

RoSaCe

Road Safety Cities in Europe



Methodological Guidelines

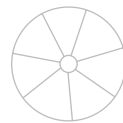
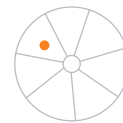


RoSaCe

Road Safety Cities in Europe

Methodological Guidelines

Towards a Street Safety Education Model



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Directorate-General
for Energy
and Transport



www.rosace-europe.net

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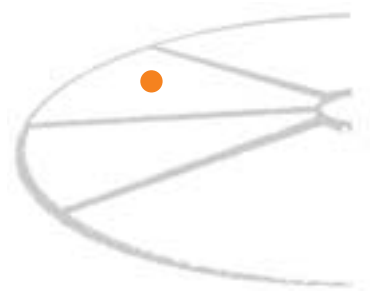
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We specially thank the children and young people for sharing their images, drawings, inspiring thoughts and actions with us.



Foreword



WHAT IS THIS GUIDE ABOUT?

This methodological guide has been produced as a further extension of the RoSaCe methodological framework. It includes new insights and concrete examples taken from the experimental implementation of the project during 2007 and 2008.

RoSaCe is a European experimental project, based on the assumption that, in order to be sustainable, road safety education should contribute to a better understanding of the concept of safety and positively influence quality of life at school and in the surrounding area. In the project, children share their views on safety in their lives, at school and in their local environment. They are the main agents in this innovative and participatory educational process. Teachers, parents and community networks are the children's fundamental allies.

The aim of the methodological guide is to describe and discuss the main concepts, ideas and values underpinning the RoSaCe approach and to provide practical support, guidance and inspiration to the teachers, local coordinators, and all other participants seeking to implement the methodology. Specific case descriptions of our work in Athens, Madrid, Rome, Tarragona, Vilnius and Warsaw will illustrate and provide inspiration for future implementation of the approach.

The underlying idea of the guide is to ensure a common conceptual and value basis for the RoSaCe approach which is both coherent, based on sound theoretical and empirical developments in the field of safety promotion and road safety education, and sufficiently flexible to allow for contextual interpretation based on a variety of cultural traditions.

It is our hope that people working in areas that affect the lives and safety of children and young people (for example, road safety and education professionals, city planners and developers, decision-makers, etc.) will be inspired by the concepts, stories and values discussed in this guide, and that they will be able to use it in their work with children and young people.

The main characteristics of the RoSaCe methodological framework presented in this guide are as follows:

- It is a FRAMEWORK, the aim of which is to suggest new ideas and participatory means of working with the issues of safety and road safety education.
- Our wish is to encourage teachers, project coordinators and other actors to explore, test and modify these ideas in their specific contexts, cultures and environments.

This guide includes theoretical explanations, children and young people's ideas, and case descriptions from practice, organised according to the following topics:

Why RoSaCe? The concept of street safety education	Children's action competence and the IVAC approach	Participation of children and young people	Phases and activity descriptions	Case descriptions of participating cities	How to assess the work of RoSaCe
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Throughout the guide, we include quotations and drawings by children and young people of different ages and from different countries. These represent a diverse range of ideas about a variety of related topics including safety, road safety and barriers to feeling safe. There are no interpretations or scientific analyses of children's accounts in this guide, and we did not attempt to provide a representative illustration of children's views. Rather, our aim was to position children's and young people's voices as central to the project, and to invite the RoSaCe actors and education professionals and decision-makers to do the same when they work with children.

At the end of the guide, a reference list is provided for those who would like to read more.

The guide is supplemented with activity examples and other practical resources, including the *Implementation Toolkit* and the *Handbook* at www.rosace-europe.net.

Introduction



CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING SAFETY

Street safety education and quality of life

There is evidence that childhood has changed over the past 50 years from being child-centred to specially controlled and structured by adults (Postman, 1994; Francis, in preparation). This change has led to children spending less time outdoors on streets, in parks and natural areas and favouring indoor, domestic, institutionalised and virtual environments.

In most developed cities, children are, in effect, less present on the urban scene. Their use of public space is often restricted, usually under the watchful eye of adults, caretakers and various authorities. While there are some good reasons for this, such as concerns about *safety and security*, the cost to both children and urban life is significant. As researchers have pointed out, cultural, economic and technological factors have contributed to a failure to take into account the needs and rights¹ of children to inhabit freely, and enjoy, our cities (Alexander, 1993; Hart, 1997).

A primary factor in these *child excluding* conditions with respect to enjoying city life was, and still is, of course, traffic and street safety. In fact, in most European countries, the number of vehicles on the roads has more than tripled in the past 30 years, while birth rates have generally declined. In the EU, road accidents are the leading cause of death and serious injury among children between the ages of 5 and 14 years and young people between the ages of 15 and 29 years. A total of 6,500 deaths per year are reported among children between the ages of 0 and 14 years in the WHO European region. Almost two-thirds of the accidents involve children travelling on foot or by bicycle. It has been calculated that 15 children in Europe die every day in traffic accidents. Given these statistics, parents and local authorities certainly have reason to be concerned about their children's safety on the streets.

¹ RoSaCe builds upon these learned observations that have been reinforced by the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), which officially declares many of the cited needs as fundamental *rights*. The rights to play, to acquire and maintain physical health and wellbeing, and to participate actively in community. RoSaCe focuses on *these rights*, that promote children to independently explore and make use of the outdoor environment and public space.

In some EU states, on the other hand, these numbers are decreasing. In Germany, for example, traffic deaths for the 0- to 15-year age group dropped from 418 in 1995 to 111 in 2007. This is certainly good news, but we must be careful to ensure that this decrease is not the result of strategies that reflect the concerns of the Reclaim the Streets South London Committee (1998): “*Instead of removing the danger from our children, we remove our children from the danger by keeping them at home*”. We must bear in mind and distinguish two main long-term goals regarding children: the goal of protecting the child from harm and the goal of promoting the child’s physical and socio-psychological development.

It is well known that playing outdoors and independent mobility have a positive effect on children’s physical and mental health. In the *Dutch Handbook Design for Children*, the negative consequences of diminished independent outdoor activities are firmly stated as follows:

“ The increasing lack of independent mobility among children may have a number of negative consequences for children themselves, as well as for local authorities. Children may be adversely affected in their socio-emotional development in general and experience developmental retardation in their spatial and locomotive skills. The ability of children to be able to move around safely and independently and play safely outside is crucial to both the social fabric of an area and the interests of the municipal authorities. A traffic-safe environment in which children can play and good quality well-planned public spaces are therefore essential.”

Hart, 1997.



The dilemma is therefore that of reducing accidents while avoiding the immense costs to children (and society) that result from their being denied free movement in their everyday local environments. Road safety education in general seeks to teach children and drivers the necessary skills to ensure that they are more attentive and, consequently, safer in environments and social contexts which, in most cases, remain dangerous or unsafe. From our point of view, we need to review the issues at hand and redesign our educational responses.

We suggest starting from a school-community exploration of the multiple meanings of safety in order to come up with shared actions, not only to increase safety (and reduce danger) but also to facilitate children’s use of street space and improve the quality of life of local environments.

THE CONCEPT OF SAFETY

From road safety to street safety education

Safety could initially be defined as: “freedom from whatever exposes one to danger or from liability to cause danger or harm; safeness; hence, the quality of making safe or secure, or of giving confidence, justifying trust, insuring against harm or loss, etc”. Safety therefore concerns environmental conditions, social relations, norms and rules, as well as perceptions. From this perspective, we need to understand how people perceive and interpret risk (danger) and also understand what feeling good, safe and secure means in order to facilitate the construction of safe and suitable behaviours, relationships and places.

We know from our experience as educators and parents that children place importance on feeling safe and secure. At the same time, children often want and need, from a developmental point of view, to experience situations that include degrees of risk and uncertainty in order to develop skills and competence. Children and young people’s sense of safety (and danger) influences their behaviour, including the activities in which they take part and the places where they spend their time. Their parents and guardians’ attitudes and sense

The concept of safety	
ROAD Safety Education	STREET Safety Education
Defensive / Reactive	Proactive
Top Down	Participatory
Primarily passive learning; at most simulations of real life situations	Active learning in real community context
Normative	Culture and place sensitive
Focus on roads primarily as corridors for automotive traffic	Focus on streets primarily as places for social interaction and development
Remove or avoid risk	Understand and manage risks
Prevent accidents and reduce accidents rate	Improve quality of life and guarantee development and wellbeing of children; Increase number of children on streets
Impact individual behaviour	Develop social responsibility
Information based: develop cognition of rules and strategies	Process based: develop action competency and ownership
School and pupil centred: constrained by time and curriculum	School – Community collaboration: transversal, multiple actors, beyond school time

of safety are also influencing factors. These can have an effect on their wellbeing, including their links to the community and view of the future.

Children's feelings of safety can be influenced by their own personal experiences, what they see happening to others, what they hear from others (such as parents and friends), and what they see and hear in the media. The quality of places also contributes greatly to feeling safe and being safe.

Bearing the previous considerations in mind, the concept of road safety (and educational processes aimed at improving it) needs to be revisited from several new perspectives. Firstly, a distinction in terminology must be made between roads and streets. *The Manual for Streets* of the UK Department of Transport has set this out clearly and succinctly:

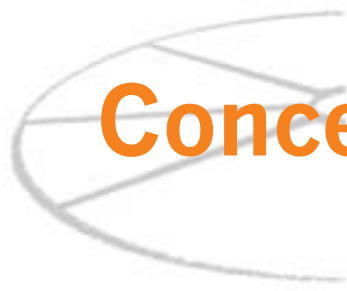
- **Roads** are essentially highways whose main function is that of accommodating the movement of motor traffic.
- **Streets** are typically lined with buildings and public spaces and, while movement is still a key function, there are several other functions, the most important of which is the place function.

This distinction clearly includes the importance of quality of life, in general terms, in any consideration of road or traffic safety. On streets, the right (and needs) of children and the community to an improved quality of life are more clearly understood and asserted. Traffic safety and safety in general are important components of quality of life, but not the only ones. When considering streets, traffic and traffic safety are often substituted in community discussions with the concept of mobility, which gives walking and cycling the same (or more) importance as vehicle movement.

Starting from this street perspective and moving the focus of RoSaCe education towards street education, our assertion is that road safety cannot be artificially separated from safety if the messages and scope of the educational actions are to remain unhampered. Since schools in general are not very interested in standard road safety issues, RoSaCe will use safety as its entry point in the context of a challenging, participatory educational process.

The central idea of RoSaCe is that children and schools need to think about the concept of safety in all of its dimensions (behaviour and skills, rules and norms, infrastructure and environmental characteristics, caring and community relations, etc.) at different levels (personal, school, street, neighbourhood), take action and thereby gain ownership. Put simply, children will be the protagonists of a process in which they will explore multiple meanings and determinants of safety in phases (from self to schools to street) and, accompanied by supportive adults, identify and initiate actions to improve safety and quality of life for themselves and their local community.





Conceptual framework

PARTICIPATION: WHY IS IT IMPORTANT?

Pupil participation is a fundamental part of safety education. In this section, the concept of participation will be discussed and explored from different perspectives.

At least three different reasons are often given for involving pupils in school projects and education in the areas of health, safety and the environment.

- The reason most commonly put forward is linked to the effects of certain safety and health promotion activities: if pupils are not drawn actively into the processes, there will be little chance of them developing a sense of ownership and, if pupils do not develop ownership, there is very little likelihood that the activities will lead to sustainable changes in their practice, behaviour or action.
- The second justification deals with the democratic nature of participatory educational approaches. For instance, if the overall aim of the school is to prepare pupils for active participation and to become democratic citizens, then the activities at the school should build on democratic premises. Participatory methods in schools facilitate the development of democratic and participatory skills and attitudes. This policy context also implies that more moralistic activities, aiming to impose predetermined behaviour on pupils, could face significant difficulties in a democratic school.
- Ethical considerations concerning the obligation to involve participants in decisions about issues

(such as safety) that are centrally related to their own lives should be added to the above-mentioned rationales. Such considerations, which are related to issues of liberal education faced by schools, are also prominent within many organisations, in which the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of the Child are often emphasised.

The term “participation” is associated with a number of related terms, such as “taking part”, “involvement”, “consultation” and “empowerment”, and these different terms are often used in confusing ways. In the school context, participation is often used to refer to children and young people simply being involved in predetermined activities without taking into consideration their real influence on these activities.

On other occasions, participation implies sharing power in making decisions relating to school matters, as well as the learners’ influence on both the content and the processes of learning. It reflects a sense of self-determination, self-regulation, ownership and empowerment in relation to safety matters. This is the approach that has been adopted in this material.

Furthermore, we suggest that all children, from an early age, be entitled to and capable of exercising their right to participate in decisions that affect their safety and their lives, even though the degree and form of participation may differ according to the age and changing capacities, interests and skills of the children.



Participation is one of the key values of the safety education approach emphasised in the material. More specifically, it represents the ideal of genuine, as opposed to tokenistic, participation of children and young people (Simovska, 2005). Genuine involvement implies that young people are encouraged, guided and supported by adults to have a real (as opposed to token) influence on the project content and process. Genuine participation is considered to be a prerequisite for the development of action competence and an outcome of that process.

The expected outcomes of genuine participation are open and divergent, depending on the ideas, needs, interests and priorities of children and young people, as well as on what the environment affords. This contrasts with the behavioural change outcomes characteristic of token participation, where children are expected to accept pre-existing lifestyles that correlate with facts describing what is healthy and what is not (Simovska, Carlsson and Albeck, 2006).

Through authentic participation, children and young people are encouraged and enabled to assume responsibility for their safety and lives, deal with complexities of change and participate competently in social networks.

Genuine participation does not mean reducing the responsibilities of the teachers and other adults working with children and young people. On the contrary, their responsibilities may even increase. The teachers, RoSaCe coordinators and all other

adults involved in the project should be in a position to fulfil the role of a dialogue partner or consultant for children and young people. Based on their own personal and professional experience and expertise, they should be able to perceive the issues relating to childhood obesity from an interdisciplinary and action-orientated viewpoint. Furthermore, they should engage in dialogue concerning safety seen in a broader perspective with children and young people, and also feed adequate knowledge and information into the RoSaCe process. This leads on to the next paragraph.

Participation: key questions

What do involvement and participation actually mean, and what is the relationship between the pupils and the teacher when participatory approaches are used in practice?

Unfortunately, pupil participation is often equated with pupil determination; that is, the idea that the pupils should formulate their visions more or less on their own, work out a plan of action and set about changing the world or influencing their own lives. This approach is seldom useful, let alone effective (Jensen and Simovska, 2005).

Instead, many experiences with the involvement of pupils indicate that it is necessary for the teacher to involve him or herself in the process and dialogue as a responsible, though respectful, partner. When trying to develop their visions and ideas for actions, pupils need a sparring partner who can challenge, support and stimulate them, and with whom they can test out their own views.

The environmental psychologist Roger A. Hart argues that a number of activities often designated as “pupil involvement” have nothing to do with involvement:

“Regrettably, while children’s and youths’ participation does occur in different degrees around the world, it is often exploitative or frivolous.”

Hart, 1992.

Hart developed a model, the ladder of participation, which contains eight steps, each step representing increasing degrees of pupil participation and different forms of cooperation with adults (Figure 1). Hart calls the three lowest steps on the ladder “non-participation”, and emphasises that many projects claiming to involve children could be characterised as non-participation, rather than belonging to the higher steps on the ladder, or what he calls “real participation”.

Figure 2 represents a simplification, as well as a further development, of Hart’s ladder (Jensen and Simovska, 2005). The aim of the matrix is to capture, in a simple way, how different participation is viewed and used by teachers in their work with pupils. Taken together, the five rows represent different forms, or categories, of pupil co-determination or involvement.

Although the boundaries between the categories are fluid, they represent different ideal types. The first category (non-participation) has been included here to make it quite clear that, in some cases, for one reason or another, participation is not possible.

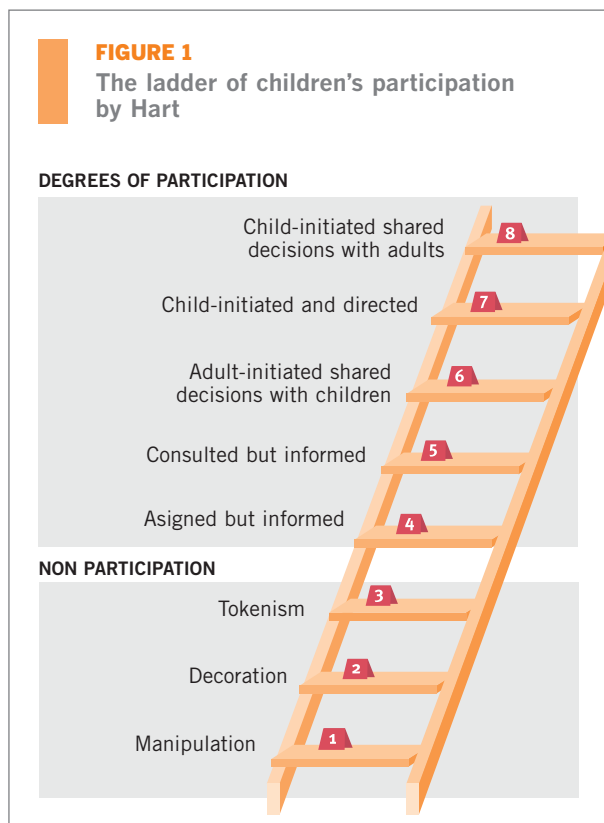


FIGURE 2
Putting the concept of participation into operation

	Involvement in the project	S Selecting the theme	I Investigation	V Vision/Goals	A&C Actions and Changes	E Evaluation/Reflection
4. Pupils suggest, common dialogue, common decisions with teachers and adults						
3. Pupils suggest, pupil dialogue, pupils’ independent decisions						
2. Teacher suggests, common dialogue, common decisions						
1. Given decisions (by teachers, legislation, etc.), no dialogue, pupils assigned tasks						



The second refers to a situation in which the teacher puts forward a proposal that pupils can take or leave. One may, of course, quite reasonably ask whether this has anything to do with involvement.

The next three categories are distinguished from one other by a combination of who offers an idea for discussion and who actually takes the final decision about what to do.

In the school context, this matrix nevertheless stresses how necessary it is for the teacher to appear as a responsible adult with his/her own opinions when involved in projects built around pupil participation. The more the pupils themselves are involved, the more important, presumably, it will be for the teacher to be visible and to play an active role in the discussions with his/her opinions, knowledge and insights.

The matrix further develops the ladder metaphor used by Hart. Instead of ranking the different forms of participation as steps, the matrix reflects the assumption that participation in safety promotion and road safety education is context-bound. And the context may consist of a number of factors, such as the nature of the project, the personality of the teacher, and how prepared the pupils or the other stakeholders involved are.

This means that the environment in which participation takes place must be taken into account when planning and carrying out projects.

Furthermore, the categories have been crossed with a number of questions appearing along the horizontal axis. These illustrate different questions or areas of decision, which are often included in a school health project. The number and type of themes presented will naturally vary from project to project, and it is therefore important to note that, in any given project, there will be different types of participation in relation to different areas of decision.

In other words, the aim is not to establish an ideal model for safety education according to which involvement has to be applied in specific ways. On the contrary, it is important to insist that the partners working together spend some time discussing how to proceed when they plan and carry out safety education. Figure 2 offers a basis for such discussions.

ACTION IN STREET SAFETY EDUCATION

This section deals with the dimensions of activity and actions associated with education in the fields of environment, safety, health, climate change, etc. One of the overall objectives of education in these fields is to build up pupils' ability to act, or their action competence. It is therefore natural to consider how actions and working with them can become part of teaching and education in schools.

The fundamental perception is that present day environmental, safety and health problems are struc-

turally anchored in society and our way of living. For this reason, it is necessary to find a solution to these problems through changes at both the societal and individual level.

Therefore the aim of education must be to make future citizens capable of acting on a societal as well as a personal level.

The point of departure is that a solution to these problems is not only a question of quantitative changes (less consumption, less transport by car, less electricity consumption, etc.), but also (and maybe more so) about qualitative changes (a different kind of mobility, transport, consumption, new alternative energy sources).

Therefore, the aim of education is to make pupils capable of developing alternative ways of development and to be able to act according to these objectives.

This section describes how the perspectives of activities and actions should be included in education. The goal is to present, exemplify and specify which conceptual framework should be used in the continued discussion of pupils' own actions in future environmental, safety and health education.

Two main concerns

First, scientific dominance, where the particular focus has been on giving pupils knowledge about the seriousness and extent of current problems, has been incapable of taking in the social and societal perspectives involved in questions about action possibilities for society and the individual as regards these problems.

Second, an awareness that moralising, behaviour modifying teaching never (or very rarely) leads to the intended behavioural changes has placed new focus on action in teaching.

In the following, a definition of the action concept is given. A particular point is made of distinguishing action from behavioural change and activity respectively.

Action versus behavioural change

In many contexts, there is a tendency to equate actions with behavioural changes. It is often admitted that knowledge does not necessarily lead to action (read: changed pre-described behaviour), and that other means must therefore be used.

Consequently, in many countries at the moment, huge efforts are made to concentrate on research and the development of other and more efficient strategies to influence pupils' behaviour. The preparation of smart fashionable advertisements about correct behaviour and using the teacher more consciously as a role model can be cited as examples of this.

All these attempts are characterised by the fact that efforts are made to influence the pupils directly (outside the knowledge component) and, thus, pupils not necessarily make up their own minds and decide on the intended behavioural change.

However, this is exactly where there is an important difference between behavioural change and action, and also between the two fundamentally different goals for environmental, health and safety education: behaviour modification and action competence (Jensen, 2002). Before an action, there will always be a conscious decision, while this is not necessarily the case with a behavioural change.

The behavioural change could be caused by pressure from another person (e.g. the teacher or peers) or by other circumstances.

The first element in the definition of action is a decision to do something, whether this is a change in behaviour or an attempt to influence conditions at school, in the family or in the community.

Action versus activity

There is another tendency in environmental, health and safety education, often as a reaction to the rather academic content, to incorporate different practical activities in the teaching. This is frequently described as action-oriented. These activities can consist of excursions to more or less untouched nat-

ural areas, physical, chemical and biological investigations of a polluted lake, and so on.

These various activities are obviously valuable and productive to the extent that they encourage motivation and the acquisition of knowledge; however, in order to be characterised as actions, they need to address possible solutions to the problem being dealt with.

If, for example, work were done on problems related to road safety, investigating traffic intensity would be characterised as an activity rather than an action. An example of involving the action perspective in this area would be working on how public transport could be improved, how new cycle paths could be constructed or how the costs of a train ticket could be reduced in order to solve the problems of air pollution in our inner cities.

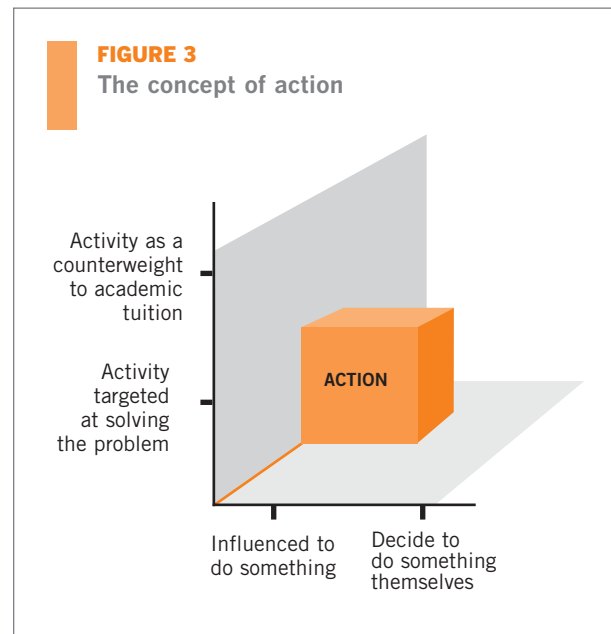
An action must be targeted towards solutions to the problem being dealt with. This is the second element in the definition of action.

The above-mentioned criteria for actions can be summarised in the Figure 3 (Jensen and Schnack, 1997), which comprises four sections. The vertical dimension concerns the boundary between behaviour and action and, thus, the question of whether pupils themselves decide to do something. The horizontal dimension concerns the difference between activity and action and thus focuses on whether or not what is done addresses the solution to the actual problem.

It is necessary to further differentiate between and define the terms of action and activity, especially when it comes to meeting the demands for defining the concept of action when this should include a problem-solving aspect.

Investigative actions

For example, if pupils decide of their own accord to examine the safety of cycling to and from school, we



can ask ourselves whether this can be regarded as an action. In fact, the immediate answer to this question would be “yes”, as both demands for an action have been met: the pupils have made their own decision to carry out the research and they are geared towards solving the problems relating to learning more about the safety issues in question.

It can be illustrated by way of an example from the area of environmental education. Pupils from a Danish school decided to compare conventionally grown vegetables with organically produced ones in terms of nitrate levels. However, the analyses showed no immediate difference, which resulted in the pupils arguing that organically produced vegetables ought to be bought because of their environmentally-friendly production methods, as conventional production pollutes surface water and ground water with pesticides and nitrates. In other words, this action led to the formulation of a clear problem and, consequently, to a clearer argument in favour of organic farming.

Another example can be seen through a project in which pupils worked on the building plans for the bridge between Zealand and Funen. A group of

pupils decided to look into adults' and pupils' opinions about the service and used interviews and questionnaires in their study. The research later resulted in a letter being sent to the minister of transport and the environment minister.

It is therefore relevant to distinguish between actual environmental actions and those we refer to as investigative actions. If there were a decision to examine the safety and conditions of bike lanes around the school, this would be deemed scientific investigative action, whilst interviewing different people at the school or in the community about their opinions of the conditions of the bike lanes would be characterised as social investigative action.

If the pupils, on the basis of their investigations, were to write a letter to the municipality or approach the head teacher at the school to suggest improving the conditions of the bike lanes, this would be described as a safety action.

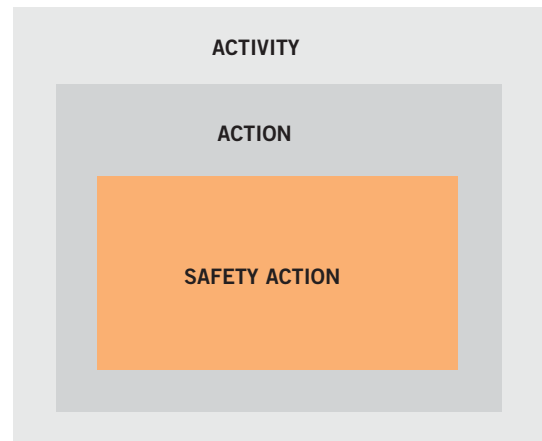
Safety actions

Safety actions aim to solve problems related to safety or improve safety conditions in the school or the local community. The Figure 4 explains the relationship between the three concepts of "activity", "action" and "safety action" (adopted and revised from Jensen & Nielsen, 2002). The most superior concept is "activity", as an activity is simply defined as "doing something". Some of these activities will also be deemed actions when pupils have an influence on what is to be done and why it should be done. "Action" is a more exclusive concept than "activity", in that all actions will also automatically be activities, whilst the reverse is not always the case.

Furthermore, the concept of "safety action" is more exclusive than that of "action", as safety actions aim not only to solve general problems, but also to solve problems related to safety.

The spotted "action" field in the figure can again be grouped into different categories of actions, which can be distinguished from each other depending on

FIGURE 4
The relationship between activities, actions and safety actions



the problem that has to be solved. The orange shaded field represents those actions that help to solve safety problems: "safety actions".

Based on these concepts, action-oriented safety education should be defined as education that implies that working with pupils' actions is an essential and integrated element. Pupils' efforts to improve safety in the classroom, school and area surrounding the school then form an integrated part of the teaching and learning processes.

Finally, it should be pointed out that such education will undoubtedly contain activities that are not actions, as well as actions that are not exactly environmental actions.

Investigative actions

Investigative actions can be scientific or societal in nature. One example of the former is the aforementioned example of pupils exploring the safety and conditions of bike lanes around the school.

An investigative action would be societal if pupils were to decide to interview people from the local

PUPIL'S OPINIONS

Besides RoSaCe, other activity-oriented environmental education project, pupils were asked for their opinions about all the activities. There is no doubt that all of the pupils appreciated the activity-oriented teaching and thought that the environmental education project was more interesting than the conventional subject-based teaching (Jensen & Nielsen 1994 p.84):

“It was exciting to be out of school and talk to people. We worked in a summer residential area on how residents get rid of their waste water and other things. Many people didn't know anything about it.” (Pupil, 8th grade)

“The best part was the subject-based introduction from the teacher; afterwards we went in a fieldtrip to a modern farmstead. At last we visited Copenhagen and had discussion with people from the council of agriculture, politicians hearing our opinions. We heard about the problem concerned from all sides, we had a subject-based discussion to put on the different viewpoints.” (Pupil, 12th grade)

The positive assessments from the pupils were also due to the fact that the activities represented a welcoming break from textbook-based teaching. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that the pupils also felt that these activities were important for them in terms of learning something new (Jensen & Nielsen 1994)

“It is easier to take in when you have seen it in practice.” (Pupil, 11th grade)

The requirement was to conclude the projects with some kind of end product. Most of the products were something to be presented to other people, for example, pupils in other classes, parents, or people in the local community. It became clear that public communication of the results had a huge influence on the motivation and responsibility of the pupils.

One class (8th grade) came up with a waste event. The pupils involved their families and counted and sorted all of their private household waste over a week. The calculated amount of waste from all of the households was used to gather a corresponding waste heap in the school playground in front of the rest of the school. Both the event and the preparation implied that the project had become a joint project early on, which influenced the whole project in a positive manner.

Another class (11th grade) made a folder (a sort of green tourism guide) for a local field study centre. The pupils said in an interview afterwards that it had been very important for them to know that the folders would be used by other people.

It was obvious that the pupils, for different reasons, appreciated working with activities as an important element of their education. The examples from the RoSaCe project presented later in this book confirm these experiences.

area about their views on safety in the community, or to talk to politicians about their plans to improve safety for young people in the community.

Another example of social science investigation is that of the aforementioned bridge project. One group carried out telephone interviews to ask people living in the vicinity of one of the previously built bridges in the southern part of Zealand about the consequences of the construction of the bridge some years after the event.

One might argue that interviews can be of an environmental action nature. For example, when pupils decide to find out about politicians' attitudes and plans in relation to the safety problems in the community with the help of questionnaires and interviews, there is little doubt that these activities may influence the politicians.

Therefore, these social investigative actions can, to a certain extent, be characterised as environmental actions. The dividing line is unclear. The same cannot be said of scientific research actions, which could never be characterised as environmental actions.

We can conclude that activities of this kind engage pupils and keep them interested in delving deeper into the actual safety problem.



Safety action categories

Four different target areas can be identified when looking at pupil safety actions:

- Directed towards your own behaviour
- Directed towards conditions at school
- Directed towards conditions at home
- Directed towards conditions in the local community or society as a whole

Careful cycling, crossing streets safely and increased tolerance of other people are examples of the first category. Trying to improve the social climate in school to reduce bullying is an example of the second category. Approaching politicians to raise funds to expand and improve existing bike lanes is an example of the third category.

Direct or indirect safety actions?

This part will deal with the target *direction* of safety actions. Safety actions can be grouped into two main categories: actions, which directly contribute to solving the safety problem being dealt with, and actions whose purpose is to influence others to do something to contribute to solving the problem in question (indirect safety actions).

Indirect actions will, in other words, refer to dealing with people-to-people relations, while direct actions refer to relations between people and their environment or their behaviour.

An example of a direct action would be if pupils in a class decided to establish social rules to minimise the risk of conflicts and violence.

Politicians' actions can be seen as a result of the indirect actions of public groups, such as letters of protest, demonstrations, lobbying, voting, etc. Also, indirect safety actions by the public could be influenced by other indirect actions, such as debates on safety arranged by a school class working on safety problems in the community. In other words, indirect actions lead to direct actions and a direct action will typically be caused by a web of indirect safety actions.

In conclusion, direct and indirect actions improve pupils' commitment and ability to take action in the field of safety. Moreover, actions as part of school teaching and education will also facilitate safety improvements at school and in the community. Read more about the concept of action competence on below.

ACTION COMPETENCE

The starting point

Action competence is a key concept in safety education. The starting point for this section is the assertion that the overall purpose of safety education is to educate pupils to be active, democratic citizens who are able to take action collectively and individually for a safer life.

Instead of moralising and passing on pre-determined values and ideas about safety and the environment, the school should work on the pupils' ability to act, building up their action competence.

This teaching differs fundamentally from the more traditional behaviour-oriented education, which has different content and a completely different objective, namely that of changing the pupils' individual

behaviour in a pre-determined manner. This behaviour-oriented way of teaching has proved to be ineffective, because it rarely leads to the desired behavioural changes. Therefore, an alternative framework is needed, and the action competence approach represents one of these.

So the point of departure for this section is that current safety problems are rooted in our daily lives and the social structure. If these problems are to be solved in the long term, teaching is needed that contributes to the development of pupils' abilities to influence their own lives and the society in which they will grow up.

Two trends in modern society

This educational challenge faces two different trends in modern society, one of which is that our current concerns about health, safety, environmental and climate problems have never been greater, despite the fact that we know more today about these problems and their magnitude than ever before. Various opinion polls indicate that safety and climate change issues cause the most concern among the population. They also indicate that, the younger the person asked, the more this concern increases.

The other trend constitutes an increasing paralysis among a population confronted with the development of technology and society. This paralysis can be seen in a large number of introverted, narcissistic activities in society. It is necessary to avoid passing this paralysis on to the next generation.

The most important task for modern and adequate safety education is in the area of tension between these two trends. In other words, the challenge lies in starting with the views and anxieties of pupils in order to work systematically on transforming their powerlessness into a desire and ability to act. If the actions that are set up deal only with the individual level (such as teaching the correct behaviour to adopt in the traffic), there is a risk of teaching pupils only about the individualistic approach to safety problems and their causes.



Action competence as a key concept

The action competence approach has been developed within the European Network of Health Promoting Schools (ENHPS), particularly through the work of the Danish Network of Health Promoting Schools and collaboration with other networks within the ENHPS, such as the Macedonian Health Promoting Schools Network. It has also been used in a wider international context, for instance, in connection with the web-based project entitled *Young Minds – exploring links between youth, culture and health* (See Jensen, 2000; Simovska and Jensen, 2003; Jensen et al., 2005; Jensen and Simovska, 2005).

The ability to act (action competence) in the field of safety is made up of number of factors that are different in principle:

Insight and knowledge: pupils need a broad, positive, coherent and action-oriented understanding of safety. This component involves pupils acquiring coherent knowledge of the problem of concern to them, knowledge about the nature and scope of the problem, how it arose, who it affects, and the range of possibilities that exist in order to solve it.

Commitment: pupils need the motivation to become involved in change in relation to their own lives and in creating a dynamic society. It is important to build up this component if the knowledge acquired is to be transformed into actions. Commitment is often developed within a social context, so group work is an essential part of the learning environment when developing environmental citizenship among young people.

Vision: pupils need the ability to go beyond the environmental issues and think creatively. This involves developing visions of how their own lives might be, and how society and the environment could be improved in relation to the particular problem of concern. This component deals with the development of pupils' ideas, dreams and their perceptions about their future lives and the society in which they will be growing up.

Experience from taking action: pupils need real-life experiences, participating individually or collective-

ly in facilitating changes, and considering how barriers can be overcome. This component stresses the benefit of taking concrete action during the learning process.

Social skills: a number of basic social skills can be added to the list of components of action competence. These include self esteem, the ability to cooperate, self-awareness and self-confidence. Critical thinking or critical decision-making has been suggested as an independent component.

From action paralysis to action competence, two landscapes of safety knowledge

Working with pupils as active partners in action-oriented safety education does not make content in relation to safety issues superfluous. Instead, it has to be re-thought from an action perspective. Such an alternative should be built on a qualified professional foundation as the participatory paradigm makes extra demands on teachers. Danish psychologist Steen Larsen argues in favour of:

“...the professional experienced teacher, being in natural control of the substance. And what does that mean? That means that the content substance is controlled at a level such that it becomes an integral part of the teacher's personality, so he does not need to use attention and resources on the professional side but can concentrate all his energy on choreographing the educational process.”

Larsen, 1998.

We are naturally left with the question of what such substance should contain. In the following, we will argue in favour of action-oriented substance, which involves an interdisciplinary connection between safety, people, culture and society.

Having argued that the main goal of safety education should be the development of pupils' ability to act and change, it might be concluded that knowledge and insight should, in essence, be action-oriented.

This point of departure has great consequences for the kind of knowledge that will be the focus of planning, implementing and evaluating the teaching and learning.

Four different aspects of action-oriented knowledge can be illustrated in Figure 5 (Jensen 2000, Jensen 2002). The four dimensions show different perspectives on the types of knowledge through which a given environmental, safety or health topic can be viewed and analysed.

1st dimension: What kind of problem is it?

Knowledge about effects

The first dimension deals with knowledge about the existence and spread of safety problems. This type of knowledge can, for example, be about the consequences of a given behaviour (such as not taking care when crossing a road, or the frequency of accidents in the traffic, the consequences of bad road conditions or the lack of lightened streets in city areas. This knowledge is important, as it is the kind that awakens our concern and attention, and creates the starting point for a willing to act.

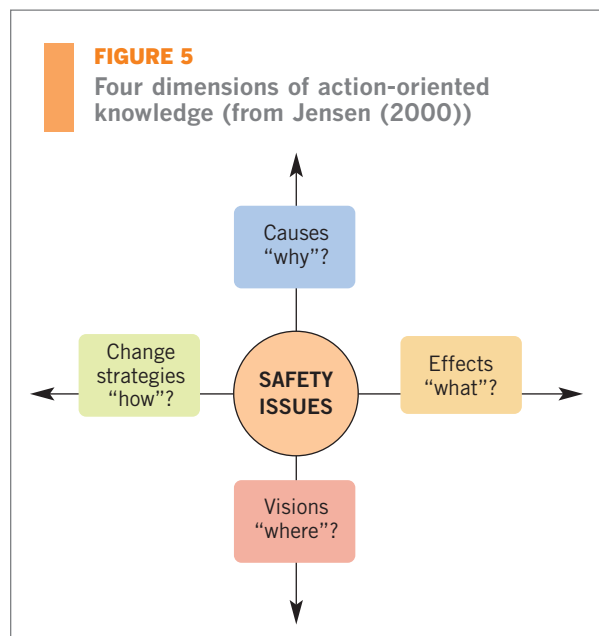
2nd dimension: Why do we have the problems we have? Knowledge about root causes

The next aspect deals with the 'cause' dimension of our safety problems. Such causes include among other issues the associated social factors behind our behaviour, and might include questions such as the following. Why are so many people using their private cars instead of public transport or instead of cycling? And why is bullying more frequent in some classes or in some schools than in others. This knowledge belongs mainly in the sociological, cultural and economic areas.

3rd dimension: How do we change things?

Knowledge about change strategies

This dimension deals with both knowledge about how to control one's own life and how to contribute to changing living conditions in society or in the school. How do we change surrounding structures, for example in a school or a local community? Who do we turn to, and who could we ally ourselves with? This type of knowledge also includes knowing



how to encourage co-operation, how to analyse power relations, and so on. It is often to be found within psychological, political and sociological studies, and is central to an action oriented safety education.

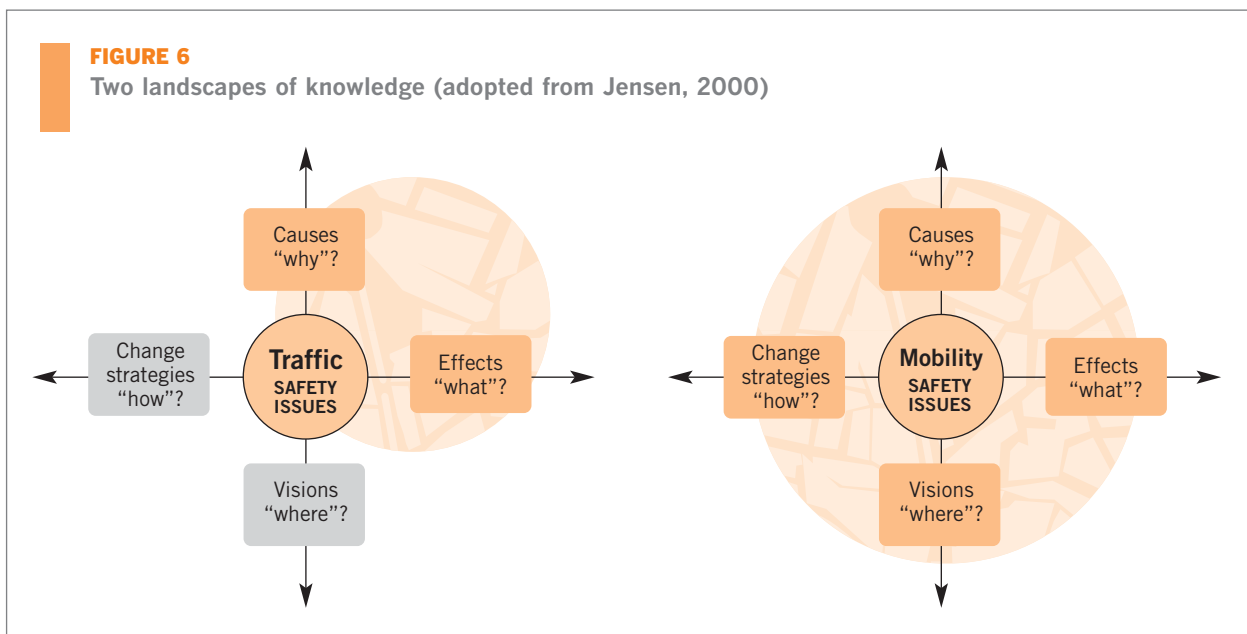
4th dimension: Where do we want to go?

Knowledge about alternatives and visions

The fourth dimension deals with the necessity of developing one's own visions. Seeing real possibilities for forming and developing one's dreams and ideas for the future in relation to one's own life, family and society, and having the support and surplus energy to realise them, is an important pre requisite to the motivation and ability to act and change. This dimension includes knowing about how people go about things in other cultures and other places, both near and far, as knowledge about other possibilities can be strong sources of inspiration for developing one's own visions.

The left part of Figure 5 illustrates the landscape of knowledge within which traditional safety information exists. In contrast, the right part of the figure indicates the landscape of knowledge that an action oriented safety education should develop.

FIGURE 6
Two landscapes of knowledge (adopted from Jensen, 2000)



If we relate Figure 6 to the distinction between traffic and mobility, we can identify traffic as a single cause-and-effect situation, in that traffic is about getting from *causes to effects* as quickly as possible. Pedestrians, children or others should be reduced as much as possible. This can be illustrated on the left-hand side of Figure 6. If we talk about mobility, we can identify a number of actors, including pedestrians, cyclists, children, adults and others who use the space along with cars, motorcycles and other vehicles. Mobility includes a more holistic view and is more multi-oriented, involving questions such as “why”, “how”, “what” and “where”, which can be seen on the right-hand side of the figure.

As previously mentioned, it is necessary to insist on including causal analyses and ways of producing change in safety education. This is particularly important at a time when increasing globalisation and individualisation is leading to habitual ways of thinking and action paralysis. As Danish psychologist Carsten René Joergensen stated, it seems as if:

“...we have lost our eye for noticing that certain problems arise and appear more frequently and how this can be related to cultur-

al and societal factors and that the solution of such factors should therefore be found in taking a starting point in how we live our lives and organise our society, which could be potentially different. The point is of course not that it should be simple and straightforward to agree on carrying out greater societal change, but that we think and behave as if we live in the only possible world and that this can hardly be different, which is clearly wrong.”

Joergensen, 1999.

As such, knowledge-based aspects should be thoroughly thought through in the light of an action and change perspective. Participatory and action-oriented safety education is not without basic knowledge and insight; on the contrary, it calls for the development of a new landscape of extensive and coherent knowledge and insight. This creates important demands and challenges for future teachers, who should be in a position to fulfil the role of consultant and, furthermore, from their own experience and talent, be able to perceive current safety conditions from an inter-subject and action-oriented point of view.

Furthermore, pupils' own influence on the whole process is conducive to maintaining and improving commitment and ownership. This is further strengthened by the fact that pupils themselves choose existing safety problems to work on, and find it important to do something about these. The point is that this dialectic process, in which action competence is built up between the person and the surrounding world, is at its best when the person is actively involved in authentic problem-solving situations.

The principles of pupil participation and authenticity in environmental education therefore appear to be important prerequisites in connection with the development of pupils' action competence. These principles have a number of implications for the role of schools in the local community, and this will be dealt with in a separate chapter.

THE IVAC APPROACH

The important question arises, of course, about how teachers and pupils actually engage with problems in ways that can develop pupils' action competence in relation to safety. Based on experiences from a number of projects, certain groups of questions can be drawn up. The IVAC approach considers a number of perspectives with which a project within the safety area should deal.

The Investigation-Vision-Action-Change (IVAC) model provides a framework for the development of strategies that ensure that the insights and knowledge that pupils acquire during the project are action-oriented and interdisciplinary and, therefore, support the development of action competence (Jensen, 1997; 2004).

The IVAC approach considers various perspectives. These are suggested as a starting point for planning and implementing the action and participation aspects of safety education. It is important to note that the questions in each phase can be modified, and new questions can be included as they are suggested by pupils, teachers, or other participants in each particular context.



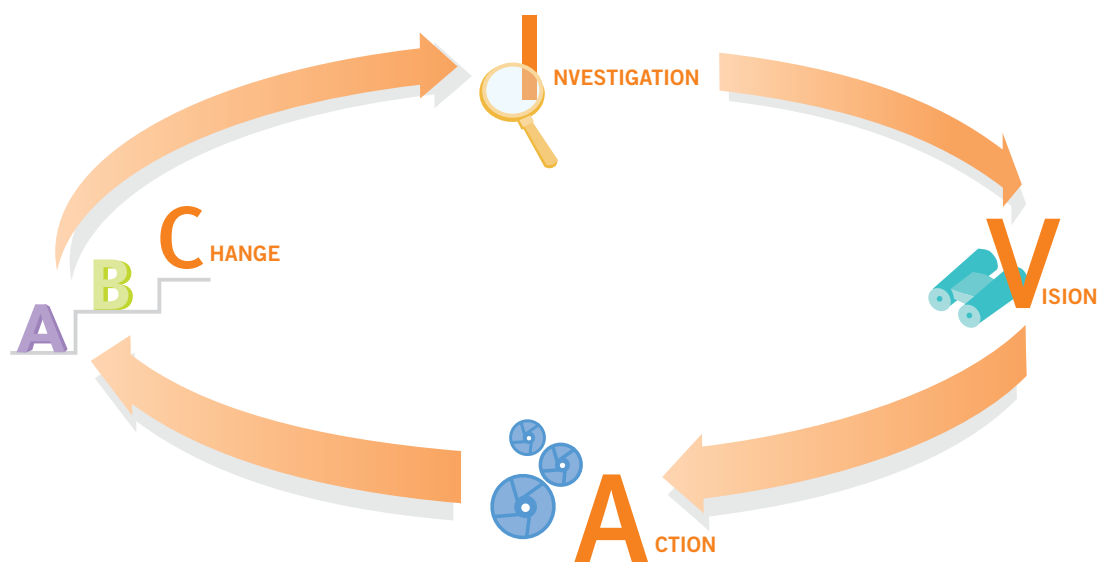
The first box in the model deals with reaching a common view of the actual problem being dealt with. Also, pupils have to be actively involved in choosing the subject and coming up with an answer to why this subject is important to them.

They must also work with the historical dimension. To be able to evaluate how current conditions or a given development are influenced, it is important to understand which conditions have contributed (over time) to developing these conditions. In brief: an alteration perspective makes it necessary to look at the conditions from a development perspective.

Also, a social science perspective is important in order to clarify the causes behind the problem. Even if the problem manifests itself in the classroom or the school (in relation to the social climate among pupils) the underlying causes will often turn out to be outside these parameters. Societal observation methods, through which safety problems are shown in the economic, cultural and social structures in which they develop, are important here.

The second box deals with developing visions on how the conditions with which one works and would like to change could look in the future. This point

The IVAC Approach (Investigation, Vision, Action & Change)



<p>A</p> <p>INVESTIGATION OF A THEME</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why is this important to us? • Its significance to us/others. Now/in the future. • What influence do lifestyle and living conditions have? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What influence are we exposed to and why? • How were things before and why have they changed?
<p>B</p> <p>DEVELOPMENT OF VISIONS</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What alternatives can be envisaged? • What are the conditions in other countries and cultures? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What alternatives do we prefer and why?
<p>C</p> <p>ACTION AND CHANGE</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What changes will bring us closer to the visions? • Changes within ourselves, in the classroom, in society. • What action possibilities exist for carrying out the changes? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What barriers might prevent these actions from being carried out? • What barriers might prevent actions from resulting in change? • What actions will we initiate? • How will we choose to evaluate these actions?

concerns pupils developing ideas, perceptions and visions about safety for their future and the society in which they will be growing up. For instance, do they want to improve the school compound or do they want to work on improving the conditions for cycling to school?

According to the third box, it is also important that imagination be allowed to foster a wealth of possible actions in connection with reaching some of the visions that have been drawn up. Pupils will be able to carry out some actions on their own, while others call for close collaboration with key people in the lo-

cal community. It is of great importance that all proposals be discussed. The different actions are discussed in relation to their effect and the barriers that might arise and, finally, one or more actions are selected for implementation.

Instead of looking at the boxes and the questions as goals to be worked on in a set order, the process can be described as circular, as one keeps going back to points in order to further elaborate on them.

These perspectives do not imply that the teacher's tasks decrease or become less exciting, or that the teacher's role should be less important. The challenge is to find a balance where pupils are involved as active partners and are taken seriously, while the teacher has an important role to play as a partner in the dialogue and process. Without qualified counterparts, pupils will not be able to develop their own attitudes and understanding and, consequently, their action competence.

Critical reflection or an evaluation will often follow the IVAC process, aimed at assessing the achievements, analysing the reasons for the failures and learning from experience. It is important to note that, even if pupils do not manage to bring about the desired changes, the evaluation phase can show that the project was successful; that is, that the pupils learnt a lot and gained valuable experience.

Implementation: a flexible framework

In practice, pupils never follow the stages outlined in the IVAC model: starting with selection and investigation, moving on to visions and ending with action and evaluating the change. The reality is much more complex and pupils might, for instance, start with a concrete action trying to influence the school setting and then, after a while, realise that they have not decided on a clear target for their actions. Consequently, they might need to go back and discuss and clarify their visions before redeveloping their action strategy, identifying new partners, etc.

Rather than seeing the three phases as taking place in a definitive successive order, the elements in the IVAC approach should be viewed and used as components within a fluid and flexible framework, which the teacher and other adults working with children can use when planning, carrying out and evaluating the RoSaCe activities.

The IVAC approach does not automatically lead to the development of action-oriented knowledge or action competence; nevertheless, it is a good starting point and a valuable practical tool for teachers and other adults. Below are a few ideas on how the IVAC approach can be used at different levels in street safety education.

At the school level, teachers should guide pupils through these phases to select, explore and work with the different aspects of road safety, traffic and mobility. All the phases are equally important. It is the responsibility of the teacher to provide a fine balance between sensitive encouragement when needed and room for children's creative imagination and their influence on the process and content.

It is very important that the pupils' visions are taken into account when planning action, so that the actions serve as a bridge between their dreams and reality, and as an attempt to bring the reality closer to the ideals. Also, the pupils' ideas about which actions are to be taken should play a central role in action planning. The actions should be relatively realistic or achievable.



AN EXAMPLE FROM PRACTICE

In this project, students at Vejstrup School (located in a small town in Jutland, Denmark) in grades 1-6 (5- to 11-year-olds) worked one full day on developing their ideas in response to the question “What makes me feel good?” The project was related to safety issues as they had been complaining about conflicts and bullying at school and in the local community. At the end of the day, the different classes presented their ideas in the form of posters. Students from grades 2 and 3 decided with their teachers to continue their work the following week. During that week they worked on the more focused question “What could make me feel better at school?”

In their work, they used the IVAC approach, which entailed addressing the following:

- Investigating what “feeling good” means to them;
- Developing their own visions about how they would like the school to change;
- Initiating concrete actions in order to facilitate the necessary health and safety-promoting changes.

The students discussed a number of ideas to improve their school and, after two days of presenting and discussing their ideas, they finally reached an agreement. They would work on obtaining more home economics at school and more physical exercise and movement lessons. They then went through a “who has the power” exercise, first inviting the head teacher to the class to clarify how they might work out a strategy to reach their goals. The head teacher explained that the person in charge of the lessons in schools was the municipal director of the school department. He also presented diagrams to illustrate the structure of municipal organisation and the distribution of power.



The head teacher also tried to convince the students to include cooking and working with food in their normal Danish language lessons. The students did not agree with that and, after the meeting, they decided to approach the municipal director of the school department. They prepared an interview and one of the main questions they planned to ask him was: “If we want extra lessons in home economics and physical exercise, how would you advise us to proceed?” They interviewed him and received a number of ideas about what they might do to reach their vision.

After the interview, they worked hard with their teacher to draw up an application to the municipality. Finally, their application was sent in and, after some weeks, they received an answer from the municipality saying that they had been allocated resources for two additional home economics lessons per week during the first semester and two physical exercise lessons during the second semester.

The following year, the teachers decided to carry out a project using the same basic approach. This time, the students, now 9 and 10 years old, worked on the question “What will make our community better?” Again, the IVAC approach was used as a guiding framework.

Students developed the vision that they wanted their community to be livelier and provide more leisure activities. During the investigation phase, for instance, they found out that, in the past, a circus had visited the town at least once a year. Furthermore, they discovered that there had been many small shops and various social activities taking place some years ago. These seemed to have disappeared.

Their teachers introduced them to the ideas of networks and social capital (although in other terms), which were discussed from many different angles and perspectives. Finally, they agreed to try to establish a number of actions with the aim of improving the wealth of activities and liveliness in the local community. One idea was to get the circus back in town. Another was to establish a playground area to be used by children and young people in the community. A third was to plan a charity run for all citizens in the area aiming, among other things, to raise money for their planned activities.

The students soon realised that they needed to address the local politicians if they wanted to get their ideas through. They contacted other adults as well as representatives from different athletics associations to present their ideas. Jointly, the adults and children announced a public meeting in the community at which the students themselves introduced their ideas. Some of the politicians who attended the meeting tried to convince the students that the playground should be located in a remote area in the outskirts of the community, as the site was unsuitable for other uses. But the students convincingly argued their case at the meeting and were backed up by their parents and other adults.

In the end, the council agreed to establish a 500 square metre playground in a central location. Furthermore, funds were set aside so that a circus could perform in the local community on Constitution Day the following year. The data for the evaluation were obtained using a number of different methods: observation, interviews with teachers, interviews with students, analysis of documents (meeting announcements, posters, radio recordings of students being interviewed about the project, etc.).

It is obvious that the project could be evaluated according to two different sets of criteria of success. First, one might look at the changes the children's project facilitated. Second, and perhaps more importantly, the development of pupils' empowerment and action competence was considered to be an important outcome. It was clear that the project actually did make a difference in the school as well as in the local community. In the school setting, pupils succeeded in getting the lessons they had asked for. In the local community, pupils were actually able to bring about changes that improved the social capital of all citizens.

Regarding the pupils' empowerment and action competence, they expressed a strong commitment to their future roles in further influencing and developing the community. Their teachers were subsequently interviewed about the project in a radio broadcast. One of the teachers said:

"It has surprised us as teachers that the pupils were so clear about what they wanted to get out of the projects. When we prepared the project, we did discuss what to do if we ended up with 26 pupils who didn't say anything and didn't have any ideas. But we were impressed by their ideas and their commitment and with the fact that they were able to present such qualified arguments." (Lund, 2000).

One of the interesting findings was that the so-called "marginalised" or "weak" pupils also derived great benefit from participating in the projects. This is perhaps due to the fact that, for once, they had a genuine opportunity to influence the agenda (the topics to work with, the actions to carry out, etc.). As one of the teachers said:

"Even those pupils who are usually hesitant about participating in class have been very good at arguing their views and ideas. At the same time, they have gained more respect from the other pupils in the class during the project." (Lund, 2000).

FACILITATING TEAM WORK

As in any project in which children's participation is intended to affect environmental and social conditions² in schools and neighbourhoods, a knowledgeable and guided process of **school community dialogue and collaboration** is essential and strategic. This component reinforces the effectiveness and the sustainability of children's action competence and, more importantly, of the change strategies children and their allies propose.

In order to achieve this objective, the teachers involved have been supported by the RoSaCe Local Coordinator (LC), whose SCDC task is to motivate and manage communication and collaboration between all of the community actors identified in the process. In particular, the LC has acted, early on, to create a collaborative **Project Team** and, over time, laid the foundations for a community-wide **RoSaCe Local Promoting Group (LPG)**. The presence of one or more Local Authority agencies in this group has been fundamental.

The School **Project Team** has made things easier or more feasible for the project as a whole and in particular for the school-based activities: for the children and youth-led investigations, visions, actions and (real) changes. The project team has assisted in developing communication with families and community and in reporting to and collaborating with the LPG.

The **RoSaCe LPG** is key to the SCDC strategy and should, as its name implies, assist in the promotion of the RoSaCe street safety education activities and actions. This means that the members of the LPG have developed and implemented operational, promotional and communicative strategies over the course of the project, with the objective of reinforcing the *messages and instructions coming from the children* (proposals, calls for dialogue and assistance, etc.), enlarging the field of project allies and

² In the case of RoSaCe, these refer to factors or determinants that influence safety in schools, streets and neighbourhoods and quality of life in general.



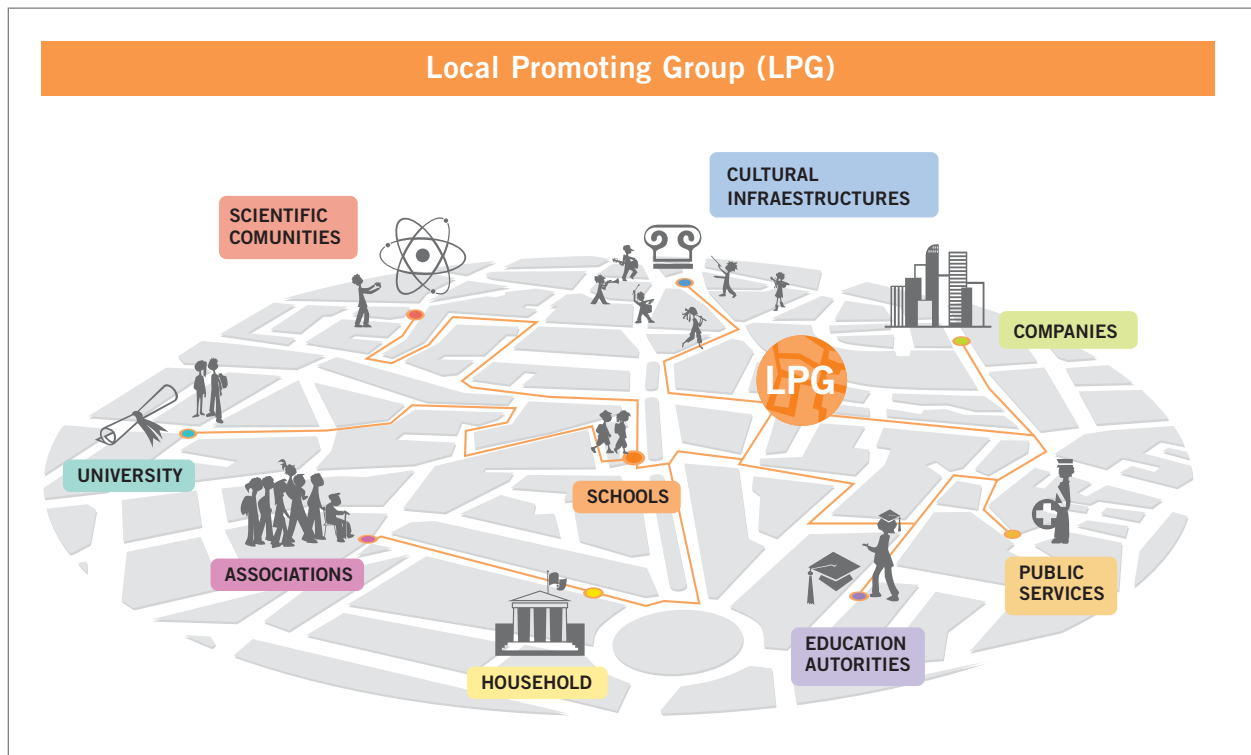
helping with the implementation and sustainability of the children's actions.

In synthesis, the LPG has:

- Provided political or strategic support for the project at the local level, to facilitate organisational issues regarding the project and assisted the development and maintenance of the school project developments and results;
- Created a strategy from the outset of the project to help the LC ensuring that results and exciting developments from the RoSaCe project were communicated effectively to the community (including citizens, parents, politicians, etc.) and created a sustainable network of community resources in support of the children's actions and proposals;
- Provided support to the RoSaCe processes and activities going on in and with schools (whole schools and/or selected classes) in which young people are actively involved.

For example:

- Making it easy for young people and schools to acquire **access** to useful information, instruments and tools;



- Facilitating children's access to **places** they wish to visit in the community and providing examples of good practice in other areas;
- Facilitating children's access to **stakeholders** or resources that they may have identified in general terms (e.g., "We need a traffic expert", "Who is responsible for safety at school?" etc.);
- Assisting and participating (when deemed necessary and where there is consensual agreement) in public **events** held by schools/children (e.g., opening meetings or consultation with families; interim round table discussions or exhibitions of project materials, etc.);
- Assisting and facilitating the communication of the children's findings to the local community (if this is part of **their** programme): mass media, public debates, consultation, exhibitions or other kind of events.



Working with RoSaCe

PHASES AND ACTIVITY DESCRIPTIONS

The aim of this catalogue of ideas is to inspire teachers to plan their own RoSaCe project with their pupils. The activities highlight different aspects of the RoSaCe project, reflecting what the teachers participating in the pilot project found suitable for their educational purpose. Teachers will easily be able to identify links between the following activities and the academic curriculum; imagination and creativity will undoubtedly assist them in their task.

“ RoSaCe reflects my attitude to learning. I have not found it difficult to combine RoSaCe with the curriculum, as there is always a way of combining a project with the curriculum. It is all about time and imagination. I have found that teachers' attitudes are important to the success of a project. In my school, I have involved most teachers in RoSaCe so that they incorporate elements of RoSaCe in their specific subjects. RoSaCe is taught as a joint project involving various teachers.”

Teacher, Madrid

This teacher underlines one of the core elements in RoSaCe. The project is a toolbox of possibilities offered to teachers. Their choices, imagination, drive and decisions make RoSaCe an important learning process for pupils. RoSaCe provides teachers with a framework, which they can fill out and adapt based on their knowledge of their school, pupils and the specific settings in which they work.

RoSaCe is not a project with a specific set of activities that teachers have to carry out in a fixed manner. RoSaCe offers a framework consisting of a certain educational methodology (participation and action) and a specific topic (safety). Nevertheless, RoSaCe builds on teachers' creativity and their capacity to fill out this framework with new activities depending on specific curriculum needs and specific situations in each city.

“ RoSaCe has been interesting because we have been able to work with the disciplines in the curriculum. It has also allowed us to carry out **interdisciplinary work** across the different disciplines.”

Teacher, Rome

Field visits to the first six RoSaCe cities have shown that the participatory feature of RoSaCe enables pupils to engage in **critical thinking** and discussions about issues concerning social structures.

“ Through RoSaCe, the pupils have learned to observe in a critical manner and have linked their observations to the issue of responsibility by asking the following question: Who is responsible for this safety situation?”

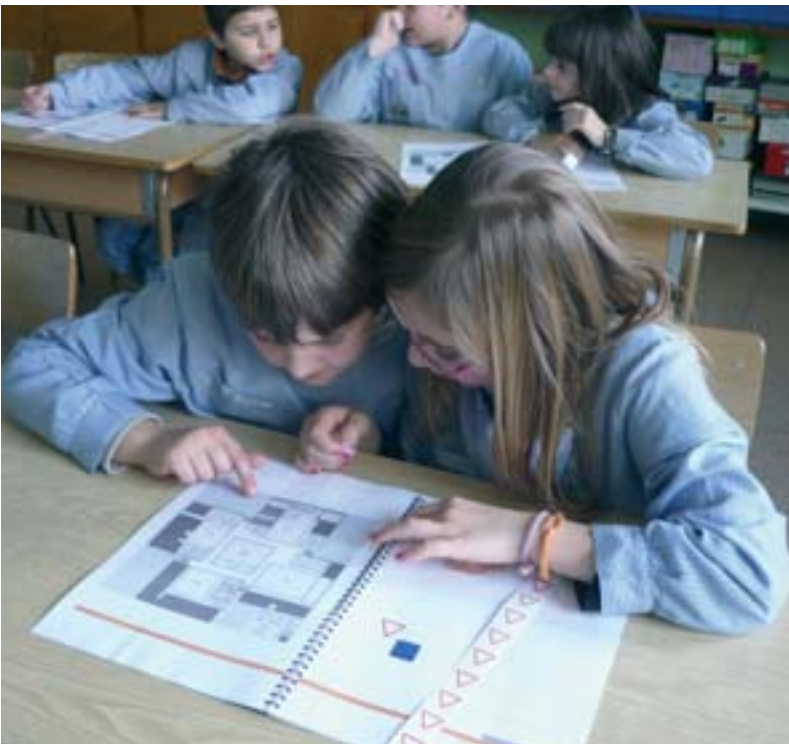
Coordinator, Athens

In schools in Rome, the RoSaCe project has resulted in newfound confidence between teachers and pupils. The concept of safety in the classroom and discussions about what safety is paved the way for accounts of personal problems relating to the pupils' family situations.

Below is a set of activities that were carried out as part of RoSaCe at European schools. The aim of the activities is to make children realise that, if they act together, they are more likely to bring about change.

“ The pupils were easily able to find a solution together for some of the smaller problems concerning safety that they identified at school. By thinking and discussing together, they found out that they could come up with a solution by themselves.”

Teacher, Rome



A critical way of thinking is necessary if pupils are to act to bring about change. One of the aims of RoSaCe is to enable pupils to see that they can act to bring about change in their daily lives. This awareness and understanding of being capable of acting is a major component of quality of life for children.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

Start with where pupils are

Involve children and young people early on in the planning of RoSaCe activities. Start by brainstorming with children about their opinions, views, ideas and understanding of the concepts of feeling good or feeling safe.

Possible questions include the following: What do the terms “safety”, “risk”, and “quality of life” mean to them? What does being safe at school mean to them? What are the characteristics of places (schools and home initially) where they feel safe? Where can they move around freely and safely? What are the barriers to moving around safely at school? What about in the street? Then follow the investigation-vision-action-change scheme to plan and carry out further project work.

Focus dialogue with pupils on action and change

Dialogue with pupils should involve reflections about action to bring about positive changes with regard to certain aspects of being safe and ensuring wellbeing in the classroom, at school, in the local community, etc. Pupils’ ideas about which actions should be taken should play a crucial role, as should their visions concerning the future of the classroom, the school, the street outside, the community, etc

Ensure results and use barriers as a learning experience

Children and young people can become demotivated if they do not see any effects or consequences of their involvement. Make sure that you follow through their ideas and involve them in project planning. Always give young people feedback about whether and how their work will be used in the project. Cooperation between the school and local community is crucial in this respect. If there are obstacles, discuss them with the children.



Working with barriers and understanding how real life works is a valuable learning experience for children.

Use a variety of methods of expression

Use diverse modes and methods of expression: visual, verbal, play, body movement, etc. Examples include drawing and writing, discussion in small groups, community observation, taking photos, guided tours, mapping the area, dramatisations, timelines, body maps and modelling.

Everybody should be involved; different children respond to different approaches

Use primarily visual, play and body movement methods to involve younger children, and verbal and written methods with older children and young people. Consider a variety of methods to involve children of different sex, ability, age, learning style, school achievement, social skills, socio-economic and cultural background, etc.

Engage in dialogue

Starting with where children are does not mean that adults cannot honestly express their opinions and compare and challenge children's views. The adult (e.g. teacher, facilitator or parent) is a responsible partner in the educational dialogue with children and young people. The adult figure's roles are enriched, as are the specific knowledge, competence and expertise that each possesses.

ACTIVITIES

This section presents a collection of activities carried out during the one-and-a-half-year development period of the RoSaCe experimental project.

The activities are divided into the two main RoSaCe phases: Safe Schools and Safe Streets. Each section begins with a general description of the activities that can take place within the two phases.

These activities are also described in the *RoSaCe Implementation Handbook* (available at <http://www.rosace-europe.net/>).

Following the general descriptions, specific examples are provided of how teachers developed activities within the scope of RoSaCe.

PHASE 1: SAFE SCHOOLS

Reflection and discussion

- Discussions of the photo on the front page of the RoSaCe Implementation Handbook
- What is in the photo?
- How do the pupils like the photo?
- Is the situation in the photo safe/unsafe? How/why?
- Would the pupils like to be able to play like that in their neighbourhood?
- What is possible?
- What actions are needed to change the situation?

Opening activity

A picture is worth a thousand words

This powerful cover photograph is a good representation of the central idea, framework and objectives of RoSaCe. The photo vividly captures a safe street. The children are in the middle of the street, yet they appear to *feel safe*.

It was taken in a particular moment in the past (1950), in a particular place (Brooklyn), by a very particular person (Arthur Leipzig). Yet, if we use our imagination, it could very well be *anywhere* and *any time*.



© ARTHUR LEIPZIG

ACTIVITY

It could be our city; it could be today. Look closely at it. What do you see? Who is in the picture and who is missing? Does it seem like a safe place to you? Why? Why not? We think that there is a lot happening outside the picture that contributes to children's safety and makes it possible for them to play in this way.

What factors and actors have made it possible for the children to live and happily play alongside the cars without any concern?

Brainstorming exercise: what does safety (or feeling safe) mean to me?

Brainstorming can be an effective way of generating lots of ideas on a specific issue and then determining which idea or ideas are relevant to our objectives. Brainstorming should be performed in a relaxed environment. If children feel free to relax and joke around, they will stretch their minds further and therefore produce more creative ideas.

A brainstorming session requires a facilitator (teacher and/or Local Coordinator, in our case), a brainstorming space and something on which to write down ideas, such as a white-board or a flip chart. The facilitator's responsibilities include leading the session, encouraging participation and writing ideas down.

Definition of the problem or issue: What does safety mean to me? Write out the problem clearly and

make sure that everyone understands it and agrees with how it is worded. Once the brainstorming starts, the children offer their personal meanings and interpretations while the facilitator writes them down. The most meaningful definitions are selected and agreed upon.

In **Rome**, pupils worked in pairs to identify what safety means. They produced sentences with messages such as "Safety means being sure of your own abilities", "I feel safe with my family" or "I like my school". The pupils drew a picture to accompany the messages. All of the drawings/messages were compiled in a book entitled: *Safety knocking at your door – our investigation of safety*.

Using school maps and plans to investigate and improve school safety

When exploring the meaning of safety, children are usually drawn to focus on places. The first *place* the project intends to focus on is their **school**. It is important to provide them with methods and tools that will help them to apply their reflections about feelings, perceptions, people and social relationships onto the spatial characteristics of places, in this case the school. This can involve the use of photography and/or video; however, in this activity we refer to the use of *maps and plans*.

In **Vilnius**, a sixth-grade class invited the whole school to participate in a competition about how to make the school safer. Children from all classes submitted drawings and poems. The organisers felt a real sense of ownership and spent after-school hours choosing the winning drawings and poems. At the end, an exhibition of the work was organised.

The school plan (and, in later activities, maps of streets and the city) constitutes an ideal basis for the children to directly insert and annotate their investigations, observations and proposals concerning social support, daily activities, unsafe elements or

Children reflect on the meaning of feeling safe

At the **Sagrat Cor School** in Tarragona, Catalonia, Spain, seven- and eight-year-old pupils were asked to think about the concepts of safe streets and feeling safe. They started the activity by looking at the photograph by Arthur Leipzig.

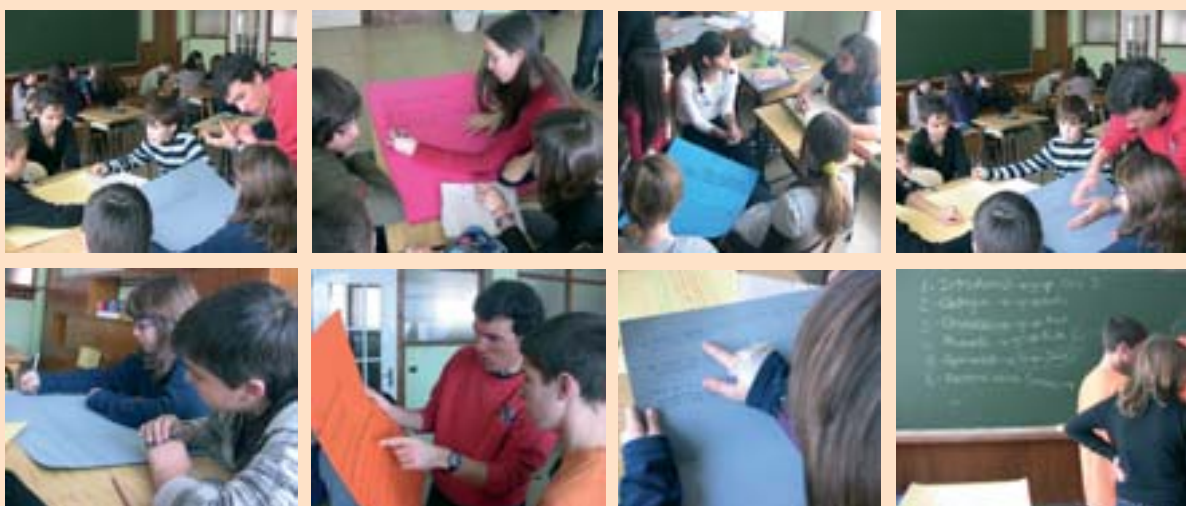
Based on the different interpretations of this photo, they identified factors that influence safety. The pupils linked safety to people who represent safety (for example: “The park is a safe place when I go there with my parents”).

“It is interesting to see how, through the photo, they were able to compare and see how the environment and safety in the streets has changed over time. They were interested in the fact that, in the past, children played in the street. They had heard their grandparents talking about this, but they had never seen it in a photo. For this reason, the photo moved them and encouraged them to take part in the activity”. Teacher.

Thirteen- and fourteen-year-old pupils at the Sagrat Cor School in Tarragona organised a two-hour field trip outside the school. The pupils were divided into groups of six, and each group had a map of the school surroundings. One of the members of the group had the map and acted as a guide; others noted down unsafe places and their characteristics, while the remaining pupils took photos in order to document the activity.

After this trip, the pupils held a brainstorming session in the classroom, in order to pool their opinions about what they had seen and prepare the proposal for the RoSaCe event. The results were drawn on a poster.

“The pupils were very engrossed in the activity, as they were the main protagonists. This way of working in the classroom was new to them and they were very receptive to it, particularly the participatory element. They felt that they were the protagonists and that they were being listened to by adults. This was the main objective of the project for them. In this case, the goal (presenting their proposals) became the most motivating part of the programme”. Teacher.



Looking for safe and unsafe places

At **Nuestra Señora de la Merced School** in Madrid (Spain), approximately 22 thirteen- and fourteen-year-olds worked in the classroom on the concepts of safe and unsafe places using maps and photos, and then went round the school identifying them. The pupils and teachers answered a survey on how they go to school. The pupils also surveyed neighbourhood organisations that they considered to be important in terms of their safety, such as the Elipa Neighbourhood Association. Finally, they presented their findings to their schoolmates.

At **Rufino Blanco Primary School** in Madrid (Spain), approximately 100 four- to seven-year-old children participated in RoSaCe. During the first session, pupils thought about the concept of safety and identified safe and unsafe places at their school. It is important to note that they did not simply describe the situation, but also accompanied this with proposals for improvement.

During subsequent sessions, pupils from both schools went outside the school and identified the routes they take to school. At Rufino Blanco School, some 88 families, together with the pupils, answered the survey on how children travel to school. The school also organised a forum, to which parents, teachers, municipal experts and other pupils from the school were invited to present their ideas and proposals.

At **Felipe Segundo Secondary School** in Madrid (Spain), pupils first used the Leipzig photo to compare the concepts of road safety at different moments in time, and then identified safe and unsafe places in their school and the surroundings. They also carried out a survey (containing ten questions) in the neighbourhood among parents, teachers and pupils from other classes.

Felipe Segundo Secondary School is a state school in an economically and socially disadvantaged area in Madrid, and its infrastructure is somewhat precarious. The work carried out on the concept of safety, compared to the current state of the building, led the pupils to reflect critically on their vulnerable situation and the condition of the buildings in the neighbourhood.

To conclude the project, the three schools organised an event to present the results of their research and their proposals for change. In addition to the debate on the issue, the teacher used the RoSaCe participatory methodology to take the pupils out of the classroom and encourage them to participate in a very sensitive area in their daily lives, in order to promote social inclusion.



behaviours, movement patterns, etc. This allows them to build a more complete account of their world than if they simply collected and expressed this information through talking or drawing.

Plans and maps are also vivid and effective communication tools and, at the same time, working with plans helps children become more familiar with the language of maps, scales and geography (which is also an objective of school programmes).

Activity tips

Identification of **safe** and **unsafe** places in school:

- Divide children into groups of four to five pupils.
- Let them walk around the school and identify places where they feel safe and unsafe.
- Back in the classroom, the groups present their findings (plans, photos, etc.).
- Together, the class chooses three to four unsafe places in the school that it wants to change.
- Together, the class discusses what kinds of action are needed in order to make sustainable changes.
- The class might talk to the school head teacher and ask him/her to comment on the changes needed.

Another version:

- Once the pupils have identified the unsafe places at school, they carry out a survey among various classes in the school.
- The aim of the survey is to let a representative number of pupils at the school help to point out which of the unsafe places at school it is more important to change.
- With the results of the survey, the pupils select the unsafe place at school to change.
- The results of the questionnaire are communicated to the rest of the school (via the intranet and website/an exhibition/the school newsletter/a specially produced newspaper).

Third-form pupils at a school in Athens interviewed the school headmaster about safety changes at their school. The pupils prepared the interview after they had completed an initial investigation into unsafe spots inside and outside the school. The teachers divided the pupils into groups to prepare ques-

tions. During the interview, all of the pupils demonstrated enthusiasm, interest and competence in handling the situation. This was the first time ever that the headmaster had been interviewed by pupils. He noted that the pupils had asked him very qualified and critical questions in a very competent way. One of the results of the interview was that he promised to ask the cleaning staff not to wash the floor while the children were at school, as this made the floors slippery and unsafe.

In **Athens**, the pupils chose the school playground as a target for improvement. First of all, they carried out observations of the school playground, writing down their comments and suggestions. After the observations, the pupils drew up a questionnaire. The aim of the questionnaire was to find out how the pupils at the school felt about safety and the school playground. The pupils discussed the results with the other pupils at the school.

Together, they agreed that they were in need of a playground that could be used as a play area, and not only for eating lunch in. They took the results of the questionnaire and their discussions to the headmaster. Finally, they produced a poster with a vision of how they wanted the school playground to be in the future. The pupils measured the playground and discussed what kinds of change were realistic and possible. They agreed on what could be built and installed in the playground immediately and several years in the future.

PHASE 2 - SAFE STREETS ACTIVITIES

What are safe streets? Are our streets safe? What do the various actors think? How can we all contribute to making our streets safer?

Activity tips: safe route to school

- Take the pupils on a walk around the neighbourhood of the school.

- Discuss observations on safe and unsafe situations and places.
- Ask the pupils to draw their route to school on a map, marking situations and places that are unsafe.
- On a big city map, ask all the pupils to mark their school route. Different risks are marked with their own colours.
- Discuss how to approach the council with the knowledge that the pupils have acquired from the work.
- Perhaps the pupils will want to ask the council to build cycle lanes and ask the school to find bicycle parking space on site.

In **Rome**, pupils discussed what they do when they move around by themselves in the neighbourhood. They discussed what their parents allow them to do. This work resulted in interviews with parents about safe streets and what their parents think safety represents for children.

Places where I feel safe³

Objectives

- Activate and focus individual and group reflection on the characteristics or qualities of places that give a feeling of safety.
- Reflect on how to apply these considerations to unsafe places selected by children for transformation.

The children are invited to individually list *places where they feel safe*. Their descriptions should be as *detailed as possible*. They should be encouraged not only to describe the spatial characteristics of the place, but also, and above all, the social aspects and relations, the *atmosphere* (how they feel, who is present, how they contribute, etc.). Depending on the project phase, these places can be domestic, at school, in the neighbourhood, etc.

³ Activity based on "Five Favorite Activities" by Randy Hester. Source: *Community Design Primer*. Ridge Times Press, Berkeley 1990.

One RoSaCe school in **Rome** produced a calendar with 12 pictures of issues in need of change. This school also worked with anxiety issues and concerns about feeling safe in a globalised world. The next step involves documenting, with photos, how to overcome feelings of lack of safety in order to increase quality of life.

When the children have had time to think and jot down notes or sketches on personal sheets or in notebooks, their individual reflections are transcribed onto centrally located large newsprint sheets. Three columns have been drawn on the sheet. Insert the places in the first column and the descriptions in the second.

The third column (determinants) is the most important, and will probably require some discussion before the children deal with it. In fact, the game involves describing in detail the physical and social characteristics (or qualities) of the settings that, according to the children, most contribute to their *feeling safe*.

In the discussion, the children can identify which places appear most frequently, where there are relationships between safety and lack of safety and types of places, and which determinants can be generalised across types of places (homes, schools, streets, neighbourhood, etc.).

This activity, of course, can also focus on *places where children feel unsafe*.

In **Madrid**, pupils in a class used Google Earth to draw their route to school. This was a participatory process involving the teacher and pupils. The teacher initially wanted the pupils to draw their school route manually on a city map.

The pupils suggested using Google Earth instead. The teacher did not know about Google Earth and was happy to learn about this new tool.

Children propose changes concerning street safety problems around their school

Children of 13 and 14 years of age at F.C.P. Sagrat Cor de Jesús School in Tarragona participated in the RoSaCe project, starting with the initial phase, during which they went out on-to the streets to identify safety obstacles and wrote reports on their observations. They then presented their results to the school parents' association and the city council.



In the Catalan city of Tarragona, four classes at F.C.P. Sagrat Cor de Jesús School, comprising a total of 117 children, were selected to participate in the experimental phase of RoSaCe. They were motivated by the objectives and put a lot of effort into the project.

“The aim of the project is to promote reflection, followed by change. The city should become a healthy space, with less noise and pollution, to encourage healthy behaviour on the part of the inhabitants. Another objective is to reduce traffic in streets and squares, and use more public transport. Like the school, the city should also become environmentally active and respect the environment”, said one of the teachers.

Creating a safe city life with safer streets also forms part of the project, as does encouraging public participation in decision-making. The class was divided into three groups, so that each group could concentrate on a specific aspect of the project. The pupils first went out onto the streets to identify safety problems in their environment, after which they wrote reports containing their conclusions and possible solutions to the problems.

“The first thing we did was fieldwork. Over a period of several days, we went outside to examine the streets and take notes and photos of the problems we detected. Afterwards, we got together to discuss all of the problems detected and group them into five categories: pavements, safety in Marquès de Montoliu, lack of visibility, deterioration of the alley next to the school, and architectural barriers. The next step was to find possible solutions for a change to benefit the community”, explained the teacher.

An example of a danger zone detected in Tarragona is Marquès de Montoliu, a large dual carriageway featuring heavy traffic moving in the direction of the Plaza Imperial Tàrraco and Avenida Catalunya. Although it is a street with speed limits and vehicles are not allowed to go faster than 30 km/h, the limit is rarely respected.

One of the main entrances to Sagrat Cor de Jesús School is approximately halfway down the avenue. Right in front of this entrance, there is a pedestrian crossing without any traffic lights to cross the four lanes of the avenue. This is a danger zone for the pupils at Sagrat Cor de Jesús School and other schools in the area, such as Santo Domingo de Guzman and Carmelitas, as well as for all pedestrians in general.



School–community consultation on safety and safe streets

In this phase, the children and teachers transfer their attention to the space and community outside the school walls. The group now brings the attention and knowledge gained concerning safety and safe schools to bear specifically on safe streets. It is important to invite people and develop activities that will help to shift attention outside the school and into the neighbourhood.

An eighth-form pupil in a class in **Warsaw** was involved in a car accident in his neighbourhood. One of his best friends was hit by a car in the accident. During the RoSaCe project, the pupil suggested making a model of the accident scene and then using the model to suggest how to reorganise the place to prevent another accident from occurring in the future. Everyone in the class was eager to make this model. It was a very innovative and practical process. The class included new electric traffic lights in the model. The class decided to take the model to the city traffic authorities and suggest the construction of a similar crossroads.

The consultation is held at the school and the materials that the children have developed in preceding phases can be exhibited to encourage discussion.

The children compile many interesting stories and suggestions. They find allies who can contribute resources, skills and energy to this project phase and change processes. Most importantly, the question of *street safety* becomes a shared community issue.

A class carried out a survey among the pupils in three classes at a school in **Warsaw**. The class asked what the pupils thought that teachers, the authorities and parents could do in order to make them feel safer. The answers were collected and discussed in class.

The results were presented for the teachers at school. The teachers realised that a lot of the suggestions from pupils could be put into practice within a short period of time and were not expensive to implement.

In **Athens**, a class learned how to ride a bicycle in the city and received a one-day course on the Highway Code. The training park included facilities for video/PowerPoint presentations and a lane for bicycles with traffic lights and other traffic devices. The purpose was to compare the ideal situation and condition with the real situation in the pupils' neighbourhood and local community.

“ This is the most exciting experience I have had in many years. I have never used this kind of activity before and I definitely want to use it in my teaching a lot more. It provides pupils with more authentic learning experiences.”

Teacher, Athens



In **Rome**, a school in a disadvantaged area of the city went on field trips around the neighbourhood in order to pinpoint the pleasant and enjoyable places in the area. The pupils took pictures of their favourite places and wrote an account about why they liked these particular places. Three schools in Rome worked on the historical development of their neighbourhoods. They used photos to document how and why the various zones/quarters differed from one another.

Investigating the streets around the school

A sixth-grade class investigated the streets around the school in Vilnius. The pupils realised that their safety was threatened by the lack of a zebra crossing by the bus stop and a crossing further down the street where the lights changed too quickly. They also observed traffic chaos in the morning when parents drove their children to school. The class produced a leaflet with suggestions for new safety rules to apply to the street in front of the school.

CLOSING REMARKS

In RoSaCe, a teacher can work on two complementary dimensions: pedagogical methodology (participation and actions) and the thematic dimension (the concept of safety).

Teachers from the experimental RoSaCe cities have pointed out that working with *participatory methods* encourages children to take part in a democratic educational process. By investigating a problem, imagining how things can be changed and taking actions, however small, to change the current situation, children learn how to become responsible citizens.

The other dimension of RoSaCe is linked to the *concept of safety*. Teachers have mentioned how children are observing their surroundings and coming up with new ideas on how to improve safety at school or in their neighbourhoods.



Children in all six of the RoSaCe participating cities clearly stated that believing in themselves and being self-confident has a lot to do with their quality of life and feeling safe.

RoSaCe has shown that, for children, the concept of safety goes far beyond traffic regulation, getting cars off the streets or safe behaviour. In the majority of the schools, discussions in class about feeling safe have highlighted the fact that children have a very well developed notion of safety as something that also has to do with an inner feeling of self-confi-



dence and getting on well with others. For children, safety also has to do with how they relate to their families, and they associate safety with quality of life, wellbeing and health.

This indicates how important it is to listen to what the pupils have to say. Children can contribute significantly with ideas and analyses of their daily lives if they are invited to do so. It also indicates that the notion of safety should be discussed in all of its complexity.

Linking RoSaCe to the curriculum

RoSaCe teachers have been skilful in linking RoSaCe to the school curriculum. Many teachers saw the project as a valid means of educating pupils within the ordinary curriculum. In mathematics classes, for instance, they made the pupils work out

questionnaire scores; in art classes, pupils worked on drawings related to RoSaCe; and in language classes, pupils wrote stories and poems.

As such, RoSaCe should not be viewed as a project that has to be carried out in addition to the curriculum. RoSaCe does not entail additional work for teachers, but offers an opportunity to develop the curriculum and daily work in class through a participatory approach. Teachers have seen that the approach and methodology can be used no matter what subject they are teaching.

This is how methodology can be embedded in the very nature of teaching. It is not limited to safety, but is very closely linked to educating children to become responsible citizens in today's complex and globalised world.



Learning from experience

HOW TO ASSESS THE WORK OF ROSACE⁴

Assessment in RoSaCe must be defined as critical reflection by the project participants, i.e. teachers, pupils and community partners, on processes and the expected outcomes of the project. The purpose of this critical reflection is to document the progress of the project at a local level in relation to the overall aims and objectives of RoSaCe.

This assessment should make it possible to learn from experience and improve the project plans and practices on an ongoing basis. It also entails documenting and evaluating the project processes as well as the achieved results.

Assessment process

Starting with the notion of self-assessment, the approach is based on the following key steps:

- **Developing** specific **aims** and success **indicators** for the project on a local level that are consistent with the overall RoSaCe philosophy, aims and expected outcomes. This development should take place at the very beginning of the project and all RoSaCe participants at the local level, including children and young people, should be involved in it.
- **Planning** reflection questions/themes (i.e. what do you want to know and why?) and methods (i.e. how are you going to get the information?).

⁴ Note: this chapter is based on the *Methodological Guidebook* of the Shape Up Project, written by Venka Simovska, Bjarne Bruun Jensen, Monica Carlsson and Christina Albeck. See more at www.shapeupeurope.net

- **Documenting** RoSaCe processes and outcomes on a local level by using methods and tools that are productive and fit for purpose.
- **Interpreting** and **assessing** documented outcomes and processes that have been agreed upon by the local RoSaCe partners on a regular basis. Different themes and project development issues may require different timing.
- **Summarising** the **lessons learnt** from the self-evaluation process for each theme and incorporating these in the planning of the next steps. Providing feedback to local participants, including children and young people. Reporting to the RoSaCe global coordinators and the global evaluation team.

RoSaCe is based on the assumption that, in order to be sustainable, street safety education should contribute to a better understanding of the concept of safety and positively influence quality of life at school and in the surrounding area.

Through the project, children share their views on safety in their lives, at school and in their local environment. They are the main agents in this educational process. Teachers, parents and community networks are the children's fundamental allies.

Furthermore, the RoSaCe conceptual framework and values are based on the following key components: participation, collaboration, teacher competence and community involvement. Consequently, self-evaluation should focus on documenting and critically reflecting on these different aspects.

The model below provides an overview of the key components of the expected RoSaCe results (i.e. outcomes) and processes (i.e. strategies to achieve such results). The specific indicators, that is, the signs that help us to monitor progress in achieving the results, are not stipulated; they have to be developed and discussed by the project participants on a local level. Indicators are concrete formulations of the aim of the critical reflection; they provide information about what to look for so that we know that we are getting closer to the expected result or have achieved the aim.

The self-evaluation table outlines different evaluation methods and tools that have proved useful in street safety education. These methods are based on dialogue, products and actions, portfolios, observations, questionnaires and statements made by a

street safety education professional or another project partner.

Interpreting and assessing the documented outcomes and processes is a core step in self-assessment. Here, the different project participants (teachers, coordinators, pupils and other project partners) compare the outcomes and processes with the indicators in the project.

On a more general level, the focus is on which goals were met and which goals were not met, as well as on what signs of success can be observed. On a more specific level, the focus is on the extent to which the demands formulated in the indicators are met.

The follow-up of self-assessment is crucial, because what is the point of evaluation if it does not lead to changes? It includes:

- Learning on the basis of self-evaluation and critical reflection;
- Providing effective feedback to pupils and all partners in the local community;
- Adjusting the plans for the further development of RoSaCe at the city level by incorporating the lessons learnt.

Important questions in this respect include:

- How will we communicate and disseminate the results of the self-assessment?
- Do we need to adjust the project methods or goals to the local conditions?
- What worked well? What did not work well? What could be done better?
- Is this possible? Or do we need to adjust the goals and the indicators?
- Do we need to use other tools in the self-assessment in order to be able to observe and document changes that are not easy to observe?

Tips and advice for effective self-assessment

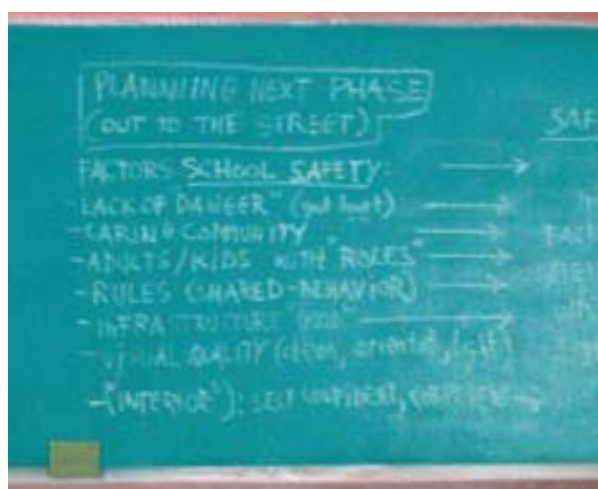
Include the development of goals and indicators in project planning from the very beginning;

- Be specific: good indicators should help you decide whether or not you are getting closer to the goal. They should be simple and manageable;

Outcomes and processes in RoSaCe	
Goals	Indicators/signs
Outcomes (i.e. what do we want to achieve?)	Are we getting closer to the goal?
Changes in street safety conditions in the school or community	
Development of young people's action competence	
Processes (i.e. how do we go about it?)	
Genuine pupil participation and ownership	
Cooperation between school and community	
International cooperation with schools and communities	
Teacher competence, e.g. to facilitate dialogue about the project	
Community involvement, key people's views on street safety and learning	

Tools and methods for RoSaCe assessment	
Evaluation tools	Descriptions
DIALOGUE-BASED EVALUATION: Question sheets, teacher and pupil notes, audio recording, e-mail/web forum communication.	Feedback in class, groups or through teacher-pupil interaction, based on reflections and documented in notes, audio recordings or web-based communication.
PRODUCT- AND ACTION-BASED EVALUATION: Products, e.g. exhibitions, folders, media presentations, actions, e.g. dissemination through folders or the media.	Pupils are asked to work out a product (e.g. a project report, an action plan or an exhibition) or an action (e.g. dissemination of project results through folders or the media).
EVALUATION BASED ON OBSERVATIONS Observation sheets, audio/video recording, teacher and pupil logbook.	Systematic observations based on described and approved selection criteria. Documentation through recording and/or logbook.
EVALUATIONS BASED ON QUESTIONNAIRES: Questionnaires with open, closed or semi-structured answers.	Teachers and pupils formulate themes and questions on the basis of project aims and success indicators. Questionnaires may be issued in the classroom, and data is processed and analysed by teachers and pupils
REFEREE-BASED EVALUATION: Oral or written statement/report including a description of the assessment and arguments for the assessment of pupil performance in a functional context.	A community project partner selects products and/or actions (see product- and action-based evaluation above). Criteria: do the products/actions live up to expectations in the context in which they are applied?

- Data collection methods to report on the indicators should take into consideration the available time and commitment of the project participants;
- Select indicators that provide knowledge about the quality of the implementation of the project at the local level;
- Ensure that the project goals, expected outcomes and indicators are consistent with the overall RoSaCe approach;
- Involve key local partners in the development of the local RoSaCe goals and indicators;
- Document the project systematically. Document both the process and the outcomes;
- Remember that self-assessment should provide insight and information concerning the progress of the project towards the self-determined goals. The aim is to learn from experience and adjust the project plans and strategies accordingly;
- Communicate findings and reflections with RoSaCe participants, including pupils, on a regular basis.



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RoSaCe

Road Safety Cities in Europe

RoSaCe is a European experimental project, based on the assumption that, in order to be sustainable, road safety education should contribute to a better understanding of the concept of safety and positively influence quality of life at school and in the surrounding area. In the project, children share their views on safety in their lives, at school and in their local environment. They are the main agents in this innovative and participatory educational process. Teachers, parents and community networks are the children's fundamental allies.

The aim of the methodological guide is to describe and discuss the main concepts, ideas and values underpinning the RoSaCe approach and to provide practical support, guidance and inspiration to the teachers, local coordinators, and all other participants seeking to implement the methodology. Specific case descriptions of our work in Athens, Madrid, Rome, Tarragona, Vilnius and Warsaw will illustrate and provide inspiration for future implementation of the approach.

The underlying idea of the guide is to ensure a common conceptual and value basis for the RoSaCe approach which is both coherent, based on sound theoretical and empirical developments in the field of safety promotion and road safety education, and sufficiently flexible to allow for contextual interpretation and local systems of meaning based on a variety of cultural traditions.



RoSaCe
Road Safety Cities in Europe

An experimental project with the support of the Directorate-General for Energy and Transport of the European Commission

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