



United Nations  
Educational, Scientific and  
Cultural Organization



Global  
Education  
Monitoring  
Report

Background paper prepared for the 2016 Global Education Monitoring Report

*Education for people and planet: Creating sustainable futures for all*

# Developing a monitoring instrument to measure extracurricular and non-formal activities which promote Global Citizenship Education (GCED) and Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)

*This paper was commissioned by the Global Education Monitoring Report as background information to assist in drafting the 2016 report. It has not been edited by the team. The views and opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author(s) and should not be attributed to the Global Education Monitoring Report or to UNESCO. The papers can be cited with the following reference: "Paper commissioned for the Global Education Monitoring Report 2016, Education for people and planet: Creating sustainable futures for all". For further information, please contact [gemreport@unesco.org](mailto:gemreport@unesco.org).*

## Abstract

The goal on Education is 1 of 17 Sustainable Development Goals that comprises a target to ensure all learners around the world have an opportunity to develop the competencies to promote sustainable approaches to living, including appreciating of cultural diversity, non-violence, and gender equality. Extracurricular activities and non-formal education (ENA) provides a non-traditional space for learning global citizenship and sustainable development. Around the world, communities have organized education programs and activities for youth outside school to learn the values and practices of being global citizens. Research shows, however, that most efforts to review and improve ENA for global citizenship and sustainable development have focused on summative evaluations with little attention to formative approaches of monitoring. Drawing on basic principles of action research, sustainable professional development, and education quality enhancement, a monitoring framework emerges to support organizations around the world in measuring progress towards education for global citizenship and sustainable development. This framework also suggests (1) inclusive monitoring spaces like internal reviews and online social networking platforms, (2) roles of stakeholders like donor agencies in institutionalizing monitoring practices, (3) instruments and measurable scales to facilitate dialogues that review program objectives and action plans, and (4) challenges in inclusive and sustainable monitoring tools and approaches.

## Table of Contents

Introduction	4
An analytical framework	5
Extracurricular and non-formal educational activities	5
Global citizenship	6
Sustainable development	6
Approaches to effective learning	7
Active participation for citizenship	8
A note on human development	9
ENA around the world	10
Africa	10
Arab states	11
Europe and North America	13
Latin America and the Caribbean	15
Asia and the Pacific	16
Summary of positive change	18
Acquisition and non-acquisition of GCED and ESD	20
Knowledge gaps	23
Monitoring ENA	24
Objectives of a measuring instrument for monitoring	24
Guiding principles approaches to monitoring education programs	24
Dimensions of ENA to measure and discuss	26
Spaces and mechanisms to support monitoring activities	28
Sample monitoring tools	29
Project Information Sheet	29
How Are We Doing	29
Methodological challenges	30
Conclusion	31

# 1 Introduction

The Sustainable Development Goals offers a global roadmap of development for peace and justice. Education is 1 of 17 goals. As one of its targets, people should learn how to live together for a more sustainable future. This background paper focuses specifically on how extracurricular and non-formal educational activities (ENA) can be developed and monitored to continuously improve educational programs promoting human rights, non-violence, and other facets of ensuring sustained peace and standards of living.

ENA can provide young people learning opportunities that schools may choose not to allocate time for. Traditional school-based structures can limit or hinder learning to live in diversity when students in classrooms only sit in rows, teachers teach to the test, and children have little or no say in how the school is operated. ENA bring to young people a critical and educational space that can shape a sustainable relationship between young people and their social and natural ecologies. ENA, however, is not safeguarded from factors that limit or undermine the positive influences on young people's growth and development into a citizenry grounded in principles of human rights, inclusion and non-violence. Studies (e.g., Jiang & Peterson, 2012; Metzger, Crean, & Forbes-Jones, 2009) have found that low-levels of self-esteem from competitive activities and delinquent behavior such as substance abuse and carrying weapons were reported by participants in after-school activities.

Developing ENA as a critical learning space for global citizenship and sustainable development requires a search to understand, measure, and enhance the influence of ENA on young people's various facets of human development and growth. Education researchers have made several attempts to examine contributing factors to successful ENA and develop tools to evaluate various effects of ENA. However, the popular research in activities for youth outside school (Farb & Matjasko, 2012; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Holland & Andre, 1987) have taken place mainly in North America investigating school-related extra-curricular activities using quantitative measures. What mostly lacks in our knowledge field of ENA are approaches to monitoring activities outside school for youth as a process of enhancing educational programs.

This background paper attempts to develop a framework for monitoring ENA designed to foster global citizenship and sustainable development among youth around the world. It begins by defining indicators of four key theoretical variables: (1) global citizenship, (2) sustainable development, (3) approaches to effective learning, and (4) participation for active citizenship. Then, it reviews studies and reports on extra-curricular activities outside school in regions around the world to identify trends in effective and ineffective learning of global citizenship and sustainable development and any knowledge gaps in the field. The final section in this report presents emerging principles in developing a monitoring framework for ENA and suggests numerous approaches to supporting organizations around the world in monitoring their activities as part of a process of education quality enhancement.

## 2 An analytical framework

Monitoring ENA for global citizenship and sustainable development requires an analytical framework comprising theoretical variables from a range of related knowledge fields. Theoretical variables most relevant to ENA include (1) global citizenship, (2) sustainable development, (3) approaches to effective learning, and (4) participation for active citizenship. Working definitions for each will suggest indicators that can provide the basis not only for monitoring but also design and evaluation of ENA for global citizenship and sustainable development. Subsequently, empirical studies and reports on extracurricular activities from regions around the world provides the framework a degree of sensitivity to the complex social ecologies found across cultures.

### Extracurricular and non-formal educational activities

Formal education provides children with a system of schooling, typically structured by a decreed [inter]national curriculum, governing authority and official recognition upon successful completion. Non-formal educational activities typically intend to achieve aims of education similar to those declared by governing authorities but incorporate a more holistic view of human growth and development mostly without an official recognition of academic achievement (e.g., diploma, certificate, baccalaureate). The distinction between formal and non-formal education can be blurred. In contexts affected by armed-conflict, for example, the make-shift yet structured provision of education for displaced and refugee children can provide children a system of schooling following the national curriculum but without official recognition of successfully completing the program. ENA can take place within formal and non-formal educational systems as they provide learners the opportunities to develop their potentials in spaces outside classrooms and other structured academic learning environments. Typical ENA include sports, music and arts clubs, religious groups, scouts, and other activities beyond an officiated curriculum although sometimes on school grounds. This background paper focuses on educational activities outside the formal schooling system.

ENA are fundamental learning spaces for holistic growth. Formal education and the national curriculum, to a great extent, inherently dictate and forward specific ideologies of a governing authority (Apple, 1993). Strict monitoring and accountability measures such as government exams and other standardized tests have shaped most education systems around the world into programs driven by academic achievement. Consequently, ENA have become critical spaces for children to grow and develop in areas other than academia, such as social, emotional, cultural, and physical.

When ENA aim to foster a form of living based on democratic and human rights principles, the activities require processes based on these principles (cf Dewey, 1944 [1916], 1959 [1897]). The Council of Europe (2003), for example, maintains that activities to empower young people should engage vulnerable and underrepresented groups (e.g., low-income families, children, refugees, girls and women, etc.) by involving them in planning and implementation activities. Influences of ENA on the development of young people, however, are not only determined by educational objectives and participative activities. Relationship dynamics within one's social ecology also shapes the processes and outcomes of ENA. According to Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1988) ecological systems theory (or bioecological model), the dynamics between the community surroundings and the participants largely influence the nature of the ENA and its effects on participants. Other influencing variables are examined in the following sections. In the context of global citizenship and sustainable development, one's ecology is extended to a global level. At this level,

relationships between individuals and topical issues (e.g., gender, rights, social justice, violence, etc.) and policies (e.g., civil rights, international conventions) become ever more pertinent.

## **Global citizenship**

The concept of being a citizen of the world has long been examined in political and social sciences (cf Hobbes, 1968 [1651]; Kant, 2006 [1795]). Understanding citizenship as a relationship between the individual and a community, the “world” in global citizenship, according to Falk (1993), becomes the main community that one relates with through awareness and action. Hence, by definition, global citizenship introduces an identity that extends beyond a country’s political borders (Bîrzéa, 2000). In addition to valuing diversity of cultures, global citizenship also carries a nuance of advocacy or solidarity for a cause, typically one that affects groups of people around the world (Dill, 2013; Oxley & Morris, 2013). Based on this premise of agency, fostering global citizenship is fundamental for promoting collective action, especially when vulnerable groups around the world lack any means to voice their experiences as victims of violence and injustice.

Citizenship studies address particular contestations or even limitations in the concept of global citizenship. Isin and Turner (2007) maintain that the emphasis of the “world” as the main level of identity or community in global citizenship narrows this conception of citizenship. Despite the recognition of multiple levels of identity in global citizenship (UNESCO, 2014), Osler and Starkey (2006) argue that cosmopolitan citizenship, which similarly envisions a citizen of the world, places more emphasis on practices and feelings within a cosmopolis of human rights. Furthermore, “global citizenship is more conceptually polarized” against national forms of citizenship whereas cosmopolitan citizenship embraces identities regardless of levels of community, encouraging a wider scope of introspective reflections and multi-identity expressions (Akar & Ghosn-Chelala, 2015). Nevertheless, international organizations and governments around the world have embraced the notion of global citizenship within the vision of an ideal citizen of the world.

## **Sustainable development**

Sustainable development is a broad approach to development leaving much room for interpretation (cf Redclift, 1987). According to the “2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”, the UN is in the process of setting indicators that define sustainable development. Drawing from existing literature (whether academic or developmental), understandings of sustainable development appear to exhibit three main features: continuity, empowerment and ecologies.

The concept of continuity is most prevalent in popular definitions of sustainable development where the vision of development is to ensure that current approaches to living safeguard the same opportunities for future generations. The landmark publication, “Our common future” (also referred to as the Brundtland Report), presented a definition of sustainable development that continues to be commonly cited, “The development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987, p. 16). The “needs” to meet include various aspects of living such as natural resources, education, safety, drinking water, equal opportunities and other human rights. Development in this sense, therefore, would need to protect humans from violence, ensure the same availability of natural resources (e.g., resource management: recycling, waste management, preserving natural environment, using renewable energy), safeguard equality (e.g., gender, good governance), and promote economic growth.

Empowerment, a second feature of sustainable development, highlights the position of human agency to show the extent to which the development activities are indeed sustainable. Learning to know, one of the four pillars of Learning to Live Together (Delors, 1996), empowers individuals as responsible, independent and proactive agents of change. More recently, the 2015 UKFIET International Conference on Education and Development (Oxford, UK) focused on how approaches to learning can provide sustainable means for a sustainable future. In contrast, development projects that lack mechanisms to support people advancing whatever new approaches they have learned exercise low levels of empowerment.

As a third feature of sustainable development where human beings are the leading agents of change, the human ecology presents not only sites of development but also their delicate interrelationships that also require attention. The broad framework of sustainable development encompasses all spheres of living, such as social, political, environmental, economic and health. Moreover, these spheres influence each other. The United Nations World Summit in 2005 defined economic development, social justice, and environmental protection as three pillars to sustainable development. In a Background Paper on sustainable development, Drexhage and Murphy (2010) maintained the importance of “recognizing the interdependent nature” yet “complex interconnections” of these three pillars (p. 6).

## Approaches to effective learning

Educational programs aspire for learners to meet the intended learning outcomes. Formal classroom learning entails far more structured activities than do ENA. Although structure does not guarantee that learners have learned effectively, evidence of approaches that do promote effective learning in classrooms can be applied to ENA outside the classroom to ensure similar degree of empowerment.

Watkins, Carnell, and Lodge (2007) identified four dimensions of effective learning: (1) active learning, (2) collaboration, (3) learner-driven learning, and (4) meta-learning. They argue that these dimensions create approaches are effective for lifelong growth and learning like working with others and taking responsibility of one’s learning. In active learning, they draw on the work of Dennison and Kirk (1990) who found that students learn actively when they engage in a cycle of Do, Review, Learn, and [Re]Apply. This means that learners first carry out the activity, receive feedback, reflect on the feedback and use the feedback to either do the task again or carry out another task. Through collaboration, learners build new constructs of knowledge together that would have looked quite differently had they worked alone (e.g., jigsaws), which is different from cooperation where learners work on their individual tasks together. Through a third dimension, learner-driven learning, students have opportunities to make choices in their learning. They develop a new sense of purpose and intrinsic motivation to learn. Students can make decisions on what to learn, how to learn it, ways to be assessed and what criteria to be evaluated by. The fourth dimension appears identical to “learning to know”, one of four pillars of Learning to Live Together (Delors et al., 1996). By learning how we learn, we perform better because we use our understandings to make decisions during the active learning process. In practice, we can facilitate meta-learning through four exercises:

- Noticing learning: Pausing in the middle of an activity
- Conversations about learning: Sharing experiences and observations
- Reflection: Making connections with past experiences and finding patterns
- Planning and experimenting with learning: Experimenting with learning by using the Do, Review, Learn and Apply cycle (Watkins, Carnell, Lodge, Wagner, & Whalley, 2001).

If we learn effectively when receiving feedback and having the opportunity to use this feedback, then the quality of the feedback influences the effectiveness of learning. Feedback clarifies what and how improvements can be made. This way, learners relate any faults or oversights to effort rather than ability. Hattie and Timperley (2007) suggested four types of feedback based on a meta-analysis of hundreds of published empirical studies on feedback. Feedback on (1) the process guides the learner on how to revise the work; (2) self-regulation encourages the learner to reflect and discover areas that need improvement; (3) the task shows which work appears [in]correct; and (4) the self provides praise towards the work carried out. In their conclusion, feedback on Process and Self-regulation are the most effective for learning and while praise (Self) has no direct impact on learning, it can effect motivation.

## Active participation for citizenship

The extent to which we regard participation as desirable or beneficial depends on our vision of citizenship or position as an individual among communities around us. When access to rights is based on race, gender or other identity-based differences, then participation will be exclusive. When a citizenship for human rights, social justice, and sustainable living is the utopia, then the activities and nature of participation should reflect those principles. Also, how children participate in the ENA is far more significant than the ENA itself. This section tries to answer, “What kind of participation best represents living as global citizens and for sustainable development?” The selected literature below presents basic concepts of participation that examine the extent to which activities foster living in the most inclusive, non-violent and sustainable manners.

Hart (1992) proposes degrees of participation as a ladder of eight steps. The bottom three – *manipulation*, *decoration*, *tokenism* – are the lowest levels of participation. Under manipulation, children receive no information on why they are doing something and how their ideas are being used. As decoration, the initiative is explicitly from adults, but children participate for emotional appeal. And participation becomes tokenistic when children communicate with others but the subject was not their idea, nor was the way of communicating it. The subsequent five degrees of participation are considered real or genuine. Starting with a basic level of participation, “assigned but informed”, young people understand the purposes of the project, how they were selected and choose to participate in the project after it is explained to them. When “consulted and informed”, adults run the projects but consult young people who then see how their feedback is being used. Under “adult-initiated, shared decisions with adults”, adults have ideas and want to carry out a project or activity, but will involve children in the planning processes. When “child-initiated and directed”, young people come up with great ideas and carry out projects or activities to see them through. Adults may have a role in facilitating by giving equipment, providing the space to come up with ideas or even share an idea that they have. At the highest level, “child-initiated, shared decisions with adults”, young people get inspired and start to create something or organize an activity. They approach adults who offer insight and support.

Other frameworks have emerged (Shier, 2001; Treseder, 1997) that also illustrate degrees of participation from less desirable to more desirable when striving for an active form of citizenship. Kirby, Lanyon, Cronin, and Sinclair (2003) shift the focus on degrees of participation to elements of participation, namely (1) children’s views taken into account, (2) children’s involvement in decision-making, (3) children sharing power and responsibility, (4) and children make autonomous decisions. Alongside participation, the

authors present other dimensions (e.g., the kinds of decisions children make, frequency of participation) that inform an analytical framework for examining participation of young people in activities.

### A note on human development

Learners benefit most when the learning activities are within their scope of abilities. In education, scopes of abilities have been mostly defined by age (e.g., Piaget, Erikson) while others (e.g., Vygotsky, Bruner) emphasized more on working around individual abilities through social interaction. For the purpose of a global monitoring framework of ENA, defining indicators based on age groups could risk a form of age-based categorization that we traditionally see in schools, which risks disengagement from children who find the activities either well below or above their capabilities. One dimension of human development that could be applicable to global citizenship and sustainable development is Kohlberg’s theory of moral development. Kohlberg argues that, as individuals, we progress from pre-conventional to post-conventional (see table 1). Our level of morality is not determined in the decisions we make but more in the reasons behind the decisions. While these share a similar nature of developmental progress as Piaget’s stages, attributing age groups per stage or level can be either inaccurate or misleading. Indeed, some adults may still justify following laws or even charity work at level 1. When monitoring progress of ENA, these levels and stages can be used to provide ENA curricula with some range of moral development to explore with learners.

Table 1. Kohlberg’s stages of moral reasoning

		Stage of moral reasoning
Level I Pre-conventional		<b>Stage 1:</b> Obedience and punishment; behavior is judged good if it serves to avoid punishment.
		<b>Stage 2:</b> Instrumental purpose; behavior is judged good if it serves personal needs or interests.
		<b>Stage 3:</b> “Good boy”, “Nice girl”; conforming with rules to impress others.
Level II Conventional		<b>Stage 4:</b> Authority or law-and-order; obeying rules and laws because they are needed to maintain social order.
		<b>Stage 5:</b> Social contract: viewing rules and laws as based on mutual agreement in the service of the common good.
Level III Post-conventional		<b>Stage 6:</b> Universal ethical principle; adopting an internal moral code based on universal values that takes precedence over social rules and laws.

Adapted from Kohlberg (1981). Taken from

[http://college.cengage.com/psychology/nevid/psychology/1e/shared/conceptcharts/ch10/conceptchart\\_10.1.pdf](http://college.cengage.com/psychology/nevid/psychology/1e/shared/conceptcharts/ch10/conceptchart_10.1.pdf).

### 3 ENA around the world

This review of empirical evidence across all regions around the world examined 46 studies on ENA that aimed to advance GCED and ESD. In order to develop an inclusive and holistic picture of the field, studies with diverse aims, operating in a variety of contexts were examined. An online search was conducted using Google search and the online library of Columbia University (USA) and Notre Dame University-Louaize (Lebanon) using combinations of wide variety of terms related to the GCED and ESD, combined with the words ‘youth’ or ‘children’ and ‘evaluation’, ‘impact’ or ‘study’. The databases of a number of international development and humanitarian agencies were reviewed including USAID development clearing house and resource databases of the International Rescue Committee, Save the Children, Norwegian Refugee Council and UNICEF. The review, therefore, includes operational evaluation along with academic studies that took varied approaches in their methods of measurement and areas of assessment. Time constraints limited the examination of reports in other parts of the world. Only reports and studies that were readily available online in the English language were used.

#### Africa

In Cameroon, two activities were found to engage youth in addressing key topical issues. The activities of a football club, Ntambag Brother Association (NBA), aimed at battling corruption by transforming moral values and practices (Fakwang, 2009). The NBA held regular meetings and tournaments and, promoting a code of discipline, fined members who missed these events. The association also supported underrepresented community members by establishing a fund for disadvantaged children. Fakwang argues that resources to support civil society should pay special attention to organizations that have grown through grassroots movements. Another three sports-based programs in South Africa developed through participatory action research found that the “School Sport Mass Participation Programme” that focused on male-dominated sports limited opportunities for females to participate (Burnett, 2010). In contrast, Burnett found that the “Active Community Clubs Initiative” that also promoted community cohesion through sports established clubs based on local needs and facilitated learning through collaboration and reflection. Also in Cameroon, young people participated in social marketing programs about sexual health. In a project that extended to Botswana, South Africa and Guinea during 1994-1998, peer educators were trained to motivate young people to use contraceptives when having sex (Agha, 2002). Agha reported improvements in women’s perceptions of benefits of and barriers to contraceptive use.

The YIPP project in Burundi aimed at transforming “organized forces of violence” into nonviolent grassroots social movements (Bigirindavyi, 2004, p. 86). Through YIPP, youth leaders from different communities received training seminars on working with youth in establishing peace clubs, organizing cross-community service projects and operating a program to reintegrate and rehabilitate former child soldiers. Limitations emerged from limited capacities to raise funds and addressing power struggles within the organization. Another investment in young leaders took place through “Youth inspired: Today and tomorrow” in 2013 and “Intamenwa (Indivisibles): Mobilizing youth for peaceful elections” in 2012 to combat manipulation and violence anticipated in forthcoming 2015 Burundi elections. Activities included the collaboration (training and youth forums) of youth from different groups and political parties, financial assistance for cross-community service projects, five regional peace festivals and radio broadcasts to highlight young leaders’ efforts for peace (Andrés, 2014). Andrés reported that the project increased the participants’ awareness of political manipulation including a 68% increase in capacities for leadership, non-violent communication and conflict resolution and found a 10% increase in youth-led activities for

peace. According to Andrés, the project failed to address underlying drivers of youth manipulation such as disengagement with politicians and issues of gender inequality.

A similar project in Côte D'Ivoire aimed to enhance democratic principles and practices among youth. Across four regions, young people participated in 24 workshops and 22 follow-up sessions that focused on self-transformation, critical thinking, empathy and learning through theatre (Gouley & Kanyatsi, 2010). Gouley and Kanyatsi (2010) reported that the interactive nature of the activities seemed to have improved participants' knowledge and practical skills in conflict transformation and leadership and enhanced their ability to engage in non-violent conflict resolution initiatives. The authors recommend greater partnership with local authorities to improve sustainability and further attention to promoting gender equality. Also in Côte D'Ivoire, a project provided young people and teachers in 30 schools and local communities training sessions on conflict resolution. For evaluation, ten young people learned how to facilitate and capture on video reflections of 60 students who reported on changes in their behavior and an increased sense of inner peace (Flower, 2015).

An international and comparative study qualitatively examined impact of youth peacebuilding educational initiatives of 18 organizations in the Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo (McGill, O'Kane, Bista, Meslaoui, & Zingg, 2015). Young people learned about children's rights, gender-based violence and peaceful cohabitation through activities like song, theatre, dance, and art during vacation camps and clubs. Participants collaboratively engaged in conflict mediation and educational efforts and reported a greater degree of responsibility and commitment to peacebuilding. At the community level, evidence suggested reduced levels of discrimination, reduced cases of gender-based violence, increased support to vulnerable groups, and increased knowledge of children's rights. Factors that seemed to influence project success include financial support, the presence of ongoing conflict and the use of awareness-raising amongst communities.

In Uganda, two environmental education programs – “Roots and Shoots” and “Wildlife Clubs of Uganda” – engaged 487 participants between 14 and 23 years old in service learning activities linking pro-environmental behavior and self-efficacy and self-esteem (Johnson-Pynn & Johnson, 2010). The authors found that participants in Roots and Shoots showed higher levels of self-efficacy, positive attitudes towards diverse groups and commitment to social justice when compared to participants in Wild Life Clubs. Participants in Roots and Shoots engaged more in capacity-building exercises and mentorship during project planning and execution.

## **Arab states**

In the Arab Gulf region, Hubbard (2010) investigated successes and challenges of youth development programs by carrying out a desk review and interviews with development workers and over 50 young participants. Participants described greater feelings of civic responsibility and confidence to participate as examples of positive impact. The study, however, identified differences in participants' self-perceptions of empowerment, with some feeling connected towards their community and others felt alienated from it. Youth workers expressed a desire for increased funding, partnerships with other organization and media and communication capacities.

A study examining education policy for global citizenship in Lebanon, Oman, Egypt, Kuwait and Iraqi Kurdistan identified tensions in citizenship education policy and practice in the region (Akar & Ghosn-

Chelala, 2015). Levels of identity beyond national, pan-Arab and religious levels are seen as necessary for competing in global markets but also as potential threats to conserving national heritage. Despite intentions to promote inclusion, equality, critical thinking and active participation, education for citizenship in practice still appears authoritarian through traditions of memorization. The colonial influence of additional languages enriches a global and cosmopolitan approach to citizenship, yet Arabic remains the primary if not only language to access State-run citizenship education. Consequently, non-nationals or other minority groups are often excluded from learning about rights and responsibilities in line with the government vision of an active citizen. Iraqi Kurdistan is an exception with its multilingual national curriculum.

In Iraq, the Cross Cultures Project Association launched the “Open Fun Football Schools” project in 2010 bringing together 111 voluntary football clubs and instructors who use ‘non-competitive Fun Football’ pedagogical concepts to promote reconciliation, gender equality, social cohesion and active citizenship. The evaluation report (Bryld, Masri-Pedersen, Fathallah, & Christoplos, 2014) highlighted the limitations in measuring impact at a societal level and at promoting gender equality amidst a highly conservative culture with strict views limiting women’s rights. The report recommended the formalization of voluntary clubs in order to improve their transparency, accountability and levels of collaboration with local authorities to ensure long-term sustainability. Children participants did not confirm the program designers’ assumption that the participants experienced inter-ethnic tension. Hence, Bryld et al. (2014) also urged that clubs need to operationalize a children’s rights-based approach and increase direct dialogues with children who participate in the programs.

Project Encounter, a Spanish NGO, organized three peace and human rights education summer camps for 24 Israeli and Palestinian teenagers between 2001-2003. Colman (2006) presents the reflections of a resident art educator in how the program attempted to address divisive historical narratives and definitions of ‘us’ and ‘them’ by facilitating conversations that recognize competing narratives and critically examine their own. Student participants were selected based on grades, English language proficiency and maturity. The methodology and structure of the camps followed the four principles of Allport’s (1954) contact theory: use of a neutral space, equal status of all participants, the nature of the contact being ‘prolonged and frequent’, and opportunities for participants to collaborate to achieve a common goal. Colman found that students benefited from participating in collaborative art by having space for personal expression, learning new skills and having a tangible goal to achieve. Recommendations for future programs include the examination of art through a human rights lens as a teaching tool for human rights education and a focus on learning *for* human rights rather than *about* it to better empower the students.

In Jordan, we can learn from two projects that aim to empower vulnerable youth. The “Youth: Work Jordan” project, with a budget of 30 million USD over five years, aims to enhance the employability of disadvantaged youth in Jordan between 15 and 24 years old through community-based projects. The midterm evaluation report (Hua & Dous, 2011) found that the project successfully implemented volunteer and community service programs; though highlights the immense efforts needed to create a new culture of community service and understand better the influence of existing cultural norms on project aims and outcomes. For example, certain service jobs carry a stigma of shame that, consequently, inhibit seizing certain employment opportunities. The evaluation also found that local staff lack expertise to run the program effectively and the project design lacks an integration of quantifiable outcome measures to map the systemic impact beyond changes in youth perception and behavior. Another youth empowerment program, “Questscope”, enrolled 7000 out-of-school youth (13-21 years old) in non-formal educational

activities. Through an experimental design, Morton and Montgomery (2012) investigated the impact of a program that focused on school subjects, recreational activities and vocational activities on students' self-efficacy, social skills, social support, psychosocial wellbeing and empowerment. The instructors facilitated a democratic decision-making process where the participants decided the format and order of activities and planned events. The study found no significant difference on participant's self-reported self-efficacy in the study and control group. Findings did show that participants reported a lower instance of behavioral problems and that programs with higher rates of attendance showed higher results in levels of empowerment.

The 'MediAction' project ran for 30 months in Morocco and aimed to promote dialogue, peace and social cohesion by developing the capacities of 133 young people as mediators. The project established five mediation centers in partnership with local associations and carried out an awareness-raising campaign at the local level. By the end of the project, the majority of young mediators reported a positive change in their lives and an improvement in their self-esteem, knowledge of mediation skills and conflict transformation and greater connection with their community (D'Errico, Amraoui, & Marmo, 2010). The same evaluation report identified challenges of partnering with local institutions, such as administrative delays and limited capacities of human resources. The authors recommended that more efforts be made to enhance local ownership of the project, further involve the implementing partners and connect participants through a national network of support to ensure sustainability and quality.

Non-formal education emerges as a fundamental approach to ensure over half a million out-of-school SRC in Lebanon have access to education. In Akar (2015), project managers and field workers from eight non-formal education programs for SRC in Lebanon described their approaches, challenges and successes. Findings suggest that education design for SRC in Lebanon requires educators to consider provisions of basic needs like food and clothing, close and regular coordination with parents, individual and group activities to manage war-related trauma, teacher professional development for supporting children with war-related trauma, and advocacy for government policy to officially recognize non-formal educational programs as legitimate enough for children to sit for official exams.

## **Europe and North America**

Under the European Volunteer Service, nine youth-led action project in South East Europe included the creation of a peace park, conservation projects, education on cross-border active citizenship, youth exchanges and an intercultural dialogue camp. The activities aimed to facilitate social inclusion (particularly those that were economically disadvantaged or socially marginalized), promote a sense of active citizenship, and support personal growth. According to Salto Youth (2011), young people from diverse backgrounds formed relationships with one another through volunteer projects (e.g., educational summer camps, attending training courses on outdoor activities, using artistic tools to raise awareness of environmental issues and a range of other sports, recreational and cultural activities). Some outcomes included changes in self-concept; an appreciation of other cultures, global issues, environmental sustainability, and the importance of active citizenship and participation; and identification of common values across cultures.

An arts-based educational initiative in Bosnia-Herzegovina aimed at enabling children to act as peacemakers through creative expression. Kollontai (2010) interviewed 22 young people (12-26 years old) from various ethnic groups on how art-based activities supported management of post-war trauma. Despite

the difficulties in quantifying such open-ended and personal reflections, the author found that art effectively helps individuals explore experiences and emotions, resolve conflict, improve teambuilding, and build empathy and understanding among different ethnic groups. Similarly in the USA, an LGBTQ youth organization named “Riot Youth” raised awareness and promoted collective empowerment through theatre to perform real-life experiences. Performing their stories allowed participants to critically analyze their experiences of being marginalized, demonstrated strong potential to impact school policy, and fostered increased sense of self-confidence, public speaking and group facilitation (Wernick, Kulick, & Woodford, 2014).

Young people who participated in PeaceJam, a worldwide community service action program for young people in the USA, drew on the stories of Nobel Laureates to design and implement a community service project addressing a global issue. They then presented their projects to Nobel Laureates at an annual conference. In examining the effects on civic behavior (critical thinking, self-growth, non-violence approaches to conflict), Jones, Warnaar, Bench, and Stroup (2014) identified increased self-awareness, which, in a third of participants led to increased community engagement. Participants also identified the formation of a sense of group identity within the program with similar values and objectives, which is shown to be an important factor in levels of engagement. Participants highlighted the ability to connect what they learned with the choices made when carrying out the activities.

Using technology, two projects in Canada appeared to have empowered young people in building relationships with others on climate change (Truong-White & McLean, 2015) and learning about health issues around the world (Flicker et al., 2008). The Bridges to Understanding Climate Change Curriculum is a global citizenship education initiative that fosters relationships and collaborative dialogues between students from different countries online through digital storytelling. They shared personal experiences related to climate change and worked to reach consensus on a plan of action. Truong-White and McLean (2015) found that the use of journaling and online discussions allowed individuals to reflect on their values and that the process of online collaboration facilitated the development of participants’ awareness of multiple perspectives, group interdependence, and dialogue and collaboration skills. In the second project, “TeenNet”, university health researchers partnered with 57 youth and 5 community organizations to engage young people to take action on health issues through interactive health websites. Following weekly meetings over a period of 4-12 months, Flicker et al. (2008) found a high degree of youth agency in the decision-making and development of the approach and process of each project resulting in photo and art exhibitions, music, drama and videos, a website and school presentations. Participants also engaged in critical reflection on their participation in the project and designed their own strategies to measure the impact of their projects.

Through sports events, namely basketball, the PeacePlayers International Primary School Twinning program on relations between 2,000 young people from different religious backgrounds in Northern Ireland aimed to foster social cohesion between Catholic and Protestant communities. The project facilitated cross-community tournaments, five-week-long basketball leagues, and an Advanced Leadership Program for young people aged 11-17 on topics related to promoting diversity through sports. Young leaders were also recruited as “Champions 4 Peace”, to engage in advocacy, recruit participants and give feedback on the development of the program. Surveys of 1024 young people that took part in the program documented positive shifts in their attitudes towards those of other religious backgrounds showing an increase of 7% in wanting to meet young people from different religious backgrounds (McCluskey & Bell, 2013). The study

also attributed the program's success to the enthusiasm of the coaches, the relevance of the program content to the existing school curriculum, active partnership with local organizations, and the perceived neutrality of the organization. The study highlights the continuing challenge of structured segregation that exists within the education system and Northern Irish society as they inhibit contact between young people from different community backgrounds.

In an assessment on the impact of youth-related activities like youth organizations and hobby education (e.g., learning an instrument) on young people in Estonia, Taru (2013) measured young people's attitudes towards multiculturalism, the labor market and political engagement. Taru found a positive correlation between levels of participation in after-school activities and political engagement (e.g., participation in voting), positive attitudes towards those of other cultures and increased engagement in planning for future careers. Some factors that appeared to have influenced the success of these programs include positive staff-youth relationships, practical opportunities to apply and develop skills, a high level of youth engagement, youth voice in program design and decision-making, positive peer relationships and sufficient resources.

## **Latin America and the Caribbean**

From 2006-2008 at a woman's outreach center in Cochabamba, Bolivia, staff facilitated human rights education workshops to marginalized, indigenous adolescent girls. The activities aimed to foster in them a sense of empowerment, agency, their resistance to patriarchal constraints imposed by their society, and their sense of solidarity. Participants attended 45 workshops of interactive group activities over a three-year period. The program introduced participants to legal frameworks surrounding human rights, concepts of citizenship and peacebuilding, women's leadership and environmental sustainability. Focus groups and questionnaires aimed to capture the narrative experiences of 116 participants (Gervais, 2011). Findings showed an increased awareness of their human rights and legal frameworks, an ability to reflect and think critically about their own role in society and make decisions, an increase in their sense of self-worth and self-esteem, a high sense of security in claiming their rights (83%), an increased willingness to resist violations of their rights and a greater willingness among 90% of participants to seek support from governing institutions. Some barriers to girls demonstrating their perceived sense of empowerment stem from a deep-rooted culture of male dominance that manifests in how decisions are made.

Music-related activities have also emerged as critical spaces of ENA for vulnerable children. Young people from poor, working class families in Brazil who are typically excluded from the formal education system participated Brazilian hip hop activities for active citizenship, vocational skills, and self-confidence. Brazilian culture has conceptualized hip hop as a vehicle for social change and transformation that is cultivated through creative self-expression. In an ethnographic study, Pardue (2004) documented the processes and personal experiences of young men (14-18) reconceptualizing their self-image through song composition, body movement, and graffiti art under challenging themes like AIDS, drug trafficking, and civil rights. The study, however, did not document the impact of the workshops on changes in their self-perception, attitudes or behaviors. In another music-based ENA initiative for children at high risk of dropping out and resorting to violence, children in Haiti, Jamaica, and Saint Lucia participated in OASIS, an after-school youth orchestra program. Each of the three orchestral and choral training centers provided two hours a day of music education for 80 marginalized young people (10-18 years old). Compared with children who did not participate in the OASIS program, responses to questionnaires and focus group discussions revealed that those in the OASIS program showed higher levels of confidence to concentrate and complete academic tasks, low levels of engagement in risky behaviors, better relationships with parents

and adults, and greater ability to regulate negative emotions (Organization of American States, 2012). The report also highlights the need for engagement with parents, monitoring of attendance, and greater support through additional staff to provide professional guidance to students undergoing personal and mental health problems.

## Asia and the Pacific

In 2005, the Bangladeshi development organization BRAC set up “Employment and Livelihood for Adolescents” centers to empower adolescent girls to become more financially and socially independent. In an impact evaluation exercise, Shahnaz and Karim (2008) reported that each center had 30-35 participants aged between 10 and 24 who were selected based on an eligibility test. They engaged in activities like reading, discussions on social and health issues like child marriage, and workshops on starting their own business and microfinance. The study measured the impact of these centers on girls’ age of marriage, school attendance, sociability, and awareness of health and economic empowerment. Evidence neither suggested a significant difference in the rates of early marriage and enrollment amongst participants and non-participants nor showed an increase in knowledge of health-related issues. However, the study did find a direct increase in girls’ mobility and levels of sociability, which the authors argued have a positive impact on feelings of stress and insecurity and result in a higher level of engagement in income-generating activities. Qualitative interviews found that participants had higher levels of confidence in relation to advocating for later marriage for themselves and a greater degree of “control over their lives and life decisions” (p. 29). Finally, the study found a positive change in the attitudes of family members and parents with regard to girls’ empowerment, mobility and inclusion in family decisions.

Another study looking at impact on individual children took place in Tokyo, Japan. Junior high school students participated in projects that aimed to transform communities into places where children are active, empowered, and influential. Yoshinaga, Takeda, and Kinoshita (2014) examined the impact of participation on self-efficacy and motivation. The study compared the impact of collaborating with residents and local authorities to design a park with the impact of participation in other types of community improvement programs (e.g. trash collection) where students were not engaged in decision-making. The initiatives first established mechanisms that advocate for children’s human rights and any registered complaints. The researchers found that students that participated in the park design project showed higher levels of self-efficacy and a greater degree of community awareness. The authors highlighted the importance of engaging young people in decision-making when developing programs that aim to enhance the lives of children.

Focusing particularly on learning and teaching experiences, Cheng (2010) carried out a qualitative study examining the pedagogical approaches used by nine educational NGOs in Cambodia in programs for socially and economically disadvantaged youth aged 14-30. The programs aimed at developing vocational skills to improve youth employability and enhance their socio-cultural roles as informed, responsible, confident, and active citizens. The study argued to widen the traditional aims of vocational education from economic skill provision to empowerment of participants. From a sample of 69 beneficiaries, findings suggested that a supportive, cooperative, and inclusive learning environment created effective pedagogical approaches for the promotion of participants’ economic, social and personal development. The study highlighted the importance of cultural, recreational and creative activities (e.g. drama, dance sport) to build participants’ self-esteem and confidence and facilitate supportive relationships among participants and program staff. The program gave participants the opportunity to engage with everyday moral dilemmas

and challenges through community service programs. Students were also given opportunities to generate income, which appeared to help develop a sense of self-efficacy and sustained motivation to continue with the program. After the program, follow up coaching and peer check-ins were provided.

In another review of education programs delivered through civil society, Yoshinaga et al. (2014) investigated the operational and broader structural conditions and their impacts of social service programs by 40 NGOs in Kazakhstan. The selected NGOs focused on areas of early childhood development, the promotion of healthy behaviors amongst youth, and the integration of disabled and vulnerable youth into society. The report highlights the importance of work at the policy level to influence legislation that regulates funding for NGOs and establishes cooperative relationships with the Ministry of Labor and Social Protection. Findings revealed several constraints mentioned by NGOs on the delivery of their programs. Some mentioned the effect of corruption on the allocation and availability of funding, negative societal attitudes towards social services, and a lack of capacity within organizations. Some successful outputs included the exchange of best practice and greater collaboration between NGOs in different regions in Kazakhstan and greater integration of disabled children into formal schooling.

In Laos, the Norwegian Church Aid implemented, “Strengthening School Network for Human Trafficking Prevention” in communities and schools across nine districts in the Bokeo Province. The organization carried out a qualitative impact assessment on the 24-month educational program that aimed to empower children aged 12-18 to combat human trafficking (Norwegian Church Aid, 2010). Program activities included raising awareness about the Convention on the Rights of the Child, issues related to human trafficking, and strengthening the capacity of local authorities to deal with these issues. The organization reported that the program incorporated rights-based principles into its design and implementation to ensure accountability and sustainability. Networks of peer educators and teachers were trained to facilitate role play activities, dances, games and songs to convey messages to target groups who subsequently used them as teaching tools in a variety of after-school activities and youth camps. Some successful outputs included increased awareness of human trafficking and children’s rights, a decrease in drop-out rates among students participating in the program, and a reported increase in social cohesion and social awareness. Those interviewed also reported a high level of involvement of youth peer educators in the direction, design and implementation of activities; although further active support from supervisors and adults for peer educators is continuously needed. The authors also argue that the dissemination of knowledge is not sufficient for children to become empowered citizens capable of claiming their rights.

In another impact assessment study, S. E. Krauss et al. (2014) examine six afterschool and community programs in Malaysia designed to teach youth, ages 15-24, skills related to health, spirituality, arts, communication, civic engagement. The surveyed a total of 299 participants to assess whether making decisions within supportive adult relationships (described as “youth-adult partnership”) contributed to the development of greater confidence and agency, empowerment, critical consciousness and community connections. The afterschool programs were part of a national policy designed to prepare young people to be active contributors to their nation and espouse a sense of global citizenship. According the national policy, the key areas are personal efficacy, empowerment, and promoting community connections. Evidence suggested that supportive adult relationships and youth involvement in decision-making were the two strongest contributors to development of youth agency and empowerment. No specific information was given on the pedagogical models and approaches to implementing the activities.

In 2003, UNICEF (2003) published a midterm evaluation of the “School-based Healthy Living and HIV/AIDS Prevention Education” program, a multi-year project that began in 1997, and reached primary, middle and high schools in 104 townships in Myanmar. The extracurricular activities in this program aimed to teach children life skills such as “socially desirable values” and “healthy habits” to maintain a healthy lifestyle, prevent the transmission of HIV/AIDS, and increase their support for those with the disease (p. 6). The report described child-centered methods of teaching like discussion-based activities, role play and dramatization, games, and cooperative learning. The qualitative study found that teachers and students responded well to the active and child-centered learning methods but mainly limited their activities to group discussion, citing constraints with regard to time and facilities. Evidence suggested an increase in knowledge and positive changes in attitudes and behaviors related to the prevention of HIV/AIDS and other unhealthy behaviors such as drug abuse and smoking among students, as well as a higher degree of motivation. A third of respondents attributed these changes in their attitudes and behaviors to the SHAPE program. It also found an improvement in participants’ nutrition and health practices and in their decision-making and social skills. However, it did not find an increase in levels of compassion towards HIV sufferers among participants. Limited success of the program was reportedly a result of (1) failure to provide the funds necessary for activity materials, (2) large and multi-grade classes sizes, (3) limited facilities and time, (4) weaknesses in the design and sustainability of the training for teachers (e.g. lack of consistent training for new teachers, adequate follow up), and (5) the institutional management structures set up to monitor and support the program. With regard to learning methods, respondents recommended adopting multi-media approaches, using informal presentations and discussions and limiting child-centred activities to discussions.

### **Summary of positive change**

Despite the wide range of objectives stated in the aforementioned EFA programs, they all sought to empower youth as confident and active contributors and agents of positive change to advance various areas of sustainable development including equality and inclusion, positive peace, human rights and improved health, particularly related to HIV prevention. Some principal themes that ran across the EFA programs were:

- Promoting peace through conflict resolution and relationships for social cohesion
- Promoting human rights through the awareness of legal frameworks and concepts related to human rights and the personal capacities to claim and advocate for them
- Promoting health and wellbeing through greater awareness and shifting behaviors
- Promoting sustainable environmental practices through awareness raising, advocacy, and action projects
- Promoting a sense of global or multi-cultural citizenship that transcends national boundaries and allows for greater communication and collaboration with people from other countries

These cross-cutting themes encompassed a number of educational aims that would empower young people to participate fully and act as agents for change in their societies. The concept of empowerment emerged at four levels. At a cognitive level, programs aimed to develop individuals’ abilities to identify, question and challenge inequality, violence, human rights abuses, and systemic barriers to change. At a psycho-emotional level, they aimed to develop participants’ self-confidence and self-efficacy as a critical condition for enacting change. At a social level, the programs aimed to develop participants’ social and interpersonal

skills necessary to form networks of support and constructive relationships. Finally, at a pragmatic level, the activities aimed to develop individuals' practical skills to make decisions affecting their lives and take action on issues affecting them.

Evidence of positive change from EFA was reported at individual and societal levels. At the individual level, EFA evaluation reports found high levels of attainment of skills in leadership, problem-solving, public speaking, conflict resolution and mediation (e.g., D'Errico et al., 2010; Flower, 2015; Gouley & Kanyatsi, 2010; Stine, 2015) and critical thinking and analysis (e.g., Bigirindavyi, 2004; Flicker et al., 2008; Hull, Stornaiuolo, & Sahni, 2010; Shahnaz & Karim, 2008; Truong-White & McLean, 2015); and knowledge in global issues like climate change (e.g., Gervais, 2011; Truong-White & McLean, 2015). Learners reported on their changes in self-confidence and self-esteem (e.g., Armitage, 2012; S. Krauss et al., 2014; Morton & Montgomery, 2012; Wernick et al., 2014; Yoshinaga et al., 2014), identified with those from other cultures (e.g., Bigirindavyi, 2004; Cardozo et al., 2015; Hull et al., 2010), and expressed motivation to achieve change (e.g., Jones et al., 2014; McGill et al., 2015).

At the societal level, Andrés (2014) documented a reduction in cases of violence and an increase in youth-led activities for peace in regions where ENA aimed at increasing youth's awareness of political manipulation and their skills in promoting non-violent conflict resolution. McGill et. all (2015) found low levels of discrimination and gender-based violence and higher levels of support to vulnerable groups. In Bangladesh, Shahnaz and Karim (2008) found shifts in the attitudes of family members who were more supportive of greater mobility and empowerment of girls attending BRAC learning centers.

## 4 Acquisition and non-acquisition of GCED and ESD

Around the world, educational programs in forms of ENA are organized for young people to develop their capacities for global citizenship and sustainable development. Based on the reports accessed online, we can identify a number of factors that facilitate, limit and potentially undermine GCED and ESD.

Factors that facilitate acquisition of GCED and ESD

### **Inclusive participation**

Programs reported as successful and meeting needs of the local community also reported the involvement of participants and their communities in the design, implementation and evaluation of the program (e.g., Burnett, 2010; D'Errico et al., 2010; Hubbard, 2010). Several studies highlighted the importance of ensuring gender equality in program design and implementation so that conservative social norms do not hamper women's ability to apply what they have learned in practice (e.g., Bryld et al., 2014; Samuel Hall Consulting, 2014). Participation in decision-making processes was found to be effective in developing participants' sense of self-efficacy by a study of Malaysian youth programs (Krauss et al., 2014). Ensuring that programs are accessible to all individuals through various languages also promotes inclusive participation.

### **Relevance**

Program activities are contextually appropriate and responsive to local needs. Studies highlighted that programs that were adapted to local needs and developed in collaboration with local partners were found to have a positive impact on participants and their communities (e.g., Armitage, 2012; Bigirindavyi, 2004). Coalter (2010) highlights the risk posed by the use of international aid to finance local programs, which he argues can distort the aims and visions of local implementing organizations.

### **Supportive environment**

Forming supportive social relationships with adults and other participants was described by participants as one of the biggest benefits for their personal development and having a safe and nurturing environment for self-expression and reflection (e.g., Cardozo et al., 2015).

### **A systemic approach**

Activities connected various fields together (e.g., legal, social, political, environmental). Successful programs, for example, engaged young people in reaching out to community leaders to address cultural barriers to change (e.g., Campbell & MacPhail, 2002; Gouley & Kanyatsi, 2010; Johnson-Pynn & Johnson, 2010).

### **Dialogic pedagogies and research**

Dialogue, discussion and online participatory action research were highlighted as important tools for the promotion of critical consciousness and analysis of structural and systemic factors that contribute to injustice, inequality, unsustainable environmental practices, and the development of a sense of global citizenship (Truong-White & McLean, 2015; Hull, Stornaiuolo & Sahni, 2010; Shahnaz & Karim 2008; Bigirindavyi, 2004; Flicker et al., 2008).

### **Service learning**

Reflecting on learning experiences when participating in community service projects was highlighted as an effective means to develop participants' sense of self-efficacy and civic mindedness (a responsibility to improve the lives others locally and globally) (e.g., Salto Youth, 2011).

### **Intercultural interaction**

Grounded in Allport's (1954) contact theory, individuals of different cultures, ethnicities, and nationalities were given an opportunity to get to know each other at a personal level and engage in discussions and reflections. Consequently, feelings of suspicion and negative stereotypes seemed to decrease, especially in contexts where armed-conflict had occurred (e.g., Colman, 2006; McCluskey & Bell, 2013).

### **Arts and creative expression**

The use of artistic activities, for example drama, visual arts, music and online creative media tools were found to be effective in nurturing cognitive, social and emotional areas of growth. Collaborative artistic projects were found to help youth act as peacemakers in their societies by enhancing their psychosocial wellbeing, increasing their ability to empathize with others, engage in team-building, and increasing their awareness of topics related to peace, diversity and the environment (Kollontai, 2010). Drama aided in conflict transformation, awareness raising and the promotion of dialogue around issues related to peace (Armitage, 2012). Music was also found to be an effective tool in the prevention of violent behaviors among youth and the promotion of awareness around HIV and the facilitation of self-expression and self-esteem (Pardue, 2004; Organization of American States, 2012).

Other factors that contributed to acquisition of GCED and ESD include:

- Performance (showcase projects, perform art, etc.) seem to be present in cases of successful activities.
- Activities comprised (1) knowledge of legal frameworks by knowing international instruments, constitution and civil rights; (2) practice; and (3) human rights principles like collaboration, respect, etc.
- A focus on personality (management of emotions, self-esteem and self-confidence, etc.)
- Communication with parents because they are often the gate-keepers of child participation in ENA

Factors that limit acquisition of GCED and ESD

### **Exclusive participation**

A program by the Norwegian Refugee Council in Afghanistan, which was designed to promote sustainable livelihood opportunities for youth, benefitted male more than female participants because women's employment opportunities were limited due to local gender norms (Samuel Hall Consulting, 2014).

### **Single dimension approach**

Campbell and MacPhail (2010) found that the impact of a non-formal education program that aimed to improve young people's knowledge and skills in order to prevent the spread of HIV were hampered by the failure to take an integrated systemic approach that sought to address issues of poverty and unemployment and develop sustainable channels for young people to engage in public debates.

Other factors that appeared to have limited the acquisition of GCED and ESD include:

- They propose to address other factors like political (involving politicians) and involve wider communities

- Some factors in a school-based peer education program that limited critical thinking and empowerment include memorizing information, gender-based roles, teacher-driven, negative attitudes, few opportunities to talk about sexual behavior, poor modeling behaviors, poverty, poor and facilities (Campbell & MacPhail, 2002)
- High level of dependence on donors for funding; clearly, sustainability of projects seem to depend on donor funding.
- Lack of risk assessment: Cultural elements (practices, laws, traditions, rhetoric) seem to emerge as main contributors to limitations of achieving project outcomes, however they seem to be anticipated.

## 5 Knowledge gaps

Below are highlights of gaps found in the knowledge and data of ENA evaluations for GCED and ESD. These highlights are followed by brief discussions.

- Limited access to project reports. Some may use names other than global citizenship and sustainable development. Others may not have been able to translate their reports into English and some may not have had the resources (or not wanted) to make them available online.
- A great deal of missing information. No significant details on program design and recommendations. For example, “interactive group activities” was claimed by not described.
- Overemphasis on summative impact assessment (quantitative measures of change) and not enough on processes
- Information provided illustrates limited practices of global citizenship and empowerment among youth
- Missing testimonies from participants. Also, any reflections or connections with frameworks or communities outside their own?

### **Lack of a consistent approach to measurement**

The types of studies reviewed ranged from evaluation reports for the purposes of demonstrating impact, academic studies that employed mixed quantitative and qualitative methods to assess the impact of programs on specific aspects of youth behavior [first-person accounts of program delivery (Colman, 2006), broad literature reviews (Cardozo et. al 2015), dissertations (Hubbard, 2010) and an ethnographic study (Pardue, 2004)]. It was, therefore, challenging to identify a consistent approach to measurement or an objective set of indicators that could be applied to indicate the depth or sustainability of a recorded change. There was, equally, no consistency in the number of participants interviewed from each program (or percentage) or the data collection methods applied.

### **Reliability and validity of results**

The studies largely relied on subjective outcome measures, which mostly took the form of self-reported survey data. Even when using validated scales of measurement to evaluate specific psychological traits, the results are inevitably informed by a participants’ subjective impression of themselves, their attitudes and their potential for change. Very few studies captured if and how participants subsequently applied what they had learned. Linking individual changes to changes in the external environment would more firmly establish the positive relationship between ENA and the attendant goals of sustainable development and global citizenship. Defining a specific set of actions or external indicators that should be affected (for example levels of violence) as a result of these programs and can be monitored is recommended for the development of global monitoring framework.

### **Lack of detailed description and analysis of methodologies employed**

The diversity of approaches to reporting these program makes it difficult to gain an in-depth understanding of their processes and outcomes. The reports on ENA serve different purposes (e.g., (academic, donors, governments, form of testimonies or visions) and, thus, present information selected for that purpose. For instance, projects reported in academic journals cannot exceed a certain word limit and should include a sound theoretical background and discussion, leaving limited room for details on conceiving, planning, implementing and evaluating the project. Moreover, the reports fell short of providing details of the pedagogical strategies employed by programs and give an explanation of why and how they worked to achieve change.

## 6 Monitoring ENA

The clear majority of the reports and studies presented as the empirical field in this paper were measures that evaluated education programs. The evaluation – most commonly in the form of impact assessments – were summative in nature, meaning that findings did not feed back into the program or activity. In a few cases, midterm reports emerged where measurements of education programs aimed at monitoring progress and, thus, were more formative by providing input to revise the objectives and activities. We must bear in mind, however, that organizations who do carry out such periodic reviews normally use them internally and, so, do not make accessible their monitoring reports.

Producing valid and reliable instruments to measure ENA for monitoring purposes demands a methodology that examines indicators outlined in the program’s objectives, seeks subjective and personal interpretations, and ensures that information is gathered from all participants. This methodology becomes increasingly complex when the curricular themes have various definitions (e.g., global citizenship and sustainable development) and the instruments are designed for use around the world (e.g., language, resources) (van Ongevalle & Carabain, 2014, pp. 10-11). The sections below present various components of a methodological framework that could support organizations around the world in designing and implementing tools for monitoring ENA for global citizenship and sustainable development.

### Objectives of a measuring instrument for monitoring

Improving approaches for monitoring ENA:

1. Enhances action research to continuously revise objectives and activities creating turning points or improvements as an integral process
2. Fosters empowerment to give vulnerable groups a voice as either direct or end beneficiaries by capturing, sharing, and using their experiences to enhance ENA
3. Strengthens transparency to model a culture of good governance, especially in countries or regions that are most vulnerable to corruption
4. Yields feedback to provide donors and practitioners with guidance on what is needed next;
5. Facilitates social enterprise to network with other sectors for opportunities of sharing resources with similar organizations and possibly providing paid services for well-resourced sectors
6. Promotes family support by informing parents of the importance and progress of the project so that they have greater confidence in the ENA. Having the confidence in the program is important because parents are the main (if not only) gatekeepers to children accessing ENA. Also, informing parents of their children’s experiences could facilitate regulation of values and practices in both directions so that both areas of the child’s life are more complementary than in conflict
7. Improves validity of the ENA by identifying institutional, political, economic, social, and other environmental factors that influence the success and failure of a program.

### Guiding principles approaches to monitoring education programs

Monitoring education programs aim to ensure that the learning activities are in the direction of achieving the stated aims of education. However, certain methods can either enrich or undermine the monitoring activity. Below are five principles that can guide stakeholders in developing their methodology for monitoring ENA.

### 1. External variables can directly and indirectly influence ENA

External or environmental variables are an important dimension to measure despite the ability to control or modify them. Some include:

- Political variables (changes in government, local representation, etc.)
- Legal frameworks (new laws, international conventions, access to rights, etc.)
- Technology (availability, maintenance, literacy, etc.)
- Natural environment (natural disasters, etc.)
- Economic (recession, donors' agendas, etc.)
- Social (input from religious or political groups, community involvement, etc.)
- Administration (receipt of funds, partnerships changed, leadership replaced, etc.)

### 2. Inclusive participation empowers under-represented stakeholders

The most accurate information on teachers' and students' individual insights and experiences of learning and teaching come only from teachers (Fitz-Biggon, 1996) and students (Cook-Sather, 2002). Gathering input from parents can strengthen relations between parents and the school and, consequently, parental support. Furthermore, personal reflections from vulnerable groups like children and refugees can empower them as active citizens (Starkey, Akar, Jerome, & Osler, 2014).

### 3. Monitoring only for accountability limits critical reflection

In a monitoring system for professionals, teachers present and use the information whereas a monitoring system for the purpose of accountability will most likely yield from professionals incomplete or manipulated information (Fricke & Gathercole, 2015; Tymms, 1999). A combination of the two is most desirable. Monitoring for professionals can be established as an internal routine activity, though can be requested by donors and budgeted for. Teachers, principals and other stakeholders like students can record experiences and reflections and have the opportunity to use the input to redesign the program, design new activities, and even improve ways to capture experiences (cf Fricke & Gathercole, 2015). This leaves more general information (e.g., summaries of procedures) to external parties for purposes of accountability.

### 4. Active monitoring activities share methods of action research design

When designing a monitoring framework, action research methodology is most appropriate because it facilitates an active learning cycle, engages various stakeholders, and requires collaborative reflection (van Ongevalle & Carabain, 2014). Like active learning (Dennison & Kirk, 1990) and action research (Stringer, 2007), **active monitoring** requires first the activity to take place, then a period of reflection followed by identifying how to revise the program and then actual changes or modifications. ENA must allocate time in the schedule so that stakeholders like teachers, students, and directors are not overwhelmed with additional responsibilities. Therefore, active monitoring can improve ENA when the activities engage in cycles of gathering feedback, reflection, and revision of program aims and activities. At least two or three monitoring exercises would need to take place during the course of the education program.

### 5. Open and close-ended questions enrich reflections and ways forward

Quantitative measures like scales provide clear indication of the extent to which a particular objective is achieved. By facilitating qualitative measures, participating stakeholders can give explanations that close-ended questions may not elicit. Moreover, a monitoring system that encourages self-reflection can further

explore experiences and ways forward through group discussions. Unexpected findings should be anticipated and can be drawn when asking participants to report on most significant changes (van Ongevalle & Carabain, 2014).

## Dimensions of ENA to measure and discuss

Numerous dimensions of ENA emerge comprising the variables that were introduced at the start of this report: (1) global citizenship, (2) sustainable development, (3) approaches to effective learning, and (4) participation for active citizenship. Below is a list of these dimensions that have incorporated indicators and themes that participating stakeholders can measure and collaboratively reflect on when monitoring ENA. In other words, these selected dimensions comprise the fundamental indicators in the variables presented. They model a tool for monitoring their ENA. Moreover, organizations can [and should] add to these when developing their monitoring exercises. The scales from 0-9 below start with least desirable to most desirable. The scales can be misused if they are used for summative purposes by totalling the numbers and creating scores. Instead, the scales are to be used internally for comparing previous activities with current ones and also as prompts for discussions. In the case of target groups or other stakeholders with poor literacy skills, ENA facilitators can capture their observations and reflections through dialogues and digital audio and visual recorders. Portable tablets and accessible computers can run friendly programs with images that invite target groups to record their feedback and suggestions.

- Active learning (receiving versus learning): How much of the ENA is a learning experience? Are they only observing or actually doing the work? Observing may be beneficial if they are reflecting on the activity and either giving feedback or thinking about their roles. How much feedback are learners receiving and to what degree are they reflecting on the feedback and using the feedback to improve their work?  
0 (information is presented and learners are expected to remember it)  
3 (learners have participated by doing the activity)  
6 (learners have done the activity and received feedback)  
9 (learners have done the activity, received feedback, and used the feedback)
- Choice (assigned versus self-initiated): What kind of choices do children have? How much of the ENA is compulsory, assigned, self-initiated, balanced between compulsory and initiated)?  
0 (learners were given instructions and with little information about purpose)  
3 (learners had little input in the design of the activities)  
6 (learners were consulted and their decisions influenced the activities)  
9 (learners initiated and implemented the activity with some requested support from adults)
- Access (inclusive versus exclusive): Who can join? Do they have to pay or is it open to all for free? Is it specific for a gender? If participants are selected, then what are the criteria based on (e.g., needs, ability)? What kind of efforts were made to inform all about the opportunity to participate?  
0 (activity was open only to young people based on gender or payment of fees)  
3 (learners were selected by others to participate with criteria based on theory of change)  
6 (participation was open to all young people in the area)  
9 (provisions were made to ensure that all young people had an opportunity to participate)

- Informed by principles of human rights (safeguards dignity versus oppression): To what extent are the activities informed by principles of international instruments (e.g., UDHR, UNCRC, CEDAW, etc.)
  - 0 (contradicts basic freedoms and undermines dignity of human beings)
  - 3 (neither reference nor indication to principles in international instruments is present)
  - 6 (clear relationship between activity and principles of human rights)
  - 9 (target groups are informed about basic freedoms and apply them)
- Development sustainability (continuous versus transient): To what extent do the activities help sustain solidarity, social cohesion, empowerment, conflict transformation, and non-violence over a long period of time. How long will the activities run for when the organized ENA comes to a close? For example, are municipalities receiving aid-in-a-box or are their capacities being enhanced to produce and gather resources?
  - 0 (activities have exhausted funded and local resources; ENA has done more harm than good)
  - 3 (activities are meeting needs, but will cease when planned ENA ceases; no plan for continuity)
  - 6 (target groups are able to continue ENA aims and activities after project timeframe)
  - 9 (target groups have established approaches to further developing aims and activities after ENA)
- Environmental sustainability: To what extent do the activities require learners to address issues that threaten the availability of resources for future generations? How are resources for the ENA managed?
  - 0 (activities produced a great deal of waste; no effort to reuse, reduce, recover, recycle)
  - 3 (activities promoted passive behavior like not littering, using recycled products, etc.)
  - 6 (target groups engaged in one-time activism like a clean-up, advocacy campaign, etc.)
  - 9 (target groups established systems of continuous practice of reuse, reduce, recover, recycle).

Through collaborative reflection, target groups and other stakeholders can transform monitoring activities into learning experiences to improve ENA. Below are more dimensions of ENA for global citizenship and sustainable development that organizations can choose to include in their monitoring tools and activities.

### **Capacities and resources**

- To what extent does the organization have the skills necessary and resources required to design, develop, implement and measure the outcomes of their programs including needs assessment, curriculum design and development, management, monitoring, and evaluation?
- To what extent is the political, economic and social climate is supportive of youth agency and the universal values promoted?

### **Design and participation**

- How has the program actively involved participants and their communities in the needs assessment, design, and evaluation of the program with the goal of empowering them and promoting their sense of ownership?
- To what extent does the program respond to local needs and is contextually and culturally appropriate to the target group? What evidence is there to show it is needed (policy, norms, stakeholder input are far more desired sources of evidence than observing its absence)?

- To what extent does the program explicitly promote gender equality?
- How close or far are the activities and outcomes from the core concept (e.g., global citizenship, sustainable development)?
- How well articulated is the theory of change? Does it satisfactorily justify the activities and target groups (e.g., who is benefiting, how many)?
- To what extent are the end beneficiaries treated as empowered citizens or passive receivers of aid? In other words, are end beneficiaries being served or are they being empowered through inclusive and informed participation?

### **Spaces for learning and growth**

- To what extent is the social environment of the program inclusive, safe, and supportive of participants' sense of self-esteem and the development of supportive relationships?
- To what extent are learning activities collaborative, reflexive, and driven by the learners?
- To what extent do the learning activities promote critical thinking and analysis to enable participants to identify and challenge structural factors (e.g. societal gender norms, economic inequality) that lead to inequality, violence, and unsustainable environmental practices?
- To what extent do the program activities encourage and enable learners to apply what they have learned and reflect on their experiences to promote their personal development?
- To what extent do the program activities use affective learning strategies that incorporate approaches to managing emotions?
- To what extent do the learning activities create opportunities for constructive intercultural collaboration and promote the development of identities and relationships across national, global, political, ethnic, and religious identities?
- To what extent do the program activities empower youth with the capacities necessary to continue their learning beyond the life of the program?
- To what extent are the participants able to reach out and collaborate with youth in other countries in activities like dialogues and advocacy campaigns.

### **Spaces and mechanisms to support monitoring activities**

Direct stakeholders (teachers, parents, children) would need a space to express their observations and reflections according to set indicators. This space would could be a private space, meaning that others would require invitation to read and see. They can share information with external stakeholders (e.g., donors, international agencies, governments, other communities) on procedural indicators like who has given input, how have they given input, how often, etc. The following spaces can provide mechanisms or structures that support reflexive and sustainable monitoring activities:

1. An online platform can create an inclusive and continuous monitoring system where settings can regulate external and internal access. A Sustainable Development Network, for example, can institutionalize an open system of ongoing monitoring. Online platforms, however, require regular maintenance (security, updates, etc.).
2. Dissemination platforms like conferences and published digests would invite organizations to report on and share their progress (successes and challenges). In addition to receiving public and global exposure, the ENA would also receive feedback that could enrich the monitoring activity.

3. Accountability to donors can support the practice of a continuous, inclusive, and critical reflexive monitoring system. However, expected reporting of monitoring outcomes can have an adverse effect of filtering out challenges and failures. Donors, therefore, can expect the reporting of how the organization has set up its monitoring activities, who is involved, how, and how often. Donors can also require organizations to incorporate regular and inclusive monitoring activities within their budget, log frame, and timeline.

## Sample monitoring tools

Like how organizations develop their own program proposals, they should also be expected to develop their monitoring tools (based on a set framework of minimum standards). Below are suggested tools that they could draw from. The “Project Information Sheet” aims to inform communities around the world about the overall procedures and outcomes of the ENA for global citizenship and sustainable development. “How Are We Doing” is for the most part an internal activity that aims to gather enough feedback to inform possible revisions to the ENA.

### Project Information Sheet

Basic information

- Name of project
- Partners (*NGOs, universities, municipalities, ministries, political parties*)
- Funding (*Donors, Any fees for participation?*)
- Duration (*Project start and end date*)
- Aims/objectives of the project
- Theories of change (*How would you describe your initial theory change? Would you modify this theory of change and why [not]? If yes, then what would you modify?*)
- Target groups and location (*Age, # of youth, location, gender, how were they selected?*)
- Main activities (*What were the main activities?*)
- Highlights (*What has happened so far and what is next?*)
- Outcomes (*What would you say were some most significant outcomes or achievements?*)
- Available reports (*Is a project proposal, description or report available?*)

The environment (*refer to suggested list of external variables*)

- What has stayed the same that is important for the project?
- What changes have presented barriers to the project?
- What changes have enhanced the project?

### How Are We Doing

1. The PIS

- Access: I have seen it; I want to see it but I haven't; I haven't really asked for it; I saw it but I didn't understand it; I saw it and I understood everything it said
- Accuracy of information: Is it accurate? Is it missing information? Is there too much information?
- Comparing with now: Has anything changed? How? Why? Why not? Do you want anything on the PIS to change?

2. So far (*Target groups and other stakeholders respond to the dimensions presented above.*)

3. What's next

According to the most recent plan?

According to the feedback and input?

## Methodological challenges

Below are some highlights of challenges that organizations can discuss and address during their monitoring activities.

1. How do we know that what is reported is reliable or true across time? Also, what if stakeholders are concerned about presenting shortcomings and risk losing funds? Personal testimonies, for example, during and after ENA enhance the reliability and validity of sources of evidence.
2. How do we ensure that we are engaging all stakeholders?
3. How do we ensure that feedback is useful for improving the project and not just gathered as a token or checklist item? Formative approaches to monitoring would need to take place during the project.
4. How do we monitor long-term influences of the project so that it is indeed sustainable? A platform can help connect participants with their own future work. (e.g. like social networking sites, a sustainable development network can allow participants to make connections long after the project has ended.)
5. Computers or other tools to capture reflections and experiences (e.g., writing journals, audio and visual recorders, cameras, etc.) may not be available. Computers and other tools can be required and provided by donors.
6. Children and teachers may not be invited by project managers to give input so that reports are not potentially damaging to relationships with donors. These tools need to be accessible all the time. For example, an online network with a phone application or a desk with an open-ended journal for writing in or a box with digital cameras and voice recorders.
7. Stakeholders may lack various literacy to use the tools. Tools would need to accommodate a range of literacy. For example, logging into a network, click on images of male / female, then teacher / student, then images of indicators or sounds of someone saying indicators, then opportunity to record voice/video, etc.

Other concerns in designing a normative monitoring tool for ENA for GECD and ESD include:

- Establishing globally relevant indicators while respecting and incorporating local conceptions of success and desired outcomes
- Establishing common tools for data collection and measurement that link changes at the individual level to objective indicators
- Translating the tools (e.g., questions, principles, etc.) into languages throughout the world
- Collecting, analyzing and comparing data from different regions and producing a report that can be of use across those regions
- Clearly defining and establishing a consensus on the concepts of 'global citizenship' and 'sustainable development' and linking them to specific indicators that can be measured

## 7 Conclusion

Measurements of ENA have mostly served empirical research studies assessing impact of extracurricular activities and evaluations reporting to donors or the general public. Nevertheless, evidence of impact from participating in ENA suggests that learners become empowered as agents of positive change when education programs are holistic (consider various areas of human growth); are dialogic, reflective, and collaborative; engage learners in planning, implementing and monitoring ENA; celebrate diversity; and encourage artistic expression. Some factors that undermine aims within the scope of ENA for global citizenship and sustainable development include exclusive participation, over-dependency on donor support, and degrees of competition. Future reports on ENA should comprise more qualitative input; more feedback from target groups; and more detailed methodology of planning, implementation, and monitoring.

The monitoring framework presented in this paper can inform activities that facilitate and support inclusive, transparent, and active monitoring. An effective monitoring system requires a balance between reporting for accountability (external) and reflecting on practice to enhance the quality of the education program (internal). Stakeholders like project managers, teachers, and learners should have a leading role in designing their monitoring tools, methodologies, and schedules. The framework for active monitoring presented in this paper can serve as a guide for stakeholders. Furthermore, they remain accountable to their immediate and wider communities. Not only does active monitoring require the continuous informed review of education programs, but dissemination through online platforms, conferences, published abstracts, and reports to donors should provide additional feedback when enhancing ENA. Moreover, when monitoring development is designed within the organization implementing ENA, dissemination becomes less of a threat.

The framework for inclusive and active monitoring that has emerged from this background paper should contribute to the ongoing development of approaches to enhancing education programs like ENA. Future applications of the principles and practices of inclusive and active monitoring can develop this framework when feedback on monitoring methodologies and outcomes is gathered, shared, and critically examined.

## 8 References

- Agha, S. (2002). A Quasi-Experimental Study to Assess the Impact of Four Adolescent Sexual Health Interventions in Sub-Saharan Africa. *International Family Planning Perspectives*, 28(2), 67-118.
- Akar, B. (2015). Innovative approaches and tools in holistic education for refugees: Exploring eight educational programs for Syrian refugees in Lebanon. Zouk Mosbeh: Center for Applied Research in Education, Notre Dame University - Louaize.
- Akar, B., & Ghosn-Chelala, M. (2015). Education for cosmopolitan citizenship in the Arab region. In M. Hayden, J. Levy & J. Thompson (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Research in International Education*, 2e (pp. 518-540). London: SAGE.
- Allport, G. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Cambridge, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Andrés, A. B. (2014). *Progress Evaluation: Programmes for the Youth in Burundi: Youth Inspired: Today and Tomorrow and Intamenwa: Mobilizing Youth for Peaceful elections Search for Common Ground*. Burundi. Retrieved from [https://www.sfcg.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/FINAL-ENGLISH-Africa\\_Eval\\_BurundiSFCG\\_10032015.pdf](https://www.sfcg.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/FINAL-ENGLISH-Africa_Eval_BurundiSFCG_10032015.pdf)
- Apple, M. (1993). The politics of official knowledge: Does a national curriculum make sense? *Teachers College Record*, 95(2), 222-241.
- Armitage, S. (2012). *Youth Theater for Peace Tajikistan*. IREX/DC. Retrieved from [http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf\\_docs/pdact936.pdf](http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pdact936.pdf)
- Bigirindavyi, J.-P. (2004). Youth Intervention for Peace Project: Burundi case study. *New Directions for Youth Development*, 2004(102), 81-94. doi: 10.1002/yd.83
- Birzúa, C. (2000). *Education for democratic citizenship: A lifelong learning perspective*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1988). Interacting systems in human development. In N. Bolger, C. Caspi, G. Downey & M. Moorehouse (Eds.), *Persons in context: Developmental processes* (pp. 25-50). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bryld, E., Masri-Pedersen, N., Fathallah, S., & Christoplos, I. (2014). *Evaluation of the Open Fun Football Schools project in Iraq, implemented by Cross Cultures Project Association*. Cross Cultures Project Association. Retrieved from [http://ccpa.eu/fileadmin/user\\_upload/documents/Final\\_report\\_-\\_Evaluation\\_of\\_OFFS\\_Iraq\\_2\\_.pdf](http://ccpa.eu/fileadmin/user_upload/documents/Final_report_-_Evaluation_of_OFFS_Iraq_2_.pdf)
- Burnett, C. (2010). Sport-for-development approaches in the South African context: a case study analysis. *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*, 32(1), 29-42.
- Campbell, C., & MacPhail, C. (2002). Peer education, gender and the development of critical consciousness: participatory HIV prevention by South African youth. *Social Science & Medicine*, 55(2), 331-345. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536\(01\)00289-1](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536(01)00289-1)
- Cardozo, M. L., Higgins, S., Maber, E., Brandt, C. O., Kusmallah, N., & Le Mat, M. (2015). *Literature Review: Youth Agency, Peacebuilding and Education*. Research Consortium Education and Peacebuilding, University of Amsterdam.
- Cheng, I. H. (2010). Case studies of integrated pedagogy in vocational education: A three-tier approach to empowering vulnerable youth in urban Cambodia. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 30(4), 438-446. doi: 10.1016/j.ijedudev.2010.01.002

- Coalter, F. (2010). The politics of sport-for-development: Limited focus programmes and broad gauge problems? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 45(3), 295-314. doi: 10.1177/1012690210366791
- Colman, A. (2006). Integrating human rights and the visual arts: a peace education summer project for Israeli and Palestinian students. *International Journal of Education through Art*, 2(1), 43-59. doi: 10.1386/etar.2.1.43/1
- Cook-Sather, A. (2002). Authorizing students' perspectives: Toward trust, dialogue, and change in education. *Educational Researcher*, 31(4), 3-14.
- Council of Europe. (2003). *Revised European Charter on the Participation of Young People in Local and Regional Life*. Strasbourg Cedex: Council of Europe.
- D'Errico, S., Amraoui, K., & Marmo, D. (2010). *External Evaluation Final Report: MediAction*. Lama Development and Cooperation. Morocco. Retrieved from [https://www.sfcg.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/MAR\\_EV\\_Mar10\\_External-Evaluation-Report-MediAction.pdf](https://www.sfcg.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/MAR_EV_Mar10_External-Evaluation-Report-MediAction.pdf)
- Delors, J. (1996). Education: The necessary utopia. In J. Delors, I. Al Mufti, I. Amagi, R. Carneiro, F. Chung, B. Geremek, W. Gorham, A. Kornhauser, M. Manley, M. Quero, M. Savané, K. Singh, R. Stavenhagen, M. Suhr & Z. Nanzhao (Eds.), *Learning: The treasure within: Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century* (pp. 13-35). Paris: UNESCO Publishing.
- Delors, J., Al Mufti, I., Amagi, I., Carneiro, R., Chung, F., Geremek, B., et al. (Eds.). (1996). *Learning: The treasure within: Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing.
- Dennison, B., & Kirk, R. (1990). *Do, Review, Learn, Apply: A simple guide to experiential learning*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Dewey, J. (1944 [1916]). *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education* (28th printing, reprinted 1955 ed.). New York: Macmillan.
- Dewey, J. (1959 [1897]). *My pedagogic creed*. Hong Kong: Progressive Education Publishers.
- Dill, J. S. (2013). *The longings and limits of global citizenship education: The moral pedagogy of schooling in a cosmopolitan age*. New York: Routledge.
- Drexhage, J., & Murphy, D. (2010). *Sustainable development: From Brundtland to Rio 2012*. Retrieved from [http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/climatechange/shared/gsp/docs/GSP1-6\\_Background%20on%20Sustainable%20Devt.pdf](http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/climatechange/shared/gsp/docs/GSP1-6_Background%20on%20Sustainable%20Devt.pdf).
- Fakwang, J. (2009). Southern Perspective on Sport-in-Development: A Case Study of Football in Bamenda, Cameroon. In R. Levermore & A. Beacon (Eds.), *Sport and International Development* (pp. 198-218). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Falk, R. (1993). The making of global citizenship. In J. Brecher, B. Childs & J. Cutler (Eds.), *Global visions: Beyond the new world order* (pp. 39-50). Boston, MA: South End Press.
- Farb, A. F., & Matjasko, J. L. (2012). Recent advances in research on school-based extracurricular activities and adolescent development. *Developmental Review*, 32(1), 1-48. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2011.10.001>
- Feldman, A. F., & Matjasko, J. L. (2005). The Role of School-Based Extracurricular Activities in Adolescent Development: A Comprehensive Review and Future Directions. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(2), 159-210. doi: 10.3102/00346543075002159

- Flicker, S., Maley, O., Ridgley, A., Biscope, S., Lombardo, C., & Skinner, H. A. (2008). e-PAR: Using technology and participatory action research to engage youth in health promotion. *Action Research*, 6(3), 285-303. doi: 10.1177/1476750307083711
- Flower, E. (2015). *Case Study: Peace Clubs, Participatory Video and Most Significant Change Evaluation Côte d'Ivoire*. UNICEF WCARO & UNICEF Côte d'Ivoire. Côte d'Ivoire. Retrieved from <http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/AR-2014-Case-Study-Peace-Clubs.pdf>
- Fricke, H.-J., & Gathercole, C. (2015). Monitoring education for global citizenship: A contribution to debate. Brussels: DEEEP.
- Gervais, C. (2011). On their own and in their own words: Bolivian adolescent girls' empowerment through non-governmental human rights education. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 14(2), 197-217. doi: 10.1080/13676261.2010.506528
- Gouley, C., & Kanyatsi, Q. (2010). *Final Evaluation Report: Supporting a Conversation on Youth Leadership in Côte d'Ivoire*. Search for Common Ground. Retrieved from <https://www.sfcg.org/final-evaluation-report-supporting-a-conversation-with-youth-on-leadership-in-cote-divoire-august-2010/>
- Hart, R. (1992). Children's participation: From tokenism to citizenship, *Innocenti Essays*, No. 4. Florence: UNICEF, International Child Development Centre.
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112.
- Hobbes, T. (1968 [1651]). *Leviathan*. London: Penguin.
- Holland, A., & Andre, T. (1987). Participation in Extracurricular Activities in Secondary School: What Is Known, What Needs to Be Known? *Review of Educational Research*, 57(4), 437-466.
- Hua, H., & Dous, N. (2011). *Mid-term Evaluation of Youth: Work Jordan (YWJ) Project*. World Education, Inc. Retrieved from [http://www.worlded.org/WEIInternet/inc/common/\\_download\\_pub.cfm?id=15577&lid=3](http://www.worlded.org/WEIInternet/inc/common/_download_pub.cfm?id=15577&lid=3)
- Hubbard, B. (2010). *Research of Youth Development Organizations: Kingdom of Bahrain*. Draft Discussion Paper. University of Minnesota. Retrieved from [http://brianhubbard.weebly.com/uploads/6/6/9/4/6694200/bahrain\\_ydl.doc](http://brianhubbard.weebly.com/uploads/6/6/9/4/6694200/bahrain_ydl.doc)
- Hull, G. A., Stornaiuolo, A., & Sahni, U. (2010). Cultural Citizenship and Cosmopolitan Practice: Global Youth Communicate Online. *English Education*, 42(4), 331-367.
- Isin, E., & Turner, B. (2007). Investigating Citizenship: An Agenda for Citizenship Studies. *Citizenship Studies*, 11(1), 5-17. doi: 10.1080/13621020601099773
- Jiang, X., & Peterson, R. D. (2012). Beyond Participation: The Association Between School Extracurricular Activities and Involvement in Violence Across Generations of Immigration. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 41(3), 362-378. doi: 10.1007/s10964-011-9736-5
- Johnson-Pynn, J., & Johnson, L. (2010). Exploring Environmental Education for East African Youth: Do Program Contexts Matter? *Children Youth and Environments*, 20(1), 123-151.
- Jones, J. N., Warnaar, B. L., Bench, J. H., & Stroup, J. (2014). Promoting the development of moral identity, behavior, and commitment in a social action program. *Journal of Peace Education*, 11(2), 225-245. doi: 10.1080/17400201.2014.898626
- Kant, I. (2006 [1795]). *Toward perpetual peace: A philosophical sketch*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Kirby, P., Lanyon, C., Cronin, K., & Sinclair, R. (2003). Building a culture of participation: Involving children and young people in policy, service planning, delivery and evaluation. London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Kollontai, P. (2010). Healing the heart in Bosnia-Herzegovina: art, children and peacemaking. *International Journal of Children's Spirituality*, 15(3), 261-271. doi: 10.1080/1364436X.2010.523073

- Krauss, S., Collura, J., Zeldin, S., Ortega, A., Abdullah, H., & Sulaiman, A. (2014). Youth–Adult Partnership: Exploring Contributions to Empowerment, Agency and Community Connections in Malaysian Youth Programs. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 43(9), 1550-1562. doi: 10.1007/s10964-013-0027-1
- Krauss, S. E., Collura, J., Zeldin, S., Ortega, A., Abdullah, H., & Sulaiman, A. H. (2014). Youth-Adult Partnership: Exploring Contributions to Empowerment, Agency and Community Connections in Malaysian Youth Programs. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 43(9), 1550-1562. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-0027-1>
- McCluskey, M., & Bell, J. (2013). *An evaluation of PeacePlayers International Northern Ireland*. Retrieved from [https://www.peaceplayersintl.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/PPINI\\_Evaluation-of-NI-Program-Institute-for-Conflict-Research\\_Oct2013.pdf](https://www.peaceplayersintl.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/PPINI_Evaluation-of-NI-Program-Institute-for-Conflict-Research_Oct2013.pdf)
- McGill, M., O’Kane, C., Bista, B., Meslaoui, N., & Zingg, S. (2015). *Evaluation of Child and Youth Participation in Peacebuilding: Nepal, Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo, Colombia*. Global Partnership for Children and Youth in Peacebuilding. Retrieved from <http://unoy.org/wp-content/uploads/3M-Evaluation-Global-report-Child-and-Youth-Participation-in-Peace-builing.pdf>
- Metzger, A., Crean, H. F., & Forbes-Jones, E. L. (2009). Patterns of Organized Activity Participation in Urban, Early Adolescents: Associations With Academic Achievement, Problem Behaviors, and Perceived Adult Support. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 29(3), 426-442. doi: 10.1177/0272431608322949
- Morton, M. H., & Montgomery, P. (2012). Empowerment-based non-formal education for Arab youth: A pilot randomized trial. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 34(2), 417-425. doi: 10.1016/j.childyouth.2011.11.013
- Norwegian Church Aid. (2010). *Mid-term evaluation report Strengthening School Network for Human Trafficking Prevention in Bokeo province*. Retrieved from <https://www.kirkensnodhjelp.no/contentassets/ea4c0bfd11b447f8da9e941c47fd11a/00112-1-final-mid-term-evaluation-report---nca-ht-project-bokeo.pdf>
- Organization of American States. (2012). *OASIS: Organization of American States Orchestra Program for Youth at Risk in the Caribbean: Final Report*. . Washington, D.C.: Organization of American States.
- Osler, A., & Starkey, H. (2006). Education for democratic citizenship: A review of research, policy and practice 1995-2005. *Research Papers in Education*, 24, 433-466.
- Oxley, L., & Morris, P. (2013). Global citizenship: A typology for distinguishing its multiple conceptions. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 61(3), 301-325.
- Pardue, D. (2004). "Writing in the Margins": Brazilian Hip-Hop as an Educational Project. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 35(4), 411-432.
- Redclift, M. (1987). *Sustainable development: Exploring the contradictions*. London: Routledge.
- Salto Youth. (2011). *Examples of Good Practice Youth in Action Projects in and with South East Europe*. Retrieved from <https://www.salto-youth.net/downloads/4-17-2565/EXAMPLES%20OF%20GOOD%20PRACTICE.pdf>.
- Samuel Hall Consulting. (2014). *Evaluation of NRC’s Youth Education Pack (YEP) projects in Faryab, Herat, and Nangarhar*. Norwegian Refugee Council Afghanistan. Afghanistan. Retrieved from <http://samuelhall.org/REPORTS/Evaluation%20of%20the%20NRC%20Youth%20Education%20Pack%20Projects%20in%20Afghanistan.pdf>

- Shahnaz, R., & Karim, R. (2008). Providing microfinance and social space to empower adolescent girls: An evaluation of BRAC's ELA centres. Dhaka, Bangladesh: Research & Evaluation Division.
- Shier, H. (2001). Pathways to participation: Openings, opportunities and obligations. A new model for enhancing children's participation in decision-making, in line with Article 13.1 of the UNCRC. *Children & Society*, 15, 107-117. doi: 10.1002/CHI.617
- Starkey, H., Akar, B., Jerome, L., & Osler, A. (2014). Power, pedagogy and participation: Ethics and pragmatics in research with young people. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 9(4), 426-440.
- Stine, K. (2015). *Final Evaluation: Youth Engagement to Promote Stability*. Search for Common Ground. Retrieved from [https://www.sfcg.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/SFCG\\_TL\\_USAID-YEPS\\_Final\\_Evaluation\\_Report\\_14072015.pdf](https://www.sfcg.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/SFCG_TL_USAID-YEPS_Final_Evaluation_Report_14072015.pdf)
- Stringer, E. (2007). *Action research* (Third ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Taru, M. (2013). Youth work in Tallinn: The positive impact on young people. *Studies of Transition States and Societies*, 2(2), 82-97.
- Treseder, P. (1997). *Empowering children and young people: Training manual*. London: Save the Children and Children's Rights Office.
- Truong-White, H., & McLean, L. (2015). Digital storytelling for transformative global citizenship education. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 38(2), 1-28.
- Tymms, P. (1999). *Baseline assessment and monitoring in primary schools: Achievements, attitudes and value-added indicators*. London: David Fulton Publishers / Routledge.
- UNESCO. (2014). *Global citizenship education: Preparing learning for the challenges of the 21st century*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002277/227729E.pdf>.
- UNICEF. (2003). *Assessment of SHAPE: Mid-term review report*. Retrieved from [http://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/files/myanmarSHAPE\\_assess2002.pdf](http://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/files/myanmarSHAPE_assess2002.pdf)
- van Ongevalle, J., & Carabain, C. (2014). *More or less global citizenship? When measuring becomes learning: An action research study examining the use of qualitative methods for monitoring and evaluation*. Evaluation Series 4. NCDO. Amsterdam. Retrieved from <http://kaleidosresearch.nl/download/2015/08/2014-More-of-less-Global-Citizenship.pdf>
- Watkins, C., Carnell, E., & Lodge, C. (2007). *Effective learning in classrooms*. London: Paul Chapman.
- Watkins, C., Carnell, E., Lodge, C., Wagner, P., & Whalley, C. (2001). Learning about learning enhances performance. *NSIN Research Matters*(13), 1-8.
- WCED. (1987). *Our common future*. Retrieved from <http://www.un-documents.net/our-common-future.pdf>.
- Wernick, L. J., Kulick, A., & Woodford, M. R. (2014). How theater within a transformative organizing framework cultivates individual and collective empowerment among LGBTQ youth. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 42(7), 838-853. doi: 10.1002/jcop.21656
- Yoshinaga, M., Takeda, Y., & Kinoshita, I. (2014). Effects of Participation in Community Activities on Self-Efficacy of Japanese Junior High School Students. *Global Journal of Community Psychology Practice*, 5(1), 1-12. Retrieved from <http://www.gjcpp.org/en/article.php?issue=17&article=86>.