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DEDICATION

This resource is dedicated to Judith Ennew who gave children a voice, fought for their rights and inspired many others to do the same.

Contributors

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The Researcher Toolkit and Researcher Resource have been developed to support researchers to include young children in research; particularly children aged 5-8 years of age. While it has been designed to support those who are seeking to include young children in research for the rst time we hope that the broad range of methods described will also be of value for more seasoned researchers. It does this by providing a six-step process for designing research and through systematically identifying and describing a range of methods that have been used with young children in diverse contexts around the world.

We use the term 'researcher' throughout this resource to refer to anyone involved in designing and conductih

processes have been applied with young children around the world. These demonstrate the adaptation and combination of methods that have been applied to answer particular research questions in di erent contexts. These examples are not meant to be prescriptive, but to give researchers examples from particular settings and to demonstrate the complexity of engaging young children in research. The examples include understanding: requirements in early childhood education in Ethiopia; wellbeing/ illbeing in Peru; work and household roles, Child Clubs and perceptions in early childhood in Nepal; street connectedness in India; moving from kindergarten to primary school in Iceland.

The accompanying Researcher Toolkit encourages researchers planning to work with young children to consider not only the types of methods needed to answer di erent research questions, but also the context in which the methods are to be applied and the skills that will be required to use them. Detailed methods discussed include clay modeling in South Africa, the use of medical dolls in Canada, child-led tours around slums in India, and drawing ecograms and wearing alien masks in Scotland.

A collection of methods provides a number of examples of methods successfully used in research with young children. This will support researchers to identify and trial di erent methods in their context to answer their research questions.

The methods presented have been divided into six separate, though interlinking, clusters:

- Gaining Consent and Developing Trust
- Interviews and Discussion
- Child-led Tours and n-Situ
- Visual Free Expression
- Structured Visuals
- Drama and Performance
- Play and Games

This Researcher Toolkit is presented as guidance rather than as a ‘how-to guide’ to be strictly followed. Each research problem is unique, each group of children will have di erent needs and abilities and as such researchers need access to a variety of methods that can be applied exibly, modi ed, and combined in di erent ways to provide a unique research design. Many questions are raised for researchers to consider as they engage in this creative process of design. Collaboration with other researchers is encouraged. In doing so, if researchers continue to share their progress and extend ideas, then a community of practice of those engaging young children in research can be expanded and strengthened.

Detailed descriptions of how methods have been applied in di erent contexts are included in the Researcher Toolkit. These show how methods have been applied in a range of countries and settings so that researchers can get ideas of innovative tools and how they may be suited to their needs.

Introduction to the Steps

While there has been a positive increase in emphasis on hearing the voices of children in research over the past two decades, this seems to be less true of young children, under the age of eight years' old. Ironically, in some instances this may be because of an increased awareness of ethical issues in working with children

Step 4 and 5 are taken together. Methods have been clustered into following clusters:

For each of these clusters there is an account of the background to the cluster of methods; overall strengths and weaknesses; overlaps with other methods; application and data analysis; communication and medium; ethics and context; and where to go for more information. There are also several accounts of speci c methods in the cluster to give researchers an idea of how to apply the methods.

- Interviews and discussions
- Child led-tours/ In-situ methods
- Visuals-free expression
- Visuals' structures and templates
- Narrative and performance
- Play and games

Identifying forms of communication using di erent media includes pens/ paper, clay, objects from the environment, dolls with discussion, video and photography. For each method the resources needed to apply the methods are considered.

methods can be applied in a variety of global contexts to engage young children.

The Importance of Early Childhood and Participation

There is a growing discourse about how early inequalities lead to a loss in developmental potential, and evidence is building about the e ectiveness of interventions in early years (for example, Schweinhart et al. 2005). In terms of establishing the signi cance of early years and repositioning the child in society, academics such as Woodhead (2013) have drawn to our attention that the rst 8 years of childhood is not marginal: it is the rst half of a child's life and is signi cant chronologically, developmentally and socially/ economically.

The need for innovative solutions for working with children in early childhood has been drawn to our attention. UNICEF data shows that early childhood services are often accessed by the most privileged, and in 2008, UNESCO showed that inequalities can be

ecological approach to child development, taking into account the way in which children interact in their environments, and how support from others contributes

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Introduction

When beginning to design research that includes young children, particularly for the rst time, it is crucial that the researcher consider two key issues. Firstly, the expertise they and their colleagues have for working with young children, including the value commitments they have for respecting and listening to young children and their abilities to engage with children in an age-appropriate way. It is also necessary to consider in advance how the data gathered will be used, reported and received by other stakeholders. As explored in the following section on ethics, it is not appropriate to involve children in research if their voices are not likely to be heard or respected. Consideration of these issues will require an honest and re ective approach to consider one's own values and skills as well as of those of others who will participate in the research.

It is also crucial that that the abilities of the children be considered. Knowledge of the local context and the roles of young children in that context is key to assessing this. However, while it may be that the initial involvement of children may be at a basic or minor level, the capability of children can be built over time, thereby increasing their capabilities to be involved.

What to Include when Considering Capabilities

Capabilities of Researchers

Key to successful research processes, are the abilities and competencies of the research team. A review of capabilities of researchers should include consideration of their interest and motivation in the research, their knowledge of ethics, their experience of working with children and their interest in relevant child-focused research methodologies. (Sargeant and Harcourt 2012, p.36). Time and care need to be devoted to training researchers, whether they are adult or child researchers (Alderson and Morrow 2011).

A study called Rights though Evaluation conducted in South Africa and Nepal showed that the capacity of organisations to devha4sesions t,83to devS50 0 0 1i.155eo3.1(t liops)]

- An understanding of ethical issues and how to develop and implement ethical protocols (Step 2 in this resource should help with this)
- The capacity to understand di erent approaches, including a range of innovative methods to include young children, and how to systematically design research questions and gain the perspectives of young children (Steps 4 and 5 in this resource should help with this)
- The capacity to analyse data and speci cally to analyse by issues of di erence including age and gender (Steps 4 and 5 on methods indicate the kind of data that arises from di erent methods)
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Children validating findings

Researchers need to ensure that children are involved in validating findings in an appropriate way and that the process does not become hard work for them. Methods used with young children therefore need to be enjoyable as well as enabling the production of rich data and information. The extent to which meaning is verified will depend on the use for which the research is intended. For example, some forms of research are aimed at identifying and drawing attention to issues and circumstances of children, while other research aims to explore children's inner life, perceptions and social relationships. The collective kinds of findings may be publicly communicated or used by adults and children for community or institutional change. Sometimes children may be involved in the analysis of simple data, and this may even provide another level of information as well as checking and interpreting what has already been produced. For example after identifying their individual lunch preferences a group of young children can view the bars on a chart to see what their collective preferences are and then discuss these as a group.

Capabilities of Children

While some more traditional forms of research, such as one-to-one adult-to-child interviewing may produce useful information and data, they may not produce an enjoyable or developmental process for the children concerned, nor capture the same insights as other methods such as games or visual methods. Again, much depends on the cultural context, but also the physical and social environment for the research. Through the application of visuals, performance, storytelling or other forms of narrative, children may individually or in groups enjoy and build their own capabilities through the processes of research.

It is particularly necessary with young children to consider their evolving communication skills and social and cognitive capacities. Changes in depth and complexity of narrative and performative expression, for example, can shift rapidly. However, the process of engaging children in research can itself be developmental in enhancing skills of expression through language and in public settings, as well as in social relationships. In order to choose appropriate methods some prior knowledge of the children's groups, the culture and the setting, and perhaps traditions of communication and performance, is necessary in planning to work with them. Finally, depending on the culture, young children may be able to join in with research processes differently depending on whether they are in mixed gender or age groups.

Summary and Building Capabilities

It is important to review the capabilities of the researcher when embarking on research with young children. By acknowledging both the capabilities and the skills gaps in both adults and children, it is possible to plan suitable and useful research. This may involve additional training or the development of a team of researchers who can support each other and the children involved.

Research teams can be formed so that researchers with different levels of skills, knowledge and experience of child-centred research can take on different roles in the research team. It is advisable to review capabilities within teams to identify the areas where additional expertise is needed or how the team capabilities can be built through tailored training and support.

Where to go for more information and training

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involved in research. The levels of active participation then describe di erent power dynamics between children and adults in terms of initiation and control of participatory processes.

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responses. Power is also connected with issues of analysis and interpretation, particularly where there is potential for dual meaning, and where the one an adult assumes to be the case may not be correct. There is a need to ensure that there are processes for checking interpretations, and providing feedback to ensure that the researcher is capturing the child's perspective. This is particularly pertinent to data collection and data analysis phases of the research.

Through the collection of data, which may involve discussions, the creation of visuals, performance or games children may individually or in groups refer to problems or issues that need some response. It is important for those adults involved to be prepared for this and to have plans in place for responding to children.

6. Providing a process for obtaining informed consent so that children understand why they are participating in research, and what it entails, before agreeing to be involved. This will include consent for photos and recordings that should be given by children as well as parents or guardians.

The UNICEF (2002) Guidance on participatory research with children states that it is not adequate to gain consent from adults for children to participate in research, particularly in light of rights of the child. As such it is advisable to endeavor to gain children's informed consent to participate in research in addition to the consent of their parents/ guardians. This means explaining research in a clear and accessible way and allowing time and space for children to understand what the researcher is saying. Informed consent should not only be applied at the beginning of a process but also throughout the process and at the end so that children feel at all times that they have the option to drop out of the process and to say that they do not want their input to be taken into account or shared. As many methods that can be exciting for young children are visual or involve visual or audio recording it is critical to make sure that consent is gained for these recording activities and that children understand how pictures and tapes with be used in analysis or shared with broader audiences.

There are interesting methods that can be used to gain informed consent other than by singing a word-heavy typed form. Examples include charts and visuals showing where research is going or where it will be used and models or videos that give ideas on the kind of research questions that may be asked.

The setting where research takes place may make a di erence to whether a child feels pressured to say 'yes' to research, for example in a more formal educational

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8. Following child protection procedures and ensuring there are processes that can support children if it is ...d that the child may be 'at risk' of physical ...hological harm.

...rchers have a responsibility to report instances ...re children may be subject to abuse (Steinberga et .. 1999).

'Researchers need to be clear with participants from the outset that con dentiality may have to be breached if there is a disclosure relating to serious harm, abuse and/or other child protection concerns...

If a participant divulges any information that gives rise to child protection concerns, or where the researcher observes or receives evidence of incidents likely to cause serious harm, the researcher has a duty to take steps to protect the child or other children. The researcher also has a responsibility to ensure that the person disclosing is aware of the likely consequences, to ensure their wishes are clear and taken into account, to inform them of the steps that the researcher has to take and to o er support for them to tell someone else. They should ensure the individual disclosing is supported and kept informed.'

(Action for Children, cited She eld Hallam, n.d.).

As such it is necessary to ensure that there are adequate systems and processes that can be referred to if young children raise issues of abuse during research processes.

It is also advisable for researchers to consider working in pairs or at least in safe and/ or open spaces where they can be observed by others. There have been many developments in child protection relevant to research. Times have changed since the lone anthropologist could accompany children alone in the daily settings of their lives.

If children disclose a situation in their lives that causes them harm and distress then this should be referred to an identi ed person who can provide long-term support to that child. This should be considered in any research process.

9. Ensuring that issues of di erence and inclusion are taken into account.

Depending on the issue, it may be important to split children into groups of girls and boys when they are working with each other discussing issues and circumstances, story-telling, and performing even with young children, particularly towards the top of the 5-8 year-old age range. Also, when children themsleves are involved as researchers, consideration should be made as to where it is appropriate for children to ask questions only of children of the same gender or not. It is important that adult facilitators are aware of local perceptions and gendered roles and restrictions so that researchers do not suggest contrary activities to which children may defer, but which they may nd themselves in trouble for later. There are situations where girls or boys may nd it necessary to work in distinct groups while articulating their concerns or designing a performance or visual, but afterwards they might be willing and able to present their performance across gender lines.

Age di erences, as well as di erences in capacities and experiences, need also to be accommodated so that, for example, older children do not dominate young, and exclude their views (Johnson 1998). Hierarchies and power dynamics may also be evident or less visible amongst children. Such hierarchies may re ect the local social position of families or whether certain groups of children go to school or not. An understanding of the composition of groups of children and local cultural circumstances is important in order to ensure that views of all are included. There may also be risks involved in children of subordinate groups revealing perceptions, so the use of methods needs to take hierarchical structures into consideration. These issues may apply also to other forms of di erence, particularly the involvement and perception of children with disabilities. The use of some methods with some children may not be appropriate, and may serve to diminish their status or identity, for example asking children with learning disabilities to construct narratives or asking children with poor vision to construct complex visuals.

In some contexts language is a political as well as a social and cultural issue, particularly in regard to minority groups. For example, government policy may be to only teach an approved national language in oral and written forms, which can mean that while some children best speak a di erent language they use at home, they may not have a large vocabulary, and may not be able to read or write in it. However, they may not be as competent in the national language, and use of the national language may not be appropriate for some areas of discussion, for example, discussion which is focused on home or community life. There may be political problems in using the local language but to be valid the tools need to be translated into the language that that they know the best to ensure there is a clear understanding between both parties.

10. Ensuring there is adequate feedback to children who participate in research and that questions that arise from children are given an adequate response.

The issues of analysis and feedback have previously been covered in Step 1 on building capabilities of researchers. It is important that researchers check their meaning and interpretation with young children. At the same time researchers need to be prepared to respond to young children when questions arise during the research process.

Recordings can be made of children's evidence using audio-recorders, video recorders and cameras where possible, although sometimes the use of technology is not a ordable or appropriate. In these cases then note-takers are important, and visuals may be recorded through drawing a copy. Researchers need to organise to copy or record evidence so that originals can be left with the children who participated as the originals belong to them (Greig, Taylor and MacKay 23nIu).Theis

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Introduction

When embarking on research with young children it is vital that priority is given to building supportive, trustful, professional relationships between both adults and children, and children and their peers. There are two key reasons for this. Firstly, our moral and professional codes of conduct demand that we treat children with respect, listen to their views and prioritise their safety. Such is the importance of this that Step 2 was devoted to the ethics of conducting research with young children.

The second reason for prioritising building relationships is to cherior

fostered trust and respect the children were much more likely to cooperate with each other on joint tasks. Therefore, to gain the greatest levels of cooperation, and ultimately increase the validity of the data gathered, adults must be aware of the impact their behaviour has on children.

How to build positive relationships with children

It may be that a researcher works with the children they are researching often. It may be that a researcher does not know them well at all. Either way there are a number of things that can be done to build an environment where positive trustful relationships can thrive. This includes:

- Getting to know every child's name and using it whenever possible – this provides a sense of belonging and shows that the researcher is interested in them. It can also help the children to remember each other's names.
- Allowing some time for the child to lead discussions and activities – this shows that the researcher is interested in them and they have some power in the relationship.
- Getting to know the child's family/ friends/ community – the researcher can discuss their lives with them. In doing this, the researcher is showing an interest in them and their experiences. The researcher may also discover a better understanding of children's lives, feelings and opinions.
- Praising the child often for their contributions and accomplishments.
- Respecting the child and not dismissing their opinions or cutting across their conversations.

Such behaviours let children know that they are able actors in this relationship, that they and their opinions and experiences are valued and respected. Furthermore, as discussed previously, these behaviours are likely to foster more cooperative relationships between the children and their peers and thus have a further impact on the research process.

How to support positive child-peer relationships and cooperation within groups

Detailed programmes to support the development of children's social skills, allowing them to cooperate well in a group, which are rooted in theory and research, rarely centre on children under the age of six (Battisch and Watson, 2003; Colwell, 2012). This may be due to the fact that children of this age are often considered too egocentric to develop such competencies (Kutnick at al. 2004). Yet there are examples of programmes and activities which have been shown to foster these relationships.

One of the most frequently adopted approaches to the development of the skills required for successful peer interactions and relationships among children is `circle time' (Lang 1998). Circle time is also known as the Magic Circle. It involves, as one might expect, asking the children to sit in a circle. The circle is signi cant as it allows every member of the group to have eye contact and to hear what others in the group are saying. It is also useful for the adult leading the session to sit at the same height as the children.

When using circle time it is usual for the group to agree the 'rules' for example that we must listen when somebody is talking and that everybody who wishes to will get a turn to speak. There are some examples of the kinds of activities which can be used during circle time sessions at the end of this chapter. It is important to remember that the circle provides an environment for fostering relationships; sitting in a circle alone does not build trustful and respectful relationships per se.

One approach taken to support cooperation and collaboration in groups is the 'Relational Approach', which was developed during the SPRinG project in the UK (Blatchford et al. 2005). This approach combines aspects of social psychological and socio-cognitive theory to develop a social pedagogy of group work (Kutnick and Colwell 2009). This approach assumes that positive relationships are a prerequisite of successful collaborations (e.g. Hall 1994; Kutnick and Brees 1983) and that with the development of such relationships comes the reduction of those issues recognised as resulting from power imbalances within groups.

There are three key facets to the Relational Approach: Building trust: Galton and Williamson (1992) stated that children need support to develop the trust necessary for working together in groups; Developing

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Approaches such as drama, role-play and visuals have been used as methods of nding out children's perspectives on their circumstances, their issues and solutions to problems in the Global South. These have not always been seen as research, but more as development initiatives, and consequently whilst there is expertise in applying methods, the use and ndings have not always been written up. This means that although methods may have been well developed and rigorously applied, their circulation is limited. Where records have been published this is often in `grey literature' , such as NGO reports and booklets for eld workers and these are rarely picked up by academic research circles. On the other hand, some methods of narrative work have been developed and utilised in academic disciplines, but the use of the techniques, and even the ndings from research, have not spread over into practice of organisations that are working very closely with children and promoting their welfare and their views.

Other di erences emerge in the detail of how methods are applied. Long-term academic research projects, that require stable populations and work in depth, for example using detailed narratives, are often based in institutions such as schools. On the other hand some other methods, such as the use of community theatre, have been used with working, out of school, children or in institutions such as in residential care. It is noteworthy that the methods that have been developed for children out of school are commonly more qualitative, holistic and innovative. This has been no doubt, in part, because of the need to voluntarily engage a mobile and often disa ected population. Although this is a broad generalisation, it indicates the need to take into account the local context and children's experiences of school and other organisations. This context includes the North where, in the past, children living in residential care had di erent experiences of engagement with adult rights workers to their peers who attended school and lived with their own family; children in care were bored with the ice-breakers and games in workshops that children in school found exciting and innovative (West 1998, p.195).

Methods such as interviews and focus-group discussions have been used across sectors. But with limited cross-over of publications and engagement among adult organisations and disciplines there is a risk of di erent insights and perspectives being lost to the detriment of the whole. This is particularly important in developing and learning about the design and use of tools in working with di erent groups and ages of children, especially young children, and in di erent contexts. Methods that have been designed for use in international development arenas may be valuable in the academic world, and methods developed in academic disciplines can enhance practice in the eld by front-line workers who are doing research even though they may not have a research training.

This chapter of the resources is split into the following methods clusters:

- Interviews and discussions
- Child-led tours and other in-situ methods
- Visuals for free expression
- Visuals with structures and frameworks
- Narrative and performance
- Play and games

For each of these clusters there is discussion of the methods in overview, their key strengths and weaknesses, application and analysis, ethics and context, where to go for more information, and an account of the methods, materials and processes.

CLUSTER 1 INTERVIEWS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

The most common method used for understanding children's perspectives and feelings is one-on-one interviewing. But conventional interviews are not a suitable means for talking with young

can think of three qualities in choosing a place: secure, neutral and comfortable. By 'secure' we mean a place where the child feels that people who they trust are close by and accessible so that they feel that they could

group interviews o er some important advantages over individual interviews with children they are not appropriate for all kinds of research questions. In-depth methods with individual children are often necessary for gaining an understanding of how children experience, perceive and feel about certain issues, particularly sensitive ones.

In a group discussion children can freely express their perspectives on an issue in an informal relaxed manner that is closer to their every day interactions with peers or friendly adults. A facilitator encourages discussion on a selected topic in order to reveal children's perceptions and feelings about it. This provides narrative data that can subsequently be analysed in relation to the goals of the study. One of the primary bene ts of group discussions with children is that it reduces the power

because they are spurred by the discussion to speak out about one another's ideas

- Provide access to children's own language and concepts, enabling the researcher to gain insight on how they co-construct meaning about and understanding of something
- They enable the researcher to observe the dynamics of the group's discussion, which provides understanding of social norms and how consensus attitudes emerge in groups of children

Some Limitations and Problems with using Group Interviews:

- Some children may not like to speak in groups and hence will say little or nothing
- It requires a trained, experienced, facilitator
- Because of the problem of group pressure the researcher cannot infer that there has been consensus on any issue
- It is not appropriate for quantitative analysis or generalisation from the data
- It is not appropriate for approaching sensitive personal issues
- Unlike in individual interviews, the researcher is not able to pursue an understanding of the details of participant's experiences

Group Size and Composition

With adults' focus groups a group size of eight to ten participants has been found to work the best for creating a rich, informative, discussion. While there has been no comparative research of group size with children under eight years of age, the group should probably be limited to three to ve children because with larger groups there tends to be a loss of focus in the discussion and parallel conversations.

In some situations researchers have found it bene cial to have groups of similar children, for example groups of boys and groups of girls, groups of children in school and out of school, or groups of children who speak the same local language or come from the same area. On the other hand, it is sometimes these kinds of di erences between children that are the focus of the research. Awareness of this challenge by a good facilitator might be enough to surmount the problem of having children of very di erent backgrounds present.

Although there has not to date been very much published research on group interviewing with children under eight years of age, many early childhood educators know that it is possible to conduct valuable group discussions with four- and ve-year-old children.

In one respect, group interviews seem to be a very e ective strategy for young children because of the more spontaneous nature of their comments, having less tendency to regulate the social desirability of their comments than adults. It is di cult to come to a clear conclusion regarding the question of age of participants. It will largely depend on the researcher's skill as a facilitator and the nature of the inquiry.

It is preferable to involve children of similar ages in the group because of the great changes in social skills and language during these early years. In addition, because within any culture the experiences and interests of children change as they grow older, some topics will be more di cult to address across di erent ages. For example, young children may be less sensitive about discussing sexual issues than older children (Hoppe et al. 1994).

Many researchers have found that it is often valuable to conduct separate group interviews with boys and girls, but there is no clear indication that this is true with young children.

While it is tempting to bring together a group of friends for a discussion, because they are already comfortable talking freely with one another, there may sometimes be problems with this. Some market researchers, who rely heavily on focus groups, claim that there is more peer pressure on children to answer in certain ways when groups members are familiar with one another. This is particularly the case with those issues that might be sensitive for them to disclose in front of their friends. But there are many other research questions that would bene t greatly from children who know one another being able to talk as a group about their lives together, such as how they plan and carry out activities with one another, how they get together, what they talk about with each other, or what some of their shared perceptions of something is. There are even occasions when it is valuable to interview a 'natural group', that is a pre-existing social group of children who know each other very closely. For example researchers might want

to interview a group o... survive on the streets toget... ...nsider to be some of the greatest risks in ... ...and their ideas for reducing these risks.

Facilitation of the Group

Good facilitation is the key to a successful group interview. The moderator facilitates discussion in an open-minded, non-directive, manner. Conventionally, in a focus group interview, the facilitator uses a set of pre-determined questions to help stimulate discussion about a topic that is commonly not directly shared with the group. In more participatory group interviews the facilitator shares the goals or primary question(s) of the research and leads an open discussion about them.

Facilitators will need to spend time in 'warm-up activities' where the participants can become familiar with one another and with the researchers (see Step 2 on Building Trustful Relationships). Then, before beginning the interview discussion, researchers will need to specify some ground rules for the discussion. They will also need to be aware of how the conversation is owing in relation to the primary questions, and to help gently guide it through prompts and probes. It will probably be necessary to plan some break-out moments to re-energize the group, and researchers should consult with the children to learn what the activities might be

Recording of the Session

If conditions allow it, and the researcher has the approval of the child and caregiver, then it is productive to audio record the discussion (see Step 2 on Developing Ethical Protocols). This will be useful in helping researchers to recall what was said, but it cannot completely replace also having an observer take notes of the session. In addition to making a summary record of the ideas that are expressed, the observer can also record the dynamics of the group's discussion. In this way they can attempt to capture, through the children's non-verbal as well as verbal responses, tensions about certain issues, the conscious and unconscious in uence of the children on one another's ideas, their shared and divergent perspectives, and areas of the discussion that seemed to be sensitive.

but very often researchers will want to use both methods because of tier complimentary strengths and weaknesses. Lewis gives the example of research into young children's understanding of severe learning di culties (SLD). Individual interviews were useful for her understanding of children's perceptions of the causes and likely progress of a learning di culty, and whether a child had any control over the problem, whereas group interviews helped her understand group norms about fears and acceptable behaviour towards children with SLD (Lewis 1987).

Ethics and Context

There are some particular ethical issues to consider in using group interviews. One distinct challenge of group interviews is that children are disclosing information

CLUSTER 2 CHILD-LED TOURS/ IN-SITU METHODS

Introduction

The majority of research methods described in this compendium of methods involve ways of enabling children to represent to a researcher how they think or feel about something that is not present through the use of words, visual means such as drawings and photos, or through performances. In this section we describe child-led tours as a distinct set of methods that are designed to enable children to describe their experiences as they move through the spaces where they have happened or where they typically happen.

In-situ interviews, where a child is interviewed at a location where a particular experience happened, or typically happens, are also valuable and are discussed within the 'Interviews and Discussions' section as 'In-situ interviews'. In this section we focus on the special

- Learning about the roles and responsibilities of girls and boys while accompanying them in their work
- Learning about the process that a child uses to do something, such as what they have been shown they should do in a re emergency or how they go about getting their lunch, by recreating or demonstrating that process

Documenting Individual Child-Led Tours

Depending upon the issue being investigated, a still camera held by a child can greatly improve the clarity of purpose of the activity, especially when the purpose is to learn about qualities of the physical environment or about which speci c places in a child's world have some particular meaning to them. Also, carrying the camera makes it clear that it is the child who has the knowledge or experience we are trying to learn about, and holding the camera gives them a rare sense of authority in their relationships with adults. The photographs can provide useful representations for subsequent further discussion with the child. They can also be subsequently used in further activities such as map making and personal books that o er the chance for children to further elaborate their perspective on the issue being investigated (see Cluster on Visual for Free Expression). The general term that has emerged for participatory photographic methods is 'photovoice' (http://www.photovoice.org).

The type of camera available can make a big di erence, especially with young children. The main value of enabling a young child to take photographs is the opportunity it a ords for discussion between the child and researcher. A camera that prints instantly, such as a Polaroid camera or a digital camera with a display screen allows for this dialogue. Those that require time to make prints are less valuable in this regard.

Audio recording during a tour with an individual child, or a pair of children, is important if researchers wish to careD(e ph)13.2(lnoplac)6Q-1.2 TD [ll (4mouphs(c)6(onmen)4s(e on tire8kJ T* [(or 4(xper)-3.t qu)34(n about)(tien)4(tlear)-4(n abf

of users of the same environments, such as a Children's Hospital. If a researcher wishes to evaluate how well a hospital is designed or managed for children they would invite people who are likely to have a diversity of perspectives on the subject, such as child patients, nurses, doctors, visiting family members, security personnel and janitors. Children under eight years of age however would typically be too intimidated to freely identify many of the issues that concern them in such a large, mixed aged group, and so it would be best for one adult researcher to rst conduct the walk with a small group of children alone. They would walk together through the wards and treatment spaces and identify the di erent uses and evaluations of each of the spaces. When nurses, doctors and cleaning sta subsequently walk through the same spaces they would be asked to discuss their own perspectives on the issues raised by the children, as well as identifying their own concerns for discussion. In some institutions, where children of a wide age range commonly work and play together in mixed age groups and with adults, the levels of competency and con dence for participating in group-dialogues might be higher, making their participation possible.

In many instances it will be su cient for the researcher to declare a general research question, such as an evaluation of the accessibility and quality of play places, and allow the children to lead the commentary. Researchers might sometimes, however, have a need to lead or probe with speci c questions, such as asking children questions regarding the speci c set of dangers that they might associate with di erent places along a route. While this can no longer be thought of as being entirely 'child-led', if a researcher is walking through an environment that is familiar to the children this is likely to still allow a child to feel relatively in control of the dialogue and to result in a richer commentary than would be elicited from a sit-down interview.

The data that can emerge from group tours is rich and complex because of the number of people speaking. The ideal way of capturing the data is a video recorder with a good microphone because it allows the researcher to identify which of the di erent participants spoke and the place or thing they were referring to. If this is not possible then an alternative is to have a map or plan of the spaces moved through on a clipboard and to make notes on it during the tour. It will be impossible to accurately record the di erent issues that particular people identi ed in this way, but the most valuable data is not about individuals but about the issues that they collectively identi ed and how they debated them.

Child-led Tours Through a Simulated (Model) Environment

With very young children even the empowering quality of child-led tours may not always be enough to elicit large amounts of commentary from them. Also, some spaces, like a hospital waiting room, are busy at all times, making it di cult to conduct a child-led tour. An e ective alternative is to model the environment in three dimensions and then allow children to lead the researcher through that. This method is closely allied with the use of models as settings for children's play with dolls (See Methods Cluster on Play and Games) and the [illegible]

to consider using a transect or pre-determined route through the environment, rather than following a child-led route.

Application, Data and Analysis

Whatever means are used to document the routes and the discussion the most valuable step in transferring the data for most questions that use this method will be to map it. If the data was collected with a video camera then it will be very easy to to associate the words spoken with places along the route. This greatly facilitates being able to transfer the data directly onto a map or a transect diagram. If the route was designed by a group, or groups of participants themselves then it is appropriate to record the data on a map of the environment that is the subject of the study. But if the children were taken on a transect walk, following a xed route designed by you, then the ndings can be displayed on a transect diagram (a cross-sectional slice showing the qualities of the spaces passed through with annotations above of what issues were identi ed by the group of each of the spaces).

If a video or audio recording was made the data will typically be too extensive to write it all on a map o a vidiagthen ne0.1(e ns oypicr)10.d0.1ding(y)the (6(r)5(am0(e taken)]some)instar

appraisal (PA) and we acknowledge its roots in anthropology, participatory action research and Freirean pedagogical approaches to codi cation in literacy, and also embrace methods being exible to the situation in which they are applied (Chambers 1997, 2002, 2007; O'Kane 2000).

During the early developments of PA visual methods, children's perspectives were often excluded. Di erence in gender and age of participants were rst acknowledged in adult PRA processes in the early 1990s, alongside other 'issues of di erence' (Welbourn 1991). A community of practice was developed in order to establish the meaningful participation of children in PA processes (Johnson 1995). The use of PA or structured visuals with children, including young children, was developed during the 1990s by researchers in the eld, within the context of international NGOs, gaining an understanding of local environments and children's lives (see examples below). This research included the perspectives of young children alongside older children and adults in communities. In many studies to explore children's lives, however, there was still a tendency to only include children above the age of around 8 years due to skepticism around competence (or perceived lack of competence) of young children. Examples of research that included young children's perspectives included understanding of local environments in Uganda (Guijt et al. 1994) and analysis of children's roles within households and societies (Johnson et al. 1995) and of children's participation in practice and research (Johnson et al.1997). Visuals have been expensively applied in INGO innovative practitioner research in the UK and internationally, for example by Claire O'Kane (for example O'Kane 1998).

Lack of attention to power and politics has been leveled at the PA approach (for example by Cooke and Kolthari 2001), with result that recently discourses around PA have concentrated on dimensions and ow of power and participatory spaces. The use of PA and visuals in PA, have also been discussed as part of move towards transformative development (Hickey and Mohan 2004 and Johnson 2010).

Overall Strengths and Weaknesses

Structured visual methods can be designed to be fun for groups of children. Although the structures are often initially determined by the researcher, there is room for involving children in the process, though less so with children under eight years of age. Visuals can be more or less structured, ranging from a line for time, a circle for a plate of food, or an outline of a body, to a more structured and researcher de ned visual survey or use of visual stimuli. Ironically, one strength of using structured visuals to think with, versus free expression, is that they can often liberate children from the constraints of drawing using cultural conventions such as a square house with four windows, a front door and a triangular roof to represent their homes.

Another strength of some of the more structured visuals is that they enable comparison across case studies and by children's age, gender and other dimensions of di erence (for example, see www.childfriendlyplaces.org).

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As much analysis as possible should be carried out with the children through discussion and cross checking of information.

Ethics and Context

Expectations of the potential roles and degrees of participation by children aged 5–8 years old will be dependent on the local cultural and political context, as will attitudes to early years and primary education and gender roles. Trying to understand these in advance is vital to anticipating which di erent tools may be applied, interpreted and accepted (Johnson 2011).

Visuals can work to level out power dynamics between children, so it can be productive to use with groups, however, facilitators also need to be aware when children start to copy each other rather than relying on their own thoughts and analysis. One disadvantage may also be that adults may interpret visuals in a way that distorts the child's perception unless they cross check interpretation and analysis with the children that they are working with. There can be a lot of 'baggage' arising from adult (or child) facilitators projecting their own memories and interpretations onto their yTD [(Q BT r)-4(iy)]TJ y be

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CLUSTER 5 NARRATIVE AND PERFORMANCE

Introduction

The broad approach of `performance and narrative' covers a wide range of forms, in both methods and tools used. Narrative is essentially speech-based, but may include words or symbols on media such as paper; performance is essentially action-based with everyday presentation (such as gesture in daily life), or formal presentation (through speci c enactment). Performance and narrative are both conceptually and practically interlinked, given the role of words alongside gesture, facial and body language in everyday communication. These terms are not discussed or interrogated here, although they have been the subject of extensive analysis, for example in the work of Go man (1959). There are also various approaches to the study and use of narrative and language, and to performance across social science, arts and other disciplines, which are not taken up in this section. Rather, the focus here is on the practicalities of the forms of the performance and narrative approach – that is the use of methods and tools in research with children.

A primary advantage of these tools and methods is that most can be easily applied in low-income research situations, although the issue of recording content may be a challenge in some settings: recording what is being said or performed in a way that can be checked with children and provides su cient detail for the purposes of the research project is essential. A particular advantage of these methods is that in situations where children are unfamiliar with the use of pens, pencils and paper, costumes or cameras, they can instead explore familiar forms of speech and performance. Their primary value for research purposes is that they allow children to give their perspective on any issue without tting into a prescribed category of response as with a questionnaire.

Distinguishing Approaches

In performance and narrative approaches, there are varied means of facilitation. Narrative has, for example oral and written forms in di erent media; performance has silent or spoken forms, with or without props. Both narrative and performance have various possibilities for their facilitation, including by other children, by adults, and with the potential use of props or pictures to initiate dialogue or action. By methods we mean the processes of using tools, and this involves both the means of facilitating their use with children and the analysis and interpretation of results.

Communication is at the heart of narrative and performance approaches. The focus on communication also raises issues of the interpretation of meaning and question of language that are particular to performance and narrative. The process of interpretation concerns not

the nature of the relationship between facilitators and children for example, whether and how they have previously met, whether they are from the same culture, and the extent to which children are active participants in the research.

Overview of Methods

Methods fall into two main groups: narrative (essentially speech based) and performance (essentially action based). There is overlap between the two because much performance also involves speech. So the main distinction used here is that performance has speci c methods that are formally set-up to make a display. For narrative, although there are elements of performance (such as gestures and body language), this body language is observed in so much as it corresponds with the content of speech, the aspects that are emphasised or that contradict the speech. It is therefore important to take notes regarding the role of the listener and observer. The distinction between narrative and performance is more like a spectrum and the notion of stories and story-telling bridges the forms of narrative and performance.

Narrative

Key clusters within narrative include forms of dialogue and forms of creating stories or narratives about life. Dialogue as a means of eliciting children's perspectives can be can be arranged in several ways, for example:

- Adults may interview children individually and in groups (di erent formats include semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions)
- Children may interview adults
- Children may interview other children (mostly either younger than them or peers of similar age) individually or in pairs/small groups
- Children may talk about their lives and concerns singly, in pairs or in groups, in settings created to enable these discussions. This is a form of dialogue that moves on from interview. For example, an environment can be set up with models, toys or dolls that a ord children the opportunity to discuss their experiences with the people or things represented

These forms of narrative cross over with performance and play, and are valuable for revealing concerns which children share with one another that they may not be comfortable in sharing in an interview. A key component of this form of narrative, as with interviews, remains that someone is listening and the content is recorded.

A distinction must be made between the narratives that children deliberately construct (for example, in response to requests by adult facilitators) and the narratives that are implicit in their words and play, and which adult facilitators observe and record (Engel 1995 and 2005). The focus in participatory approaches is on the former, whereby children are asked to relate a story or narrative. The latter approach depends on facilitators' interpretations of children's words

Stories and Storytelling

Creating stories concerns children telling (narrating) their real life as they perceive it – describing circumstances and actions. This may take on various forms: children telling their own life experience as a story, perhaps with graphic images; autobiographical descriptions using key questions as starting points; children providing biographies of other children or family members or others in the community (as they see those lives); family members writing parallel biographies/ autobiographies; children constructing stories about ideal life or idealised characters; children telling stories about changes or events that have occurred; children writing letters to tell about incidents (for example reporting abuse at home or school); children completing stories already begun; and children telling stories about their experience of doing research!

A story may be drawn from a child's own life, or a story may be a life story (of an unspeci ed life, but drawn from children's knowledge. Stories may be created by children individually, or they may construct stories with others. If story narratives rely on researchers interpreting what they see and hear, rather than explicitly engaging children in relating their own stories, then this is more of an interview. The distinction is important in terms of adult/ child control of the process and data analysis.

Performance

Clusters of performance include drama, role-play, dance, song, poems/ rhymes, use of puppets and use of sculptural forms in action. Some distinction is made between drama and role-play, with drama higt Tying key questi

acting out how individuals behave at certain times or acting out particular incidents.

Drama may involve children devising a sequence of actions to describe or portray a particular story (as above), or a re-enactment of events. Dance, song and poetry may concern telling stories or relating feelings about people, places, circumstances, events. Face paint, masks and costume may also be used to produce characterisations for performances of vignettes or storytelling. Sculptural forms may be used to portray ideas, for example as in the use of three-dimensional and two-dimensional symbols to indicate candidates for election and their policies/ ideas, which may be replicated by children. This was done by children, including young children, in a children's research project in Bangladesh, when elections were taking place. The use of some forms of drama, role-play, dance, song, poetry, making speeches has di erent cultural resonances (see section on context below).

Performance, including silent drama, mime, dance and characterisation with face paint and costume, can be a useful communication tool with some children with disabilities, particularly hearing and speech impairments, as well as other children. Again the process of understanding meaning and interpretation may be challenging to adults involved, particularly if they do not have prior experience of working with disabled children or with other groups.

and to not necessarily o er an opinion, perspective, or be taken seriously. Methods for performance and narrative need to include ways of creating an environment where children are con dent in being able to use everyday methods of speech to tell stories and to relate circumstances and events that are meaningful to them, regardless of their assessment of what adults might want to hear.

The use of dialogue-based approaches alone may disadvantage some children who are shy, or some children with disabilities, or in circumstances of gender or other social hierarchies where some children are expected to acquiesce to others. The disadvantages faced by some children can be more apparent to observers where children are working, talking or performing in groups, and some are more easily seen to be excluded or their views ignored by their peers. Another challenge with dialogue is taking account of the developmental processes of childhood, where children are learning and exploring use of language, speech and conversation, and so understanding and interpreting a child's meaning is sometimes more di cult.

The application of performance approaches requires skill in working with children to support them in creating stories and designing their performance. In some cases this may also require ways of supporting children's con dence to perform. The attitudes, knowledge and skills identi ed for researchers using narrative are equally important in the area of performance, particularly where performing is a regular part of life in some cultures (for example where children are expected to have a repertoire of dance, song, readings or other performance that they can be called upon to do).

Application and Analysis

The quality and type of data depends on the forms of narrative and performance and the methods of recording and interpreting the content. It is important

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where the audience is as important as the performers. After presenting their script the audience of child peers will comment on the script, asking for clari cations or often comparing the issue to their own experiences. They often even feel the need to get up and present their own revised or alternative version of the script. Sometimes this process will be formalised, with one of the children taking down notes on a board of the points made by the audience and the performers.

Ethics and Context

The cultural context is crucial in terms of the familiarity of children with forms of narrative and performance, particularly the extent to which these forms are culturally approved, and the researcher's understanding of this. In some cultures, competence in performance (such as song, dance and poetry) is encouraged and expected from early childhood. This is a strength, in that many children have the con dence and skills of being able to get up in front of others and perform. Sometimes this may also be a challenge however because they are only used to performing in a pre-structured style that they have learned. Con dence and familiarity with performance can bring greater possibilities for adaptation by the children so that they are less shy in telling their own stories. Some cultures have a strong oral tradition that encourages and values speechmaking and abilities to declaim or recite in public. This o ers strengths for children in this context, but also challenges because children may have learned forms of speaking or content by rote, and methods are need to enable children to move beyond prescribed texts they may have already learned, to be able to give their own views, opinions, and descriptions of life and issues.

Because the use of speech, and some forms of performance, can seem very familiar both to adults (in particular) and to children, as part of everyday life, assumptions can be made by both and greater attention needs to be paid to context and circumstances of ethics. The content and methods of research may 4(tt)6(en)4(tion)][((in epr)-4(mances view a)h

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CLUSTER 6
PLAY AND GAMES

Introduction

Play is sometimes contrasted with work and characterised as a type of activity that is essentially unimportant and lacking in any serious purpose (Whitebread et al. 2012). Yet, play is increasingly being recognised as crucial for children's social, emotional and

jumping, climbing and ne-motor-skills such as sand play, drawing and hand-eye coordination, e.g. throwing beanbags or balls. Such games can be developed so that they can be used as research tools, as discussed in the chapter on tioships1the1

This type of play can be very useful in research as it allows the child to control the depth of exploration into the issue and provides a 'step back' from the issue being explored.

In developing this method, a variety of materials can be provided (such as clay, sand, sticks, mud, leaves, stones) that children can use to represent figures. These objects can be combined and laid out, as in the form of a drawing, sculpture or painting, to tell a story (a method suggested by Cruz et al. 2002 p129). As with the use of puppets and masks in creating dramas, play with these materials can be useful in research on sensitive subjects, 'where children may become distressed about remembering painful experiences…. the pain then "happens" to the invented character' (Ennew and Plateau 2004 p229), which in this case is represented by objects or materials designated by children.

If a researcher is in the position of having sustained opportunities to observe children over time, play-based methods can be closely linked with observational research for: ‘As children play, themes, or consistent patterns, emerge’ (Green et al. 2009 p.312). Observation helps us to gain an insight onto children’s thinking, their interests and their preferences (Foreman and Hall 2005).

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Einasdottir, J. (2005) `We can decide what to play! Children's perception of quality in an Icelandic Playschool' Early Education and Development 16 (4): pp.469-488

If research is not relevant to young children's lives in their context then it is likely that they will not enjoy the research and it will not lead to meaningful results. Researchers will have to work with what is possible considering existing local power dynamics and attitudes towards young children in di erent settings. This is why we have developed Section 2 of these resources to show a range of di erent cultural and political contexts and research that has been undertaken for di erent purposes.

The cultural, political and institutional contexts a ect the way in which people work with young children and which methods the researcher may nd most useful.. The selection of methods by the researcher will also be in uenced by the discipline that they or their research team are trained in or are working with. The acceptability of di erent approaches and methods and how di erent forms of evidence are received varies in di erent professional contexts. Further consideration will need to be given by the researcher to how di erent methods work within the di erent spaces that children inhabit, in and out of school, during their work or tasks that they perform in the household. Finally although many of the methods are playful, taking time away from children's playtime needs to also be considered.

Consideration should be given to how methods are applied in a range of contexts and whether they can help to break down]TJ pu 21u4 9mes e0(y of the)]TJ 0 -0a0 -s

Visuals also helped to understand what aspects of their program help or hinder the girls and boys who are living and working on the street.

Buzz groups and resources such as cameras, video, audio recorders, a DJ machine and art materials were used to help stimulate discussion amongst marginalised young children about how they understand their own citizenship in a European context (Larkins). At every session groups of young children reviewed the evidence that they had previously generated. Con dence in the young children's ability to guide their own research was

CHADET LISTENING TO THE VOICES

value of education and protection accorded to children, CHADET made e orts to enhance the awareness of the community through employing di erent mechanisms including Community Conversations (CC), an approach that has been proven to mobilise communities to debate some of the most pertinent issues that a ect children in their respective communities, through the production and distribution of lea ets and posters that convey educational messages, and staging entertaining shows using CHADET's music and drama group. It also initiated a close working relationship with schools and all other relevant stakeholders at di erent levels including local government, religious leaders, police, youth and women's groups as well as agricultural and health extension workers at the level of the grass roots. The major achievement of the previous project was the establishment of a locally grounded child protection mechanism in which Child Protection Committees (CPCs) were established and became operational in the intervention 'Kebeles' (the lowest administrative unit of government).

Purpose

According to CHADET's own experience, and ndings from other assessments made in the Amhara Regional State, young children face multifaceted socioeconomic and cultural problems that can a ect both their present and future lives. Access to quality education is hampered by a lack of pre-primary schools for young children as well as an inability of their parents to meet the costs of education. Child labour is also essential within communities for looking after animals, cooking, fetching water and to provide other support on farms.

Having implemented a project focusing on promoting child protection, CHADET had identi ed education as an essential gateway to a better life, especially for girls. As part of an e ort to develop a new project proposal to be submitted to DFID for enhancing girls' education, we facilitated a consultation workshop with stakeholders to update our theory of change and to outline how we can enable girls at risk of early marriage, domestic labour, migration and street involvement to join, remain and thrive in school. 48 schoolgirls and boys, parents, teachers, community and religious leaders, and sta of community-based organisations participated in the workshop which was held in the town of Debretabor (where CHADET's eld coordination o ce is located).

A poster showing the tra cking of girls

This picture shows a joyful girl who has become successful in her education because her parents did not force her to marry.

Having gathered the views of older boys and girls, as well as other stakeholders, we organised a similar session with young children (age 6-8) to have their views and voices that it will be built in the project to be developed. Hence, it was decided that we would conduct the assessment among children who are coming to an ECCE (Early Childhood Care and Education) Center that was set-up in Alem Ber recently. Alem Ber is a small rural village that is found in Fogera Woreda (district) in South Gondar Administrative Zone of Amhara Regional State.

Our key questions revolve around capturing their insights to questions on the importance of education, domestic labour, child marriage and risky migration. These are key issues that are to be addressed by the forthcoming project.

Design and Methods

A total of 22 children (12 girls and 10 boys) aged 6-8 participated in the exercise. They were randomly

that they have relatives in those towns and in Addis Ababa, who occasionally pay them a visit during public holidays …They come to visit us and buy us new clothes. They are neat and educated' (age 8, female). All of the children said they dream of living in such towns. They think living in towns/ urban areas is good for them. Most of the children indicated that their relatives who come from the cities want to take them back with them. One of the girls even said she wouldn't mind going to Addis Ababa to live with her relatives as a domestic worker. One of the boys and two of the girls said they had their sisters in nearby town of Wereta and the city of Bahir Dar. Seven from the boys and two from the girls' groups said that their elder sisters had gone to the Middle East in search of better life. The views of these children correlates with previous studies carried out in the area.

- Both boys and girls are involved in household domestic chores. The differences in gender roles were reflected from what the children said, i.e. certain tasks such as girls supporting their mothers in making wet (stew), cleaning dishes and the house, making the bed, and making coffee in a traditional way (making coffee is ceremonial in Ethiopia). This does not mean, however, that girls are not doing the work that is being done by boys. Both boys and girls are involved in the collection of firewood, going to shops/ market to buy goods, fetching water, looking after the cattle, etc. They also indicated that they are given some time to study and play, at times when they are at home. Most of the children were of the opinion that they need to be given more time to study and their parents shouldn't force them to work. They said '…some of the work is difficult for children of our age and it should be handled by adults; … we have to stick to our education' (age 7, male).

- With regard to a question about girls in their community and at the ECCE Center, the boys said that '… males are always strong and girls are weak' (age 6, male). But they admitted that the student who ranked first in their class is a girl. One boy said 'girls are performing better than their male counterparts in their education' (age 7, male). Most of the boys said that they think some types of domestic work are the responsibility of girls.

- Another important issue on which the researchers sought information was the views of the children towards the value given to education, and how they found the Center met this interest. All of them expressed coming to school as important for all children. '… It will help us become big and educated persons (age 8, female); … we will become doctors and drivers if we learn' (age 7, male); '… our knowledge increases; …we will not always look after animals' (age 7, male). The participants in the research were also asked if they knew of other children of their age who were not coming to school. They indicated that there are many children who did not get the chance to come to school. From their responses it was clear that children are not choosing this course of action, but that the parents will not let them go to school.

- When asked about what needs to be done to improve access to education for children of their age in their village, they recommended that additional classrooms should be built and more teachers should be hired. Children also suggested that the Center could be equipped with more desks and

EXPLORING CHILDREN’ UNDERSTANDINGS OF WELLBEING AND ILL-BEING IN YOUNG LIVES, PERU

Accompanying children during their work

Gina Crivello and Vanessa Rojas Arangoitia

Purpose

This ‘learning from practice’ shares experiences of engaging young children in longitudinal qualitative research carried out by Young Lives, an international study of childhood poverty in four developing country contexts (http://www.younglives.org.uk). The case presents learning from Young Lives research in Peru, describing the range of methods used in the early rounds of research to explore di erent aspects of child wellbeing and ill-being with young children, and other important factors in their lives. This is followed by an extended example of how a ‘wellbeing exercise’ was carried out with the children, the kind of information that was obtained, and the potential for adaptation and replication.[2]

Young Lives is a research programme being carried out in Ethiopia, India (Andhra Pradesh state), Peru and Vietnam to improve understanding of the causes, dynamics and consequences of childhood poverty. The goal is to produce evidence that can be used to inform policies and programmes that bene t vulnerable children and their families. Over a fteen-year period (2002–2017) Young Lives is tracking the life trajectories of two age groups of children across these countries, a younger cohort of 8,000 children born in 2000/1 and an older cohort of 4,000 children born in 1994. A survey is administered to the full sample of children and households every few years (2002, 2006, 2009, 2013, 2016), and between survey rounds, a sub-sample of over 200 boys and girls participate in in-depth qualitative research which is also longitudinal in its design (returning to the same children and families in 2007, 2008, 2011 and 2014).

Design and Methods

This ‘learning from practice’ re ects on experiences from the qualitative research, especially when the younger cohort was between the ages of 5-7, since this presents particular challenges for engaging them in research. We include some re ections from the latest round of research (2011), when the children had turned nine years old, and the way in which repeating certain methods recorded changes in their views and lives. Such e orts to engage young children as sources of data in international development research are uncommon, and there is a tendency to (only) consult adults who are assumed to be more knowledgeable and articulate about matters concerning children’s lives and wellbeing.[3] Qualitative research enables exploration of children’s own views and explanations which might di er from adults’.

This strand of qualitative research uses a ‘methodkit’ approach in the administration of methods, combining individual methods with group-based activities and discussions that can be adapted for di erent groups of children and contexts. Before each round of qualitative research, the international team of Young Lives qualitative researchers develop a common eldwork protocol that is piloted in each country, modi ed, used as the basis for training, and adapted for use in local contexts.

[2] Young Lives is funded by UK aid from the Department for International Development (DFID) from 2001 to 2017 and co-funded by the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign A airs from 2010 to 2014 and by Irish Aid from 2014 to 2015. www.younglives.org.uk.

[3] Although Young Lives is ‘child-focused’, adults are an important source of data on children’s lives, histories and everyday communities. In qualitative research, caregivers and other adults contribute information on children’s household circumstances, family organisation and livelihoods, social norms and expectations, community histories and environments, and service provision. Adults cannot, however, replace children as sources of data on children’s experiences.

The rst round of qualitative data collection (2007) was a baseline study focused on three themes:

- Local understandings of child 'wellbeing' and 'ill-being' (including everyday risks and protective processes)
- Childhood transitions
- Experiences of services

TABLE 1:

Wellbeing Exercise

The overall aim of this method was to explore what children considered to be a good or bad life for children of the same age and sex, living in their community, including an examination of sources of risk and protective processes. The method was adapted for use with groups of young children so that the group facilitator created a shared set of drawings representing 'good' and 'bad' lives for children in their communities, based on instructions and commentary provided by the

into what they believe constrains or supports their agency and wellbeing. Aged 5-6 years old, they strongly associated 'ill-being' with lack of parental protection,

Illbeing

Replication

The Wellbeing Exercise described here required heavy facilitation by skilled adult researchers, but the method may be adapted and replicated for other purposes, such as local school interventions. For example, in San Román city, young children articulated the widespread nature of everyday violence in homes, schools and neighbour hood streets. One possibility would be to use teachers to facilitate the exercise in schools so that children's perspectives and concerns about di erent forms of violence could be communicated to other school sta , parents and the wider community. In this case, it could raise awareness about violence in schools and gener

bene ted from her experience and in depth knowledge of the ethics of research with children and her previous research with street children, alongside the enthusiasm and dedication of the ActionAid researchers and the local knowledge of context and innovation of the Nepalese researchers who joined ActionAid Nepal for the research period.

Design and Methods

The researchers spent many months up in the hills observing the lives of girls of boys including their play, schooling and work. They worked with children of all ages including young children of 5-8 years who already often had responsibilities in the household. Young children, especially girls, swept the yard, collected water and rewood, looked after siblings and animals such as goats.

The Nepalese eldworkers spent many hours building trust with the di erent family members including the children. They did this by playing games, singing local songs, learning the local language, which was often not Nepalese, and dancing.

In addition to observation and open and semi-structured interviews with di erent members of the households and communities including girls and boys, the following methods were applied:

With children, including young children of 5-8 years old

- Accompanying children during their work (see previous page): this was developed by the eldworkers as children did not always have time to stop doing their daily chores to take part in the research. They would go with girls and boys and help them out with their work while interviewing them about what they liked and disliked about their work and other aspects of their lives.
- Songs:

went to school. Boys often included school where girls did not as there is a strong gender preference to sent boys to school. The further the line from themselves at the centre of the map, the further they had to go, for example to the forest to collect wood.

- Matrix ranking (see next page): this was done to understand what work girls and boys do and whether they like it, and also to understand why they prefer certain tasks to others.

- Seasonal calendars were carried out with children to understand their workload over the year. In a rural environment workloads for children change depending on the di erent periods for planting, harvesting and processing, and also their routes to school depend on ooding in the rainy season.

- Daily tasks for girls and boys of di erent ages and the time di erent activities take were understood through daily ows and charts.

With all members of the household

- Mapping in order to understand the lay of the land

di erent issues they would triangulate using di erent methods and verify with the children that they had been working with.

Reference Groups of local policy makers and service providers, and also national and international policy-makers and decision-makers, were formed so that someone was listening to what the children said. The reports were launched nationally and internationally. The information also fed into the local implementation of programmes and support of partners by ActionAid Nepal.

How the research helped us to understand children and their agency

Understanding the perspectives of girls and boys helped us to understand:

- Girls and boys contribute signi cantly to households coping with environmental stresses
- Increasing economic stress means that there is increasing pressure on children to work and at an earlier age
- Due to the power dynamics within households, it is not enough to focus only on the poorest households. Attitudes towards daughters and particularly daughter-in-laws can make girls, including young girls, feel very negatively about their lives
- Girls had the least opportunities, did the hardest work and had the fewest education opportunities. There was a cultural context of sending boys to school rather than girls as girls were expected to stay at home and carry out work for the household
- Children's roles in households and broader societies, especially young children, are not often acknowledged or necessarily recognised in planning programmes for them. Unless children's roles are better understood by including their perspectives in research we could inadvertently adversely a ect their lives

Replication/ Linking to other Processes

Methods developed during Listening to Smaller Voices have been shared widely with international audiences. Researchers from the team continued to apply some of the visual methods in research with Save the Children (see case study by Hill in Nepal) and with the Himalayan Community Development Forum (HICODEF) in Nawalparassi. These methods with children have also been applied with team members in the UK, for example in exploring issues of food poverty with Sustain, Oxfam UK's Poverty Unit and Development Focus and in evaluating the Croydon Children's Fund. See www.developmentfocus.org.uk.

important individual differences and issues of power in the functioning of institutions. We also felt that it would be important to obtain the perspectives of those children who were not club members, and their parents, about the place of clubs in their communities. Our proposal to develop participatory methods that children and facilitators in any club could use greatly suited our sponsors because they felt that the tools we proposed to design could also be subsequently used to improve their ongoing monitoring and support of the clubs. In this account we do not discuss the survey phase and the interviewing of key informants because these used standard, well-known, methods.

We designed participatory group methods that would help children to look critically at: the inclusiveness and organisational structure and processes of the club, what role it played in their lives compared with other settings, and how well the club satisfied the desires of the older and young children and boys and girls. We followed the central principles of participatory group methods that they be simple and clear to a group unschooled in the use of such methods, and that the analysis and interpretation of the data be carried out with the group themselves. We also had to design the methods with the knowledge that a large proportion of the children in the clubs had not attended school and were not literate. Some of the participatory group methods were borrowed and modified from the literature on participatory research with adults; others were developed specifically for this study.

The methods were pilot-tested in one club and then used in 22 clubs, sampled from the districts where the two international agencies worked in the mountains and plains of the country. In order to maximise the degree to which children could have a voice in the research sessions we created separate research sub-groups in each club: girls younger than 12 years, boys younger than 12 years, girls older than 12 years and boys older than 12 years.

Understanding patterns of social exclusion through mapping

We used mapping to identify which families and which children in each household were not club members and why this might be the case. Maps were used as a way of displaying household census information because distance from the club was suspected to be one of the important variables. We first asked the children in our pilot community to construct a conventional, Euclidean, map as the base map for the social census. If pencils or crayons are used for mapping it is very difficult for children to create a collective expression that they can all agree upon so we first use loose materials such as yarn and pieces of cardboard and only fixed this with crayons when everyone agreed on the location of all features. Using this method alone even three and four year old children can make rudimentary maps, and five-year-old children are capable of making maps that are accurate enough for others in the community to understand (Hart 1978). It is more difficult however for them to coordinate their spatial perspective with other children, and so some facilitation is required when involving children under eight years of age in this, as a group activity.

The piloting of this method resulted in such a good base map that it remained in the clubroom for over a year afterwards. But it was too slow a technique and so we quickly designed a more streamlined technique that we call 'social mapping'. Social mapping provides a rapid census of a community and enables an analysis of the degree of inclusiveness of club membership. The social map is designed to emphasise distance from an institution such as a club or school rather than spatial location. The base map is simply a series of circles representing five-minute travel distances away from a dot representing the club. Children write their names on a small paper house representing their home. They add information about the demography of their household to their template using different coloured symbols. They then stick this house on the map at the correct distance from the club.

The social map was extremely successful and children of all ages used it rapidly, and enthusiastically discussed patterns of club membership and exclusion. We suspect however that these group-made maps would be more difficult for children under eight years old to fully understand because they rely upon children's understanding of relative distance and coordinating their own mapping with that of other children. But, in line with what we have said in the introduction about mixed ages and group discussion and learning, it would probably be valuable to allow six- and seven-year-olds to be involved in the process of making census symbols for their own home, even though the placement and analysis of the relative distance of their homes on the map would require the assistance of an older child or facilitator.

Categorising and Ranking Participation in Activities through Card-sorting and Ranking and the Movement Ranking Game

If the children are literate, or can at least read one another's names, card sorting is a good method to enable children to show patterns of participation in di erent types of activities or in di erent roles. The children place these cards in groups on the oor to show what they do together. They also placed them in order of frequency of participation in di erent types of activities. By using these cards of di erent colours to express age or gender children were able to easily see and discuss patterns of involvement and exclusion in activities. But because many children could not easily read each others names we chose instead to use a Movement Ranking Game.

The Movement Ranking Game is an alternative way to enable all club members to see patterns in their di erent types of participation and roles in their organisation. It is an essential alternative for young children, who are not literate, but it is also more fun for older literate children. Children were simply asked to form lines that expressed

Comparing the Bene ts of Di erent Settings Using a Simple Matrix

This method enables children to identify what bene ts they feel they get from di erent settings in their lives. Boys and girls, and younger and older children, can express their di erent perspectives on the same chart, thereby enabling valuable discussion on why they have di erent ideas about these bene ts. The method uses a simple matrix. It can be drawn on paper or in the dirt.

Categories of settings in the children's daily lives (school, home, work, club, free time, the children's club and festivals) are expressed on one axis in words and pictures. Categories of di erent qualities of these di erent settings are expressed on the other axis, again in words and pictures. An initial set of categories was identi ed through interviews with children in the pilot phase of the project but we also asked each group if there were any other categories of activities that are important to them before we began to score them. With a large group, the matrix needs to be hung on a wall so
exprerent perspectives on the* [(e)3(xp other 37ts)]TJ 0036erent quao gs art, ,y3(t(ojec)-1she* [(e)3(xpgenild0.1n1(.)]TJ T*6(ith2)7r

Comparing Activity Preferences with a Matrix

This method was designed to enable boys and girls of di erent ages to systematically compare their favorite

SCHOOL LINKING PROGRAM IN UGANDA

Anslem Wandega and Ruth Birungi

Purpose

The African Network for Prevention and Protection of Children against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN) Uganda Chapter is a child rights organisation aimed at protecting children from all forms of abuse. Our interventions are both preventive and responsive in nature, empowering children and communities through advocacy and providing direct services to abused children.

This case focuses on using the school link programme to share learning about how young children (6-8 years) cope with violence in public and private primary schools in developing and developed countries.

This activity is part of the project implemented by ANPPCAN Uganda Chapter and ChildHope UK aimed at reducing violence in 50 private and public primary schools in ve districts located in Northern and Central parts of Uganda. Violence against Children (VAC) in schools is rampant with Uganda ranked among the countries with the highest in VAC in the East African region[6] . Important to note is that VAC in Uganda remains largely invisible and some of the common forms are considered disciplinary measures that are socially accepted. Incidences and forms of violence against children vary in each context depending on the socio-economic and cultural characteristics of

quality usable content. This was produced by the children for their friends in the partner schools to share their experiences.

Use of drawings

Children were also encouraged to draw their situation and how they understood violence in schools. They added a simple description to their drawings to help their counterparts in the UK and Uganda to understand. The drawings complimented the recordings to enable children to understand the perspectives of children in the di erent countries and what their counterparts were saying in the pictures and radio clips.

Ethical considerations

Consent was obtained from children before they participated in the study. The purpose of the study was explained to them including the potential risks and bene ts, and what the recordings will be used for, before they signed the consents. They were also informed that participation was voluntary and they could leave at any point if they felt they wanted to. Teachers and sta were also trained to keep the con dentiality of any information they got from children. Teachers and sta were trained in handling and addressing cases of violence against children reported to them by children during or after the session.

sessions in the partner schools. Recordings from the UK schools were also accessed by the focal person at ANPPCAN Uganda Chapter through Dropbox. They were downloaded, sent to the focal o cers at the district in Uganda, who took them to the respective schools and groups.

Lessons and challenges picked from each session were discussed by children with the help of the facilitator and this would inform the way the next session was conducted. The lessons learned from each of the sessions were documented. A nal report in the form of a radio sound-bite, cue lines, scripts/ voice overs for Radio was produced and used to produce a Radio programme or podcast to be played on radio in Uganda and the United Kingdom to inform children on how to prevent violence in schools.

How the research helped us to understand children and their agency

The ndings of the study show that both children in

CHILDREN'S DRAWINGS TO UNDERSTAND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Children's drawings of 'actual school experience' show a majority of them being engaged in doing class work, mainly, literacy and numeracy. The experiences analysed from the actual school drawings were academic driven and represent a traditional view of the classroom. The teacher mostly takes the authority position and stands by the blackboard. The children drew themselves as attending to the teacher's instructions.

Replication/ Linking to other Processes

Studies like Anning and Ring (2004) and Weber and Mitchell (1995) illustrate how drawings can be used to help educators and other professionals understand the lives of children in school and related settings, for example, to demonstrate teachers' pedagogic styles and children's achievement in schools (Bonoti, Plousia and Fotini 2003).

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CHILDREN'S PERSPECTIVES ON MOVING FROM PRESCHOOL TO PRIMARY SCHOOL

Johanna Einarsdottir

Introduction/ Purpose

In Iceland children start primary school in the autumn of the year they turn six years old and so move into unfamiliar situations. Preschools and primary schools have di erent histories and build on di erent traditions. The main aim of the primary school has always been to teach children to read and write. The rst day-care centers in Iceland were, on the other hand, established for poor children during the beginning of urbanisation in the 1920s. As in the other Nordic countries preschool education is regarded as the society's responsibility; initially it was an important aspect of the welfare system, but is today the rst level of schooling with the passing of a 1994 law (Law on preschools, No. 78/1994). The term 'playschool' is used for all early childhood programs in Iceland, indicating that free play has an honoured role in Icelandic preschool programs. Children are not required to attend preschool; but according to legislation, all children must have the opportunity to do so (Lög um leikskóla nr. 90/2008. [The Preschool Act No. 90/2008)]. Approximately 96% of all children ages 3-5, 93% of two-year-old children, and 35% of one-year-old children attended preschools in 2010. Children can attend preschool from 4 to a maximum of 9 hours a day Most children start preschool when they are two years old (Statistics Iceland, 2011).

The structure of primary schools has also evolved, and the school day is becoming longer. In 1970, special classes for six-year-old children were established in the primary schools, and it became a fleiksk)-10drof a 1994 la(Löy scho

problematic. Many children do not know what research studies entail and may, therefore, have problems understanding what this really means. Therefore it is important to use methods that the children understand to inform them about the study. Furthermore, it is important to consider that there can be many reasons why children agree to participate, including power inequality between a child and an adult researcher. The researcher has to be aware of the messages that children give, with or without words, about their interest in participating in or opting out of the study (Dockett, Einarsdottir, & Perry 2009, 2011, 2012, in print; Dockett and Perry, 2011; Harcourt and Conroy, 2011).

In an attempt to ensure that the children understood su ciently what was going to happen, an information lea et was produced in which the study was explained through pictures and a short text that clari ed what was involved in the study. The researchers went through the booklet with the children, and explained to them that they could choose whether or not they wanted to participate, and also that they had the right to withdraw from the research at any time. All the children agreed to participate, and wrote their names on the lea et in agreement. One child was, however, not interested when the study started and withdrew from the study.

How the research helped us to understand children and their agency

The ndings of the study show that the children regarded starting primary school as an important transition period and expected considerable changes in their lives when they moved from preschool to primary school. Most of the children looked forward to starting school. They discussed the formal preparation for primary school that took place in preschool, where during special 'school time' sessions the main emphasis was on worksheets in preparation for the subjects studied in primary school. By seeking the children's

CHILDREN AND WATER SUPPLY IN TIBET: CHINA

Andy West

Purpose

This learning from practice case study outlines applied research that was part of a project that was designed as an intervention. The intervention was intended to nd ways to prevent breakdowns and breakages that were regularly found in a new water supply set up for a village in rural Tibet. Local adults claimed that children were at fault: the aim of the intervention was to understand children's perspectives and circumstances, and to learn and support their solutions to the problem.

Context

The project was requested by sta from a water, sanitation and health o ce run by Save the Children (an international non-government organisation) in Tibet as part of the China country programme. This work in Tibet, in collaboration with local government, included installing a water supply in partnership with local villagers, and providing health education. In large parts of rural Tibet the use of a river for sanitation and washing increases the risks and problems of disease, and provision of an alternative clean supply is important for health, as well as convenience of a tap located centrally. Two of the three health education workers in the project team were female. The water and sanitation sta , all male, primarily worked with local adults, mainly men, on the design and construction of a piped supply; both women and men from the village were involved in selecting the route and site of standpipes.

They had recently established a piped water supply from the mountainside to a particular village. But the standpipe, tap and drains were frequently reported as blocked, broken and needing repair. Adult villagers blamed children and project sta proposed to set up a club to teach children the correct use of standpipes and taps, and to provide health information. Project sta requested advice and support on doing this, since they were not familiar with participation practice. After discussion with facilitators from the southern China programme o ce, it was agreed not to presume that local children were responsible for the breakdown, but to rst nd out what was happening from the children's perspective and then to see what solution they might propose.

Children, age and location

The initial eldwork sessions with 17 children were conducted at a primary school in the summer holiday with 8 boys and 9 girls aged 8-11 who lived in the village. The school o ered the only indoor public space available locally, and also had an outdoor area, and some basic kitchen facilities. The school took in children from more remote villages and settlements without local schools as weekly boarders during term time. The 17 children were all in the penultimate grade or class of the school and lived locally. This grade/ class was identi ed in discussion with the headteacher on grounds that the children would not be entering their nal year, giving a potentially more sustainable initial project, but, being close to the nal grade/ class, they would have more status in the eyes of young children. Subsequently, after the initial period of work, many younger children were involved, from lower grades.

Children within a particular grade/ class were not necessarily of the same age. Much depended on when they were entered into school, so the grade/ class was often used as a measure rather than age. Children across the country were said to be traditionally numbered as one year old following birth, and age was often determined more by the name of the lunar birth year than a particular month, which led to classes of children with a biological age range of two or three years at least.

Design and Methods

Approach

The approach to this intervention was threefold. First, sta capacity building in children's participation; second, gaining an understanding of children's circumstances and perspectives; third, facilitating children's ideas for solutions to problems and decision-making on action, and supporting them in any action chosen.

Methods

The process of work with children and methods used were decided by project sta and consisted of: a mix of games that were local/ traditional and imported from outside the village; visual methods (including drawing), mapping and diagrams, and interpreting pictures and designs brought in; accompanied walks; small group discussions; plenary discussions (including voting and consensus decision-making). Selection and use of methods were integrated into the daily review/ re ection.

Training and critical re ection strategy

If the intervention was to have the opportunity to be localised, maintained over time, and repeated, it was necessary to build the competence of project sta in working with children and young people in a participatory way.

Basic training in participation was provided, including discussion of local concepts of childhood and identi cation of possibilities for children to participate in programme work, followed by experiential learning and mentoring in working with children. After the o ce-based training workshops, sta designed and planned sessions they would facilitate with children, which were discussed with trainer-facilitators who subsequently observed them in practice. Each session with children was followed by a structured review and detailed planning of the next session in light of the re ection on what had happened. After a series of six half-day mentored sessions working with children over two weeks, the sta team felt able and con dent in continuing work with children; the children had also decided they wanted to continue. The process of experiential training incorporating daily review and planning was intended to set a model of practice that would be continued.

Ethical issues

While the use of the school was unavoidable, it presented a challenge because of the way children were used to being treated by adults in that location, from a position of power. The voluntary nature of participation in the project was emphasised at di erent stages as the children and project sta developed a di erent type of relationship, so that their consent was both informed and genuine. The role of the project sta team in creating and maintaining a di erent environment to the rote-learning methods and control exercised by teachers on school days was crucial and needed to be observed and practiced in detail throughout. This included the adult sta working cooperatively, and treating each other, as well as the children, with respect, and taking the boys' and girls' views seriously.

The local language (Tibetan) was used in planning and design with children (and local adults). The training and review sessions were conducted with the external facilitators in English, supplemented by Chinese. The local project team spoke Tibetan as a rst language, Chinese as a second and some had English as a third (or fourth). In order for concepts (including that of participation) to be fully understood it is necessary to plan and practice in local language, rather than through translation.

Since the headteacher and his family lived on site, it was also necessary to work with him in order that the di erent style of facilitation ('teaching') used would not be disturbed, to enable consistency and so that children might not become subordinated if teachers passed by.

Finally children's expectations needed to be checked and engaged, so that they would not be disappointed, and also so that they were able to distinguish the periods in school of participation and those of standard education, and could adjust their behaviour accordingly.

How children were involved

Rather than setting up a 'club', as initially proposed by project sta , during the training it was decided that rst we should learn from children about the local circumstances and see what they wanted to do. Children's involvement was intended to be them passing on information, knowledge and views, and making decisions on what, if anything, they wanted to do. This was a new approach for children, and for project sta .

The initial aims of the work with children were:

a) to engage them in a di erent, participative way (di erent to the way with which children and most project sta were familiar)

b) to learn from them about the use of the water supply

c) to identify ways of maintaining equipment and supply without breakdown

wanted to spread the group to whole school. Younger children were invited to join and the group was expanded to include all grades/ classes.

How the research helped us

initiatives. The Bal Sabha informs the design, planning, monitoring and evaluation of Butter ies programmes. Once a month, representatives from each contact point come together for the Bal Sabha. The children elect a chair person and the meeting is presided over by him/her. Each member is encouraged to share any agenda issues, and each of the outlined points is discussed to identify ways to solve their concerns and to take forward action and advocacy initiatives on issues a ecting them[10] .

Each year Human Rights Day (10th December) is strategically used by street and working children to increase awareness and advocacy on child right issues a ecting them. In the months leading up to Human Rights Day in 2000, a strategy to take 'Children's Rights: Awareness Raising and Action Activities' to the streets was organised by Butter ies to engage street and working children in a range of creative participatory activities to explore their perspectives on children's rights, whilst also increasing their knowledge of their legal rights. Building upon the principle of children's participation the strategy also aimed to support children's ideas for collective action to enhance their rights.

A series of children's rights activities, to engage children aged 5-15 years, was designed to incorporate into the non-formal education programme and to reach out to a maximum number of street and working children attending Butter ies contact points. In order to engage with children e ectively, the strategy built upon a series of core activities to be carried out at each contact point over a period of a month. Activities using visual representation, narrative, performance and games were e ectively used that were less reliant on literacy skills. These 'core activities' were designed to engage children of di erent ages promptly, in fun, interactive short sessions thus responding to the needs of street and working children to work in a exible but consistent manner. Younger children aged 5-8 years old actively participated in the core activities, often alongside their elder siblings or friends.

The core activities were divided into four sessions, to be run at each contact point (where possible on the same day) for four consecutive weeks:

Session One 'Core Activities':

- 'Body Rights' – a body mapping activity drawing around a child to provide a body to explore children's ideas about what rights they have.
- 'Fishing for Rights' - an activity in which children catch sh which give them pictorial information about children's rights. Girls and boys share their experiences about how and whether they experience such rights.

Session Two 'Core Activities':

'Puppet Show' - using puppets to raise awareness about children's rights legislation and national legislation concerning child labour and juvenile justice.

'Role-Play of Violations' - opportunities for children to role-play situations where their rights have been violated and to explore which legislations are relevant.

Street working children

Session Three 'Core Activities':

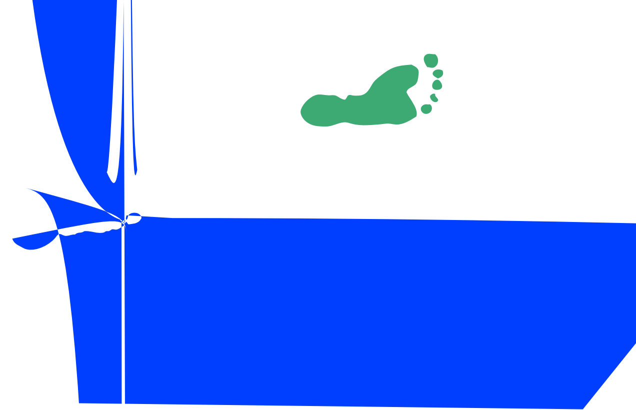
'Ranking of Rights' - an activity to explore children's perspectives on the rights violations they most need to be addressed.

'How to Get Body Rights' - follows on from 'body rights' providing an opportunity to explore children's views of what they can practically do to increase realisation of their rights.

[8] Locally employed adults with a commitment to social justice and participatory work with children.

[9] A 'contact point' is used to refer to an area where there are a concentration of street and working children where the street educators regularly meet the children. 'Contact points' include the bus terminal, railway station, market places and parks.

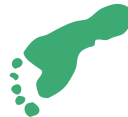
[10] See O'Kane, C. (2003) "Street and Working Children's Participation in Programming for their Rights: Con icts Arising from Diverse Perspectives and Directions for Convergence." Children, Youth and Environments 13(1), Spring 2003.



Replication:

Based on the success of the child-friendly participatory activities in enabling girls and boys to learn about, explore and action plan on child rights issues a ecting them, a Child Rights Kit was developed for wider dissemination and capacity building among a number of NGOs working with street and working children in di erent parts of India.

O'Kane, C. and Sen, I. (2001) 'In Search of Fair Play: Street and Working Children Speak about Their Rights'. Butter ies and Mosaic, India.



CHILDREN'S CITIZENSHIP AND EUROPE: LEARNING FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF MARGINALISED CHILDREN

Cath Larkins

Purpose

working with young children, as written accounts of what they had said would have taken longer for them to review.

Fluid Consent

Verbal and written information was given to children and then to parents. The language of this written information was age-appropriate and there were a lot of pictures. Researchers and workers met with children and parents to make sure they understood. Parents were able to refuse their child the opportunity to participate, but only children could opt in. Children signed their consent at the rst session. To ensure children could opt out

At the fourth or fth session I invited group members to take part in map making to help me further in my research aims looking at the EU. About half of them

How the research helped us to understand children and their agency

These research activities provided an understanding of how children are active in creating their own citizenship. They described how in their everyday lives they make their own rights and the rights of others a reality, they make social contributions and they challenge norms and accepted standards around the rights, responsibilities and status (Larkins 2013). These research projects also gave a perspective on the relevance of the EU, showing that these children did not limit rights to European children. The EU may have a role in enabling some rights to be realised (Larkins 2011).

The reports and videos the groups created have been used, with varying success, to lobby and bring about change, as shown below

Table 1 – Lobbying action taken and achieved by groups

Group	Examples of Action Taken	Initial Action Achieved
Gypsy Travellers	Report was presented to an MEP	An Assembly member visited the school and committed himself to making traveller site improvements.
Young Carers	Report used to lobby for a homework pass scheme in schools	Three schools have signed up to homework pass scheme.
	Video presented to International Conference	
Minority Ethnic Group	Report presented to club management committee	Workers have been trained in children's rights.
Looked After Group	Report and video presented to sta team	Sta team supported children with more fun group activities.

The refugee group did not wish to use their report for action purposes but asked me to lobby for them. Due to sta ng levels and group turnover, the disabled children were not supported to take action.

Replication/ linking to other processes

The Gypsy/Traveller group continued to meet with me, as funding became available from other sources. They started their own research on identity and some of the outputs from this can be seen on www.travellingahead.org.uk

This game comprised of 10 copies of each of the cards shown in the table below, four characters taken from a Scooby-Doo board game, dice and the board that is to be found in the pocket in the rear cover of this thesis.

References

Larkins, C. (2013) 'Enacting children's citizenship: developing understandings of how children enact themselves as citizens through actions and acts of citizenship', Childhood published on line March 14, 2013

Larkins, C. (2011) 'Can the EU live up to the expectations of its child citizens?' International Journal of Children's Rights Special Issue: Children and the European Union, Vol. 19 pp.451-476

The citizenship board game

LINKING TO THE RESEARCHER TOOLKIT

This **'Researcher Resource and Case Studies in Learning from Practice'** has offered a rationale and framework for engaging young children in research. It was designed to serve as the conceptual base for the more directly practical **Researcher Toolkit**. The **Toolkit** provides a set of tools or methods that can be selected from and modified to provide innovative and interesting ways of engaging young children in research. We hope that the reader will use the **Researcher Resource** as a guide to build their research projects rather than simply taking methods from the toolkit out of context. It is important for a researcher to design research that responds to the particular children and questions that they are working with and to be flexible in different contexts. Methods are recognised in this resource as just one step in engaging young children in research.