In the one-on-one sessions, return to what it takes for alerting, the body language, the prosodic trusting voice, and other factors so essential to a working relationship. This coupled with understanding of the complexity of the issues is a beginning. Again, even children from severely impoverished backgrounds are potentially resilient. However, social justice action is required. The genetics literature points out that there is a tipping point that leads to trouble that can often be overcome. Smoller and colleagues (2008) have produced the definitive text summarizing genetic issues. While recognizing that genetic influences cannot always be overcome, they recommend a number of lifestyle approaches for prevention. For example, preconception and pregnancy health require good nutrition and physical exercise and abstaining from drugs, smoking, and alcohol. If the mother is in poverty or depressed, the chances for negative influence on the child are increased. As the child develops, social networks for the mother, family, and child are essential. Is the neighborhood safe and peaceful? Is there support for single mothers (or fathers)? Is quality early child care available? Convention articles such as the following can help ensure the implementation of abovementioned practices: *Article 3*, Best interests of the child; *Article 6*, Survival and development; *Article 12*, Respect for the views of the child; *Article 24*, Health and health services; *Article 27*, Adequate standard of living; *Article 28*, Right to education; and *Article 29*, Goals of education.

There are many other factors, of course. The key point is that the rights of children need to be respected. If we do not care and take action, alerting, orientating, and executive functioning simply will be harmed in the disadvantaged child. Integrating the rights of children into counseling can impact childhood outcomes from preconception to pregnancy to infancy and early childhood to adolescence. School community professionals can advocate and make strides toward explicit inclusion of Convention articles to improve the provision of counseling services for children throughout the United States and abroad.

Convention-Based Information for Counseling

Conflicts and natural disasters negatively impact children's psychosocial wellbeing and development. Convention-based approaches to address children's mental health needs in emergency situations are essential to protect them (Art. 19), facilitate recovery (Art. 24 and 39), and build resiliency (Art. 29). Children and adolescents are particularly vulnerable because even the best humanitarian response disrupts the communities they depend on for normal growth and development. Mental health and psychosocial support services for children are essential during crises (Robinson, Metzler, & Ager, 2014).

Children are exposed to violence, human-made and naturally occurring disasters, loss or separation of loved ones, deterioration of living conditions, homelessness, and various forms of exploitation and abuse. Furthermore, many lack access to services available to assist with the aforementioned events (Art. 2) that are known for producing immediate and long-term consequences for the children, families, and communities and impair their ability to function and be fulfilled. Counseling and the microskills have the capacity to mitigate the negative impact of these events. Used in a culturally and age-appropriate manner, counseling can help develop coping mechanisms and learning of life skills and advance resilience in a humanitarian way. As part of their mission to protect children, UNICEF (2011) has endorsed the *Guidelines on Mental Health and Psychosocial Support in Emergency Settings* (Inter-Agency Standing Committee [IASC], 2015b). IASC issued the guidelines to enable humanitarian actors to plan, establish, and coordinate a set of minimum multisectoral responses to protect and improve people's mental health and psychosocial wellbeing in the midst of an emergency. The guidelines emphasize the need to strengthen the capacity of the education system (Art. 29, 24, and 39) to support learners experiencing psychosocial and mental health difficulties. This includes designating focal points to monitor and following-up with individual children; training mental health professionals and educators on dealing with emergency related issues; and helping these professionals understand where to refer children with severe mental health and psychosocial difficulties, such as appropriate mental health providers, social services, psychosocial supports in the community, and, when appropriate, health services.

In addition, during emergencies and disasters, gender-based violence becomes common. Natural disasters and other emergencies exacerbate the violence against women and girls and diminish the protection of them. Gender-based violence violates and traumatizes both the survivors and the communities they live in; recovery is not easy. IASC has also produced the *Guidelines for Integrating Gender-Based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Action: Reducing risk, promoting resilience and aiding recovery.* The guidelines were designed to offer clear steps communities can take to protect people from gender-based violence. These guidelines provide practical guidance and effective tools for schools and communities to implement and evaluate essential actions for the prevention and mitigation of gender-based violence (IASC, 2015a).

Finally, recognizing the difficulties for selecting a measurement strategy for the assessment of the mental health and psychosocial wellbeing of children in humanitarian emergencies, IASC offers a compendium of 48 measures and approaches that have been used in crises situations (Ager, Robinson, & Metzler, 2014). The *A Compendium of Tools for the Assessment of the Mental Health and Psychosocial Wellbeing of Children in the Context of Humanitarian Emergencies* (Robinson et al., 2014) provides specific information of each measure and offers a decision-making guide to assist in the selection of instruments appropriate to the situation and developmental stage of the children. Measures should be selected with consideration of their cultural validity, reliability, and feasibility (Art. 30). Cultural validity is important because the concepts and ideas being asked about should make sense to the people in their context and relate to local concerns and priorities. Signs that a child is not doing well in a crisis can be understood very differently in various contexts. Measures of mental health and psychological wellbeing among children need to clearly reflect the understanding of health and wellbeing in the setting where these are being used.

Summary

The Convention is relevant to the wellbeing, learning, and development of all children. It provides a set of non-negotiable guidelines and strategies that can be applied by school psychologists, school counselors, school social workers, and educators to the delivery of school-based education, mental health services, and child advocacy. Organizations such as the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) can serve as a catalyst to bridge the Convention with the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) (Nastasi & Naser, 2014), as well as with other professional organizations such as the American School Counseling Association (ASCA), the International Association of Counseling (IAC), the International School Counselor Association (ISCA), and the European Association for Counselling (EAC) to advance the child rights framework. The specificity of the Convention's articles can help provide more focused interventions during the most pivotal years in a child's physical, intellectual, emotional, and social development. School psychologists can use Convention-guided counseling and microskills to observe children; consult with teachers; collaborate with school counselors, social workers, and other school stakeholders; gather and provide resources; deliver classroom lessons; collaborate on classroom interventions; conduct joint parent or guardian conferences; review and interpret school records; participate in the preparation of crisis management plans; and assist the planning of effective programs to serve the needs of developing children. Helping children reach their full potential is investing in the very progress of humanity.

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Convention on the Rights of the Child and School-Based Intervention Programming

Robyn S. Hess and Destiny M. Waggoner

Abstract

This chapter addresses pathways to align the United Nations (Convention on the rights of the child. Available from http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm or http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/ProfessionalInterest/crc.pdf, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child with intervention practices in the schools that include promotion of well-being, prevention, and correction. It outlines an organizational framework for intervention efforts derived from the Articles of the Convention in the areas of promotion, protection, and partnership. The programming and policy ideas supplied include an international perspective and are explained within a social justice framework. The chapter provides three programming ideas, positive youth development, restorative justice, and trauma-informed care, that can be delivered across tiered levels of intensity and are intended to enhance student personal and interpersonal well-being. Furthermore, these approaches feature service delivery models that improve access for all students and are designed to reduce discrimination. An overview of school psychologists' role in developing and implementing comprehensive intervention efforts to promote and enhance student health and wellness is provided. A consideration of cultural validity, competence, and adaptability of promotion, prevention, and corrective programming yields recommendations for practice. The chapter concludes with proposed actions for preparing school psychologists to be change agents who advocate for the implementation of culturally responsive and socially just programming in order to protect the rights of every child and support them in reaching their full potential.

School Psychologists' Role in Intervention

School psychologists hold many different roles, but none may be as relevant as that of interventionist, a role that is defined as one's efforts to establish comprehensive intervention programming within school settings. Each day, practitioners of educational and school psychology across the world encounter thousands of students, and, with each day, they are provided an opportunity to enhance the well-being of these youth. Fortunately, whether the goal of the intervention

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is geared toward promoting child well-being, preventing academic failure, or reducing health risk, the underlying science that guides these practices is similar.

Through their comprehensive review of prevention programming in the United States, Nation et al. (2003) identified the common characteristics of effective prevention programming. One of the first components identified was that the programs were comprehensive or used a number of different approaches to intervene with risk conditions or mediators of the identified problem. Other elements of effective programs included the use of varied teaching strategies, provision of sufficient programming, a solid theoretical foundation, and creation of multiple opportunities for positive relationship building. These common elements are also central to more specific corrective efforts and include the use of evidence-based practices and building system capacity to ensure the continuity and integrity of programming (Nation et al., 2003).

The focus of this chapter is directed toward intervention which is conceptualized broadly to include promotion, prevention (frequently termed preventive interventions), as well as programs specifically designed to reduce problems (i.e., corrective programming). Interventions can also include actions taken to enhance or build the capacity of a system (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013). The concept of advancing youth development to enhance positive outcomes is termed *promotion*. Even though it is recognized that programs that promote child wellness and healthy development might also prevent disorders, prevention is not the primary goal. Conversely, *preventive interventions* place an emphasis on reducing or preventing a negative outcome. It has been argued that a combination of both prevention and promotion approaches is needed in order to enhance outcomes for youth (e.g., Greenberg et al., 2003). Furthermore, participating in health promotion activities may be less stigmatizing for children and their families leading to increased levels of participation (National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2009).

Historical Context of School Psychology and Intervention

Early models of school psychology tended to focus on identification and classification of children's disorders in keeping with a traditional clinical model. Recently, the school psychology field has utilized a more strengths-based and well-being approach with an emphasis on prevention and promotion (Jiang, Kosher, Ben-Arieh, & Huebner, 2014). This approach is more aligned with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (henceforth referred to as the Convention; 1989) and reflects a holistic approach to the development of all children's potential with an emphasis on recognizing individual uniqueness (Hart & Hart, 2014). Both the Convention and school psychology promote the value that all children, regardless of environmental limitations (e.g., poverty) and individual traits (e.g., IQ, disability), have the right to services that foster healthy development (Garbarino & Briggs, 2014).

Promotion, prevention, and corrective programming are among the most important activities for school psychologists. Whether individuals are delivering direct services or working with a committed team to develop universal prevention programming, it is these services that help students access their education and develop essential skills and characteristics necessary to their well-being. Indeed, Nastasi and Varjas (2013) identified prevention and intervention as one of the key roles of school psychologists and defined it as "designing and implementing evidence-based practices to promote well-being and learning; ameliorate learning, behavioral, and mental health problems; and/or build system capacity" (p. 38). Because children and adolescents spend a majority of time in educational settings, schools are a perfect conduit for providing these types of programming.

Intervention from a Child Rights Perspective

Before discussing intervention from a child rights (CR) perspective, it is important to understand the aspects of service delivery and the numerous decisions to be made prior to delivering programming. One must consider when to intervene (Is promotion or prevention more appropriate than correction?), how to best intervene, how to deliver programming that is most likely to be effective, and how to deliver interventions that leave the individual improved and empowered. Children's mental health is best conceptualized from a public health perspective (Hess, Short, & Hazel, 2012; Nastasi, 2004) because of the number of students who experience mental health challenges and the need for more preventive approaches.

One of the hallmarks of a public health perspective is that it encompasses a spectrum of interventions to address the needs of the population and greater emphasis placed on promotion and prevention rather than treatment. This range of services is sometimes conceptualized as a tiered support system in which programming is delivered at different levels of intensity, depending on the needs of the population. For example, a universal level (sometimes referred to as Tier 1) of programming might include health promotion as well as general prevention programming and is delivered to all students. At the selected level, Tier 2, students who are considered to be at risk because of some internal or environmental risk are provided prevention programming. Finally, those students who show behaviors consistent with higher levels of risk (but have not necessarily been identified with a disorder) are considered to be at Tier 3 (i.e., indicated level of preventive intervention).

Researchers in prevention science seek to develop a clear understanding of the pathway from risk and opportunity factors to outcomes, including consideration of the various intervening variables that act as catalysts or buffers, and then to use this information as the foundation for intervention programming and policy development (Doll & Yoon, 2010). An understanding of child development as well as ecological theory (e.g., Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998) also facilitates an understanding of the influence of contextual variables on well-being and risk. Because children are especially reliant on their environments, from the most proximal (e.g., family) to the more distal (e.g., communities), consideration of each of the different contextual levels is necessary when developing programming.

Risk and protective factors can be organized into factors that are more individual (e.g., temperament, cognitive ability), interactive (e.g., quality of relationships with others), and environmental (e.g., poverty, unstable neighborhood) (Domitrovich et al., 2010). Just as there is overlap in the factors that are considered to place individuals at risk, there is emerging evidence that a variety of protective factors may serve as buffers by decreasing the effect of risk and enhancing the adaptive functioning of the individual (Guerra & Bradshaw, 2008). This brief overview of prevention science provides guidance for our efforts to develop intervention programming in the schools. Programming should be developmentally appropriate, designed to address a variety of ecological contexts (e.g., individual, family, school, community, policy), and should target the promotion of protective factors in order to reduce risk.

This overarching agenda for intervention aligns with the organizational framework outlined by Nastasi (2013) that provides a conceptual model of the Convention within the greater contexts of promotion, protection, and partnership. *Promotion*, in the context of the Convention, is conceptually similar to the broad definition of promotion as presented above but specifically refers to the various rights or articles that promote or advance the best interests of the child (e.g., Art. 3: Best interests of the child; Art. 12: Respect for the views of the child; Art. 15: Freedom of association; Art. 29: Aims of education). *Protection* includes those articles that ensure both children's freedom from maltreatment and exploitation (e.g., Art. 29: Protection from all forms of violence)

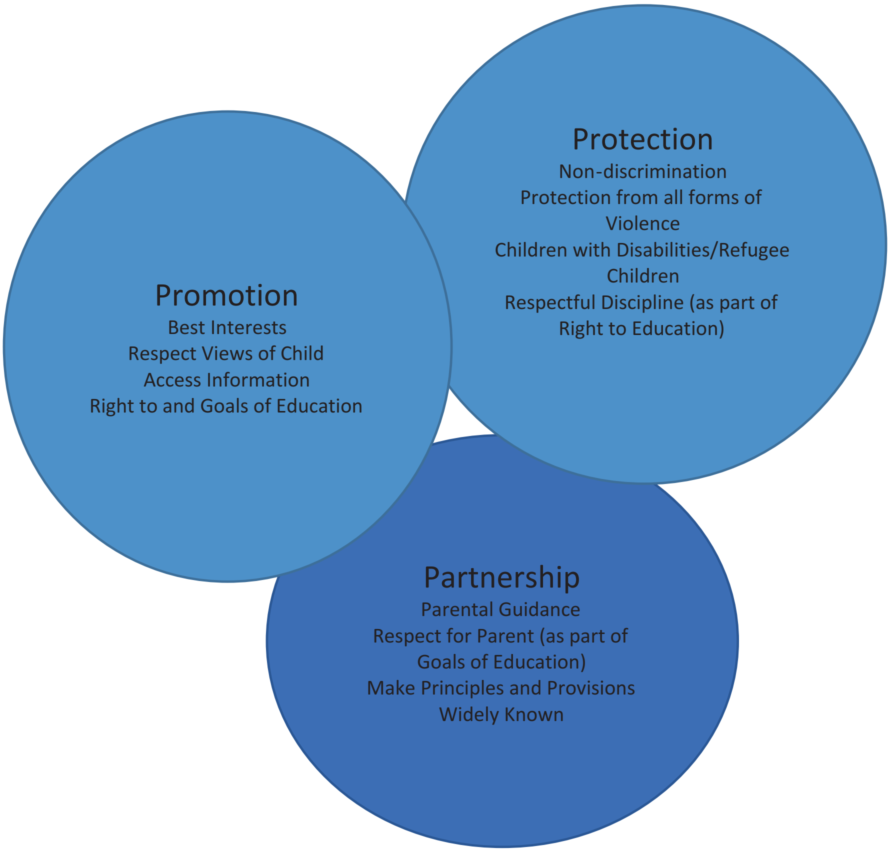
Protection
Non-discrimination
Protection from all forms of Violence
Children with Disabilities/Refugee Children
Respectful Discipline (as part of Right to Education)
Promotion
Best Interests
Respect Views of Child
Access Information
Right to and Goals of Education
Partnership
Parental Guidance
Respect for Parent (as part of Goals of Education)
Make Principles and Provisions Widely Known

Fig. 1 Organization framework for Convention and intervention efforts. (Source: Adapted with permission from Nastasi [2013])

and their rights of access (e.g., Art. 28: Right to education). Finally, *partnership* includes articles that advance participation with family and community for the benefit of children (e.g., Art. 4: Protection of rights; Art. 5: Parental guidance; Art. 18: Parental responsibilities; state assistance; Art. 20: Children deprived of family environment) (Nastasi, 2013). When this framework is applied to the concept of promotion, prevention, and corrective programming, the organizational framework depicted in Fig. 1 emerges.

Intervention programming integrates all three contexts: promotion, protection, and partnership. For example, the broad area of promotion might include positive youth development, prevention programming, and specific corrective interventions. These different types of programs can all be designed to promote enhanced student well-being while simultaneously providing evidence-based programming to students who are at higher levels of risk for or are exhibiting more serious social and emotional difficulties. Consistent with the work of Nation et al. (2003), intervention practices are most effective when they are targeted toward specific groups and are culturally relevant. Therefore, it is important to understand the unique needs of students (e.g., Art. 12: Respect for views of the child) and to include their voice in program planning (Scales, Benson, & Roehlkepartain, 2011). As articulated in Art. 29: Goals of education, practitioners demonstrate respect for the cultural identity, language, and values of students and their families and make adaptations to aspects of programming to meet the needs of specific groups and individuals within those groups. School psychologists are in a key position to work with others to develop and deliver this type of programming.

Protection refers to ideas of nondiscrimination (Art. 2), respecting the rights of all children, and protecting them from all forms of violence (Art. 19). These concepts are consistent with the recent emphasis on social justice within the field of school psychology (Shriberg, Song, Miranda, & Radliff, 2013). For example, although zero tolerance policies were presumably adopted in order to enhance the safety of the school environment, subsequent issues of disproportionality in discipline outcomes have emerged that are contrary to the principles of the Convention and that suggest cultural bias in the manner in which these policies are applied. Furthermore, students with disabilities and students who are refugees are specifically mentioned within the Convention (Art. 22 and Art. 23) indicating that special attention be directed toward these students to ensure they have access to programming. Students must be protected from violence in all forms, especially in their school environments. With the current emphasis on bullying and the known long-term negative effects, it is especially important that school psychologists address this issue through effective, comprehensive programming.

Although shown as a separate domain, partnership represents a context within which both promotion and protection occur. Parent involvement at every level of intervention programming is key to success (Christenson & Reschly, 2010; Lines, Miller, & Arthur-Stanley, 2011). Therefore, it is in the best interests of students to deliver programming that includes families (Art. 5: Responsibilities, rights and duties of parents) and in a manner that respects the privacy of students and their families (Art. 16: Right to privacy). School psychologists can use the Convention as a platform for advocating for broad program delivery by helping to make the provisions of the Convention widely known to both adults and children (Art. 45). In order to build capacity, school psychologists must work with stakeholders within and across family, educational, and community contexts to develop partnerships that address the needs of the broadest number of students. Consistent with the NASP Practice Model (2010), school psychologists “function as change agents, using their skills in communication, collaboration, and consultation to promote necessary change at the individual, student, classroom, building, and district, state, and federal level” (p. 5).

Application of CR to Intervention Programming

School psychology practitioners are encouraged to be knowledgeable about children’s rights and their application in everyday settings. If these fundamental rights are used as a guiding framework, school psychologists will be functioning as positive change agents, congruent with the NASP Practice Model (2010). From a systemic level perspective, school psychologists can work to ensure that the programming in their schools meets the broadest range of student needs and potentials. Through the use of a tiered system of support, student well-being can be supported, and the needs of individual students can be identified and targeted for indicated prevention. Systems level practice also entails building collaborative partnerships through communication, consultation, and collaboration (Hess et al., 2012). These strategies might include engaging in professional development and attending community planning meetings to better understand the strengths and the concerns of the students and families who are a part of the educational context.

School psychologists must also strive for cultural competence (Art. 30: Children of minority/indigenous groups) in order to respect the rights of students, their families, and to engage community stakeholders. Since there are many definitions of cultural competence, it may be best viewed as a multifaceted (i.e., knowledge, awareness, caring, action) model that takes into consideration the sociopolitical factors (e.g., race, ethnic, socioeconomic status) that may interfere with access to mental health services (Carpenter-Song, Schwallie, & Longhofer, 2007; Serpell, Clauss-Ehlers, & Weist, 2013). Ortiz and Flanagan (2002) viewed cultural competence as knowing how to identify when cultural variables are relevant and then acting in a way that takes these variables into consideration. As part of this work, examining their own biases, learning about different approaches through community resources (e.g., cultural consultants and community members), and researching the cultural appropriateness of programming directed at diverse populations represent a few of the ways that school psychologists can move toward intervention practices that are congruent with a CR framework.

A core value of school psychology and the Convention (UN, 1989) involves school psychologists acting as child advocates (Jiang et al., 2014). School psychologists are explicitly called upon to promote "effective services, advocacy, and social justice for all children, families, and schools" (NASP, 2010, p. 3). Although advocacy can take many forms including research, policy development, and education, from an individual practitioner perspective, advocacy is most likely to take the form of "speaking up" for individuals or groups of students (and their families) as well as developing groups of stakeholders to support positive change. In addition to other school staff, school psychologists are well placed within school settings and have a responsibility to ensure that their own practice aligns with and promotes the rights of children. Further, they have the responsibility to advocate for policies at the broader level that protect these rights.

In order to highlight application of the connections between the Convention and intervention programming, we have selected three widely implemented (both nationally and internationally) programs: positive youth development, restorative justice, and trauma-informed care. These three school-based intervention approaches are consistent with a social justice framework in that they include goals to promote social equity, enhance personal and interpersonal well-being, as well as combat discrimination, oppression, and poverty (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013). Further, these programs have elements that can be implemented at various levels to address health promotion goals (i.e., promoting the well-being of all children), prevention goals (e.g., providing early supports to prevent a potentially negative outcome), and reducing risk (e.g., intervening early for students who demonstrate risk behaviors). Throughout these descriptions, we highlight the overlay between principles of the Convention and the practices inherent to these interventions. In Table 1, a summary of the relationship between the guiding framework for child rights (based on the Convention), levels of intervention programming typical to the school setting, and representative articles from the Convention is provided.

Positive Youth Development Programs

Over the last decade, there has been growing attention toward the broad array of factors that facilitate healthy development in youth including their strengths, resources, and positive experiences with others and in their communities (Scales et al., 2011). Positive youth development (PYD) programs emerged from these models and represent a good example of programming that emphasizes health promotion and aligns with the model of promotion, protection, and partnership as outlined by Nastasi (2013). These types of programs also reflect practices that are consistent with the Articles of the Convention such as Article 3: Best interests of the child; Article 12: Respect for views of the child; and Article 15: Freedom of association. One of the guiding theories for PYD programming is that if agencies work together for the common purpose of enhancing the well-being of youth, they create environments in which youth have the opportunity to thrive across multiple areas of their lives (e.g., academically, socially, emotionally, physically, and civically) (Zaff, Donlan, Jones, & Lin, 2015). More recently, the broader concept of comprehensive community initiatives (CCI) has been promoted as a framework for delivering PYD programming (Zaff et al., 2015). School psychologists can guide their schools toward being a part of these efforts by incorporating positive youth development programming within their own buildings and encouraging district leaders to support these types of initiatives.

Table 1 Child rights guiding framework, levels of intervention, and sample supporting articles from the Convention

Level of intervention	Child rights guiding framework		
	Promotion	Protection	Partnership
Health promotion	Art 3: Best interests of child Art 12: Respect for views of child Art 13: Freedom of expression Art 14: Freedom of thought, conscience, and religion Art 17: Access to information Art 31: Leisure, play, and culture	Art 4: Protection of rights Art 15: Freedom of association Art 28: Right to education	Art 5: Parental guidance Art 29: Goals of education Art. 42: Knowledge of rights
Prevention		Art. 2: Nondiscrimination Art. 19: Freedom from all forms of violence Art 30: Children of minority/indigenous groups	Art 18: Parental responsibilities; state assistance Art 21: Adoption Art. 24: Health and health services
Corrective action	Art 39: Rehabilitation of child victims	Art 22: Refugee children Art 23: Children with disabilities Art 40: Juvenile justice	Art 10: Family reunification Art. 20: Children deprived of family environment

Note. The child rights guiding framework and articles reflected in this table are based on the UN Convention on The Rights of the Child (UN, 1989). The Convention articles relevant to health promotion are present at all levels of intervention. Only those Convention articles specific to more intensive levels of intervention are listed under prevention and corrective action. Not all Convention articles are reflected in this table

PYD is an umbrella term for any of a number of programs that generally share five common characteristics: (a) emphasis on building caring relationships; (b) an element of skill-building; (c) provision of safe and healthy environments for youth both in and outside the home; (d) opportunities for youth to make a difference in their communities; and (e) sufficient structure and positive social norms built into the programming to help guide youth behavior (Benson, Scales, Hamilton, & Sesma, 2006; Zaff et al., 2015). These programs are designed to promote a range of skills and knowledge, as well as the personal and social assets required to move youth through healthy adolescence to competent adulthood (Art. 3: Best interests of the child). Generally, the goals of these programs are to enhance multiple competencies, foster self-determination, self-efficacy, and hope, as well as recognize positive and prosocial behaviors. Some examples of PYD programming include the Five Promises program (Scales et al., 2008), the 40 Developmental Assets (Benson et al., 2006), and the Social Development Model (Hawkins et al., 2008).

Establishing the effectiveness of programs that promote positive outcomes and thriving in youth is a difficult task. Much of the research to date has focused on the process of building coalitions and networks more so than evaluating youth outcomes (Zaff et al., 2015). Nevertheless, certain positive outcomes have been documented such as improved academic functioning, civic engagement, and prosocial behaviors (Benson et al., 2006; Scales et al., 2008). More recently, Scales et al. (2011) investigated the additive effect of identifying youth "sparks" (defined as a self-identified interest that energizes youth), youth voice, and supportive relationships to positive outcomes such as leadership, valuing civic engagement, prosocial values, and volunteering. Participants in this online survey study included 1817 youth (age 15), who represented a relatively diverse group (56% White, 17% Black/African American, 17% Latino, 0.5% Asian/Pacific Islander). Regardless of race/ethnicity, gender, or socioeconomic status, youth who reported higher levels of the strengths (i.e., spark, voice, and support) endorsed more positive outcomes than youth who reported lower levels. This finding was consistent with earlier work specific to the National Promises program that demonstrated youth who had a high number of promises or assets were somewhat protected by these resources (Scales et al., 2008). Specifically, adolescent males of color and those from lower socioeconomic status who experienced a higher number of assets (i.e., "promises") had similar outcomes as those from the majority group who came from more affluent backgrounds. If these promises were not present, diverse youth demonstrated lower levels of academic, social, and psychological outcomes (Scales et al., 2008). These results suggest that the goal of helping youth accrue strengths or assets is beneficial across diverse cultural and economic backgrounds.

As might be expected, positive youth development programs that were effective in building social, emotional, and cognitive competence (e.g., self-determination, self-efficacy), were also effective in reducing drug and alcohol abuse, violence, and aggression (Hawkins et al., 2008). In fact, although PYD programs were originally designed as community-based programs to promote youth well-being and involvement, this model has relevance for youth who are considered to be at risk as well (Sanders, Munford, Thimasarn-Anwar, Liebenberg, & Ungar, 2015). In their research with 605 New Zealand youth (aged 12–17) who were involved in multiple service systems (e.g., child welfare, juvenile justice, alternative education), Sanders et al. (2015) found that youth who were involved in services that used PYD approaches reported higher levels of resilience. Youth with increased resilience also reported higher levels of well-being, suggesting a potential mediating role of resilience between risk factors and indicators of well-being. Programming that enhances resilience through PYD approaches appears to augment positive outcomes and well-being for at-risk youth.

School Discipline: Restorative Practices

Discipline policies are part of the fabric of many public schools around the world and are meant to guide the actions of the school community (e.g., teachers and administers) in dealing with behavior problems of the student population. Based on Article 28 (Right to education) of the Convention (UN General Assembly, 1989), schools' discipline policies should respect students' dignity. Additionally, educational institutions have an obligation to promote regular attendance and reduce dropout rates. Unfortunately, in recent decades many public schools, particularly in the United States, have increased their use of exclusionary discipline practices (i.e., suspensions, expulsions, alternative education placements, and referrals to the juvenile justice system) and polices (e.g., zero tolerance). These practices appear to be at odds with the Convention's aims and rights to education (Art. 28 and Art. 29) because students who receive exclusionary discipline are more likely to be retained in grade or drop out of school as compared to students without exclusionary disciplinary history (APA, 2008; Fabelo et al., 2011; Teasley, 2014). These exclusionary practices deny children and adolescents access to educational opportunities and increase both the likelihood of a child's subsequent contact with the juvenile justice system and the probability of school failure (Gonzalez, 2012; Skiba, Arrendondo, & Williams, 2014; Teasley, 2014). Moreover, zero tolerance policies appear to be in violation of Article 2 (Nondiscrimination) because these policies are disproportionately applied to certain groups. For example, Fabelo et al. (2011) found that African American and Hispanic students in the United States were given exclusionary discipline more so than White students for similar rule violations, and nearly 75% of students who received special education services were given an exclusionary consequence at least once.

Restorative justice is an alternative to zero tolerance policies. It lends itself to nondiscriminatory practices, improves child safety and educational outcomes, enhances social-emotional capacity, and builds a sense of community in preventing and addressing student behavior problems. The restorative approach utilizes informal justice processes to motivate the "wrongdoer" to take responsibility for his or her behavior and repair any harm that has been done. The goal of this process is to facilitate a dialogue among all parties with a relationship to the offense (Magor-Blatch, 2011). In schools, restorative practices are often utilized on a continuum (e.g., ranging from short informal dialogues between student and teacher to more formal restorative conferences involving multiple parties) in order to engage students, improve relationships, and enhance the overall school climate (Gonzalez, 2015). The restorative approach aligns well with the proposed conceptual model (i.e., promotion, protection, and partnership) of the Convention in that these evidenced-based practices focus on providing a more inclusive approach by creating and maintaining positive peer relationships, repairing harm, demonstrating respect and accepting responsibility, and involving a variety of stakeholders (Gonzalez, 2015; Teasley, 2014). It is important to keep in mind that the restorative approach is not a "program" that can simply be added but rather a "paradigm shift" in how schools respond to the needs of individuals and to their community as a whole (Gonzalez, 2015, p. 163).

Article 29 (Aims of education) of the Convention outlines the right of the child to develop respect for others and to learn to live peacefully. Furthermore, it highlights "the preparation of the child for a responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples" (UN General Assembly, Art. 29.1.d., 1989). As evidenced by the examples provided below, restorative approaches help nurture these elements by facilitating common understanding, compassion, and forgiveness that result in healing and "promote feelings of respect, peace, and satisfaction" (Gonzalez, 2015, p. 152). These practices are in the best interests of the child and promote the full development of students. The restorative approach is also related to social justice. Under a social justice framework, a child should be given equal opportunity to "develop and function optimally in society," and schools have a responsibility to empower students and permit them to partake in decision-making processes (Pillay, 2014, p. 228).

Implementing restorative justice requires systematic change and the consideration of community culture, norms, and values in program development (Teasley, 2014). Restorative practices protect students from nondiscrimination (Art. 2) and promote their right to education (Art. 28 and Art. 29). In the United States, Denver (Colorado) Public Schools (DPS) implemented restorative justice practices at several school sites in the district (Gonzalez, 2015). During and after implementation, the overall suspension rates in DPS decreased by almost half and racial disproportionality in school discipline decreased every year of implementation for all represented racial groups (White, Latino, and African American). Restorative discipline was also related to increased academic achievement (Gonzalez, 2015). Article 19 of the Convention highlights a child's right to protection from all forms of violence. Schools are tasked with the responsibility to not only keep students under their supervision physically safe but also emotionally safe. Bullying is one of the prominent issues in the school system for which restorative practices may be an effective intervention. Wong, Cheng, Ngan, and Ma (2011) examined the effects of a Restorative Whole-School Approach (RWsA) on school bullying in Hong Kong. The results showed that overall bullying behavior significantly decreased at the school implementing RWsA. Wong et al. (2011) concluded that restorative practices may suit Chinese culture in Hong Kong because it aims to empower students to arrive at suitable solutions, encourages respect, and places emphasis on collective values.

The cultural adaptability of restorative practices is related to the promotion framework because it respects the views of the child and community (Art. 2: Nondiscrimination). The implementation of restorative practices will likely look different from school to school and community to community. For example, restorative justice practices in New Zealand are guided by traditional Maori cultural values where the emphasis is on healing, community development, and arriving at a solution (Wearmouth, McKinney, & Glynn, 2007). The Maori custom involves having those close to the wrongdoer support the child in the restorative process and emphasizing his or her strengths, with the goal of restoring mana ("an individual's autonomy, integrity, self-esteem, and standing within the group") of all those involved

(Wearmouth et al., 2007, p. 43). Using information put forth by the Restorative Practices Development Team in New Zealand, Wearmouth et al. (2007) provided guidelines for restorative practices in schools (e.g., address the problem, invite the opportunity to accept responsibility, avoid assigning blame) and outlined the process of a restorative conference, which is basically a meeting between interested parties (e.g., teachers, students, parents) for the purpose of resolving a conflict. Another example of successful implementation of restorative justice comes from Scotland. According to McCluskey et al. (2008), the Scottish educational model broadly implements restorative practices as a comprehensive approach that includes prevention, response and intervention, and, at times, making amends. Importance is placed on the entire school community and training school staff and students in restorative practices rather than utilizing outside facilitators. Scotland's restorative practices make use of restorative conversations, peer mediation, and reestablishing relationships and a sense of belonging. The focus is on educating students and school personnel about appropriate behavior rather than attempting to control their behaviors (McCluskey et al., 2008).

An essential component in implementing restorative practices in a school community is to adapt the practices to fit the community's unique needs and/or characteristics (Gonzalez, 2015; McCluskey et al., 2008; Wearmouth et al., 2007). School psychologists can advocate for and be involved in creating restorative discipline policies and implementing the practices in phases. Since forging partnerships is important under the Convention model as well as with regard to implementing restorative practices, school psychologists can take a lead in garnering support from district central offices and school leaders (i.e., principals) and providing professional development and training for teachers and administrators (Gonzalez, 2015). They can also deliver workshops for parents focused on learning restorative skills. School psychologists can create partnership*s* with community-based organizations to help develop a discipline model that is culturally responsive (Gonzalez, 2015; Wearmouth et al., 2007; Wong et al., 2011).

According to Wong et al. (2011), student participation (Art. 12: Respect for views of the child) is crucial in all aspects of restorative practices. Students can be educated about the impact of inappropriate behaviors (e.g., bullying) and taught how to adopt rational ways for resolving conflicts using a restorative education curriculum. Senior students can be involved as peer mediators and assist in teaching and modeling restorative practices to their younger peers (Wong et al., 2011). School psychologists can also promote the development of the child by helping to develop curriculum for teaching restorative practices at the universal level as well as more targeted teaching when necessary. Essential to restorative practices are consistency of implementation with a clear restorative goal in mind and transparency in data collection to record student behavior and restorative practices used to protect children from discrimination and ensure respectful discipline (Gonzalez, 2015). For example, by recording the number of rule violations (referenced, e.g., by race, gender, ethnicity, and special education membership) and the school's response to such violations (e.g., restorative conferences), the school can evaluate the fairness and efficacy of their restorative practices. As a whole, school-based restorative approaches provide a structure to improve educational, behavioral, and socio-emotional outcomes for children and adolescents.

Trauma-Informed Care

An emphasis on understanding and supporting students who have experienced trauma is a growing area of need within public schools. The number of children who have experienced trauma through war, migration, natural disasters, chronic poverty, community and family violence, and loss of loved ones is growing in our global society. As refugees and immigrants enter schools within their new countries, they not only bring their rich histories and perspectives but a possible history of trauma as well. For example, in the United States, in their cross-sectional national survey of 4549 children aged 0–17, Finkelhor, Turner, Ormrod, and Hamby (2009) found that 60.6% of these youth had experienced one or more direct or witnessed victimizations in the past year. Among urban youth, these percentages were even higher (Breslau, Wilcox, Storr, Lucia, & Anthony, 2004). With this exposure to traumatic events, students are at increased risk for developing symptoms of anxiety, depression, and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Because traumatic experiences are so pervasive among the students (as well as the adults) in our schools, it may be more appropriate to address this issue as if everyone has been, or is at risk of being, exposed to trauma (Blaustein, 2013). This area especially warrants attention to international literature because many effective programs have been implemented in countries that have experienced serious levels of chronic trauma and have limited resources to provide programming (Klasen, Crombag, & Stolk, 2014).

When a problem has such a broad impact, it is important to use systemic approaches that address needs at a variety of levels and help prevent future occurrences (Art. 19: Protection from all forms of violence). Although it is not possible to prevent all adverse experiences for children, efforts can be made to educate students about strategies for coping with negative events, reach out to parents to help them support their children, and create school environments that are sensitive to children's needs, consistent with the intent of Article 39 of the Convention (Rehabilitation of child victims). This article states that, "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social integration of a child victim …" and further that "Such recovery and reintegration shall take place in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect and dignity of the child" (UN General Assembly, 1989).

As noted, some students are more likely to have experienced traumatic events than others, and this is especially true for youth who are refugees (Fazel, Reed, Panter-Brick, & Stein, 2012). Schools that educate large numbers of students who are refugees can create trauma-sensitive educational settings in order to offer special protection to these youth (Art. 22: Refugee children). The effects of traumatic stress on academic performance are numerous. Students in the United States who experience traumatic stress had lower test scores and were more likely to have an individualized education plan in place (Goodman, Miller, & West-Olatunji, 2012). Symptoms of posttraumatic stress are often confused with other disorders such as attention-deficit hyperactive disorder (ADHD), depression, and anxiety. In fact, traumatic experiences in children have been associated with disruptions in development that lead to a host of difficulties in cognitive, behavioral, and social emotional domains. Further, the neuropsychological features associated with trauma are related to lower levels of attention and poor emotional regulation (Wilson, Hansen, & Li, 2011). As might be expected, these deficits act as barriers to educational success (related to Art. 28 and Art. 29). Therefore, it is imperative that school psychologists integrate programming at various levels (e.g., universal, selective, indicated) to support the learning needs of students, regardless of their known exposure to trauma.

At the universal level, ensuring that schools are safe and supportive of students creates a secure school environment for those students who have a history of trauma (Ristuccia, 2013). A Treatment Improvement Protocol (TIP) developed by SAMHSA (2014) provides a number of general strategies that can be used by behavioral health organizations (including schools) to become trauma-informed organizations. Some of these strategies include creating awareness among staff about the effects of trauma on children and families, evaluating current policies and practices to determine whether they are inconsistent with trauma-informed care (e.g., use of restraining holds, isolation), and incorporating trauma-informed principles into various aspects of school functioning (e.g., yearly goals, fire drills, crisis plans). Overstreet and Mathews (2011) outlined a public health approach to meeting the needs of students and their families who have been exposed to chronic trauma with an emphasis on implementing evidence-based practices in schools and linking with community agencies to advance knowledge and supports for students and their families (e.g., Art. 22: Refugee children; Art. 23: Children with disabilities; Art. 39: Rehabilitation of child victims). School psychologists can promote the inclusion and participation of children who have experienced serious trauma by working with administrators, community agencies, and other school staff to offer in-service trainings, revise school policies and practices, and deliver universal programming directed toward helping students to be regulated, engaged, and supportive of their peers. Depending on their setting, school psychologists may also provide treatment or assist families in connecting with these needed services.

Programming does not necessarily have to be trauma focused in order to help students cope with disasters. Consistent with Article 3: Best interests of the child, if appropriate programming is in place (e.g., promotive, protective, and preventive social emotional programming), it can serve as a protective factor that helps foster child resilience to adversity. For example, after the massive earthquake in Chile, students who had participated in a preexisting school-based social emotional program (e.g., Skills for Life) experienced lower levels of ongoing earthquake-related worry. This finding held for those who, because of their level of exposure, were at higher risk of developing posttraumatic symptoms, suggesting a protective effect (Garfin et al., 2014). These types of programs can also be delivered after a disaster to address the associated stressors of these negative events and enhance long-term recovery of students (e.g., after the tsunami in Sri Lanka; Nastasi, Jayasena, Summerville, & Borja, 2011).

A variety of interventions have been developed specifically to address posttraumatic symptoms in students. In their review of randomized control trial (RCT) studies designed to reduce trauma symptoms in children in low- and middle-income countries (LAMIC), Klasen et al. (2014) found that although there were many different approaches used, most resulted in a reduction of symptoms. In keeping with a tiered model of services, an effective three-tier program was implemented in Bosnia (Layne et al., 2008). At the first tier, school-based psychoeducational skills were taught to students, and for many children, this approach was effective in reducing their PTSD and depressive symptoms. Additionally, a Tier 2 intervention was implemented that included both classroom intervention and a manual-based 17-session group intervention, which also resulted in a reduction of symptoms, including maladaptive grief. The few students who were at the highest level of risk were referred to a community service provider.

In the United States, the Cognitive Behavioral Program for Trauma in Schools (CBITS; Jaycox, 2004), developed in partnership with the Los Angeles Public Schools, has empirical support for its effectiveness in reducing symptoms of PTSD and depression (Stein et al., 2003). CBITS is delivered through ten group sessions and 1–3 individual sessions that focus on creating a trauma narrative. All aspects of the program incorporate cognitive behavioral techniques such as education regarding the effects of trauma, teaching and practicing relaxation techniques, cognitive restructuring, social problem-solving, and graduated in vivo exposure (Jaycox, 2004). The program was designed to be delivered by school psychologists or school social workers and has been effectively adapted for different cultural groups.

Application of Child Rights to Intervention Research

Implementation of any intervention efforts requires evaluation of its effectiveness. Questions of access, fidelity, and outcomes must be addressed across different groups within schools. Unfortunately, many evidence-based practices (EBPs) have not been created for and evaluated with diverse groups, indicating a need for cultural adaptation to make them relevant to different populations (Alegria, Atkins, Farmer, Slaton, & Salk, 2010; Serpell et al., 2013). In order to translate research into culturally competent practices, it is important to seek guidance from local cultural experts (Serpell et al., 2013) and collaborate with relevant partners (Jensen & Foster, 2010; Serpell et al., 2013). These types of partnerships facilitate program monitoring as related to cultural validity and equity in implementation (Vincent, Randall, Cartledge, Tobin, & Swain-Bradway, 2011).

In order to protect students' right of nondiscrimination and promote their best interests, programming and interventions must be selected carefully to determine whether the programming is appropriate for the given population. As noted above, many times a program might be described as an evidence-based intervention but has not been implemented with a culturally or linguistically diverse population. Therefore, school psychologists will continually need to evaluate whether a given program is effective for specific populations. By disaggregating data across students, practitioners are able to determine whether all students are accessing programming as well as the effectiveness of these interventions across diverse groups of students. Disaggregated data allows school psychologists to analyze whether there are differential rates of achievement, group attendance, parent involvement, office referrals, suspensions/expulsions, or other inconsistencies that affect one group more so than another. With this knowledge, modifications to training and program components can be implemented to better address the needs of all students and their families.

Training school personnel in the implementation of culturally competent interventions and programs seems to be lacking in the schools. Therefore, more research is needed regarding effective training models including, for example, the achievement and sustainability of desired effects of such trainings on teacher practice and student outcomes (Serpell et al., 2013). Furthermore, to help ensure culturally competent interventions and programs, it will be important for schools to assess changes in the attitudes of school personnel over time (e.g., using cultural competence surveys such as the Multicultural Awareness/Knowledge/Skills Survey, MAKSS; D'Andrea, Daniels, & Heck, 1991).

Application of Child Rights to School Policy

Probably one of the newest arenas for school psychologists is in the area of policy development and change. However, if one is to function within a social justice framework, advocating for fairness in policy development and implementation is part of practicing in alignment with the principles of the Convention. At a level that is closest to home, school psychologists can advocate for changing policies within their own schools and districts. For example, is the role of the school psychologist limited to working with students who have a disability? Although this does not directly violate the rights of students, it does limit the ability of school psychologists to promote student development to its fullest level in accordance with Article 29 (Goals of education). Therefore, advocating for implementation of universal health promotion as a component of the school curriculum is one example of how school psychologists can encourage their settings to move toward alignment with the Convention. Additionally, advancing policies that recognize and institutionalize the involvement of parents in their children's education (Art. 5: Parental guidance) is another example of needed school psychology practitioner involvement in policy development at a local level.

Unfortunately, many school policies are egregious as related to children's rights, including those related to grade retention, discipline, and disability. By carefully evaluating the outcomes of different type of policies, school psychologists can present these data to their administrators to advocate for changes that may result in better policies or make the implementation of such policies more equitable. Part of influencing policy may include disseminating findings to those who are in a position to make meaningful changes such as school boards and state legislators (Hess et al., 2012).

Application of Child Rights to Preparation and Training

Training programs play a key role in developing practitioners who will promote and practice in accordance with a child rights framework. One of the first elements is teaching graduate students in school psychology about child rights (and the Convention) and the implications for their own future practice. Incorporating key readings and related discussions into foundational coursework helps to establish this framework for students from the beginning of their programs. Furthermore, programs are encouraged to adopt a more culturally responsive and global perspective on the materials that are included in coursework. The United States, and psychology programs in particular, has been slow to adopt a global perspective in their coverage of important topics and research (Leong, Leach, Marsella, & Pickren, 2012). Although the case might be made that national research represents a good match to current student populations in the United States, absolute reliance on this literature base overlooks the important research that is occurring in other countries and may be relevant to immigrant and refugee populations in the United States.

Preparing students for multicultural competency is an expectation of the National Association of School Psychologists and the American Psychological Association in the United States and internationally by the International School Psychology Association (ISPA, 2010). However, the exact nature of this type of preparation remains vague. Jones, Sander, and Booker (2013) suggested a number of helpful strategies to guide training programs in advancing the multicultural responsiveness of their students. Some of the approaches (e.g., literature, films, journaling, case conceptualization) advanced by Jones et al. (2013) also could be used to help students understand how various educational policies affect certain groups of students in negative ways or to help them understand how advocacy is a necessary strategy for aligning practice to be consistent with the Convention (e.g., Art. 2: Nondiscrimination).

Related to this idea is the introduction of a social justice framework into the preparation of school psychologists. Shriberg et al. (2013) noted that educating students from this perspective may help move them from practitioners to change agents. This text and other readings help students understand what it means to be an advocate and provide strategies for how they can "speak up" for students. It is also important to note that many of the basic aspects of practice, such as consulting with parents and inviting them in as problem-solving partners, is also a first step in advancing child rights. So too, evaluating the effectiveness of programs (a common task in all school psychology programs) can be advanced by requiring school psychology students to evaluate their outcomes across gender and cultural lines. These are just a few of the ways that trainers within school psychology programs can build upon simple awareness of legal and ethical practice to support more advanced levels of preparation that will allow students to take on the role of change agent, advocate, and supporter of child rights.

The International School Psychology Association (ISPA), Division 16 (School Psychology) of the American Psychological Association (APA), Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO), Tulane University Child Rights Team (TUCRT), and Cleveland State School Psychology Program have collaborated in the development of a child rights curriculum for school psychologists, entitled *School Psychologists as Advocates for Child Rights*. The curriculum is available as an eight-module program for training in group settings (e.g., class, workshop) and a six-module self-study program for individual use.[1] The curriculum modules cover the Convention, child development, social justice, accountability, and the application of an integrated approach to advocacy by school psychologists in the context of their practice. (See also Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", this volume.)

Advancing School Psychology in the Application of Child Rights

If the rights of children are to be realized as documented in the Convention, it requires a global effort and commitment from all of those who have adopted roles in which they have the opportunity to effect this change. In other words, school psychologists are well placed within school settings and have a responsibility to ensure that their own practice aligns with and promotes the rights of children. Many school psychology practitioners may look at the charge to incorporate child rights into their own practice as something that is beyond their reach. Aligning intervention practice with the Convention does not necessarily require more programming; it requires a different perspective and understanding, a new theoretical basis for the types of programming that are offered within a school setting. Some of the key changes include an emphasis on promotion and prevention rather than correction. An examination of policies and practices that may act as barriers to student access to their education or that inadvertently exclude families from partnership is also necessary. Further, in keeping with a public health model, school psychologists can help students, family, staff, and community members understand the basic rights of children and the importance of daily practice that supports these fundamental rights.

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[1] The training manual for the eight-module program is available as an accompanying online resource to this volume. The six-module self-study program is available from Bonnie Nastasi, Tulane University, bnastasi@tulane.edu.

Conclusion

One of the most basic rights of children is access to an education. While technically this responsibility belongs to the States parties, Kishore Singh (2013), United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education, also described education as the social responsibility of all who are invested in the future of children (e.g., administrators, teachers, school psychologists, and parents). In order for this education to be successful, we must strengthen the opportunities and reduce the barriers related to children's access to knowledge and learning. When school psychologists implement programming that promotes the well-being of students, reduces conflict, and supports those who have experienced trauma and other adverse life experiences, they are creating an environment where students can exercise their fundamental right of education. All youth have the capacity to learn, adapt, and grow, and with efforts from caring adults and a supportive community, children and adolescents can realize their full potential.

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Combining Ecological Systems Theory and Child Rights to Improve Research and Evaluation

John H. Hitchcock and Colleen E. Chesnut

Abstract

This chapter describes a conceptualization of research methods utilizing an ecological framework that can contribute to accounting for child rights within research inquiry. An argument is put forth that this framework can simultaneously enhance research validity evidence and account for child rights and ethics. A broad structure for thinking about research or evaluation processes that orients a focus on child rights within an ecological systems theory (EST) framework is presented. Although EST application calls researchers to account for context at various levels, the application of the theory and related methods is not itself context dependent. From a methodological point of view, explicitly accounting for child rights via an EST lens can be accommodated in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods work. The examples provided review application of these ideas to case studies, randomized controlled trials, policy research, program evaluation, and survey research. Although existing professional standards, ethics, and research practice already promote child rights, there is a clear argument for furthering work in this arena and doing so more intentionally, since this can bring greater clarity to research and evaluation questions and even enhance research validity.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe a conceptualization of research methods that can contribute to accounting for child rights, capture children's voices, and enhance the use of research inquiry. This issue has special salience for an international audience because psychology research has occurred almost entirely within Western nations (Arnett, 2008). Yet, careful attention to children's voices can help promote inquiry as psychologists conduct research in non-Western countries, cross-cultural settings, or whenever accounting for context during social science inquiry. A conceptualization of research that explicitly accounts for culture and context utilizes a long-standing theory for understanding child development: ecological systems theory (EST; e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1989, 1999). Nastasi and Naser (2014) describe how meeting the common goals across the professional standards and the articles established by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention; UN, 1989) can be facilitated by considering EST, child rights, and how school psychologists might normally be situated within children's ecologies (see also Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child

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Rights Advocacy", this volume). That is, the model advanced by Nastasi and Naser (2014) promotes consideration of critical ecologies as part of professional practice. This chapter extends the idea by describing how combining EST with a child rights perspective can inform research and evaluation. Embedded within the chapter are three fundamental assumptions:

1. Professional standards require school psychologists[1] to maintain current knowledge of research methods, even if they are in roles that make active research beyond individual child study difficult, because it is necessary to understand how knowledge is constructed and informs the field. This means that, although this chapter focuses on research and program evaluation, it is relevant to all school psychologists and other school-based mental health professionals.
2. Although school-based mental health professionals have a predilection for consideration of child rights, this can continually be reinforced and enhanced via ongoing professional training (much like any other aspect of professional practice), especially as new ideas and knowledge emerge.[2]
3. Understanding child rights entails understanding context, so all related research endeavors require capacity to think through contextually and culturally relevant details that inform needs assessment (e.g., determining incidence and prevalence of problems, identifying opportunities), intervention planning, causal inference, and treatment implementation.[3]

Space limitations prevent detailed review of specific approaches to research, so the chapter focuses more on clarifying how research agendas can more clearly address child rights via consideration of ecologies in which one operates.

The chapter thus describes how an ecological framework can inform research agendas within school psychology and related fields, and an argument is put forth that this framework can simultaneously enhance research validity evidence and account for child rights and professional ethics. Of course, research is always situated in a specific context, and the argument here for utilizing EST and child rights to frame this work acknowledges the importance of accounting for contextual factors.

Thinking through context is necessary in any study; therefore, the ideas presented here can inform almost any methodological framework when a research question requires gathering data from children or when dealing with studies that inform policies and practices that overlap with the treatment of children. This is widely understood when dealing with practically all forms of qualitative inquiry (cf. Denzin & Lincoln, 2005;

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[1] School psychologists are expected to be the primary audience for this chapter; however, the ideas presented here apply just as easily to most other school-based mental health practitioners, including social workers and special educators.

[2] See Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates," this volume, for discussion of professional development of school psychologists for child rights advocacy.

[3] To elaborate, different aspects of the articles should be expected to take on different salience across contexts and ecologies. As an example, none of the professional standards examined by Nastasi and Naser (2014) deal with Article 11: Kidnapping; the article language follows: "Governments should take steps to stop children being taken out of their own country illegally. This article is particularly concerned with abductions. The Convention's Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography has a provision that concerns abduction for financial gain" (UNICEF, 2011b, Protection Rights, para 2). As heart wrenching as kidnappings are, in several countries governments have enacted strong protections, so it can be reasonable that specific mention of the crime is not specifically accounted for by professional standards. It is however possible for psychologists to work in an environment where kidnapping is a salient threat for a large number of children, and services may be routinely offered to children who have experienced this crime. Furthermore, part of understanding context is accounting for chronology and micro-contexts within a country, meaning that even if a government has enacted strong safeguards, any reader might one day find him or herself providing services where kidnapping is a prevalent concern. With that in mind, it is reasonable to consider if and how Article 11 might be immediately relevant to professional standards, including how one conducts research and evaluation.

Patton, 2002; Shank, 2002) but is also the case when doing mixed method (cf. Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) or "quantitative" investigations (cf. Hitchcock & Newman, 2013; Johnson & Christenson, 2012; Newman & Hitchcock, 2011). With that stated, the salience of the ideas presented here should be considered based on the purpose of research for a given study and the formal questions posed (Newman, Fraas, Newman, & Brown, 2002; Newman & Hitchcock, 2011). Using EST to inform thinking about child rights when conducting child-related research should always be possible and will hopefully facilitate stronger inquiry, but an operating caveat is that any ideas presented here should first be considered in relation to one's research purpose.

Child Rights in Research

The Convention was established by the United Nations in 1989 to promote the well-being of children (UN, 1989; UNICEF, 2011b). The Convention includes 54 articles designed to hold governments and adult caregivers accountable for promoting child rights. Hart and Hart (chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume) detail the articles and make clear that psychologists have a role in protecting and promoting the rights of children (a full list of articles and related optional protocols are available in the Appendix of this volume). Nastasi (2014) extends the idea and argues that psychologists take on this role when engaged in research activity, specifying not only the basic premise that children have the right to choose whether to participate in research but also that inquiry should account for their expression, voices, perspectives, and worldviews. Accounting for a child's right to consent (or assent) to participate in research, by ensuring that he or she indeed has a choice, after being informed of any potential risks and benefit, is already a primary consideration when seeking institutional review board (IRB) approval to do research in the United States (e.g., NASP, 2010a, 2010b), and there are similar protections in other countries (e.g., Lindsay, Koene, Øvreeid, & Lang, 2008). However, there has been minimal dialogue within psychology that extends the idea of child rights to broader discussion of research validity (Nastasi, 2014), and Alderson (2012) argues that further consideration of how children's voices can be critically evaluated and accounted for during research is needed.

Consequential Validity

An operating idea from both Nastasi (2014) and Alderson (2012) is that children do not just have a right to ethically sound research; children also have a right to participate in effective research that properly addresses their perspectives. This idea is consistent with the broader notion of consequential validity (cf. American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999, 2014; Brewer, Knoeppel, & Clark Lindle, 2014; Hitchcock, Onwugbuzie, & Khoshaim, 2015; Linn & Gronlund, 2000; Messick, 1989, 1994, 1995), a largely psychometric concept that deals with the social consequences of measurement. Consequential validity requires thinking through the intended and unintended outcomes that come from testing and use of resulting data to make decisions, while thinking about the needs of involved and/or influenced subpopulations or people and their contextual circumstances. Any negative outcomes from the act of measuring should be understood and addressed, since failure to do so points to problems with both validity (presumably negative consequences were unintended and thus represent a set of unknown properties about a test and/or at how test data are used) and ethics. Critically accounting for children's circumstances, voices, and perspectives when doing research carries some parallels to the idea of consequential validity; this is because such accounting has the potential to contribute to more ethical inquiry, as well as the validity of data collected, analyses, and interpretation of findings. In other words, there is a connection between doing effective research and promoting ethics (NASP, 2010a, 2010b), especially in the context of child rights. For example, if children's perspectives are better understood, then resulting findings may yield research with greater utility, and children have a right to benefit from the types of findings that may be realized from more effective inquiry.

This set of ideas about the connection between child rights, research, consequential validity, and context needs further development. Nastasi and Naser (2014) compared the articles of the Convention and professional standards relevant to school psychology as advanced by the American Psychological Association (2002, 2003, 2010), International School Psychology Association (2008, 2011), and the National Association of School Psychology (2010a, 2010b). Although they found consistency between the UN articles and the various professional standards for psychology, one area for which there was no direct overlap pertained to research activity, because the articles do not specifically reference research and evaluation. Nevertheless, it is the case that professional standards require research competency among psychologists, and even most applied psychologists use evaluation skills when engaging in needs identification among children, examining intervention efficacy and effectiveness, or assessing the scale-up and adoption of findings. Furthermore, Nastasi and Varjas (2013) drew from different professional standards when conceptualizing how to integrate child rights into school psychology practice. In doing so, they identified research and evaluation as an arena in which psychologists must consider child rights.

Accounting for Sociocultural Ecologies in Evaluation and Research

As noted above, although the articles of the Convention do not specifically mention research and evaluation, all professional standards documents reviewed by Nastasi and Naser (2014) indicate that research competency is simply a necessary support for school psychology practice. In that sense, the articles provide guidelines that are useful when considering research. By connecting this to EST and doing research with children, it is critical to see children as being active agents in their worlds (i.e., immediate contexts) who have information, perspective, and the ability to teach and learn with adults/researchers (cf. Murris, 2013; Nastasi, 2014). This orientation is therefore consistent with the articles of the Convention, which do specify that children have rights to participation and expression and to seek, receive, and impart information (Art. 12 and Art.13), to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion (Art. 14), and to freedom of association (Art. 15). UNICEF (UNICEF Evaluation Office, 2002) has applied these articles explicitly to research, monitoring, and evaluation activities, using them as guidance for the involvement of children. Recent research on impacts of climate change in East Asia and the Pacific (UNICEF, 2011a) and children's experiences in secondary education in Spain (UNICEF, 2012) demonstrate how researchers have utilized the framework of child rights to inform research processes. However, these examples do not specifically invoke EST in conceptualizing children's lives or how researchers may fit into those lives. Herein, we encourage application of a broad structure for thinking about research or evaluation processes that orient a focus on child rights within an EST framework.

Defining Ecological Systems Theory

In EST, a child's world can be formally conceptualized via the types of systems described by the theory (see Fig. 1, adapted from Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", Fig. 1, this volume). In the context of EST, the fact that children are active agents in their immediate context is conceptualized by the idea of a *microsystem* (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, 1999) that is, a context or environment within which research participants interact (and act upon) and thus contribute to its construction. It is often useful to conceptualize multiple systems that a child influences and is influenced by; in Fig. 1 there are, for

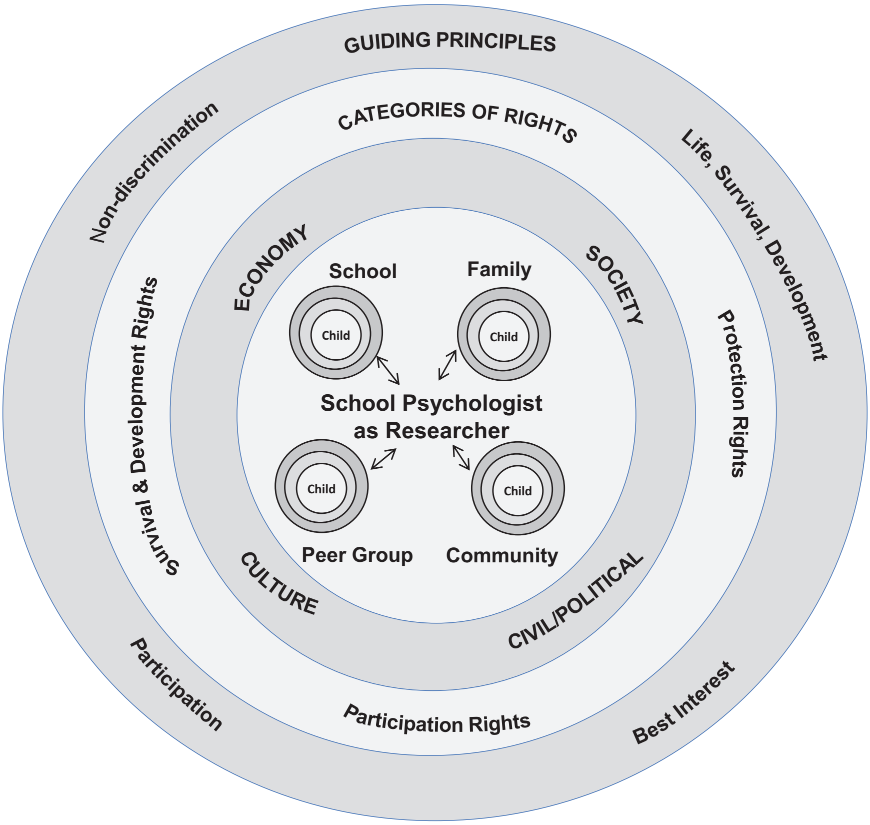
GUIDING PRINCIPLES
Non-discrimination
Life, Survival, Development
Best Interest
Participation
CATEGORIES OF RIGHTS
Survival & Development Rights
Protection Rights
Participation Rights
ECONOMY
SOCIETY
CULTURE
CIVIL/POLITICAL
School
Family
Peer Group
Community
Child
Child
Child
Child
School Psychologist
as Researcher

Fig. 1 Child rights ecology model: school psychologist as researcher. (Developed for this Handbook by the Tulane University Child Rights Team. Adapted here with permission from Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume (see Fig. 1))

example, family, school, peer group, and community microsystems. There are of course broader variables, or factors, that research participants do not co-construct or otherwise directly influence but nevertheless impact microsystems. These are *exosystems*, and more than one can surround a specific microsystem (cf. Bronfenbrenner, 1989, 1999; Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016); for example, think of a classroom (microsystem) that is influenced by school (exosystem level 1) and district practices (exosystem level 2). As another example, a specific peer group can be an immediate microsystem (i.e., the social arena in which a child interacts with a set of peers), which can be surrounded by a peer exosystem (i.e., the social interactions that influence how other children respond to a given child). How might a peer exosystem influence a microsystem? Note that a child is a system within the self, and some would argue that the child is a system deserving first level priority. That is, there are two major systems – the child and the child's surrounding – which includes the rest of the ecology and for which there are dynamic interactions within, among, and between. Think of a child (Sofia, who has her own microsystems) with several peers in a neighborhood. One of those peers (Isabella) has been socially bullied, and Sofia had nothing to do with this event. Yet when the two actors see each other after the initial bullying, Isabella attempts to bully Sofia. In this sense, an exosystem influences Sofia's peer group microsystem; Sofia was not active in Isabella's initial experience, but this did influence the microsystem.

The different systems can be expected to interact with each other. First, it is critical to understand both Isabella's and Sofia's individual perspectives. Then, consider how family systems can be expected to influence school performance (another system) or how peer group membership might influence the surrounding community. Such interactions are conceptualized via EST as the *mesosystem*. The interactions occur within yet a broader context informed by economic, social, political, religious, and cultural realities, collectively referred to as a *macrosystem*. In turn, any system can be influenced by historical contexts that inform both the immediate impact of events and the long-term individual development of a child across the lifespan, representing the *chronosystem* (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, 1999). Getting back to Sofia, suppose the bullying she experienced yielded anger, and through her agency, she got into a physical altercation with Isabella (a microsystem event). But suppose further that Sofia and Isabella's parents and teachers (representing different systems) responded in an effective and coordinated manner that promoted friendship (mesosystem) under the aegis of cultural sensitivity to values of peer respect (macrosystem), yielding long-term and positive developmental outcomes for Sofia and Isabel (chronosystem).

In Fig. 1, the school psychologist would typically be conceptualized as being embedded within the mesosystem and thus can be thought of as an actor that influences the interaction between child/microsystems, family, school, peer, and community systems. However, it is important not to utilize this figure in too concrete a manner. After all, the school psychologist's role can be replaced with other titles, one of which could be *researcher*, making the figure more relevant to the current chapter (note the figure has been adapted from the original to emphasize the *school psychologist as researcher*, to reflect the topic of this chapter). It is also important to keep in mind that the systems depicted in the model can be changed to account for specific types of research endeavors. For example, if a researcher were interested in team sports, after-school settings, or counseling groups, these can all be conceptualized as systems. This renders applications of EST that are multifaceted/sectored and flexible but still capture the dynamic and complex contexts in which children operate. Other chapters of this book focus on how EST can facilitate child rights, and this chapter extends this idea to using EST to help account for sociocultural ecologies toward not only promoting child rights as part of research but also potentially promoting overall research validity. This second idea, that EST application can help improve research, is not a novel one. Bronfenbrenner (1995), for example, articulated different research designs that can conceptually account for these systems, and Burns (2011) called for a combination of EST and prevention science.

Two points are relevant when thinking about context via an EST lens. One is, as the model depicted by Fig. 1 makes plain, systems should not be considered in isolation. The second is that the capacity to understand some of the contextual issues may be greatly enhanced by, if not solely reliant on, children's perspectives. The fact that no system should be thought of in isolation is critical in intervention research, policy studies, and formative program evaluations. This is a seemingly obvious point, but it is also a complicated one. Consider, for example, randomized controlled trial literature where some studies are referred to as black box investigations whereby the theory of action behind an intervention is not clearly examined, which is to say that findings only help one to understand whether there was an effect but not necessarily why (e.g., Grimshaw et al., 2007; Mendive, Weiland, Yoshikawa, & Snow, 2015). In the parlance of causal language, the distinction gets into the difference between molar and molecular causation, whereas the former indicates an interest in an overall relationship between some treatment and its effects, and the latter deals with what parts of a treatment are responsible for effects, which is often studied via mediator and moderator analyses (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). Some studies do focus on molar causation (e.g., summative evaluations that seek primarily to understand the merit of some program) and thus do not focus fully on different contexts associated with the intervention and how they interact. Although there is nothing necessarily wrong with a molar understanding of causation, particularly if this addresses the research goal at hand, the more complex variant entails a greater comprehension of the phenomena being studied, and it does seem that attending to the context of various systems and their interactions, the point of EST, can facilitate such understanding. This in turn can inform future implementation and translation of research findings to practice. It is likely that in most research involving interventions designed to help children, molecular understanding becomes more probable if there is an explicit effort to interview children, review their constructions and products, and otherwise understand their worldviews.

An example Focusing more specifically on child rights, Fig. 1 serves as a reminder to consider and account for the context in which research is being carried out. A key point behind EST is to see the connection between a child's immediate environment and a larger macrosystem. For example, consider doing research in the United States. As noted previously, one general advantage to doing research in that country, insofar as child rights are concerned, is that there are strong protections in place to ensure beneficence of research and informed consent, even though the United States has not yet ratified the Convention. This is borne out of robust IRB systems that hold research entities accountable for protecting consent, which are deeply rooted in a culture that values self-determination and has a history of decades of relevant legal decisions. This represents what many might consider to be a specific strength of this macrosystem. On the other hand, with respect to the child's voice, the US macrosystem is embroiled in standardization movements (i.e., a push to treat decisions in the same, predictable manner) that influence multiple aspects of educational and psychological systems such as how state achievement testing is done, identifying which interventions to use or decisions to deploy zero tolerance discipline polices (cf. Hitchcock et al., 2015; Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016). Although no specific use of standardized thinking is necessarily a good or bad thing, there are policy biases that can make standardized practice problematic; for example, third-party insurance decisions that drive diagnostic and treatment choices at the expense of localized therapeutic judgment or testing decisions that blatantly remove child voice from key decisions. There is a role for standardization efforts in policy decision-making, but it can pay to avoid an assumption that leads to the general idea that treating or educating based on the conceptualization of the average child is good enough (Hitchcock, Johnson, & Schoonenboom, 2018; Rose, 2016). In that sense, the propensity of some policymakers in the United States to engage in overly standardized practice could be conceptualized as specific weaknesses of this macrosystem with respect to child rights.

Again, there can be no inherent valence to standardization; a push to make something uniform can yield desirable outcomes if applied thoughtfully, and one should expect unintended and poor consequences when standardization is not thoughtful. Rose (2016) demonstrates this point when describing the history of designing cockpits in fighter planes. Design thinking in the 1920s was to conceptualize the average-sized pilot (after measuring dimensions from 100 pilots) and build a cockpit that fit this average. As Rose points out, however, no one person should be expected to fit the exact average when considering the numerous and varied dimensions of size (there is not just the matter of height, consider arm length, torso width, size of fingers, etc.) and how these relate to making split-second decisions during high-speed maneuvers. According to Rose, during the 1940s, it was plain that even highly skilled pilots could not control their planes with necessary precision for combat maneuvers. By the 1950s, studies set the stage for establishing that no pilot was physically meeting all calculated size dimension averages, and cockpits started to be reengineered so that basic customizations that drivers of contemporary cars enjoy (adjustable driver's seat to accommodate leg length, variable position of mirrors, etc.). To that end, most of us likely value a standard expectation that controller options be modified to meet individual need. This same standard expectation applies when considering child rights.

Having made that point, consider a policy called the *Third Grade Reading Guarantee* in the state of Ohio. This policy expressly states that all children scoring below a cutoff called a "promotion score" on a state administered reading assessment will be retained in the third grade (Ohio Department of Education, 2015, p. 10). There are sundry exceptions to the policy based on alternative assessment scores and whether a student receives special education or is considered to have limited English proficiency. Such exceptions have merit, but none appear to expressly allow for accounting for the child's circumstances (i.e., ecology), voice, and perspective. Accounting for these perspectives is a matter of child rights and can inform practice and research. This is because the so-called guarantee must be thought of as policy jargon for a specific intervention: grade retention. Broadly speaking, grade retention is an invasive approach sometimes used to meet the educational needs of a child. This means that the child who is retained must repeat another year of instruction, and this has implications such as mandating another year to the child's school life, disrupting peer groupings and likely introducing social stigma to a list of problems with which the child must already contend, and ignoring holistic well-being through sector prioritizing. Add to this, the evidence that the use of grade retention is questionable (cf. Hong & Raudenbush, 2005; Jimerson, 2001; Schwerdt & West, 2013). Despite the concerns, the degree to which retaining a child for another year is problematic (or not) depends on the child's circumstances. The EST perspective calls for careful examination of a child's various microsystems, overall ecology, and understanding his or her perspective when determining if retention is right for a specific person. That is, before making a decision about whether to retain a child in a grade, that child, his or her caregivers and teachers, the school principal, and school psychologist should endeavor to understand the child's ecology, how the choice will affect the child's motivation and well-being, peer groupings (the child might lose support of key and protective friends via separation), school instruction (such as the relationship the child has with current and future teachers), and family needs and resources. Individually, these considerations are all represented as microsystems; their interaction is a mesosystem. The long-term outcome of the retention decision is a chronosystem. With these considerations in mind, a school psychologist may well conclude that grade retention is a reasonable decision for a particular child or may decide that doing so is harmful. In either case, child and family voice matter when considering whether to repeat a grade; a child should have a right to be informed about the individual risks and benefits when considering a highly disruptive intervention that is not well supported by available empirical evidence.

At a research level, coordinated policy investigations should attempt to account for the different concerns raised by child rights and EST. A key condition of current US education culture is that attempts to allow for child voice and local agency are undermined by a policy that formally calls for relegating an important decision to standardized test results and not individual conditions (representing a problematic macrosystem concern). Getting back to Alderson's (2012) point about critically accounting for a child's perspective, it is difficult to see how the enacted policy in Ohio allows for this; furthermore, it is difficult to see how the child's sundry microsystems can be understood without interviewing the person (i.e., the child) who is most affected by a retention decision. In this sense, child rights do not seem to be fully honored, even in a country like the United States with a longstanding history of protecting children at both legal and policy levels. This could be clarified via a research and evaluation lens, should empirical investigation of the worthiness of the *Third Grade Reading Guarantee* be pursued. Related inquiry and program evaluation might not focus on this specific point, but researcher attention to different facets of EST can reveal much about the importance of context, such as understanding the specific characteristics of a given macrosystem. With respect to issues of standardization, although assessing child progress might be a uniform task, it should also be standard procedure to identify the best education practices to meet a child's individual needs, circumstances, and perspectives.

Applications to Common Research Goals

The example just considered should help to demonstrate that learning about ecology/context and operationalizing its affordances can inform common research endeavors, such as needs assessment, intervention planning, causal inference, treatment implementation, treatment expansion, sustainability, and institutionalization. Embedded within any of these processes and goals should be the consideration of children's voice and agency both to promote a sense of their relevant microsystems and as a safeguard for protecting their rights during the research process.

Readers might wonder both about the level of ecological operationalization needed (i.e., the number and types of systems needed). System conceptualization may itself be complex, and obtaining related data can be expensive. An ameliorating step in standard research is to follow long-standing design advice (e.g., Johnson & Christenson, 2012). Efforts put into understanding prior literature and empirical findings may go a long way toward helping one think through how to apply EST to any specific research problem. From there, specifying the research problem and questions should inform design (cf. Hitchcock & Newman, 2013; Newman & Hitchcock, 2011). Although a deep understanding of different systems should enhance all aspects of inquiry, the purpose of the research should guide how much effort should be put into understanding varied microsystems, their interactions, and so on.

If one is working within a familiar culture, and perhaps even has considerable expertise within a macrosystem, inquiry at this level can be minimal. Consider, for example, education policy research. Imagine that an experienced US-based education researcher plans to do a familiar type of policy analysis on the *Third Grade Reading Guarantee* in Ohio to understand its impacts on the well-being of children. Further, suppose that the researcher has influenced related policy in the past and otherwise has a good command of reading comprehension and grade retention literatures. It would seem reasonable that EST conceptualization would be relatively straightforward at the macrosystem level; for example, the researcher may immediately recognize that the state policy was enacted during a time when federal education policy emphasized standardized testing as a means for enhancing accountability. The researcher may also be accustomed to the tension and history around emphasizing localized judgment versus standardized policy in the United States. Given such experience, effort might instead be spent on thinking about how development can be influenced over time by the change in policy (chronosystem) and gathering data on micro-, exo-, and mesosystem levels to understand how retention might best be implemented (or avoided) in the best interests of students, given an individual student's context.

In contrast, suppose the task at hand is to understand something as impersonal as financial cost of the policy to the state; then different microsystems might not be empirically investigated at the child level, but school superintendents who need to worry about budgets might be of interest. But even in this case, conceptualization of children as agents, who have voice, can open research angles where time is spent on understanding how children might react to news that they will repeat a grade, how to communicate with them, what this means to their families, or if the school is well equipped to handle such a decision. Such considerations should inform the development of better policy. The point here is that simultaneous application of EST and consideration of child rights may be straightforward and can even facilitate the research process.

A Model for Research and Evaluation that Accounts for Child Rights Through EST

The previous example of the *Third Grade Reading Guarantee* demonstrates how EST could be applied in policy research, with an opening to thinking about how child rights could be woven into the process. Given the EST framework that

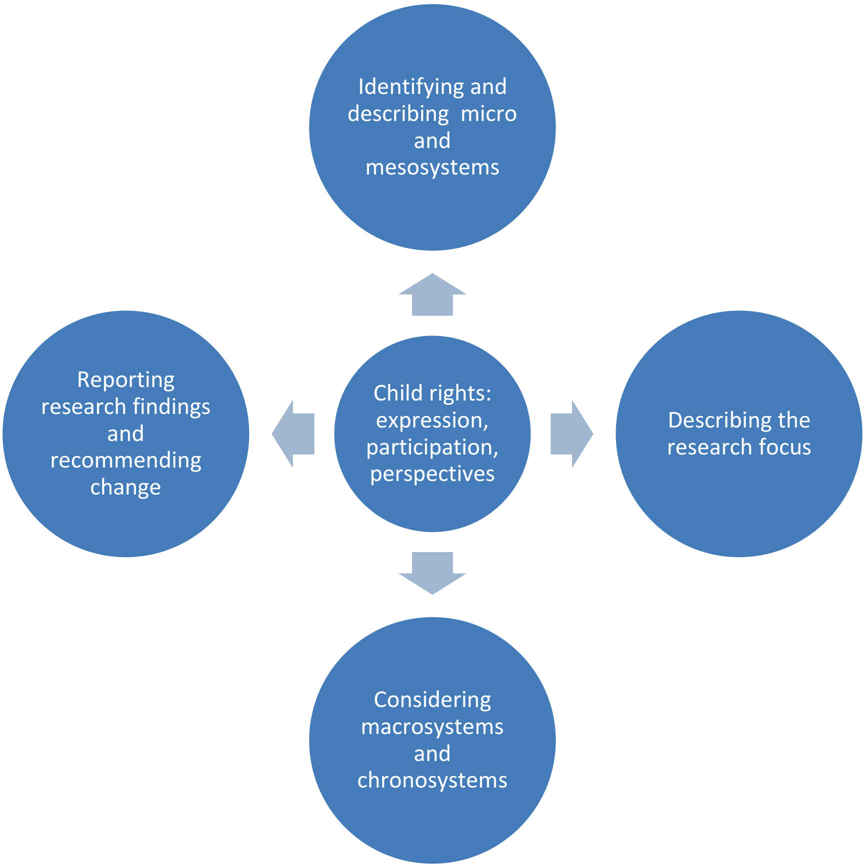
Identifying and describing micro and mesosystems
Reporting research findings and recommending change
Child rights: expression, participation, perspectives
Describing the research focus
Considering macrosystems and chronosystems

Fig. 2 Using EST to conceptualize child rights during the research process

has been outlined in the previous section and the examples of child rights applied to research activities, now consider a simple (hopefully practical) model for research and evaluation that accounts for the rights of the child through the lens of EST (see Fig. 2). This model proposes that concern for child rights should be at the center of research processes (center circle). This entails consideration of their rights not only with respect to whether children should be able to self-determine if they should participate in research but also that time should be spent on considering their voice and perspectives. For reasons described above, it is important to understand child rights and voice in the context of their worlds, and invoking the EST framework provides a useful way to conceptualize different levels of contexts (or systems). These issues in turn inform not only the typical step of identifying a research focus but also reporting findings and developing recommendations. While Fig. 2 refers specifically to research, it could be applied equally to program evaluation, as many of the expectations for ethical conduct in the field are the same.

Consistency with Other Program Evaluation Standards

As with the previously cited professional standards for school psychologists (APA, NASP, ISPA), standards for program evaluation in education are consistent with the articles of the Convention and the proposed model. Yarbrough, Shulha, Hopson, and Caruthers (2011) outlined several distinct sets of program evaluation standards for educational evaluation, each of which have a specific intent. For example, utility program evaluation standards specify the need for evaluators to involve participants in determining the purposes, processes, and products of evaluation, whereas program feasibility standards identify the importance of contextual factors in insuring the effectiveness and efficiency of evaluation (Yarbrough et al., 2011). Though not referring specifically to the rights of children, these program evaluation standards emphasize that evaluators should remain responsive to the rights, needs, and unique contexts of various stakeholders throughout evaluation processes. Recognizing that children are among the most affected and numerous stakeholders in education initiatives, it follows that educational evaluation practices should respond to their rights and needs, as well.

The emphasis within program evaluation standards on the importance of accounting for stakeholders' contexts connects to thinking about educational evaluation within an EST framework. If children are the most important stakeholders in educational programs (some evaluations of course may not focus directly on child needs, such as when questions focus on teacher knowledge after professional development), then a strong understanding of how they develop within their environments, as well as how their development influences their environments (and vice versa), can help to inform and strengthen evaluation processes. Consider again the hypothetical example of the bullying incidents between two children, Isabella and Sofia, which was used previously to illustrate the relationships between the various systems. Imagine that a researcher interested in examining the impacts of school anti-bullying policies decides to pursue a study in Isabella and Sofia's school in a way that accounts for child voice. This would be consistent with Article 29: aspiring to "development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential."

Applications

Within a research framework that accounts for both children's rights and EST, how might a study in Isabella and Sofia's school unfold? Whereas a typical qualitative case study approach might involve the researcher engaging in document analysis of the school's anti-bullying policy and conducting interviews or surveys of students and staff, invoking a child rights-EST framework would involve several more layers of data collection and analysis. To begin, the researcher would examine and describe the myriad of systems operating in this context, thinking about these systems specifically from the perspectives of the children involved. Keeping the consideration of children's rights in the foreground, a study like this would focus on the microsystems identified by and involving the students (e.g., classrooms, transitional and unstructured space, peer groups, teacher behavior) and the mesosystems created by the interactions among those, with attention to related exosystems (e.g., school) and macrosystems (e.g., state or district anti-bullying policy), as well. This research process would not necessarily begin with an established research question but rather immersion in the research context to ascertain what the children want to know about the school's anti-bullying policy and how they could imagine exploring these questions. Perhaps Isabella has been bullied in the school lunchroom (a microsystem) and then bullies Sofia in the classroom (another microsystem). The girls and their peers in both settings may want to figure out how to help stop the bullying, with the understanding that the school (the exosystem) has certain rules about bullying. But perhaps the students perceive that these rules have not stopped the bullying, because they are applied unevenly across the various microsystems. From a child rights perspective, the researcher could facilitate a process by which both adults (researcher and staff) and students examine the microsystems identified by the students, how these interact in terms of bullying behaviors (the mesosystem), and how stakeholders (students and staff) interpret and apply the school's anti-bullying policy (exosystem). Key factors in ensuring children's rights in the inquiry process are to invite and monitor participation and consent to participate on an ongoing basis, to ensure that children's voices and opinions are sought out and valued, and to discuss and disseminate results in ways that emphasize children's needs and agency. As described above, Fig. 2 illustrates how child rights can inform each aspect of the research process within an EST framework.

The ideas conveyed by Fig. 2 can be incorporated in other types of investigations. For example, suppose a researcher wishes to ascertain the causal properties of a group counseling technique on the incidence of behavior outcomes. Depending on sample size considerations and the stability of intervention procedures, such a study could be carried out by a randomized controlled trial, single-case design, or a quasi-experiment of some kind (i.e., an approach where students would be assigned to receive group counseling or not without using random allocation). For purposes of this discussion, Fig. 2 concepts can be applied to any of those options because, at the center, there is always consideration of child rights and worldviews. These inform the research focus; in this example, examining the efficacy of a group counseling technique represents the goal of inquiry. In such cases, it should be self-evident that how children perceive group counseling approaches (e.g., the generation of purposes, how groups are formed, the specific counseling mechanisms at work, characteristics of the counselor) would be highly salient to the investigation. As noted throughout this chapter, understanding these perceptions can be accomplished by identifying and understanding sundry microsystems (e.g., child development characteristics, peer groupings, classrooms, family needs) and how they interact (mesosystem). It is difficult to imagine how an adequate understanding of such concerns can be accomplished without interviewing stakeholders and conducting observations. It is equally difficult to understand how these systems could be well conceptualized without accounting for the broader culture and policy environment in which the study is situated (i.e., macrosystem) while also thinking through how children might develop during the counseling experience, as well as the short-, medium-, and long-term outcomes of the intervention (elements of a chronosystem). At the reporting stage, it is natural that the interpretation of findings and their application can only be enhanced by developing a command of child perspectives and context at different levels. This demonstrates how EST can inform a causal investigation of an intervention, and taking such steps is consistent with both enhancing the validity of inquiry and promoting child rights, since children have a right to effective research that accounts for their needs.

Now consider a completely different type of inquiry: survey research in the context of child rights. Suppose a research focus is on understanding how children and other stakeholders perceive some policy that affects them, such as reduction of recess time to increase mathematics instructional time. One might reasonably assume that some education leaders might scoff at the idea of asking children about such an issue, assuming the answers are already known (e.g., many children do not like mathematics and want to play more) and might assume that children do not have the capacity to make decisions that are best for their future. However, from a child rights perspective, students stand the most to gain or lose from these decisions. From an EST perspective, children can add critical information that could inform policy choices around recess and instructional time since, in aggregate, these stakeholders can provide some insight around finding an ideal balance. Furthermore, a brief perusal of the self-regulation learning literature (e.g., Boekaerts, 1997; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2008) justifies a reason to survey students about these issues, for it substantiates that involvement in decision-making about their own learning can enhance students' self-regulation of their learning. Finally, all children have some sense of what is best for their learning needs, and for older teenagers, this can be particularly strong. Therefore, it is erroneous to exclude them from the discussion. So, to start accounting more fully for their rights is reasonable. Doing so can in turn inform survey item writing that can gain a sense from these central stakeholders of the optimal levels of recess or other relaxation time. Such an effort should not be the sole determinant in generating maximum learning outcomes, but to ignore this step seems problematic. Standard item writing techniques (e.g., Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009; Fowler, 2009; Groves et al., 2009) allow for surveys to be fashioned in ways that are developmentally appropriate across different age spans, accounting for a number of different learning and motivation theories and thus yielding useful information. Again, Fig. 2 can provide a reminder to address child rights and EST perspectives.

Rather than stepping through these points to flesh out details, readers are encouraged to think about how survey work (research focus), sundry ecological systems, and reporting can all be informed by child expression, voice, and perspectives. Readers are also encouraged to consider if children have a right to inform related research and policy discussion and, finally, if the validity of related inquiry and decision-making (recall consequential validity) is likely to be enhanced if such child-level survey work were pursued and findings were taken seriously. This can be a useful exercise because research is complex, and there can be many considerations that make one lose sight of these points; but with some practice and the use of a simple, practical model to serve as a reminder, it may be easier to keep these points in the foreground.

Broader Considerations for the EST-Child Rights Model

Of critical importance here is that the application of EST is not itself context dependent, even though EST application calls researchers to account for context at various levels. Nastasi and Hitchcock (2016) demonstrate how EST-informed inquiry can be applied in vastly different settings and cultures while addressing a myriad of research questions. The degree to which formative and background work is needed to address the tenets of Fig. 2 is informed by factors such as preexisting understandings of context and child perspectives as they relate to the research focus at hand. In some cases, it will take a long time to learn about a setting, whereas in others, an investigator will come to a question ready to apply EST and more fully account for child rights. These will be dictated by prior experience and careful consideration of one's assumptions (Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016).

Another point is that, although there are several different types of program evaluation approaches and goals (Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2008), accounting for this connection between EST and child rights can be consistent with several prevalent models. As an example, Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) evaluations, as indicated by the title, are meant to directly account for context (Stufflebeam, 2013) and, on the surface, would appear to account for child rights so long as an evaluator has the intent to do so. Similarly, there is no obvious reason why this line of thinking about child rights and EST cannot be accommodated within, for example, theory-driven evaluation (Chen, 1990), the systemic approach to evaluation described by Rossi and Freeman (1993), utilization-focused evaluation (Patton, 2012), and empowerment evaluation (Fetterman, 2000). The ideas presented within this chapter also fit well with subcomponents of evaluation, such as long-term strategic planning with stakeholders (Ewy, 2009).

From a methodological point of view, explicitly accounting for child rights via an EST lens can be accommodated in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods work. The examples provided earlier in the chapter review application of these ideas to case studies, randomized controlled trials, policy research, and survey work. There are of course other broad forms of social science inquiry, and readers are encouraged to consider the intersection between EST and child rights within these.

As a final point, it may well be the case that EST application and accounting for child rights can facilitate generalization of research findings to other contexts. This idea needs to be worked out in other venues, but Shadish (1995) provides an overview of the logic behind generalizations of causal inferences to other settings and contexts. Briefly, the degree to which findings can be explained and extrapolated, while being able to discount alternative arguments for a finding, entails key ingredients to generalization. Of course, generalization requires not only an understanding of the findings themselves but also the point, or setting, to which said findings might be generalized. This kind of thinking is easily extended to non-causal findings, and the use of EST to carefully conceptualize different micro-, meso-, and macrosystems should help researchers and consumers of research think through generalization. In short, careful attention to context and child rights can potentially enhance the validity of inquiry across many different facets.

Conclusion

A central tenet to this chapter is that there is an intersection between accounting for the child's voice and fuller rights as a participant in ethically sound research or evaluation and promoting research validity. Like research validity, ethics should not be conceptualized as a dichotomy (i.e., some action or research is ethical or not or valid or not). Hence, even if an action or policy is construed as meeting basic ethics, there can still be room for improvement. Similarly, evidence of research validity can almost always be improved. What ties the two ideas together is the notion of consequential validity. Although this is a psychometric concept, it can be more broadly considered along the lines of ascertaining the consequences of research and how findings inform policy. A basic argument presented here is that consideration of child rights and various aspects of research validity can be enhanced by adopting an EST lens. EST can promote consideration of different contexts and how they interact, and this in turn can inform design and interpretation.

Considering the big picture, the purpose of this book is to promote understanding of and accounting for child rights. This applies both to practice and to research and evaluation. Although existing professional standards, ethics, and research practice already promote child rights, there is a clear argument for furthering work in this arena and doing so more intentionally, since this can bring greater clarity to research and evaluation questions and even enhance research validity. Whereas ideas presented here are highly conceptual in nature, some effort was put into facilitating their use via Fig. 2, which is meant to facilitate combining EST thinking with concerns for child rights to improve research and evaluation efforts,

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Building School and Community Capacity for Development of the Rights of the Child

Kevin A. Woods and Emma Harding

Abstract

This chapter reviews the place of the Convention on the Rights of the Child within school psychology and, against that background, then evaluates three UK-based approaches to school and community capacity building work by UK school psychologists. Key aspects of process and outcomes of each capacity building activity are identified, with particular reference to the promotion of the provisions of the Convention. The implications of the evaluations for the work of school psychologists internationally within school and community contexts beyond the UK are addressed.

Children's Rights, School Psychology and Capacity Building

The Declaration of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (henceforth referred to as the Convention) provided a specific focus and impetus for the contribution of school psychology to promote the rights of the child (Hart & Prasse, 1991; Mcloughlin & Hart, 2014; NASP, 2012; UN General Assembly, 1989). More recently, it has been recognised that the role of the Convention as an instrument for change and development across different countries, by all professional groups, including school psychologists, is crucially dependent upon the ways it is, and can be, translated from international law, through national governance, to communities of practitioners at local or district level (Britto & Ulkuer, 2012; Garbarino & Briggs, 2014; Kant-Schaps, 2010). In the USA, Hart and Hart (2014) highlight strong recognition of the Convention by school psychology through "endorsements, commitments and targeted activities… through the American Psychological Association (APA)…the International School Psychology Association (ISPA), the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP)" (p. 11), citing the example of the APA's Resolution on the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Convention's optional protocols (APA, 2001). However, Nastasi and Naser (2014) and Woods and Bond (2014) independently concluded, from documentary analyses in the USA and the UK, respectively, that although there is a general consistency between respective national school psychology professional and training standards and the provisions of the Convention, there is a lack of specific linkage between such standards and the articles of the Convention (note that school psychologists in the UK are titled by statute as "educational psychologist"). This may mean that development of school psychologists' contributions to promotion of children's rights is likely to have been, in some settings, more a matter of

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general goodness of fit with the work of school psychologists, rather than of specific strategic implementation of the Convention's agenda.

Woods and Bond (2014) consider that school psychology's loose strategic engagement with the Convention risks compromising both the impetus and focus of school psychology's contributions to and applications of children's rights. Different perspectives on school psychology's focus in relation to the Convention are evident. For example, Hart and Hart (2014) assert that all articles of the Convention are relevant to school psychologists, and they propose a new social contract between school psychologists and their clients based upon the entirety of the Convention. Alternatively, Clark Power and Scott (2014) focus specifically upon school psychologists' potential to support schools in providing children and young people with experiences of democratic governance for their development of the interpersonal and intrapersonal dispositions that enable democratic citizenship, preparing them for a responsible life in a free society as stipulated in Convention Article 29. In particular, these authors explain how school psychologists can draw upon an apprenticeship educational model and the psychology of moral development to support teachers in developing classroom discipline. They also propose a rights-based, just community approach to civic education, giving children and young people the opportunity to make and enforce school behaviour policies, in support of Articles 12, 13, and 15 which highlight children's right to be heard and due process, freedom of thought and conscience, and freedom of assembly. From a review of school psychology research in the UK, Woods (2014) identifies seven possible priority focus areas to direct the service portfolios of school psychological services, including development of children's literacy, optimisation of children's participation rights, and the development of children's identity and social interaction.

Whilst a loose strategic engagement with the Convention likely applies to other professional groups as well as to school psychologists, it is not clear within school psychology how the issues pertaining to promotion of the Convention differ according to national policy context, local social-economic context, work settings, or work type. It is notable that many countries which have signed and ratified the Convention have done so with stated reservations, which implies a potential contradiction and introduces a limitation in commitment to the international treaty (e.g., Habashi, 2015). In the UK, the role of the school psychologist has been consistently defined as encompassing consultation, assessment, intervention, training, and research activities, at the levels of the individual (child/young person), the group (e.g. class/community group), or the organisation (e.g. school) (Fallon, Woods, & Rooney, 2010; SEED, 2002; Woods, 2012).

For school psychologists, *capacity building* has been defined by Farrell et al. (2006) as involvement "working with groups of professionals and with parents in helping to build the capacity of others to respond to the needs of children and their families" (p. 50) (Note that the focus of this chapter is not upon the needs of children; however these may be defined, but upon the rights of the child, as set out by the provisions of the Convention). As such, capacity building work may entail a variety of role activities, such as consultation and action research, which are likely to be focused at the group or organisational levels. However, it may also be that, in some contexts, the school psychologist's role is viewed as primarily focused upon interventions at specialised or targeted levels with other agencies such as the school improvement service (SIS) or community services perceived as having a broader capacity building remit at universal level. (Note that service work at universal level aims to benefit all children without additional needs; work at targeted level aims to benefit children with additional needs; work at specialised level aims to benefit children with complex additional needs. Universal, targeted, and specialised levels of intervention in the UK correspond to similar configurations for intervention in the USA). Also, it has been recognised that work at organisational level can be particularly challenging and requires a different set of skills by practitioners such as school psychologists (Agyris, 1999; Fox, 2009; Pellegrini, 2009; Stoker, 2000; Woods, Stothard, Lydon, & Reason, 2013).

From a wide-ranging review and analysis of literature on organisational structures, processes and change, Weick (2001) highlights interrelated considerations of strategy, culture, and communication, within and between different elements of an organisation. This suggests the possibility that development of children's rights within an organisation presents challenges specific to that context, for example, as a function of leadership style, or the culture of response to change. In addition, under the terms of the Convention, the child's right to participation poses the additional challenge of extending capacity building work with professionals and parents to include the involvement of children themselves in the processes of school development.

Capacity Building for Community Relations

Smith (2002) reports on school psychology practitioner research which contributes towards building capacity within schools to promote positive community relations. The work is set within the context of ethnically defined religious group conflict and violence within the community of the North of Ireland, which was, and is, characterised by divergent forms of nationalist aspiration, set against a background of varying degrees of social and economic deprivation. Within the North of Ireland context, segregation was, and to some extent still is, a feature of many aspects of life, with people working, socialising, and shopping in separate geographic areas; most schools are characterised by the religious homogeneity of both staff and students (Turner, Tam, Hewstone, Kenworthy, & Cairns, 2013). Statutory curriculum provisions require schools to provide education for mutual understanding (EMU) and to reflect community relations issues within their curricula. At the same time, the Department of Education in Northern Ireland has supported school psychologists to carry out preventive and capacity building work (DENI, 1998), placing them in a strong position to support schools in developing and evaluating EMU curricula. Smith's (2002) research aimed to elucidate the processes and outcomes of schools' work to promote learning for improved community relations and to identify practical and psychological facilitators of this work. As such, Smith's (2002) report needs to be understood within its specific historical and cultural context; however, its practical and theoretical indications may be more widely generalisable to other kinds of school psychology capacity building work aimed to promote community relations. In the UK and globally, there are currently significant issues of ethnically defined religious inter-group conflict, and so Smith's (2002) findings may be particularly relevant for school psychologists seeking to support schools in addressing such issues at school level (Christmann, 2012; Doosje, Loseman, & van den Bos, 2013).

Though Smith (2002) makes no direct reference to service priorities within the context of the Convention, there are clear and strong links of the work to several key articles of the Convention, in particular:

- Article 29 and its associated General Comment (no. 1) which set forth and elaborate upon the rightful aims of the education of the child to include "…the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin" (UN General Assembly, 2001, p. 1).
- Article 2 which seeks to ensure non-discrimination of the child irrespective of "religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin" (UN General Assembly, 1989).
- Article 19 which requires that state parties to the Convention "take all appropriate…educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, [and]maltreatment" (UN General Assembly, 1989).
- Article 6 which affirms the child's right to survival and development to the maximum extent possible.

It can be seen from the specific process of Smith's (2002) work that there is further relevance also to:

- Article 29 and its associated General Comment (no. 1) which give "recognition of the need for a balanced approach to education and one which succeeds in reconciling diverse values through dialogue and respect for difference" (UN General Assembly, 2001, p. 3).
- Articles 12, 13, and 14 which affirm the child's rights to their views being given due weight; to the freedom to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas of all kinds; and to the freedom of thought, conscience, and religion.

Smith's (2002) research was carried out in six primary (elementary) schools and three secondary (high) schools across the North of Ireland. A combination of focus groups and interviews was used with a total of 343 participants, including 87 staff members, 228 students, and 28 parents. A qualitative thematic analysis of the data revealed 19 themes which were salient, either as a facilitator or challenge, to the endeavour of school-based promotion of community relations. Smith (2002) integrates and represents these themes in a model depicting the interactive and adaptive nature of school development and capacity building (after Stoll, 1999). Within this, several key themes were highlighted, including:

- An absence of classroom pedagogy relating specifically to the community conflict and tensions
- A culture of silence and avoidance of the topic of community conflict
- A general focus on personality development and resolution of conflict at intrapersonal and interpersonal levels (e.g. self-esteem, relationships) rather than inter-group level
- A specific focus on community relations linked with the school discipline structure meaning that "community relations provision could become…a reactive system for dealing with discipline problems" (Smith, 2002, p. 286)
- The role of ethnocentrism in a segregated context where staff as well as students belong to the same sector of the community and may, more or less consciously, pass on preconceived sociopolitical ideas
- The different starting points of teachers, students, and parents, with young people being more able and willing to discuss peace education issues than teachers seemed to expect; parents being supportive of discussion between students of different ethnicities and focused on prejudice reduction, extending to controversial issues; and teachers voicing concerns about students' different social and cognitive readiness for direct community relations work and a fear of "inculcating things by approaching the subject too early" (Smith, 2002, p. 287)
- The significance of school culture, particularly elements of staff collaboration and the presence of a social environment in the school that tended to promote moral reasoning and prosocial behaviour

From across the schools within the project, Smith (2002) concluded that "schools in different contexts had different capacities, potentials and limits to change" (p. 288) and proposed an adapted model of school improvement relevant to the context of promoting community relations where community conflict and tensions exist (after Knoff, 1995). Smith (2002) also highlights a cautionary point about adult-centrism: "It was essential to make sure the real needs, goals and desires of our primary clients (students) were integrated and reflected in organisational change processes" (p. 288).

Pointing to psychological research showing the distinction between personal and social aspects of identity, Smith (2002) highlights in relation to his own research that "unless school-based practice designed to help future citizens build an inclusive democratic society attempts to disrupt or challenge the sectarian attitudes and beliefs that children already hold, then it will be impotent" (p. 290). Smith (2002) also observes that school psychologists working to develop community relations need to reflect upon their own social and political positioning in relation to the work, challenging potential contradictions.

Implications for School Psychologist Practitioners and Trainers

In the authors' view, the scale and contemporary significance of Smith's (2002) community relations project highlight clear implications for school psychologist practitioners and trainers in respect of the promotion of children's rights through the development of positive community relations. Current indications from available literature and the authors' own professional practice experience are that the involvement of school psychologists in the promotion of positive community relations is not proportionate to the levels of concern felt by teachers, community leaders, and governments (Christmann, 2012; Doosje et al., 2013). There is a worldwide opportunity, and arguably an imperative, for school psychologist practitioners to respond to local community relations issues, in the context of the relevant ethno-religious or sociopolitical context, to develop school-based interventions and subsequently school capacity to promote positive community relations. Smith's (2002) proposed model to promote school improvement in the context of community conflict and tensions provides an evidence-based starting point for planning such intervention. Smith's (2002) research also suggests that the initiative for such work would more likely come from the professional initiative of school psychologists themselves, as their contribution may be obscured by a school's limited capacity to self-evaluate (e.g., fear of exacerbating tensions; framing community conflict in school as personal development or disciplinary issues), as well as limited perceptions of the school psychologist's role and contribution to such development. Given Smith's (2002) observation of individual differences in school cultures and capacities to change, school psychologist practitioners' knowledge of organisational theory and of handling sensitive interpersonal interactions would make them well placed to tailor interventions around Smith's (2002) evidence-based model, avoiding the imposition of a "one-size-fits-all" programmatic approach which would have inherent limitations within the context of any individual school.

Smith's (2002) project also has three further specific indications which are particularly relevant to school psychologist practitioners' capacity building work for positive community relations. First, the caution against adult-centrism addresses potential specific intergenerational differences in perspectives relating to community conflict and at the same time directly promotes children's rights identified in Articles 12, 13, and 14 of the Convention. Second, school psychologists may need to evaluate and promote heterogeneity within the school-based and psychologist intervention teams for community relations, such that there is capacity to reflect and understand the diversity of inter-group community perspectives. Third, Smith's (2002) observation of the need for school psychologists to be able to reflect upon their own social and political position, alongside other adults with their own such positioning, strongly suggests the need for school psychologists to ensure adequate and appropriate professional supervision for such work (Dunsmuir & Leadbetter, 2010).

Arguably, the strategic position of school psychologist trainers provides extensive scope to develop the profession's contribution to capacity building for the promotion of children's rights through the preparation of school psychologists with an appropriate basis of knowledge, skills, and understanding. During initial preparation, teaching for intercultural and sociopolitical awareness (British Psychological Society, 2015; NASP, 2006) forms an appropriate background for introduction to Smith's (2002) proposed model to promote school improvement in the context of community conflict. Implementations from the model could be supported during supervised internships/practice placements, in turn building capacities for such work within the school psychology workforce.

Though the findings of Smith's (2002) community relations project were widely disseminated, there is as yet no published research showing the application or evaluation of the derived conceptual model for school psychologists' capacity building for improved community relations. From their academic position, school psychologist trainers could support extension of the evidence base for Smith's (2002) intervention model, developing understanding of its utility and scope. Also, school psychologist trainers may be well placed at national, state, local, or district levels to lead the promotion of children's rights through school development or curriculum programmes to support positive community relations, such as the EMU which formed the background to Smith's (2002) research project. Such school development or curriculum programmes could in turn support development of tailor-made interventions by school psychologists at the level of individual schools.

Enabling Schools to Develop Children as Participatory Researchers

Burton, Smith, and Woods (2010) report an example of two school psychologists working with teachers to promote primary-aged children's participation through student-led action research. The national legislative context, which emphasised citizenship within the curriculum and children's opportunities to make a positive contribution as one of five key outcomes, was also significant to the implementation of this project (DfES, 2004). The project originated as a result of two school psychologists resolving to extend the service's student participation work from the individual level. This was explicitly linked to Articles 12 and 13 of the Convention, which state that children have a right to express their views freely in all matters affecting them and a right to freedom to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas of all kinds. Accordingly, the school psychologists adopted a principle that all students affected by the project outcomes would have a role within the project.

Notably, the project encouraged schools to utilise children as the primary informants, identifying their own priorities for investigation and then communicating their own opinions and conclusions. As such, the project has relevance to Article 14 of the Convention, which requires direction to the child in the exercise of her/his right to freedom of thought in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child. Burton et al. (2010) identify the project as developing children as evidence-based and scientific thinkers, which may link with Article 29 of the Convention which is expanded by General Comment 1 in stating, "Basic skills include not only literacy and numeracy but also life skills such as the ability to make well-balanced decisions…to develop…responsibility, critical thinking…and other abilities which give children the tools needed to pursue their options in life" (UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2001, para 9).

Burton et al. (2010) evaluated the rationale for linking children's participation with development of their role as action researchers, identifying the importance and value of both the focus and methods of research pertaining to children and children's services being informed by their unique perspective (see also Nastasi, 2014). The authors also acknowledge challenges in empowering children as researchers, including the development of appropriate research skills and methodology, and the dilemma of striking a balance between adult support and direction by adults and/or children. They conclude that "in the authors' professional experiences, young people have demonstrated a sophisticated view of the need for an appropriate balance in the granting of rights and allocation of responsibilities" (Burton et al., 2010, p. 93).

Selection of the two participating schools was based upon service knowledge of each school's stable staffing, capacity to engage in project work, good working relationships with the school psychological service, and previous positive experience of promoting inclusive practice. Two year 5 class groups (children aged 9–10 years) were identified to work with their teacher and a teaching assistant, supported by the two school psychologists. It was planned that the school psychologists would remain as consultants to the teachers, teaching assistants, and students throughout the project but that their direct involvement with students would decrease as understanding of the research process developed. Eight interactive and differentiated research skills teaching sessions were designed, focusing on topics such as deciding the research topic, data gathering skills, piloting the methods, and data analysis skills. The two class group projects focused upon playground refurbishment and homework, respectively. Both class groups administered a whole school questionnaire, and the homework project also devised a questionnaire for parents. Each class group presented their findings and recommendations to the whole school, and some students and staff from each school attended the other school's presentation, contributing to the social significance, and perhaps impact, of each project. Outcomes in the playground refurbishment project included new equipment, resurfacing, tree-planting, and lunchtime activities; in the homework project school, a parents' homework support group and a homework book for each child were introduced.

More significant were the clear indications from both projects of the capacity building influences of the projects. One head teacher observed increased teacher confidence in promoting pupil participation and involvement in decision- making. This linked the project work directly to a recent decision to form an active school council and the appointment of a learning mentor with special responsibility for the "voice of the child". The head teacher also highlighted the regular use of student-led surveys in informing recent sustainability and health projects in the school. Burton, Smith, and Woods (2010) concluded that "headteachers at both of the participating schools indicated that, following completion of the student-led research projects, a 'participatory culture is now firmly embedded within school life and that students show an improved understanding of the decision-making process within their school'" (p. 100). The two school psychologists supported creation of an electronic resource outlining the project process and research skills teaching materials, to allow other schools to develop similar student-led research projects. This resource was launched at a half-day training event for other primary schools across the district. It demonstrates expansion of capacity building beyond the individual schools to the district more widely, with the intention of a consultative role for school psychologists in supporting future school-based projects to develop children as researchers.

Implications for School Psychologist Practitioners and Trainers

Nastasi (2014) identifies an enhanced benefit in "teaching children how to do research, thus providing them with tools for protecting and promoting their rights, influencing decisions made about them and other children, and engaging in the democratic process" (p. 11). Burton et al. (2010) project provides a detailed example of how school psychologists can directly deploy such a strategy. Both Nastasi (2014) and Burton et al. (2010) identify important principles in developing children as researchers, including (a) the provision of research methods training which is appropriate both to children's competence levels and also the nature of their enquiry; (b) retaining children's executive skills within the research process, whilst ensuring participation by all who are affected by the objectives of the research process; and (c) the evaluation and response to the context of children's research, such that its outcomes are shared and integrated effectively and meaningfully with all relevant community stakeholders.

As a capacity building strategy, Burton et al. (2010) children's research project highlights the complexity of engaging adults within the organisation in the development of the research methods training, the support of the children's research process, and the facilitation of dissemination and action planning. Working with this complexity allows the development of a participatory culture within an organisation, in which children's contribution as researchers is embedded through the enhanced appreciation and capacities of the adults who work with, and have responsibilities for, them. By working with and teaching children, alongside teachers, at class level, school psychologists can provide a capacity building approach which teachers may find both authentic and realistic (DfEE, 2000). At the same time, class level development work alongside teachers is a demanding task for school psychologists. It is notable that Burton et al. (2010) project progressed through a supportive collaboration between two school psychologists, with carefully selected schools, as part of a service strategy. It is possible, then, that effective capacity building through the embedded development of children as researchers is only possible with appropriate setting conditions for the school and the psychologists themselves.

Developing Children's Participation Across a Local Authority School District

The recent introduction of the UK Children and Families Act (HMSO, 2014) and the UK Special Educational Needs and Disabilities (SEND) Code of Practice (DfE, 2015) has highlighted the importance of, and legislative responsibility for, embracing a child-centred focus. Accordingly, local authority districts have sought to embed approaches which support schools to ascertain and act upon the views of children with SEND towards their involvement in decisions surrounding their life and learning in order to achieve positive child-centred outcomes, using broad approaches such as person-centred planning (PCP). PCP is a way of *thinking* and *relating* to the world and other people rather than a specific technique, tool, or strategy. The term "person-centred" refers to activities which include *what is important to a person from his/her own perspective* and which aim to contribute to the person's full inclusion in society (DOH, 2007, p. 9).

Hitherto, PCP has generally been used in the fields of health and social care, particularly with adults who are described as having a disability (Sanderson, 2000). Robertson et al. (2005) found positive effects for adults of PCP for social networks, contact with friends, contact with family, community activities, scheduled day activities, and choice. These researchers also identified organisational factors that facilitate the introduction and effectiveness of PCP, including facilitators committed to PCP and who had PCP as part of their formal job role; personal involvement with the individual; a person-centred team; and managers actively involved in the PCP strategy.

Taylor-Brown (2012) describes the use of a PCP approach with children identified as having social, emotional, and behavioural needs at school transition aged 14–15 years and revealed how the power imbalances between school staff, parents, and pupils were reduced to enable children and their families to fully engage in the process. Norwich and Eaton (2014) found that the recent adoption of PCP in children's services was linked to perceived improvements in levels of support and understanding, having a positive impact upon young people's motivation and achievement across social, emotional, and academic domains. The researchers highlight the importance of *authenticity* within PCP processes, which involves adaptation in response to needs of young people and their families. Through individual work, school psychologists are able to contribute to the authenticity of the PCP processes in promoting an understanding of the child's communication behaviours, views, strengths, and needs, particularly where children's significant learning difficulties or disabilities may present conceptual and ethical challenges for eliciting participation (Harding, 2009). We report here upon a district-wide initiative led by a team of school psychologists aimed at extending and improving children's opportunities for participation across a whole school district by the development and inception of PCP process. The work was developed with explicit reference to Articles 12 and 13 of the Convention which affirm the child's right to express an opinion and to have that opinion taken into account in any administrative processes that affect them. With the focus upon SEND, there is also an implicit link to Article 23 of the Convention which requires that provisions for all children with disabilities "ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community" (UN, 1989).

Kilbane and Sanderson (2004) proposed four ways in which professionals, such as school psychologists, can contribute to PCP: (a) introducing the PCP process; (b) contributing to PCP processes and meetings; (c) safeguarding (quality assurance) within PCP processes; and (d) implementing/integrating PCP processes within school and district structure. Within the project reported here, an English School Psychology Service (SPS) focused on introducing PCP approaches to schools and educational settings, in line with national guidance from the SEND Code of Practice (DfE, 2015). This involved enabling each school setting to understand the principles of PCP; know how to organise and run a PCP meeting; and have an action plan for next steps in developing PCP practice across their school.

The SPS introduced a new service delivery model in order to incorporate the promotion of PCP approaches in line with the described legislative direction which required local authorities to transfer existing Statements of Special Educational Needs to Education Health and Care (EHC) Plans. Recent statutory guidance indicates that this process should incorporate person-centred approaches with a focus on co-produced outcomes with the child and family. The development began in September 2014 and initially involved creating an expert team of four school psychologists with the primary aim to develop the capacity of staff in all schools across the district. This team rolled out a well-attended programme across the school district which included exploring the principles of person-centred working; guiding staff in how to organise and run a PCP meeting; opportunities for staff to share their best practice; and producing an action plan for next steps in developing person-centred practice and school systems. The school psychologist team also provided tailored, context-specific support for individual staff within schools and other settings through information giving, modelling good practice, awareness raising, and confidence building. This involved supporting schools in appropriate information gathering; empowering the child, their family, and/or other professionals in preparing for the PCP meeting and in expressing their views; finding the best methods for the child to communicate; directing staff to other relevant resources and sources of support; and directly contributing to PCP meetings, where appropriate, and supporting facilitation of the child's person-centred plan.

Although this project is in its initial stages, formative evaluation has highlighted significant facilitators to what is an ambitious and challenging capacity building project across a whole school district. The school psychologist team experience has identified the need for project management skills and the ability to work at different levels of support and intervention in a flexible and interconnected way. School psychologists' effective tailoring of context-specific support has most often been possible where preexisting good relationships with school staff existed. Initial summative evaluations indicate that person-centred meetings are taking place in schools and that some staff are developing good knowledge and understanding of person-centred principles. Ensuring that processes are authentically person-centred and inclusive for all children and families as part of a whole school approach is a long-term and challenging objective, particularly because in some schools, PCP processes are not yet fully embedded.

The SPS future plans will focus on the safeguarding, implementing, and integrating aspects of the development of PCP as part of the wider expansion of the service delivery model. For example, a school psychologist may be able to quality assure, review, and evaluate the process of person-centred approaches by providing ongoing support and supervision to key stakeholders and by creating, implementing, coordinating, and facilitating the necessary accountability interventions. There is also a plan to deliver a series of person-centred workshops to parents involved in PCP to enable them to make effective contributions. Crucially, PCP approaches must be integrated into school psychologists' own regular professional practice. With this aim, five more school psychologists from the district will, from September 2015, dedicate time to working on person-centred transfer processes, with the ultimate aim being that the SPS delivery model will adapt to include more person-centred approaches.

Implications for School Psychologist Practitioners and Trainers

Capacity building across a large group of schools raises unique challenges for school psychologists who more generally develop working patterns and relationships with individual school staff. Where multiple schools are identified within a capacity building venture, school psychologist teams may need to adopt a staged approach which allows for differentiated rates of progress or outcome levels. Notably, the PCP project requires a long-term commitment from the SPS which requires explicit and expert levels of project management skills in order to maintain fidelity to project aims across time and SPS staffing changes. In any national context, therefore, project management training may need to be embedded in frameworks for initial professional preparation or within local planning for in-service professional development. Assistive factors identified within the reported district-wide PCP initiative include:

- Openness to PCP approaches across the school, which is largely dependent upon current SEND practices and processes
- Teaching-staff confidence in using person-centred tools/methods, which is to some extent mediated by existing relationships between key staff in schools and the child and their family
- Time sufficiency for processes such as gathering the views of families and children

A further insight from the PCP project concerns the level of capacities being developed. As a broad approach, rather than a programme to be implemented or rolled out, PCP requires engagement with staff understandings and reflective practice as much as their knowledge bases and skill sets, applied to co-construct meaningful interpretations of authentic person-centred plans and interactions with children and their families. Significantly, this requires school psychologists themselves to further develop their own person-centred practices and philosophies in response to learning from the wider service and area developments.

Developing Philosophical Orientations Towards the Convention

Capacity building requires school psychologists to develop and refine skills and understandings relating to the organisational, employment, or community contexts of the adults for whom the capacities are being developed. Such development requires ongoing evaluation and self-evaluation in relation to the specific endeavour. In this respect, the scope and ambition of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, whilst appropriate for children's present and future lives, may be challenging to some current school or district contexts. Our report of introducing PCP across a school district was set within the context of national legislation which supported this approach and signalled its significance to specific articles of the Convention. Similarly, UNICEF's (2015) Rights Respecting Schools Award (RRSA) provides a potentially useful framework through which the Convention can be embedded and developed at the organisational level. With a good knowledge of the provisions of the Convention, school psychologists can capitalise upon, and link together, national and local agendas to renew their impetus to support delivery on Convention aims. However, the debated issue of authenticity within PCP processes suggests that Convention-related capacity building work requires engagement in a process of local, and indeed personal, interpretation (Norwich & Eaton, 2014). The development of such interpretive capacities with professionals, family, and community members is, in the authors' experiences, an ongoing process within which a given structure or framework, such as PCP or the RRSA, enables communities to develop their interpretations of the Convention over time as part of a philosophical (re)orientation (Neenan & Dryden, 2000). In districts where school communities have already significantly advanced school development within a rights-based framework such as RRSA, school psychologists themselves may have much to learn from, as well as contribute to, the developed rights-based philosophies and practices (e.g., St Mary's Primary School, 2015).

Notably, all three work examples reported in this chapter evidence a process of action research by stakeholders within or across organisations. The authors consider research processes which develop and utilise a local knowledge base as being most appropriate to rights-focused capacity building work, rather than short-term training initiatives which may be better suited to embedding technical, administrative, or procedural changes. In particular, capacity building by school psychologists that involves children's and adults' participation in development of research skills within the school community can make a significant contribution to the aims of education as outlined in Article 29. This can provide tools for decision-making throughout the lifespan and inculcate a process of education which is homologous to its aims (Nastasi, 2014; UN, 1989; UN, 2001).

Whilst different national and local strategies provide opportunities for Convention-related capacity building work, the authors support the use of specific provisions of the Convention as a framework for development. The articles of the Convention are clearly and insightfully written, and their details can provide a useful starting point for reflective development within a community. In this regard, the present writers suggest that Article 29's focus upon the aims of education may be particularly significant for school psychologists in the context of their capacity building work with schools, referencing as it does several psychological concepts such as self-esteem, self-confidence, identity, and personality. Furthermore, General Comment 1 on Article 29 underlines the "indispensable interconnected nature of the Convention's provisions [and]…draws upon, reinforces, integrates and complements a variety of other provisions" (UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2001, para 6), such that a more comprehensive view of them may support understanding and enactment of any one.

Whilst the extensive General Comment 1 is designed to help Convention duty bearers to engage with issues relating to the article, research by Woods and Bond (2014) and Nastasi and Naser (2014) suggests that most school psychologists are unlikely to be making direct use of the Convention as a resource within their practice at any level. The three work examples evaluated within this chapter make differing levels of reference to specific Convention provisions, but none claims to have been primarily based upon, or emanated from, them. Notably, a current small-scale project in England, funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) to report in 2018, aims to explore the direct use of the Convention to the work of three School Psychological Services (Goodfellow, Harding, Tyldesley, & Woods, 2015). A further project, funded through the National College for Teaching and Learning (NCTL), is exploring with teachers in a special learning unit, the ways in which the specific provisions of the Convention can form a basis for organisational development to support student well-being and engagement (Williams & Woods, 2015).[1] Set within the contexts of current practice, such explorations aim to develop understanding of the claim that the Convention itself can and should provide an effective basis for organisational and professional development (Hart & Hart, 2014; Woods & Bond, 2014). However, devolution of funds in England to local commissioners of psychological services, whilst being successful in the short term, may present challenges for school psychologists' abilities to engage with wider strategic work (Woods, 2014). In order to protect and promote their national position in supporting capacity building for enactment of the Convention, school psychologists may need to invoke provisions of the Convention that can support children's access to their services, such as Articles 23, 24, 25, 29, and 39.

School Psychologists' Self-Reflective Engagement with the Convention

School psychologists' engagement with Convention-related aims through capacity building is affected not only by contextual or external role issues. In the prior section's example, Smith (2002) observes a predominantly interpersonal approach to improving community relations and a culture of silence relating to conflict within a community to which both staff and students belong. Notably, the context for this investigation is referred to as "The Troubles", providing a discursive externalisation which may promote separation from the personal implications of community conflict. Similarly, in the current UK context, certain religiously defined political views are linked with citizens who are considered to have been (externally) radicalised, serving to effectively disallow the notion of political choice and meaningful clarification of the rights of individuals. School psychologists are themselves members of local communities, employing organisations and professional associations and, as such, are personally positioned on a range of rights-related issues. Smith (2002) therefore proposes that school psychologists will need to evaluate their own social and political positioning in relation to rights development work. In practice, this might mean challenging adult-centric norms and assumptions or potential sociopolitical contradictions in the communities in which they live and work, as they connect, for themselves and others, personal and professional lives that are homologous to their advocacy for the rights of children under the Convention. The authors suggest that capacity building work, and work by psychologists as teams, perhaps demand this more so than other forms of psychological evaluation and intervention, which often occur less publicly at the individual level. To do this, school psychologists may need to reflect as individuals and teams on those strategies which enable them to effectively promote the rights-protecting and rights-promoting capacities of schools and other organisations. Such strategies might include a psychological service's child rights-promoting mission statement, a commitment to team or group work on rights-related development work, and explicit integration of child rights promotion to supervisory and professional development structures.

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[1] For further details on either project, please contact Prof. Kevin Woods, University of Manchester, England, at kevin.a.woods@manchester.ac.uk.

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Promoting Children's Rights Through School Leadership: Implications for School Psychologists

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Abstract

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child has delineated numerous principles that serve to promote the welfare of children, and many of these principles have implications for educational policies and practices. School psychologists can advance children's rights by working with administrators to encourage leadership styles and educational practices that promote these rights. School psychologists can also take administrative positions in schools, working directly to exercise these leadership styles and emphasize children's rights as a priority. This chapter illustrates how school psychologists can have an impact on school culture by highlighting participatory leadership styles that can be used to transform education. Included is a discussion of how program-centered and consultee-centered administrative consultation can be used by school psychologists to facilitate the efforts of administrators to promote children's rights. The chapter identifies four themes related to children's rights that have particularly important implications for transforming education. These include (1) child-centered, nondiscriminatory education; (2) childcare and protection; (3) culture, leisure, and play; and (4) respect for children's views. The chapter provides two examples of the school psychologist's role in promoting children's rights. One illustrates strategies for responding to the theme of childcare and protection, and the other illustrates strategies related to the theme of child-centered, nondiscriminatory education by focusing on child-centered approaches to school discipline. Recommendations are made about the roles that school psychologists can play to promote children's rights as practitioners, administrators, and researchers.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the ways in which school psychologists can work to promote children's rights and well-being through effective administrative practices and policies implemented by school leaders such as principals, district-wide administrators (e.g., school district superintendents, assistant superintendents in charge of curriculum, instruction, behavior and finance), and directors of pupil personnel services. Administrative roles and strategies are varied, and it is beyond the scope of this paper to cover all of them (for context, see Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Similarly, the United Nations Convention

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on the Rights of the Child (subsequently referred to as the Convention) includes 54 different articles that are designed to articulate the ways that children's rights can be promoted (United Nations, 1989), and these are also too many to discuss in one chapter. Instead our purpose is to discuss key administrative strategies, roles, and structures that are particularly relevant to a subset of children's rights themes with important and unique implications for the work of school psychologists. We begin our discussion by clarifying the components of children's rights and school administration that we address in the context of school psychology.

School Administration

Numerous definitions and theoretical perspectives regarding school administration can be found in the literature (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Marzano et al., 2005). For example, within the context of school psychology, administration has been defined as "directing, managing, or supervising the delivery of school psychological services" (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013, p. 39). Broader definitions have considered additional components of administrators' roles such as shaping the school's mission and goals in ways that promote positive and effective school climates to facilitate children's optimal development in academic, social, and emotional domains (Codding, Sanetti, & Reed, 2014). Although activities such as directing, managing, and supervising others are necessary components of school administration, we argue that a narrow focus on these functions has the potential to maintain the status quo. The support of children's rights requires school-wide leadership aimed at shaping institutional goals and fostering a culture of recursive transformation and innovation.

Lieberman and Miller (1999) describe interviews they conducted in which they asked school principals about their roles, comparing what they do and what they think they should do. Their findings indicate that principals believe they should be leaders, helpers, supporters, developers, and innovators who act as professional colleagues, engage in long-range thinking, and share knowledge. Instead of fulfilling these roles and functions, principals reported that they act as managers, supervisors, and evaluators who keep secrets, make short range and instantaneous decisions, act as autocratic bosses, and strive to maintain the status quo. In the context of the day-to-day exigencies of running a school, administrators may find it difficult to provide the supportive and innovative leadership necessary to promote children's rights.

Theoretical work on leadership provides several useful frameworks to guide administrators interested in influencing school climate and goals in ways that are consistent with a child rights perspective. For example, Lewin's work on leadership styles suggests that *democratic leaders* cultivate group members' active participation in decision-making and task management, which increases motivation, creativity, innovation, and commitment to group goals. This participatory approach is thought to be more effective than *authoritarian leadership*, typified by hierarchical interactions in which the leader sets policy, dictating who will do what and how it will be done, or *laissez-faire leadership*, in which the leader provides little guidance or feedback, leaving group members to make decisions and carry out work tasks on their own (Bass & Bass, 2008; Lewin, Lippit, & White, 1939).

The idea that effective leaders are not simply task managers but must engage interpersonally with members of the organization is echoed in Bryk and Schneider's (2002) analysis of the social foundations of leadership underlying successful school reform efforts. They argue that "the social relationships at work in school communities comprise the fundamental feature of their operations. The nature of these social exchanges, and the local cultural features that shape them, condition a school's capacity to improve" (Bryk & Schneider, 2002, p. 5). Thus, they posit that school administrators must establish structures and supports that maximize the efforts of adults in schools to create a climate that will promote children's academic, social, and emotional development.

Similarly, several theorists have differentiated between *transactional* approaches to leadership where strong central control has been retained and *transformational* leadership where group members are actively involved in changing the cultural contexts of schools and other work settings (e.g., Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Leithwood, 1994). According to Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996), “Transformational leadership influences followers by getting them to transcend their self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society, while also enhancing followers’ expectations and abilities, and their willingness to take risks” (p. 10). Such leadership may help foster the fundamental changes in stakeholder attitudes, skills, and behaviors needed to support children’s rights. Marzano et al. (2005) refer to this type of fundamental change as *second-order change*, which they contrast with *first-order change*, involving only minor adjustments to existing practices and structures.

Cooperrider and Whitney (2005) have argued that organizations can facilitate second-order change through an approach to organizational development and action research known as *Appreciative Inquiry*. This participatory change management method is strengths based, focusing on identifying and examining an organization’s *positive core*. According to Cooperrider and Whitney, Appreciative Inquiry may be more effective than more traditional problem-focused approaches because “human systems grow in the direction of what they persistently ask questions about” (p. 9). By engaging members in inquiry about assets and resources, leaders can facilitate positive development of their organizations.

Awareness of the range of leadership styles and management strategies, particularly the potential benefits of participatory (e.g., transformational, democratic, strengths-based) leadership styles, is essential for effective school administrators who seek to modify school cultures in support of children’s rights. This awareness is also important for organizational consultants who work with school administrators to facilitate these goals. In this context, participatory leadership must incorporate the perspectives of *all* stakeholders, including children.

Connections Between School Administration and School Psychology

As noted in the prior section, administrators who use participatory leadership styles may be particularly effective advocates for children’s rights in schools. School psychologists can play a key role in administration by enacting, encouraging, and facilitating effective leadership. One way that they can do this is by obtaining school-based administrative positions. As *boundary role professionals*, school psychologists must operate in a variety of organizational units within the school system (Illback & Maher, 1984). The resulting experiences may lead to leadership opportunities. For example, some school psychologists have become directors of psychological services, supervising large numbers of school psychologists. Others serve as directors of pupil personnel services where they supervise a range of school-based professionals (e.g., school counselors, school social workers, school psychologists, learning facilitators, instructional specialists, behavior analysts) who support the academic and social-emotional development of students through their various roles. School psychologists may also serve as special education administrators, supervising teachers of students with disabilities, or as directors of intervention and support services, working in close coordination with teachers and administrators, to implement research-based intervention curricula tailored to individual students and based on policies and legislation supporting activities like Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (NASP, 2011).

The above administrative roles are all related to the areas of expertise that derive directly from school psychology training and practice guidelines (e.g., NASP, 2010a, 2010b). Alternatively, school psychologists can obtain additional training and become administrators responsible for the overall functioning of schools (e.g., school principals) and school districts (e.g., superintendents). In all these roles, school psychologists have the potential to provide participatory leadership in support of children’s rights. Specifically, school psychologists serving as administrators may encourage staff to question basic assumptions about education, fostering creativity and innovation. They can also convey respect for stakeholders' perspectives, practice inclusive decision-making, and work to develop a common vision across administration, staff, and students. Also, school psychologists in administrative roles can communicate optimistic views about the meaning and impact of their unit's work. In this way, school psychologists may promote important cultural shifts as staff members observe their administrators modeling transformational leadership behaviors, which staff may, in turn, use in their work, thus promoting the learning and development of children throughout the system. These systemic cultural changes in schools would increase the potential for schools to adopt effective strategies to protect and promote the rights of children.

In addition to serving *as* administrators, school psychologists can work *with* administrators as organizational consultants (Meyers, Meyers, Proctor, & Graybill, 2009). One focus of organizational consultation can be to promote school administrators' use of effective leadership styles. In his description of organizational consultation, Caplan (1970) distinguished *program-centered administrative consultation*, focused on program content, from *consultee-centered administrative consultation*, focused on interpersonal dynamics and administrative functioning. The second approach (consultee-centered administrative consultation) is relevant to the work that organizational consultants might do to assist administrators in adopting innovative leadership styles such as those associated with participatory leadership. Program-centered administrative consultation is discussed in greater detail later in the section of this chapter that directly addresses children's rights.

Consultee-centered administrative consultation can support leadership styles that help schools address issues that are fundamental to the effective functioning of organizations. Using this approach, a school psychologist working as an organizational consultant might work with a school administrator, using interview and observational strategies to collect data regarding the administrator's leadership styles. Then the consultant would work with the administrator to analyze these data and create goals for administrative change based on ideas associated with participatory approaches to school leadership. In this way, school psychologists can help administrators change their approaches to leadership that would, in turn, lead to changes in school cultures with the potential to support the rights of children.

Children's Rights

There are legal, ethical, and moral implications for school administrators in relation to the protection and promotion of children's rights. To date, every nation in the world except the United States has officially committed to the Convention, and even in the United States, several rights outlined in the UN Convention are addressed in laws relating to child welfare, education, labor, and so forth (Cascardi, Brown, Shpiegel, & Alvarez, 2015; Doek, 2014; UN, 2017). In addition to legal mandates, educators are bound by ethical principles and guidelines regarding their treatment of children that set standards for practice in school settings and beyond (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). Finally, there is a moral imperative for school administrators, who serve in positions of power, to be mindful of the power differential between themselves and others in the school.

School psychologists—working either as school administrators themselves or in consultation with school administrators—can play a pivotal role in promoting children's rights in schools. As we discuss below, all this work is conceptualized as stemming from a respect for the views of the child, as outlined in Convention Articles 12, 13, and 14 (UN, 1989). Being inclusive of the perspective of the child is essential to administrative planning designed to promote children's rights and well-being and is consistent with a participatory leadership style.

Key Children's Rights Themes for School Leaders

Although we believe that school administrators bear responsibility for implementing all

Convention articles, we have identified several themes in the Convention that are particularly relevant to our discussion of promoting participatory leadership in the schools. These themes include: (1) child-centered, nondiscriminatory education (codified in Art. 2, 28 and 29); (2) childcare and protection (codified in Art. 5, 19, 20, 21, 22, 32, 34, 35, 36, and 39); (3) culture, leisure, and play (codified in Art. 30 and 31); and (4) the overarching theme of respect for children's views (codified in Art. 12, 13, and 14). In the sections that follow, we elaborate on each of these themes, summarizing the pertinent Convention guidelines, considering the relevance of existing professional practice standards and ethical guidelines, and reflecting on the ways in which school psychologists acting as (or in support of) school administrators can help fulfill the Convention expectations.

Child-Centered, Nondiscriminatory Education School administrators bear significant responsibility for promoting children's rights related to education. Article 28 of the Convention establishes this right, and Article 29 specifies the goals of education. Article 2, though not specific to education, emphasizes the principle of nondiscrimination in all aspects of children's rights. The theme of child-centered, nondiscriminatory education is addressed in the professional practice standards and ethical guidelines of school psychology organizations including NASP and ISPA (Nastasi & Naser, 2014) and is central to the mission of school administrators. It bears mentioning, however, that the Convention calls on school administrators to prioritize children's perspectives and needs when carrying out this mission. The purpose of education, according to Article 29, is to promote child development, which includes cultivating human potential, as well as promoting respect and responsibility for human rights, for one's own and others' culture, identity, and country and for the natural environment. Article 28 emphasizes equal opportunity and universal access to education and addresses the importance of human dignity in the administration of school discipline. These child-centered considerations should be at the forefront of the school administrator's agenda.

Childcare and Protection Children's rights to be protected and cared for are codified in numerous Convention articles. Article 5 highlights the need to respect the rights and responsibilities of parents and other family and community members responsible for children's welfare; Article 19 involves protection from and prevention of abuse and neglect; Articles 20 and 21 address children's rights in foster care and adoption; Article 22 outlines the rights of refugee children; Articles 32, 34, 35, and 36 focus on protection from economic, sexual, and other forms of exploitation; and Article 39 pertains to recovery and reintegration of child victims. Schools can and often do play an important role in childcare and protection, and this is generally reflected in the practice standards and ethical guidelines of school psychology organizations. Still, the Convention highlights several threats to child safety that are relevant to school administrators around the world but are not mentioned in NASP, ISPA, or APA guidelines (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). These threats include issues of economic exploitation and child labor, refugee status, and child abduction and human trafficking. Additional guidance has been provided by the UN for realizing expectations for education and child protection (see General Comments 1 and 13, respectively, and all other General Comments for the Convention; http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRC/Pages/CRCIndex.aspx).

Culture, Leisure, and Play The Convention delineates children's rights to participate in development-enhancing activities related to culture, leisure, and play. Article 30 specifically addresses the rights of children from minority or indigenous backgrounds to maintain religious, cultural, and linguistic traditions, whereas Article 31 emphasizes children's rights to rest, play, and participate in cultural activities (for further clarification, see General Comment 17). Schools play a key gatekeeping role with respect to children's rights in each of these domains, yet the endeavors specified in Article 31 (rest, play, and cultural participation) are not addressed in NASP, ISPA, or APA guidelines (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). School administrators can contribute to children's rights by ensuring that these activities and opportunities are built into the school day and by resisting pressures to focus on academic achievement to the exclusion of these other important pursuits.

Respect for Children's Views We have argued that school administrators should promote children's rights by considering their dignity and developmental needs, working to ensure their physical safety and well-being, and facilitating their participation in cultural and recreational activities. These goals emphasize a broad educational mission that includes—but goes far beyond—academic instruction. In these and many other articles, the Convention implies that leaders, including school administrators, must place children's perspectives at the center of policies and practices that affect their rights and well-being. Several Convention articles address this theme directly: Article 12 outlines children's right to be heard—to express their own views and to have these views considered in formal and informal contexts that affect them (see General Comment 12). Articles 13 and 14 pertain to children's freedoms related to information, thought, and expression (including religion). We argue that this theme cuts across all the others that we have addressed and propose that respect for children's views may serve as an overarching, guiding principle for school administrators interested in promoting children's rights.

Work of School Psychologists to Facilitate Children's Rights Through a School Administration Lens

Each area of children's rights discussed in the preceding section can be used by administrators to develop programs that schools can implement in support of children, and school psychologists who serve in administrative roles are well positioned to develop and implement such programs. In addition, school psychologists can use program-centered administrative consultation (Caplan, 1970; Meyers et al., 2009) to enhance school administrators' efforts to develop programs that support the rights of children. The focus of program-centered administrative consultation is to assist the organization with implementing a specific programmatic component of its work. Examples include helping a school system examine and strengthen its existing reading curriculum, discipline system, or program for home-school collaboration. Other examples that are tied more directly to children's rights might be to help a school system develop and implement new programs designed to maximize effectiveness of special education, to treat all children fairly regardless of race/ethnicity and other demographic variables, to work effectively to promote the learning and adjustment of children who are victims of parental abuse and neglect or who are placed at risk of commercial sexual exploitation, and to promote the adjustment of children from migrant families, as well as promoting the development of social skills, preventing alcohol and drug abuse, preventing bullying, and so forth.

Effective program-centered administrative consultation requires content knowledge related to the program being developed (e.g., preventing child abuse, effective discipline systems, home-school collaboration, prevention of bullying), as well as knowledge and skills related to the consultation process. Program-centered administrative consultation uses a set of problem-solving stages such as problem definition, needs assessment, development and implementation of interventions that seek to change components of school culture and school structures that are relevant to the focus of consultation, and evaluation (Meyers et al., 2009). In this section, we provide two examples of program-centered administrative consultation that underscore school psychologists' ability to support administrators' efforts to advance children's rights.

Children's Rights Example 1: Childcare and Protection *Childcare and protection* is an important theme related to children's rights that incorporates several issues such as deprivation of family environment, child labor, and the abduction, sale, and trafficking of children. Within this theme, as an example, organizational consultants might be asked to offer program-centered consultation to school administrators to help develop programmatic responses to the commercial sexual exploitation of children. The consultant would work with the administrator and other educators to define this problem in the local context. Based on this input, a needs assessment would be conducted to learn more about the risks for sexual exploitation at the school and in the local community. Teachers, other staff, and key members of the community could be interviewed and surveyed to obtain their perceptions of this problem.

In addition, as noted in the earlier discussion of children's rights, our guiding orientation is *respect for the views of the child*. This orientation can be a component of effective program-centered administrative consultation by including children in the needs assessment. This could be done using interviews designed to obtain children's perceptions of the risks and protective factors associated with the commercial sexual exploitation of children in their community. In one example of a project addressing this issue, the consultants learned from middle school girls about two risk factors: (1) young men regularly gathered outside the school building around the time that children were dismissed from school to attract girls into inappropriate activities, and (2) a white van drove through the neighborhood to abduct vulnerable girls (Kruger et al., 2013; Kruger, Zabek et al., 2016). After conducting this type of needs assessment with data from multiple groups of informants (e.g., teachers, students, administrators), consultants would analyze the data with the administrator and key educators to develop intervention strategies that would be implemented and evaluated. In the example presented above, the data about risks on school grounds and in the community led to development and implementation of a preventive intervention program to combat commercial sexual exploitation. This program is a curriculum called "girl talk" that has been implemented with middle school girls to raise awareness about risks and to develop coping strategies designed to promote positive development (Kruger, Harper et al., 2016). Another possible approach to this case would have been to work with parents on this issue, an approach that is consistent with Article 5 of the Convention. However, given the limited resources available, the consultants did not work with parents in this case.

Children's Rights Example 2: Child-Centered, Nondiscriminatory Approaches to School Discipline As noted in the earlier discussion of children's rights, it is important to use school discipline in ways that promote children's dignity. This is connected to the theme of *child-centered, nondiscriminatory education* that was discussed earlier. One implication of this right is that discipline is offered to children without systematically discriminating against specific subgroups by having them disproportionately represented in discipline procedures (see Article 2 of the Convention). In this context, there has been some research in the United States indicating that African American students are disproportionately involved in discipline events when compared to other racial/ethnic groups (Skiba et al., 2014).

Another implication of children's rights is that discipline procedures must respect children's dignity by not being overly harsh (i.e., using interpersonal discipline procedures designed to educate the child rather than corporal punishment) and by not being unnecessarily exclusionary (i.e., using in-school discipline strategies that are educative rather than out-of-school suspension). Program-centered administrative consultation can be offered to help administrators and schools implement effective school discipline procedures that maintain the dignity of children. Similar to our other example, this would be done by meeting with the school administrator and key educators to develop a definition of the problem. For example, a problem related to school discipline might be the repeated aggressive behaviors occurring in the sixth grade in middle schools throughout a school system. The district-level and school-level administrators might meet with the consultant to develop an operational definition of the problem and associated goals. This would help determine data to be collected in a needs assessment. Such data collection might include surveys of all sixth grade teachers and interviews with select educators who work with sixth graders throughout the district. In response to our guiding orientation (i.e., *respect for the views of the child*), we would also collect data from sixth graders and their parents at each middle school in the district. As with educators, these data might include interviews with a small number of sixth grade children and a small number of parents in each school as well as surveys administered to larger numbers of parents and sixth graders.

The data from educators, parents, and students would be analyzed. Examples of potential findings might be that teachers feel they do not have adequate administrative support when discipline is needed, whereas students and parents feel that students are treated unfairly when teachers respond harshly and do things to shame them in front of other students, educators, and/or their parents. At the same time, the objective data might show that out-of-school suspensions are targeted disproportionately to boys. These findings would be presented and discussed with district-level and school-level administrators and a sample of other middle school educators and parents.

These administrators, educators, and parents would work with the organizational consultant to develop plans to strengthen discipline procedures based on an analysis of these data. One example might be the implementation of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS; Horner et al., 2009) in each middle school to provide a range of evidence-based discipline procedures designed to provide behavioral supports to students and teachers, thus facilitating pro-social behavior. Another suggestion developed by the consultant in coordination with the administration, educators, and parents might be to seek presentations from specialists in evidence-based discipline procedures that respect the rights of children and that educate children to change their behaviors rather than simply punish them. In line with our guiding orientation, *respect for the views of the child*, the consultant might recommend a constructivist discipline model that incorporates students' views in determining school-level practices. There is precedence for this approach in the literature. One example is the *just community* approach which originated with Kohlberg's (1985) work regarding moral education and expanded with Oser's efforts related to *just community schools* in Germany and Switzerland (see Oser, 2014).

An additional suggestion that might emerge from those data could be to monitor office discipline referrals, in-school suspensions, and out-of-school suspensions to determine patterns of referrals. When certain subgroups of children repeatedly receive harsh and exclusionary discipline, the data would be fed back to teachers to develop consensus about new preventive procedures associated with PBIS that might help to reduce the pattern of inappropriate referrals. Further, the data collection would be ongoing to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention.

Applications to Policy, Research, and Training

The children's rights themes discussed in this chapter have substantive implications for policy, research, and training of school psychologists who work as administrators or who consult with administrators about these issues. In addition to offering interventions to address these themes as described in our two prior examples related to the commercial sexual exploitation of children (theme: Childcare and Protection) and the use of effective discipline strategies (theme: Promote Children's Dignity Through Discipline in Schools), themes related to children's rights can be used to influence policy at the level of a school district, a state, or a country. For example, related to the commercial sexual exploitation of children, the school district might work jointly with the community to promote policies designed to enhance awareness of this problem (e.g., use of social media and community billboards to increase awareness of this problem) along with awareness of preventive strategies that can enhance children's safety (e.g., safe use of the internet; safe transportation to and from school; children going places in groups of supportive friends; children dating reliable partners; and use of effective social problem solving skills). A focus on policy might also include school district personnel working collaboratively with community members, including those with legal expertise, to mobilize bystander/observer intervention and criminalize and prosecute adults who participate in any aspects of commercial sexual exploitation, while enacting policies that decriminalize and support child victims. Each of these ideas about policy has implications for the local school district and community, the state, and the country.

Discipline strategies also have policy implications at national, state, and local levels. Educators can work collaboratively with community groups at each level to develop policies that mandate the use of appropriate, respectful, and nondiscriminatory discipline strategies. Examples might include laws and regulations that prohibit corporal punishment and require inclusive disciplinary strategies designed to protect children's right to education by keeping them in school. In addition, data can be collected systematically at each of these levels to monitor discipline strategies with a focus on how harsh or exclusionary these procedures are and on whether demographic subgroups (e.g., boys, certain ethnic groups, those from low social class backgrounds, or children who are from immigrant families) are disproportionate recipients of discipline, particularly harsh or exclusionary discipline. These data can be used to encourage the use of effective discipline strategies at local, state, and national levels. In this context, one productive approach would be to use UNESCO's guidelines for discipline strategies that eliminate corporal punishment and emphasize child rights (Hart, 2005).

Children's rights can be used to develop a research agenda for school psychologists and other educators. The examples discussed related to policy have clear implications for research needs, and similar policy-related research goals can be developed from the other children's rights themes.

In addition, as described in the examples in this chapter, one effective way that school psychologists can work with administrators to encourage practices that support children's rights is to use program-centered administrative consultation to facilitate relevant school changes. Further, we indicated earlier in the chapter that consultee-centered administrative consultation has the potential to advance participatory leadership styles that can promote children's rights. There has been a limited amount of research regarding both program-centered and consultee-centered administrative consultation. While there is a general need for research regarding the effectiveness of these methods, there is a specific need for research about the impact of these approaches to administrative consultation on a range of issues related to children's rights.

The goal of enhancing children's rights based on methods and policies implemented in schools throughout the world has numerous implications for training school psychologists. Students enrolled in school psychology graduate programs need explicit training regarding important issues related to children's rights and about program-centered and consultee-centered administrative consultation. Training in these areas can enable school psychologists to work effectively with administrators and educators to develop participatory leadership strategies and school-based interventions that promote children's rights. Relevant training can also be provided through professional development for practicing school psychologists.

Training regarding children's rights is also needed for school psychologists and other educators who take on administrative roles. Training for administrators needs to provide information about children's rights and about approaches to creating and implementing policies that promote children's rights on the local, state, and national levels. In addition, training for administrators needs to focus on participatory leadership strategies that are most congruent with children's rights. These efforts should include preservice training for individuals who are learning to become school administrators, as well as professional development activities for practicing administrators.

Conclusions and Recommendations for Psychologists

Schools throughout the world can play an important role in maximizing the development of children by promoting children's rights. School psychologists, acting as consultants or school administrators, are uniquely positioned to support schools' efforts toward this goal.

Recommendations for Application in School Psychology

We have several recommendations for the field of school psychology that have implications for supporting children's rights through school leadership. These recommendations are presented in three distinct groupings. One set of recommendations is designed to develop professional skills, knowledge, and attitudes to promote children's rights through school leadership exercised by school psychologists and administrators. The second set addresses strategies for administrators (including school psychologists who become administrators) to promote children's rights through school leadership. The third set of recommendations concerns the research that is needed regarding efforts to promote children's rights in schools throughout the world.

1. Recommendations for developing professional skills, knowledge, and attitudes to promote children's rights through school leadership.
   (a) Incorporate relevant content into standards for preservice school psychology training programs (see Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", this volume) and programs for training school administrators. Required preservice and in-service training elements might include:
      (i) Systematic exposure to the literature describing children's rights (e.g., Doek, 2014; Nastasi & Varjas, 2013; Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume; Lee & Krappman, chapter "Status of Child Rights in the International Community", this volume; Nastasi & Naser, 2014; UN, 1989)[1]
      (ii) Fostering appreciation of, investment in, and commitment to the values of children's rights and an understanding of the school's role in promoting and protecting children's rights
      (iii) Development of skills needed to implement evidence-based strategies to enhance children's rights
      (iv) Training related to participatory leadership styles
      (v) Development of knowledge and skills relevant to working with vulnerable subgroups of children (e.g., ethnic minority groups, children from low SES backgrounds, children from immigrant or refugee families, children from religious backgrounds that are underrepresented in the culture, and children who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, intersex and/or transgender)
      (vi) Development of knowledge of evidence-based strategies that teachers and other educators can use to promote children's rights

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[1] *School Psychologists as Advocates for Child Rights*, training manual and resources, is available as an accompanying online document for this volume. A related set of online self-study modules for professional development of school psychologists and other school mental health professionals, developed by the Tulane University Child Rights, is available from Bonnie Nastasi, Tulane University, bnastasi@tulane.edu.

        (vii) Development of skills in program-centered and consultee-centered administrative consultation to enhance children's rights
    (b) Require school psychologists and school administrators seeking certification and licensure renewal to obtain ongoing training regarding children's rights, addressing the skills, knowledge, and attitudes just described.
    (c) Prepare school psychologists and school administrators to provide in-service and preservice training to other educators regarding children's rights, addressing the skills, knowledge, and attitudes just described.
2. Recommendations for administrators (including school psychologists who become administrators) to promote children's rights through school leadership.
    (a) Acquire and apply knowledge related to children's rights.
    (b) Learn and deploy participatory leadership styles that engage all members of the organization to contribute to decisions, policies, and procedures that promote children's rights.
    (c) Provide professional development to educators regarding children's rights and evidence-based strategies to promote children's rights, including a focus on vulnerable subgroups of children.
3. School psychologists can play an important role in research to promote children's rights in schools (including the roles of school psychologists and school administrators). Recommended activities include:
    (a) Evaluation research to determine the effectiveness of training (both preservice and in-service) about knowledge and skills for promoting children's rights
    (b) Research on the effectiveness of strategies to promote children's rights, including a focus on vulnerable subgroups of children
    (c) Research on the effectiveness of policies designed to promote children's rights
    (d) Research on the effectiveness of participatory leadership styles in accomplishing goals consistent with children's rights
    (e) Research on consultee-centered administrative consultation to enhance administrators' use of participatory leadership styles
    (f) Research on program-centered administrative consultation to help schools develop and implement effective programs designed to promote children's rights
    (g) Research that uses an international perspective and/or cross-cultural comparisons in its efforts to understand the promotion of children's rights globally

Summary and Conclusions

Children's rights should be an integral component of the education provided to students in schools and to their lived experience in school environments throughout the world. School administrators can have a significant influence on and contribute to schools' efforts to promote children's rights. School psychologists can play an important role by working to help administrators develop and implement leadership styles, policies, and educational methods that support children's rights. School psychologists in administrative roles working directly with personnel in their schools can use effective leadership styles to develop and implement school policies at local, state, and national levels that support children's rights, while encouraging educators in their schools to use school-based strategies designed to respect and promote children's rights.

Toward these ends, school administrators can use participatory leadership styles that encourage the active involvement of teachers and students in developing goals and strategies to promote children's rights in their schools. In addition, school psychologists can support these efforts by incorporating knowledge about children's rights in their consultee-centered and program-centered administrative consultation. To advance the welfare of children throughout the world, there is a need for cross-national research about the impact of participatory leadership styles, program-centered and consultee-centered administrative consultation, as well as educational policies and school-based methods designed to promote children's rights.

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Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists

Marie Wernham

Abstract

This chapter explores the meaning of child rights advocacy for school psychologists, why school psychologists should engage in child rights advocacy, and how they can do this in practice. It builds on previous chapters outlining the international child rights framework, the links between child rights and school psychology, and other roles and responsibilities of school psychologists. In particular, this chapter builds on the *Child Rights, Policy and School Psychology* chapter in this volume. It includes examples of child rights advocacy approaches and examples of advocacy to change laws, policies, and practices to respect children's rights at school, community, and national levels.

What is Child Rights Advocacy in the Context of School Psychology?

In simple terms, *advocacy* has been defined as "identifying and calling for change. Advocacy calls for changes in laws, policies, practices and structures in order to improve people's lives" (International Planned Parenthood Federation [IPPF], 2011, p. 6). In the context of school psychology, *advocacy* has been defined as "engaging in actions to promote the development and/or implementation of policies to protect and promote children's well-being, learning, and development at all levels of the social ecology (microsystem, exosystem, macrosystem, mesosytem)" (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013, pp. 38–39).

The *first definition* (IPPF, 2011) has the value of being simple and broad ranging but is not specific to children. The *second definition* (Nastasi & Varjas, 2013) is specific to children and to school psychology but is limited to influencing only policies, to the exclusion of laws, practices, attitudes, behavior, and structures. The second definition also makes no explicit reference to child rights. A *third definition,* by United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF] (2010), combines a broad ranging understanding of advocacy with a specific focus on child rights, although not on school psychology: "[A]dvocacy is the deliberate process, based on demonstrated evidence, to directly and indirectly influence decision makers, stakeholders and relevant audiences to support and implement actions that contribute to the fulfilment of children's and women's rights" (UNICEF, 2010, p. 3).

For the purposes of this article, a new definition is proposed for child rights advocacy for school psychologists: *Child rights advocacy is the deliberate process by school psychologists,*

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based on demonstrated evidence, to directly and indirectly influence decision makers, stakeholders and relevant audiences to support and implement actions that contribute to the fulfilment of children's rights. A more detailed definition could also reference the social ecology (see Nastasi & Varjas, 2013, definition). In the context of school psychology and child rights, the levels of the social ecology are described in Nastasi and Naser (chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume).

Why Should School Psychologists Engage in Child Rights Advocacy?

Based on professional practice standards and models, advocacy has been identified as one of the accepted professional roles of school psychologists, along with consultation, intervention and prevention, research and evaluation, assessment, and administration (Nastasi & Naser, 2014). In relation to child rights advocacy more specifically, the position statement on child rights issued by the (US) National Association of School Psychologists (National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2012; see Table 1 for selected inclusions) provides a clear example from one country of the rationale for school psychologists' engagement in this area.

The last statement in Table 1 about the value of child rights advocacy in proactively promoting optimal development, well-being, learning, and safety for all children, as opposed to reactively responding to child rights violations after the fact, is reflected in other academic literature on child rights and school psychology. For example, Hart argues that the "new social contract for school psychology" based on child rights should have the intent "to serve each and every child through direct and indirect services, including systems change and capacity building, to design and implement interventions promoting full health and development as well as preventing and correcting problems" (Hart, 2007, p. 536). The "systems change" referred to clearly points to the role of child rights advocacy for school psychologists. Hart and Hart further emphasize: "Transformation of the profession is

Table 1 Selected statements from the NASP (2012) Position Statement on Child Rights

"NASP's 2010 standards for ethics, practice, training, and credentialing […] are philosophically consistent with [the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child[a]] [hereinafter referred to as the 'Convention'] and collectively provide opportunities for translating child rights principles into policies and actions that affect children in the context of families, schools, and communities" (NASP, 2012).
"As mediators between policy and practice in the promotion and protection of child rights, school psychologists have the professional expertise and ethical responsibility to interpret the [Convention] to inform policy and action at local, national, and international levels" (NASP, 2012).
"Because of school psychologists' expertise and experience, they are well positioned to operationalize the [Convention] in their professional practice and to serve as advocates who promote child rights at systemic and policy levels in the following ways [as articulated in International School Psychology Association (ISPA) & Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO), 2010[b]]. *Professional practice*. School psychologists provide a range of services (e.g., consultation, prevention, intervention, assessment) in multiple settings, with services directed at individuals (e.g., students, parents, educators) and systems (family, classroom, schools, community organizations). Child rights should be central to the work in each of these contexts and school psychologists should continue to evaluate their own services and the incorporation of child rights into individual practices. *System-level advocacy*. School psychologists must identify and understand how the rights established by the [Convention] can be used positively to influence mental health (or psychological) services and policies within classrooms and other school venues, schools, school systems, and other child-serving agencies. They have the responsibility to examine services in these settings and facilitate changes to policies and procedures that ensure the protection and promotion of child rights. *Public policy*. School psychologists are an important link in translating research into policy and practice at local, national, and international levels. Governments, through both action and inaction, contribute to the protection or disregard for child rights. Instead of focusing only on ameliorating violations of child rights, school psychologists, through individual and collective advocacy, can help to promote and protect child rights, and thereby help to ensure optimal development, well-being, learning, and safety of all children" (NASP, 2012).

[a] http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CRC.aspx

[b] International School Psychology Association (ISPA) & Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO) (2010). Child rights for school psychologists and other school-based mental health professionals curriculum. New Orleans, LA: School Psychology Program, Tulane University. The training manual for this curriculum is available from Springer as an accompanying online resource to this volume

herein encouraged toward a future giving primacy to promoting the well-being, holistic health and full development of potentials for all children in ways respecting children's rights," and "problem and deficit orientations must become secondary to opportunity and assets emphases, fragmented issue concentrations will need to be formulated to contribute meaning and give way to holistic considerations, short term interventions must appreciate and facilitate long term plans, and individual expertise should be directed to serve and be magnified by collaborative partnerships including the child and those who care for and influence the child" (Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume).

School psychologists should therefore engage in child rights advocacy because advocacy is an accepted professional role for school psychologists, leading to long-term positive change in legislation, policies, attitudes, behavior, and practices toward children. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations [UN], 1989; hereafter referred to as the Convention) provides an exciting, comprehensive, and internationally relevant framework on which to base this child rights advocacy—advocacy that should be oriented to the positive and holistic development of every child as a rights-bearing individual.

How Can School Psychologists Engage in Child Rights Advocacy?

Approaches and Techniques

Basic Advocacy Components and Steps

UNICEF (2010) identifies eight foundation areas of advocacy, the strengthening of which can reinforce capacities for successful advocacy and enhance the ability to respond to (sometimes sudden) changes that can occur during the implementation of an advocacy plan:

1. Credibility
2. Skills
3. Intraoffice coordination and leadership
4. Capacity to generate and communicate relevant evidence
5. Ability to assess risks
6. Capacity to work with children and young people
7. Partners and networks that form a broad base for advocacy
8. Sufficient resources

The UNICEF Advocacy Toolkit also outlines nine questions, with associated tools, for planning an advocacy strategy:

1. What do we want?
2. Who can make it happen?
3. What do they need to hear?
4. Who do they need to hear it from?
5. How can we make sure they hear it?
6. What do we have?
7. What do we need?
8. How do we begin to take action?
9. How can we tell if it's working?

Variations of these types of logical question sequences are common across different organizations. For example, the International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF), in its youth advocacy guide, identifies seven similar steps:

1. What needs to change?
2. Who can make that change happen?
3. How can I influence my advocacy targets to make that change?
4. How can I ensure meaningful participation of young people?
5. Who can I work with?
6. What obstacles might I face? How can I overcome obstacles and risks?
7. How will I monitor and evaluate my advocacy to prove it is working? (IPPF, 2011, pp. 13–30).

Furthermore, a range of advocacy manuals are available that provide detailed tools to assist with the planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation related to each of the steps (e.g., IPPF, 2011; Save the Children, 2011; UNICEF, 2010)[1].

The Child Rights Approach

The process of achieving child rights is just as important as the outcome. The Convention is not a "shopping list" of rights that can be acted on in isolation. "The holistic nature of the Convention, as recognized, and the pervasive, deep, and broad child development implications of schooling for child development and quality of life argue that all Articles of Convention are relevant to the work of psychologists in the schools" (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 12). Furthermore, every individual article must be underpinned by the Convention's general principles of nondiscrimination (Art. 2); the best interests of the child (Art. 3.1); the right to life, survival, and development (Art. 6); and the right of the child to be heard and taken seriously (Art. 12). In addition to these general principles, in its General Comment No. 13, the Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereinafter referred to as the Committee) states that it also considers two further articles of the Convention to have "all-embracing relevance": Article 4 (implementation of rights to the maximum extent of available resources) and Article 5 (the right of the child to be directed and guided in the exercise of their rights by caregivers, parents, and community members in line with children's evolving capacities) (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2011, paragraphs 64–66). These six articles are referred to in the UNICEF Child Rights Education Toolkit for convenience as "umbrella rights" (United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 2014, p. 24), and they make up part of UNICEF's definition of the *child rights approach* as one that

- "Furthers the realization of child rights as laid down in the [Convention] and other international human rights instruments;
- Uses child rights standards and principles from the [Convention] and other international human rights instruments to guide behavior, actions, policies and programs (in particular non-discrimination; the best interests of the child; the right to life, survival and development; the right to be heard and taken seriously; and the child's right to be guided in the exercise of his/her rights by caregivers, parents and community members, in line with the child's evolving capacities);
- Builds the capacity of children as rights-holders to claim their rights and the capacity of duty-bearers to fulfil their obligations to children" UNICEF, 2014, p. 21).

The UNICEF definition draws on both the Committee's definition of the child rights approach (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2011, paragraph 59) and the United Nations Statement on a Common Understanding of a Human Rights-Based Approach to Development Cooperation (UN, 2003).

Within the overall context of proactively setting out to realize children's rights, the other components of the child rights approach definition have been translated into a visual reminder known as *the arch and table leg test* (Fig. 1), which can act as a series of guiding questions to check whether the child rights approach is being implemented in any given initiative. Imagine that the proposed initiative (advocacy or other) is sitting on the table with the child. Ask the following questions. If an element is missing, then the arch will collapse and/or the table will not be stable, and the child will fall, that is, the child rights approach is not being followed.

Considering the overall context:

A. Does this initiative proactively further the realization of children's rights as set out in the Convention and other international human rights instruments? (It must contribute directly, not just incidentally, to the realization of children's rights.)

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[1] In addition, Module 6 of the training curriculum *Child rights for school psychologists and other school-based mental health professionals curriculum* focuses specifically on "The School Psychologist as a Child Rights Advocate: Influencing Systems to Respect Child Rights" (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010; The goal of this module is to encourage commitment and build capacities among school psychologists to advocate for child rights in day-to-day situations and through policy reform. See also the training manual that is an accompanying online resource to this volume).

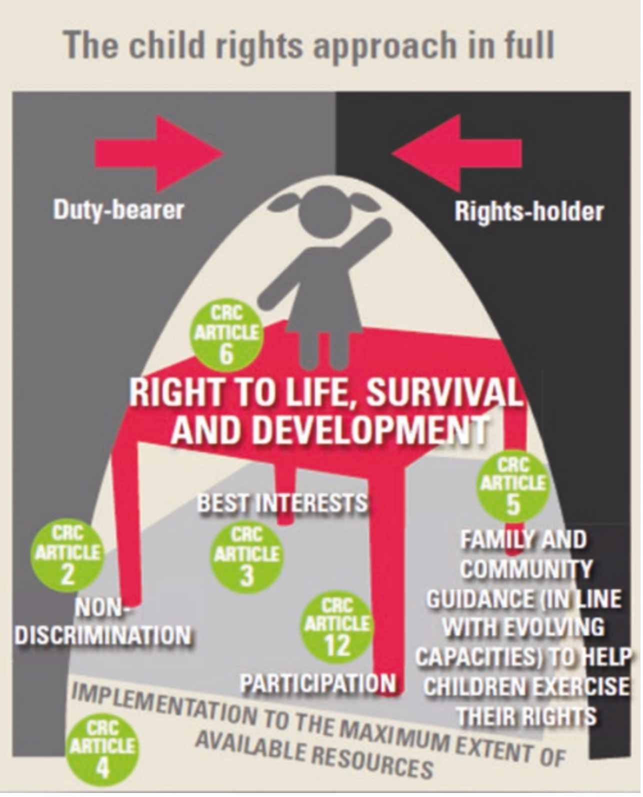
The child rights approach in full
Duty-bearer
Rights-holder
CRC ARTICLE 6
RIGHT TO LIFE, SURVIVAL AND DEVELOPMENT
CRC ARTICLE 5
BEST INTERESTS
CRC ARTICLE 2
CRC ARTICLE 3
FAMILY AND COMMUNITY GUIDANCE (IN LINE WITH EVOLVING CAPACITIES) TO HELP CHILDREN EXERCISE THEIR RIGHTS
NON-DISCRIMINATION
CRC ARTICLE 12
PARTICIPATION
IMPLEMENTATION TO THE MAXIMUM EXTENT OF AVAILABLE RESOURCES
CRC ARTICLE 4

Fig. 1 The arch and table leg test of the child rights approach (UNICEF, 2014, p. 25). The table leg test was devised by Marie Wernham of CREATE (Child Rights Evaluation, Advice & Training Exchange). It first appeared in Wernham (2004), pp. 20–21. It was subsequently updated by the same author to incorporate reference to Article 5 of the Convention

Considering that the arch of human rights applies to adult human rights, as well as child rights:

B. Does this initiative help build the capacity of duty bearers to fulfill their obligations?
C. Does this initiative help build the capacity of children as rights holders to claim their rights?

Considering the table leg test specifically applied to child rights:

D. (Art. 6) Does this initiative contribute positively to—and avoid harming—children's right to life, survival, and development?
E. (Art. 2) Is this initiative discriminating against any individual or groups of children?
F. (Art. 3.1) Is this initiative in children's best interests?
G. (Art. 5) Are family and community stakeholders involved?
H. (Art. 12) Are *all* children able to participate in an ethical and meaningful way?
I. (Art. 4) Is the initiative being adequately, sustainably, and ethically resourced by those responsible?

The *UNICEF Child Rights Education Toolkit* (UNICEF, 2014, pp. 21–28) contains a more detailed version of the child rights approach, the arch and table leg test, and the guiding questions. The arch and table leg test is introduced here as a tool that school psychologists may find useful to assist them with applying the child rights approach to:

- Their everyday professional practice (e.g., imagining an individual child sitting on the table in the context of a consultation)
- Any child rights advocacy initiatives that they may identify for action (e.g., in addition to child rights as the end goal, does the process

of *how* the advocacy is conducted apply the child rights approach?)
- The advocacy end-result messages that they wish to disseminate (e.g., it is a key component of child rights advocacy to advocate for other stakeholders to apply the child rights approach in their behavior toward children and in the development of policies, programs, and legislation; the visual of the arch and table leg test can be an effective way to communicate what the child rights approach means in practice)

Child Participation in Advocacy

As established in the Convention, children have the right to be heard and taken seriously (Art. 12 and other articles associated with participation, such as Arts. 13–17). Child participation is a key component of the child rights approach, as described above. Child participation in advocacy is often categorized as consultative, collaborative, or child led. In *consultative child participation*, it is the adults who identify initiatives and then facilitate children, through participatory methodologies, to get actively involved in the process, for example, in setting priorities and developing recommendations. *Collaborative child participation* may be initiated by children and/or adults. Children and adults work together to identify, act on, and monitor and evaluate relevant advocacy initiatives. This often results in a gradual empowerment of children to increasingly take a lead role, drawing on adult support from time to time as necessary. In *child led advocacy*, children initiate and lead the advocacy process, but adults may provide support in relation to creating safe spaces and opportunities and providing child-friendly information and explanations (Lansdown, 2011; Save the Children, 2014a; UNICEF, 2010). Types of child participation may also distinguish between children representing themselves, children representing other children, and children being represented by other children (Reddy & Ratna, 2002). Basic requirements have been established to ensure effective and ethical participation of children in initiatives, including advocacy, based on the following standards: all processes must be transparent and informative, voluntary, respectful, relevant, child friendly, inclusive, supported by training, safe and sensitive to risk, and accountable (Lansdown, 2011; Save the Children, 2014b; UNICEF, 2010).

UNICEF's Protective Environment Framework

The UNICEF Child Protection Strategy (UNICEF, 2008) defines the contribution of UNICEF to national and international efforts to fulfill children's rights to protection from abuse, violence, and exploitation. It outlines the Protective Environment Framework, which is made up of eight broad elements that are critical to the efficient protection of children. These interconnected elements work individually and collectively to strengthen protection and reduce vulnerability:

1. Governmental commitment to fulfilling protection rights (including appropriate policies and budgets)
2. Legislation and enforcement
3. Attitudes, traditions, customs, behavior and practices
4. Open discussion, including the engagement of media and civil society
5. Children's life skills, knowledge, and participation
6. Capacity of those in contact with the child
7. Basic and targeted services
8. Monitoring and oversight

For ease of reference, although understood to be intertwined, these eight elements are grouped into (a) national protection systems, which can include both state and nonstate systems (elements 1, 2, 6, 7, 8), and (b) social change (elements 3, 4, 5). The Protective Environment Framework emphasizes the need for the protection of all children (as opposed only to specific groups). It is an approach centered on prevention, as well as response.

Because the eight elements of the Protective Environment Framework are interdependent and interrelated, action is required in each of these elements simultaneously. For example, implementing the rights of children with disabilities to quality, inclusive education may well require action in all eight elements. That is, legislative reform may be necessary but not possible without political commitment, which may, in turn, depend on transforming public attitudes, assisted by the media. Implementation of the legislation will require the provision of services, training of those in contact with children, and capacity building of the children themselves, with accountability of the whole ensured through appropriate monitoring and oversight. It is not expected that one person or profession alone can effect change across all eight elements, but this can be achieved by working in collaboration with others who have expertise in different areas, particularly if they understand and respect the significance of the other elements and areas of related expertise.

Within this framework, *protection* is understood in a positive, holistic sense based on "respect for the dignity, life, survival, wellbeing, health, development, participation and non-discrimination of the child as a rights-bearing person," as outlined in the Committee's General Comment No. 13 on "The right of the child to protection from all forms of violence." The General Comment further states that the child rights approach "requires a paradigm shift away from child protection approaches in which children are perceived and treated as 'objects' in need of assistance rather than as rights holders entitled to non-negotiable rights to protection" (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2011, paragraph 59).[2]

The Protective Environment Framework is directly relevant for all aspects of school psychologists' work, beyond a narrow focus on abuse cases. School psychologists may find the Protective Environment Framework useful to identify child rights issues and strategies for advocacy. The following examples apply. The framework can be used as a mapping structure to help identify issues, existing actors/stakeholders, strengths, weaknesses, and gaps where child rights advocacy is needed at the school, community, regional, and/or national levels. At the level of one particular school, the framework could bring into focus priorities for change, which may include the lack of awareness of child rights. This may require advocating for child rights education for staff and children (to increase the capacity of those in contact with the child element 6/children's life skills, knowledge, and participation; element 5; element 6) and working simultaneously with parents and the local community to challenge misunderstandings and negative perceptions about child rights (to bring attitudes, traditions, customs, behavior, and practices into harmony with child rights; element 3), supported by the local media and community organizations (to generate open discussion, including engagement of media and civil society; element 4). At the national level, the priority may be legislative reform to address the acceptance of school discipline techniques that are incompatible with child rights (to upgrade legislation and enforcement; element 2). Having identified the issues and strategies for child rights advocacy, school psychologists can identify which of the eight elements they are best positioned to contribute to, and advocate for, and who else has expertise in the other areas with whom they can work. Figure 2 presents a useful representation of the elements of the Protective Environment Framework.

Advocacy Doors

An additional advocacy tool is the *door test* (IPPF, 2011, pp. 18–19). When deciding what approach to use, the door test can be applied to the list of potential targets or audiences. Imagine that the path toward change is blocked by a door. Is the door wide open (i.e., the advocacy message will be welcomed and easily received)? Is it half open (it is possible to "get a foot in the door" as the target may be willing to listen, even if not yet fully receptive)? Is it closed (the target is not even willing to listen)? Is the door made of glass (it appears easy at first sight, but the advocacy mes-

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[2] The Protective Environment Framework is fully compatible with General Comment No. 13 as seen, for example in the language in paragraphs 40 (legislation and enforcement), 42 (monitoring and oversight), 43 (government commitment, and basic and targeted services), and 44 (attitudes, traditions, customs and behavior and practices; open discussion, including the engagement of media and civil society; children's life skills, knowledge and participation; and capacity of those in contact with the child).

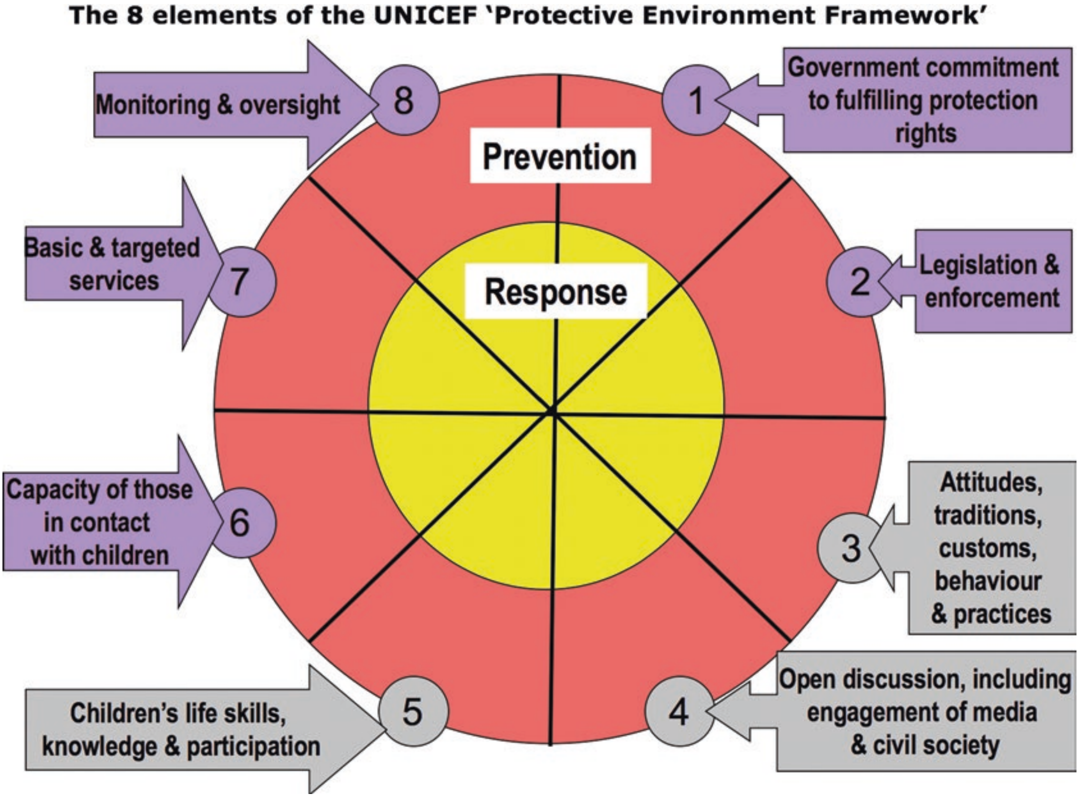
The 8 elements of the UNICEF 'Protective Environment Framework'
Prevention
Response
1 Government commitment to fulfilling protection rights
2 Legislation & enforcement
3 Attitudes, traditions, customs, behaviour & practices
4 Open discussion, including engagement of media & civil society
5 Children's life skills, knowledge & participation
6 Capacity of those in contact with children
7 Basic & targeted services
8 Monitoring & oversight

Fig. 2 The eight elements of the UNICEF Protective Environment Framework

sage bumps into an obstacle that was not immediately obvious)? Is it a revolving door (it seems as if progress is being made and the target is outwardly supportive, but the advocates find themselves going in circles or back out on the street again)? Can the door be opened by just one person, or will it require a team effort?

If the door is effectively locked and bolted, it may be counterproductive or a waste of time and resources to try and force it open. In this case, advocacy messages requiring minimal input can continue to be fed through the letterbox (e.g., copying the target into key communications or developments), but other doors/advocacy pathways that are likely to yield greater success should be explored. If necessary, the original bolted door can be revisited periodically to assess any improvement in the situation that might facilitate a renewed advocacy attempt via this pathway. In this way, the door test can help determine timing, targets, and strategies for child rights advocacy on the part of school psychologists.

How Can School Psychologists Engage in Child Rights Advocacy? Practical Examples

The possibilities for school psychologists to undertake child rights advocacy are without limit. The accumulated chapters of this Handbook encourage the infusion of child rights in all aspects and sectors of school psychology practice as both an ethical imperative and an effective way of serving the best interests of children and their societies. Child rights advocacy should become a central component of the life service of school psychologists. Practical examples, along with related perspective and guidance, are provided here for child rights advocacy at the child, school, community, and national levels.

Child Level

Advocacy directly and indirectly applied (executed, modeled, encouraged for others) to increase respect, understanding, promotion, and monitoring for the individual child is an important form of intervention. The actions of school psychologists to, for, around, and with the child can increase the child's well-being, including self-advocacy, and it can advance the child-rights-respecting behavior, including advocacy, of all parties in the circle of caring directly involved in interventions or observing interventions. When a school psychologist respectfully solicits the child's views on an issue, including its meaning and impact, influencing sources, and paths to possible resolutions, the school psychologist empowers the child and increases the child's self-respect and encourages all observing parties toward similar behavior. Consider, for example, the child rights advocacy powerfully inherent in applying an appreciative inquiry (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2010) process involving the child, parents, teachers, coaches, and others to identify and promote the child's talents and potentials in accord with the expectations of Article 29, the aims of education, of the Convention.

School Level

A good example of transforming schools to become rights respecting is UNICEF's whole school approach to child rights education. UNICEF defines *child rights education* as "teaching and learning about the provisions and principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the 'child rights approach' in order to empower both adults and children to take action to advocate for and apply these at the family, school, community, national and global levels" (UNICEF, 2014, p. 20). Child rights education takes place in many contexts, for example, with professionals, parents and caregivers, policy makers, and the public, as well as in formal education settings such as early childhood education and primary and secondary schools.

Within the school context, common sense dictates that children who witness and experience respect for their rights on a daily basis will better understand and act on these rights than children who simply hear about child rights as part of a one-off lesson plan (Wernham, 2016) or an isolated, short-term topical campaign (e.g., related to bullying). UNICEF is therefore promoting a move toward whole school approaches to child rights education. *Whole school approaches* aim to bring about a fundamental transformation in the school environment by embedding child rights into the everyday management, functioning, and atmosphere of the school, particularly regarding relationships among adults, among children, and between adults and children. Manifestations of this may vary according to local contexts, but whole school approaches have certain principles in common: schools should be inclusive, child centered, democratic, protective, and sustainable, and they should actively promote and implement the child rights approach and the provisions and principles of the Convention (Wernham, 2016). There is no single model for developing a whole school approach to child rights education, but the most well-known include UNICEF's *Child-Friendly Schools*, UNICEF's *Rights Respecting Schools*, and Amnesty International's *Human Rights Friendly Schools* (UNICEF, 2014).

Anecdotal evidence from children, teachers and head teachers, parents, and local education authorities alludes to the positive impact of these whole school approaches to child rights education. Here are some examples:

- "We know how to respect each other … we actually know why and how we are respecting that person, we are listening to what they are telling us, we are being kind to everyone. It's pretty awesome" (Girl, Canada, on what it means that her school has adopted a whole school approach to child rights education) (UNICEF, 2014, p. 37).
- "After 16 years as a head teacher I cannot think of anything else that we have introduced that has had such an impact" (UK head teacher) (UNICEF, 2014, p. 73).
- "My daughter has taken a lot of it on board and is growing into a really, really impressive individual. As a parent, this is the first place that I've felt really comfortable […] I think all nurseries should have to do it" (Parent, UK) (UNICEF, 2014, p. 40).

UNICEF UK conducted a survey of 300 head teachers in 2014 and noted the following impacts: 99% of head teachers report that the Rights Respecting Schools Award (RRSA) has had a positive impact on relationships and behavior, 99% of head teachers report that the RRSA contributed to children and young people being more engaged in their learning, 98% report that RRSA advanced children's and young people's positive attitudes to diversity and overcoming prejudices, 96% report that working on RRSA improved children's and young people's respect for themselves and others, and 75% report that RRSA has had a positive impact on reducing exclusions and bullying (Wernham, 2016). An external evaluation of the UNICEF UK RRSA program by the Universities of Sussex and Brighton in 2010 found that the RRSA "has had a profound effect on the majority of the schools involved in the programme. For some school communities, there is strong evidence that it has been a life-changing experience" (Sebba & Robinson, 2010, p. 3).

Advocacy to promote whole school approaches to child rights education can start at the local school level. UNICEF Rights Respecting School initiatives commonly develop from the basis of one or more pilot schools, leading to a gradual scaling up at regional and national levels. Typically, a teacher, head teacher, or other staff member (potentially a school psychologist) hears about the approach, often by word of mouth from a colleague in a school that is already involved in the initiative; finds out more information; and approaches the school senior management to gain buy-in and take the next steps in conjunction with an organizing body such as UNICEF or a nongovernmental organization (see Chapter 4 and Appendix 7 of UNICEF, 2014, for more details of common steps involved). Given the school psychologist's role as a *mesosystem* or connector among the child's ecosystems (see Nastasi and Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume), he or she is ideally placed to lead on advocacy for this type of transformation of whole schools to become rights respecting.

Community Level

The whole school approach embodies the essence of human and child rights education, which involves learning *about* rights, learning *through* rights (using rights as an organizing principle to transform the culture of learning), and learning *for* rights (taking action to realize rights) within an overall context of learning *as* a right (UNICEF, 2014, p. 20):

> Learning *about* rights and learning *through* rights by transforming the learning environment leads naturally into learning *for* rights: in other words, transforming the broader environment beyond the school gates. This involves actively claiming one's own rights and promoting respect for the rights of others and of the environment. (UNICEF, 2014, p. 122)

This approach can lead to child participation in advocacy and concrete activities to implement child rights at the local community level. For example, working in collaboration with local stakeholders, the school can become a focal point for transforming local communities into rights-respecting communities or child-friendly cities (see http://childfriendlycities.org/ for more information on child-friendly cities, retrieved on January 5, 2020). Children can be motivated and supported by school psychologists to identify issues of importance to them locally and organize child rights advocacy and action (e.g., campaigns against litter, lack of child-friendly recreation facilities, lack of inclusive education opportunities for children with disabilities, and road safety hazards).

National Level

National-level child rights advocacy issues may be identified by school psychologists and/or by children. If there are already civil society organizations, such as nongovernmental organizations, professional associations, and community and youth groups, working on child rights in the country, then it is likely that they will already have developed an advocacy program or list of priorities for legislative and policy reform at the national level. The first step of the school psychologist should therefore be to conduct a mapping of existing initiatives, campaigns, and stakeholders using the approaches and tools described earlier in this chapter.

Many countries (and their subdivision, e.g., provinces, states) have networks of civil society organizations or national child rights coalitions, many of which are involved in producing alternative reports for the Committee, that is, compiling nongovernmental information and advocacy messages to influence the Convention reporting process. Detailed guidance on how to influence the United Nations reporting processes of the Convention, the Human Rights Committee, and the Universal Periodic Review and information on national child rights coalitions are provided by the global child rights network, Child Rights Connect (for further information: http://www.childrightsconnect.org/).

Lessons Learned

Module 6 of the curriculum *Child rights for school psychologists and other school-based mental health professionals* (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010) concludes with lessons learned. Examples of these can inform the advocacy work of school psychologists (see Table 2).

Table 2 Examples of lessons learned about advocacy by school psychologists (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010)

Children's rights to environments that promote their well-being, learning, and development cannot be fulfilled simply through the provision of effective education and mental health services. The social, psychological, economic, and physical environments where they live can and do have powerful influences on their well-being.
Children lack the democratic rights and power that adults can use to protect their rights. Accordingly, they need adults willing to act singly and in cooperation with others, including children, as advocates on their behalf.
The actions and inactions of governments contribute to the realization of or failure to protect children's rights.
When school psychologists advocate both as individuals and together as a body, as well as collaborate with communities, they can help advance child rights to optimal development and promote well-being and learning, rather than simply working to ameliorate the consequences of failure in these areas.
Children are powerful allies. By facilitating children's involvement in advocating for their own rights and helping them to develop and use strong and persuasive voices, school psychologists will ensure that change truly addresses children's needs.
Child rights must be realized and protected at all levels of school psychologists' work, from individual practice to wider child-serving systems to public policy, if we are to promote the optimal well-being, learning, and development of all children.

A Day of Advocacy in the Life of a School Psychologist

The limitless possibilities for child advocacy on the part of school psychologists exist across all sectors (physical, social, time) of their professional lives. Sensitivity to these opportunities, such as those promoted in this chapter, should increase the likelihood that they will be undertaken and realized with increasing effectiveness. Consider the child advocacy that a school psychologist might undertake in just one day of service, as illustrated by the events in one day of Gene's life as a school psychologist (Convention articles of high relevance are referenced):

- Gene, school psychologist for the Central Midtown School Corporation, begins the morning early by meeting with the corporation's curriculum committee before the school commences to encourage school day space, place, and resource support for students to explore and develop their talents in art, music, and performing arts, with emphasis on early mentored access to launch possible lifelong pursuit (Art. 29). At the meeting, the committee is informed that Gene has been able to convince the community's art council to make a wide variety of musical instruments available for loan to students in elementary school.

- About mid-morning, Gene takes part in a planning conference for a 16-year-old girl with intellectual disabilities, whose presence he has assured and whose participation he has helped prepare and will facilitate (Arts. 2 & 12). Gene has done this, particularly, to advance parent and education staff understanding, appreciation, and support for the student's potential to make choices and work in the community to achieve valued practical skills, social competency, and higher levels of autonomy (Arts. 5, 12, 29, 32).
- In the afternoon, Gene begins a psychological evaluation of a precocious/gifted ten-year-old boy. He has added to the evaluation team the school's physical education teacher and lead science teacher because of the strong interests and talents that the boy has displayed in these areas (Art. 29).
- Gene's late afternoon is spent in preparation for a presentation he will make that evening to a combined meeting of school board and city council members. He will present as part of a team of school, faith, and community leaders he helped to form to educate community leadership regarding the value of and practical ways to enable students to study history and issues of the major religions through cooperating in and out of school community programs (Arts. 12, 13, 14, 17, 29).

While this may appear to be a heavily packed day of advocacy, and it may be more usual for such advocacy roles and activities to be spread out across time periods, in truth, every topic covered in this Handbook and every responsibility and opportunity undertaken by a school psychologist provides prospects for advocacy individually or in cooperation with others, including across multiple levels of the social ecology. School psychologists should be encouraged to strengthen and sharpen not only their child rights lenses but also their advocacy lenses to help them identify and act on a wide variety of opportunities to promote the best interests and well-being of children.

Conclusion

Detailed guidance on child rights advocacy is available from a number of toolkits and materials produced by ISPA and CRED-PRO, UNICEF, and nongovernmental organizations. Approaches include basic advocacy components and related steps, the child rights approach, child participation in advocacy, UNICEF's Protective Environment Framework, and the advocacy door test, as described in this chapter. These can be applied to child rights advocacy at school, community, and national levels in a variety of practical ways:

> The full potential of the nexus between child rights and school psychology should be forged and achieved to serve children, their communities and societies. The school community should become the model for the application of human rights to achieve the well-being of children in their lived reality. School psychologists can and should provide the critically needed leadership to achieve this goal (Hart & Hart, 2014, p. 24).

Child rights advocacy is an essential component of the work of school psychologists in this regard.

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Child Rights, Disability, School and Educational Psychology and Inclusive Education

Janet Muscutt

Abstract

Child rights, disabilities and inclusive education are inextricably linked themes. Each has prompted and informed the other to move from an ideological position to practical reality. This chapter examines the impact of Article 23 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), focussing specifically on the progress to include children with disabilities in mainstream schools and the outcomes for young people educationally. In focussing primarily on the UK context, reference is also made to progress in other countries whilst considering the barriers and enablers to realising Article 23. The role of the school and educational psychologists is discussed in assisting in the *actualisation* of Article 23, alongside areas for further research.

This chapter specifically focusses on Article 23 of the United Nations (UN General Assembly, 1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention) and its impact on educational outcomes for children with disabilities and special educational needs. The Convention came into force in 1990 and covers the rights of children. Whilst all of its first 41 articles are relevant to the needs of children with disabilities, four articles are specifically pertinent to the theme of *disability, school and educational psychology and inclusive education*: *Article 23*, which makes special provision for disabled children; *Article 2*, which asserts the right to enjoyment of all the rights without discrimination; and *Articles 28 and 29*, which detail the right to and aims for education.

Article 23 specifically recognises the increased vulnerability of children with disabilities to segregation and discrimination, stating:

1. States Parties recognise that a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community.
2. States Parties recognise the right of the disabled child to special care…
3. Recognising the special needs of a disabled child, assistance … shall be designed to ensure that the disabled child has effective access to and receives education, training, health care services, rehabilitation services, preparation for employment and recreation opportunities in a manner conducive to the child achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development, including his or her cultural and spiritual development…

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Since 1990, the implementation of the Convention has been monitored by the Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Committee), a body of 18 independent experts that monitors the implementation of the Convention by its states parties. Each state that has ratified the Convention is requested, at five-year intervals, to submit reports on its implementation. In addition, other parties, such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs) may also submit alternative reports to the Committee. As a review of progress, 6 years after the Convention came into force, in a report to the United Nations General Assembly (UN, 1996) by the Special Rapporteur on Disability, according to Jones (2000), it was noted that 'of 65 countries providing information, 34 (over 50%) report that disabled children are excluded from education; 18 countries report that they are excluded by law from the public education system; 10 countries report no legislation on education for disabled children; and in some countries it was reported that less than 1 percent of disabled children receive education' (p. 4).

With attendance at school seen as the main gateway to establishing disabled children's rights, understandably, concerns were expressed about the lack of progress in including children with disabilities in education, and the following year, the Committee held a Thematic Day (UN, 1997) on the rights of disabled children. An International Working Group on the Rights of Disabled Children was subsequently established, and an Alliance Task Group on Disability and Discrimination was set up. One of its first projects, which was begun in 1999, was to collect examples of good practice and violations of the rights of children with disabilities worldwide (Jones, 2000). Within a year, 450 examples of practice, both good and bad, had been collected, contributing to the conclusion that, in spite of The Salamanca Statement and the Framework for Action on Special Needs Education including the advocacy on 'Education for All' (UNESCO, 1994) and the commitment of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), according to the Director General, to 'reach the unreached' disabled children worldwide (UNESCO, 2000), 10 years after the Convention came into force, disabled children still remained largely 'unreached' by education.

In 2006, a further report, as a committee guide, was published by the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child as a General Comment (Number 9), concerning progress after 16 years, towards actualising Article 23 (UN, 2006). At this time, Balescut and Eklindh (2006) acknowledged: 'While precise global data on the exclusion of children with disabilities from education do not exist, there is broad consensus that at least one third of the world's 72 million children who are not in school have a disability' (Shriberg, Brooks, & de Oca, chapter "Child Rights, Social Justice, & Professional Ethics", this volume). This publication was followed by the adoption in 2007 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN General Assembly, 2006), which whilst adult focussed also aimed to further strengthen the rights of children with disabilities. It did not introduce additional rights (as human rights are universal and apply to every human being, covered comprehensively in the Convention). However, it did impose significant additional obligations on governments to remove the barriers impeding the realisation of rights. Like 'The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education' (UNESCO, 1994), it also adopted the *social model of disability* and specifically addressed: 'Those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which, in interaction with various barriers, may hinder their full and effective participation in society, on an equal basis with others' (UN General Assembly, 2006, Article 1).

The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN General Assembly, 2006) included a dedicated article on children (Article 7), outlining the obligation of states to ensure the realisation of all rights for children with disabilities on an equal basis with other children, to promote their best interests, to ensure their right to be heard and taken seriously. It incorporated, within its general principles (Article 3), respect for the evolving capacities of children with disabilities and their right to preserve their identities and introduced a general obligation (Article 4, para. 3) to consult with children (through their representative organisations) when developing relevant legislation and policies. It also introduced the concept of 'reasonable accommodation' requiring states to make necessary and appropriate adaptations to ensure that an individual with a disability can enjoy rights on an equal basis with others, with the following caveat: 'as long as they do not impose a disproportionate or undue burden'.

In adopting the social model of disability, out of 11 identified models of disability (Langtree, 2016), the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN General Assembly, 2006) noted that children with disabilities live with discrimination in every aspect of their lives, proposing that discrimination arises not from the intrinsic nature of the child's disability but rather from entrenched social exclusion resulting from rejection of difference, poverty, social isolation, prejudice, ignorance, and lack of services and support. Furthermore, it pointed out that in cultures where disability is viewed as a curse or punishment, a child born with an 'impairment' is blamed as the embodiment of past failure, inadequacy or sins and that girl children with disabilities experience the most severe forms of discrimination and harassment.

The World Health Organization and World Bank (WHO, 2011) reviewed worldwide progress in relation to including children with disabilities in education and society. It concluded that whilst the full extent of discrimination against children with disabilities was difficult to quantify, due to the ongoing problem of lack of accurate and comparable data, the outcomes for children with disabilities who were denied education and inclusion in society were clear, in terms of a significant lack of self-esteem and self-confidence, as children with disabilities internalised the multitude of negative attitudes they experienced daily.

Importance to School and Educational Psychologists

Twenty plus years since the adoption of the Convention, the barriers to realising Article 23 are still formidable. Continued barriers to their right to education for children with disabilities include discriminatory legislation, institutionalisation, lack of training for teachers, prejudice, stigma, and inadequate understanding as to the nature of disability and potential on the part of both teachers and parents (UNESCO, 2014). The majority of schools throughout the world remain physically inaccessible (UNICEF, 2013). Affordable and accessible transport is not available, systems for enhancing communication are not in place and inclusive education itself is frequently misunderstood (UNICEF, 2011). Some countries still retain legislation declaring certain categories of children to be 'uneducable' or place responsibility for the education of children with disabilities with ministries other than education and, in this way, further segregate and marginalise them (UNICEF, 2015).

Despite these formidable barriers, school and educational psychologists have taken a major role in promoting the equality of opportunity in education and the inclusion of children with disabilities. School and educational psychologists were involved in The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) when the move to abolish segregated schooling instigated the main impetus for the integration of children with disabilities into their local schools and the subsequent move to inclusion (Booth and Ainscow, 1998, 2011; Lindsay, 2007). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) stated that 'inclusion and participation are essential to human dignity and to the enjoyment and exercise of human rights'. In the field of education, this is reflected in aiming to bring about a 'genuine equalisation of opportunity' (UNESCO, 1994,1:6, p. 11). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) also promoted the view that special needs education incorporates proven methods of teaching from which all children can benefit; it assumes that human differences are normal and that learning must be adapted to the needs of the child rather than the child fitted to the process. The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) stressed that the fundamental principle of the inclusive school is that all children should learn together, *where possible*, and that ordinary schools must recognise and respond to the diverse needs of their students whilst also having a continuum of services and support to meet these needs. Inclusive schools are seen as the most effective way of building solidarity between children with disabilities and special needs and their peers, and countries with few or no special schools were entreated to establish *inclusive* – not *special* – schools.

The 'where possible' 1994 view was further tempered, as stated earlier, by the 2006 UN Committee (UN, 2006, paras. 66 and 67), which underlined the view that the extent of inclusion within the general education system may vary. The Committee proposed that a continuum of services and alternative programmes must be available in situations where fully inclusive education is not likely to be achieved in the immediate future. The Committee acknowledged that the movement towards inclusive education had received much support but that the term inclusive may have different meanings. Re-stating that, at its core, inclusive education is a set of values, principles and practices that seek meaningful, effective and quality education for all students that does justice to the diversity of learning conditions and requirements not only of children with disabilities, but also of all students, and proposes that this goal can be achieved by different organisational means that respect the diversity of children. The Committee suggested that inclusion may range from full-time placement of all students with disabilities into one regular classroom or placement into the regular classroom with varying degree of inclusion, including a certain portion of special education. The Committee stressed that it is important to understand that inclusion should not be understood as simply integrating children with disabilities into the mainstream school system regardless of their challenges and needs but would require close cooperation amongst special school teachers and mainstream school teachers and that mainstream curriculum must be re-written to meet the needs of all children. In addition, it stressed that significant changes were needed in teacher training programmes and that the training of others involved in the educational system would be vital in order to fully implement the philosophy of inclusive education.

Within the *continuum of provision to match a continuum of needs*, school and educational psychologists have been uniquely placed to move across the full continuum in their daily practice and to act as facilitators of the called-for close cooperation amongst special school teachers and mainstream teachers and as providers of support and guidance on research into evidence-based practice to improve the curriculum for all. Whilst moving across the continuum of provision, historically school and educational psychologists have been at the forefront in promoting the rights of children with disabilities to mainstream education, endorsing the concept of 'the least restrictive environment'.

Two of the key issues identified in The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) continue to require ongoing attention: *promote access to education* and *train teachers to work in inclusive schools* (para. 333). School and educational psychologists have maintained the challenge that 'the segregation of children with disabilities in separate institutions for care, treatment and education' deny children equal opportunities to the rights guaranteed by the 'Convention' (UN, 1989, para. 245). School and educational psychologists have also questioned the marginalisation and exclusion of disabled children on the grounds of cost-effectiveness (UN, 1989, para. 335), pointing to evidence-based practice and drawing on the work of researchers such as Beecham and Knapp (1999), who cite a growing body of evidence as to the efficacy of inclusion. Beecham and Knapp's (1999) study found that whilst the costs of inclusive education and special schools were largely comparable, academic achievement in inclusive schools was significantly higher, thus promoting the view that inclusion should not be seen as an expensive luxury but rather an opportunity for all children to become productive members of society (UNESCO, 2008).

Child Rights to Disability and Inclusion in the United Kingdom (UK)

The UK ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1991; however, the extent to which the Convention forms part of national law, and can be enforced by national courts, varies depending on whether it is applied in England, Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland. In general, the UK government has preferred to take a sector-by-sector approach to implementing the Convention and, because of discrepancies, including having four separate Children's Commissioners (Imanian, 2016), there have, over the intervening years, been many calls for the UK to incorporate the Convention directly into domestic law (Lang, 2016).

Despite differing processes operating in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, in the UK English context, children's rights have significantly influenced changes in legislation. The influence of the Convention on the rights of the child (UN, 1989) and on the rights of persons with disabilities (UN General Assembly, 2006) can be seen in the Disability Discrimination Acts (1995, 2005) and the subsequent Equality Acts (2006, 2010), these in addition to the main laws relating to disability discrimination and to special educational needs (Children and Families Act, 2014; Special Needs and Disability Act, 2001; Education Act, 1996, 2011). (See Appendix A for the English UK policy trail, as influenced by the Convention, 1989.)

Since 2006, when the 'disability equality duty' came into force, as introduced by the Disability Discrimination Act (2005) and reinforced by the Green Paper 'Support and Aspiration' (DfE, 2011), English schools *must* address the need to

1. Promote equality of opportunity between disabled and other people
2. Eliminate discrimination and harassment and promote positive attitudes to disabled people
3. Encourage participation by disabled people in public life, and
4. Take steps to meet disabled people's needs, even if this requires more favourable treatment

With this additional emphasis, there has been an increased interest in the role of *teachers with disabilities* in promoting equity and equality in schools (NASUWT, 2016). This is an area urgently requiring further research, alongside longitudinal studies of pupils with disabilities whose aspiration is to become a teacher and to provide positive role models.

Child Rights and the Role of School and Educational Psychologists

Beyond the UK, whilst the Convention has achieved major significant changes in some countries, such as Sweden, which amended its constitution in 2010 to require public institutions to safeguard the rights of children, the Convention is not without its weaknesses and controversies (MacDonald, 2017). Like other human rights treaties, the Convention is only as effective as its implementation. Sometimes a provision is controversial or unrealistic, sometimes there is a lack of political will, or other circumstances make compliance apparently impossible. The Convention contains no powers to penalise countries that breach its provisions, or even to require them to do anything. More worryingly, the Convention has been criticised for an endorsement of Western values seen as a 'moral crusade to save children, especially regarding Third World children whose lives do not comply with a *Western concept of childhood*' (Gadda, 2008). A number of countries have entered reservations to the Convention on the ground that some principles and provisions are not consistent with their cultural context, religious beliefs and domestic legislation (Pupavac, 2001). It has also been argued that although the Convention is viewed as an important step towards greater children's participation and fairer power relations, it in fact reinforces existing forms of power and does not empower children based on the arguments that children themselves were not part of the child rights movement and children were not consulted on the drafting of the Convention.

School and educational psychologists can play a key role in countering these criticisms, weaknesses and limitations. For example, in terms of implementation and promoting child voice, school and educational psychologists are skilled in taking the role of child advocates (Lansdown, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014). In terms of Westernisation, the work of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA, 2008, 2011; ISPA and CRED-PRO, 2010[1]), Nastasi and Naser (2014) and the Tulane University Child Rights Team (2013) promotes co-created culturally sensitive interventions within the principles of the Convention. In promoting the child's voice, school and educational psychologists have led the field in listening to children and in utilising alternative forms of communication in both school and community contexts (Hill et al., 2016; Pellicano et al., 2014).

Child Rights and Policy for Disability and Inclusion: Implications of Article 23

Worldwide, according to UNICEF (2012), there are still approximately 61 million children who cannot access primary school. For those countries who make up most of this statistic, the task of ensuring that children have unrestricted and equal access to education is undeniably a major one. However, countries with substantially resourced education systems, systems of human rights protection, and resourced and buoyant economies cannot afford to be complacent either. For example, even prosperous non-Western countries such as Japan have not achieved their aims with regard to including children with disabilities into their local schools and communities. Mithout (2016) provides insight into the actualisation of Article 23 in Japan, where children with disabilities have traditionally been educated in special schools, specifically dedicated to one type of disability and often isolated from the rest of society. However, in keeping with Article 23, in 2006 special education in Japan was reformed to promote the principle of inclusive education. Ten years on, Mithout's 2016 study, utilising quantitative and qualitative data, revealed mixed results in practice, with large variations depending on the type of disability considered and the opposition by one disability advocate group that wished to retain special schools because of their role in supporting the concept of the deaf community as a cultural group. Overall, Mithout (2016) concluded that, even though new structures had been created with the aim to meet all children's needs, the actual implemented approach remains limited and constrained by a perception based on a medical model of disabilities rather than the promised radical transformation of schools towards the social model of disability and the recognition and understanding of a general diversity.

In official terms, in Japan, there are no longer schools dedicated to one category of disability; instead, they are now deemed 'special support schools' and are intended to provide for children with all types of disabilities living within reasonable travelling distance. These schools are also expected to be *centres of expertise*, providing support, advice and training to mainstream teachers when children with disabilities are enrolled in their schools. Revisions to the Basic Act on Education (2006), in particular Article 4, paragraph 2, of the Japanese law on school education introduces the concept of support in mainstream schools and sends the message that the purpose of disabled children's education is no different from regular education, just that there are additional goals that are specific for each child, depending on their disability (Kanazawa, 2013). As a result, in order to access support systems to meet the additional goals, the student is involved in a labelling process, which can be experienced as a stigma, as the children, to have their needs met, have to become ‘disabled children’ in the eyes of their schools, their families and in many cases themselves (Chatzitheochari & Platt, 2018; NISE, 2016). This situation, however, is not specific to Japan; it has long been discussed worldwide in the field of disability studies, especially during the ongoing debates surrounding the issues of medical versus social models of disability (Langtree, 2016).

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[1] The manual for this curriculum is available as an online resource that accompanies this volume.

Other prosperous *westernized* countries, such as New Zealand, have not achieved their aims either with regard to the inclusion of children with disabilities in their local schools and communities. New Zealand’s education policy *Success for All—Every School, Every Child* was the government’s work programme to achieve a ‘fully inclusive education system’ (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 1) within a target of 4 years. Sadly this was not realised. Looking in depth at this aim of every school demonstrating inclusive practice by 2014, Kearney (2016) identified that, although legislation and policy were clearly established, practice was problematic and that for some disabled students in New Zealand, barriers still existed in relation to four aspects of education previously identified by Tomasevski (2004) as standards for rights-based education, that is, accessibility, availability, adaptability and acceptability.

The four aspects of education identified by Tomasevski (2004) and used by Kearney (2016) in her study of New Zealand’s progress towards inclusion and actualising Article 23 remain relevant worldwide, as although widely addressed in words, the extent to which inclusion and related children’s rights are realised varies greatly. In relation to the first two, accessibility and availability, which constitute rights *to* education, Kearney’s (2016) research revealed that this amounted to a *less than free* and *less than compulsory* education being available to all disabled students. For example, some parents were asked to fund aspects of their child’s education, keep their child home for parts of the school day or week and/or had special conditions put on the enrollment of their child at school. In addition, some parents also reported that their children did not have access to skilled teachers in relation to their specific needs, and/or in some instances teachers were unwilling to learn about those specific needs. Also, parents reported that some teachers did not take responsibility for their children in terms of enabling them to access the curriculum and their peer group. In relation to the third and fourth aspects, acceptability and adaptability, which constitute qualitative and realised rights conditions *in* education, some parents reported teacher and peer bullying and a lack of willingness on the part of the school and teachers to adapt to the needs of the students.

Kearney (2016) refers to the earlier work of UK authors, Ainscow, Booth and Dyson (2009) and Slee (2011), who highlighted that even in Western countries, there were strong forces of exclusion working within our societies and that these were also present in our schools. To counteract these forces, one suggested solution was to promote the inclusion of human rights within the school curriculum in order to raise the awareness of human rights in general and promote basic human rights principles of respect, justice and acceptance (Tibbitts, 2009). This suggestion has since been actively promoted by the UK independent Children’s Commissioners for England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland (Children’s Commissioner for England, 2017, p. 13, Section 3.1.65). In addition, a further solution that research has consistently underlined (Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Rouse & Florian, 2012; Thomas, 2011; UNESCO, 2009) is that skillful and knowledgeable teachers are a requirement for inclusive and just education systems. Again, in the UK, the requirement of all Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCOs) appointed since 2010 to complete a national award at master’s degree level is a further attempted solution. Educational psychologists (Ashman, Muscutt & Piper, 2015) have been and are actively involved in developing and teaching about this award, whose key aim is *to enable all teachers to be teachers of Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities (SEND)* (Rouse & Florian, 2012).

With school and educational psychologists’ support, as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) monitoring committees have regularly pointed out (UN, 1996; UNCRC, 2006; UNCRC, 2015), classroom and subject teachers are the *deliverers* of child rights, disability understanding and inclusive practices. Within the UK, with all teachers being viewed as *teachers of Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities (SEND)*, the aim for the classroom teacher is that he/she should be able to:

1. Focus on outcomes for the child and be clear about the outcome wanted from any SEND support
2. Be responsible for meeting any child's special educational/disability needs and contribute to school improvement
3. Have high aspirations for every pupil by setting clear progress targets for pupils and being clear about how the full range of resources are going to help reach them
4. Involve parents and pupils in planning and reviewing progress by continually seeking their views and providing regular updates on progress

In addition, under the Children and Families Act (2014), the child identified as experiencing special educational needs and/or disabilities and their parent(s) have to be placed

> … at the heart of everything we do…Consideration of whether special educational provision is required should start with the desired outcomes, including the expected progress and attainment and the views and wishes of the pupil and their parents. This should then help determine the support that is needed and whether it can be provided by adapting the school's core offer or whether something different or additional is required (SEND Code of Practice: 0–25 Years, DfE/DoH, 2015, para. 6.40).

Also, parents and young people have the right to name and request a place at any school of their choice, whether mainstream or special, private or public, including the right to appeal to a Special Needs and Disability Tribunal if they have concerns over a school placement or any perceived breach of equality rights.

Overall, as part of its commitments under Article 23 of the Convention (1989) and under Articles 7 and 24 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006), the UK government, through legislation, has demonstrated its commitment to inclusive education for disabled children and young people and the progressive removal of barriers to learning and participation in mainstream education. The Children and Families Act (2014) secures the general presumption in law of mainstream education in relation to decisions about where children and young people with SEN and/or disabilities should be educated, and the Equality Act (2010) provides protection from discrimination for disabled people (SEND Code of Practice: 0–25 Years, DfE/DoH, 2015, para. 1.26).

The recent UK review of the progress of the Convention (1989) in total is detailed in the Concluding Observations on the Fifth Periodic Report of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (CRC, 2016). Whilst acknowledging the progress regarding education and reporting substantial progress, a number of recommendations specifically related to children with disabilities were listed following the submission of the Periodic Report. Most of these recommendations had already been identified in the Report of the UK Children's Commissioners (Children's Commissioners, 2015), which also was submitted to the UN. When focussing on children's rights and children with disabilities, this report identified three significant issues of concern in the areas of policy, health and education:

1. Across the UK, since 2010, changes to welfare benefits have had a disproportionate impact on children with disabilities (Sections: 8.29, 8.30) as children with disabilities are already much more likely to be living in poverty (Children's Society, 2011; Larkins et al., 2013).
2. The overall UK childhood mortality rate is higher than in some other European countries (Section: 8.31). The key areas where the UK rates appear to be relatively high are infant deaths and deaths among children who have chronic conditions (Wolfe, MacFarlane, Donkin, Marmot, & Viner, 2014).
3. Research on residential special schools for disabled children highlighted the importance

> of early and integrated support for children with complex needs and their families, enabling children to remain within their family and community wherever possible and for children's wishes and interests to be considered in important decisions about their support and future, including at the time of transition out of school (Section: 8.32). (Lundy, Byrne, & McKeown, 2012; Pellicano et al., 2014).

Of these three key issues, educational psychologists can most clearly and directly continue to work to address the third issue. The detailed person-centred review at a transitional stage can be addressed by the extension of the educational psychologist's role to cover working with children and young people from 0 to 25 years and the change from Statements of Special Educational Needs (DfES, 2001) and Learning Disabilities Plans to Education, Health and Care Plans (EHCPs), using a Person Centred Plan approach (Carey & Ryan, 2008). The only issue that remains controversial concerns the young person's voice and parental views as parents can still invoke the Mental Capacity Act (2005) so that their voice takes precedence over that of their young person.

Application of Article 23 to Disability and Inclusion for School and Educational Psychologists

Disability Action (2016), an advocacy group that works to ensure that people with disabilities in Northern Ireland attain their full rights as citizens by supporting inclusion, influencing government policy and changing attitudes in partnership with disabled people, reiterates 'Article 24 – Education' from the Convention on the Rights of Persons with disabilities (UN, 2006), re-stressing as follows:

> People with disabilities have a right to education without discrimination. Countries must ensure that people with disabilities can access an inclusive, quality and free primary and secondary education in their own community. Countries must also provide reasonable accommodation and individualised support to maximise academic and social development.

School and educational psychologists can continue to lead the processes of reasonable accommodations and individualised support through individual professional practice and systems and advocacy work. As Frederickson and Cline (2011) state: 'Any analysis of the education of children with SEND needs to take full account of the increasing diversity of society and the impact this has on the kinds of professional services and educational provision that are required' (p. 5).

In the UK, the educational psychologist's work in consultation, assessment and systems continues to be the process that binds all the information sources together when working with young people with SEND and provides 'the map' to achieve the young person's desired outcomes under the current SEND Code of Practice: 0–25 Years (Department for Education and Department of Health, 2015; Poulter & Timpson, 2015), which:

- Covers the 0–25 age range and includes guidance relating to disabled children and young people, as well as those with special educational needs
- Provides a clearer focus on the participation of children and young people and parents in decision-making at individual and strategic levels
- Provides a stronger focus on high aspirations and on improving outcomes for children and young people
- Includes guidance on the joint planning and commissioning of services to ensure close co-operation between education, health services and social care
- Includes guidance on publishing a Local Offer of support for children and young people with special educational needs and/or disabilities
- Provides new guidance for education and training settings, on taking a graduated approach to identifying and supporting pupils and students with special educational needs and/or disabilities
- Stipulates for children and young people with more complex needs, a coordinated assessment process and the new 0–25 years Education,

Health and Care Plan (EHC plan) to replace Special Educational Needs Statements and Learning Difficulty Assessments
- Provides greater focus on support that enables those with special educational needs and/or disabilities to succeed in their education and make a successful transition to adulthood
- Provides additional relevant duties under the Equality Act (2010) and the relevant provisions of the Mental Capacity Act (2005)
- Confirms that disabled children and young people who may not have special educational needs are also covered by these regulations, as well as by the Equality Act (2010)

Application of Child Rights to Training and Research in School and Educational Psychology

The application of child rights to education needs to be part of the training courses of school and educational psychologists worldwide, with recommendations for students to pursue research related to disability and inclusion, leading to the daily application of child rights within school and educational psychology practice.

Training

School and educational psychology training programmes worldwide should include child rights, disability and inclusion as core elements of their programmes. Particularly noteworthy is an interesting model developed by Nastasi and Naser (2014, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", this volume), which integrates child rights with professional school psychology and can be used by school psychologists working at local and global levels.

Research

Further research is required on the barriers and enablers to achieving the four original aims of the Convention (UN General Assembly, 1989) in relation to children with disabilities. These are as follows:

1. To enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community
2. The right to special care
3. Effective access to education, training, health care services, rehabilitation services, preparation for employment and recreation opportunities
4. Achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development, including his or her cultural and spiritual development

In the UK, with the introduction of Education, Health and Care Plans and the extension of the educational psychologist's role to encompass 0–25 years, psychologists have a unique opportunity to conduct research in all four areas, both within the Doctoral Training programme and the day-to-day job role.

Overall, there remains an under-researched gap in the literature, that is, the *child's voice in relation to their rights*. The question still to be addressed is, *have children chosen these rights (child-centred)*, or *have well-meaning adults decided that these are the rights that children should conform to (child-focussed)* (Franklin and Sloper, 2009; Hill et al., 2016)? School and educational psychologists are particularly well placed to lead programmes in schools to encourage children to construct rights that are of importance to them and to compare these with those listed in the 1989 Convention and to take an active role in promoting those rights in their own communities.

Additionally, connected to the issues of high aspirations, longitudinal research following young people with and without disabilities into work, with a particular emphasis on those who aspire to work in schools and educationally related professions, would provide a much-needed researched linkage of *aspiration to policy to practice to outcomes*.

In the UK, the overall aim for outcomes, of fully implementing Article 23 of the Convention (UN General Assembly, 1989) since 2014, are enshrined in the SEND Code of Practice (2015) and include the following:

- With high aspirations, and the right support, the vast majority of children and young people with SEND can go on to achieve successful long-term outcomes in adult life.
- Taking part in higher education and/or employment – including exploring different employment options, such as support for becoming self-employed and help from supported employment agencies.
- Living independently – enabling people to have choice and control over their lives, the support they receive, and their accommodation and living arrangements, including supported living.
- Participating in society – including having friends and supportive relationships; participating in, and contributing to, the local community and being as healthy as possible in adult life (SEND Code of Practice: 0–25 Years, DfE/DoH, 2015, Section 1.40).

Ongoing studies will be required to establish the barriers and enablers to fully achieve these overall aim for outcome and to actualise Article 23 of the Convention (1989). Educational psychologists in the UK, with responsibility for those in educational and community contexts from 0 to 25 years, are in a unique position to contribute to this field of research.

Conclusion

The relationship between human rights and inclusive education is strong. Human rights arguments have been instrumental as both the impetus for inclusive education and the continuing momentum towards it. Similarly, inclusive education has a strong presence in important human rights treaties, conventions and statements (Right to Education Initiative, 2019. p. 91). In the years since the Convention came into force in 1990, despite the formidable challenges, slow and uneven but steady progress in westernised countries, such as the UK (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2017a, 2017b), has been made towards the inclusion of children and young people with disabilities in mainstream school systems. In many countries, school and educational psychologists have played a key role in shaping both policy and practice delivery. In a rapidly changing and increasingly uncertain world, this role will be needed both to maintain the progress that has been made and to continue the gradual steps forward, as enshrined in Goal 4 of Education 2030 (2016), in creating a truly inclusive mindset in schools and centres of learning across the world.

Chronological List of UK Policies Related to Special Educational Needs and Disability

(All, unless otherwise stated, are available at http://www.legislation.gov.uk.)

1. The Warnock Report (1979)
2. The Education Act (1981)
3. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)
4. The Salamanca Agreement and the Framework for Action (1994)
5. SEN Code of Practice (2001)
6. Special Educational Needs and Disability Act (2001)
7. Every Child Matters (2003)
8. Reducing Reliance on Statements (2003)
9. Removing Barriers to Achievement, Children Act (2004)
10. Does It Matter Where Children Are Taught? Ofsted (July, 2006)
11. Disability and Discrimination Act (2005)
12. The Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities (2006)
13. Children Act (2006)
14. Children's Plan December (2007)
15. Steer Report (Behaviour) (April, 2009)
16. Aiming Higher for Disabled Children (May, 2007)
17. Children Act (2008)
18. Rose Report (Dyslexia) (June, 2009)
19. Lamb Inquiry (December, 2009)

20. New SENCO regulations (September, 2008/9)
21. Ofsted Framework (2009)
22. Academies Bill (2010)
23. Ofsted SEN Report (2010)
24. SEN Green Paper (2010)
25. Equality Act (2010)
26. SALT Review (SLD/PMLD) (2010)
27. SEN Reform Pathfinders (2011)
28. Introduction of Pupil Premium (2011)
29. Taylor Report (2012)
30. New Ofsted Framework (2012)
31. School Funding Reform (2013/14)
32. Children and Families Act (September, 2014)
33. SEND Code of Practice: 0–25 Years (DfE, DoH, 2015)
34. The New Framework for School Inspection (Ofsted, 2014)
35. Revised SEND Code of Practice: 0–25 Years (DfE, DoH, 2015) + 3-year transition
36. The Use of Social Media in Radicalisation – Briefing Note for Schools (Home Office, DfE, July, 2015)

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Role of School Psychology Professional Organizations in Promoting and Protecting Child Rights

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Abstract

This chapter examines the role of school psychology professional organizations in promoting and protecting the rights of the child. Although individual school psychologists have continuous opportunities to advocate for child rights within practice, research, training, and local policy, professional organizations have a critical role in advocacy and policy making on a broader level and are uniquely positioned to influence the regulation of school psychology and treatment of children at structural levels (local, national, regional, international). To illustrate the potential role of professional organizations that represent school psychologists, we asked leaders of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA), the School Psychology Division (Division 16) of the American Psychological Association (APA), and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) (We selected APA-Division 16 & NASP to illustrate work by national organizations, recognizing that they only represent efforts in one country. We encourage readers across the world to ask these same questions from the leaders of their respective national organizations) to address the following questions about their respective organizations: *What is your organization's vision as it relates to promoting and protecting child rights? Currently, how is your vision for child rights integrated and respected in the following aspects of your organization's initiatives: Ethics; Research; Professional Development & Practice; Policy; and Training, Certification & Licensure? For the future, how do you envision strengthening your organization's commitment and support for advancing child rights within your organization's initiatives? Is there a strategy, condition or orientation worthy of consideration for advancing child rights in the profession through organizational approaches that you consider to be of catalytic or game-changing nature? How can your organization collaborate with other professional organizations, particularly those represented in this chapter, to advance child rights through school psychology?*

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In previous chapters, authors focused primarily on the professional role of school psychologists as they engage in practice, training, research, and policy work. Much of the discussion addressed the ways in which individual school psychologists, working in collaboration with stakeholders, can advocate for child rights and facilitate child well-being and support healthy environments. Although individual school psychologists have continuous opportunities to advocate for child rights at a local level, professional organizations have a critical role in advocacy and policy making and are uniquely positioned to influence the regulation of school psychology and treatment of children at structural levels (local, national, regional, international). To illustrate the potential role of professional organizations that represent school psychologists, we asked current or past leaders of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA), the School Psychology Division (Division 16) of the American Psychological Association (APA), and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP)[1] to address the following questions about their respective organizations:

1. *What is your organization's vision as it relates to promoting and protecting child rights?*
2. *Currently, how is your vision for child rights integrated and respected in the following aspects of your organization's initiatives: Ethics; Research; Professional Development & Practice; Policy; and Training, Certification & Licensure?*
3. *For the future, how do you envision strengthening your organization's commitment and support for advancing child rights within your organization's initiatives?*
4. *Is there a strategy, condition or orientation worthy of consideration for advancing child rights in the profession through organizational approaches that you consider to be of catalytic or game-changing nature?*
5. *How can your organization collaborate with other professional organizations, particularly those represented in this chapter, to advance child rights through school psychology?*

We present the responses from each organization—ISPA, APA's Division 16, and NASP—and conclude with a discussion about implications from these examples for professional organizations worldwide (at local, national, regional, and international levels) that represent school psychologists and related professionals.

International School Psychology Association (ISPA)

The following responses regarding ISPA were provided by Bonnie Nastasi, President (2017–2019) of ISPA. (Additional information about ISPA is available on the website:www.ispaweb.org.)

What Is Your Organization's Vision as it Relates to Promoting and Protecting Child Rights?

ISPA explicitly supports the promotion and protection of child rights in concert with the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (henceforth referred to as the "Convention"), with the inclusion of the following in the organization's mission statement[2]: *Promote and protect the rights of all children and young people according to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and related UN statements.* ISPA's mission further articulates support for articles of the Convention with its commitment to child well-being, nondiscrimination, and child participation (see full Mission Statement in Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology and Child Rights Advocacy", this volume). As an affiliate of UNESCO, ISPA actively participates in supporting *Education for All* children, consistent with the Convention and with the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs; UN, 2015). ISPA has collaborated with Child Rights Education for Professionals (CRED-PRO, ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010), APA's Division 16, Cleveland State Univerity School Psychology Program, and the Tulane University Child Rights Team (TUCRT, 2013) to develop two sets of training materials for the education of school psychologists in child rights advocacy: training modules available through CRED-PRO and online self-study available through Tulane University.[3]

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[1] We selected APA-Division 16 & NASP to illustrate work by national organizations, recognizing that they only represent efforts in one country. We encourage readers across the world to ask these same questions from the leaders of their respective national organizations.

[2] *Source*: http://www.ispaweb.org/about-ispa/mission-statement/

Currently, How Is Your Vision for Child Rights Integrated and Respected in the Following Aspects of Your Organization's Initiatives: Ethics; Research; Professional Development & Practice; Policy; and Training, Certification & Licensure?

Ethics ISPA's (2011a) *Code of Ethics* explicitly addresses child rights in several places, beginning with an introductory statement about prevailing professional ethics: "Children's rights are to be respected" (p. 2). In addition, child rights principles are addressed in three of the six ethical principles: (a) beneficence and nonmaleficence, (b) respect for people's rights and dignity, and (c) social justice. For example, within *Respect for People's Rights and Dignity*, the code states:

> School psychologists strive to promote and respect the dignity and worth of all people … and to acknowledge individual's rights to privacy, confidentiality, and self-determination … [and] cultural, individual, and role differences associated with age, gender, gender identity, race, ethnicity, culture, national origin, religion, sexual orientation, disability, language, or socioeconomic status (p. 2).

Within the social justice principle, the code states:

> School psychologists are committed to the principle that all people are entitled access to and benefit from the contributions of school psychology … Thus, they strive to promote free access to educational, social, and psychological services, to promote changes in schools or other educational practice settings that are beneficial to children and youth as well as educational staff, and to minimize biases (p. 3).

Furthermore, within the code of ethics, ISPA addresses the role of child rights principles within professional standards and practices (addressed in later sections).

Research The ISPA (2011a) *Code of Ethics* provides guidelines for school psychologists engaged in research within local and global communities. These guidelines incorporate Convention principles related to the following rights: participation, discrimination, protection, best interests, life, survival, and development. Two collaborative research initiatives conducted by ISPA members in recent years focused on topics related to the promotion of child well-being, learning and development (specifically, student engagement, Lam, Jimerson et al., 2014, 2016; and psychological well-being, Borja, Nastasi, & Sarkar, 2017; Nastasi & Borja, 2016), and incorporated techniques to ensure representation of child voices in the data.

Professional Development and Practice The ISPA Code of Ethics (2011a) explicitly addresses child rights within the three guidelines for practice related to professional relationships with children and youth (pp. 5–6):

1. School psychologists consider the welfare of the children and youth to be of high importance. They value parents, teachers and other persons to whom the children are attached.
2. School psychologists strive to ensure children and youth understand the nature and purpose

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[3] A copy of the Training Manual based on these training materials is provided in the Handbook's online resources; see also Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Child Rights and Professional Development of School Psychologists" of this volume.

of any assessment or intervention/treatment to the best of their abilities and encourage their active participation in decision-making.

3. School psychologists generally obtain the assent of children and youth prior to providing their services.

Policy ISPA's primary policy document, its constitution, explicitly addresses child rights in Article IV: Purposes of the Association (ISPA, 2011b, p. 1):

1. To promote the use of sound psychological principles within the context of education internationally
2. To promote communication among professionals who are committed to the improvement of the mental health of children in the world's schools
3. To encourage the training and employment of school psychologists in countries where there are none or too few
4. To promote the psychological rights of all children throughout the world
5. To initiate and promote cooperation with other organizations working for purposes similar to those of ISPA in order to help children
6. To condemn any discrimination of a racial, religious or sexual nature and recommend that its members conduct their professional life consistent with this principle

These purposes include fostering the mental health of all children, promoting psychological rights, and specifically denouncing discrimination. In addition, the constitution calls for the training and employment of psychologists to support these purposes and working with other organizations in these efforts. These efforts are further articulated in the professional standards and practices detailed in the ethical code (ISPA, 2011a).

Training, Certification & Licensure ISPA provides international guidelines for the preparation (training) of school psychologists (ISPA, 2018) and for the accreditation of training programs (ISPA, 2010) but to date has not engaged in the certification and licensure of individual psychologists. Given the national, regional, and local practices in certification and licensure around the globe, the lack of international credentialing of practitioners makes sense. The guidelines for professional preparation do not explicitly address training or competencies in child rights, although some principles of the UN Convention are included in the detailing of competencies. For example, the training standards call for the development of understanding related to the role of cultural (e.g., gender, ethnicity) and contextual factors, cultural diversity, and potential biases related to one's cultural identity as a professional. In addition, the standards call for training in professional ethics (as noted in earlier section, ISPA ethical code explicitly addresses child rights and its principles).

For the Future, How do You Envision Strengthening Your Organization's Commitment and Support for Advancing Child Rights Within Your Organization's Initiatives?

ISPA's mission includes a commitment to promoting and protecting child rights and fostering the well-being, learning, and development of all children. This mission serves as a guide for the initiatives and activities of ISPA. The organizational commitment to child rights could be strengthened through inclusion in the strategic goals of ISPA developed by the executive committee and supported and implemented through the efforts of committees, task forces, interest groups, and individual members. One way to strengthen would be to ensure that each national affiliate and the ISPA members are connected to UN agencies working within their respective countries to support child rights and to develop a network of members who are engaged in those efforts at the national level. Another approach would be for ISPA as an organization to engage in advocacy to influence international and national policies and for members to engage in advocacy efforts with local governments and schools. These efforts could be coordinated with local stakeholders representing parents, teachers, youth, and school administrators. ISPA could play a role in the development of advocacy materials to support such efforts and the provision of advocacy training for its members.

Is There a Strategy, Condition or Orientation Worthy of Consideration for Advancing Child Rights in the Profession Through Organizational Approaches That You Consider to Be of Catalytic or Game-Changing Nature?

Perhaps the most innovative approaches to advancing child rights could be developed through the use of participatory approaches (e.g., Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016; Nastasi & Varjas, 2011) in local contexts (e.g., schools, communities). For example, school psychologists could partner with children, youth, families, teachers, school administrators and other school staff, community organizations, community advocates, and policy makers and engage in the development of advocacy efforts that reflect the concerns and resources of all parties. Professional organizations could play a role in these efforts by providing models, training, and resources for local school psychologists.

Another innovative approach that is already mandated and being implemented in some countries (e.g., UK; Woods & Harding, in chapter "Building School and Community Capacity for Development of the Rights of the Child", this volume) is classroom curriculum to educate children about child rights and responsibilities to create a child rights culture. UNICEF has similar initiatives through the development of "child-friendly" schools (UNICEF, 2006). Professional organizations could play a role in facilitating program development, the implementation and evaluation of child rights education, and the professional preparation of school psychologists to engage in these educational efforts. Using a participatory approach, local school psychologists could engage with stakeholders within their communities and respective schools to gain commitment to and tailor programs to meet cultural and contextual needs. These efforts also provide an opportunity for ISPA and other professional organizations to engage with UN agencies and policy makers in the development of child rights education programs for students, parents, school staff, and community members.

In conclusion, the opportunities for innovative approaches to promoting and protecting child rights are limitless for school psychologists, given their expertise and relationships with key stakeholders in educational communities. Building on the expertise and networks of individual members, professional organizations are poised to influence child rights policies and practices at multiple levels.

How Can Your Organization Collaborate with Other Professional Organizations, Particularly Those Represented in this Chapter, to Advance Child Rights Through School Psychology?

ISPA has historically collaborated with APA's Division 16 and NASP, which are both affiliate organizations of ISPA. For example, ISPA's Professional Development and Practices Committee and Child Well-Being and Advocacy Committee collaborated with Division 16 in the development of training materials for preparing school psychologists in child rights advocacy.[4] Members of ISPA's child rights working group also contributed to recent revisions of NASP's (2012a) position statement on child rights. In addition, NASP provides continuing education credits for workshops offered at the annual conference, which have included child rights topics in the past. As all three organizations are committed to the promotion and protection of child rights, future efforts could focus on facilitating the training of school psychologists in child rights and collaborating on advocacy efforts within the US and internationally. Furthermore, ISPA has a network of international affiliates that include national professional organizations from numerous countries. This network could provide the mechanism for addressing child rights issues and facilitating school psychology's role in child rights advocacy within specific countries and cross-nationally.

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[4] The training manual for administration of the curriculum is available as an online resource that accompanies this volume. The related self-study modules are available from Bonnie Nastasi, Tulane University, bnastasi@tulane.edu.

School Psychology Division of the American Psychological Association (APA-Division 16)

The following responses regarding Division 16 were provided by James di Perna, Division 16 President (2015). (Additional information about Division 16 is available on the website https://apadivision16.org/.)

What Is Your Organization's Vision as it Relates to Promoting and Protecting Child Rights?

As the only division within the American Psychological Association (APA) focused on the provision of psychological services to children and youth within schools, Division 16 is committed to promoting child rights and well-being. This commitment is reflected within the division's bylaws (Division of School Psychology, 2012), which specify that the organization promote standards for the profession, increase effective and efficient practice in schools, and support the ethical and social responsibility of the field. In addition, the bylaws specify that the "ultimate goal of all Division activity and influence shall be the enhancement of the status of children, youth, and adults as learners" (Article III).

Although Division 16 shares many of the same goals, objectives, and members with NASP and ISPA, one significant difference between these organizations is that Division 16 is affiliated with a larger professional association (APA) that represents disciplines spanning the field of psychology, whereas NASP and ISPA are independent. As a result of its relationship with APA, much of Division 16's efforts are focused on representing the interests of children and youth within the larger efforts of APA. Several of these efforts are highlighted in the following section and align with the guiding principles for child rights (e.g., nondiscrimination, adherence to the best interests of the child, right to participation), as outlined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (Convention; UN, 1989; UNICEF, 2011). In addition, it is important to note that APA first endorsed the UN Convention articles in 1989 and later passed a resolution regarding both the articles and the Convention's optional protocols (APA, 2001). APA (2003) subsequently passed a resolution related to Children's Mental Health specifying that every child has the right to have access to high-quality mental health services. The resolution also mandates that the organization take a significant leadership role in supporting and advocating this position.

Currently, How Is Your Vision for Child Rights Integrated and Respected in the Following Aspects of Your Organization's Initiatives: Ethics; Research; Professional Development & Practice; Policy; and Training, Certification & Licensure?

Ethics Although Division 16 does not currently have a division-specific code of ethics, APA's *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* (APA, 2002, 2010) reflect several guiding principles that are consistent with the Convention. Specifically, Principle D (Justice) recognizes that *all* persons are entitled to have access to, and benefit from, services within the field of psychology. In addition, Principle E (Respect for People's Rights and Dignity) requires that psychologists respect the worth of *all* people and their right to privacy, confidentiality, and self-determination. This principle also specifies that psychologists must respect individual differences based on several factors, including (but not limited to) culture, sexual orientation, disability, race, and *age*. As noted in Nastasi and Naser (2014), the APA Code of Ethics is consistent with four of the five general categories of rights in the Convention (participation, protection, best interests, and nondiscrimination).

Research Division 16 promotes and disseminates research related to children and youth primarily through *School Psychology (SP)*,[5] a peer-reviewed journal that is currently in its fourth decade of publication. The journal is committed to disseminating timely and high-quality research that addresses questions reflecting the division's commitment to child well-being (e.g., promotion of social competence and mental health, development of cognitive and academic skills, diversity in development and learning). In recognition of the significant needs of children throughout the world, *SP* has expanded its focus to include more international and interdisciplinary research (Jimerson, 2013). In addition, as a journal published by APA, authors submitting their work for consideration in *SP* must adhere to the research provisions of the APA Ethical Code, which protect the rights of children participating in research.

Professional Development & Practice Division 16 supports the professional development and practices of its own members through a variety of efforts. For example, the division organizes member-specific programming at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association. Division 16 typically offers one of the largest programs of any APA Division, and proposals are peer reviewed to ensure quality and alignment with the division's mission. As a result, accepted presentations focus on professional roles (e.g., assessment, intervention, consultation) and/or standards (e.g., ethics, practice) that reflect both the specific articles and broad guiding principles of the UN Convention.

Beyond the annual convention, the Division has engaged in several efforts to promote the professional development and practices of members—both its own and members of other child-focused divisions within APA. For example, Division 16 periodically identifies strategic initiatives that align with the Division's mission and provide members with resources to inform their practices. From 2010 to 2015, Division 16 sponsored work groups to address four emerging and important areas within the field: globalization of school psychology, trauma service provision in schools, translation of science to practice, and social justice/child rights. Although all the work group efforts and outcomes reflect the Division's commitment to child rights, the *Social Justice and Child Rights* work group (chaired by the coeditors of this volume) had the specific goal of facilitating the professional development of school psychologists in the promotion of social justice and child rights. This collaboration led to the development of training materials for school psychologists, which are described in the ISPA section of this chapter (ISPA & CRED-PRO, 2010; TUCRT, 2013). The self-study modules available through Tulane University (TURCT, 2013) have been endorsed by Division 16.[6]

Policy Division 16's efforts to promote child rights at the policy level primarily occur through collaboration and consultation with APA's Government Relations Offices (GRO). APA currently has three GROs—Education, Public Interest, and Science. The Education GRO focuses on federal policy in education settings (elementary, secondary, and higher education), and the Public Interest GRO engages in federal advocacy relative to the application of psychology to problems of human welfare, equity, and justice. Division 16 members and leaders have worked closely with these GROs to ensure that the rights and well-being of children are being protected and promoted in the reauthorization of federal legislation such as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) or new federal proposals such as the Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning Act.

Training, Certification, & Licensure Although Division 16 does not accredit school psychology training programs, the Division represents the interests of the field and youth served by its members through monitoring efforts of the APA and partnering with other school psychology professional associations. Division 16 has two offices within its Executive Committee particularly focused on training-related issues. First, the Vice

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[5] Formerly *School Psychology Quarterly (SPQ)*.

[6] A related training manual for the curriculum is available as an online resource accompanying this volume.

President for Education, Training, and Scientific Affairs (VP-ETSA) monitors all educational and training affairs related to the field of school psychology. This occurs within APA through monitoring the efforts of its Education and Science Directorates. Beyond APA, the VP-ETSA interacts with other associations such as NASP, ISPA, Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs, and Trainers of School Psychologists to ensure that standards for accreditation, training, and certification are consistent with all aspects of the division's mission, including the promotions of child rights and well-being. Second, the Vice President for Professional Affairs (VP-PA) is concerned with school psychology as a professional discipline. As such, the VP-PA works to promote the development/adoption of standards and policies that enhance the quality of school psychological services for children and youth.

For the Future, How do You Envision Strengthening Your Organization's Commitment and Support for Advancing Child Rights Within Your Organization's Initiatives?

Although the mission statement of Division 16 reflects a commitment to child rights and well-being, there undoubtedly are ways to further strengthen and demonstrate this commitment. An important first step to achieving this goal is to assess recent divisional priorities, initiatives, and efforts (e.g., working group initiatives, advocacy within and beyond APA) within the context of the broad guiding principles and specific articles of the UN Convention. Based on this assessment, division leaders and membership can identify (a) how the division's efforts are advancing child rights, (b) where these efforts could be strengthened, and (c) promising directions for future initiatives.

One of the key challenges and considerations for moving forward with any new Division 16 initiatives (and sustaining existing ones) related to the promotion of child rights and well-being is allocating sufficient resources to achieve them. Division 16 is a relatively small professional association, and all leadership positions, committees, and work groups are filled by division members who are volunteering their time and effort. In addition, elected positions within the division are for three-year terms, and committee memberships often last for an even shorter duration. As a result, it can be challenging to identify, enact, and ultimately sustain any new initiatives, including those that are well aligned with the mission of the division.

Strengthening the division's efforts related to child rights and well-being will require the identification of members to champion those initiatives. These initial champions also will need to work closely with the division's elected leadership to ensure that mechanisms and resources are in place to sustain these efforts beyond their launch. For example, the division could build upon the efforts of its child rights working group by creating a standing committee that is specifically focused on advancing the division's mission in this domain. The committee would be responsible for identifying priorities, enacting initiatives, and evaluating accomplishments on an annual basis. For such a committee to achieve its objectives and have sustained impact, members would need to be appointed to multiyear terms with staggered start dates to maintain continuity, effort, and focus. Although creation of a permanent committee or work group to focus on child rights is not the only way to advance the division's efforts on this front, it would signify/reinforce the division's commitment and create infrastructure that could lead to new, impactful, and sustained initiatives.

Is There a Strategy, Condition or Orientation Worthy of Consideration for Advancing Child Rights in the Profession Through Organizational Approaches that you Consider to Be of Catalytic or Game-Changing Nature?

Although it is difficult to identify a single strategy, condition, or orientation that is game changing, there are several approaches that, if undertaken in a coordinated and timely fashion, could have a significant impact. As mentioned in response to the previous question, perhaps the most significant challenge for smaller professional associations is advancing their initiatives with limited personnel and resources. In addition, these associations have multiple goals (e.g., advancement of the profession of school psychology, as well as the populations served by the profession), and resources need to be distributed among them, often to the point of stretching those resources quite significantly. As such, it can be difficult for small professional associations to sustain focus and maximize the impact of their efforts.

Although this challenge likely is shared across all three school psychology organizations contributing to this chapter, a planned effort between them that is *coordinated, timely, and sustained* could have a significant impact on school psychology's (and school psychologists') contribution to advancing child rights and well-being in the US and internationally. Preferably, such an interorganizational effort would capitalize on the awareness, momentum, and ideas resulting from a watershed event, such as the publication of this volume. In addition to embracing collaboration, each organization also would need to substantively contribute resources, ideas, and effort for such an initiative to achieve a "game-changing" level of impact.

How Can Your Organization Collaborate with Other Professional Organizations, Particularly Those Represented in this Chapter, to Advance Child Rights Through School Psychology?

Division 16 has collaborated with NASP on a variety of training and professional issues related to accreditation, licensure, and standards. Division 16 also has worked with ISPA regarding efforts to advance the profession of school psychology at an international level, and all three organizations (as well as other stakeholder groups in the field) engage in periodic conversations regarding their current initiatives and efforts. This recent history of communication and collaboration among these professional associations provides a promising foundation for undertaking a game-changing coordinated initiative to advance child rights and welfare through the field of school psychology.

Beyond this foundation, there are a number of collaborative activities/initiatives that could be incorporated into a sustained and coordinated effort focused on promoting the rights of the child. As a starting point, Division 16, ISPA, and NASP could form an interorganizational task force charged with identifying goals for any collaborative efforts regarding child rights. These goals could then be used to identify and prioritize specific initiatives and activities. For example, the organizations could identify a calendar (or school) year that they all identify as "The Year of the Child." During this year, each organization could then disseminate information and resources specifically focused on child rights and well-being to each of their members. Similarly, the organizations could have the programs for their respective annual conventions focus on the same theme (child rights) and then coordinate the featured thematic content/speakers at each convention. In addition, they could collaborate to develop and disseminate resources for practicing school psychologists (e.g., a professional development webinar series) and graduate students (e.g., curricular modules that could be completed online or incorporated into a course on campus). Finally, the organizations also could collaborate on joint statement(s) or publications regarding the advancement of child rights and well-being through school psychology. In sum, there are many pathways and opportunities for collaboration between Division 16, NASP, ISPA, and other school psychology organizations) to achieve this important goal that is at the heart of our profession.

National Association of School Psychologists (NASP)

The following responses regarding NASP were provided by Kelly Vaillancourt Strobach, NASP Director of Government Relations; Eric Rossen, NASP Director of Professional Development and

Standards; and Stephen E. Brock, NASP President (2014–2015). (Additional information about NASP is available on the website http://www.nasponline.org/.)

What Is Your Organization's Vision as it Relates to Promoting and Protecting Child Rights?

The vision of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, July 2012b) asserts that "all children and youth thrive in school, at home, and throughout life." To help fulfill this vision, NASP has adopted a set of core values, strategic priorities, and goals that guide the association's work. NASP places children first, and its core values provide evidence of this commitment to promoting and protecting child rights; specifically, NASP

- Engages in actions that will positively impact student outcomes
- Understands and honors individual, cultural, and other contextual differences
- Is committed to treating all persons with dignity and respect, and
- Maintains a student-centered approach

The United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child (Convention), adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1989, is widely recognized as a model framework for codifying children's rights. In 2012, NASP leadership formally adopted a professional position statement to reaffirm its responsibility and commitment to advance child rights (NASP, 2012a). Further, NASP remains committed to advancing policy and practices that meet the needs of the whole child and empowering school psychologists to provide culturally competent, highly effective, evidence-based services to promote the learning and well-being of all children.

School psychologists are well positioned to advance the rights of the child. NASP is committed to high-quality graduate preparation and ongoing professional development for school psychologists to ensure the integration of child rights and professional standards and ethics in their daily practice (NASP, 2012a). Further, as part of its national model for the delivery of school psychological services (NASP, 2010a), NASP encourages school psychologists to engage in system-level change and public policy advocacy to further advance policies and practices that promote child rights.

Currently, How Is Your Vision for Child Rights Integrated and Respected in the Following Aspects of Your Organization's Initiatives: Ethics; Research; Professional Development & Practice; Policy; and Training, Certification & Licensure?

NASP (2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d) maintains an interrelated and unified set of principles and standards for professional practice, ethics, graduate preparation, and credentialing. Collectively, these documents advance NASP's vision for child rights.

Principles for Professional Ethics NASP asserts that school psychologists remain committed to improving the well-being of children and families. Thus, school psychologists consider the interests and rights of the child to be the highest priority in all decisions and have a professional and ethical responsibility to advocate "for the needs and rights of students, even when it may be difficult to do so" (NASP, 2010b, p. 2). The *NASP Principles for Professional Ethics* (NASP, 2010b) are organized around four broad themes: (a) respecting the dignity and rights of all persons, (b) professional competence and responsibility, (c) honesty and integrity in professional relationships, and (d) responsibility to schools, families, communities, the profession, and society. Collectively, NASP's ethical principles describe appropriate professional conduct for school psychologists and, in so doing, address child rights. For example, the principles state:

> School psychologists engage only in professional practices that maintain the dignity of all with whom they work. In their words and actions, school psychologists demonstrate respect for the autonomy of persons and their right to self-determination, respect for privacy, and a commitment to just and fair treatment of all persons (p. 3).

NASP encourages school psychologists to strive for excellence in all aspects of their practice. Each ethical principle underscores the need to promote the learning and well-being of children and youth. However, specific ethical principles more directly promote the rights of the child.

Responsible school-based record keeping NASP (2010b) *Principles for Professional Ethics* describe the need for school psychologists to ensure that student data and other sensitive information are properly stored and secured to prevent inappropriate access. Further, school psychologists discuss with parents and students their rights regarding the creation, storage, and disposal of those records. This highlights the right of the child to understand and participate in the safekeeping of personal records, when appropriate.

Privacy and confidentiality Consistent with Article 16 of the Convention, school psychologists respect the right of persons to determine whether to disclose private or personal information. School psychologists do not share information about the sexual orientation, gender identity, or transgender status of a student (including minors) or parent (NASP, 2010b). Further, NASP maintains standards regarding the confidentiality of information obtained in their professional relationships with students. Effective school psychologists—student relationships are built around trust and honesty. Therefore, it is critical that the expectations of confidentiality are clearly discussed before direct service delivery begins. To help protect the child's rights and best interests, parents must be informed of, and accept, the confidential nature of the school psychologist's relationship with their child. However, the ethical principles describe limits to the agreement of confidentiality (e.g., information about danger to a student or others cannot be maintained as confidential). These limits are described to both the student and caregivers prior to the initiation of services and are designed to protect the safety and well-being of everyone in the school community. Additionally, due to the collaborative nature of the school environment, school psychologists exercise professional judgement when disclosing certain confidential information for professional purposes and only with persons with a legitimate need to know (NASP, 2010b). However, the ethical principles describe limits to the agreement of confidentiality. Disclosure of information about a danger to a student or others cannot be maintained as confidential, even if the student asks for that information to remain confidential or describes how disclosure would violate trust. The school psychologist views the safety of others as paramount.

Fairness and justice NASP asserts that school psychologists have an ethical responsibility to promote fairness and justice for all students and to help cultivate school climates that are safe and welcoming, regardless of actual or perceived personal characteristics (NASP, 2010b). School psychologists do not engage in or condone policies or actions that discriminate against others. Taken further, in alignment with Article 2 of the Convention, the ethical principles identify a responsibility of school psychologists to proactively "correct school practices that are unjustly discriminatory or that deny students, parents, or others their legal rights" (p. 6).

Unfortunately, inequality and discrimination continue to exist in our schools, especially for minority youth, students with disabilities, and the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) youth. School psychologists encourage schools to develop and implement policies and practices that prevent discrimination and create a climate of acceptance for all students, provide professional development to increase awareness about specific populations, and reach out to individual students who may have experienced discrimination to provide support and connect them with accepting adults in the building.

NASP provides professional development and resources to help school psychologists engage in this work.

Standards for Professional Practice NASP's (2010a) *Model for Comprehensive and Integrated School Psychological Services* (also known as the "Practice Model") specifies that psychologists provide a range of services (e.g., consultation, prevention, intervention, assessment) in multiple settings, with services directed at individuals (e.g., students, parents, educators) and systems (family, classroom, schools, community organizations). Child rights are central to the work in each of these contexts, and according to the Practice Model, school psychologists should continuously evaluate their own services and individual practices to ensure that they maintain incorporation of child rights within all aspects of practice.

Within the Practice Model, NASP (2010a) promotes ten interrelated domains of school psychology practice:

1. Data-based decision making and accountability
2. Consultation and collaboration
3. Interventions and instructional support to develop academic skills
4. Interventions and mental health services to develop social and life skills
5. School-wide practices to promote learning
6. Preventive and responsive services
7. Family-school collaboration services
8. Diversity in development and learning
9. Research and program evaluation
10. Legal, ethical, and professional practice

A variety of factors (e.g., personal interest, population of students served) influence the advanced and specialized skills developed by individual school psychologists. At times, a school psychologist may recognize insufficient expertise to address the specific needs of a child. In these cases, the school psychologist should seek assistance thorough professional development, supervision, and/or consultation with a colleague to ensure that the best interests and rights of the child are maintained.

The NASP (2010c) *Standards for Graduate Preparation of School Psychologists* highlight the need to develop both knowledge and skills across these domains among all future school psychologists. Providing a consistent framework for graduate preparation helps ensure that all children succeed academically, socially, behaviorally, and emotionally while promoting respect for human diversity. In this vein, NASP helps to promote Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention, which recognize the right of children to attend schools that ensure appropriate discipline policies; reduce drop-out rates; develop students' physical, social, emotional, mental, and behavioral health; and maintain human dignity.

National Certification NASP administers a Nationally Certified School Psychologist (NCSP) credential, which promotes and recognizes individuals who meet the NASP standards for graduate preparation and demonstrate knowledge and skills across all ten domains of school psychology practice. To maintain the NCSP, professionals must engage in ongoing professional development activities. To meet this need, NASP provides ample professional development opportunities (e.g., conferences, online learning, trainings) and resources (e.g., books, articles, newsletters, podcasts) to ensure that the school psychologists maintain the knowledge and expertise to meet the unique needs of the students, schools, communities, and contexts in which they provide services.

Advocacy and Policy Important to ensuring child rights, school psychologists translate research into policy and practice at local, national, and international levels. Governments, through both action and inaction, contribute to the protection or disregard of child rights. Instead of focusing only on ameliorating violations of child rights, school psychologists help to advocate for policies that promote and protect child rights. NASP works to help school psychologists advocate for child rights in their daily practice and in public policy decisions at the local, state, and federal levels. NASP's public policy agenda is driven by our professional position statements, which include a position on child rights (NASP, 2012a; a full list NASP position statements are found at www.nasponline.org/about_nasp/position_paper.aspx).

NASP advocates for public policies at the local, state, and federal levels that promote evidence-based practices and adequate access to qualified professionals to ensure that children and youth have the support they need to be successful. Importantly, NASP believes that all children, regardless of where they live or where they attend school, should have equitable access to resources needed to be successful. NASP's current advocacy, policy, and legislative priorities (NASP, 2015), along with related articles in the Convention, include the following:

- Equity of profession-ready teachers in all schools and for all groups of students (Art. 28)
- Increased access to school psychologists to increase the availability of comprehensive school psychological services (Articles 24, 28, and 29)
- Policies that protect all children and youth from bullying, harassment, and discrimination (Articles 19 and 28)
- Comprehensive school safety efforts that balance physical and psychological safety (Articles 3 and 29)
- Accountability and assessment systems that hold all students to high expectations (Article 28)
- Promotion of evidence-based interventions delivered within multitiered systems of support (Article 28)
- Appropriate support for homeless youth, foster youth, military families, and other children in transition (Article 20)
- Improving school–community partnerships (Article 24)
- Advancing evidence-based models of school mental and behavioral health service delivery (Articles 24 and 29)

Further information about NASP's policy priorities are available at http://www.nasponline.org/research-and-policy/current-law-and-policy-priorities/policy-priorities.

Research NASP promotes effective policies rooted in research and evidence-based practice. Further, NASP seeks to transform new, innovative, and effective practices into policy that benefits all children. As such, NASP works to help school psychologists implement effective practices in every facet of their work (NASP, July 2012b).

NASP promotes, facilitates, and disseminates evidence-based research and practices that improve children's well-being. Empirical research is a critical component in helping to change ineffective policy and practice and implement promising practices. To ensure that research appropriately informs policy and practice, NASP seeks to make current research available in multiple formats so that its relevance is understood by researchers, policy makers, current practitioners, educators, families, graduate students, and the general public. Examples of these resources can be found at www.nasponline.org.

For the Future, How do You Envision Strengthening Your Organization's Commitment and Support for Advancing Child Rights Through Your Organization's Initiatives?

Every 10 years, NASP reviews and revises its standards for graduate preparation, practice, and credentialing. The field of school psychology and society as a whole continues to evolve in the recognition of the unique needs and diversity of the youth. These periodic reviews help to ensure that our standards are consistent with current research and the collective views of the field and that school psychologists are equipped to meet the diverse needs of schools, children, and families. Maintaining up-to-date standards that represent the field ensures that school psychologists consider child rights as a foundation to effective and ethical practice.

Is There a Strategy, Condition or Orientation Worthy of Consideration for Advancing Child Rights in the Profession Through Organizational Approaches that you Consider to Be of Catalytic or Game-Changing Nature?

NASP believes that at its core, public education is a basic human right for all and access to comprehensive school psychological services, high-quality instruction, effective teachers and leaders, and safe schools are fundamental to that right. As a nation, and as a profession, we need to focus our energy on working toward identifying and implementing solutions that result in high-quality public schools for all children. Similarly, we need to place equal importance on access to services that remove barriers to learning, as we currently do to school management infrastructure and curriculum development and instruction. High-quality instruction on its own does not sufficiently meet the conditions for learning without removing barriers to learning and ensuring that child rights are adequately met.

How Can Your Organization Collaborate with Other Professional Organizations, Particularly Those Represented in this Chapter, To Advance Child Rights Through School Psychology?

Future endeavors could include interorganizational summits, joint statements or publications on upholding child rights in alignment with the Convention, joint research, sharing resources to develop professional development opportunities, and jointly disseminating resources.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the role of professional school psychology organizations in the promotion of and advocacy for child rights. The scope of the chapter is limited to ISPA as the international organization representing the profession of school psychology and two national organizations, APA-Division 16 and NASP, which are US affiliates of ISPA. We recognize that the national examples from the US may not exemplify the work within other countries. However, we hope that the depiction of ISPA and major organizations within one country illustrates the potential role of professional organizations in child rights advocacy. We encourage readers to explore the role of professional organizations within their own countries, perhaps using a similar set of questions that we have used to guide the discussion.

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Part V

Visions for the Future

Toward a Preferred Future for School Psychology

Stuart N. Hart and Brannon W. Hart

Abstract

Children deserve services from school psychologists fully capable of appreciating their nature and championing their best interests. Transformation of the profession is herein encouraged toward a future giving primacy to promoting the well-being, holistic health, and full development of potentials for all children in ways respecting children's rights. A new social contract between the profession and those it serves is proposed, one that appreciates recognized affordances inherent in the profession's history, values, and previously unresolved search for a central purpose. A conceptualization of the new social contract is offered that makes child well-being and well-becoming the profession's superordinate goal. For successful pursuit of this goal, service concentration is prescribed toward essential components of well-being through individual development plans, prospective human development, and mastery learning and through a school-based health/development center organization of services. Finally, expectations are framed for the profession's scope or practice, knowledge and roles, preparation and organization, commitment to central mission, and title under the new social contract.

Children deserve services from school psychologists fully capable of appreciating their nature and championing their best interests. To do this, the profession must divest itself of its historical emphasis on problem and deficit orientations serving a fraction of the child population and reframe its work to give primacy to the promotion and achievement of well-being for each and every child. Regarding well-being as "the good life," Seligman (2009) defined it as "using your signature strengths every day to produce authentic happiness and abundant gratification" (http://www.azquotes.com/author/20352-Martin_Seligman). In a related perspective, Adler (1985) defined happiness as "the excellence of a whole life well lived, a morally good life" (p. 138). School psychology's contribution to the "well-being" of human beings, set in such terms, will

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This chapter incorporates, upgrades, modifies and expands material from an invited online collection essay by the first author initially posted by Sage Journals for School Psychology International in 2014: Child Rights and School Psychology: Toward a New Social Contract, at http://spi.sagepub.com/site/special_issues/childrights.xhtml and recently available at *https://journals.sagepub.com/page/spi/collections/special-issues/child-rights*.

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be greatly magnified if its professional policies, services, and practices are pervaded by human rights values and principles applied clearly and intentionally in pursuit of child well-being. Here, we attempt to provide guidance toward a school psychology ready and willing for this mission.

A History with a Promising Future

School psychology has come into being particularly through the confluence of four historical themes of demand: protection and care for the development for children, assessment of individual characteristics and differences, the evolution of psychology, and school community professional services. A series of major conferences and symposia have given attention to the nature and influences of these and other related themes relevant to school psychology's history, status, and future. The Thayer Conference of 1954 was a defining and pioneering conference for the field. According to Fagan (2005, p. 238), The Thayer Conference was "the first national-level conference on the status and future of school psychology," and its agenda was "to establish a structure for the future of school psychology." The Thayer Conference (Cutts, 1955) was followed by the 1980 Spring Hill Symposium on the Future of Psychology in the Schools (Ysseldyke, 1982), the 1981 Olympia Conference (Brown, Cardon, Coulter, & Meyers, 1982), the 2002 Multisite Conference on the Future of School Psychology (*Psychology in the Schools*, Vol. 4, No. 4, 2004, *School Psychology Quarterly*, Vol. 18, No. 4, 2004, and *School Psychology Review*, Vol. 33, No. 1, 2004), and the Conference on the Future of School Psychology (2012).

A review of the published information, descriptions, and perspectives associated with the history of these conferences reveals themes of seminal and continuing importance to the field. Here, the reader will appreciate that any review, analysis, and/or summation of history is subject to researcher bias—finding what is expected, appreciated, or preferred (Carr, 1961). We, as authors, are well endowed with subtle to obvious influences of this nature. Recognizing this, however, we believe that sufficient evidence exists to objectively support the themes described here and that most school psychologists will concur. These revealed (or selected) themes of school psychology's history have frequently been embedded with or accompanied by aspirations, tensions, frustrations, and controversy. The themes are introduced here through statements representing our summary judgments of their extant status, with one or more references from the larger supportive set. Each of the themes that follow embody potential for service to an enlightened future of great promise to be addressed in later sections.

School psychology is a discipline of psychology Historically, it joined clinical and counseling psychology, being the third of this set to be recognized (Fagan, 2005; Merrell, Ervin, & Gimpel, 2006).

School psychologists are primarily "psychologists" rather than "educators" Their expertise and practice are founded on the psychology of child development and education (Cutts, 1955; Fagan, 2005).

School psychologists are professionals rather than technicians While the "psychometric" role continues to maintain general emphasis, school psychologists are more than test givers, scorers, and reporters (Abramowitz, 1981; Conference on the Future of School Psychology, 2012; Fagan, 2005).

School psychologists are scientist-practitioners, and this dual interactive identity, though yet to be fully realized in general practice, is strongly embodied in school psychology's practices of hypothesis generation and determination, data gathering and analysis for individuals and groups, and evidence-based interventions across the social ecology (see Abramowitz, 1981; Conference on the Future of School Psychology, 2012; Gutkin, 2002; Ysseldyke, 1982).

School psychology is primarily oriented to solve problems and overcome deficits The field is constrained by this history, shared with much of psychology, which seems particularly encumbering in school community work where proactive promotion of development could be central (Abramowitz, 1981; Conoley & Gutkin, 1995; Ysseldyke, 1982).

School psychologists have the opportunity for a wide array of roles and functions A somewhat daunting range of roles is available, but child study, assessment, and intervention gate-keeping continue to be primary (Benson & Hughes, 1985; Conoley & Gutkin, 1995; Harrison, Cummings, Dawson, Short, Gorin, & Palomares, 2004; Hart, 1982; Peterson, 1981).

School psychologists continue to seek destiny control They frequently work in school systems, which organize them under the direction of nonpsychologists, including directors of special education, pupil services, and principals, who often have narrower and/or conflicting agendas (see Abramowitz, 1981; Benson & Coulter, 1981; Bradley-Johnson, Johnson, & Jacob-Timm, 1995; Hart, 1982; Ysseldyke, 1982).

School psychology continues to support multiple levels of training, education, and certification This condition exists worldwide and raises issues of levels and domains of competence, practice, accountability, autonomy, and financial support and their sources (Fagan, 2005; Jimerson, Oakland, & Farrell, 2007; Merrell et al., 2006).

School psychology desires multiple sector practice opportunities The field has expertise and services applicable to educational, health, and community settings (Fagan, 2005; Merrell et al., 2006).

School psychology recognizes the need for partnerships, cooperation, and solidarity The best interests of the field and those it serves argue for good and highly cooperative relationships with others, that is, counselors, social workers, medical professionals, educators, child protection services, school administrators, parents, and families (NASP, 2010a; Peterson, 1981).

School psychologists intend to advance their accountability The field is intentionally progressing toward the establishment of observable competencies and evidence-based interventions (Gutkin, 2002; Merrell et al., 2006; Peterson, 1981; White & Kratochwill, 2005).

School psychology continues the quest to determine its primary client Significant implications for the ethics of practices are related to the identification of the primary client as the child, parents/family, teacher, school, school system, or school community (Conoley & Gutkin, 1995; Harrison et al., 2003/2004; Peterson, 1981).

School psychologists are pulled between helping individual children and the systems serving children with encouragement toward multi-tiered intervention systems The traditional individual child study role appears in conflict with the need and opportunity to serve many, potentially all children through others, with too few school psychologists to do both (Conference on the Future of School Psychology, 2012; Conoley & Gutkin, 1995).

School psychologists have ambiguous central and superordinate purposes Indeterminate goals are advocated that tend to emphasize fragments of human needs and interests, such as overcoming and managing disabilities and advancing academic achievement and mental health (see Brown et al., 1982; Conference on the Future of School Psychology, 2012; Conoley & Gutkin, 1995; Fagan, 2005; Harrison et al., 2004; Peterson, 1981; Ysseldyke, 1982).

Foundations for a Preferred Future

Our projection of a preferred future for school psychology rests on multiple conceptual foundations. Among those given importance and considered as necessary are the values of the profession and agreement on its central purpose and primary and secondary clients.

Guidance from School Psychology Values

The values upon which a profession is based should give direction to all its characteristics and actions. The relevance of these values for ultimate or primary purposes and parties to be served deserves high priority status in this regard. A review of available international information (e.g., Jimerson et al., 2007) regarding school psychology is helpful but not fully satisfying, particularly in regard to identifying foundations with sufficient clarity or consistency for application. The desired information would be expected within mission statements, position statements, and ethical codes. As examples, consider related documentation from the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) (United States) and the International School Psychology Association (ISPA), with some of the highly pertinent materials in italics.

National Association of School Psychologists NASP's ethical code states: "The mission of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) is to represent school psychology and support school psychologists *to enhance the learning and mental health of all children and youth*" (page 1), and in a later section, "*The client is the person or persons with whom the school psychologist establishes a professional relationship for the purpose of providing school psychological services*" (NASP, 2016, page 3). In a later section (Principle IV.1. Promoting Healthy School, Family, and Community Environments), it states that "School psychologists use their expertise in psychology and education *to promote school, family, and community environments that are safe and healthy for children*" (retrieved online on January 4, 2016, at https://www.nasponline.org/assets/Documents/Standards%20and%20Certification/Standards/1_%20Ethical%20Principles.pdf).

NASP's Position Statement on Child Rights includes: "The CRC's (*Convention on the Rights of the Child*) *core purpose is to secure and advance the health, well-being, education, and safety of children*. This purpose is consistent *with the guiding principles of NASP to deliver a comprehensive continuum of services that promote the well-being of children and youth by ensuring opportunities to attain optimal learning and mental health*. The CRC asserts the role of governments, communities, organizations, and individuals to collaborate in implementing policies and practices to ensure the health and well-being of all children" (retrieved online on January 5, 2016, at https://www.nasponline.org/research-and-policy/professional-positions/position-statements).

International School Psychology Association (ISPA) *ISPA's definition of school psychology* states: "The term school psychology is used in a general form to refer to professionals prepared in psychology and education and who are recognized as *specialists in the provision of psychological services to children and youth within the contexts of schools, families, and other settings that impact their growth and development*" (ISPA, 2016a; retrieved online on January 6, 2016, at http://www.ispaweb.org/a-definition-of-school-psychology). *ISPA's introduction to its mission statement* establishes that "ISPA is strongly *committed to improving healthy development and quality of life for children* everywhere. ISPA has thus made children's human rights a high priority in its international work during the last decade and will maintain this emphasis in the future. For this purpose, ISPA has initiated and collaborated with international endeavors that benefit children or hold a genuine promise to do so. The involvement of school psychology at the national level will significantly strengthen many of these projects. There is growing demand for School Psychologists to broaden their spheres of influence. The valuable knowledge and experience we have accumulated in confronting the realities of modern life enables us to take a more active role in the community. We can now place these at *the service of the national and local leadership of* *different countries, both political and educational, helping them to develop and implement programs designed to improve the quality of schools and the lives of children*" (retrieved online on January 5, 2016, at http://www.ispaweb.org/about-ispa/mission-statement/).

ISPA's mission statement makes these highly relevant declarations of commitment:

- *Promote the improvement of children's and young people's well-being as well as their cognitive, emotional, physical, social and spiritual development* in schools and communities across the world.
- *Promote communication and collaboration among parents/caregivers, educators* and *other professionals* who are committed *to the improvement of children's well-being*.
- *Promote and protect the rights of all children and young people* according to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and related UN statements.

The *ISPA Code of Ethics* concurs with these positions through the following excerpted statements under the category of "Professional Responsibilities":

- D. School psychologists are committed to protect the welfare and to act in the best interests of children and youth, their parents, educators, colleagues, and employees. *When conflicts of interest arise, school psychologists' first concern is to serve the best interests of children and youth.*
- F. School psychologists, *when working with families, respect the goals and philosophies of the families*.
- G. School psychologists *provide services to children and youth with the informed consent of the parents* (ISPA, 2016a; retrieved online on January 6, 2016, at http://www.ispaweb.org/about-ispa/ispa-publications/)(ISPA, 2016b).

The profession will be well-served by more clearly formulating its central purpose and the identity of those to whom and for whom their contributions will be made. In the next section, we provide relevant suggestions.

A Central and Superordinate Purpose: An Imperative

Establishment of a central purpose, under which all other purposes are to be subsumable, for which all other purposes are to be consistent, and to which all other purposes are to be facilitators and contributors, is essential for school psychology's integrity and future. This will enable the profession to more effectively, efficiently, and powerfully pursue its greatest potentials and best interests and to bring all other issues and concerns, such as those entertained in its status and future conferences, into asset form and harmony. The profession's litany of purposes/intentions (e.g., serving health, education, and mental health advances; Conference on the Future of School Psychology, 2012) has lacked a sufficiently clear, central, and rallying thrust. We recommend that the fundamental and superordinate purpose of the school psychology should be to advance the well-being and well-becoming of children (hereafter simply "well-being"). Additionally, we argue that this purpose is best framed by the Convention on the Rights of the Child. In 2008, child protection was challenged by Michael Wald to make child well-being its highest priority goal (Hart & Glaser, 2011, p. 759). An even stronger case can be made for school psychology.

In the 2012 online school psychology futures conference, during the presentation by Rob Horner on *Leadership by School Psychologists: Three Influential Themes* (http://www.indiana.edu/~futures/), the visual backdrop of the webinar displayed the following quote from John Dewey: "What the best and wisest parent wants for his child, that must we want for all the children of the community. Anything less is unlovely, and left unchecked, destroys our democracy" (Dewey, 1907). This is a wonderful statement of purpose. Most of us probably believe that we understand something about the good that it intends for children. The golden rule or, as it is sometimes labeled, the ethic of reciprocity, could be used to interpret Dewey's imperative, rephrasing it to say, *all children should be treated as the best and wisest parents want their children to be treated*. While these dictums can help unite the profession and those it serves toward the best interests of children, they are open to a variety of interpretations, including some that would corrupt the basic meaning and/or be time frame limited and self-serving. The issues raised by Hart and Hart (chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume) for the Golden Rule apply equally to Dewey's proclamation. To achieve the promise of these maxims, they must be operationalized to credible forms that can be validly and reliably interpreted and applied across time, societal sectors, and persons. The best operationalized detailing of these concepts so far achieved is embodied in the child rights principles and standards of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (henceforth referred to as the Convention).

The Convention was produced through official representatives of the nations of the world, adopted by the UN General Assembly (1989) without dissent from any nation, and has been officially committed to by all but one nation (i.e., the United States, which had strong influence on its development and which signed the Convention in 1995, indicating the intention to eventually move toward ratifying commitment). The Convention is without peer as the world's pre-eminent perspective on the proper treatment of children and aspirations for their development and well-being. Its aspirations and expectations for the way in which children will grow, develop, and thrive are set forth most clearly in Article 29 on the aims of education that follows:

> Article 29
>
> 1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:
>
> (a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
> (b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
> (c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;
> (d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
> (e) The development of respect for the natural environment.
>
> 2. No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principle set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

Arguably, this is what we would want for ourselves as children, for our own children, and for all children everywhere and at all times. School psychology's long history of involvement in, contributions to, and support for children's rights provides the foundation and launching mechanism for making the child rights conceptualization of well-being its central purpose. Well-being has been framed by the Convention to holistically include physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral domains (see Arts. 17, 27, and 32), embodying the potentials of concern to Article 29 and meant to benefit from the full supportive and guiding context of the Convention. See Hart and Hart (chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume) for clarification of the significance and applications of other child rights themes.

Identification of Primary and Secondary Clients

Merriam Webster defines *client* in the following ways:

- *One that is under the protection of another*
- *A person who engages the professional advice or services of another*
- *A customer*
- *A person served by or utilizing the services of a social agency* (retrieved online on October 21, 2016; http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/client)

The Oxford Dictionary provides these definitions for *client*:

- *A person or organization using the services of a lawyer or other professional person or company*
- *A person receiving social or medical services* (Oxford Dictionary, 2016; retrieved online, January 4, 2016; http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/client)

School psychologists have clients of each major type, the person/unit receiving services and the person/unit procuring services. These client types are somewhat represented in the *2012 School Psychology: Creating Our Future(s)* online conference. In its mission subsections, it cites the following list of those to be served, which can be considered as *clients*: children, their schools, and their families (Conference on the Future of School Psychology, 2012).

We argue that the child, individually, and children, collectively, are the primary clients, the central one(s) whom services are to benefit. The school system, family, school community, and its supporters, directly or indirectly, are secondary clients procuring and advising services to advance the best interests of the child, often framed as also benefitting other/all children, the schools, the community, and society in the present and future.

Let there be no question: *The child individually and children collectively represent the primary client(s) of school psychology!* School psychologists are expert in child development, learning, and behavior, especially as these occur and are influenced during the developmental period in which the school is the primary intentionally organized societal framework and support system to facilitate child development. A school psychologist who is principally acting as a psychologist in the school community should be understood to serve the best interests and well-being of the child and children as a first level of commitment and accountability, regardless of who requests services, remunerates, supervises, or evaluates him/her.

The *school community* is the larger contextual body of affordances (e.g., persons, organizations, programs, environments), dynamic and interactive in and outside school, which guides and serves child development, learning, behavior, and well-being. School psychologists are frequently drawn into a wide variety of secondary roles in the school community to educate, consult, and supervise toward effectiveness and advances in, for example, school curriculum, school management, school staff development, and school and community cooperation and coordination. They are readily available or susceptible to rapid upgrade to meet and fulfill such opportunities. Generally, however, these are not primary roles, although they may become so if shift in position or title is made. These other possible roles and their associated work, when undertaken, should be framed to serve the best interests of children, respecting the full holistic context for health, development, and well-being required by the Convention.

A New Social Contract for a Preferred Future

> School psychology and children's rights have great potential, well beyond what has been realized, for advancing the best interests of children, their communities, and societies. A child rights approach infused into school psychology can significantly contribute to the fulfillment of this potential. (Hart & Hart, 2014, abstract)

A new social contract between school psychology and those it serves is needed to achieve this vision. A proposal for a new social contract of this nature was first recommended in 2007 in a review of the *Handbook of International School Psychology* (Hart, 2007). It was grounded in the perspective that "Each child brings its own special added value to the world; a personality and potential that exist only in that child. The responsibility to respect and nurture a child's development is profound. Human potential is great and quite beyond expectations, as verified by the fact that human beings have achieved, for good or evil, nearly all that they have imagined"

(International Institute for Child Rights and Development (IICRC), 2007). The new social contract for school psychology should assure a child rights approach to advance the well-being of each and every child. This will require substantial redirection of the profession. As primary examples, problem and deficit orientations must become secondary to opportunity and asset emphases, fragmented issue concentrations will need to be formulated to contribute meaning and give way to holistic considerations, short-term interventions must appreciate and facilitate long-term plans, and individual expertise should be directed to serve and be magnified by collaborative partnerships, including the child and those who care for and influence the child.

Child Well-Being: The Central Purpose of the New Social Contract

The new social contract is meant to advance and achieve the well-being of the child. Well-being here, as championed earlier, stands for the full holistic health, development, extant well-being, and progressive well-becoming of the child. While establishing child well-being as the central purpose of school psychology does not mean that teachers, schools, parents, and communities will fail to be respected or served by the profession, it does mean that such service is secondary to and must be consistent with and directly or indirectly contribute to child well-being. The new social contract must radiate from a philosophical foundation incorporating deep understanding, appreciation, and commitment to the integrity and human rights of the child. As such, it would embody primary respect for the superordinate goal of advancing the well-being of the child toward thriving and flourishing and through interventions that respect the dignity and human rights of the child. While this social contract would expect accountability to all the rights of the Convention, core emphasis would be justified for the promotion of and accountability to advances in (a) the domains of health, development, and well-being (i.e., physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral; Arts. 17, 27, 32) and (b) the aspirations for child development, best expressed in Article 29 as the Convention's aims for education.

Measures to Help Fulfill the New Social Contract and Achieve Child Well-Being

Numerous models, mechanisms, and programs are presently or potentially available that are respectful of children's rights and that, if implemented in the new social contract, can significantly increase the likelihood of advancing child well-being in a highly coherent manner within the school community. Of these, we recommend five for consideration: individual development plans, a prospective human development approach, an enhanced mastery learning approach, school-based health/development centers, and prioritization of essentials.

Individual development plans (IDPs) According to the Convention's aims for education (Art. 29), the school community should work to achieve the "full realization of the child's personality and possibilities, in a manner which promotes socially responsible autonomy in a free society, respecting others, individually and collectively, and the environments in which they flourish" (Hart, 2010, pp. 36–37). Multiple sources have championed the primary value of the individual in promoting quality of life for human beings. Adler (1985) argues from philosophical grounds that "happiness of the individual person is the one and only ultimate end in this life" and "a human person is an end to be served, not a means to be used, the organized community in relation to its members is a means, not an end" (p. 141). C. S. Lewis champions the ultimate value of the person in a similar way from spiritual grounds, proclaiming that "There are no ordinary people. You have never talked to a mere mortal. Nations, cultures, arts, civilization – these are mortal, and their life is to ours as the life of a gnat" (1996, p. 197). More recently, the International Institute for Child Rights and Development has proposed the "Each and Every Child" model as an all-encompassing framework for promoting the best interests of the child—each child within all children (IICRD, 2015). Rose (2015) has presented research evidence encouraging respect for the uniqueness and significant potential of each person and revealing that historical practices have tended to treat individual persons as of little inherent value and as variations on the average, thereby corrupting our respect and support for their possibilities.

In this light, it is imperative that our primary commitment to serving the best interests of the child, consistent with the Convention, should not be subverted by appeal to aggregated data on the conditions of children in general. The ideology proposed here is well served through the formulation of an *individual development plan* (IDP) for each child. The IDP is envisioned as a substantial upgrading and encompassing application of the IEP (individualized education plan) (Stanberry, 2016; http://www.ncld.org/students-disabilities/iep-504-plan/what-is-iep), which previously has been formulated and applied to systematically guide interventions serving the development of children with disabilities. The IDP is meant to guide and promote each child's full holistic development across infancy, childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood. It should organize and upgrade goals for development, information about developmental status and potentials, and the wide array of possible interventions and affordances that can facilitate development and make this information dependably and immediately available to those who care about and influence the development of the child, including the child. While previously unrealistic due to logistic limitations, the very real possibilities for such an IDP program now exist through the use of communication technology. IBM has championed this possibility for the future through "cloud computing, big data analysis, and learning technologies all coming together." This is a component of IBM's "5-in-5" "Smarter Planet" projections (IBM, 2016) and is labeled as "the classroom will learn you" (excerpt: "The classroom of the future will learn about each individual student over the course of their education, helping them master the skills that match their goals … technologies, will help us calculate everything we can about how each student learns and thrives, then create flexibility in the system to continually adapt and fine-tune what we deliver to that student"; retrieved on December 30, 2013, at http://www.ibm.com/smarterplanet/us/en/ibm_predictions_for_future/ideas/).

The IDP could be formulated, as noted, to cover all the developmental period (birth to 18, and beyond if desired) and applied in the school community. It would challenge our traditional confidentiality constraints by allowing all and/or subsets of information to be available to individuals and categorical groups with a recognized need to know based on their involvement in the child's life and potential contributions to the child's best interests. Availability would probably best be determined periodically by a core of those at closest proximity within the circle of caring persons (particularly the parents, the child, and others such as the school psychologist or counselor). In respect of the central importance of the uniqueness of the person and the right to self-determination toward the full development of one's authentic self, the child should be involved as early as possible and be supported toward gradually increasing authority over the formulation and application of the IDP. This high priority can be further assured by the employment of the prospective human development model described in the next subsection.

Multiple opportunities exist for school psychologists to contribute to the IDP vision in ways confirming and creating pathways toward the profession's preferred futures. The individual child's existing and potential characteristics and capacities will require broad and deep assessment appreciating their hills and valleys, their jaggedness (Rose, 2015), to guide planning and supportive resource management—well beyond deficit or problem issues. The need for the continuity of relationship with the child and his/her caring community offers the chance to make a case for school psychologists to have a continuing relationship role with the child that is not limited by age, problem, or school of enrollment. The availability and employment of IDPs for all children will offer opportunities for service across the multiple intervention tiers, enabling school psychologists to establish and facilitate systems and conditions of respectful intervention through themselves and partners for all children, as well as for those who have special vulnerabilities and/or potentials, that is, those facing conditions of significant adversity, promise, or prospect. Particularly promising is the opportunity for school psychology to help the school community become accountable primarily for the appropriate development and well-being (e.g., competence, empowerment, satisfaction, flourishment, and ability to thrive) of each child rather than for processing and progress through and out of a school's regimented system of curriculum. This also provides opportunities for the application of high-level research expertise to assist the community in establishing and being accountable to indicators of development and well-being worthy of universal consideration for all children, as well as assuring respectful attention to goals and support that are of importance to the unique individual child (see *Prioritization of Essentials* subsection).

Prospective human development (PHD) a prospective human development (PHD) model offers a promising way to realize the new social contract and is recommended for application by school psychology. Rooted in the prospective medicine movement (Robbins & Hall, 1970; Snyderman & Williams, 2003; Strohecker, 2011), this model is framed to secure and promote a "healthy and full quality of life, respecting human rights, needs and potentials, … pursued in partnership with the child, encouraging the child to progressively assume the lead through eliciting and applying the child's evolving executive powers" (Hart & Glaser, 2011, p. 765). It shares some of the characteristics of the "participatory medicine" model described by Bessel van de Kolk as embodied in "actively and fully engaging in taking charge of our health and well-being by building on our already existing inner resources for learning, growing, and healing" (Kabit-Zinn, 2013, endorsement p. 4). Its application might best be organized in a way that enlists school psychologists, and others as appropriate, in roles such as consulting detectives, coaches, educators, and facilitators across the full developmental period of the child to help the child determine, through the application of his/her psychological affordances, what course of action should be taken to avoid distortion and corruption and to reach his/her goals for his/her full health and well-being. Under such conditions, the school psychologist will serve the best interests of the child and society, short and long term, and become an agent of the child, his/her family, the school, and the larger school community. This model embodies the promise to positively transform the roles, strategies, and practices of school psychology toward proactive and respectful support for the best possibilities for children. For example, the RtI (response to intervention) model's "multi-tier approach to the early identification and support of students with learning and behavior needs" (RTI Action Network, 2016; http://www.rtinetwork.org) for struggling learners would be applied to each and every children in support of their learning possibilities and desires, and the IEP serving children with disabilities would become the IDP for all children as described above. The prospective human development model is feasible and should serve well under conditions of dramatic change forecast for schools through technology-fueled transformations (Naser, Nunn, Alkalay & Dolev, chapter "Promoting Child Rights Through Use of Technology in the Classroom", this volume). Regarding PHD conceptualization: (a) for the child, rights to be heard and to have one's evolving capacities appreciated and employed are particularly salient, and (b) for the school psychologist, opportunities abound to champion and guide continuity in the child's partnerships with adults, as well as in progressive self-study, empowerment, self-stewardship, and full holistic development. (This paragraph is a modified version of material in Hart & Hart, 2014.)

Mastery learning Rose (2015) has recently reviewed the history of research and practices associated with the fabricated notion of the average person and the corrupted manner in which that construct has been applied to misunderstand, narrowly educate, and underdevelop potentials and quality of life. Appreciation of the genuine variations (i.e., "jaggedness") of strengths, weaknesses, and potentials of persons and the similar variations in the affordances of the environmental context (family, neighborhood, school, community) should engender renewed and heightened respect for the work of Benjamin Bloom and his colleagues (Bloom, 1968; Carroll, 1963), as encouraged by Rose (2015). Theoretical conceptualizations and related research evidence accumulated over half a century have established that designing and implementing a path respecting the combination of the characteristics of the person and the environment, employing the learning conditions and time fitting the person, result in the vast majority of individuals reaching mastery or proficiency levels for human development goals (Bloom, 1968, 1974, 1976, 1984; Kulik, Kulik, & Bangert-Drowns, 1990).

This evolving mastery approach argues that the successful achievement of desired development should be the central purpose for the school community, rather than offering limited access to the opportunity for development. The access or opportunities for development models in education, recreation, and work contexts are usually significantly limited in terms of the time allowed/provided and the strategies or pathways available toward progress. Their results are well recognized in school failure and drop-out rates, economic distress, self-destructive and antisocial behavior, and unrealized human potential and quality of life. In contrast, the mastery approach sets clear goals and intermediate steps toward those goals and provides the time and the pathways required for the individual to succeed—modified as necessary until success has been achieved. The processes applied to the individual can be selected from those found to be effective as differential strategies to fit the personalities, learning styles, potentials, and goals of the wide variety of learners. While research on the mastery in learning approach originated by Carroll (1963) and more fully developed by Benjamin Bloom and associates has established its effectiveness, it is rarely fully practiced due to its demanding requirements for individualizing learning. Its possibilities can be realized—if supported by commitments to the development of each and every child, deindustrialization of schooling, and the application of available and emerging technologies.

School-based health and development centers "I don't think we'll be building any new high schools!" This statement by a local superintendent of schools was reported to the authors recently. It is interpreted to mean that the superintendent believed that technological revolution would make obsolete the practice of grouping students in classrooms of school buildings to receive predetermined packaged instruction meant for the average student and expected variations. This suggests that the necessary and best future conditions of schooling will embody highly individualized learning, combined with periodic clustering of cohort groups strategically designed to respect needs, potentials, and opportunities, all facilitated in highly sophisticated ways. General child development characteristics and goals may argue for higher levels of common group experiences for young children (e.g., for socialization purposes and the exploration of music, arts, and athletics) in something like present-day school and classroom environments. But this would logically transition substantially toward individualized and child-specific relevant cohort learning in a wider variety of community and physical sectors.

Under such conditions, what should be the structural framework for the provision of supportive services? Our answer is: a learning community (i.e., school) coordinating center capable of producing and managing programs to promote and secure the holistic well-being and well-becoming of the child through management of the myriad of supportive affordances inherent in the child and the social, physical, and technological ecologies. Arguably, the best model available for transformation to these grand purposes is the school-based health center, better labeled in the future as the *school-based health and development* *center*. In concert with this line of reasoning, the well-baby clinic model used around the world has been recommended for expansion and reconfiguration to cover all aspects of child development, health, and well-being from birth to 18 years of age as a central component of the *Each and Every Child* model (IICRD, 2015). The school-based health and development center could integrate and evolve from well-baby clinic and present school-based health centers models (essential reference material for school-based health centers can be found at the School Based Health Alliance: http://www.sbh4all.org/resources/sbhc-literature-database/). As such, it could gradually become a community structure capable of serving the full infant/child/adolescent period and could coordinate the development of IDPs, as well as applying a PHD orientation and embodying mastery learning principles in the application of resources, such as teachers, coaches, other educational specialists, medical and mental health specialists, relevant community resources, and technology.

The history of school health programs appears friendly to this conceptualizaton of school-based health and development centers, though not fully realized in vision, design, or application. In the United States, for example, school health programs have been in place since 1894 (Stern, Reilly, Cetron, & Markel, 2010) with original emphasis on health screening and contagious disease, early expanding concern for the health care of low-income children and school attendance, and more recent evolution toward service for broader populations and issues. The U.S. Department of Health and Services Administration (2016) has recently identified the following service areas as provided by school-based health centers: primary medical care, mental/behavioral health care, dental/oral health care, health education and promotion, substance abuse counseling, case management, and nutrition education (retrieved 6/14/16 at http://www.hrsa.gov/ourstories/schoolhealthcenters/). The National Assembly on School-Based Health Care indicated that the approximately 2000 centers existing in 2008 have been formulated through partnerships between the school and community health entities and have offered a wide range of services through school-based programs, mobile programs, and school-linked programs (retrieved on June 14, 2016, at http://www.nasbhc.org/atf/cf/%7Bcd9949f2-2761-42fb-bc7a-cee165c701d9%7D/NASBHC%202007-08%20CENSUS%20REPORT%20FINAL.PDF).

We propose that school-based health and development centers should be formulated and piloted, organically as emergent from existing roots and supports in communities, with funding from the schools, community services, and state and federal government (Health Resources and Services Administration, 2016; the Affordable Care Act includes relevant support in the U.S., https://www.healthcare.gov/where-can-i-read-the-affordable-care-act/), to be close partners with primary/elementary schools and transitioning for adolescents into the primary centers for the organization and coordination of education and for health services. *Health* would be defined as the Convention does, by meaning full development and well-being in physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral domains. Through the school-based health and development center, school psychologists would have the opportunity to establish and orchestrate dependable attention to each child's developmental status, needs, and potentials; oversee individual child and child population data keeping and accountability; facilitate child participation and the child's evolving management of learning and development; and help establish, assure, and contribute to multitiered resources (e.g., help secondary teachers shift toward learning partners, coaches, and facilitators of project and cohort work for students). To balance interests and contributions toward assuring a child-centered approach, school-based health and development centers are probably best managed by community and education/school representatives, including professionals, parents, and children in advisory board membership.

Prioritization of essentials Most of us appreciate the importance of a good night's sleep. The neuroscience knowledge base asserts, "In humans, lack of sleep leads to impaired memory and reduced cognitive abilities, and, if the deprivation persists, mood swings and even hallucinations" (Augustine & Fitzpatrick, 2001; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK11108/; retrieved on September 16, 2017). It has been well established that adolescent sleep patterns, influenced strongly by biodevelopmental factors, include late initiation at night, and late awakening in morning to achieve the needed extensive sleep period of approximately 10 hours. Carskadon (2011) presents an overview of related scientific knowledge that informs us that for adolescents, "The list of negative outcomes associated with insufficient sleep is lengthy and ranges from sleepiness and mood disturbances …, inattention, poor grades, behavior problems, substance use, driving crashes, overweight, and immune system compromise" (p. 645). Troxel (2017), in a recent *TED Talk*, joins Carskadon (2011) to argue that school should start late in the morning for adolescents, allowing opportunities for sufficient quantity and quality of sleep. In too many school communities, this is not the case, and instead, adolescents have been forced to follow schedules that best serve the interests of adults and the industrial model of schooling. Here, we have a clear and strong rationale for individual and collective advocacy in the best interests of children by health professionals, including school psychologists, an advocacy that has not occurred in any well-focused and widespread manner. A major impediment to advocacy of this sort is that child health professionals have not adequately identified or championed essentials of child well-being (used here to include well-becoming).

The models recommended in earlier subsections of this chapter will all have increased power, efficacy, and efficiency if they are implemented from a shared base of understanding and commitment to first-order priorities—essentials for well-being. Education's historical concentration on academics and practical skills does not suffice. Helpful contributions have been made toward clarifying essentials for child development, health, and well-being. Among these are the Search-Institute's *Developmental Assets* program (http://www.search-institute.org/research/developmental-assets) and the related *Student Support Card* programs (e.g., Just Community Inc. (2017), retrieved on September 16, 2017, http://www.justcommunity.com/ubhchy-coalition/40-developmental-assets/, and Brightways Learning (2017), https://www.brightwayslearning.org/kaleidoscope-connect/, retrieved on September 16, 2017) and the American Academy of Pediatrics' health equity framing of *human capital investment* (i.e., social capital, economic capital, environmental capital, educational capital, and personal capital; American Academy of Pediatrics, 2010). These sources deserve consideration in efforts to help the child health and development professions and interested communities identify and promote the essentials of child well-being, but they do not provide the shared overarching framework or operationalized components needed to sufficiently galvanize and empower their potential champions.

For heuristic purposes, we suggest that there are conceptual frameworks available to organize the selection of the essentials and that there are some good candidates for early inclusion in its set. As for a facilitating framework, the Convention on the Rights of the Child provides the necessary overarching principles and standards for guidance toward respectful pursuit of major goals for child development, as included in its *Aims of Education* (Art. 29) (i.e., full development of potentials; respect for all persons, cultures, and the environment; and preparation for responsible citizenship in a free society) and in its domains of development and well-being (i.e., physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral; Arts. 17, 27, 32). The human needs configuration of Maslow (1970), central to our evolving understanding of life satisfaction and resiliency (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sheldon, Elliot, Kim, & Kasser, 2001), can help to further illuminate the Convention's values and nature. Below, to whet the appetite and encourage more rigorous and full formulation of essentials, a set of contenders for essentials status framed as conditions of the child is suggested. Some of the supports for inclusions that are most relevant for school community accountability are identified. Additionally, the Convention's well-being domains of particular relevance are identified parenthetically:

- *Physical health, including fitness* (physical and mental domains): this essential requires adequate support for physical and mental development and activity (UNICEF, n.d.; retrieved on September 16, 2017, at https://www.unicef.org/dprk/ecd.pdf). Necessary provisions would include, but not be limited to, nutritional meals through the school, community services, and/or support for parents/families; assurance of adequate sleep for health, development, and effectiveness (see Carskadon, 2011) through cooperation among health professionals, parents, and the school community to agree on the necessary supportive conditions and make provision for them (e.g., secondary school hours that begin no earlier than at 9:30 am); and regular and frequent physical activity through school-community-required physical education, as well as fitness and sports opportunities (Robert Wood Foundation, 2009, http://activelivingresearch.org/sites/default/files/ALR_Brief_ActiveEducation_Summer2009.pdfsee; https://folio.iupui.edu/bitstream/handle/10244/587/Active_Ed.pdf?sequence=2; https://www.aspenprojectplay.org/the-facts; all retrieved on September 16, 2017)
- *Emotional self-regulation* (mental, social, and moral domains): advances toward this condition require parent education to create supportive home and school community conditions, including modeling and guidance by parents, and programming in schools for social-emotional competency and health (see Goleman, 1995, 2006; Koole, 2009; Zeman, Cassano, Perry-Parrish, & Stegall, 2006).
- *Social competency and health* (social and mental domains): this essential will be fostered through assuring social support, as well as the benefits of the affordances of social relationships (Goleman, 2006). Similar to *emotional self-regulation*, its achievement requires parent and teacher education to create supportive home and school conditions, including modeling and guidance by parents and programming in schools for social-emotional competency and health and assurance of continuity of relationships with caring, dependable adults for which guidance is available (Kaleidoscope's *Rule of 5* at www.brightwayslearning.org/kaleidoscope-connect/; the *Danish Class Teacher* model, Denmark Ministry of Education, 1985, 2017, and Jensen, Nielsen, & Stenstrup, 1992; and http://eng.uvm.dk/primary-and-lower-secondary-education/the-folkeskole/classes-and-class-teacher retrieved on September 16, 2017). For school psychology contributions specific to assessment in this area, see Furlong, You, Renshaw, and O'Malley (2014); more broadly, for child well-being, see Kim, Furlong, Ng, and Huebner (chapter "Child Well Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments", this volume). (*Note: programming for the preceding and following essentials items share many components providing opportunities for the benefits of synergy and parsimony, and thereby justifying some repetition.*)
- *Empathy* (mental, social, spiritual, and moral domains): empathy is advanced through promotion for living the golden rule, including its expressions in human rights and its power in strengthening caring relationships and in reducing violence (Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume; Pinker, 2002; Power, Pape, & Hart, chapter "Preparing Children for Responsible Citizenship: The Role of Psychology and Education", this volume). As with the last two essentials, this requires parent education to create supportive home conditions (see Alexander & Sandahl, 2016), including modeling and guidance by parents and other adult caregivers, as well as programming in the school for social-emotional competency and health. For an overview, see Perry and Szalavitz (2011); for school programs, see Gordon's (2009) *Roots of Empathy* intervention; and for empathy training, see Berkhout and Malouff (2016).

(*Note: The last 3 essentials, which require some of the same supports, could be combined under the umbrella of "Social Competency and Health" if adequately delineated.*)

- *Critical thinking* (mental, moral and spiritual domains): this essential is promoted through support to enable seeking, weighing, and applying the balance of and discernment among diverse and conflicting views toward the best interests of involved persons (see the *civil discourse* academic debate model in Power, Pape, & Hart, chapter "Preparing Children for Responsible Citizenship: The Role of Psychology and Education", this volume, and the *golden rule* coverage in Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume; the *original position* in Rawls, 1971/1999; and the philosophy for children movement, as exemplified by the Montclair University's Institute for the Advancement of Philosophy for Children retrieved on September 2017 at http://www.montclair.edu/cehs/academics/centers-and-institutes/iapc/).
- *Holistic development of full potentials/talents* (physical, mental, social, moral, and spiritual domains): support for self-actualization in accord with Convention Article 29 is the goal. It would be greatly facilitated by periodic assessments, tracking and promoting of the breadth of potentials of each child, application of the *IDP* and *PHD* models described herein, and management/facilitation through the school-based health center as recommended in this chapter.
- *Spiritual development* (spiritual, moral, and mental domains): Article 14 of the Convention gives specific attention to respect for the child's evolving beliefs. Bryant, Garbarino, Hart, and McDowell (chapter "The Child's Right to a Spiritual Life", this volume) make a strong case for the child's right to a spiritual life and provide guidance for schools and communities toward respecting and promoting spiritual development. Maslow (1994) provides related insights in regard to religion and values. Haidt (2013) has illuminated the strong positive relationship between spiritual and religious involvement and trustworthy—ethical behavior, the topic of the next section.
- *Character development—in moral/ethical and performance domains*: *moral character* consists of the qualities relevant to striving for ethical behavior in one's relationships with other individuals and communities. Examples of moral character strengths include empathy and integrity (Seider, Gilbert, Novick, & Gomez, 2013a; Seider, Novick, & Gomez, 2013b). For the *moral/ethical domain*, Shadyac (2014) has challenged us to deal with the chilling disparity between humankind's accelerating ability to influence the human and physical environment for good or evil and its comparatively flatlined low level of ethical behavior. In this regard, development of moral/ethical thinking and behavior is deemed of highest level of importance in dealing with the ascending line of technological advances and their applications, highlighted for child development by Twenge (2017) and given particular focus in regard to the threats of artificial intelligence by Yudkowsy (2008) and Shermer (2017). Direction toward promoting advances in ethical thinking and development/behavior in school communities exists in components of character education through application of Kohlberg's moral dilemmas and the Just Community School based on his theory (Power, Pape & Hart, chapter "Preparing Children for Responsible Citizenship: The Role of Psychology and Education", this volume) and in the international program of interfaith ethics education *Learning to Live Together* (Arigatou International, 2016; retrieved on September 16, 2017 at https://ethicseducationforchilidren.org/en/what-we-do/learning-to-live-together). Hart and Shriberg (2014) and Shriberg, Brooks, and de Oca (chapter "Child Rights, Social Justice, & Professional Ethics", this volume) clarify the nature of social justice as related to child rights, necessitating moral/ethical character, and provide direction for school community conditions supportive of its development and application. *Performance character* consists of the qualities that allow individuals to regulate

their thoughts and actions in ways that support achievement in a particular endeavor. Examples of performance character include persistence, self-discipline, and grit. For the performance domain, research on the advantages for school and life success of self-regulation embodied particularly in child characteristics of grit, conscientiousness, optimism, and curiosity has been detailed by Tough (2013). Duckworth (2017) further details the power of grit and passion and the genuine possibilities for their development. These characteristics and their benefits have been established as achievable even under adverse socio-economic conditions through educational programs.

- *Progressive realization of authentic self* (physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral domains): this essential, often given superordinate status, has been prescribed by sages throughout history (Hart, 2010). For background and guidance, see particularly Kierkegaard (1989) for central issues, Fromm (1942) for a realization of authenticity in harmony with cultural context, and Little (2017) for a consideration of biogenic authenticity, sociogenic authenticity, and idiographic authenticity. Realization of authentic self can be promoted in the home and school community through the provision of opportunities to identify, explore, and foster the development of personal talents, potentials, and perspectives, in partnerships with caring adults providing guidance that moves gradually, according to evolving capacities, toward self-stewardship by the child.

School psychologists can facilitate cooperation among the broader range of child health professions and the communities they serve to establish goals and supportive conceptualizations for education toward the assurance of priority for essentials. In so doing, they will have the opportunity to provide expert leadership toward establishing and strengthening the village of caring, support for reliable continuity of service to the child, and the commitment to accountability necessary to realize these grand intentions.

A Psychologist Capable of Fulfilling the New Social Contract

Dramatic changes in schooling and school psychology are expected and encouraged (see other chapters in this Handbook). In this regard, the transformation of school psychology necessary to realize the potential of a new social contract raises multiple issues of scope of practice, knowledge, and roles, as well as preparation of and the title for school psychology.

Scope of Practice

The full holistic health, development, and well-being of children in the school community requires the availability and application of a breadth of harmonized and coordinated psychological support across all sectors and levels of service, including multiple tiers of intervention. This means that school psychologists must be capable of direct service to the child and members of his/her immediate village of caring (e.g., caregivers, educators, and policy makers), as well as indirect service in behalf of these parties and all their counterparts through influencing systems of child rearing, education, health, sport/recreation, juvenile justice, faith, and other child-influencing community services.

Knowledge and Roles

Long before the emergence of the notion of a new social contract, as proposed here, school psychologists have been expected to have the knowledge and skills to carry out a wide range of roles, well beyond those expected of any other specialty in psychology. Peterson (1981) lamented this reality when citing the following expectations for capacities and roles: knowledge of the basic psychology of individual behavior, group process, organizations, public policies and political processes, and all about education; assessment and modification of individual behavior, management of classrooms and small groups, and evaluation and improvement of social systems (modified from p. 307). In 1978, the Executive Committee of the National Association of School Psychologists in the United States (NASP) "unanimously endorsed 11 major role dimensions as appropriate for school psychologists" of an even greater breadth (Hart, 1982, pp. 1–2).

The knowledge and roles identified and prescribed for the profession historically, while broad, fall short of the new social contract's following capacity requirements:

- Assessment to determine potentials and talents in all major areas of human capacity and expression—going well beyond status, deficit, and potential determination in limited areas
- Designing, coordinating, and facilitating *Individual Development Plans* infused with a *Mastery Approach* and supported by the child's village of caring
- Provision of a continuity of service and relationship across developmental periods consistent with the *Prospective Human Development Model*
- Working within, possibly leading, a S*chool Based Health and Development Center* to bring the affordances of the child and the child's community of learning and living to bear in advances for the child
- Consultation within and across all major community sectors to serve children, their caregivers, and supporters
- Designing and implementing accountability programs for monitoring and measuring status and progress toward child well-being (Ben-Arieh, 2016; Ben-Arieh, Casas, Frones, & Korbin, 2015)
- The application of child rights principles and standards to all aspects of professional service and the school community

When Peterson (1981) produced the historic list of knowledge and role expectations for the profession, he paused to remark, "But how reasonable is it to expect all that from one merely human being? University trainers need to work out better ways to evaluate and redesign their own educational services" (pp. 307–308). With even more expected of school psychology, the preparation (i.e., education and training) of school psychologists and the organization of their services must be addressed.

Preparation and Organization of School Psychology for the New Social Contract

The enormity of the responsibilities and opportunities of the proposed new social contract can be daunting. Arguably, a school psychologist, "merely human" in Peterson's (1981) words, cannot be expected to be fully capable of meeting such demands. Does this mean that the new social contract should be jettisoned or that it is only viable if we require a length and breadth of training unreasonable and unlikely to be achieved? Our answer is NO!

There are many solutions. Some might suggest that the social contract is best pursued through a system approach that coordinates teams of school psychologists whose individual members, by design, embody a desired composite of varying levels of competency in the myriad of required areas. Others might propose a design for multiple profession and community resource synergy that relieves school psychology of the need for breadth and depth of capacity and a central role. In the long run, this must be determined by the profession in cooperation with its university trainers. Toward resolution, we encourage in-depth debate among these parties, supported by suitable inquiry of and collaboration with those to be served.

To contribute to associated deliberations, we could be presumptuous here and take the risk of suggesting a configuration of preparation to develop a base of capacities that in themselves, or augmented form, could support the fulfillment of the proposed social contract. This pattern of capacities should make it possible for school psychology to take a central position in school community actions, programs, and systems to advance child well-being and optimize opportunities to provide and/or manage and facilitate the provision of the desired service supports. In this regard, we recommend that anyone considered to be a school psychologist in the future will be deeply prepared in the following foundational areas:

- *Child development* holistically conceived across birth to young adult stages (i.e., 0–25 years)
- *Learning and education* in all aspects of relevance to establishing and advancing holistic health, development, and well-being of the child
- *Human and child rights* as embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child and their further elaborations and refinements internationally, nationally, and locally
- *Assessment and evaluation* theory, techniques, and tools applicable for multiple-tier employment to investigate characteristics and affordances of (a) the child (e.g., needs, achievements/capacities, talents, potentials, challenges, motivation, self, and world view) and (b) the child's environment (e.g., the Search-Institute's external assets, Search Institute, 2017; retrieved on September 16, 2017, at http://www.search-institute.org/research/developmental-assets; Student Support Card, Brightways Learning, 2017, https://www.brightwayslearning.org/kaleidoscope-connect/; and their related programs, http://www.ubhchy.org/student-support-card/support.) relevant to the child's present and future well-being.
- *Intervention* strategies and systems of promotion, prevention, and correction with potential to serve child well-being (e.g., individual development plans, mastery learning approaches, multisystemic treatment, family group conferencing, evidence-based practices).
- *Interpersonal/social competence*, including the disposition and behaviors that promote collaborative and respectful relationships, and the capacity to understand and appreciate diverse perspectives and work cooperatively with individuals and groups toward desired advances (APA, 2016; Brassard, 2016)
- *Counseling and consultation* applicable to all levels of human systems
- *Professional and personal ethics* to inform, guide, and insure integrity in all aspects of service to children, families, and communities
- *Accountability* design, assessment, and reporting applicable to professional practice and to components and systems of child services

But this is not enough! It is essential for school psychology to employ a central mission. It will be appreciated that the training standards promoted and expected by relevant professional bodies appear to be compatible with the proposed domains and offer opportunities for upgrading and reconciliation to achieve these foundational capacities (i.e., APA, 2015; ISPA, 2017, http://www.ispaweb.org/about-ispa/accreditation-of-professional-training-programs/; NASP, 2010b). However, preparation in the set of domains described above, or any other such components, will not suffice, unless they are all brought into an articulated and synergetic relationship to serve a central mission to promote, secure, and protect the well-being of the child, as earlier conceptualized in this chapter and by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Otherwise, they are fragments of knowledge, skill, and good intentions available for application to all manner of good purposes, but without a coherent superordinate goal and context of meaning to optimize their benefits.

The need for an all-encompassing mission has not gone unappreciated. APA, in its Standards for Accreditation of Health Service Psychology, defines "health service psychology" as "the integration of psychological science and practice in **order to facilitate human development and functioning**" (emphasis added; APA, 2015, p. 3). NASP, in its Standards for the Graduate Preparation of School Psychologists (2010b), makes the following relevant declaration: "The mission of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) is to represent school psychology and support **school psychologists to enhance the learning and mental health of all children and youth** (emphasis added; p. 1). ISPA includes the following two highly relevant commitments in its mission statement:

- **Promote the improvement of children's and young people's well-being**, as well as their cognitive, emotional, physical, social, and spiritual development in schools and communities across the world
- **Promote and protect the rights of all children and young people** according to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and related UN statements (emphasis added; ISPA, 2016c; retrieved on November 1, 2016, at ispaweb.org)

This is all to the good and accordant with the proposed new social contract. The present status of such declarations, however, falls short of what will assure concerted progress toward the aims of education of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Convention's promotion of physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral health, development, and well-being, all of which would greatly contribute toward Seligman's "good life" or Adler's "happiness" (see first paragraph of chapter). The APA and NASP mission statements are presently too limited and ambiguous to assure operationalization in full support of child well-being. The ISPA mission statement inclusions are capable of the operationalized form desired but do not have the superordinate, cross-cutting, and pervading quality or presence needed because they are simply two among nine mission imperatives, not the first two and not drawn out to achieve an overarching status.

The door is open, however, for establishing child well-being, served by children's rights, as the highest priority, against which all others are tested, by virtue of the commitments that these organizations have made to children's rights (inherent in the ISPA mission statement and its history; established in NASP position statements, NASP, 2012). In synchrony with professional association declarations and commitments to advance child rights and child well-being, school psychology research and professional development programs have been giving increasingly meaningful attention to these topics. The ISPA's *Cross-National Children's Rights Research Project* (School Psychology International, 2001) implemented across approximately 10 years, during the 1980s and 1990s, investigated the value and support given to children's rights in 23 countries and helped identify opportunities for their advancement. ISPA's 2014 Colloquium in Kaunas, Lithuania, was fully devoted to related topics, as its theme indicates: "Children's Rights and Needs: Challenges to School, Family, and Society." The 2018 NASP Conference in Chicago included a strong selection of symposia, presentations, and posters on rights and well-being topics; approximately, 85 offerings were devoted to related themes (here in order of quantity), such as social-emotional factors, mental health, diversity, mindfulness, social justice, positive behavior support, resilience (all at eight presentations or more); positive psychology, emotional regulation, health promotion, social competency (all at four or more presentation level); self-compassion, religion, creativity, and self-compassion (all at one presentation each). Poster sessions were represented for most of these themes, often at the highest frequency, suggesting particularly promising interest on the part of those who are just coming into the field. Within this context of attention to topics relevant to well-being, it must be recognized that the term *well-being* was not sufficiently addressed in the conference, or recognized by those with program oversight, to result in its inclusion as an organizing category to be added to the program's 182 categories in its topic index. However, some recent developments seem particularly to forecast ascending importance for rights and child well-being in school psychology. At that 2018 NASP conference, a highly relevant review of literature was presented that underlined the need to go beyond a deficit orientation in serving children, arguable from a primary finding that the combination of high subjective well-being and minimal psychological problems predicted the best academic, social, and physical health outcomes for students (Suldo, Storey, Hanks, & Wingate, 2018; Suldo, Thalji-Raitano, Kiefer, & Ferron, 2016). The *covitality* model for framing and assessing social emotional health (or well-being), under increasingly widespread use and developed by school psychologists (Furlong et al., 2014; Kim et al., chapter "Child Well Being and Children's Rights:

Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments", this volume; Renshaw et al., 2014), provides very promising and practical instrumentation. From a base of school psychology expertise (Suldo, 2016), a manualized positive psychology program to promote child well-being has become available. And of central importance, future advances are promised by virtue of the existence and expected influences of child rights training for school psychologists, which has been encouraged by school psychology organizations, (e.g., APA's Division 16, NASP, ISPA) and is represented well in the evolving curriculum produced by the Tulane University School Psychology program and Child Rights Education for Professionals (Nastasi & Naser, chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates", this volume).

A Final Thought: A Proper Title for the Profession

Truth in advertising is a value strongly associated with ethics and integrity. We are arguing that the field should become a primary authority and resource on child well-being and that it should prepare for, live, and promote that identity. When children, parents, physicians, school staff, and others are concerned about the present and future functioning, the being and becoming of a young person, the first services that they should think of commissioning are those of a school psychologist. School psychologists need to advocate for this recognition and campaign for their utility in the field of child health, development, and well-being. School psychologists have been and are likely to continue to be closely associated with education, which needs to more intentionally and effectively promote full holistic development, well beyond narrowly framed academics. We, following others (Naser et al., chapter "Promoting Child Rights Through Use of Technology in the Classroom", this volume), have predicted that education will be transformed significantly through advances in technology to extend well beyond the confines of the classrooms of school buildings and traditional systems of instruction. The school-based (or community-based) health and development center has been recommended as the most promising home for school psychology, which must develop and apply strong partnerships in school districts, hospitals, mental health agencies, and community organizations in the service of children. This will provide the opportunity for school psychologists to improve their effectiveness and reputations in promoting, securing, and protecting child well-being.

While the history of the profession described herein refers to a wide range of psychology specialties combined for expression through school psychology, an evolving central purpose of advancing the health, development, and well-being of the child holistically across all sectors and periods of the child's life seems to argue that the titles *Applied Child Psychologist* or *Child Health Psychologist* would be a good fit. Variations of such titles have already found favor in some professional circles (APA, 2016; Jimerson et al., 2007; Wahass, 2005). Admittedly, any change in title will be met with resistance of a variety of forms, and each of the alternative titles suggested here has its own challenges. In this regard, for *Applied Child Psychologist*, the word *applied* must be understood to include research components, and the word *child* must mean persons falling within at least the birth to age 18 range in accord with the Convention. *Child Health Psychologist* requires the same definition of *child* and presents the additional necessity that the word *health* must be understood to represent the WHO and Convention meanings of well-being across all major domains. With these issues raised, the field is encouraged to consider a change in title that will better represent the intentions and nature of this evolving profession.

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Promoting Child Rights Through Use of Technology in the Classroom

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Abstract

While there is a myriad of ways to use technological advances in the school setting, this chapter focuses particularly on educational technology in contrast and supplemental to a traditional or more typical school setting. The chapter starts by describing articles of the UN (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child (Convention) that are of importance in understanding the use of technology in schools, followed by a description of technological trends in learning. The chapter delves into three important applications of technology in advancing child rights in education, including how technology can support student access to learning (Article 28), how technology can support education that advances the development of each child's full potential (Article 29), and finally a section on practical applications for school psychologists to facilitate technology use in line with the Convention, including protecting each child's freedom of expression (Article 13), thought (Article 14), and association (Article 15). This chapter relies on case studies and practical examples from the authors' own experiences to illustrate the concepts being described.

A 13-year-old boy in Dublin, Ireland places a helmet over his head, his eyes covered by opaque glasses. Once the helmet is fitted, he looks around and finds that the pale blue walls of his classroom have turned into a vast expanse of sand. On the horizon he sees the great pyramids his teacher had spoken of just this morning. He begins to explore his new landscape in Ancient Egypt. He dons the outfit of an archaeologist, preparing to enter a pharaoh's tomb. His mission is to survey the contents of the tomb, and to bring a catalogue of these contents back to his teammates for analysis.

While this scene reads as if it were pulled from a science-fiction novel, virtual reality games as tools in the classroom are much closer than we think. In fact, Google Expeditions, a brainchild of Google, has created a virtual reality experience for the classroom out of smartphone software (applications for Android and Apple phones) and cardboard. The applications for these programs are endless: a trip to the Great Wall of China, watching an ecosystem unfold, or seeing

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and manipulating a demonstration of the Pythagorean theorem. Twenty years ago, the idea of putting on a headset that could transport you visually to a different landscape resided solely in movies and books but has now become a viable way for medical students to practice surgery or for a fifth grader to explore a pharaoh's tomb. Technology is growing exponentially in ways that promise a near and continuing future of amazing learning. The application of these new technologies in education is endless. In fact, over time there has consistently been the belief across educational associations that technology has the potential to transform education by increasing access to learning for all students and enhancing the experiential, student-driven nature of learning, both ideals in line with provisions for education expressed in the U.N. Convention on the Rights of the Child (Madden et al. 2013). However, on its own technology is simply a tool. Ultimately, technology is a tool that educators can use to realize the greatest ideals of education.

Technology's inevitable advance and integration in the classroom requires all school faculty to be aware of technology's many applications and trends. Broadly, technology refers to the application of tools and the scientific method to solve practical problems. The colloquial reference to technology today primarily centers on the application of computerized machines and computer software to develop solutions to problems or enhance the functioning of current practices. While technology has many positive applications, its applications may also be insidious. For example, increasing youth access to Internet spaces without adult supervision, such as social media websites, has created a new avenue for bullying. The youth perceive online or cyberbullying as worse than traditional bullying (Sticca & Perren, 2013). Cyberbullying also has been implicated in many bullying-related deaths in recent years and has unique implications for female and LGBTQ+ identifying students (Bauman, Toomey, & Walker, 2013; Wiederhold, 2014). Cyberbullying allows for relative anonymity on the part of the aggressor and therefore is a platform for relational bullying seen among female identifying students. School psychologists are in a unique position to optimize the use of technological opportunities in support of the full holistic (physical, mental, social, spiritual, and moral) development of children and youth. While school psychologists wear many hats, their roles in designing school systems, school leadership teams, special education consultation, family advocacy, and evaluation coordination place them at a vantage point allowing them to facilitate seamless integration of technology to enhance educational practices.

Although there is a myriad of ways to use technological advances in the school setting, this chapter focuses particularly on educational technology in contrast and supplemental to the traditional or more typical school setting. The more traditional or typical school setting is conceptualized in this chapter as a classroom setting, typically with 25–30 children and a single teacher, who then imparts content knowledge on youth through reading materials, presentations, and classroom activities. This chapter starts by describing articles of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Convention) that are of importance in understanding the use of technology in schools, followed by a description of technological trends in learning. The chapter delves into three important applications of technology of advancing child rights in education: (a) how technology can support student access to learning (Art. 28), (b) how technology can support education that advances development of each child's full potential (Art. 29), and (c) practical applications for school psychologists to facilitate technology use in line with the Convention, including protecting each child's freedom of expression (Art. 13), thought (Art. 14), and association (Art. 15). This chapter relies on case studies and practical examples from the authors' own experiences to illustrate the concepts being described in each section.

The U.N. Convention on the Rights of the Child in a Technological World

The Convention is an aspirational document that provides guidelines to all about the essential rights of children (defined as individuals under 18 years of age). (The Convention, including its contents and history, is detailed in Hart & Hart, chapter "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning", this volume, and Lee & Krappman, chapter "Status of Child Rights in the International Community", this volume.[1]) Though the writing of the Convention precedes the explosion of personal digital tools, each article provides guidance on how to promote and protect children's rights in all contexts. Sonia Livingstone, a child rights academic and a partner of the UNICEF project Global Kids Online, created an edited version of the Convention to highlight how the Convention can be interpreted in the digital era (*An Updated UNCRC for the Digital Age*, 2018). For example, Livingstone edited Article 8 to read the following (italicized text added by author to indicate Livingstone's edits): "governments must protect the child's right to a name and nationality and a family live: *Every child's digital identity should be protected from being hacked.*" Yet another example is Article 11, rewritten to read the following (italicized text added by author to indicate Livingstone's edits): "*Trafficking is organized online and offline. Governments should prevent both* to stop children being taken illegally to another country." Livingstone's project serves not to replace or even officially alter the Convention but to indicate ways in which the document might contribute to understanding the promotion and protection of child rights in a digital era.

The Convention also provides explicit guidelines for education, including Article 28 (children have the right to an education) and Article 29 (education should develop each child's full potential). However, the intersection of how technology might impact the realization of child rights in the educational setting is left to interpretation. Livingstone's project and the Global Kids Online project focus on digital access and protection from harm, including interpretations of Articles 28 and 29. The purpose of this chapter is to outline ways in which digital tools can help educators realize important child rights related to education as integrated into the process of learning.

Technology Trends in Learning

As technology expands, so does its role in learning. In fact, current conceptualizations of the role of digital hardware (such as computers or cellphones) in human culture describe them as an inseparable part of the human experience. Anthropologist Amber Case argues that the symbiotic relationship between humans and computers is so codependent that we have become cyborgs (Case, 2010). Though cyborgs are traditionally imagined as humans with some organic parts replaced by computer parts, Case argues that our dependence on computers, as an extension of the mental self, fulfills the requirements for defining us as cyborgs. This is further exemplified by the fact that children are using computers at younger and younger ages. Very young children, some 2½ and 3 years of age, are accessing the Internet through a tablet or computer and making choices about games they play, choices that expand progressively and dramatically later in life. This means that many children beginning school arrive already knowing how to operate tablets, phones, and computers. They are also arriving with a set of preconceptions about technology, the purpose of technology, and unique understandings of the application of technology.

In our always changing digital world, the idea of students learning in the traditionally highly structured monolithic setting is regularly challenged as this learning experience does not mirror student's at-home lives. Increasingly, students turn to Internet and digital products to engage in creative projects, including social media platforms like YouTube. Currently, 60% of people worldwide have access to the Internet, up from 1% in 1995 (Child Trends, 2018; Internet World

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[1] A complete copy of the Convention articles and optional protocols is available in the Appendix of this volume.

Stats, n.d.). The Internet Live Statistics Project reports that in any 1 second, there are over three billion people using the Internet. Looking specifically at the youth, in Western countries 95% of teens are online during part of their day (Madden, Lenhart, Duggan, Cortesi, & Gasser, 2013). This percentage has been consistent since 2006; however, the ways that youth access technology is changing radically. In 2006, it was more typical that an adolescent was tied to a computer for access to the Internet; however many youth can now access the Internet through mobile devices. Although there is increased use of technology for youth worldwide, the costs exceed that of paper and pencil communication tools. As such, the rate of use is positively correlated with income, and children of families with lower household income access the Internet less often than more affluent families (Child Trends DataBank, 2018). A 2013 survey by the Pew Research Center found that countries with higher gross domestic product per capita have higher rates of smartphone ownership and Internet use (Pew Research Center, 2015).

With this increased access and use of the Internet, children are constantly being bombarded with information of varying types, quality, and veracity. The Convention notes that each child has a right to access information from the media, specifically to "access reliable information from a variety of sources" (Art. 13), and emphasizes that the government should encourage media corporations to create material that is developmentally appropriate for children. The Internet plays a large socio-economic role, both acting as a social connection platform, a source of seemingly endless information on a practically endless number of topics, and serving as an online economic tool (Anderson & Whalley, 2015). Internet protection groups have since become the bastions of free speech across the world, pushing for free Internet access in every country and net neutrality or the absence of political or private interests filtering access to online content (Battle for the Net, 2015). These topics have been brought out amid debates concerning government regulation of Internet costs globally and Internet censorship in countries under communist party rule, including North Korea, Vietnam, China, and Cuba (Vanderhill, 2015). Therefore, restrictions on reliable consistent access to the Internet and censorship of content act as barriers to the realization of children's rights to media from varied sources.

Although the Internet is a great tool, it is a tool nonetheless, and access alone is not enough to promote education (Vanderhill, 2015). Increased efforts to provide free Internet access in libraries in the U.S., for example, have been met with mixed results, highlighting the importance for library staff who can assess the needs of their community when it comes to Internet access and provide training and expertise in understanding the use of computers and the Internet (Bertot, McClure, & Jaeger, 2008). Schools, like libraries, function as community centers and are often the only place where students can access the Internet. Furthermore, schools are increasingly reliant on technological services to promote student education. In some cases, online schools have completely replaced the traditional school building and are touted as a cost-effective way to reach unique student populations (Waters, Barbour, & Menchaca, 2014). Therefore, educators and school psychologists may act as cultural liaisons in understanding how technology can be appropriately and effectively incorporated into their schools.

The remainder of this chapter highlights three ways that the authors have integrated technology into the promotion and protection of child rights in the school setting. The following sections address the use of technology to increase access to education (Art. 28) and the use of technology to promote individualized learning aimed at developing the full potential of each child (Art. 29). The chapter concludes with a review of practical applications for school psychologists in using technology to promote and protect child rights. Other articles of the Convention are used to expand section ideas as all articles are interdependent.

Increased Access to Formal and Informal Education Opportunities

In recognition of the importance of technology to education, newer technologies breech economic barriers by providing low-cost high-quality electronic products to educational entities that are able to access the Internet. The programs are specifically aimed at providing these products to students from low-income communities around the world. For example, One Laptop Per Child (OLPC) is a nonprofit organization with the goal to “empower the world’s poorest children through education,” and the mechanism for this is distribution of over two million laptops around the world. While this project initially gained much recognition for innovation, it did not do as well as projected, placing only two million of its initially projected ten million computers in countries with lower gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (Yujuico & Gelb, 2011). Education and marketing experts argue that OLPC’s main failure was in ignoring cultural differences across countries in their marketing of computers (Yujuico & Gelb, 2011).

As noted earlier in the chapter, children and adolescents now have virtually unlimited access to a variety of resources on an almost limitless number of topics. The world, and the virtual world, can become a classroom full of virtual tours of museums or ability to play musical notes of instruments from other countries. In this way the child becomes his/her own teacher, managing one’s own development. The job of adults around the child is to then make space and provide support for unique holistic development. However, some would argue that facilitation of technology use in classrooms is nothing more than the same style of education introduced in a different medium. In his book *Beyond Technology*, Buckingham (2013) argues that much of the way we talk about technology today is truly just a consideration of media. For example, while video viewing through YouTube happens via a new medium (the Internet), it is not in and of itself a new technology. However, technology is the computer and the Internet, which allows greater access to these mediums. In this way technology has become a tool to help increase access to informal learning for the youth. However, it is the responsibility of adults around a child to help guide him or her in understanding and using this space.

Students now access the Internet and utilize technology more and more fluidly in a very informal way. Students are able to talk to each other more and access different media more readily. Despite this, schools have yet to fully realize the potential of technology tools (Buckingham, 2007). While schools are often equipped with digital technologies, the incorporation of technology into the curriculum is done with little attention to the way the youth have grown to naturally use computers. For example, students increasingly use online platforms to house projects and to connect globally with others. The use of the Internet in this way is paramount as a twenty-first-century job skill; however, it is unclear if schools are integrating technology in a way that facilitates these skills. For schools to help develop the whole child, anticipating, mirroring, and expanding these experiences in the classroom are key. A case study for understanding the benefits of an online learning curriculum can be found in a collaboration project posed to a group of students in Finland. The larger project required the collaboration of over 200 students in the development of a musical in an eight-month period. Authors followed a group of 21 fifth and sixth grade students as they collaborated on writing the musical. They found that in a three-month period of writing, students utilized an online writing tool to effectively collaborate on writing not only during school but also outside of school. The authors concluded that traditional school models constrict the space and time available for students to work and that online learning tools allow students to take control of their learning practices and allow for personalization and creativity (Kumpulainen & Rajala, 2017).

Why is it that many schools are using technology more as traditional access versus applying its full range of capabilities? It is possible that teachers are afraid of how these changes might affect their roles in schools. If students can take full control of their learning, then maybe there will no longer be a space for their authority and guidance. It is also possible that technology progresses so quickly that it results in teachers and students using digital technology in very different ways and that teachers are not sure how to best integrate technology to reach their students. The fact remains, however, that the way students spend their free time and the way they communicate with each other and the world are vastly different at home versus school.

Historians have documented that throughout time, new technologies have been met with much opposition. Take for example the invention of the telephone. For years, social commentary noted that the advent of the telephone would ruin intimate relationships by allowing the outside world to intrude on the home. Maybe this tendency to cast shadows of danger on new technologies that we do not fully understand helps to balance the misuse; however, it also may serve to unfasten the youth from outdated teaching modes. When children can use Wikipedia to learn about what interests them and take control of their own learning, traditional schoolhouse learning may be considered overly restrictive, insensitive to individual capacities and interests, conducted in slow motion, and smack of obsolescence. Therefore, a teacher's time and efforts might be best spent guiding youth in the use of these technologies and using them to supplement and, in some cases, replace traditional teaching pedagogies.

Use of technology does not just mean facilitation of media like videos, but it also means application of new tools to engage students generally and uniquely. One example of a technological advancement that can engage students is a student remote that is the twenty-first-century version of hand raising. Using these devices, students participate in class discussion, and class data are aggregated so that the teacher can analyze trends in the moment on a class-wide scale. For example, if the teacher asks students a question such as, "how many students believe that recycling is important?" students can then chime in by either typing out a response or choosing from a list of multiple choices. The teacher can then display on her computer or projector the percentage of students who agreed/disagreed. This tool can be used to spark student discussion and/or by a teacher to gauge class-level understanding of a concept.

Inset 1: Case Study: Increased Access to Education Through Digital Technology

The following case study is an example of digital technology that both increased student access to education broadly (Art. 28) and built an educational environment to promote the development of the whole child (Art. 29). Ahmad was an 8-year-old child living in a large refugee camp in the Middle East. Ahmad was born in the refugee camp but struggled with severe anxiety, including separation anxiety. With aid from a nonprofit organization, Ahmad was able to access schooling through an online medium while remaining in close physical proximity to his parents while he was attending therapy. Those working with Ahmad through a community mental health center were also able to connect Ahmad to his classmates and his peers around the world through the digital medium. Over time, Ahmad was able to return to his nearby community schools while also continuing access to others his age globally in collaborating on projects. In under a month, Ahmad was able to complete a written project, maintain his schooling status, and work to overcome some of his separation anxiety in order to return to school. His mother reported feeling an immense amount of relief that her son did not fall behind in his schooling. This use of technology in this case allowed Ahmad to continue his access to education (Art. 28) in a way that continued to help develop his full potential and develop his unique talents for writing (Art. 29). Though this case study only involves one student, it speaks to the many ways that technology can be integrated into supporting students around the world across contexts.

Using Technology to Promote Individualized Learning

In Ernest Cline's science fiction novel *Ready Player One* (2011), the destitute main character is a young teen, Wade Watts, with a single worldly possession, a laptop. In the future that Cline creates, though Wade only has this single laptop, it is all he needs as it allows him to virtually attend school, spend time with his friends, and access recreational activities, as well as educational materials. Though this book is set in the year 2045, it is not so far off from today's reality. When asked to picture a school building, most individuals would mention groups of students at desks intently focusing, or attempting to focus, their attention on a teacher as he or she presents the day's prescribed lesson. Financial costs involved in this traditional scenario include building space, classroom materials, considerations of a teacher-student ratio, and school supplies. As educational budgets fall around the world, online learning is being touted as a more cost-effective and more individualized learning experience than the traditional school building. In fact, a meta-analysis conducted in 2009 of over 1000 empirical studies about online learning in K-12 education, as well as higher education, found that students who received some online education performed better on average than those who only received traditional face-to-face schooling access (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

One form of fully online learning in the elementary environment is the online charter school. In this model, traditional teachers are employed to host online classrooms where students and teachers can connect via online messaging services using text, voice, and video. Students are mailed classroom materials such as the needed pieces of a science experiment and are instructed to complete an independent study of the materials using online learning modules, followed by connecting with other students and their teachers at a specific time using a messaging app. The students then listen to a didactic lesson, and each student follows the teacher's instructions. They are then encouraged to ask questions and even talk individually to each other via online messaging systems. The only difference is that the student does all of this from anywhere in the world, including the home. The authors personally know of a family living on a boat and traveling the world whose children utilize this mechanism of nontraditional schooling. The applications of these worldwide are tremendous as, again, the classroom is reduced to a single, fairly cost-effective tool, a computer.

Little research has been conducted on the effectiveness of these fully online methods of teaching in the secondary school setting, though a review of online college and graduate courses provide promising results dependent on the quality of instruction (Means, Toyama, Murphy, & Baki, 2013). However, as noted in the previous section, these methods continue to keep students connected to educational materials in circumstances where they otherwise would be unable to access educational materials. These digital learning platforms also provide flexibility to the user, which allows students to build educational experiences that meets their needs and promotes learning that fosters their full potential (Art. 29).

Although many school-based professionals think of online learning as a full contrast or replacement of face-to-face instruction, most online learning falls somewhere between and combines various combinations of online and face-to-face instruction (Means et al., 2013). A new buzz word in the education lexicon is *blended learning*, a term describing conditions in which the teacher is an education manager who creates a curriculum and teaches traditionally but supplements traditional learning with management of online learning modules. These online learning tools provide students with learning experiences and track student progress. The blended learning teacher can monitor student progress and support students when they are struggling and can monitor class-wide trends in learning. The success of blended learning programs, however, does not lie solely in data collection but in the ability for students to have greater autonomy within their educational experience. In the 2013 meta-analysis by Means and colleagues, college students indicated that opportunities for learning activities, reflection, and self-monitoring were the most effective online tools. The meta-analysis also noted that students in blended learning classrooms spent more time learning than their counterparts. The report concludes that the effectiveness of online learning was due to increased learning time, increased ability for collaboration, and student ability to manipulate their learning environment.

While classroom environments fully delivered online are available, blended learning models are gaining far more traction as they can provide both the benefits of online learning and traditional face-to-face learning. Blended learning is unique in that a curriculum is created and managed by a teacher and is implemented via face-to-face and technological affordances. For example, a teacher may introduce a historical theme such as the Second World War, then students complete an online learning module that includes videos, delve into online resources on aspects that most interest them, and then are guided through a project and finally a quiz by their teacher. In this model, the teacher manages and analyzes student data. This means that as a student progresses through a planned curriculum using technology tools, teachers can use precise data to pinpoint where students are struggling and intervene accordingly. Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) suggest that blended learning models have six distinct benefits, including pedagogical richness, access to knowledge, social interaction, personal agency, cost-effectiveness, and ease of revisions. These are reviewed in the following examples:

1. *Pedagogical richness* or the ability *to provide many different teaching tools*: *an example of this is the flipped* classroom in a high school or college environment where students review an audio or video recording of a class lecture and spend class time completing an in-depth class project. In an elementary setting, this could mean that the teacher introduces children to a topic and creates an online learning module that the students go through while the teacher walks through the classroom guiding students who are struggling or helping them find unique learning paths.
2. *Access to knowledge*: the Internet is a seemingly endless resource full of information to which students and teachers might not otherwise have access. It is important for teachers to act as guides, providing students with information regarding how to find accurate and needed information.
3. *Social interaction*: blended environments allow for social interaction in a way that purely distance learning does not. In the blended classroom, students can connect with each other, ask questions, and exchange ideas. Via technology, students also can connect with others whom they may never have connected with before, including students in other countries, through collaborative learning opportunities (Anastasiades et al., 2010).
4. *Personal agency*: the blended learning classroom allows students some learning control by offering students opportunities to guide their own learning goals and topics. Due to the need for lower student-to-teacher ratio for effective application, self-directed learning opportunities are more typically practiced in affluent schools (Venezky17, 2000). Blended learning makes student-led learning potentially available to all schools. This is increasingly important as students' abilities to effectively ask questions and research answers are becoming infinitely more important in a world where the amount of available information exceeds what we can teach students in elementary, secondary, and postsecondary school.
5. *Cost effectiveness*: blended learning classrooms are an easy, cost-effective way to address many issues currently facing low-income schools, such as high teacher-student ratios. In classrooms where there are 30 or more children to a teacher, classroom management and the effective use of student level data for teaching is much more difficult. Blended learning classrooms allow teachers to use computers as a learning support and to create small groups within the classroom to address the needs of students struggling or excelling in similar areas.

6. *Ease of revision*: blended learning classrooms are fully teacher led and revised. There are many online tools available for teachers to use, but even more importantly teachers can create materials and projects with relative ease. Furthermore, many available tools come with data-tracking components that allow teachers to monitor student progress and to change the curriculum as needed for the whole class, groups of students, or individual students. This ease of revision allows for more effective differentiated learning strategies.

These six strengths of blended learning programs directly align with three articles of the Convention:

- *Article 28 (Right to an education)* notes that each child has the right to an education that is free and must meet the developmental needs of the child. The ability to access different forms of instruction and increased access to knowledge are both inherent in the blended learning model.
- *Article 17 (Access to information)* notes that each child is to have access to reliable information from a variety of sources in ways that children can understand. Inherent in the blended learning model is teaching the youth how to access age-appropriate material that is reliable, as well as tools to organize, understand, and synthesize this information.
- *Article 29 (Goals of education)* states that every child has the right to an education that will seek to develop the child's personality, talents, and abilities. Blended learning models allow for personal agency or learner control, providing room for students to develop their talents and further their own interests.

Blended learning models merge sectors along a continuum with end points representing two types of teaching: (a) fully distance learning that relies primarily on Internet interactions to provide education and (b) face-to-face learning that views the youth as "empty vessels" to be filled with information. The marriage of these two extremes is a classroom where the teacher develops a curriculum, differentiates learning by providing students with technological resources to practice and further understand topics, and facilitates identification of smaller groups of students to address unique student needs. In Todd Rose's *The End of Average* (2016), the author makes the case for competency development through student-led learning. He argues that instead of defining educational certificates as standardized curriculum in higher education, students should be allowed to define their own learning pathways by displaying competency in subjects that they might then stack together to build the skills needed to pursue their chosen career pathways and interests. The idea of students displaying competency in needed topics versus earning grades in defined subjects, as Bloom's mastery approach to education intends (Kulik, Kulik, & Bangert-drowns, 1990), can be applied to blended learning. For example, in a classroom of 25 students where each student learns at a different pace, teachers can work to give students a foundation in a subject and allow students to build projects or use learning tools to individualize their learning experiences and assessments.

While most of this chapter has thus far dealt with using technology to address education broadly and particularly establishing the modern classroom, the rest of the chapter delves into specific technological advances to support more traditional school psychology practice, including applications (apps) to support academic interventions and social emotional needs.

Using Technology to Help School Psychologists Promote and Protect Child Rights

While digital mediums offer a range of possibilities for integration into education, digital technologies are a tool nonetheless, and access to the Internet by itself is not enough to promote education (Vanderhill, 2015). Although technology provides practical ways to connect, monitor, advance and improve children's well-being, those options remain useless without facilitation by a professional who understands these tools. As in

Inset 2: Case Study on Promoting Individualized Learning

Two of the authors of this chapter work in a publicly funded charter school where this blended learning model was used in the fifth grade. This case study represents a collaboration between the school psychologist and a fifth grade teacher. One fifth grade math classroom is presented here as a case study for an effective blended learning model. The classroom consisted of 27 ten- to 13-year-old students with varying math ability levels. For this collaboration, students were pulled from whole-group math instructional time to support students struggling with basic math fluency. The teacher and the school psychologist brainstormed solutions and began to use a computer program with all students to teach basic math fluency. This computer program would test each student and match learning modules to their respective levels. The program provided data that the teacher and school psychologist could review to assess student progress. The teacher would lecture for 40 minutes, and then all students would use this program for 20 minutes. However, in this model, students needing further explanation beyond what was provided by the computer program were missed. With 27 students using the same program at the same time, the teacher would rush from student to student in order to answer questions and did not have time to delve into deeper teaching methods with students who needed it. Therefore, the school psychologist and teacher began to use a blended learning module.

Once the teacher and school psychologist chose to use a blended learning model, they sat down and designed what this would look like. The teacher would begin all students on the day's topic, introducing the days' objectives and schedule. Then the teacher would assign students to groups for an hour. In this hour, half the groups would work on practice problems together with teacher guidance, and the other half would use the computer program to practice basic math competencies. This was a universal process in which all students engaged. For those students who were still struggling and who were failing computer lessons, the school psychologist would provide further support in practicing both their basic math fluency and more complex math problems later. As a result of progress monitoring, adaptations were made the learning program to meet individual needs. As a result of the blended learning program, fifth grade math intervention students had the highest gains of any math intervention group in the school during that year. Furthermore, upon seeing the success of this program, the school applied for and received a technology grant in order to further utilize blended learning in other classrooms.

the case study (presented above, Inset 2), a school psychologist is one person who can facilitate the use of technology to support student and teacher needs. At a more direct service level, school psychologists can help children to navigate and choose from the vast array of available digital resources and teach them to apply them in their daily lives:

> Imagine a 10-year-old girl in Paris, bursting into tears after arguing with her best friend during recess. She is hurt because her friend said some offending words, and she is afraid that her friend won't like her anymore. Her parents are at work, and she will only see them later that evening. Her teacher might notice what happened but can't talk to the girl at length and sooth her, because class is about to start. She feels lonely, and vulnerable. She searches the internet for advice, and enters a forum designated for children who are struggling with friendships. At the forum, she tells her story and other children encourage her. The psychologist that supervises the forum also explains that these things happen between friends and that it doesn't mean the friendship is over. The psychologist invites the girl to continue a private chat.

This girl was able to find emotional support on the Internet, facilitated by a mental health professional. Tools such as this are becoming increasingly popular with the advent of text therapy and teletherapy. The above scenario demonstrates some of the possibilities inherent in the Internet, for helping children deal with emotionally laden situations that they encounter in their everyday routine. Without modern technological tools, the same girl might have been upset for a very long time without telling any of the significant adults in her life. She may not have told the adults about her difficulties because she was embarrassed or because nobody noticed that she was upset and asked about it or because she forgot about it by the time an adult asked her about her day. Sometimes that kind of minor emotional difficulty is intensified because the child is dealing with it on her own. In the twentieth century, professional mental health help was only available via the traditional methods, namely face-to-face personal encounter between a child and a professional worker (e.g., psychologist, counsellor, social worker, psychiatrist, therapist). The therapist was situated within the physical environment of the child. However, those traditions have since expanded to include online methods of therapeutic support, which means that students in areas with less access to mental health support can now access them more readily. It is important to note that online methods changed not only the availability and accessibility of therapeutic support but also the position of the children and youth within the patient–therapist relations. Children and youth are empowered via technology since it enables them to place their own application, in their very own words, and ask for help. Traditionally, the parents or teachers usually start the therapeutic process and not the child. By providing professional help online, the child can not only try to solve his or her problem but also become responsible for his or her own quality of life. In short, the professional support via the Internet (psychological and pedagogical) has the potential to promote children's rights regarding daily survival and to foster a platform for emotional thriving.

The following sections provide some practical tools that school-based mental health professionals might integrate into their practice in order to help support the development of the whole child. These tools promote much of what has been discussed previously in this chapter, including more individualized child-centered support, greater access to support, and support that directly meets child needs. By integrating these technological applications into traditional school-based mental health professional's practice, we can expand the reach of services and individualized services to each child's needs.

Navigating Our Way in the Technological Application Forest to Enhance Child and Youth Well-Being at School

In 2017, 2.8 million applications were available at Google Play Store, and 2.2 million applications were available in Apple's App Store (https://www.statista.com/topics/1002/mobile-app-usage/). Those huge numbers reflect the worldwide phenomena of trying to accommodate various human needs via technological solutions. Some of those needs are encountered and dealt with (or ignored) daily at school, for example, children's learning disabilities or struggle with social skills. The educational staff needs to monitor more closely some children's behavioral and emotional risk in order to provide early and effective interventions. In many cases, when a student's academic, social or emotional status is changing for the worse, there is a tendency to hastily turn to immediate action without thinking about the underlying student need. Asking the question "What does this child need help with?" might be very useful. Thus, the fundamental role of mental health professionals, such as school and educational psychologists, is to help the educational staff in this process by using data to guide the intervention. Several technological tools in different domains can assist with data collection to illuminate student needs. Figure 1 illustrates two ways that online tools can be used for intervention: assessment and data monitoring.

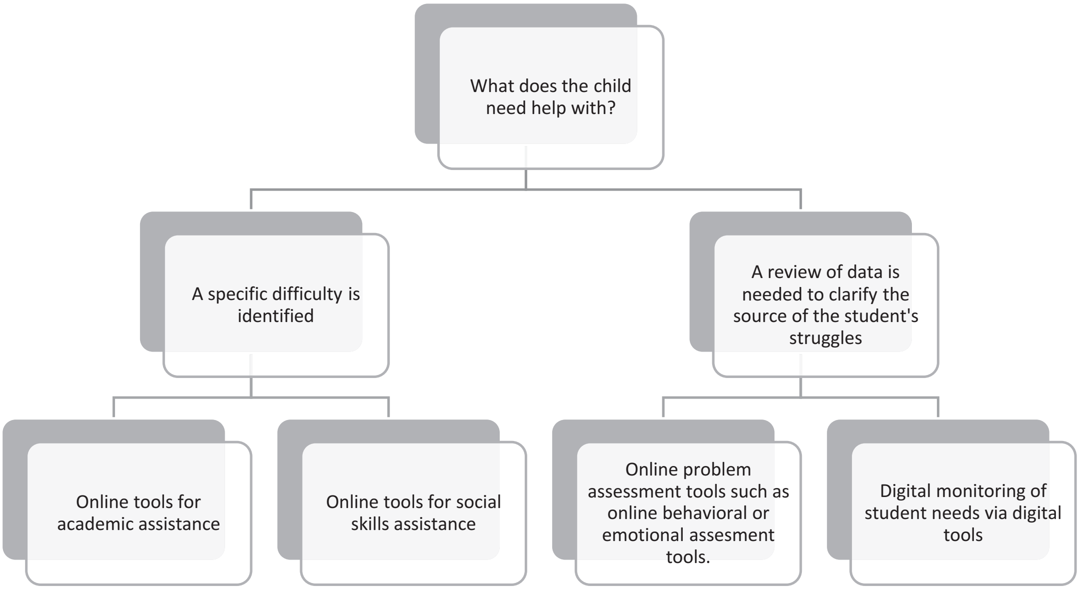
What does the child need help with?
A specific difficulty is identified
A review of data is needed to clarify the source of the student's struggles
Online tools for academic assistance
Online tools for social skills assistance
Online problem assessment tools such as online behavioral or emotional assesment tools.
Digital monitoring of student needs via digital tools

Fig. 1 What does this child need help with?

Online assessment and data monitoring tools To determine the source of a child's distress, the mental health professional can speak to the child directly and administer a measure to assess and monitor the child's behavioral and emotional state. Based on knowledge of the child's functioning in class, accessed through various means (e.g., teacher report, grades, observations, child interview), the school/educational psychologist can evaluate a specific academic, social, or emotional difficulty that needs to be addressed in order to increase a child's ability to do better. In that case, technology can easily create a wider picture of the relevant concern. For example, the "Daylio" application is a very easy-to-use application that enables students to report their mood by clicking on the relevant facial expression (e.g. bad, good, awful) and report "what have you been up to?" by clicking on small icons such as watching movies, reading, gaming, visiting friends. In addition, the application includes statistics showing average daily mood, longest best day streak, monthly mood chart, and so on. Assessing the "larger picture" of activities and feelings, accompanied by a conversation with the school psychologist, produces a follow-up chart made by the child that enables the mental health professional to operate with data and recommend a relevant action plan.

Online intervention tools Granting that an assessment was already made, and a specific difficulty was recognized (e.g., reading difficulty or dyslexia), the mental health professional can plan and lead a practical intervention (left side of Fig. 1). Using online methods in the intervention allows the child an active position in his or her own progress, a central part of child rights. In this example of helping a child with reading problems, the school/educational psychologists might consider using software (via computer, tablet, or cellular phone) such as NaturalReader, which enables children to drag and drop a paragraph they struggle to read and hear it read in a pleasant human voice. In this way they can practice independently how to read and not stay behind the class. Though a software program cannot be the only assistance to overcome difficulties, it can be psychologically very beneficial. By practicing in a kid-friendly technological environment, on his or her own time and pace, a child can take more responsibility regarding handling the specific difficulty.

Using Technology to in a Problem-Solving Model

In this section, we consider some software solutions to common specific difficulties that children encounter, in academic and/or socio-emotional skills. Additionally, we explore an efficient way to look for more applications.

Solutions to Common Specific Difficulties That Children Encounter in Schools

1. *Writing*: spelling mistakes can sometimes indicate dyslexia. Usually, a child avoids telling about reading problems, but writing problems are harder to hide. Writing difficulties can reveal wider problems, both in reading and in writing. Addressing those problems as early as possible could cut short a long route of suffering for many children with overt or hidden learning disabilities. The application suggested here enables children to experience several aspects of the language practices required at schools. A systematic use can be a great help in narrowing and focusing on the difficulty and hopefully identifying the most promising intervention.
2. *Math*: math becomes a real challenge for most high school students. As a result, some of them may experience stress and anxiety. An easy-to-use application can support classroom learning and for many high school students become a way to decrease stress. Photomath is an excellent application for those needs. It allows the student to photo an equation and learn all kinds of methods to work with it, such as graphs, posting numbers in the equations, and more.
3. *Social skills*: many children face difficulties in creating social relationships or understanding expected behaviors in class. They might ask themselves questions such as: how does one get attention in class? How does one plan the schedule at school when attending laboratories or gym classes not in the original schedule? Via any of the available social story applications, children can enrich their knowledge of what is expected of them at certain times. We can monitor the child's progress, and if the child's social skills are developing more slowly than expected with the program, a more extensive work plan can be considered.

We highly recommend that the school psychologist personally experience technological solutions prior to suggesting those solutions to a child. This makes it easier to explain, to empathize with the student, and to predict points of frustration. By knowing the solution path, a mental health professional can plan relevant milestones and ask the parents and the teacher to join in the process at specific phases where they might be most helpful. When looking for an application to use, consider the following questions:

(a) *What is the child's age?* Age is an important factor in understanding the current phase of the difficulty (e.g., is the child in the process of reading acquisition, or is he already supposed to have mastered it?). It is also a crucial factor in the child's motivation to use the specific software. For instance, software addressing younger audience (early developmental stage pictures and sounds) might be rejected by older youth.

(b) *Do you want to use free apps only?* The web is full of free-of-charge applications. However, sometimes only certain segments of the intervention option are free, and some require payment. In other cases, the application is fully billed and payable.

(c) *What is the specific area you want to address? What ability or skill do you want to help the child to develop?* Because of the abundant number of technological options, it is better to target a specific field. If a child is facing arithmetic problems, ask him and/or the teacher specifically what kind of difficulties are of concern and in what phase of the arithmetic competency development. Those questions will make the search much more efficient.

(d) *Do you want the child to use it at school and/or at home?* Some schools do not allow electronic devices, and the use of the proposed technological solution should be at home. According to the goals and constraints, a working plan should be designed.

While we have presented here several useful applications for integration into practice, there are thousands more available. In evaluating applications, it might be useful to follow two parameters: how many downloads/entries does the application/website have? What is the level of satisfaction reported? Applications/websites with a high number of downloads and a high level of satisfaction are preferred.

The Pros and Cons of Using Technology as a Mental Health Professional

Following our review of some applications and websites designated for children and youth, we conclude with a partial review of the pros and cons that could facilitate or hinder the use of the Internet by mental health professionals in schools. The first concept to consider in this endeavor is of course the professional's attitudes toward the use of technology in his/her work. For example, we have learned that many educational and school psychologists have been hesitant to integrate technology in their daily practices (Alkalay & Dolev, 2017). Among the most prevalent reasons for that were ethical issues and the concern that using technology at work "is not psychology." Another important consideration is the accessibility of the technology itself. For example, some languages may only have limited options of applications/websites suitable for the abovementioned purposes. Additionally, the technological infrastructure for the issues of concern might be desolate, thus hindering our professional usage of technology. In relation to using technology in counseling and therapy, some writers argue that because of the possible time and space difference between the therapist and the client in electronic therapy, it may be more difficult to create the treatment contract and the working alliance, making it more difficult for some clients to commit to the therapy (e.g., Scharff, 2013). Additionally, possible interferences could arise in establishing important features of the treatment, such as face-to-face visibility, which some experts believe would prevent the transmission, detection, and interpretation of important nonverbal cues such as body language and voice qualities (e.g., Ragusea & VandeCreek, 2003). And of course, the Internet itself might present a technical challenge to both the therapist and the client, such as slight delays in voice or sound on one or both sides or disrupted connections during therapy sessions (Amichai-Hamburger, Brunstein Klomek, Friedman, Zuckerman, & Shani-Sherman, 2014).

So why should we make the effort to integrate the Internet into our work supporting children's mental health? A primary reason is that children and youth are "natives" in the digital world, and youth across the world are increasingly accessing the Internet at home, at school, and in their communities. It is only natural that they feel comfortable seeking support via the Internet on topics related to the difficulties they experience (King et al., 2006). Use of the Internet for that purpose may allow them to have direct access to a mental health professional, at any time and any place they need, thus enabling them to more easily and effectively express their genuine unfiltered voice. When a child is using technology to improve his or her condition, he/she is empowered, feeling in control of his/her life, and acquiring a sense of mastery over his/her problem. Additionally, the option of seeking help online via self-aid applications/websites that provide live links to a professional online might be particularly important for specific at-risk populations (e.g., traditional cultures). Those populations embrace the anonymity that the technology provides in order to help themselves. Accordingly, Amichi-Hamburger et al. (2014) proposed that it may be easier for some people to enter online treatment as opposed to traditional face-to-face treatment because it may have less of a stigma associated with it. Additionally, people tend to feel that the Internet is a "secure arena" and thus lack of face-to-face interaction may increase self-disclosure and honesty. Also, people feel less shame and anxiety online, resulting in a faster transition to an intimate level, compared to traditional settings. Hesitation in approaching a mental health professional might be particularly prominent in minority populations, whereby the close and sometimes small communities hold negative stigmas associated with mental health problems or fear of mainstream government institutions (Cauce et al., 2002).

Another important consideration is that the Internet offers easy and convenient access to up-to-date information and generates opportunities to connect between people while overcoming the limitations of distance and time (Gilat, 2013). This option might be particularly meaningful when taking into consideration that 46% of the world's residents live in outlying areas (World Health Organization, 2015). For children and youth residing in those areas or in countries where the population is thinly spread across peripheral regions, the Internet might present a rare opportunity to receive mental health services. Lastly, worldwide there is a wide gap between the enormous need for mental health services and the actual receiving of such services by those who need it. Kazdin and Blase (2011) argue that despite remarkable advances in psychological research and intervention, most mental health professionals continue to rely on traditional face-to-face methods that offer limited access to mental health services. Thus, the proportion of unmet needs does not diminish. The authors propose that unlike individual therapy or counseling, the Internet and other technologies offer the ability to reach a large swath of people in need of services, thus decreasing the prevalence and incidence of mental illness and related conditions.

In conclusion, the Internet allows exciting opportunities to promote the emotional well-being and mental health of children and youth. A comprehensive survey conducted by Barak, Hen, Boniel-Nissim, and Shapira (2008) indicated that various types of counseling and therapeutic services over the Internet, such as communicating via emails, forums, and chats, are indeed effective in achieving improvement. Thus, we believe that it is beneficial to integrate the Internet into the mental health professional services and that the Internet is a viable tool to use in counseling and therapy with children and youth. The variety of options to engage in order to enhance pupils' well-being challenges the traditional mental health professionals' methods. The wide range of technological options enable assistance to children and youth with specific difficulties like learning disability and low social skills, as well as with ongoing monitor of children's emotional state. Matching an appropriate solution to the pupil's current state requires identification, as accurate as possible, of the mental health need and a compassionate accompanying of the child toward selecting and using a viable solution. With professional guidance and help in navigating the technology, children can benefit from it much more than when trying to handle it alone.

The integration of technology into the daily work of school and educational psychologists and the psychologists' support and facilitation of the usage of technology by educational teams are in line with the U.N. Convention on the Rights of the Child (Madden et al. 2013). Articles 12–14 deal with children's rights for freedom of expression thought and association, all of which have a bearing on the usage of Internet by children in general and specifically in relation to online psychological support. Specifically, *Article 12* presents children's rights to form his or her own views and the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child. *Article 13* specifies the obligation to protect each child's rights to freedom of expression, which includes the 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* concerns children's rights to freedom of thought. Complementary to Articles 12–14, *Article 17* emphasizes the important function performed by mass media to ensure that the children's access to information and materials, especially those aimed at the promotion of his or her social, spiritual, and moral well-being and physical and mental health. Thus, the Internet can be used to facilitate those rights by publishing information regarding various mental health issues and daily worries that children encounter and by providing children secure and professional platforms to express their worries and consult a mental health professional. Additionally, several articles stress the importance of providing services (including education and mental health services) to all the children. Specifically, *Article 23* emphasizes the obligation that "the disabled child has effective access to and receives education, training, health care services." Some disabled children have difficulties in the attainment of accessible mental health services. The Internet has the potential to overcome those barriers and to provide the children with mental health services and psychological support at any time from their homes (Gilat, 2013). *Article 24* recognizes the right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health and declares that "States Parties shall strive to ensure that no child is deprived of his or her right of access to such health care services." This is an especially challenging goal in peripheral regions, with sparse mental health services. Again, the World Health Organization notes that 46% of the world's residents live in outlying areas (World Health Organization, 2015). In the United States, roughly half of U.S. counties have no psychologist, psychiatrist, or social worker who can work with children (National Organization of State Offices of Rural Health, 2011). For children and youth residing in those areas or in countries where the population is thinly spread across peripheral regions, telepsychology might present a rare opportunity to receive mental health services. As noted earlier in this chapter, technology is a tool. Therefore, its reach and ability are dependent on how we use it. With careful consideration, technological tools may be used to center the child and bring needed support to help realize child rights across the globe.

Safety Online

One ongoing theme of the Convention is the balance of youth safety with respect for youth autonomy in a way that is developmentally appropriate. For example, the Convention recognizes the right of each child to remain with his/her parents, unless that situation is dangerous for the child. While this balance is carefully addressed through the Convention, one place it is particularly evident is in Internet use. This chapter has largely advocated for the use of technology to support youth autonomy, access to information, education, and health care. There are many benefits associated with technological advances. However, inherent in this wider access is potentially higher chances of unsafe interactions for youth. For example, about 9% of youth experience unwanted sexual solicitation online, and 11% experience online harassment (Jones, Mitchell, & Finkelhor, 2012). Other ways that children might be made unsafe online include exploitation from for-profit companies, invasion of youth privacy, cyberbullying, or exposure to false information that is touted as true (Fleming, Greentree, Cocotti-Muller, Elias, & Morrison, 2006).

Part of increasing child safety online lies in online companies and moderators always putting children first in developing policy around privacy and participant interactions online (Livingstone, Mascheroni, & Staksrud, 2018). This might require governments taking steps to provide policy or legal guidelines for respecting child rights online. Another aspect of promoting safety for youth online lies in how youth are educated about technology and particularly online spaces. Currently, youth receive little support in navigating online spaces (D'Antona, & Kevorkian, 2010). School psychologists can play an active role in protecting youth's rights by teaching them about using the Internet, ways to stay safe online by protecting their own privacy, building skills in combating cyberbullying, and learning to identify trusted resources and information (Anastasiades & Vitalaki, 2011; Hope, 2002; Livingstone et al., 2018). School psychologists also can advocate for schools to build such programming into computer or computer science classes or any class that requires students to use online tools. With the rapid increase in Internet use in classrooms, schools would benefit from being intentional about how students are exposed to and taught to use the Internet. Finally, school psychologists and school personnel in conjunction with parents should find ways to monitor student online use in a way that respects the child's developmental level (Hope, 2018; Livingstone et al., 2018). Schools and parents can install software that limits the types of websites that students can access or the ability of unsolicited ads to reach the youth. These programs can help keep children from inadvertently providing private information online or engaging with websites with content not matched to their developmental levels or that are outwardly malicious (Ybarra, Finkelhor, Mitchell, & Wolak, 2009).

In a recent article (Livingstone et al., 2018), the authors make the argument that youth Internet and technology use is best analyzed not in terms of *how* the youth use the Internet but in the ways in which the youth engage with the world mediated by the Internet. This distinction is important as it shifts the mindsets of adults from one of labeling technology or website content as "good" or "bad" to that of understanding how normal, positive youth development can be supported through technological advances, and the way that risk factors any child might be exposed to can also be encountered online. Therefore, we argue that school psychologists can guide schools and families in guiding the youth to use the Internet in ways that are productive, meaningful, and safe to support positive youth development while simultaneously teaching them how to navigate the world, including technology and the Internet, safely.

Moving into the Future

This chapter only scratches the surface on imagining ways that technology can be integrated in the school setting to help realize child rights. This chapter covered three main potential areas for integrating technology into educational efforts that promote and protect the rights of children. These three areas include increasing access to educational opportunities, promoting individual learning, and facilitating school psychology practice that promoted child rights through the use of technology. Future work might imagine a broader world in which students might learn from teachers around the globe, uninhibited by distance and where each child has access not only to educational material but also to quality educational material. Furthermore, technology might bridge economic gaps if education provides students with digital literacy, including skills like computer coding, which are becoming increasingly needed across professions. We are only limited by what we can imagine.

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Applying Child-Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples

Bonnie Kaul Nastasi

Abstract

The purpose of this chapter is to present a conceptual and methodological framework for conducting research on children's psychological well-being that (a) promotes and protects their rights to participation by honoring their voices, (b) addresses culture and context as factors influencing the conceptual understanding of psychological well-being, and (c) facilitates culturally and contextually sensitive cross-cultural research. Examples from research conducted with colleagues in multiple countries are presented. The chapter concludes with thoughts about the professional development of researchers interested in rights-respecting research for and with children.

How do we best examine the psychological well-being of children across cultural boundaries within and between countries? How do we develop a universal understanding of child well-being while honoring diverse developmental levels, cultures, and contexts? What models of psychological well-being best represent children across the globe? These questions have guided my thinking and inquiry over the past two decades.

As researchers, we continually search for the *one* (universal) definition and/or intervention that can apply to all children[1] everywhere. In recent years, researchers have been challenged to reframe their questions in recognition of the potential variation of definitions, needs, and solutions to fostering child well-being—influenced by culture and context—and, more importantly, in recognition of the limitations of the extant body of knowledge generated through research conducted in North America and Western Europe (Arnett, 2008; Sue, 1999), most frequently with White majority populations. Sue warns us that "psychological principles or theories cannot be generalized from one population to another … [instead] generality is a phenomenon that should be empirically tested" (p. 1074). Arnett criticizes US psychological researchers for their focus on studying only 5% of the world's population,

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[1] The terms child and children throughout this paper are intended to refer to both children and adolescents, consistent with the UN (1989) definition of child (birth to 18 years).

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neglecting the other 95%. This is particularly troubling because “Americans are the largest producers of psychological research” (Sue, p. 1072), and yet “our modus operandi is to assume that the work is universally applicable” (p. 173). Furthermore, theories that guide research with children and adolescents are often developed with adult populations and generalized to children, again with the assumption of generality and ignoring developmental differences in capacities and experiences. For example, Borja, Nastasi, and Sarkar (2017) question the validity of existing social support typologies that are based on adult theory and research with European-descent Americans. Moreover, much of the research on child well-being reflects adult perspectives about child functioning and/or child responses to structured questionnaires developed by adult researchers (Nastasi, 2014). In the context of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (hereafter referred to as Convention; UN, 1989), the promotion and protection of child well-being necessitates the inclusion of child voice and participation (Arts. 12 & 13) in what Alderson (2012) refers to as *rights-respecting* research with children.

The purpose of this chapter is to present a conceptual and methodological framework for conducting research on children’s psychological well-being that (a) promotes and protects their rights to participation by honoring their voices, (b) addresses culture and context as factors influencing the conceptual understanding of psychological well-being, and (c) facilitates culturally and contextually sensitive cross-cultural research. Examples from research conducted with colleagues in multiple countries will be presented. The chapter concludes with recommendations for the professional development of researchers interested in rights-respecting research for and with children.

Rights-Respecting Research on Child Well-Being Across Cultures: Conceptual and Methodological Framework

The foundational framework for rights-respecting cross-cultural research reflects an integration of theories and methods from psychology, anthropology, and international development. The model proposed here integrates the following: *conceptually*, (a) ecological-developmental systems theory (EST) (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, 1999), (b) social constructivist perspectives from psychology (Vygotksy, 1978; Wertsch, 1991) and anthropology (Bibeau & Corin, 1995; Geertz, 1992/1968), and (c) cultural construction of illness and health from medical anthropology (Kleinman & Benson, 2006; Kleinman, Eisenberg, & Good, 1978), and *methodologically*, (d) participatory action research (Greenwood, Whyte, & Harkavy, 1993), (e) ethnography (Schensul & Schensul, 1992; Schensul & LeCompte, 2016), and (f) mixed methods research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). In this section, the conceptual and methodological foundations for rights-respecting research on children’s psychological well-being are described.

Conceptual Foundations

Consistent with current models for professional psychology (e.g., Kazak et al., 2010; Melchert, 2007[2]), the framework for study of child well-being integrates biological, psychological, social, cultural, and developmental factors. This integration requires consideration of theories from psychology (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, 1999; Vygotksy, 1978; Wertsch, 1991), anthropology (Bibeau & Corin, 1995; Geertz, 1992/1968), and public health (informed by medical anthropology; Kleinman & Benson, 2006; Kleinman et al., 1978).

Bronfenbrenner’s ecological-developmental systems theory (EST) provides the structural basis for rights-respecting cross-cultural research on child well-being. As depicted in Fig. 1, the child functions and develops within a complex and dynamic network of interacting systems that change over time. Using EST to frame our understanding of child well-being necessitates attention to child (e.g., biological, psychological) and

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[2] This integrated framework is consistent with Melchert’s (2007) integrated biopsychosocial foundation for professional psychology, and the meta-systems social-ecological framework of Kazak and colleagues (Kazak et al., 2010).

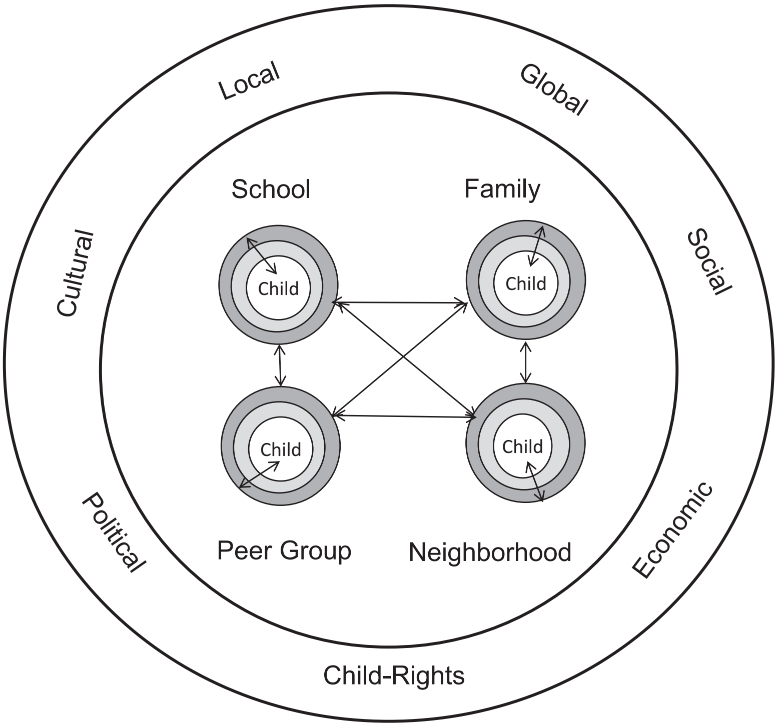

Fig. 1 Structural foundation for study of child well-being: child's social ecology based on Bronfenbrenner's ecological-developmental systems theory (EST) (1989, 1999). The child is depicted at the center of respective *microsystems* or local contexts (innermost white circle), which is encompassed by multilevel *exosystems* (grey circles; family, school, peer group, and neighborhood). The interactions within and between exosystems are referred to as *mesosytems* (bidirectional arrows) to reflect the bidirectional influences across the components of the child's ecology. The *macrosystem* (outermost layer) depicts the higher level structural influences at local and global levels; these include social, cultural, economic, political factors and, within rights-respective framework, universal child rights. In addition, the child's ecology can change over time based on the development of the child and history of the component systems (e.g., family history, social-political changes); these changes constitute the *chronosystem*. (Source: By Nastasi et al. (2004), (p. 40). Copyright 2004 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission)

contextual (e.g., social, cultural) factors and to their interaction. Bronfenbrenner (1999) contends that this dynamic and synergistic child–ecology relationship is critical to both human development and cultural transmission. Understanding of both the child and the culture (and other macrosystemic factors) necessitates that researchers study both individual and collective interpretations of the individual–ecology interaction. To accomplish this, we turn to social constructivist (e.g., Vygotsky, 1978; Geertz, 1992/1968) and cultural construction perspectives (e.g., Kleinman & Benson, 2006; Kleinman et al., 1978: Rogoff, 2003).

Defining Culture

Culture [is] a dynamic system of meanings, knowledge, and actions that provides actors collectively, interpersonally, and individually with community-legitimized strategies to construct, reflect upon, and reconstruct their world and experience, and guide behavior (Nastasi et al., 2015, p. 96).

The process of constructing systems of meaning, knowledge, and actions (what anthropologists refer to as *culture*; Bibeau & Corin 1995;

Geertz 1992; see also inset) is dependent on the interaction of individuals with the environment/ecology. The shared meanings, knowledge, and normative actions/behavior that constitute culture develop through a process of *(co-)/social-construction*, whereby individuals engage in dialogue and negotiate shared understandings. This outcome of the constructive process can occur at three levels: individual (change in one's thinking), dyadic (shared meaning between two individuals), or collective (shared group or community norms). Furthermore, "culture is reflected in the *shared* meanings of a collective, whereas *variations* in cultural responses occur based on individual interpretations or narratives of its members" (Nastasi et al., 2015, p. 96; italics added). Thus, the cross-cultural study of children's psychological well-being requires methodology that captures both *shared meanings* within and across different cultural groups and *individual variations* within those cultural groups.

Methodological Foundations

As described in the previous section, the cross-cultural study of child well-being requires a conceptual framework that embodies the complexity of the child's ecology, including culture and context, and methodology that captures this complexity. Furthermore, engaging in rights-respecting research necessitates methodology that portrays the complexity of culture and context while promoting and protecting the child's right to participation (as broadly explicated in the Convention Arts. 12–17). The integration of several research traditions facilitates the co-constructive process necessary to depict shared and individual meanings within a cultural context while promoting and protecting the child's right to have a voice; these are participatory action research (Greenwood et al., 1993), ethnography (Schensul & Schensul, 1992; Schensul & LeCompte, 2016), and mixed methods research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). *Participatory action research* requires the involvement of stakeholders (or research participants) in the research process, ideally in deciding the research purpose, designing and executing the study, and interpreting the findings (and subsequently making decisions about actions that follow from the data). *Ethnography* is focused on the study of culture—the shared meanings and potential variations across individuals and contexts; using ethnographic research to inform action is consistent with participatory action research. *Mixed methods research* involves the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods to (a) capture normative and idiopathic perspectives, (b) represent etic (researcher) and emic (participant) perspectives, (c) explore phenomena in depth, (d) situate experiences within culture and context, and (e) depict the complexity of phenomena within an ecological perspective.

With colleagues, I have applied the integration of participatory action research, ethnography, and mixed methods designs to the study of psychological well-being and subsequent development and evaluation of programming to promote well-being, using the *Participatory Culture-Specific Intervention Model* (PCSIM) (Fig. 2; Nastasi, Varjas, Sarkar, & Jayasena, 1998). (For a more in-depth discussion, see Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016; Nastasi, Moore, & Varjas, 2004; for examples of application, see Bell, Summerville, Nastasi, MacFetters, & Earnshaw, 2015; Nastasi et al., 2010; Varjas et al., 2006.) As depicted in Fig. 2, the PCSIM initially involves framing one's etic perspective informed by existing research, practice, and policy; developing partnerships with key stakeholders; and learning the culture through ethnography. With partners, researchers identify the research purpose and engage in formative (mixed methods) research to inform a culture-specific framework (theory, model) that then guides subsequent interventions, which are monitored and evaluated through mixed methods research. The goal of PCSIM is to develop sustainable and adaptable interventions that meet cultural, contextual, and individual needs.

Participatory and ethnographic research requires the involvement of key stakeholders as a source of information (data). Stakeholders who inform research and action are most typically

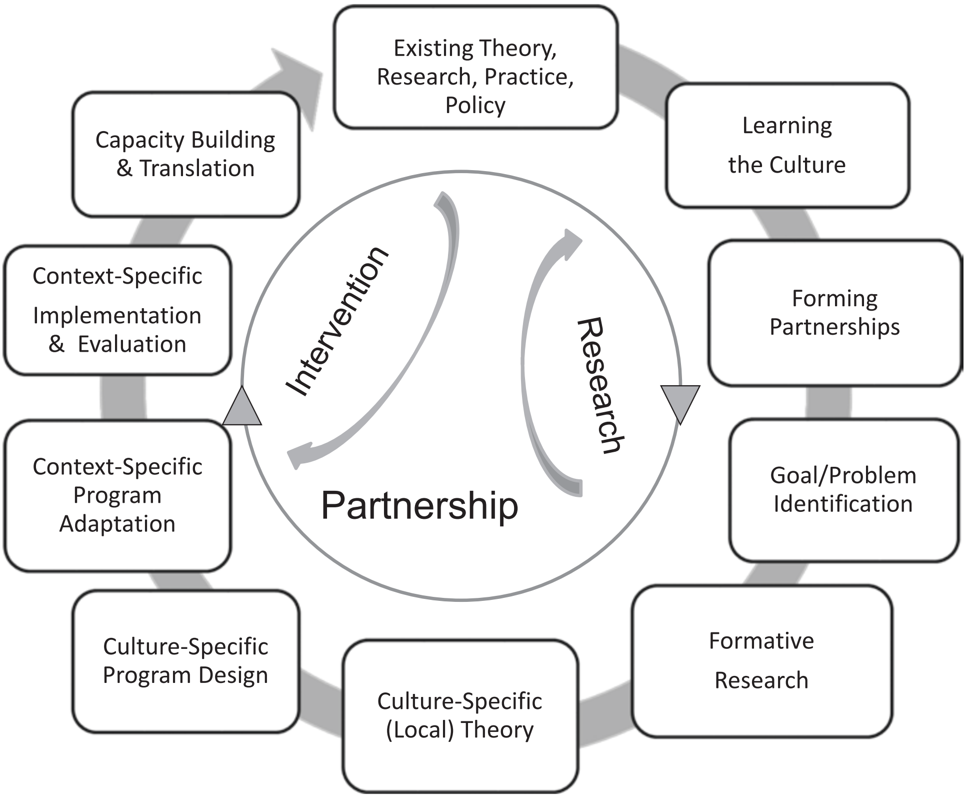
Existing Theory, Research, Practice, Policy
Learning the Culture
Forming Partnerships
Goal/Problem Identification
Formative Research
Culture-Specific (Local) Theory
Culture-Specific Program Design
Context-Specific Program Adaptation
Context-Specific Implementation & Evaluation
Capacity Building & Translation
Intervention
Research
Partnership

Fig. 2 Participatory culture-specific intervention model (PCSIM). This figure depicts the ten phases of a process for involving stakeholders as partners in the research and development of culturally constructed interventions (actions). The model includes ten phases of program development, starting from existing research, theory, practice, and policy and concluding with capacity building and translation. The process as depicted is dynamic and recursive and involves continual reflective application of research to facilitate program design, implementation, adaptation, and evaluation. The goal of PCISM is to develop acceptable, sustainable, and culturally grounded (i.e., culturally constructed or culture-specific) interventions in partnership with key stakeholders (e.g., researchers, developers, implementers, recipients, administrators). (Source: By Nastasi et al. (2004), (p. 54). Copyright 2004 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission)

adults even when the targets/recipients of subsequent data-based decisions and actions are children. Moreover, the most common methods for gathering child perspectives in psychology are structured questionnaires/surveys, usually developed by adult researchers (see Nastasi, 2014). These methods preclude and disrespect the representation of child voices that are critical in rights-respecting research (Alderson, 2012).

Child-Rights-Respecting Research

Engaging in child-rights-respecting research requires attention to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), particularly Articles 12 and 13 (see inset), which call for respect of children's views (voices), their active participation in decisions that affect them (Art. 12), and application of alternative methods of expression to meet the needs of the child (Art. 13). (See also Larkins, Landsdown, & Jimerson, chapter "Child Participation and Agency and School Psychology", this volume, for a more in-depth discussion of child participation and agency.)

Promoting and protecting rights to participation and freedom of expression require rethinking and revising our approaches to research on children's well-being. As illustrated in subsequent sections of this chapter, research methods

UN Convention on the Rights of the Child Articles 12 and 13

Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child): When adults are making decisions that affect children, children have the right to say what they think should happen and have their opinions taken into account.

Article 13 (Freedom of expression): Children have the right to get and share information, as long as the information is not damaging to them or others. In exercising the right to freedom of expression, children have the responsibility to also respect the rights, freedoms and reputations of others. The freedom of expression includes the right to share information in any way they choose, including by talking, drawing or writing. (UNICEF, 2011)

for eliciting child voices are available. However, honoring children's voices requires examining, and possibly reframing, our beliefs about children's competence as *knowers* (with capacity for knowing), *teachers* (for peers and adults), and *agents* capable of acting on behalf of themselves and their peers (Bromstrom, 2012; Keat, Strickland, & Marinak, 2009; Murris, 2013; Nastasi, 2014). Furthermore, to engage in child-rights-respecting research requires that we, as researchers, value children's perspective and provide appropriate opportunities for them to exercise freedom of expression (Bromstrom; Nastasi). Citing Australia's National Health and Research Council's ethical principles, Mortari and Harcourt (2012) propose the following to ensure rights-respecting research:

> (1) The research must be important for the health and well-being of children; (2) the participation of children is indispensable because when the information is filtered by others it is not reliable; (3) the methods of inquiry must be suitable/right for children; and (4) the inquiry must be developed to guarantee the physical, emotional and psychological safety (Mortari & Hartcourt, p. 235).

In a review of research on child well-being in the fields of psychology and other social sciences, education, and international development, Nastasi (2014) identified research methods for capturing children's voices that used a range of modalities of expression, including oral (qualitative interviews), written (stories, diaries, written responses to questions), visual or graphic (photography, drawing), and multimodal strategies (role play, illustrated story, child-led tour with participant observation, photo narration). These data collection methods, used in the context of qualitative, participatory, and mixed methods research designs, provided developmentally and culturally adaptable alternatives to structured questionnaires that are the common choice for psychological research. The next section illustrates the application of these methods within my own program of research.

Child-Rights-Respecting Research on Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples

My research over the past two decades has been devoted to understanding child psychological well-being in ways that honor culture, context, and developmental level. This work began in a local context (specific communities in Sri Lanka, in collaboration with local colleagues), then extended to the global context in collaboration with colleagues from 12 countries, and subsequently applied to a local context in the United States (New Orleans, my home community). The work was informed by the conceptual and methodological foundations described in the previous section, using the PCSIM to ensure the participation of local stakeholders and attention to variations in culture and context in generating and applying findings.

Conceptualizing Psychological Well-Being

The initial conceptual model that guided the study of children's psychological well-being (PWB) was informed by existing theory and research (Nastasi et al., 1998). Drawing on this context (cf. first phase of PCSIM, Fig. 2), we pro-

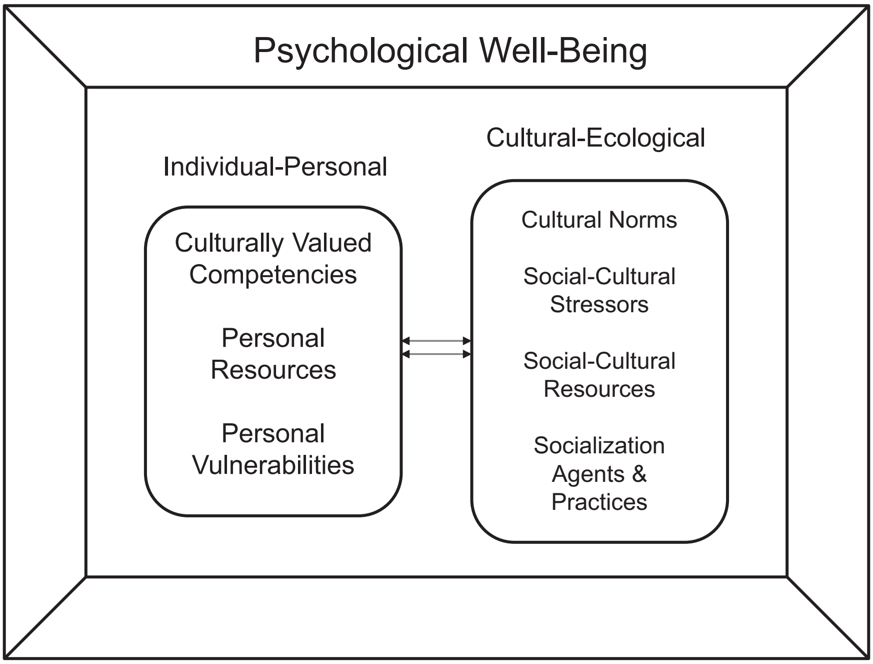

Fig. 3 Conceptual model of psychological well-being. The model depicts the interaction of two domains—individual-personal and cultural-ecological—and the respective factors that contribute to a child's psychological well-being. Developed in 1998 (Nastasi et al.), based on extant theory and research, this model has guided our study of children's psychological well-being in global and local contexts

posed that individual well-being and collective well-being were influenced by the interaction of individual-personal and cultural-ecological factors, consistent with the developmental-ecological foundations described in the previous section. The factors for the respective domains included the following (see Fig. 3). *Individual-personal domain* included three factors: (a) culturally valued competencies (e.g., intellectual, academic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, artistic, athletic), (b) personal resources (e.g., coping, problem solving, relationship skills, self-efficacy), and (c) personal vulnerabilities (e.g., disability, personal history, family history). *Cultural-ecological domain* included five factors: (a) cultural norms (e.g., those that influence gender roles and child–child or child–adult relationships), (b) social-cultural stressors (e.g., family or community violence, bullying, poverty, discrimination), (c) social-cultural resources (informal and formal social supports such as family, peers, school staff, religious community, mental health agencies), (d) socialization agents (e.g., parents, teachers, peers, media, religious clergy), and (e) socialization practices (e.g., education, modeling, discipline). Our study of psychological well-being has subsequently focused on understanding the meaning of these domains and their respective factors from the perspective of stakeholders across multiple developmental levels, contexts, and cultures.

Methodology

Our research methodology has involved the use of participatory, ethnographic, and mixed methods within the PCSIM process. Specifically, we have used ethnographic research in the early phases of PCSIM to learn the culture, facilitate relationship building with partners, and garner agreement about the purpose of data collection related to promoting psychological well-being. The general PWB model (described in the previous section and depicted in Fig. 3) framed our global research program in agreement with research partners. For local research projects, we employed the full PWB model for guiding research but subsequently negotiated specific objectives related to PWB with the local stakeholders (e.g., stress and coping, student behavioral problems). Furthermore, we were committed to a full understanding of local culture and context from the perspective of multiple stakeholders, including children, parents/caregivers, teachers, school/agency administrators, and community members and using multiple methods (interviews, observations, artifacts, archival data, surveys). For the purposes of this chapter, the focus is restricted to the collection of data that reflected child voices[3]: focus group interviews, ecomaps (drawings) with written or oral narratives, and small-group activities. These methods were designed to facilitate child participation in modes of expression that were developmentally, culturally, and contextually relevant. Although primarily qualitative, the data generated from these methods permitted some quantitative analyses. In the next section, the application of these methods is illustrated in global and local studies.

Global Application: Cross-Cultural Study

In 2006, school and educational psychologists convened at the annual International School Psychology Association (ISPA) conference to develop a research project that could span several countries (Nastasi & Borja, 2016b). Although the interest was in understanding child mental health cross-culturally, the decisions about purpose, constructs, and methods evolved from the group's consideration of several questions:

> How do we study children's mental health across multiple countries given the potential variations in worldviews and meaning across cultures and languages? Moreover, how do we engage in research without imposing "Western" definitions of mental health such as those generated in the USA? How do we avoid the use of the term "mental health" given potential negative connotations (and stigma) through association with the term "mental illness?" (Nastasi & Borja, 2016b, p. 1).

The outcome of deliberations was initiation of the Promoting Psychological Well-Being Globally Project (PPWBG), with the goal of understanding the common (universal) and unique (culture- and context-specific) perspectives about children's PWB. Some key decisions that influenced methodology included (a) using the term "psychological well-being" as the major construct; (b) adopting an ecological perspective, consistent with Bronfenbrenner's EST (1989, 1999; see Fig. 1); (c) employing qualitative research methods to capture cultural, contextual, and developmental variations in the definitions of PWB; (d) using data collection methods that could provide a standard protocol yet be adapted to local populations (cultures, languages, developmental levels); and (e) ensuring child participation to capture their perspectives and experiences (Nastasi & Borja, 2016b).

Methods The existing conceptual model of PWB (Nastasi et al., 1998; depicted in Fig. 3) was used to guide decisions about data collection and analysis. The research partners employed a standard set of procedures for recruitment and data collection (see Nastasi & Borja, 2016c). School and educational psychologists from 14 sites in 12 countries conducted data collection in their respective sites and were responsible for the translation of materials to local languages and the translation of data back to English for cross-site analysis. The 12 countries represented included Brazil, Estonia, Greece, India, Italy, Mexico, Romania, Russia, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, and the USA (three different sites in the US were included to represent different ethnic groups). The primary data collection methods for capturing *child voices* were focus groups and ecomaps.

Focus groups were conducted with small groups of children within a limited developmental range (e.g., ages 8–10) and, in some instances, same gender (all male, all female). The *focus group* protocol included a set of general questions (each with specific probes for details) designed to capture child perspectives and experiences related to the individual and cultural factors in the PWB model (see Nastasi & Borja, 2016c).

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[3] For a full description of methods, readers are encouraged to consult primary sources: Nastasi and Borja (2016c), Nastasi and Hitchcock (2016), Nastasi et al. (2004, 2012).

The *ecomaps* were administered in the context of small groups, though constructed individually. Children were instructed to draw their social network, which included themselves and important people in their lives. The open-ended nature of the task permitted individual variations in the composition of the networks (e.g., including family members, peers, classmates, teachers, neighbors). Children were then instructed to label the depicted relationships (e.g., child with parent, child with peer) as supportive (generating feelings such as comfort, happiness), stressful (generating feelings such as distress, anger, fear), or both supportive and stressful. Children were then asked to individually generate stories (orally or in writing) about a stressor and a supportive relationship. Ecomaps are a mixed method research tool that yields quantitative data about social network size, composition, and balance of stress and support and qualitative data about culturally valued competencies, stressors and supports, and reactions (emotional, cognitive, behavioral) to stress and support (Nastasi, Borja, & Summerville, 2018).

Both focus group and ecomap data were analyzed to identify themes related to the key factors depicted in the PWB conceptual model (Fig. 3), for example, culturally valued competencies, social-cultural stressors, personal and social-cultural resources, socialization agents and practices, cultural norms. Findings were reported separately by site (see site-specific chapters in Nastasi & Borja, 2016a) and, to depict common and unique patterns, across sites.

What we learned Cross-site analyses yielded data about common and unique constructions of PWB (see Borja, 2015; Borja, Nastasi, Adelson, & Siddiqui, 2016; Borja et al., 2017; Nastasi et al., 2018). For example, both focus groups and ecomaps revealed relationships as a primary source of social support (e.g., for responding to stress or adversity) across sites and developmental levels. Although most relationships (especially close relationships such as family, peers, teachers) were supportive, children identified stressors outside of close relationships from community members, school administrators, and others whom they depicted as posing threats to their psychological or physical safety.

Stressors in interpersonal relationships were described as threatening actions such as aggression, evaluations (especially critique) by others, and moods of others. Though less often cited, children also identified internal sources of stress such as failure, negative emotions, and physical illness or injury. Moreover, children identified the natural environment (e.g., climate related factors) as a potential source of stress. For example, children living in the Amazon rainforest region of Brazil reported stressors related to the impact of rainy weather such as restricted outdoor activity, flooded homes, and loss of electricity (Lizardi & Carregari, 2016). In our earlier research in the southern coastal province of Sri Lanka, students reported environmental stressors such as drought, floods, tsunamis, and monsoons (Nastasi, Jayasena, Summerville, & Borja, 2011).

The students' narratives yielded four major categories of support: relationship or interpersonal, degree of autonomy, achievement of competencies, and recreation or leisure activities. "Degree of autonomy" reflected the child's sense of agency in coping with stress, that is, relying on oneself for support. This category is not evident in extant theoretical models of social support, which are primarily based on research with adults (for further discussion, see Borja, 2015; Borja et al., 2016), and thus exemplifies the value of child voices for informing psychological theory.

Local Applications: Research to Inform Practice

Local application of child-rights-respecting research on psychological well-being is particularly critical for research and development related to promoting well-being. My own work in Sri Lanka and New Orleans has been focused on promoting PWB through developmentally, culturally, and contextually relevant programs, designed in partnership with local stakeholders. In each location, the process depicted in PCSIM guided the study of individual and cultural factors from the perspective of child and adult stakeholders. Using an ecological-developmental framework (Fig. 1), we centered on children (students) within schools with attention to the multiple levels of the ecological system. For example, in examining social-cultural stressors and resources, we were interested in those present within the classroom, school, community, family, peer group, and society, both currently and historically. Thus, our work required creating a broad ethnographic picture of children's ecologies through participant observations, interviews, and documentation or collection of artifacts (e.g., artwork and signs posted in schools) and archives (e.g., school records). This broader study of the ecology provided the frame for situating the information we gathered from stakeholders (e.g., students, teachers, administrators, community members, community agency staff, parents). In this way, we were able to create local models to inform the design, implementation, and evaluation of programming related to PWB. The specific goals, content, and strategies for programming were informed by the findings from this formative research phase in collaboration with stakeholders and subsequently adapted based on evaluation research during implementation. The following illustrations depict the role of child voices in informing research and action.

Sri Lanka

The research and development work in Sri Lanka spanned 20 years, beginning in 1990s, in collaboration with a local researcher and teacher educator (Professor Asoka Jayasena; see Nastasi et al., 1998; Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016). Our interest was in developing school-based programming to facilitate children's mental health (psychological well-being). Recognizing the limited knowledge base within the country and my limited understanding of the culture, we embarked on a study of child psychological well-being from the perspective of children, teachers, and school administrators.

Methods The methods of data collection included focus groups with adults and children guided by questions focused on the domains and respective factors depicted in our conceptual model of PWB (Fig. 3), participant observation in schools and communities, collection of relevant documents (e.g., educational policies, national and local statistics) and artifacts (messages displayed on school walls, media messages about mental health), and interviews with key informants (e.g., school administrators, provincial ministers of education, medical and mental health professionals). The primary sources of child voices were (a) 33 focus groups with students (grades 7–12) from 18 schools in the Central Province (formative research) and (b) ecomaps and narratives (graphic, written, oral) depicting real-life stressors, supports, and coping in the context of an 18-session intervention conducted with 120 students in one school (evaluation research) (see Nastasi et al., 2010; Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016). A later phase of our work focused on the adaptation of the intervention to address long-term posttsunami well-being of students in grades 5–9 in a school in the Southern Province (Nastasi et al., 2011). Ecomaps and narratives created by students during the ten-session intervention yielded data about tsunami and nontsunami stressors and children's capacities for coping with these stressors individually and collectively.

What we learned To illustrate the power of child voices, we provide examples of lessons we learned that informed both subsequent action and research. In our initial work (1990s), as we were piloting intervention strategies, we quickly realized that methods common in the United States (e.g., activities focusing inwardly on the "self") were not relevant to the students in Sri Lanka (Nastasi et al., 2010). Indeed, even teachers were confused by attempts to talk about or depict the *self*. Sri Lanka children instead were focused on the *self in relationship* to other people, consistent with a collectivist culture. What we discovered is that children easily expressed themselves using the ecomap drawings and related descriptions of and narratives about stressful and supportive experiences. The ecomap drawing provided a stimulus for talking (or writing or drawing or role playing) about their experiences and provided an important window into the perspectives and experiences of these students. In the context of the interventions, for example, we asked students to identify a common stressor from their individual ecomaps (e.g., peer conflict, family violence) and create stories (based on collective or hypothetical experiences) about the stressor and alternative solutions for coping and subsequently present their stories to classmates using their preferred mode of expression. Students presented stories through writing, recitation (reading aloud), drawing, role play, or some combination. For example, one child might draw the story while another wrote the narrative and others presented the story through a role play. The freedom to choose the mode of expression provided opportunities for different members within a group to capitalize on their preferred mode and contribute in a meaningful way. The data provided by students' intervention products also enhanced our understanding of developmentally, culturally, and contextually relevant stressors, supports, related problems, and coping strategies. These experiences reinforced for us, as researchers and interventions, the importance of promoting child voice and providing multiple modes for expressing children's voices.

The posttsunami intervention, conducted 15–18 months after the December 2004 tsunami, provided another unique opportunity to learn from children's voices (Nastasi et al., 2011). We structured the intervention so that the students (grades 5–9) were able to choose the stressful experiences they wanted to consider and provided opportunities to talk about experiences[4] directly related to tsunami and current nontsunami stressors (these latter stressors proved to coincide with developmentally relevant stressors we found in previous work with the general population in Sri Lanka, Nastasi et al., 2010). We found that some activities were more likely to elicit discussion of tsunami experiences, for example, (a) sessions that focused on developing feelings vocabulary (elicited discussion of tsunami in relationship to *fear)*, (b) sessions that asked students to identify environmental stressors such as climate (elicited discussion of tsunami impact and experiences), and (c) sessions focused on family stressors (elicited discussion of family loss). In contrast, sessions focused on peer group and school were more likely to elicit discussion about interpersonal stressors, consistent with our general findings in cross-cultural work (e.g., Borja et al., 2017). The student focus on developmentally relevant stressors in the context of peer group and school was not surprising as the community attempted to reconvene schooling as quickly as possible to transition children back to normal routines and the social network of teachers and peers (see Nastasi et al., 2011).

New Orleans

Since 2009, our local research team (including doctoral- and bachelor-level students from Tulane University) has engaged in participatory action research with several local schools (see Bell et al., 2015; Bell, Verlenden, Swift, Henderson, & Nastasi, 2016; Bell, Larrazolo, & Nastasi, 2017). When we started, schools were in early stages of development following 2005 Hurricane Katrina, with primary attention given to curriculum and instruction and students' academic performance. Consequently, resources and programming related to mental health and psychological well-being (social, emotional, behavioral domains) were minimal or nonexistent. Using PCSIM, we partnered with administrators, support staff (when available, counselors, school psychologists, social workers, behavioral interventionists), teachers, and parents to promote the development and evaluation of comprehensive school-based mental health programming. The use of PCSIM enabled tailoring of program development to unique cultural and contextual needs of each school and continuous monitoring and adaptation as changes occurred in identified needs, school staffing, and priorities. The subsections that follow focus on the methods for formative data collection to facilitate program design (and subsequently for monitoring, adaptation, and evaluation) and lessons we learned from this process. (A full articulation of our work with two of the schools can be found in publications by the team; see Bell et al., 2015; Bell et al., 2016; Bell et al., 2017.)

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[4] The intervention was structured to provide opportunities for students to identify stressors, sources of support, and strategies for reducing or coping with stress.

Methods To facilitate learning about the culture and context and, subsequently, gathering data related to goal setting, we employed ethnographic mixed methods. We engaged in participant observation, key informant interviews (e.g., key administrators, parents, staff), focus group (teachers, parents, students) and individual (support staff, administrators) interviews, reviewing school record data (e.g., about behavioral infractions), and examining school policy. The specific focus of data collection was negotiated with the school stakeholders based on identified needs and educational priorities. For example, focus group interviews could address general or specific psychological well-being needs (Bell et al., 2015; Bell et al., 2016; Bell et al., 2017). The targeted needs could also change over time, for example, progressing from comprehensive programming and universal mental health screening to a more specific focus on behavioral problems and related interventions. Noteworthy throughout the process in each setting was attention to different voices, including those of students.

In one school, we conducted focus groups and ecomaps with students in kindergarten to grade 2 (Bell et al., 2015; Bell et al., 2016). This required a modification of our standard protocols used previously with older students, structuring the ecomap into multiple steps and across multiple sessions and simplifying instructions and questions to meet developmental (cognitive, language, behavioral) needs.

What we learned The focus groups and ecomaps provided the children's perspective on culturally valued competencies, stressors, and support and related reactions (Bell et al., 2016). For example, across the three grade levels (K-2, typically ages five to seven) in one school, students agreed on the following culturally valued competences: following classroom rules, earning positive (and avoiding negative) consequences for behavior, respecting and helping others (classmates, peers), obeying adults, and inhibiting aggression. The stressors identified at all three grade levels included aggression (peer, domestic), harsh punishment (e.g., corporal punishment such as "whoopings," p. 285), and perceived "meanness" from adults (p. 279). By grade 1, students identified neighborhood crime and violence as a stressor. Furthermore, students described both adaptive and nonadaptive reactions to stressors, including seeking help, using self-calming techniques, avoidance, and aggression. The aggressive behaviors included fighting, "kicking chairs," "punching the wall," and name calling (p. 282); these behaviors typically also resulted in negative consequences in the classroom and potential referral to the behavioral interventionist. This finding was critical in our follow-up discussions with teachers and administrators as it provided insights into the reasons for "misbehavior" and raised questions about how to best respond given the potential underlying stress.

In the second school, data collection with students focused on anger regulation, which was identified as a primary concern by school stakeholders (Bell et al., 2017). The researchers then conducted focus groups with students in kindergarten through grade 7, identified by teachers as representing the range of emotional regulation skills (i.e., poor to excellent anger regulation). Analysis of focus group data yielded information about contextual triggers and risk and protective factors across the children's ecology (e.g., school, home, peer group). The findings reflected the perspectives and experiences of students and provided important insights for subsequent program planning.

Our experiences in the local schools confirmed for us the importance of including child voices, along with those of teachers, parents, and other adults. Moreover, the representation of child voices to the decision makers (e.g., school administrators) was critical to facilitating changes in practice and policies to better support child well-being. To further the representation of child voice, Bell et al. (2017) included a student representative (seventh grader) on the school's decision-making (action) team. The inclusion of students on such teams, especially at the elementary level, is uncommon in this school culture and thus requires negotiation with the adult stakeholders, as well as preparation of the student for effective participation. These efforts illustrate the potential role of school psychologists (as consultants and/or researchers) in advocating for child participation rights.

Summary and Conclusion

This chapter began with a consideration of the following questions that subsequently guided research over the past two decades: *how do we best examine the psychological well-being of children across cultural boundaries within and between countries? How do we develop a universal understanding of child well-being while honoring diverse developmental levels, cultures, and contexts? What models of psychological well-being best represent children across the globe?* The conceptual and methodological foundations presented herein can help frame future cross-cultural and rights-respecting research focused on child well-being as we seek answers to these questions about both global and local levels.

In an earlier section, we discussed the importance of reframing our beliefs about children's competencies in order to honor and gain access to their voices—specifically, to recognize their capacity for knowing, for acting on behalf of themselves and their peers, and for teaching us (see also Bromstrom, 2012; Keat et al., 2009; Murris, 2013; Nastasi, 2014). The research highlighted in this chapter exemplifies the value of child-rights-respecting research for conducting research across cultures and contexts. Using activities to facilitate individual and collective narratives, we were able to demonstrate the capacity of children across multiple cultures and contexts to express their thoughts, feelings, and experiences; to tell us what they have learned from life experiences; and to teach us about their worlds. For example, ecomaps (individually generated social networks) provided us with depictions of children's social worlds (e.g., who was important to them, sources of stress and support within natural context) and provided stimuli for accessing child narratives about stressful and supportive experiences within context (e.g., reactions to stress/support, coping strategies). These data collection methods proved useful for informing research and theory, for example, challenging existing conceptualizations of support (e.g., Borja et al., 2017) and facilitating understanding of the self within relationships (e.g., Nastasi et al., 2010). These methods also proved useful for informing school practice and policy, for example, providing opportunities for students to convey their perspectives on risk and protective factors related to anger regulation and thus inform about school program development (e.g., Bell et al., 2017). This work demonstrates the potential contributions of child-rights-respective research methods to enhancing our understanding of child development and well-being and to informing practice and policy across diverse settings. Above all, we learned that children can tell us what they experience and how they think and feel about those experiences.

A critical closing question concerns the professional development of researchers: *what competencies are necessary for engaging in child rights-respecting cross-cultural research?* Nastasi (2017) proposed a redefinition of cultural competence models for engaging in global and local research and development using a co-construction process, as described herein. The model integrates

> (a) the concept of *intercultural competence* (Friedman & Berthoin Antal, 2005; Nastasi, Schensul, et al., 2015) characterized by negotiation of perspectives; (b) *culturally sensitive research methods*, characterized by mixed qualitative-quantitative methods (D'Augelli, 2003; Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016); and (c) *rights-respecting research* (Alderson, 2012; Nastasi, 2014), informed by United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989; Nastasi, 2017, p. 207; italics added for emphasis).

The development of these competencies among researchers (and practitioners) is likely to necessitate transforming current models for preparing psychologists and rethinking what we mean by "cultural competence," what constitutes the "paradigm" for psychology research (is it quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods?), and how we integrate child and human rights principles into our current ethical standards (e.g., see Nastasi & Naser, 2014).

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Child Rights and School Psychology: Concluding Thoughts

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Abstract

This chapter provides an overview and conclusions for the handbook. Readers are reminded that child rights advocacy can be accomplished through the work of professional organizations at international and national levels, as well as individual school and educational psychologists, as they engage in research, practice, training, and policy at the local level. Reflecting the words of Malala Yousafzia (I am Malala. Little Brown, New York, NY, 2013), the authors remind school psychologists of their key role as a "mesosystem" for promoting and protecting child rights through their connections with key stakeholders (e.g., parents, teachers, community members, and children themselves) across the child's ecological systems.

> I wrote it for every person around the world who could make a difference. I wanted to reach all people living in poverty, those children forced to work and those who suffer from terrorism or lack of education.

> Deep in my heart, I hoped to reach every child who could take courage from my words and stand up for his or her rights (Yousafzia, 2013, pp. 300–301).

These are the words of Malala Yousafzia, as she prepared to speak to the United Nations on her 16th birthday. She exemplified the ultimate sacrifice in standing up for her rights, and in so doing, she serves as an inspiration for children, youth, and adults worldwide. Her words reflect our sentiments in orchestrating this volume. This book is a work of love for the editors, and we assume for all the contributors. Our hope is that school and educational psychologists (and related school professionals) across the globe can take inspiration from the words of the contributors as they attempt to engage in child rights advocacy within their respective roles and local communities. As reflected in chapter "Role of School Psychology Professional Organizations in Promoting and Protecting Child Rights" (Nastasi, diPerna, Strobach, Rossen, & Brock, this volume), school psychologists throughout the world, exemplified by the work of the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) and national professional organizations (e.g., in the United States: the American Psychological Association (APA) and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP)), have been engaged in efforts to promote and protect the rights of the child. Indeed, child rights are at the heart of the mission and values of school psychology (see the ISPA mission statement, ispaweb.org, and NASP

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child rights position statement, https://www.nasponline.org/x26813.xml) and help to frame much of its work. Although organizations can help to facilitate child rights advocacy through their standards (ethics, practice, training) and policy work at national and international levels, it is ultimately the work of individual school and educational psychologists to ensure the rights of every child within their own local communities. As we have suggested throughout this volume, the work of professionals can occur in the context of *practice* with individuals and systems (see Part II, chapters "The Roles and Responsibilities of the School Psychologist in Promoting Child Rights", "Promoting and Protecting Child Rights in the Daily Practice of School Psychology", "A Child Rights Framework for Educational System Reform", and "Accountability for Child Rights by School Psychology" and Part IV, chapters "Application of Child Rights to School-Based Consultation", "The Counseling Field and the Rights of the Child", "Convention on the Rights of the Child and School-based Intervention Programming", "Building School and Community Capacity for Development of the Rights of the Child", "Promoting Children's Rights Through School Leadership: Implications for School Psychologists", and "Child Rights, Disability, School & Educational Psychology, and Inclusive Education", this volume); *training* (e.g., university faculty) in the context of preservice training and continuing professional development (see chapter "Professional Development of School Psychologists as Child Rights Advocates" this volume); *research* in the context of research and evaluation (see chapters "Combining Ecological Systems Theory and Child Rights to Improve Research and Evaluation" and "Applying Child Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples"), and *policy and advocacy* (see chapters "Child Rights, Policy, & School Psychology" and "Child Rights Advocacy for School Psychologists"). This volume is intended to serve as a resource for the preparation and continuing professional development of school/educational psychologists engaged in education/training, research, practice, and policy and advocacy work. The chapters in this volume provide background on the Convention (chapters "Child Rights and School Psychology: A Context of Meaning" and "Status of Child Rights in the International Community", this volume), the relationship between child rights and social justice (chapter "Child Rights, Social Justice, & Professional Ethics"), the conceptual foundations for school psychology (chapter "Conceptual Foundations for School Psychology & Child Rights Advocacy"), and guidance for those engaged in the promotion of specific rights themes and principles (Part III, chapters "Child Well Being and Children's Rights: Balancing Positive and Negative Indicators in Assessments", "Promoting Healthy Child Development: A Child Rights Perspective", "The Child's Rights to Physical Health", "Promoting Children's Mental Health in Schools: A Child's Rights Framework", "Child Protection: A Child Rights Approach for Schools", "Child Participation and Agency and School Psychology", "Preparing Children for Responsible Citizenship: The Role of Psychology and Education", "Influences and Opportunities of Culture", "The Child's Right to a Spiritual Life", "The Child's Right to Quality Education and the School Psychologist", "Article 31: Play, Leisure, & Recreation", "Child Rights & Economic Status", "The Promotion of Family Support", and "Respecting the Rights of the Child in Sports: Not an Option"). Finally, the concluding section of the book (Part V, chapters "Toward a Preferred Future for School Psychology", "Promoting Child Rights Through Use of Technology in the Classroom", and "Applying Child Rights-Respecting Research to the Study of Psychological Well-Being: Global and Local Examples") in particular, as well as individual chapters, promotes and provides guidance for a future of ever-increasing contributions by school psychology to advance child rights. To facilitate the understanding, appreciation, and application of the material presented by our authors, we provide a copy of the full text of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN General Assemb1y, 1989) and

UN Optional Protocols in the Appendix of this volume.[1]

The journey toward the development of this volume began a decade ago, when the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) embarked on a collaboration with the Child Rights Education for Professionals Program (CRED-PRO) of the International Institute for Child Rights and Development (IICRD) and Tulane University's School Psychology Program and, subsequently, with the School Psychology Division (Division 16) of the American Psychological Association and Cleveland State University School Psychology Program. This collaboration was focused on developing training materials for school and educational psychologists and exploring the role of the respective organizations and their members in child rights advocacy. As noted above, that work culminated in the development of a curriculum for preservice and in-service training (These training materials are available in a training manual which is a resource to this volume provided online at no charge by the publisher.) and a set of self-study modules (available from the first author) and, subsequently, in the creation of this volume.

We hope that all school psychologists will be inspired by the values, knowledge, and guidance embodied in this international handbook to make a difference in the lives of each child and to join Malala (Yousafzia, 2013) in helping all children appreciate, stand up for, and achieve their rights. As we have addressed throughout the book, school psychologists are in a prime position to become a "mesosystem" for child rights and partner with key players across the child's ecological systems, including the child, in promoting and protecting children's rights.

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United Nations (UN). (1989). *Convention on the rights of the child* Available: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm

Yousafzia, M. (2013). *I am Malala*. New York, NY: Little Brown.

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[1] And an accompanying online resource that provides a training manual for implementing a curriculum for preparing school psychologists in child rights advocacy.

Appendices: UN Convention Articles & Optional Protocols

Convention Articles

UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (full text; adopted November 20, 1989; downloaded from https://www.unicef.org/sites/default/files/2019-04/UN-Convention-Rights-Childtext.pdf)

Convention on the Rights of the Child

Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989 entry into force 2 September 1990, in accordance with article 49

Preamble

The States Parties to the present Convention,

Considering that, in accordance with the principles proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations, recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Bearing in mind that the peoples of the United Nations have, in the Charter, reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights and in the dignity and worth of the human person, and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Recognizing that the United Nations has, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the International Covenants on Human Rights, proclaimed and agreed that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status,

Recalling that, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the United Nations has proclaimed that childhood is entitled to special care and assistance,

Convinced that the family, as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members and particularly children, should be afforded the necessary protection and assistance so that it can fully assume its responsibilities within the community,

Recognizing that the child, for the full and harmonious development of his or her personality, should grow up in a family environment, in an atmosphere of happiness, love and understanding,

Considering that the child should be fully prepared to live an individual life in society, and brought up in the spirit of the ideals proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations, and in particular in the spirit of peace, dignity, tolerance, freedom, equality and solidarity,

Bearing in mind that the need to extend particular care to the child has been stated in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924 and in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child adopted by the General Assembly on 20 November 1959 and recognized in the

Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (in particular in articles 23 and 24), in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and

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Cultural Rights (in particular in article 10) and in the statutes and relevant instruments of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children,

Bearing in mind that, as indicated in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, "the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth",

Recalling the provisions of the Declaration on Social and Legal Principles relating to the Protection and Welfare of Children, with Special Reference to Foster Placement and Adoption Nationally and Internationally; the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (The Beijing Rules); and the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict, Recognizing that, in all countries in the world, there are children living in exceptionally difficult conditions, and that such children need special consideration,

Taking due account of the importance of the traditions and cultural values of each people for the protection and harmonious development of the child, Recognizing the importance of international co-operation for improving the living conditions of children in every country, in particular in the developing countries,

Have agreed as follows:

PART I

Article 1

For the purposes of the present Convention, a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier.

Article 2

1. States Parties shall respect and ensure the rights set forth in the present Convention to each child within their jurisdiction without discrimination of any kind, irrespective of the child’s or his or her parent’s or legal guardian’s race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status.
2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that the child is protected against all forms of discrimination or punishment on the basis of the status, activities, expressed opinions, or beliefs of the child’s parents, legal guardians, or family members.

Article 3

1. In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.
2. States Parties undertake to ensure the child such protection and care as is necessary for his or her well-being, taking into account the rights and duties of his or her parents, legal guardians, or other individuals legally responsible for him or her, and, to this end, shall take all appropriate legislative and administrative measures.
3. States Parties shall ensure that the institutions, services and facilities responsible for the care or protection of children shall conform with the standards established by competent authorities, particularly in the areas of safety, health, in the number and suitability of their staff, as well as competent supervision.

Article 4

States Parties shall undertake all appropriate legislative, administrative, and other measures for the implementation of the rights recognized in the present Convention. With regard to economic, social and cultural rights, States Parties shall undertake such measures to the maximum extent of their available resources and, where needed, within the framework of international co-operation.

Article 5

States Parties shall respect the responsibilities, rights and duties of parents or, where applicable, the members of the extended family or community as provided for by local custom, legal guardians or other persons legally responsible for the child, to provide, in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child, appropriate direction and guidance in the exercise by the child of the rights recognized in the present Convention.

Article 6

1. States Parties recognize that every child has the inherent right to life.
2. States Parties shall ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child.

Article 7

1. The child shall be registered immediately after birth and shall have the right from birth to a name, the right to acquire a nationality and. as far as possible, the right to know and be cared for by his or her parents.
2. States Parties shall ensure the implementation of these rights in accordance with their national law and their obligations under the relevant international instruments in this field, in particular where the child would otherwise be stateless.

Article 8

1. States Parties undertake to respect the right of the child to preserve his or her identity, including nationality, name and family relations as recognized by law without unlawful interference.
2. Where a child is illegally deprived of some or all of the elements of his or her identity,

States Parties shall provide appropriate assistance and protection, with a view to re-establishing speedily his or her identity.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall ensure that a child shall not be separated from his or her parents against their will, except when competent authorities subject to judicial review determine, in accordance with applicable law and procedures, that such separation is necessary for the best interests of the child. Such determination may be necessary in a particular case such as one involving abuse or neglect of the child by the parents, or one where the parents are living separately and a decision must be made as to the child's place of residence.
2. In any proceedings pursuant to paragraph 1 of the present article, all interested parties shall be given an opportunity to participate in the proceedings and make their views known.
3. States Parties shall respect the right of the child who is separated from one or both parents to maintain personal relations and direct contact with both parents on a regular basis, except if it is contrary to the child's best interests.
4. Where such separation results from any action initiated by a State Party, such as the detention, imprisonment, exile, deportation or death (including death arising from any cause while the person is in the custody of the State) of one or both parents or of the child, that State Party shall, upon request, provide the parents, the child or, if appropriate, another member of the family with the essential information concerning the whereabouts of the absent member(s) of the family unless the provision of the information would be detrimental to the well-being of the child. States Parties shall further ensure that the submission of such a request shall of itself entail no adverse consequences for the person(s) concerned.

Article 10

1. In accordance with the obligation of States Parties under article 9, paragraph 1, applications by a child or his or her parents to enter or leave a State Party for the purpose of family reunification shall be dealt with by States Parties in a positive, humane and expeditious manner. States Parties shall further ensure that the submission of such a request shall entail no adverse consequences for the applicants and for the members of their family.
2. A child whose parents reside in different States shall have the right to maintain on a regular basis, save in exceptional circumstances personal relations and direct contacts with both parents. Towards that end and in accordance with the obligation of States

Parties under article 9, paragraph 1, States Parties shall respect the right of the child and his or her parents to leave any country, including their own, and to enter their own country. The right to leave any country shall be subject only to such restrictions as are prescribed by law and which are necessary to protect the national security, public order (ordre public), public health or morals or the rights and freedoms of others and are consistent with the other rights recognized in the present Convention.

Article 11

1. States Parties shall take measures to combat the illicit transfer and non-return of children abroad.
2. To this end, States Parties shall promote the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral agreements or accession to existing agreements.

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.
2. For this purpose, the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law.

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.
2. The exercise of this right may be subject to certain restrictions, but these shall only be such as are provided by law and are necessary:
   (a) For respect of the rights or reputations of others; or
   (b) For the protection of national security or of public order (ordre public), or of public health or morals.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall respect the right of the child to freedom of thought, conscience and religion.
2. States Parties shall respect the rights and duties of the parents and, when applicable, legal guardians, to provide direction to the child in the exercise of his or her right in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child.
3. Freedom to manifest one's religion or beliefs may be subject only to such limitations as are prescribed by law and are necessary to protect public safety, order, health or morals, or the fundamental rights and freedoms of others.

Article 15

1. States Parties recognize the rights of the child to freedom of association and to freedom of peaceful assembly.
2. No restrictions may be placed on the exercise of these rights other than those imposed in conformity with the law and which are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security or public safety, public order (ordre public), the protection of public health or morals or the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.

Article 16

1. No child shall be subjected to arbitrary or unlawful interference with his or her privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to unlawful attacks on his or her honour and reputation.
2. The child has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 17

States Parties recognize the important function performed by the mass media and shall ensure that the child has access to information and material from a diversity of national and international sources, especially those aimed at the promotion of his or her social, spiritual and moral well-being and physical and mental health.

To this end, States Parties shall:

(a) Encourage the mass media to disseminate information and material of social and cultural benefit to the child and in accordance with the spirit of article 29;
(b) Encourage international co-operation in the production, exchange and dissemination of such information and material from a diversity of cultural, national and international sources;
(c) Encourage the production and dissemination of children's books;
(d) Encourage the mass media to have particular regard to the linguistic needs of the child who belongs to a minority group or who is indigenous;
(e) Encourage the development of appropriate guidelines for the protection of the child from information and material injurious to his or her well-being, bearing in mind the provisions of articles 13 and 18.

Article 18

1. States Parties shall use their best efforts to ensure recognition of the principle that both parents have common responsibilities for the upbringing and development of the child. Parents or, as the case may be, legal guardians, have the primary responsibility for the upbringing and development of the child. The best interests of the child will be their basic concern.
2. For the purpose of guaranteeing and promoting the rights set forth in the present Convention, States Parties shall render appropriate assistance to parents and legal guardians in the performance of their child-rearing responsibilities and shall ensure the development of institutions, facilities and services for the care of children.
3. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that children of working parents have the right to benefit from child-care services and facilities for which they are eligible.

Article 19

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child.
2. Such protective measures should, as appropriate, include effective procedures for the establishment of social programmes to provide necessary support for the child and for those who have the care of the child, as well as for other forms of prevention and for identification, reporting, referral, investigation, treatment and follow-up of instances of child maltreatment described heretofore, and, as appropriate, for judicial involvement.

Article 20

1. A child temporarily or permanently deprived of his or her family environment, or in whose own best interests cannot be allowed to remain in that environment, shall be entitled to special protection and assistance provided by the State.
2. States Parties shall in accordance with their national laws ensure alternative care for such a child.
3. Such care could include, inter alia, foster placement, kafalah of Islamic law, adoption or if necessary placement in suitable institutions for the care of children. When considering solutions, due regard shall be paid to the desirability of continuity in a child's upbringing and to the child's ethnic, religious, cultural and linguistic background.

Article 21

States Parties that recognize and/or permit the system of adoption shall ensure that the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration and they shall:

(a) Ensure that the adoption of a child is authorized only by competent authorities who determine, in accordance with applicable law and procedures and on the basis of all pertinent and reliable information, that the adoption is permissible in view of the child's status concerning parents, relatives and legal guardians and that, if required, the persons concerned have given their informed consent to the adoption on the basis of such counselling as may be necessary;

(b) Recognize that inter-country adoption may be considered as an alternative means of child's care, if the child cannot be placed in a foster or an adoptive family or cannot in any suitable manner be cared for in the child's country of origin;

(c) Ensure that the child concerned by inter-country adoption enjoys safeguards and standards equivalent to those existing in the case of national adoption;

(d) Take all appropriate measures to ensure that, in inter-country adoption, the placement does not result in improper financial gain for those involved in it;

(e) Promote, where appropriate, the objectives of the present article by concluding bilateral or multilateral arrangements or agreements, and endeavour, within this framework, to ensure that the placement of the child in another country is carried out by competent authorities or organs.

Article 22

1. States Parties shall take appropriate measures to ensure that a child who is seeking refugee status or who is considered a refugee in accordance with applicable international or domestic law and procedures shall, whether unaccompanied or accompanied by his or her parents or by any other person, receive appropriate protection and humanitarian assistance in the enjoyment of applicable rights set forth in the present Convention and in other international human rights or humanitarian instruments to which the said States are Parties.
2. For this purpose, States Parties shall provide, as they consider appropriate, co-operation in any efforts by the United Nations and other competent intergovernmental organizations or non-governmental organizations co-operating with the United Nations to protect and assist such a child and to trace the parents or other members of the family of any refugee child in order to obtain information necessary for reunification with his or her family. In cases where no parents or other members of the family can be found, the child shall be accorded the same protection as any other child permanently or temporarily deprived of his or her family environment for any reason, as set forth in the present Convention.

Article 23

1. States Parties recognize that a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community.
2. States Parties recognize the right of the disabled child to special care and shall encourage and ensure the extension, subject to available resources, to the eligible child and those responsible for his or her care, of assistance for which application is made and which is appropriate to the child's condition and to the circumstances of the parents or others caring for the child.
3. Recognizing the special needs of a disabled child, assistance extended in accordance with paragraph 2 of the present article shall be provided free of charge, whenever possible, taking into account the financial resources of the parents or others caring for the child, and shall be designed to ensure that the disabled child has effective access to and receives education, training, health care services, rehabilitation services, preparation for employment and recreation opportunities in a manner conducive to the child's achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development, including his or her cultural and spiritual development
4. States Parties shall promote, in the spirit of international cooperation, the exchange of appropriate information in the field of preventive health care and of medical, psychological

and functional treatment of disabled children, including dissemination of and access to information concerning methods of rehabilitation, education and vocational services, with the aim of enabling States Parties to improve their capabilities and skills and to widen their experience in these areas. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 24

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health and to facilities for the treatment of illness and rehabilitation of health. States Parties shall strive to ensure that no child is deprived of his or her right of access to such health care services.
2. States Parties shall pursue full implementation of this right and, in particular, shall take appropriate measures:
   (a) To diminish infant and child mortality;
   (b) To ensure the provision of necessary medical assistance and health care to all children with emphasis on the development of primary health care;
   (c) To combat disease and malnutrition, including within the framework of primary health care, through, inter alia, the application of readily available technology and through the provision of adequate nutritious foods and clean drinking-water, taking into consideration the dangers and risks of environmental pollution;
   (d) To ensure appropriate pre-natal and post-natal health care for mothers;
   (e) To ensure that all segments of society, in particular parents and children, are informed, have access to education and are supported in the use of basic knowledge of child health and nutrition, the advantages of breastfeeding, hygiene and environmental sanitation and the prevention of accidents;
   (f) To develop preventive health care, guidance for parents and family planning education and services.
3. States Parties shall take all effective and appropriate measures with a view to abolishing traditional practices prejudicial to the health of children.
4. States Parties undertake to promote and encourage international co-operation with a view to achieving progressively the full realization of the right recognized in the present article. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 25

States Parties recognize the right of a child who has been placed by the competent authorities for the purposes of care, protection or treatment of his or her physical or mental health, to a periodic review of the treatment provided to the child and all other circumstances relevant to his or her placement.

Article 26

1. States Parties shall recognize for every child the right to benefit from social security, including social insurance, and shall take the necessary measures to achieve the full realization of this right in accordance with their national law.
2. The benefits should, where appropriate, be granted, taking into account the resources and the circumstances of the child and persons having responsibility for the maintenance of the child, as well as any other consideration relevant to an application for benefits made by or on behalf of the child.

Article 27

1. States Parties recognize the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child’s physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development.
2. The parent(s) or others responsible for the child have the primary responsibility to secure, within their abilities and financial capacities, the conditions of living necessary for the child’s development.
3. States Parties, in accordance with national conditions and within their means, shall take appropriate measures to assist parents and others responsible for the child to implement this right and shall in case of need provide

material assistance and support programmes, particularly with regard to nutrition, clothing and housing.

4. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to secure the recovery of maintenance for the child from the parents or other persons having financial responsibility for the child, both within the State Party and from abroad. In particular, where the person having financial responsibility for the child lives in a State different from that of the child, States Parties shall promote the accession to international agreements or the conclusion of such agreements, as well as the making of other appropriate arrangements.

Article 28

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:
   (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
   (b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
   (c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;
   (d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
   (e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.
2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.
3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international cooperation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 29

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:
   (a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
   (b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
   (c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;
   (d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
   (e) The development of respect for the natural environment.
2. No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principle set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

Article 30

In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities or persons of indigenous origin exist, a child belonging to such a minority or who is indigenous shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group, to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practise his or her own religion, or to use his or her own language.

Article 31

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts.
2. States Parties shall respect and promote the right of the child to participate fully in cultural and artistic life and shall encourage the provision of appropriate and equal opportunities for cultural, artistic, recreational and leisure activity.

Article 32

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.
2. States Parties shall take legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to ensure the implementation of the present article. To this end, and having regard to the relevant provisions of other international instruments, States Parties shall in particular:
   (a) Provide for a minimum age or minimum ages for admission to employment;
   (b) Provide for appropriate regulation of the hours and conditions of employment;
   (c) Provide for appropriate penalties or other sanctions to ensure the effective enforcement of the present article.

Article 33

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislative, administrative, social and educational measures, to protect children from the illicit use of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances as defined in the relevant international treaties, and to prevent the use of children in the illicit production and trafficking of such substances.

Article 34

States Parties undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. For these purposes, States Parties shall in particular take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent:

(a) The inducement or coercion of a child to engage in any unlawful sexual activity;
(b) The exploitative use of children in prostitution or other unlawful sexual practices;
(c) The exploitative use of children in pornographic performances and materials.

Article 35

States Parties shall take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent the abduction of, the sale of or traffic in children for any purpose or in any form.

Article 36

States Parties shall protect the child against all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child's welfare.

Article 37

States Parties shall ensure that:

(a) No child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Neither capital punishment nor life imprisonment without possibility of release shall be imposed for offences committed by persons below eighteen years of age;
(b) No child shall be deprived of his or her liberty unlawfully or arbitrarily. The arrest, detention or imprisonment of a child shall be in conformity with the law and shall be used only as a measure of last resort and for the shortest appropriate period of time;
(c) Every child deprived of liberty shall be treated with humanity and respect for the inherent dignity of the human person, and in a manner which takes into account the needs of persons of his or her age. In particular, every child deprived of liberty shall be separated from adults unless it is considered in

the child's best interest not to do so and shall have the right to maintain contact with his or her family through correspondence and visits, save in exceptional circumstances;

(d) Every child deprived of his or her liberty shall have the right to prompt access to legal and other appropriate assistance, as well as the right to challenge the legality of the deprivation of his or her liberty before a court or other competent, independent and impartial authority, and to a prompt decision on any such action.

Article 38

1. States Parties undertake to respect and to ensure respect for rules of international humanitarian law applicable to them in armed conflicts which are relevant to the child.
2. States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure that persons who have not attained the age of fifteen years do not take a direct part in hostilities.
3. States Parties shall refrain from recruiting any person who has not attained the age of fifteen years into their armed forces. In recruiting among those persons who have attained the age of fifteen years but who have not attained the age of eighteen years, States Parties shall endeavour to give priority to those who are oldest.
4. In accordance with their obligations under international humanitarian law to protect the civilian population in armed conflicts, States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure protection and care of children who are affected by an armed conflict.

Article 39

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration of a child victim of: any form of neglect, exploitation, or abuse; torture or any other form of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; or armed conflicts. Such recovery and reintegration shall take place in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect and dignity of the child.

Article 40

1. States Parties recognize the right of every child alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law to be treated in a manner consistent with the promotion of the child's sense of dignity and worth, which reinforces the child's respect for the human rights and fundamental freedoms of others and which takes into account the child's age and the desirability of promoting the child's reintegration and the child's assuming a constructive role in society.
2. To this end, and having regard to the relevant provisions of international instruments, States Parties shall, in particular, ensure that:
   (a) No child shall be alleged as, be accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law by reason of acts or omissions that were not prohibited by national or international law at the time they were committed;
   (b) Every child alleged as or accused of having infringed the penal law has at least the following guarantees:
      (i)To be presumed innocent until proven guilty according to law;
      (ii)To be informed promptly and directly of the charges against him or her, and, if appropriate, through his or her parents or legal guardians, and to have legal or other appropriate assistance in the preparation and presentation of his or her defence;
      (iii)To have the matter determined without delay by a competent, independent and impartial authority or judicial body in a fair hearing according to law, in the presence of legal or other appropriate assistance and, unless it is considered not to be in the best interest of the child, in particular, taking into account his or her age or situation, his or her parents or legal guardians;
      (iv)Not to be compelled to give testimony or to confess guilt; to examine or have examined adverse witnesses and to obtain the partici-

pation and examination of witnesses on his or her behalf under conditions of equality;

(v)If considered to have infringed the penal law, to have this decision and any measures imposed in consequence thereof reviewed by a higher competent, independent and impartial authority or judicial body according to law;

(vi)To have the free assistance of an interpreter if the child cannot understand or speak the language used;

(vii) To have his or her privacy fully respected at all stages of the proceedings.

3. States Parties shall seek to promote the establishment of laws, procedures, authorities and institutions specifically applicable to children alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law, and, in particular:
   (a) The establishment of a minimum age below which children shall be presumed not to have the capacity to infringe the penal law;
   (b) Whenever appropriate and desirable, measures for dealing with such children without resorting to judicial proceedings, providing that human rights and legal safeguards are fully respected.
4. A variety of dispositions, such as care, guidance and supervision orders; counselling; probation; foster care; education and vocational training programmes and other alternatives to institutional care shall be available to ensure that children are dealt with in a manner appropriate to their well-being and proportionate both to their circumstances and the offence.

Article 41

Nothing in the present Convention shall affect any provisions which are more conducive to the realization of the rights of the child and which may be contained in:

(a) The law of a State party; or
(b) International law in force for that State.

PART II

Article 42

States Parties undertake to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike.

Article 43

1. For the purpose of examining the progress made by States Parties in achieving the realization of the obligations undertaken in the present Convention, there shall be established a Committee on the Rights of the Child, which shall carry out the functions hereinafter provided.
2. The Committee shall consist of eighteen experts of high moral standing and recognized competence in the field covered by this Convention.[1] The members of the Committee shall be elected by States Parties from among their nationals and shall serve in their personal capacity, consideration being given to equitable geographical distribution, as well as to the principal legal systems.
3. The members of the Committee shall be elected by secret ballot from a list of persons nominated by States Parties. Each State Party may nominate one person from among its own nationals.
4. The initial election to the Committee shall be held no later than six months after the date of the entry into force of the present Convention and thereafter every second year. At least four months before the date of each election, the Secretary-General of the United Nations shall address a letter to States Parties inviting them to submit their nominations within two months. The Secretary-General shall subsequently prepare a list in alphabetical order of all persons thus nominated, indicating States

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[1] The General Assembly, in its resolution 50/155 of 21 December 1995, approved the amendment to article 43, paragraph 2, of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, replacing the word "ten" with the word "eighteen". The amendment entered into force on 18 November 2002 when it had been accepted by a two-thirds majority of the States parties (128 out of 191).

Parties which have nominated them, and shall submit it to the States Parties to the present Convention.

5. The elections shall be held at meetings of States Parties convened by the Secretary-General at United Nations Headquarters. At those meetings, for which two thirds of States Parties shall constitute a quorum, the persons elected to the Committee shall be those who obtain the largest number of votes and an absolute majority of the votes of the representatives of States Parties present and voting.
6. The members of the Committee shall be elected for a term of four years. They shall be eligible for re-election if renominated. The term of five of the members elected at the first election shall expire at the end of two years; immediately after the first election, the names of these five members shall be chosen by lot by the Chairman of the meeting.
7. If a member of the Committee dies or resigns or declares that for any other cause he or she can no longer perform the duties of the Committee, the State Party which nominated the member shall appoint another expert from among its nationals to serve for the remainder of the term, subject to the approval of the Committee.
8. The Committee shall establish its own rules of procedure.
9. The Committee shall elect its officers for a period of two years.
10. The meetings of the Committee shall normally be held at United Nations Headquarters or at any other convenient place as determined by the Committee. The Committee shall normally meet annually. The duration of the meetings of the Committee shall be determined, and reviewed, if necessary, by a meeting of the States Parties to the present Convention, subject to the approval of the General Assembly.
11. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall provide the necessary staff and facilities for the effective performance of the functions of the Committee under the present Convention.
12. With the approval of the General Assembly, the members of the Committee established under the present Convention shall receive emoluments from United Nations resources on such terms and conditions as the Assembly may decide.

Article 44

1. States Parties undertake to submit to the Committee, through the Secretary-General of the United Nations, reports on the measures they have adopted which give effect to the rights recognized herein and on the progress made on the enjoyment of those rights
   (a) Within two years of the entry into force of the Convention for the State Party concerned;
   (b) Thereafter every five years.
2. Reports made under the present article shall indicate factors and difficulties, if any, affecting the degree of fulfilment of the obligations under the present Convention. Reports shall also contain sufficient information to provide the Committee with a comprehensive understanding of the implementation of the Convention in the country concerned.
3. A State Party which has submitted a comprehensive initial report to the Committee need not, in its subsequent reports submitted in accordance with paragraph 1 (b) of the present article, repeat basic information previously provided.
4. The Committee may request from States Parties further information relevant to the implementation of the Convention.
5. The Committee shall submit to the General Assembly, through the Economic and Social Council, every two years, reports on its activities.
6. States Parties shall make their reports widely available to the public in their own countries.

Article 45

In order to foster the effective implementation of the Convention and to encourage international co-operation in the field covered by the Convention:

(a) The specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund, and other United Nations organs shall be entitled to be represented at the consideration of the implementation of such provisions of the present Convention as fall within the scope of their mandate. The Committee may invite the specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund and other competent bodies as it may consider appropriate to provide expert advice on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their respective mandates. The Committee may invite the specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund, and other United Nations organs to submit reports on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their activities;

(b) The Committee shall transmit, as it may consider appropriate, to the specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund and other competent bodies, any reports from States Parties that contain a request, or indicate a need, for technical advice or assistance, along with the Committee's observations and suggestions, if any, on these requests or indications;

(c) The Committee may recommend to the General Assembly to request the Secretary-General to undertake on its behalf studies on specific issues relating to the rights of the child;

(d) The Committee may make suggestions and general recommendations based on information received pursuant to articles 44 and 45 of the present Convention. Such suggestions and general recommendations shall be transmitted to any State Party concerned and reported to the General Assembly, together with comments, if any, from States Parties.

PART III

Article 46

The present Convention shall be open for signature by all States.

Article 47

The present Convention is subject to ratification. Instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 48

The present Convention shall remain open for accession by any State. The instruments of accession shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 49

1. The present Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day following the date of deposit with the Secretary-General of the United Nations of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession.
2. For each State ratifying or acceding to the Convention after the deposit of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession, the Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the deposit by such State of its instrument of ratification or accession.

Article 50

1. Any State Party may propose an amendment and file it with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. The Secretary-General shall thereupon communicate the proposed amendment to States Parties, with a request that they indicate whether they favour a conference of States Parties for the purpose of considering and voting upon the proposals. In the event that, within four months from the date of such communication, at least one third of the States Parties favour such a conference, the Secretary-General shall convene the conference under the auspices of the United Nations. Any amendment adopted by a majority of States Parties present and voting at the conference shall be submitted to the General Assembly for approval.
2. An amendment adopted in accordance with paragraph 1 of the present article shall enter into force when it has been approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations and accepted by a two-thirds majority of States Parties.

3. When an amendment enters into force, it shall be binding on those States Parties which have accepted it, other States Parties still being bound by the provisions of the present Convention and any earlier amendments which they have accepted.

Article 51

1. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall receive and circulate to all States the text of reservations made by States at the time of ratification or accession.
2. A reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the present Convention shall not be permitted.
3. Reservations may be withdrawn at any time by notification to that effect addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall then inform all States. Such notification shall take effect on the date on which it is received by the Secretary-General

Article 52

A State Party may denounce the present Convention by written notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations. Denunciation becomes effective one year after the date of receipt of the notification by the Secretary-General.

Article 53

The Secretary-General of the United Nations is designated as the depositary of the present Convention.

Article 54

The original of the present Convention, of which the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. In witness thereof the undersigned plenipotentiaries, being duly authorized thereto by their respective Governments, have signed the present Convention.

Optional Protocols

Optional Protocol to The Convention on The Rights of The Child on The Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict (downloaded from: https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/ProfessionalInterest/crc-conflict.pdf)

Optional Protocol to The Convention on The Rights of The Child on The Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography (downloaded from: https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/ProfessionalInterest/crc-sale.pdf)

Optional Protocol to The Convention on The Rights of The Child on The Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict

The States Parties to the present Protocol,

Encouraged by the overwhelming support for the Convention on the Rights of the Child, demonstrating the widespread commitment that exists to strive for the promotion and protection of the rights of the child,

Reaffirming that the rights of children require special protection, and calling for continuous improvement of the situation of children without distinction, as well as for their development and education in conditions of peace and security,

Disturbed by the harmful and widespread impact of armed conflict on children and the long-term consequences this has for durable peace, security and development,

Condemning the targeting of children in situations of armed conflict and direct attacks on objects protected under international law, including places generally having a significant presence of children, such as schools and hospitals,

Noting the adoption of the Statute of the International Criminal Court and, in particular, its inclusion as a war crime of conscripting or enlisting children under the age of 15 years or using them to participate actively in hostilities in both international and non-international armed conflicts, Considering, therefore, that to strengthen further the implementation of rights recognized in the Convention on the Rights of the Child there is a need to increase the protection of children from involvement in armed conflict,

Noting that article 1 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child specifies that, for the purposes of that Convention, a child means every human being below the age of 18 years unless, under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier,

Convinced that an optional protocol to the Convention raising the age of possible recruitment of persons into armed forces and their participation in hostilities will contribute effectively to the implementation of the principle that the best interests of the child are to be a primary consideration in all actions concerning children,

Noting that the twenty-sixth international Conference of the Red Cross and Red Crescent in December 1995 recommended, inter alia, that parties to conflict take every feasible step to ensure that children under the age of 18 years do not take part in hostilities,

Welcoming the unanimous adoption, in June 1999, of International Labour Organization Convention No. 182 on the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour, which prohibits, inter alia, forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict,

Condemning with the gravest concern the recruitment, training and use within and across national borders of children in hostilities by armed groups distinct from the armed forces of a State, and recognizing the responsibility of those who recruit, train and use children in this regard,

Recalling the obligation of each party to an armed conflict to abide by the provisions of international humanitarian law,

Stressing that this Protocol is without prejudice to the purposes and principles contained in the Charter of the United Nations, including Article 51, and relevant norms of humanitarian law,

Bearing in mind that conditions of peace and security based on full respect of the purposes and principles contained in the Charter and observance of applicable human rights instruments are indispensable for the full protection of children, in particular during armed conflicts and foreign occupation,

Recognizing the special needs of those children who are particularly vulnerable to recruitment or use in hostilities contrary to this Protocol owing to their economic or social status or gender,

Mindful of the necessity of taking into consideration the economic, social and political root causes of the involvement of children in armed conflicts,

Convinced of the need to strengthen international cooperation in the implementation of this Protocol, as well as the physical and psychosocial rehabilitation and social reintegration of children who are victims of armed conflict,

Encouraging the participation of the community and, in particular, children and child victims in the dissemination of informational and educational programmes concerning the implementation of the Protocol,

Have agreed as follows:

Article 1

States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure that members of their armed forces who have not attained the age of 18 years do not take a direct part in hostilities.

Article 2

States Parties shall ensure that persons who have not attained the age of 18 years are not compulsorily recruited into their armed forces.

Article 3

1. States Parties shall raise the minimum age for the voluntary recruitment of persons into their national armed forces from that set out in article 38, paragraph 3, of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, taking account of

the principles contained in that article and recognizing that under the Convention persons under 18 are entitled to special protection.

2. Each State Party shall deposit a binding declaration upon ratification of or accession to this Protocol that sets forth the minimum age at which it will permit voluntary recruitment into its national armed forces and a description of the safeguards that it has adopted to ensure that such recruitment is not forced or coerced.
3. States Parties that permit voluntary recruitment into their national armed forces under the age of 18 shall maintain safeguards to ensure, as a minimum, that:
   (a) Such recruitment is genuinely voluntary;
   (b) Such recruitment is done with the informed consent of the person=s parents or legal guardians;
   (c) Such persons are fully informed of the duties involved in such military service;
   (d) Such persons provide reliable proof of age prior to acceptance into national military service.
4. Each State Party may strengthen its declaration at any time by notification to that effect addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall inform all States Parties. Such notification shall take effect on the date on which it is received by the Secretary-General.
5. The requirement to raise the age in paragraph 1 of the present article does not apply to schools operated by or under the control of the armed forces of the States Parties, in keeping with articles 28 and 29 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Article 4

1. Armed groups that are distinct from the armed forces of a State should not, under any circumstances, recruit or use in hostilities persons under the age of 18 years.
2. States Parties shall take all feasible measures to prevent such recruitment and use, including the adoption of legal measures necessary to prohibit and criminalize such practices.
3. The application of the present article under this Protocol shall not affect the legal status of any party to an armed conflict.

Article 5

Nothing in the present Protocol shall be construed as precluding provisions in the law of a State Party or in international instruments and international humanitarian law that are more conducive to the realization of the rights of the child.

Article 6

1. Each State Party shall take all necessary legal, administrative and other measures to ensure the effective implementation and enforcement of the provisions of this Protocol within its jurisdiction.
2. States Parties undertake to make the principles and provisions of the present Protocol widely known and promoted by appropriate means, to adults and children alike.
3. States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure that persons within their jurisdiction recruited or used in hostilities contrary to this Protocol are demobilized or otherwise released from service. States Parties shall, when necessary, accord to these persons all appropriate assistance for their physical and psychological recovery and their social reintegration.

Article 7

1. States Parties shall cooperate in the implementation of the present Protocol, including in the prevention of any activity contrary to the Protocol and in the rehabilitation and social reintegration of persons who are victims of acts contrary to this Protocol, including through technical cooperation and financial assistance. Such assistance and cooperation will be undertaken in consultation with concerned States Parties and relevant international organizations.
2. States Parties in a position to do so shall provide such assistance through existing multilateral, bilateral or other programmes, or, inter alia, through a voluntary fund established in accordance with the rules of the General Assembly.

Article 8

1. Each State Party shall submit, within two years following the entry into force of the Protocol for that State Party, a report to the Committee on the Rights of the Child providing comprehensive information on the measures it has taken to implement the provisions of the Protocol, including the measures taken to implement the provisions on participation and recruitment.
2. Following the submission of the comprehensive report, each State Party shall include in the reports they submit to the Committee on the Rights of the Child, in accordance with article 44 of the Convention, any further information with respect to the implementation of the Protocol. Other States Parties to the Protocol shall submit a report every five years.
3. The Committee on the Rights of the Child may request from States Parties further information relevant to the implementation of this Protocol.

Article 9

1. The present Protocol is open for signature by any State that is a party to the Convention or has signed it.
2. The present Protocol is subject to ratification and is open to accession by any State. Instruments of ratification or accession shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.
3. The Secretary-General, in his capacity as depositary of the Convention and the Protocol, shall inform all States Parties to the Convention and all States that have signed the Convention of each instrument of declaration pursuant to article 13.

Article 10

1. The present Protocol shall enter into force three months after the deposit of the tenth instrument of ratification or accession.
2. For each State ratifying the present Protocol or acceding to it after its entry into force, the present Protocol shall enter into force one month after the date of the deposit of its own instrument of ratification or accession.

Article 11

1. Any State Party may denounce the present Protocol at any time by written notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall thereafter inform the other States Parties to the Convention and all States that have signed the Convention. The denunciation shall take effect one year after the date of receipt of the notification by the Secretary-General. If, however, on the expiry of that year the denouncing State Party is engaged in armed conflict, the denunciation shall not take effect before the end of the armed conflict.
2. Such a denunciation shall not have the effect of releasing the State Party from its obligations under the present Protocol in regard to any act that occurs prior to the date on which the denunciation becomes effective. Nor shall such a denunciation prejudice in any way the continued consideration of any matter that is already under consideration by the Committee prior to the date on which the denunciation becomes effective.

Article 12

1. Any State Party may propose an amendment and file it with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. The Secretary-General shall thereupon communicate the proposed amendment to States Parties, with a request that they indicate whether they favour a conference of States Parties for the purpose of considering and voting upon the proposals. In the event that, within four months from the date of such communication, at least one third of the States Parties favour such a conference, the Secretary-General shall convene the conference under the auspices of the United Nations. Any amendment adopted by a majority of States Parties present and voting at the conference shall be submitted to the General Assembly for approval.
2. An amendment adopted in accordance with paragraph 1 of the present article shall enter into force when it has been approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations and accepted by a two-thirds majority of States Parties.

3. When an amendment enters into force, it shall be binding on those States Parties that have accepted it, other States Parties still being bound by the provisions of the present Protocol and any earlier amendments that they have accepted.

Article 13

1. The present Protocol, of which the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts are equally authentic, shall be deposited in the archives of the United Nations.
2. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall transmit certified copies of the present Protocol to all States Parties to the Convention and all States that have signed the Convention.

Optional Protocol to The Convention on The Rights of the Child on The Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography

The States Parties to the present Protocol,

Considering that, in order further to achieve the purposes of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the implementation of its provisions, especially articles 1, 11, 21, 32, 33, 34, 35 and 36, it would be appropriate to extend the measures that States Parties should undertake in order to guarantee the protection of the child from the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography,

Considering also that the Convention on the Rights of the Child recognizes the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development,

Gravely concerned at the significant and increasing international traffic of children for the purpose of the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography,

Deeply concerned at the widespread and continuing practice of sex tourism, to which children are especially vulnerable, as it directly promotes the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography,

Recognizing that a number of particularly vulnerable groups, including girl children, are at greater risk of sexual exploitation, and that girl children are disproportionately represented among the sexually exploited,

Concerned about the growing availability of child pornography on the Internet and other evolving technologies, and recalling the International Conference on Combating Child Pornography on the Internet (Vienna, 1999) and, in particular, its conclusion calling for the worldwide criminalization of the production, distribution, exportation, transmission, importation, intentional possession and advertising of child pornography, and stressing the importance of closer cooperation and partnership between Governments and the Internet industry,

Believing that the elimination of the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography will be facilitated by adopting a holistic approach, addressing the contributing factors, including underdevelopment, poverty, economic disparities, inequitable socio-economic structure, dysfunctioning families, lack of education, urban-rural migration, gender discrimination, irresponsible adult sexual behaviour, harmful traditional practices, armed conflicts and trafficking of children,

Believing that efforts to raise public awareness are needed to reduce consumer demand for the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, and also believing in the importance of strengthening global partnership among all actors and of improving law enforcement at the national level,

Noting the provisions of international legal instruments relevant to the protection of children, including the Hague Convention on the Protection of Children and Cooperation with Respect to Inter-Country Adoption, the Hague Convention on the Civil Aspects of International Child Abduction, the Hague Convention on Jurisdiction, Applicable Law, Recognition, Enforcement and Cooperation in Respect of Parental Responsibility and Measures for the Protection of Children, and International Labour Organization Convention No. 182 on the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour, Encouraged by the overwhelming support for the Convention on the Rights of the Child, demonstrating the widespread commitment that exists for the promotion and protection of the rights of the child,

Recognizing the importance of the implementation of the provisions of the Programme of Action for the Prevention of the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography and the Declaration and Agenda for Action adopted at the World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, held at Stockholm from 27 to 31 August 1996, and the other relevant decisions and recommendations of pertinent international bodies,

Taking due account of the importance of the traditions and cultural values of each people for the protection and harmonious development of the child,

Have agreed as follows:

Article 1

States Parties shall prohibit the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography as provided for by the present Protocol.

Article 2

For the purpose of the present Protocol:

(a) Sale of children means any act or transaction whereby a child is transferred by any person or group of persons to another for remuneration or any other consideration;
(b) Child prostitution means the use of a child in sexual activities for remuneration or any other form of consideration;
(c) Child pornography means any representation, by whatever means, of a child engaged in real or simulated explicit sexual activities or any representation of the sexual parts of a child for primarily sexual purposes.

Article 3

1. Each State Party shall ensure that, as a minimum, the following acts and activities are fully covered under its criminal or penal law, whether these offences are committed domestically or transnationally or on an individual or organized basis:
   (a) In the context of sale of children as defined in Article 2:
      (i) The offering, delivering or accepting, by whatever means, a child for the purpose of:
         (a) Sexual exploitation of the child;
         (b) Transfer of organs of the child for profit;
         (c) Engagement of the child in forced labour;
      (ii) Improperly inducing consent, as an intermediary, for the adoption of a child in violation of applicable international legal instruments on adoption;
   (b) Offering, obtaining, procuring or providing a child for child prostitution, as defined in Article 2;
   (c) Producing, distributing, disseminating, importing, exporting, offering, selling or possessing for the above purposes child pornography as defined in Article 2.
2. Subject to the provisions of a State Party's national law, the same shall apply to an attempt to commit any of these acts and to complicity or participation in any of these acts.
3. Each State Party shall make these offences punishable by appropriate penalties that take into account their grave nature.
4. Subject to the provisions of its national law, each State Party shall take measures, where appropriate, to establish the liability of legal persons for offences established in paragraph I of the present Article. Subject to the legal principles of the State Party, this liability of legal persons may be criminal, civil or administrative.
5. States Parties shall take all appropriate legal and administrative measures to ensure that all persons involved in the adoption of a child act in conformity with applicable international legal instruments.

Article 4

1. Each State Party shall take such measures as may be necessary to establish its jurisdiction over the offences referred to in Article 3, paragraph 1, when the offences are committed

in its territory or on board a ship or aircraft registered in that State.

2. Each State Party may take such measures as may be necessary to establish its jurisdiction over the offences referred to in Article 3, paragraph 1, in the following cases:
   (a) When the alleged offender is a national of that State or a person who has his habitual residence in its territory;
   (b) When the victim is a national of that State.
3. Each State Party shall also take such measures as may be necessary to establish its jurisdiction over the above-mentioned offences when the alleged offender is present in its territory and it does not extradite him or her to another State Party on the ground that the offence has been committed by one of its nationals.
4. This Protocol does not exclude any criminal jurisdiction exercised in accordance with internal law.

Article 5

1. The offences referred to in Article 3, paragraph 1, shall be deemed to be included as extraditable offences in any extradition treaty existing between States Parties and shall be included as extraditable offences in every extradition treaty subsequently concluded between them, in accordance with the conditions set forth in those treaties.
2. If a State Party that makes extradition conditional on the existence of a treaty receives a request for extradition from another State Party with which it has no extradition treaty, it may consider this Protocol as a legal basis for extradition in respect of such offences. Extradition shall be subject to the conditions provided by the law of the requested State.
3. States Parties that do not make extradition conditional on the existence of a treaty shall recognize such offences as extraditable offences between themselves subject to the conditions provided by the law of the requested State.
4. Such offences shall be treated, for the purpose of extradition between States Parties, as if they had been committed not only in the place in which they occurred but also in the territories of the States required to establish their jurisdiction in accordance with Article 4.
5. If an extradition request is made with respect to an offence described in Article 3, paragraph 1, and if the requested State Party does not or will not extradite on the basis of the nationality of the offender, that State shall take suitable measures to submit the case to its competent authorities for the purpose of prosecution.

Article 6

1. States Parties shall afford one another the greatest measure of assistance in connection with investigations or criminal or extradition proceedings brought in respect of the offences set forth in Article 3, paragraph 1, including assistance in obtaining evidence at their disposal necessary for the proceedings.
2. States Parties shall carry out their obligations under paragraph 1 of the present Article in conformity with any treaties or other arrangements on mutual legal assistance that may exist between them. In the absence of such treaties or arrangements, States Parties shall afford one another assistance in accordance with their domestic law.

Article 7

States Parties shall, subject to the provisions of their national law:

(a) Take measures to provide for the seizure and confiscation, as appropriate, of:
   (i) Goods such as materials, assets and other instrumentalities used to commit or facilitate offences under the present Protocol;
   (ii) Proceeds derived from such offences;
(b) Execute requests from another State Party for seizure or confiscation of goods or proceeds referred to in subparagraph (a) (i);
(c) Take measures aimed at closing, on a temporary or definitive basis, premises used to commit such offences.

Article 8

1. States Parties shall adopt appropriate measures to protect the rights and interests of child victims of the practices prohibited under the present Protocol at all stages of the criminal justice process, in particular by:
   (a) Recognizing the vulnerability of child victims and adapting procedures to recognize their special needs, including their special needs as witnesses;
   (b) Informing child victims of their rights, their role and the scope, timing and progress of the proceedings and of the disposition of their cases;
   (c) Allowing the views, needs and concerns of child victims to be presented and considered in proceedings where their personal interests are affected, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law;
   (d) Providing appropriate support services to child victims throughout the legal process;
   (e) Protecting, as appropriate, the privacy and identity of child victims and taking measures in accordance with national law to avoid the inappropriate dissemination of information that could lead to the identification of child victims;
   (f) Providing, in appropriate cases, for the safety of child victims, as well as that of their families and witnesses on their behalf, from intimidation and retaliation;
   (g) Avoiding unnecessary delay in the disposition of cases and the execution of orders or decrees granting compensation to child victims.
2. States Parties shall ensure that uncertainty as to the actual age of the victim shall not prevent the initiation of criminal investigations, including investigations aimed at establishing the age of the victim.
3. States Parties shall ensure that, in the treatment by the criminal justice system of children who are victims of the offences described in the present Protocol, the best interest of the child shall be a primary consideration.
4. States Parties shall take measures to ensure appropriate training, in particular legal and psychological training, for the persons who work with victims of the offences prohibited under the present Protocol.
5. States Parties shall, in appropriate cases, adopt measures in order to protect the safety and integrity of those persons and/or organizations involved in the prevention and/or protection and rehabilitation of victims of such offences.
6. Nothing in the present Article shall be construed as prejudicial to or inconsistent with the rights of the accused to a fair and impartial trial.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall adopt or strengthen, implement and disseminate laws, administrative measures, social policies and programmes to prevent the offences referred to in the present Protocol. Particular attention shall be given to protect children who are especially vulnerable to these practices.
2. States Parties shall promote awareness in the public at large, including children, through information by all appropriate means, education and training, about the preventive measures and harmful effects of the offences referred to in the present Protocol. In fulfilling their obligations under this Article, States Parties shall encourage the participation of the community and, in particular, children and child victims, in such information and education and training programmes, including at the international level.
3. States Parties shall take all feasible measures with the aim of ensuring all appropriate assistance to victims of such offences, including their full social reintegration and their full physical and psychological recovery.
4. States Parties shall ensure that all child victims of the offences described in the present Protocol have access to adequate procedures to seek, without discrimination, compensation for damages from those legally responsible.
5. States Parties shall take appropriate measures aimed at effectively prohibiting the production

and dissemination of material advertising the offences described in the present Protocol.

Article 10

1. States Parties shall take all necessary steps to strengthen international cooperation by multilateral, regional and bilateral arrangements for the prevention, detection, investigation, prosecution and punishment of those responsible for acts involving the sale of children, child prostitution, child pornography and child sex tourism. States Parties shall also promote international cooperation and coordination between their authorities, national and international non-governmental organizations and international organizations.
2. States Parties shall promote international cooperation to assist child victims in their physical and psychological recovery, social reintegration and repatriation.
3. States Parties shall promote the strengthening of international cooperation in order to address the root causes, such as poverty and underdevelopment, contributing to the vulnerability of children to the sale of children, child prostitution, child pornography and child sex tourism.
4. States Parties in a position to do so shall provide financial, technical or other assistance through existing multilateral, regional, bilateral or other programmes.

Article 11

Nothing in the present Protocol shall affect any provisions that are more conducive to the realization of the rights of the child and that may be contained in:

(a) The law of a State Party;
(b) International law in force for that State.

Article 12

1. Each State Party shall submit, within two years following the entry into force of the Protocol for that State Party, a report to the Committee on the Rights of the Child providing comprehensive information on the measures it has taken to implement the provisions of the Protocol.
2. Following the submission of the comprehensive report, each State Party shall include in the reports they submit to the Committee on the Rights of the Child, in accordance with Article 44 of the Convention, any further information with respect to the implementation of the Protocol. Other States Parties to the Protocol shall submit a report every five years.
3. The Committee on the Rights of the Child may request from States Parties further information relevant to the implementation of this Protocol.

Article 13

1. The present Protocol is open for signature by any State that is a party to the Convention or has signed it.
2. The present Protocol is subject to ratification and is open to accession by any State that is a party to the Convention or has signed it. Instruments of ratification or accession shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 14

1. The present Protocol shall enter into force three months after the deposit of the tenth instrument of ratification or accession.
2. For each State ratifying the present Protocol or acceding to it after its entry into force, the present Protocol shall enter into force one month after the date of the deposit of its own instrument of ratification or accession.

Article 15

1. Any State Party may denounce the present Protocol at any time by written notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall thereafter inform the other States Parties to the Convention and all States that have signed the Convention. The denunciation shall I take effect one year after the date of receipt of the notification by the Secretary-General of the United Nations.
2. Such a denunciation shall not have the effect of releasing the State Party from its obligations under this Protocol in regard to any offence that occurs prior to the date on which the denunciation becomes effective. Nor shall

such a denunciation prejudice in any way the continued consideration of any matter that is already under consideration by the Committee prior to the date on which the denunciation becomes effective.

Article 16

1. Any State Party may propose an amendment and file it with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. The Secretary-General shall thereupon communicate the proposed amendment to States Parties, with a request that they indicate whether they favour a conference of States Parties for the purpose of considering and voting upon the proposals. In the event that, within four months from the date of such communication, at least one third of the States Parties favour such a conference, the Secretary-General shall convene the conference under the auspices of the United Nations. Any amendment adopted by a majority of States Parties present and voting at the conference shall be submitted to the General Assembly for approval.
2. An amendment adopted in accordance with paragraph I of the present Article shall enter into force when it has been approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations and accepted by a two-thirds majority of States Parties.
3. When an amendment enters into force, it shall be binding on those States Parties that have accepted it, other States Parties still being bound by the provisions of the present Protocol and any earlier amendments that they have accepted.

Article 17

1. The present Protocol, of which the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts are equally authentic, shall be deposited in the archives of the United Nations.
2. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall transmit certified copies of the present Protocol to all States Parties to the Convention and all States that have signed the Convention.

Index

A
Academic development, 352, 353
Accountability
  barriers, 131
  child well-being (*see* Child well-being, indicators)
  CRPAM (*see* Child Rights in Practice Accountability Model (CRPAM))
  IICRD, 131
  monitor progress, 132
  school psychologists, 130
  training standards and ethical codes, 130
  UNICEF guidelines, 131
Adverse childhood experiences (ACEs), 202, 235
Advocacy, 39, 40, 44, 47
Affordable Care Act, 544
Alliance Task Group on Disability and Discrimination, 502
American Counseling Association (ACA), 40, 44, 46
American Psychological Association (APA), 147, 516, 520, 521, 593
American Psychological Association and Cleveland State University School Psychology Program, 595
American Psychological Association's Division of School Psychology, 67
APA Ethical Code, 521
APA's Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct, 520
Articles of the Convention, 430
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), 99
Australia's National Health and Research Council's, 582
Australian Human Rights Commission, 117
Awe, 307, 308, 313, 315

B
Behavioral development, 354
Bernard van Leer Foundation, 338
Bioecological model, 100
Biomedical model, 198, 199
Biopsychosocial model
  medicine, 199
  principles, 199
Blended learning programs, 563, 565
Blueprint for Training and Practice III, 224
Boundary role professionals, 475

C
Central Midtown School Corporation, 497
Central mission, 550
Character, 276–281, 285, 288
Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act (CAPTA), 247
Child advocacy, 120, 122
Child development, 307, 309, 327
Child in sports
  child development, 379
  vs. children's rights, 379
  empowering young athletes, 382–383
  protection
    abuse, 380–381
    discrimination, 382
    doping, 381, 382
    exploitation, 380–381
    injury, 380–381
    right to education, 382
    violence, 380–381
Child level, 495
Child mental health
  advocacy, 228
  child rights approach (*see* Child rights approach)
  collaboratives programs, 227, 228
  community-responsive approach, 222
  complementary functions, 226
  convention, 229
  developmental-ecological model, 224, 225
  family-centered approach, 221, 222
  life course framework, 223
  multitier prevention framework, 223, 224
  positive psychology, 223
  progress indicators, 228, 229
  school psychology challenges, 220
  social justice orientation, 222
  strategy
    child development home, 225
    IDPs, 227
    medical home model, 225

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Child mental health (*cont.*)
        pediatric primary care, 225, 226
        universal, 227
Child participation
    accountability, 270
    Convention, 260
    culture, 260
    decision-making processes, 260
    education context, 260
    educational planning, 260
    learning, 264, 265
    professional practice
        assessment, 265, 266
        children's competence, 266
        cognitive development, 265
        communication and collaboration skills, 265
        communication skills and techniques, 265
        educational planning process, 266
        educational psychologist, 266
        family members, 265
        institutions, 267, 268
        intervention, 265
        intervention decision-making, 266
        process of transition, 265
    recognition of children's capacity, 260
    school psychology, 260, 262–264
    systems and policy, 268–270
    UN Committee, 261, 262
Child participation rights, 584, 589
Child poverty
    academic development, 352, 353
    behavioral development, 354
    children experience, 352
    cognitive development, 352, 353
    food, educational and familial resources, 352
    implications, 351, 352
    social-emotional development, 353, 354
    socioeconomic status (SES), 352
Child protection, 416
    benefits
        ACE study, 235
        biopsychosocial contexts, 235
        child well-being, 236
        education and life skills, 236
    exploration and illumination
        Advocacy Project Model, 237
        country category, 237
        ideals and goals, 236
        implementation, 236
    promotion
        epigenetic effects, 237
        poor children, 238
        universal prenatal care, 237
    recommendations, 251, 252
    school psychologists
        advocacy, 249
        application, 250, 251
        awareness, 241
        child-rights approach, 238
        dialogue, 241, 245
        education, 249, 250
        environment, 248
        evaluation, 249
        evidence-based interventions, 242–244
        goals, 238
        participation, 246, 247
        policy, 247, 248
        relationships, 245
        training, 246
        well-being and competency, 238
Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU), 385
Child rights
    Articles of the UN, 31–32
    cardboard, 557
    child development
        caregivers, 186
        Commission, 183
        Committee's Concluding Observations (CO), 184
        CRC reporting guidelines, 185
        efficient monitoring system, 184
        international community, 183
        international surveillance system, 184
        interventions, 185
        microsystem, 185
        outcomes, 185
        policies and initiatives, 186
        policy clusters, 186
        political and social actors, 184
        rights-based approach, 184, 185
        sectors, 185
        speech and language therapy, 185
        structures and processes, 184
        universal *vs*. targeted policies, 186
        well-being, 185
    child development communities, 181
    child development professionals, 182
    child participation, 181
    classroom, 557
    communication and collaboration, 523
            (*see also* Community capacity building)
    Convention, 179, 183
    cyberbullying, 558
    diversity, 182
    economic status, 349–351
    education, 182, 558
    ethics, 520
    framework, 39
    game-changing, 523
    implementation, 181
    interorganizational effort, 523
    interorganizational task force, 523
    interplay, 181
    intervention research, 436, 437
    knowledge and commitment, 39
    limitations, 349–351
    limited personnel and resources, 523
    mental and physical healthcare services, 182
    meta-macrosystem (*see* Meta-macrosystem)
    NASP, 182
    opportunities, 349–351

  - organization’s commitment and support, 522
  - physical and mental abuse, 182
  - policy, 521
  - preparation and training, 437, 438
  - principle of nondiscrimination, 180
  - professional development and practice, 521 (*see also* Professional ethics)
  - professional standards, 39
  - quality of environments, 179
  - quality of life, 183
  - research, 521
  - rights-based approach, 179
  - school community, 183
  - school policy, 437
  - school psychologists, 181, 558
  - school psychology, 183, 354, 355, 438, 439, 523 (*see* School consultation)
  - smartphone software, 557
  - social justice, 355, 356
  - technology, 558
  - traditional/typical school setting, 558
  - training and expertise, 182
  - training and professional issues, 523
  - training, certification and licensure, 521, 522
  - youth perceive online, 558
- Child rights advocacy, 593–595
  - child development and quality, 490
  - child level, 495
  - child participation, 492
  - child rights approach, 490, 491
  - community, 498
  - community leadership, 498
  - community level, 496
  - competencies
    - cross-cutting, 147, 148
    - definition, 149
    - foundational, 147
    - functional, 148
    - professional, 146, 148
  - definition, 487
  - domains, 33
  - door test, 493
  - ecological systems, 30
  - elementary school, 497
  - guidelines
    - competencies, 151
    - program, 151
    - recommendations, 151
  - guiding principles, 29–30
  - implementation, 489
  - mission, 28
  - national-level, 496, 497
  - preservice and in-service training, 148
  - psychological evaluation, 498
  - responsibility and opportunity, 498
  - roles, 33–34
  - school community, 498
  - school level, 495, 496
  - school psychologists, 147, 148, 487–489, 497, 498
  - school psychology practice, 494
  - social ecology, 487, 488
  - stakeholders, 30–33
  - training materials
    - self-study modules, 150
    - training curriculum, 149, 150
  - UNICEF Protective Environment Framework, 494
  - UNICEF’s Protective Environment Framework, 492, 493
- Child rights and school psychology, 593–595
- Child rights approach, 490, 491
  - children growth, 220
  - discrimination and victimization, 221
  - education, 220
  - right to expression, 221
  - talents and personality, 221
- Child rights ecology, 26, 28
- Child Rights Ecology Model, 68
- Child Rights Education for Professionals Program (CRED-PRO), 145–146, 167, 189, 517, 595
- Child Rights Education Toolkit, 85
- Child Rights in Practice Accountability Model (CRPAM)
  - domains, 134
  - legal and moral responsibility, 134
  - monitoring and evaluation system, 134
  - school psychology
    - application, 138, 139
    - evaluation outcomes, 137, 138
    - implications, 139, 142
    - initiatives and indicators, 136
    - measurement, 136, 137
    - stages, 135
- Child rights indicators, 137
- Child well-being, 176, 188, 234–236, 249–252, 339, 346, 534, 537, 540, 545, 546, 549–552
  - concept model, 158
  - construct and concomitant need, 158
  - domains, 159
  - heuristic tool, 159
  - integrated applications, 167
  - measurement balance, 161–163
  - measurement issues, 161
  - monitoring, 160–161, 163–165
  - perspective, 159
  - problem-solving orientation, 167
  - school psychologists suggestions
    - professional practice, 165, 166
    - school’s multitier health plan, 166–167
  - themes, 158
  - valence, 159
- Child well-being, indicators
  - convention, 132, 133
  - ECRI, 132
  - environment conditions, 133
  - organizations, 132
  - scope, quality and impact, 133
  - survival, 133
- Child-Centered Accountability and Protection Evaluation (CAPE), 137

Child-centred sports system
  accountability, 383
  debate to action, 384, 385
  principles, 384
  recommendations
    awareness raising, 385
    empowerment of young athletes, 386
    monitoring and individual complaints mechanisms, 386
    normative review and law enforcement, 385
    redress, remedy and rehabilitation, 386
    school psychologists, 386–387
    training and advocacy, 385
Childhood, 297, 299, 301, 302
Child-led advocacy, 492
Children and Families Act, 505, 508
Children and Family Wales Measure, 345
Children's mental health, 427, 520
Children's perspectives, 83, 88, 89
Children's positive development, 85, 87
Children's rights, 260, 262, 263, 266–268, 271
  accessibility and availability, 507
  application
    research, 510, 511
    training, 510
  Article 23, 501–503, 506–510
  category of disability, 506
  centres of expertise, 506
  classroom teacher, 508
  cultural group, 506
  disabilities and special educational needs, 501
  education, 501–504, 506, 507
  educational psychologists, 507
  human dignity, 4
  inclusion, 503–505, 507, 509–511
  labelling process, 506
  legislation and policy, 507
  local schools and communities, 507
  medical *vs*. social models, 507
  moral development, 4
  non-Western countries, 506
  outcomes, 501, 503, 508–511
  parents and young people, 508
  person-centred review, 509
  policy, health and education, 508
  quantitative and qualitative data, 506
  school and educational psychologists, 503–507, 509
  school curriculum, 507
  segregation and discrimination, 501, 502
  self-esteem and self-confidence, 503
  SEND Code of Practice, 509, 510
  special educational needs/disabilities, 508
  UK Policies, 511, 512
  UN convention, 7–8
  United Kingdom (UK), 505
Child-rights-respecting research
  conceptualizing psychological well-being, 582
  cross-cultural study, 584, 585
  local application
    child and adult stakeholders, 586
    New Orleans, 587, 588
    social-cultural stressors and resources, 586
    Sri Lanka, 586, 587
    stakeholders, 586
  local context, 582
  methodology, 583
Chronosystem, 27, 448, 450
Civil discourse, 288
Civil rights
  Golden Rule, 15
  implications, 15
  personal and community life, 15
Civil Rights Act, 90
Civil society organizations, 496, 497
Cognitive Behavioral Program for Trauma in Schools (CBITS), 436
Cognitive development, 352, 353
Collaborative child participation, 492
Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning Guide (CASEL), 85
Collective Consultation of NGOs on Education for All (CCNGO/EFA), 323
Commercial sexual exploitation of children, 478–480
Committee on the Rights of the Child, 56, 59, 260, 338, 502
Community capacity building
  assistive factors, 468
  capacity building, 460
  Convention, 459, 461
  documentary analyses, 459
  formative evaluation, 467
  intervention, 460
  local authority districts, 466
  participatory researchers
    children's participation, 464
    Convention, 464
    decision-making, 465
    empowering children, 464
    national legislative context, 464
    playground refurbishment project, 465
    school psychologist practitioners, 465, 466
    school psychologists, 465
    student-led action research, 464
    trainers, 465, 466
    voice of the child, 465
  PCP, 466, 467
  person-centred principles, 467
  person-centred transfer processes, 467
  philosophical orientations, 468, 469
  professional groups, 460
  project management skills, 468
  psychological research, 462
  qualitative thematic analysis, 462
  religious group conflict and violence, 461
  religious inter-group conflict, 461
  school development, 462
  school improvement, 462
  school psychological services, 460
  school psychologist practitioners, 463, 464
  school psychologists, 459, 460
  school psychology, 460
  self-reflective engagement, 469, 470

- service delivery model, 467
- social and economic deprivation, 461
- specific historical and cultural context, 461
- specific process, 462
- themes, 462
- trainers, 463, 464
- wide-ranging review and analysis, 461

Community level, 496
Community-responsive approach, 222
Competitive sports, 377–380
Complementarity, 263
Comprehensive community initiatives (CCI), 430
Conjoint behavioral consultation model, 366, 395, 396
Consultative child participation, 492
Consultee-centered administrative consultation, 476, 483, 484
Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) evaluations, 455
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 502, 503, 509
Convention on the Rights of the Child, 5, 6, 50, 205, 212, 219, 220, 281, 468, 537, 538, 545, 551
- Article, 7
- children obligations, 7
- development, 7
- domains, 7
- education, 7
- factors, 7 (*see* School psychology)

Coordination of student services team (COST), 167
Counseling
- convention
  - child protection, 416
  - child rights approach, 409
  - definition, 408
  - education, 416
  - emphasis, 408
  - health, 413, 414
  - HIV and AIDS, 414
  - inception, 409
  - information, 412, 413, 419–420
  - nutrition, 415
  - schools, 410
  - social inclusion, 416, 417
  - states party, 408
  - UNICEF's strategic plan, 413
  - vision, 409
  - water, sanitation and hygiene, 414, 415
- field, 410–412
- intentional counseling, 410–412
- learning and executive functioning
  - alerting, 417
  - foundation, 418
  - orienting, 418
- microskills, 410–412
- neurobiology, 417
- neuroscience, 417
- social justice, 418, 419
- understanding and social action, 419

Cross-cultural study, 584
Cross-cutting competencies, 147
Cross-National Children's Rights Research Project, 551
Cultural change
- Brazil, 300
- Canada, 300
- children and child-rearing, 300
- North America, 300
- Northern Mexico, 300
- South Africa, 299
- Southeast Asia, 300
- Yemen, 300

Cultural competence, 83, 85, 90, 429
Cultural Diversity Day, 91
Cultural-ecological domain, 583
Cultural group, 506
Cultural humility, 84
Cultural sensitivity, 369
Culture, 579
- care and protection, 296–297
- challenges, 295
- change (*see* Cultural change)
- children role, 300–301
- children's lives, 295
- convention, 294–296
- counseling interventions, 302
- definition, 293
- human development (*see* Human development)
- human rights, 294
- positive integration, 301
- psychological level, 294
- recommendations, 302
- social level, 293

Cyberbullying, 558

D

Daily practice, school psychology
- adjustment, 91
- bullying behaviors, 91
- cultural competence, 90
- cultural expression, 91
- discrimination, 90
- fair education, 93
- financial hardship, 92
- group work activity, 92
- guiding principles
  - development, 85–87
  - life, 85–87
  - respect, child views, 87–89
  - survival, 85–87
- mental health, 91, 92
- non-discrimination principle, 90 (*see also* Non-discrimination)
- problem-solving approach, 89
- promoting and protecting, 81, 82
- religious beliefs, 90
- respect, child views, 90, 93
- RTI program, 92
- self-esteem, 93
- survival and healthy development, 92
- theory and practice, 89
- well-being, 91

Danish Class Teacher model, 546

Declaration of the Psychological Rights of Child, 182
Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1959, 51
Denver (Colorado) Public Schools (DPS), 433
Department of Education in Northern Ireland (DENI), 461
Developmental-ecological model, 224, 225
Disability, *see* Children's rights
Disability Discrimination Acts, 505
Disability rights
  budget, 123
  measurable outcomes and progress monitoring, 124
  physical and structural environment, 124
  special assistance, 124
Discipline strategies, 481
Discourse, 275, 276, 285
Division of School Psychology, 520
Dual-continua model
  mental health, 164
  negative and positive indicators, 165
  personal and environmental assets, 164
  rational dichotomous cut points, 163
  school psychologists, 164
  T-scores, 164
Dual-factor model of mental health (DFM), 160–165, 167, 168

E
Each and Every Child model, 540, 544
Early child development (ECD)
  brain plasticity, 177
  caregiving environments, 177
  chronic health conditions, 176
  cost-effectiveness, 177
  economic efficiency, 176
  framework, 178, 179
  gene-environment interactions, 177
  healthy children, 176
  interplay, 177
  legal definitions, 175
  monitoring
    child-friendly policies and programs, 186
    data collection, 186
    duty bearers, 187, 188
    processes, 189, 190
  peer relationships, 176
  physical and emotional abuse, 177
  physical and psychological, 175
  physical and social environments, 176
  physical growth, 176
  politicians and policy makers, 177
  powerful equalizer, 176
  quality, 177
  recommendations, 190, 191
  schools, 176
  SDHs, 176
  sensitivity, 177
  society, 177
Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)
  "at risk" concept, 327
  EFA policy, 327
  health and social professionals, 328
  school psychologists role, 327
Early Childhood Rights Indicators (ECRI), 132, 187, 188
Early development instrument (EDI) score, 184
Ecological model, 178, 190
Ecological systems theory (EST)
  child development, 443
  child rights, 445, 446, 449
    and voice, 452
    broader culture and policy environment, 454
    classroom, 453
    context and child perspectives, 455
    counseling experience, 454
    data collection and analysis, 453
    generalization, 456
    group counseling technique, 454
    inquiry process, 453
    intervention procedures, 454
    kind of thinking, 456
    microsystems, 453
    program evaluation, 455
    program evaluation standards, 452, 453
    readers, 455
    research framework, 453
    research processes, 452, 453
    self-regulation learning literature, 454
    theory-driven evaluation, 455
    type of inquiry, 454
    types of investigations, 454
  child rights and professional ethics, 444
  child's ecology, 450
  child's perspective, 450
  common research goals, 451
  contextual factors, 444
  contextual issues, 448
  exosystems, 447
  family systems, 448
  fundamental assumptions, 444
  guarantee, 450
  macrosystem, 449
  methodological framework, 444
  microsystem, 446, 447
  molar and molecular causation, 448
  policy, 450
  policy decision-making, 449
  policymakers, 449
  qualitative inquiry, 444
  randomized controlled trial, 448
  research designs, 448
  research inquiry, 443
  researcher, 448
  social science inquiry, 443
  sociocultural ecologies, 448
  standardization, 449
  types of systems, 446
  US education culture, 450
Ecological-developmental systems theory (EST), 578
Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), 469
Education, 416
  Article 28, 10
  Article 29, 10

Education Act, 505
2010 Education Act, 266
Education For All (EFA), 321
Education for mutual understanding (EMU), 461
Education reform
  adoption and application, 111
  assessment, 101
  convention
    child development, 99
    UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Manual, 99
    United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 98
    whole-child education, 99
  ecological systems theory, 99–101
  Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools (*see* Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools)
  framework, 101
  school psychologists work, 110, 111
  schooling purpose, 97, 98
Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), 521
Emotional self-regulation, 546
Empathy, 280
Equality Acts, 505, 508
Equity in education, 323
"Ethics Bowl" debate framework, 285–288
Ethnography, 580
Evidence-based practices (EBPs), 436
Evolving capacities, 52
Exosystems, 179, 447

F
Family caregivers, 365
Family girls *vs*. boys education, 298
Family Group Conferencing, 366
Family support
  children and family members, 365
  co-delivered, 365
  collaboration, 361
  Convention, 361
  cultural considerations
    autonomy rights, 368, 369
    awareness, 367
    child's well-being, 367
    education rights, 367, 368
    governmental institutions, 367
    human rights, 367
    learning, 367
    protection rights, 369
  evidence-based family programs, 365
  family and child outcomes, 365
  intensive, 366
  joint responsibility, 361
  professional preparation and development, 370
  school psychologist
    competencies, 362
    Convention, 362
    definition, 362
    practice orientation, 362
    proficiency, 362
    veiled oppressive and unfair practices, 362
  targeted, 365, 366
  universal, 365
Family-centered approach, 221, 222
Family-centered care, 225
Family-School Collaboration Services, 362
Family-school consultation, 364
Family-school-community partnering, 362
Foundational Child Rights Framework for Schools, 101–105
  accountability, 107
  communication, 108
  data and planning, 110
  direct service, 109
  environment and resource, 109, 110
  family and community engagement, 109
  human resource, 108
  leadership, 107, 108
  policy, 107
  principles and commitment, 101
  school systems review, 106
Foundational competencies, 147
Framework for Action (FFA)
  goals, 323
  objectives, 323
  sections, 323
Free appropriate public education (FAPE), 84
Free education, 320, 322
Free society, 275, 282
Freedom from violence, 60

G
Games-based activities, 339
Gender equality, 320, 327
General Assembly of the United Nations, 50
General Comment 7 (GC7), 187
General Comment on Article 12, 267
General Comments (GCs), 54
Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1924, 51
Global Campaign for Education (GCE), 323
Global Consultations Project, 338
Global Kids Online project, 559
Golden Rule, 5, 6, 10, 13–21
Government Relations Offices (GRO), 521
Gross domestic product (GDP), 176
Guidelines for Periodic Reports, 17

H
Harmful practices, 52
Health promoting schools, 209–212
Health promotion
  comprehensive approach, 212
  Comprehensive Protection of Children, 212
  discrimination and encouraging equality, 212
  fundamental principles, 212
  holistic approach, 211, 212
  influence, 209
  integral approach, 211

Health promotion (*cont.*)
  integral sexual education, 213, 214
  integrated approach, 211
  nutrition, 214
  platform and opportunity, 209
  responsibility, 212
  strategy, 209, 210
HIV and AIDS, 414
Holistic development, 4, 13, 17, 18, 20
Home-school involvement, 365, 370
Human capital investment, 545
Human development
  children's civil and political rights, 298
  De Cuellar report, 299
  dignity and well-being, 299
  inclusion and integration, 299
  SDGs, 298
  social policy and practice, 298
  sustainable development and social inclusion, 298
  UNDP, 298
Human rights, 50–52, 54, 56–59
  Geneva Declaration, 6
  Golden Rule, 6
  path, 5
  principles and standards, 5
  themes, 5
Human Rights Committee, 497
Human Rights Council, 56

I
Inclusive development approach, 205, 206
Inclusive education, 323, 324, 331
Individual Education Planning, 266
Individual variations, 580
Individualized development plans (IDPs), 227, 228, 230, 540–542
Individualized education plan (IEP), 75, 84, 124
Individual-personal domain, 583
Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), 84
Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) Amendments of 1997, 266
Influence, 261–265, 267, 268, 270, 271
Information and communication technology (ICT), 55
INSPIRE: Seven Strategies for Ending Violence Against Children, 236
Institutional review board (IRB), 445
Integral sexual education
  educational institutions, 213
  promote, 213
  school psychologist, 213, 214
  well-being, 213
Integrated Ethical Education approach, 277
Intensive training, 379, 380, 382
International agreements, 294
International community
  adoption, 49
  charity, 50
  child rights and culture, 52
  child rights organizations, 52
  children and human rights, 51
  children's personalities, 50
  civil and political rights, 52
  Communications Procedure, 50
  critical issues and prospects, 59, 60
  essential role of school, 58
  families and children's institutions, 51
  General Comments, 60
  human being, 51
  human rights, 57
  human subjects, 51
  international treaty, 50
  legal instrument, 51
  legal systems, 50
  monitor compliance, 53, 54
  monitoring process, 54, 55
  mutual enhancement, 57, 58
  participation of children, 54, 55
  public dialogue, 55, 56
  school setting, 50
  self-executing rights, 57
  State parties, 52
  states' legal systems, 56
  sustainable development goals, 61
  traditions and cultural values, 52
  UN General Secretariat, 50
  UN General Secretary, 49
  unsatisfactory progress, 53
International Institute for Child Rights and Development (IICRD), 131, 134, 146, 540, 595
International Olympic Committee (IOC), 385
International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF), 489
International Play Association (IPA), 338
International School Psychology Association (ISPA), 8, 9, 67, 110, 118, 145, 147, 167, 183, 189, 324, 331, 356, 394, 438, 506, 516, 536, 537, 593, 595
  child rights, 516, 519
  ethics, 517
  innovative approaches, 519
  network, 520
  organization's commitment and support, 518
  participatory approaches, 519
  policy, 518
  professional development and practice, 517, 518
  professional organizations, 519
  research, 517
  training materials, education, 517
  training, certification and licensure, 518
International School Psychology Association (ISPA) conference, 584
International School Psychology Committee (ISPC), 8, 67, 182
International Working Group on the Rights of Disabled Children, 502
International Year of the Child, 338
Internet Live Statistics Project reports, 560
ISPA's Professional Development and Practices Committee and Child Well-Being and Advocacy Committee, 519

K
Keys for Networking program, 365

L
Learning
  access to knowledge, 564
  adults, 567
  blended learning programs, 565
  child and youth well-being, 567
  child rights, 560
  children and youth, 567
  classroom environments, 564
  cost effectiveness, 564
  cyborgs, 559
  digital learning platforms, 563
  digital technology, 562
  direct service level, 566
  ease of revision, 565
  educational materials, 563
  financial costs, 563
  formal and informal education opportunities, 561, 562
  human experience, 559
  integration, 565
  Internet, 560
  K-12 education, 563
  mental health professional, 569
    children and youth, 570–572
    children's emotional state, 571
    counseling and therapy, 570
    educational and school psychologists, 570
    face-to-face methods, 571
    face-to-face visibility, 570
    integration of technology, 571
    Internet, 571, 572
    populations, 570
    self-disclosure and honesty, 571
    technological infrastructure, 570
  nontraditional schooling, 563
  online assessment and data monitoring tools, 568
  online intervention tools, 568
  online learning, 563
  pedagogical richness, 564
  personal agency, 564
  problem-solving model, 569
  quality of instruction, 563
  safety online, 572, 573
  school-based professionals, 563
  schools, 560
  social interaction, 564
  students, 559, 563
  tools, 567
  types of teaching, 565
Learning about religion, 312, 314
Learning from religion, 312–315
Learning religion, 311, 314, 315
Learning to live together: An intercultural and interfaith program for ethics education, 314
Legal frameworks, 262
Legislative Reform Initiative, 116
Legislative reform, difficulty
  Australian Human Rights Commission, 117
  Children's Rights Alliance of Ireland, 117
  "social" *vs*. "legal" issues, 117
  states parties policy, 116
Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) youth, 525
Life course framework, 223
Life-course model
  ACEs, 202
  implications, 202
  period/stage, 201
  perspective, 201
  principles, 201
  school psychologists, 202
  social and cultural structures, 201
  stages, 201
  trajectory and inflection, 201
  well-being, 200
Lifelong learning, 320, 323, 327
Literacy, 320
Low- and middle-income countries (LMIC), 177, 184, 436

M
Macrosystem, 179, 448
Marveling, 308, 313, 315
Mastery learning, 542, 543
Medical home model, 225
Mental Capacity Act, 509
Mesosystem, 28, 178, 448
Meta-macrosystem
  influence, 27
  participation, 28
  protection, 28
  survival and development, 28
Microskills, 411–416, 420
Microsystem, 26–28, 30, 446, 447
Mixed methods research, 580
Moral development, 276
Mother-to-child transmission (MTCT), 414
Multiple Family Group Program, 366
Multitier prevention framework, 223, 224
Multi-tiered family support
  child's schooling, 362
  communities, 364
  effective sponsorship, 364
  intensive level, 363
  networks, 364
  psychoeducation, 364
  relational support, 362
  school partnering framework, 363
  school psychologists, 362
  school-wide, 364
  services, 362
  targeted level, 363
  universal level, 363
Multi-tiered system of support (MTSS), 69

N
National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), 8, 38, 39, 42, 67, 147, 180, 182, 342, 355, 488, 516, 536, 550, 593
  advocacy and policy, 526, 527
  child rights, 524
  fairness and justice, 525
  high-quality instruction, 528
  national certification, 526
  organization's commitment and support, 527
  policy and practices, 524
  Principles for Professional Ethics, 524, 525
  privacy and confidentiality, 525
  professional standards, 524
  public education, 528
  research, 527
  responsible school-based record keeping, 525
  school psychologists, 524
  Standards for Professional Practice, 526
National Association of School Psychologists and the American Psychological Association in the United States, 438
National child protection organization (NSPCC), 385
National College for Teaching and Learning (NCTL), 469
National-level, 496, 497
Nationally Certified School Psychologist (NCSP), 526
Neurobiology, 417–419
Neuroscience, 417–419
New social contract
  children rights and psychologist, 329–331
  educational experiment
    protection violence and private life, 332
    right to an identity, 332
    right to education, 332
    UNESCO's learning, 332
  school psychologists *vs*. clients, 328–329
NGO Liaison Committee, 324
No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), 124
Non-discrimination
  CASEL, 85
  Child Rights Education Toolkit, 85
  cultural competence, 83, 85
  cultural humility, 84
  disability, 84
  family values/cultural heritage, 83
  ISPA Code of Ethics, 84
  right of parents, 84
  right to education, 83
  right to freedom, 83
  special care and support, 83
Non-governmental organisations (NGOs), 55, 269, 323, 341, 502
Nutrition, 415

O
Office for the Study of the Psychological Rights of the Child (OSPRC), 8
Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights (OHCHR), 10, 14, 16, 19, 55, 110
One Laptop Per Child (OLPC), 561
Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography (OHCHR), 50

P
Paradox of School Psychology, 393
Parent Connectors Program, 366
Parental rights, 57, 58
Participation, 52, 54, 55, 57–59
Participatory action research, 580
Participatory action research (PAR) approach, 344
Participatory Culture-Specific Consultation model (PCSC), 400–402
Participatory Culture-Specific Intervention Model (PCSIM), 580
Pediatric primary care, 225, 226, 229
Performance character, 547
Person Centred Plan approach, 509
Person-centred planning (PCP), 466, 467
Pew Research Center, 560
Physical health
  biomedical model, 198, 199
  biopsychosocial model, 199
  child rights and health approach, 204, 205
  definition, 197, 198
  inclusive development approach, 205, 206
  life-course model (*see* Life-course model)
  promotion (*see* Health promotion)
  school psychologists
    child standards *vs*. expectations, 206, 207
    school community, 207–209
  social determinants model, 200
Play
  adult involvement, 340, 341
  Article 31 rights, 345, 346
  children, 338, 339
  context of schools, 338
  Convention, 337
  policy considerations, 345
  right to play, 339, 340
  school environments, 341
  school psychologists
    family-school-cultural relationships, 344
    improve academic achievement, 342, 343
    positive behaviour and mental health, 342, 343
    positive school climates, 344
    support diverse learners, 343, 344
    teachers and parents, 342
  school psychology, 339, 340
Play as preparation, 340
Policy, 488, 490, 495, 497
  convention guide, 118
  Families and Children's Act, 118
  and laws
    articles and principles, 116
    convention standards, 116
  school assignment and funding, 119, 120
  school psychologists, 118, 119
Policy decision-making, 449

Position Statement on Child Rights, 183
Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS), 480
Positive emotions, social engagement, positive relationships, life meaning, and accomplishment (PERMA) model, 160
Positive youth development (PYD) programs, 278, 279, 430–432
Prevailing Ethical Principles: Respect for People's Rights and Dignity, 396
Professional competencies, 146
Professional development, *see* School psychologists
Professional ethics
  client *vs*. student scenario, 41
  client *vs*. student scenario, school psychologist response, 42
  principles, 39
  public arena, 44, 45
  public arena, school psychologist response, 45–47
  school/community scenario, 43
  school/community scenario, school psychologist response, 43, 44
Professional practice, 488
Professional title, 539, 548, 552
Professional values, 535
Program-centered administrative consultation, 476, 478, 479, 481, 483
Promoting Psychological Well-Being Globally Project (PPWBG), 584
Promotion of well-being
  DFM, 160
  epidemiological surveys, 160
  PERMA model, 160
  voices, 160
Promotion score, 450
Prosocial education, 276, 279–281
Prospective human development (PHD), 540–542
Protection, 51, 56
Protective Environment Framework, 492, 493
Psycho-clinical approach, 325, 328
Psycho-ecological approach, 324, 328
Psychoeducational support, 365
Psychological approaches
  prosocial education, 280, 281
  PYD, 278, 279
  SEL, 279
Psychological maltreatment, 234
Psychological well-being (PWB), 582
  children and adolescents, 578
  child-rights-respecting research, 581
  child-Rights-Respecting Research, 581, 582
  classification strategy, 163
  conceptual foundations, 578–580
  culture and context, 577
  European-descent Americans, 578
  evidence-based conceptual model, 161
  internal and external behaviors, 163
  mental health, 161
  methodological Foundations, 580, 581
  negative and positive indicators, 161
  rights-respecting research, 578
Public dialogue, 55, 56
Public health model, 100
Public policy, 488

Q
Quality education, 323
  ECCE (*see* Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE))
  human right, 320
  right to education (*see* Right to education)
  school psychology (*see* School psychology)
  social contract (*see* New social contract)

R
Randomized control trial (RCT) studies, 436
Religion
  description, 306
  framework, 311
  "Golden Rule", 311
  school system courses, 313
  "The Case for God", 305
Research and evaluation, 444, 446, 450, 452, 456
Research validity, 444, 445, 448, 456
Respect for People's Rights and Dignity, 517, 520
Response to intervention (RTI) evaluation, 353
Response to intervention (RTI) program, 92
Response-to-intervention (RTI) model, 69
Responsible citizenship
  academic debate, 285–288
  advocacy, 284
  caring, 282
  challenges, moral education, 277, 278
  character education perspective, 283
  children's competencies and skills, 275
  classroom community, 284
  community, 284
  democratic deliberation
    academic debate model, 285
    challenge/dilemma, 285
    electronic media, 285
    productive behavior, 285
  democratic society, 276
  distinctive role, 281, 282
  distributive justice, 282
  educational applications, 276
  elementary school, 282
  formal and informal organizational structures, 282
  informal peer hierarchy, 282
  interpersonal conflict, 283
  legislative role, 283
  legislative-moral process, 284
  mini-political society, 283
  moral and political issue, 285
  moral education, 276
  psychological foundations, 276
  school and classroom environment, 282
  school community, 288, 289
  school environment, 276

Responsible citizenship (*cont.*)
  school psychologists, 289, 290
  social experiences, 284
  social interactions, 284
  students, 283
Restorative justice
  academic achievement, 433
  bullying, 433
  Convention, 433
  convention model, 434
  cultural adaptability, 433
  decision-making processes, 433
  implementation, 433
  non-discriminatory practices, 432
  school community, 434
  school-based restorative approaches, 434
  social justice framework, 433
  stakeholders, 433
  students, 434
  training school staff and students, 434
Restorative Practices Development Team, 434
Restorative Whole-School Approach (RWsA), 433
Right to be heard, 54
Right to education, 56
  Article 28, 320
  Article 29, 320
  challenges, 322
  civil society and NGO, 323, 324
  convention, 321
  EFA goals, 321
  Jomtien World Conference, 321
Right to Education for All, 323
Rights Respecting Schools, 267
Rights Respecting Schools Award (RRSA), 468, 496
Roles and responsibilities
  academic and occupational success, 75
  action and decision-making, 73
  advocacy, 71
  assessment, 66, 67, 69, 75
  assessment activities, 67
  child's learning, 66
  children's rights, 65
  collaborations, 66, 68, 71
  consultation, 70
  Convention, 72, 76, 77
  critical thinking, 74
  daily practice, 65
  decision-making process, 74
  democratic society, 74
  development of psychology, 67
  diverse roles and settings, 73
  ecological systems, 68
  education, 66
  educational policies, 75
  educational process, 74
  educational settings, 74, 75
  emerging political and social climate, 66
  ethical and professional standards, 67
  family and community functioning, 76
  framework, 72
  functions, 68
  healthy school environment, 75
  implementation, children's rights, 77, 78
  intelligence (IQ) tests, 66
  intervention and prevention efforts, 69, 70
  mental ability testing, 66
  mesosystem, 68
  primary education, 73
  professional field, 66
  psychology professional associations, 72
  research and evaluation, 70, 71
  school policy and practice, 65
  school setting, 65, 73
  social and emotional competencies, 75
  treatment, 75
  zero-tolerance policies, 65

S
Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action, 503, 504
Salutogenic approach
  focus, 203
  school psychologist, 204
  stages, 202, 203
Schizophrenia, 396, 397
School administration
  activities, 474
  authoritarian leadership, 474
  child rights perspective, 474
  definition, 474
  democratic leaders, 474
  foundations, 474
  principals, 474
  recursive transformation and innovation, 474
  social exchanges, 474
  transactional approaches, 475
School and educational psychologists, 593–595
School-based intervention Programming, *see* School psychology
School-based Wraparound, 366
School community, 288, 289, 539
School consultation
  Check-In/Check-Out, 397
  conjoint behavioral, 395
  consultee-centered consultation, 398, 400
  convention role, 393–394
  education, 401
  family arrangement, 398
  history, 392
  information and materials, 401
  ISPA Code of Ethics, 396–402
  PCSC, 400
  primary education, 400
  profession and society, 402
  protection and promotion, 401
  psychological well-being, 398
  psychosocial treatments, 397
  right to care and support, 396
  schizophrenia, 395

  school psychologist role, 392–393
  school psychologists, 397
  social stigma, 396
  theory and practice, 394
  welfare and dignity, 396
School discipline, 477, 479, 480
  community, 432
  educational institutions, 432
  exclusionary practices, 432
  public schools, 432
  zero tolerance policies, 432
School improvement service (SIS), 460
School leadership
  administration, 475, 476
  administrative roles and strategies, 473
  Appreciative Inquiry, 475
  awareness, 475
  children's rights, 474
    administrative roles, 478
    childcare and protection, 477, 479
    child-centered, nondiscriminatory education, 477, 479, 480
    culture, leisure and play, 477, 478
    ethical principles and guidelines, 476
    home-school collaboration, 478
    policy, research and training, 480, 481
    program-centered administrative consultation, 478
    respect for children's views, 478
    school administrators, 476
    United States, 476
  psychology, 475, 476
  recommendations, 482, 483
  retained and transformational leadership, 475
  school administration, 474
School level, 495, 496
School Management Committees (SMC), 268
School mental health, 364
  committee, 122
  intervention, 121
  school psychologists, 122
  services, 121
School psychologist as mesosystem, 595
School psychologists, 110, 111
  competencies, 146
  education programs, 326
  existence models, 147
  guidelines, 150–151
  inclusive school, 327
  learning, well-being and health, 152
  organizations, 151
  preparation, 148–149
  professional arena, 145
  professional ethics and social justice advocacy, 146
  qualified teachers and school staff, 326
  training materials, 146, 149–150
School psychology (SP)
  accountability, 535
  Article 28, 324
  Article 29, 324
  category, 311
  central and superordinate purpose, 537, 538
  central and superordinate purposes, 535
  child advocates, 430
  child development, 13
  child population and reframe, 533
  child rights (CR) perspective
    adults and children, 429
    child development, 427
    children's mental health, 427
    disabilities and students, 429
    ecological contexts, 427
    internal/environmental risk, 427
    intervention, 427
    organizational framework, 427
    partnership, 428
    promotion, 427, 428
    protection, 427, 429
    protective factors, 427
    public health, 427
    researchers, 427
    risk and protective factors, 427
    school psychology, 429
    universal level programming, 427
  child rights advocacy (*see* Child rights advocacy)
  child well-being, 235, 534
  child's ecological system, 325
  children's rights, 311, 460
  clinical and educational models, 324
  conferences and symposia, 534
  conflict-affected country, 234
  considerations
    child participation and agency, 312
    concept mapping, 312
    issues, 312
  convention
    child development, 13–14
    civil rights, 14, 15
    culture, 16, 17
    disability children, 17, 18
    education, 10, 13
    family guidance, 19, 20
    family support, 19, 20
    health, 18, 19
    leisure, 16, 17
    protection, 14
    recreation, 16, 17
    rehabilitation, 18, 19
    well-being, 13, 14
    work, 16
  Convention, 459
  Convention and intervention programming, 430
  cultural competence, 429
  discipline, 534
  DPRC, 8, 9
  dual interactive identity, 534
  ecological foundations, 26, 27
  educational, 425
  educational context, 429
  educators, 534
  elements of effective programs, 426

School psychology (SP) (*cont.*)
  FFA, 326
  health promotion activities, 426
  health, development, and well-being, 311
  history, 8, 234
  illustration, 239–240
  implications, 34
  individual psychologist interventions
    awe, 313
    focuses, 313
    schemes, 313
  intervention, 234, 425, 426
  interventions, 426
  ISPA, 8
  medical model, 325
  multiple sector practice opportunities, 535
  multitiered intervention systems, 535
  OSPRC, 9
  partnerships, cooperation and solidarity, 535
  policy and practices, 312
  prevention programming, 426
  preventive interventions, 426
  primary and secondary clients, 538, 539
  primary client, 535
  professional training, 235
  professionals, 534
  promotion, 426
  protection and care, 534
  PYD programs, 430–432
  roles and functions, 535
  school-based intervention approaches, 430
  school discipline (*see* School discipline)
  school psychologist roles, 325
  scientist-practitioners, 534
  seek destiny control, 535
  social ecology, 325
  solve problems and overcome deficits, 534
  systemic level perspective, 429
  systems-level interventions
    character development, 313
    ethical/moral progress, 314
  themes, 534
  training, education and certification, 535
School Psychology Division (Division 16), 516, 595
School psychology practice, 82
School psychology professional organizations
  advocacy and policy making, 516
  stakeholders, 516
School Psychology: A Blueprint for Training and Practice III, 234
Schooling
  committee, 122
  convention, 121
  intervention, 121
  mental health services, 121
  school psychologists, 122, 125
  special education policy and programs, 123
  teaching child rights, 122, 123
School-wide positive behavior support (SWPBS), 76
Scope of practice, 548
Scottish educational model, 434
Self-esteem, 327, 328
Self-executing rights of children, 57
Sense of coherence (SOC), 203–204
Shared meanings, 580
Social and emotional learning (SEL), 279
Social contract
  child health and development professions, 545
  child rights approach, 539, 540
  child well-being, 540, 551
  child's development, 539
  conceptual frameworks, 545
  ISPA, 550, 551
  knowledge and roles, 548, 549
  mastery learning, 542, 543
  multiple profession and community resource synergy, 549
  pattern of capacities, 549
  prioritization of essentials
    academics and practical skills, 545
    character development, 547
    critical thinking, 547
    emotional self-regulation, 546
    empathy, 546
    holistic development, 547
    neuroscience knowledge base asserts, 544
    physical health, 546
    progressive realization of authentic self, 548
    social competency and health, 546
    spiritual development, 547
  recommendation, 550
  responsibilities and opportunities, 549
  school psychology organizations, 552
  school-based health and development centers, 543, 544
  scope of practice, 548
Social determinants model, 200
Social determinants of health (SDH), 176, 200, 215
Social Development Goals (SDGs), 298
Social domain theory, 277
Social ecological approach, 289
Social ecology, 487, 488
Social ecology model, 297
Social-emotional development, 353, 354
Social-emotional learning (SEL) programs, 75, 285, 354
Social inclusion, 416
Social justice, 355, 356, 413, 414, 416, 418, 419, 429, 430, 433, 437, 438
  advocacy, 40
  definition, 38
  principles, 37, 40 (*see also* Professional ethics)
Social Justice and Child Rights, 521
Social justice principle, 517
Social model of disability, 502, 503
Sociocultural ecologies
  climate change, 446
  Convention, 446
Socioeconomic status (SES), 350, 352
1996 South African Schools Act, 267
Special education, 123, 124

Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities (SEND), 507
Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCOs), 507
Special Needs and Disability Act, 505
Special Needs and Disability Tribunal, 508
Special Rapporteur on Disability, 502
Spirituality
  child rights, 308, 309
  definition, 306–307
  education and development, 309–310
  expert-citizen advocacy interventions, 314–315
  human functioning, 310–311
  positive psychology, 307–308
  school psychology (*see* School psychology)
Standards for Accreditation of Health Service Psychology, 550
Standards for Graduate Preparation of School Psychologists, 526
Stressors, 585
Structure, Process, Outcomes (SPO), 187
Student Support Card programs, 545
Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), 132
Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), 59, 351
Swedish Sports Confederation (SSC), 385
System assessment, 101, 107
System-level advocacy, 488

T
Technology in the Classroom, 557, 558
Thayer Conference of 1954, 534
Third Grade Reading Guarantee, 450, 451
Trauma-informed care
  CBITS, 436
  developing symptoms, 435
  effects of traumatic stress, 435
  evidence-based practices, 435
  neuropsychological features, 435
  posttraumatic stress, 435
  programming, 436
  public schools, 434
  refugees and immigrants, 434
  school psychologists, 436
  school-based psychoeducational skills, 436
  systemic approaches, 435
  universal level, 435
  variety of interventions, 436
Treatment Improvement Protocol (TIP), 435
Tulane University Child Rights Team (TUCRT), 506, 517
Tulane University's School Psychology Program (TU-SPP), 146, 552, 595

U
U.N. Convention on the Rights of the Child, 558, 571
U.N. Convention on the Rights of the Child in a Technological World, 559
UK Children and Families Act, 466
UK Special Educational Needs and Disabilities (SEND) Code of Practice, 466
UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities General Comment 4, 262
UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, 49, 52, 175, 260, 338, 384, 489, 550, 578, 581, 594
UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), 517
UNICEF Advocacy Toolkit, 489
UNICEF Child Protection Strategy, 492, 493
UNICEF Child Rights Education Toolkit (UNICEF), 490, 491
UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Manual, 99
UNICEF Rights Respecting School initiatives, 496
UNICEF's Protective Environment Framework, 492–494, 498
United Nations (1989) Convention on the Rights of the Child, 361
United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child as a General Comment, 502
United Nations Convention on the Rights of a Child, 351
United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 508
United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 81, 93, 98, 337, 370, 473–474, 501, 520, 558
United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR), 350
United Nations Development Program (UNDP), 298
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), 67, 502
United Nations General Assembly, 51, 352, 502
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 54
United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), 54, 182
United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR), 398
United Nations Sustainable Development Goals, 350
Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), 5–7, 15, 51, 338
Universal health coverage (UHC), 200
Universal Periodic Review, 497
Universal prenatal care, 237
US Public Health Service, 354

V
Values in Action (VIA) Project, 87
Vanderbilt Caregiver Empowerment and the Parent Connectors Programs, 365
Vanderbilt Caregiver Empowerment program, 365
Vice President for Education, Training, and Scientific Affairs (VP-ETSA), 521–522
Vice President for Professional Affairs (VP-PA), 522
Violence prevention, 234, 249
Voice, 262, 264

W
Whole-child education, 99, 101, 107, 109, 110
Whole-school approach, 210, 212
World Bank, 503
World Commission on Culture and Development, 298, 299
World Health Organization (WHO), 176, 503