Sexual violence and children's rights:

A mixed methods study of teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching practice in social science education

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Summary

The purpose of this doctoral dissertation in social science education is to explore teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching practice related to gender, sexuality, harassment, and abuse in upper secondary school in Norway. This is an article-based dissertation consisting of three articles and an extended abstract.

Few studies have addressed teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching practice concerning sensitive issues in the mandatory subject for social science in Norwegian upper secondary school. Previous research has indicated that teaching practice on gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse varies greatly, but few studies have thoroughly examined how we can understand this variation by taking into account both teachers' personal characteristics and school culture. Previous research has indicated that social science students are motivated and engaged when learning about issues that concern them directly, involve ethical considerations or evoke emotions. However, relatively little attention has been dedicated to students' perceptions of teaching practice concerning gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse in Norwegian upper secondary school. This research project seeks to fill these knowledge gaps.

This PhD project consists of two interrelated phases, including both teachers' and students' voices, based on a mixed methods approach. Phase 1 consists of personal telephone interviews with 64 social science teachers in Norwegian upper secondary schools from February to October 2018. Phase 2 consists of participatory research with teachers and students concerning the development of pedagogical and didactic methods for teaching and learning about harassment.

Article I reports on Phase 1. By combining structured telephone interviews and simultaneously opening up teachers' spontaneous reasoning for their responses, the empirical material consists of an integration of statistical data and my notes of their comments, which I collected in a notebook. The main findings portray great variation in the extent to which teachers address issues of gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse and that these issues are not prioritized to any great extent in social science education. The topics of child sexual abuse and rape among young peers were the least-addressed issues in the classroom. My interpretation is that this is linked to a cultural taboo and

teachers' emotional obstacles because teachers express that they are concerned about causing the students harm by retraumatizing or stigmatizing students who might have experiences with unwanted sexual attention. Therefore, many of my informants chose not to address it to any great extent. This can be interpreted as a misunderstood way of caring about students, precisely because knowledge about what constitutes harassment and abuse and their rights to protection can enable young learners' empowerment and understanding of their own and others' rights.

Article II also reports on Phase 1 and extends the scope of Article I in the sense that it examines the variation in teaching practice through a multivariate regression analysis of the quantitative material from the telephone interviews. The main findings indicate that teachers' gender and age play an important role in understanding this variation. Women teach more about sexual harassment and abuse on average than men. On average, young teachers are the ones who mostly teach about these issues, especially young female teachers. Age has a stronger effect on female teachers than male teachers: the ones who address matters related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse the least were senior female teachers. School culture is also of statistical significance: the more cooperation teachers engage in to develop and implement teaching lessons, the more they actually teach about such issues. The focus from school management regarding enabling teachers' competence in this field is statistically significant: the more focus and motivation from school management, the more teachers feel confident and prepared for such teaching practice.

Article III is based on Phase 2, consisting of participatory research with teachers and students at one upper secondary school in Norway. To explore which sensitive issues students would like to learn more about, I conducted a digital survey among social science students (N = 111) at the upper secondary school. The results show that the students wish to learn more issues related to sexual harassment and abuse that affect their generation, and this applies especially to girls. Comparing this finding with Article I, I find that young learners wish to learn more about the issues that teachers address the least (among the surveyed topics) in social science education, namely *sexual harassment and abuse that affect their generation*. As such, students' voices were the starting point

for developing teaching lessons with teachers concerning sexual harassment among youth. We developed and implemented a role-play anchored in students' active participation and life-worlds. The main findings portray students' sense of disempowerment when facing harassment in everyday life. I suggest role-play as a pedagogical method in combination with democratic dialogues with students in small groups to open up for students' experiences, perspectives and emotions. I argue that the students themselves should write the role-plays, reflecting experiences of disrespect and injustice in their everyday lives. Such role-plays could form the basis for democratic dialogues between teachers and students, in which students are encouraged to voice experiences of disrespect in their own life-worlds. Such democratic dialogues anchored in love for the students, respect for their rights and solidarity based on a sense of shared concern and common interest in their well-being could enhance teachers' possibilities of contributing to the recognition of their human dignity.

In this extended abstract, I situate my study in intersecting fields of education: social science education, human rights education and sexuality education. I discuss relevant empirical studies to relate my research project to these intersecting fields of education. I address the overarching theoretical framework in which I engage critically with recognition theory by complementing the concept of intersectionality. I address how teachers' practice and ability to grant recognition to young learners' human dignity must be understood in light of the organization of teaching practice on various levels. Here I link my Bronfenbrenner-inspired model to Bourdieu and his perspectives on embodied practice, habitus and capital. I subsequently discuss my research methodology by especially focusing on the integration of sample, data and phases.

One of my main conclusions is that there appears to be a gap between what teachers teach and what students would like them to teach. My interpretation of the results from both phases is that students are to a little extent receiving the education they are entitled to according to the Convention on the Rights of the Child article 28 on the right to education, which includes the right to comprensive sexuality education. In this thesis' final chapter, I elaborate on the key challenges and opportunities I find for ensuring young learners' human dignity in teaching and learning about sexual violence.

Sammendrag

Hensikten med denne doktoravhandlingen i samfunnsfagsdidaktikk er å utforske læreres og elevers oppfatninger av undervisningspraksis knyttet til kjønn, seksualitet, trakassering og overgrep i den norske videregående skolen. Dette er en artikkel-basert avhandling bestående av tre artikler og en kappe.

Få studier har sett på læreres og elevers oppfatninger av undervisningspraksis om sensitive tema i det obligatoriske fellesfaget samfunnsfag/samfunnskunnskap i den norske videregående skolen. Tidligere forskning viser at undervisningspraksis knyttet il kjønn, seksualitet, trakassering og overgrep varierer i stor grad, men få studier har tatt for seg hvordan vi kan forstå denne variasjonen i lys av lærerens personlige kjennetegn og skolekultur. Tidligere forskning viser at samfunnsfagselever blir motiverte og engasjerte av å lære om tema som berører dem direkte, som involverer etiske betraktninger eller som vekker følelser. Allikevel har elevers oppfatninger av undervisningspraksis relatert til kjønn, seksualitet, trakassering og overgrep blitt viet lite oppmerksomhet i den norske videregående skolen. Dette forskningsprosjektet ønsker å bidra til å fylle disse kunnskapshullene.

Forskningsprosjektet består av to relaterte faser, og inkluderer både lærere og elevers stemmer basert på en mixed methods- tilnærming. Fase 1 består av personlige telefon-intervjuer med 64 samfunnsfagslærere i den norske videregående skolen fra februar til oktober i 2018. Fase 2 består av deltagende forskning med lærere og elever for å utvikle pedagogiske og didaktiske metoder for undervisning om trakassering i 2018/2019.

Artikkel I rapporterer fra Fase 1. Ved å kombinere strukturerte telefon-intervjuer med lærernes spontane refleksjoner rundt deres svar, består det empiriske materialet av en integrering av statistisk data og mine notater av deres refleksjoner, som jeg samlet i en notatbok. Hovedfunnene viser stor variasjon når det gjelder i hvilken grad lærere underviser om tema relatert til kjønn, seksualitet, trakassering og overgrep, og at disse temaene ikke er prioritert i noen særlig grad i samfunnsfagundervisning. Seksuelle overgrep mot barn og voldtekt blant ungdommer var de minst italesatte temaene i klassrommet i min studie. Min tolkning er at dette kan knyttes til et kulturelt tabu og

lærerne følelsesmessige hindringer, fordi flere av lærerne uttrykker at de er bekymrede for å skade elevene ved å stigmatisere eller retraumatisere elever som kan ha hatt egne erfaringer med seksuelle krenkelser. Derfor velger flere av mine informanter å ikke undervise om denne tematikken i noen særlig grad. Dette kan tolkes som en misforstått måte å vise omsorg for elevene på, nettopp fordi kunnskap om hva overgrep og trakassering er, og deres rett til beskyttelse, kan bidra til barn og unges myndiggjøring og forståelse av egne og andres rettigheter.

Artikkel II rapporterer også fra Fase 1 og utvider omfanget av Artikkel I i den forstand at den belyser variasjon i undervisningspraksis gjennom en regresjonsanalyse av det kvantitative materialet fra telefon-intervjuene. Hovedfunnene viser at lærernes kjønn og alder spiller en viktig rolle for å forstå variasjonen i undervisningspraksis. Kvinner underviser mer om seksuell trakassering og overgrep i gjennomsnitt enn menn. I gjennomsnitt, er det særlig yngre lærere som underviser mest om disse temaene, og spesielt yngre, kvinnelige lærere. Alder har en sterkere effekt på kvinnelige lærere enn mannlige lærere: De som underviser minst er eldre, kvinnelige lærere. Skolekultur er også statistisk signifikant: Desto mer lærersamarbeid for å utvikle og implementere undervisningsøkter om tematikken, jo mer underviser lærere om dette. Fokus fra skoleledelsen er også statistisk signifikant: Jo mer støtte og motivasjon lærerne opplever at skoleledelsen gir dem for å undervise om tematikken, jo mer underviser lærere om dette.

Artikkel III er basert på Fase 2, som består av deltakende forskning med lærere og elever ved en videregående skole i Norge. For å finne ut av hvilke sensitive tema som elever vil lære mer om, gjennomførte jeg en digital survey blant samfunnsfagelever (N=111) ved den videregående skolen. Resultatene viser at elevene gjerne ville lære mer om seksuell trakassering og overgrep i deres generasjon, og dette gjelder særlig jenter. Når jeg sammmenligner dette funnet med funn i Artikkel I, ser jeg at elevene ønsker å lære mer om de temaene som lærerne underviser minst om (blant de undersøkte temaene). Elevenes stemmer ble utgangspunktet for å utvikle undervisningsøkter med lærere om seksuell trakassering blant ungdommer. Vi utviklet og implementerte et rollespill basert på elevenes aktive deltagelse og livsverden. Hovedfunnene viser at

elever føler seg maktesløse i møte med trakassering i deres hverdagsliv. Jeg foreslår at rollespill kan være en egnet undervisningsmetode i kombinasjon med demokratiske dialoger med elever i små grupper for å åpne opp for elevers erfaringer, perspektiver og følelser. Jeg foreslår at elevene burde skrive rollespillene selv med utgangspunkt i deres egen livsverden. Slike rollespill kan danne et godt grunnlag for demokratiske dialoger hvor elever blir oppmuntret til å diskutere erfaringer med manglende respekt i deres livsverden. Slike demokratiske dialoger som forankres i kjærlighet til elevene, respekt for deres rettigheter og solidaritet basert på delte bekymringer og interesse for deres velvære kan styrke læreres muligheter til å bidra til anerkjennelse av elevers menneskeverd.

I denne kappen, plasserer jeg studien min i krysningspunktet av tre utdanningsfelt: Samfunnsfagsdidaktikk, menneskerettighetsopplæring og seksualitetsundervisning. Jeg diskuterer hvordan min studie kan ses i sammenheng med relevante empiriske studier i disse utdanningsfeltene. I det teoretiske kapittelet gjør jeg rede for anerkjennelsesteori, og komplementerer denne teorien med interseksjonalitet. Jeg belyser hvordan undervisningspraksis og lærernes evne til å anerkjenne sine elevers menneskeverd må forstås i lys av organiseringen av undervisningspraksis på ulike nivåer. Her kobler jeg min Bronfenbrenner-inspirerte modell til Bourdieu og hans perspektiver på kroppsliggjort praksis, habitus og kapital. I det påfølgende kapittelet diskuterer jeg forskningsprosjektets metodologiske tilnærming med et særlig henblikk på integrering av utvalg, data og faser.

En av mine hovedkonklusjoner er at det ser ut til å være en diskrepans mellom det lærerne underviser og det elever gjerne skulle ønske at lærerne underviste om. Min tolkning basert på resultater både fra kartleggings- og utprøvingsfasen er at elever i liten grad får den utdanningen de har krav på ifølge Barnekonvensjonen artikkel 28 om barns rett til utdanning, som inkluderer retten til helhetlig seksualitetsundervisning. I avhandlingens avsluttende del, diskuterer jeg hovedutfordringene og mulighetene jeg ser for å ivareta og styrke elevers menneskeverd i og gjennom undervisning knyttet til seksuell vold.

List of abbreviations

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CESCR	International Covenant on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights
CRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSA	Child Sexual Abuse
CSE	Comprehensive Sexuality Education
DP	Dialectical Pluralism
HRE	Human Rights Education
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNDHRET	United Nations Declaration of Human Rights Education and Training
WHO	World Health Organisation

Table of Contents

Part I

1. Introduction

In October 2017, the hashtag #MeToo went viral after the American actress, Alyssa Milano, tweeted, "If you've been sexually harassed or assaulted write 'me too' as a reply to this tweet" (Milano, 2017). Subsequently, thousands of women across the world shared their experiences of sexual abuse, portraying their solidarity with survivors. In the midst of this movement, I conducted telephone interviews with social science teachers in Norwegian upper secondary schools about their teaching practices on sensitive issues related to harassment and abuse from February to October in 2018. In the aftermath of #MeToo, Norwegian teenage girls were outraged by how the movement never reached the schoolyard, arguing in public media that their experiences of sexual harassment were not taken seriously by adults in school (Baklund, Aure, & Fyhn 2019). This debate took place during my fieldwork concerning the development of pedagogical methods for teaching and learning about sexual harassment with teachers and students in a Norwegian upper secondary school (discussed later).

Sexual harassment and abuse against youth constitute human rights violations according to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (United Nations [UN], 1989) and the Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children Against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse, known as the Lanzarote Convention (Council of Europe, 2007). Young people experience unwanted sexual attention and acts from both adults and adolescents, and both national and international research indicates an increasing trend of sexual peer victimization among adolescents (Gewirtz-Meydan & Finkelhor, 2020; Mossige & Stefansen, 2016). A Norwegian study showed that girls between 10 and 14 years of age are most often sexually victimized by boys between 15 and 19 years of age, and this applies to an even greater extent to girls aged 15 years or older (Mossige & Stefansen, 2016, p. 85). The impact of sexual harassment and abuse on youth's health is detrimental (Bendixen, Daveronis, & Kennair, 2017; Gruber & Fineran, 2008). The Norwegian Ombudsperson for Children strikes alarm concerning how many children and adolescents have little knowledge about what is legal and what

is not concerning intimacy boundaries, urging the government, researchers and school staff to improve educational measures (Lindboe, 2018). In this respect, it is crucial to gain more knowledge about how schools can be arenas for teaching and learning about harassment and abuse, including children's voices and participation to ensure the recognition of young learners' human dignity and rights (Lindboe, 2018; Ministry of Children and Families, 2016). Working towards good health, well-being, quality education and gender equality are also essential goals in the Sustainable Development Goals, as presented by the United Nations Development Programme (UN, 2015).

The Norwegian government has prioritized to prevent acts of violence against youth over the last decade (Ministry of Children and Families, 2016; Norwegian Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion, 2013, 2014). The action plan *Freedom from violence* (2021–2024) addresses the importance of school as an arena for providing children and youth with knowledge about sexual violence, including learning about feelings, the body and intimacy boundaries in kindergarten and school (Norwegian Ministry of Justice and Public Security, 2021, p. 26).

The Norwegian government has strengthened police work in order to prevent and detect child sexual abuse over the last decade (Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion, 2014), leading to the uncovering of large-scale cases of child sexual abuse online, such as Operation Dark Room (Aanerød & Mossige, 2018). Norwegian researchers find that the police are increasingly receiving messages about such online abuse, but they have not concluded that this is due to an increased prevalence, nor do they exclude the possibility (Aanerød & Mossige, 2018, p. 33).

In 2013, the revision of the curriculum for social science education in upper secondary school included a competence aim concerning how students should learn about various forms of crime and abuse (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013). The recent Norwegian curriculum renewal in 2020 excluded the term abuse, replacing it with a competence aim concerning how students should learn about challenges related to intimacy boundaries and discuss norms, values and laws concerning gender, sexuality and the body (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019).

As such, teachers are navigating in complex landscape, including increased political focus on combating sexual violence against youth, media coverage of #MeToo, police investigations and an ambiguous curriculum. In this dissertation, I critically explore the challenges and possibilities in social science education for addressing issues related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse, as well as the educational potential for recognition of students' dignity.

1.1 Research questions

The overarching research question in this dissertation is: What are the challenges and possibilities for the recognition of young learners' human dignity concerning teaching and learning about sexual violence? This question is divided into the following three sub-questions:

- RQ1: To what extent are social science teachers reproducing or transforming the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse?
- RQ2: How can we understand the variation in teaching practice concerning sexual harassment and abuse based on social science teachers' personal characteristics, school-culture related factors, curriculum content and media coverage of sexual violence?
- RQ3: How can young learners be active participants in learning about sexual and gender-based harassment, and how do they experience such participation?

To answer these research questions, I have written the following three articles[1]:

Article I: Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, B. (2019). Children's rights and teachers' responsibilities: Reproducing or transforming the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse? *Human Rights Education Review (HRER), 2*(1), 25–46. https://doi.org/10.7577/hrer.3079

Article II: Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, B. (2022). Exploring variation in Norwegian social science teachers' practice concerning sexuality education: Who teachers are matters and so does school culture. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 66*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2020.1869072

Article III: Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, B. (2022). Young learners' perceptions of learning about sexual and gender-based harassment: The struggle for recognition in school. *The International Journal of Children's Rights*, *30*(2), 404-437. https://doi.org/10.1163/15718182-30020005

Article I discusses RQ1 concerning teaching practices on child sexual abuse. Article II addresses RQ2 regarding factors for understanding the variation in teaching practice related to gender, sexuality, harassment, and abuse. Article III discusses RQ3 regarding how young learners can be involved as active participants in teaching lessons on gender, sexuality and sexual and gender-based harassment and how they experience such participation.

Article I was published in a level 1 journal, whereas articles II and III were published in level 2 journals – the highest-ranking level of academic publications in Norway. The articles were subjected to double-blinded peer reviews and published with open access.

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[1] I use roman numbers (I, II and III) in combination with a capital A to distinguish my research articles from articles in different declarations, covenants and conventions.

1.2 Situating my study in intersecting fields of education

I situate my study in the intersection between social science education, human rights education and sexuality education, as illustrated by this figure:
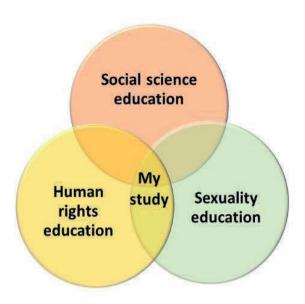
Figure 1. Intersecting fields of education

By human rights education, I refer to education that shall promote respect for human rights (discussed in more detail later) (Lile 2021; UN, 2011). I draw upon the United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization's definition of comprehensive sexuality education as outlined in their technical guidelines:

> Comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) is a curriculum-based process of teaching and learning about the cognitive, emotional, physical and social aspects of sexuality. It aims to equip children and young people with knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will empower them to: realize their health, well-being and dignity; develop respectful social and sexual relationships; consider how their choices affect their own well-being and that of others; and, understand and ensure the protection of their rights throughout their lives (UNESCO, 2018, p16).

In this thesis, I emphasize the field of social science education for several reasons: First, this is a subject "on its own", whereas human rights education and sexuality education are interdisciplinary fields that are integrated to a certain extent into social science education and other subjects. In addition, the sample in my study consists of teachers and students in the mandatory social science subject samfunnsfag [now samfunnskunnskap] in upper secondary schools in Norway. I choose to refer to social science education instead of social studies because the scientific components in this subject have been significantly strengthened over the last decades (Trysnes & Skjølberg, 2022b), and the official translation of this subject is social science (The Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training, 2021).

Horrigmo and Rosland (2021, p. 15) consider how social science didactics is a field of research that constitute reflections about *what this subject is in relation to what it could be or ought to be* (my translation, emphasis added). Børhaug, Sæle and Sætre (2022, pp.29-32) discuss which theoretical perspectives social science didactics should draw upon, affirming that recent empirical research includes both subject-specific theory and pedagogical theories as well as theories from various socio-scientific disciplines. Horrigmo and Rosland (2021) hold forth that this discipline engages with the relationship between theory and practice, aiming at developing theory for practice to qualify teachers' knowledge base (Horrigmo & Rosland, 2021). The critical component of didactics seeks to develop knowledge for social change [Endringskompetanse] through research and teaching (Horrigmo & Rosland, 2021, p. 15) (my translation). My study addresses power and oppression in teaching, aiming to develop practices that can counter oppression and contribute to positive change.

1.3 Motivational background

The motivational basis for conducting this research is anchored in my academic background in peace and conflict studies, my work experience as a teacher (2012- 2018) as well as my interest for human rights - especially children's human rights. I have chosen not to include children's rights in my research questions, but rather link this perspective to the discussion of the empirical material.

One important experience that sparked my research interest in looking into how sensitive issues are taught in school was when I had been teaching about sexual harassment by drawing upon the Norwegian TV series SKAM [SHAME] as a didactical resource in 2016. This TV series explores how adolescents deal with shame in their everyday lives. There were examples of peer harassment in this series, and I included some of these video clips in my own teaching to discuss them with my students. Addressing sexual harassment and abuse also became increasingly relevant with the #MeToo movement. In autumn 2017, there was an opening for conducting research on social science education at the University of Agder, and I decided to pursue my research interests. Caring for my students and their well-being and development as persons was an essential part of my everyday life as a teacher. This has led my gaze towards the emotional dimensions of teaching, including the element of care, especially in regard to sensitive issues close to students' lives. I use the term *sensitive* to describe how these matters may be entangled with both teachers' and students' personal experiences and lives, arguing that addressing such issues in school may have transformative potential (Lowe, 2015).

1.4 Conceptualizing sexual violence

I apply the World Health Organization's (WHO) definition of sexual violence as an overarching umbrella referring to:

> Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work. (Krug, Dahlberg, Mercy, Zwi, & Lozano, 2002, p. 149)

Some researchers use the term sexual violence in a more narrow sense, referring to physical violations of the body (Skilbrei & Stefansen, 2018), whereas I refer to sexual violence in a broader sense, including verbal, digital and physical violence of sexual character. Skilbrei and Stefansen (2018, p. 17) address how we need to understand what gender freedom is to understand sexual violence, asserting that gender freedom entails

the right to decide over one's own body in sexual matters. I believe that one's gender freedom can be restricted when experiencing verbal, digital and physical violations of the body and bodily integrity. However, physical acts may pose the most severe threat to a person's bodily integrity and sense of dignity. I consider child sexual abuse and sexual harassment to be branches within the wider concept of sexual violence. The WHO distinguishes between three different types of child sexual abuse: 1) non-contact sexual abuse, such as threats of sexual abuse, verbal sexual harassment, indecent exposure or exposing the child to pornography; 2) contact sexual abuse involving sexual intercourse, such as sexual assault and rape and 3) contact sexual abuse involving acts such as inappropriate touching and kissing (WHO, 2017, p. vii). Involving the child in pornography is also part of child sexual abuse, as outlined in the Lanzarote Convention (Council of Europe, 2007). Child sexual abuse is a worldwide problem with a destructive impact on survivors' health and quality of life (Council of Europe, 2007; Gewirtz-Meydan & Finkelhor, 2020; WHO, 2017). In the Norwegian judicial context, sexual acts and relations with children below the age of consent (16 years) are considered as sex crimes against minors (Penal Code, 2021). According to a study in Switzerland, survivors of child sexual abuse rarely disclose information to their teacher (Schönbucher, Maier, Mohler-Kuo, Schnyder, & Landolt, 2012). As such, there might be great untapped potential for teachers to assume a safeguarding role as children's human rights defenders (Draugedalen & Osler, 2022; Struthers, 2021).

1.5 The structure of the extended abstract

This doctoral dissertation is structured in three parts. *Part I* consists of six chapters: Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the political, cultural and social context of my dissertation, presents the research questions, situates my study, defines key concepts, explains my motivational background for writing this thesis and outlines the structure of this extended abstract. Chapter 2 presents children's rights as the legal and ethical framework for schooling and discusses the historical and legal context of children's rights and human rights education as well as the list of issues raised by the Committee on the Rights of the Child to Norway. Chapter 3 discusses curriculum trends in social

science education. Chapter 4 reviews the relevant research for the discussion of the empirical findings. I emphasize relevant empirical studies conducted among teachers and students within social science education, sexuality education and human rights education over the last decade in the Nordic region. Chapter 5 provides an overview of the main theoretical framework. I critically engage with recognition theory by complementing the concepts of intersectionality and habitus to enrich our thinking about power relations and the role shame- and fear-related feelings play in voicing one's experiences of disrespect. This chapter theoretically explores school's possibilities for providing a facilitating environment that alleviates negative emotions, which may inhibit action against violence, and contributes to students' empowerment. Chapter 6 reports on the research methodology. I discuss my use of mixed methods based on teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching practice.

Part II consists of Chapter 7, which comprises the three articles. Consequently, I refer to these articles in the extended abstract to illustrate how they are interconnected methodologically and theoretically. This extended abstract complements, extends and synthesizes these articles.

Part III consists of Chapter 8, which discusses the empirical, theoretical, methodological and ethical contributions of this doctoral dissertation. I discuss the implications of my study and provide suggestions for further research.

Although presenting the articles before the discussion of this thesis' findings and contributions might not be conventional, I have chosen to structure the extended abstract in this way to let the reader first engage with my articles before proceeding to read the discussion. I believe that this structure provides the necessary background for the reader's understanding of Chapter 8.

2. Children's rights: The heart of the research project

Children's rights are at the heart of my dissertation, constituting an ethical and legal framework for schooling. One dimension of children's rights is their right to education (UN, 1989, art. 28) and their right to an education that promotes respect for human rights (UN, 1989, art. 29). In this chapter, I address how human rights education (HRE) has been articulated by the UN since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948. Subsequently, I discuss how children's rights have been incorporated into Norwegian law. I address the most recent list of issues presented to Norway by the Committee on the Rights of the Child in 2018 and how these issues relate to my project. Finally, I conclude this chapter by portraying how children's rights are integrated into my research articles and how the emphasis on human rights is somewhat strengthened in the curriculum renewal in social science education.

2.1 Historical and legal context

This overview of the historical and legal context of HRE is based on my readings of scholars in this field and the relevant declarations, covenants and conventions (Hidle, 2021; Lile, 2021; Osler & Skarra, 2021; Osler & Solhaug, 2018; Quennerstedt et al, 2020; UN, 1948, 1966, 1989, 2011). Preceding the adoption of the UDHR in 1948, there were discussions concerning the aims of education (Lile, 2021, pp. 10–12). In the words of the Norwegian legal scholar Lile (2021), "Rights would just be empty words unless generations to come were educated to respect the rights of all human beings, not just some" (p. 12). The UDHR (1948) affirms that "education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to *strengthening of respect for human rights* and fundamental freedoms […]" (art. 26) (emphasis added), which set the scene for human rights education.

The International Covenant on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights (CESCR) was the first legally binding covenant establishing that education should strengthen respect for human rights. It echoes the UDHR by stating that "education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity, and shall strengthen the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms" (UN,

1966, art. 13.1, abbreviated version). This provision adds a "sense of dignity" as an important feature (Lile, 2021). Children's dignity is at stake when facing human rights violations, such as harassment and abuse.

The CRC was adopted in 1989. This convention echoes and expands on the UDHR and the CESCR, addressing how the education of the child shall be directed to (a) the development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential, (b) the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms […] and (d) the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes and friendship among all peoples, including ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin (UN, 1989, art. 29). This provision affirms that education should promote equality among the sexes, which is also an important dimension of teaching and learning about sexual violence. More girls than boys experience unwanted sexual comments or acts (Gewirtz-Meydan & Finkelhor, 2020; Mossige & Stefansen, 2016; Myhre, Thoresen, & Hjemdal, 2015). Sexual violence also targets boys, who, due to ideals of masculinity, might be even more reluctant than girls to show vulnerability and disclose information about harassment and abuse (Gewirtz-Meydan & Finkelhor, 2020). Children are not responsible for protecting themselves; however, it is important to enable their capacity to do so, as telling someone about experiences of sexual violence can contribute to stopping abusive situations. Enabling children regardless of gender to stand up against such violations requires that they have knowledge *about* their rights, that they experience that telling someone about harassment and abuse is taken seriously (*through* their rights) and that this is acted upon (*for* their rights) – in tune with the human rights education framework presented in the United Nations Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training (UNDHRET) (UN, 2011):

> Human rights education and training comprises all educational, training, information, awareness-raising and learning activities aimed at promoting universal respect for and observance of all human rights and fundamental freedoms and thus contributing, inter alia, to the prevention of human rights violations and abuses by providing persons with knowledge, skills and

understanding and developing their attitudes and behaviours, to empower them to contribute to the building and promotion of a universal culture of human rights (UN, 2011, art. 2.1).

Lile (2021) states that the main aim of HRE is for children to engage in "learning activities aimed at promoting universal respect for and observance of all human rights" (p. 69), building on art. 29 in the CRC and art. 2 in the UNDHRET. Learning activities aimed at promoting respect for human rights could be founded in the pedagogy of recognition, integrating teachers' love and care for their students, children's rights and solidarity based on a sense of shared concern (Jordet, 2020), which I discuss in Chapter 5. The role of care as part of ensuring children's rights in school is highlighted by researchers in this field (Draugedalen & Osler, 2022; Quennerstedt et al., 2020).

2.2 The CRC, Norwegian Law and the Committee on the Rights of the Child

Norway ratified the CRC in 1991. The CRC has increasingly been integrated in the domestic legal system from 2003, and the revision of the Norwegian Constitution in 2014 was a major legal development (Langford, Skivenes, Søvig & Kirkebø, 2019, p.21). Two principles from the CRC, namely the child's rights to participation (art. 12) and the child's best interest (art. 3), were included in the Norwegian Constitution as part of the bicentennial celebration of the Constitution in 2014 (1814–2014) (Köhler-Olsen, 2019, p. 56). The Constitution (2020, para. 109) confirms that "education shall safeguard the individual's abilities and needs, and promote respect for democracy, the rule of law and human rights". Paragraph 109 resonates with CRC art. 29 concerning how education should promote respect for human rights.

In 2017, the Norwegian Education Act introduced a zero-tolerance policy against violations such as harassment in schools (Education Act, 2020). According to the revisions, school employees have a duty to act when students experience degrading school environments. This entails producing a written plan describing a) what problem the measures are to solve, b) what measures the school has planned, c) when the

measures will be implemented, d) who is responsible for implementation of the measures and finally, e) when the measures will be evaluated (Education Act, 2020).

This can be considered as step towards strengthening children's rights to protection in the Education Act. Simultaneously, it might lead to unintended consequences such as additional workloads for teachers, as pointed out by Lindgren, Hult, Carbaum, & Segerholm (2021), leading to how teachers may opt for "not seeing" the degrading treatment to avoid time-consuming documentation. I return to this aspect in Chapter 8. The way in which the Norwegian Education Act is phrased is also to a certain extent problematic, as school employees should intervene "if possible" [dersom det er mogleg]. This ambiguous language could contribute to teachers' lack of intervention in sexually harassing situations in school, as I address in Article III.

In 2018, the Committee on the Rights of the Child (2018a) asked Norway to provide information on "the measures taken to prevent, identify and address violence against and abuse of children" (p. 2). Norway's response included a reference to the previously mentioned amendments in the Education Act and to changes in the content of teacher education made to ensure that students acquire knowledge and skills in the area of violence and abuse (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2018, b, p.4-5). However, such policy changes towards ensuring children's rights do not necessarily lead to changes in practice.

2.3 Children's rights as a defining feature of the research articles

I continuously integrate children's rights into my research articles. In Article I, I discuss teachers' emotional obstacles to fulfilling children's rights to protection through schooling. In Article II, I discuss how factors such as teachers' personal characteristics and school environment may influence teaching practice in the intersection of social science education, human rights education and sexuality education. The UN Special Rapporteur on the right to education pinpoints how "the right to comprehensive sexual education is part of the right of persons to human rights education" (Muñoz, 2010, p. 7). Article III engages with children's right to participation. In Chapter 5, I conceptualize

children's rights as part of my theoretical framework, pinpointing the interconnectedness of these articles in the CRC (Lundy, 2007).

The overarching part of the curriculum explicitly addresses that the CRC gives children special protection and that education should be in accordance with human rights (Ministry of Education and Training, 2017, p. 4). Still, it has been criticized for offering little practical guidance to teachers (Lile, 2019). Past curricula for social science education in upper secondary schools have included competence aims concerning how students should learn about human rights (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013, 2019). This focus is now somewhat strengthened in the curriculum renewal by how social science education shall contribute to students' respect for human rights (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019). Nevertheless, it has been criticized for not explicitly addressing children's rights (Osler & Skarra, 2021). This takes us to the next chapter on curriculum trends in social science education.

3. Curriculum trends in social science education

Here, I provide a brief overview of how the issues of gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse have been dealt with, implicitly or explicitly, in the curriculum for social science education from the 1970s to the 2020s. I address general trends in this curriculum and link these trends to my project.

3.1 Brief historical overview of gender and sexuality in the curriculum

There were major societal changes taking place in Norway from the 1960s and onwards: the economy was booming, contraception was increasingly available, sexual liberations movements took place and there was an ongoing democratization of higher education (Børhaug, Christophersen, & Aarre, 2017; Røthing & Svendsen, 2009). In the 1970s, gender equality was established as an important ideal, but this political context was integrated into the 1974 curriculum for social science education only to a certain extent (Børhaug et al., 2017, p. 22). Nevertheless, there was a gender equality focus, and the school should promote boys' and girls' sense of common responsibility for the home, counter that career choices were dominated by gendered traditions and help learners realize their capabilities and opportunities regardless of gender (Røthing & Svendsen 2009, p. 82).

A decade later, the curriculum M87 pinpoints how "Social science education must help students understand that human interaction and relations between humans, groups and nations may be characterized by harmony or conflict" (Børhaug et al., 2017, p. 23). The new school reform in 1997, on the other hand, excluded critical perspectives and re-established a harmonic societal image, placing less emphasis on issues related to gender equality (Børhaug et al., 2017, p. 24).

In 2006, another school reform was launched under the name Kunnskapsløftet, which could be translated as the "Knowledge Promise". Gender equality has been given even less focus than it was previously (Børhaug et al., 2017, p. 27). In a survey among teachers in lower secondary school in 2008, Røthing and Svendsen (2009, p. 16) found that sexuality education is mostly taught in natural science classes, less so in religion

classes and even less so in the social sciences from 8th–10th grade. This could be explained by the fact that a narrow understanding of sexuality has historically characterized Norwegian sexuality education, mainly emphasizing biological aspects, such as fertilization and the reproduction process, in natural science classes (Røthing & Svendsen 2009, p. 23), instead of the more social dimensions of sexual behaviour. These researchers criticize the lack of focus on harassment and abuse in the 2006 curriculum (Røthing & Svendsen, 2009).

In the revision of the curriculum in 2013, these issues were, to a certain extent, integrated into the curriculum in upper secondary school in social science education, stating that students should "analyse the extent of various forms of crime and abuse and discuss how such actions can be prevented, and how the rule of law works" (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013). Still, this formulation is rather ambiguous because the Norwegian word for abuse [overgrep] could also be used for physical or psychological abuse that is not sexual, which opens up various interpretations of this competence aim, as I critically address in Articles I and II.

In the new curriculum for year 2020 in social science education for upper secondary school, the students should be able to "reflect on challenges associated with setting boundaries, and discuss how different values, norms and laws apply to gender, sexuality and the body" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019). Depending on teachers' interpretations, this competence aim might entail that students acquire knowledge about such challenges, but it does not necessarily enable their action capacity [handlingskompetanse] to do anything about these challenges. There are tendencies towards making the legal framework regarding boundaries more explicit, but simultaneously, there are tendencies towards making sexual abuse even more invisible, as the term abuse is no longer explicit, as I address in Article II. I find that there is a "legal turning point" in the curriculum concerning gender, sexuality and boundaries. The juridical discipline has previously played a minor role in social science education (Solhaug, Borge & Grut, 2020). This focus on legal literacy in combination with gender and sexuality is new in upper secondary schools.

3.2 General curriculum trends in social science education

The Danish researcher, Christensen (2015, p. 10–12), identifies six characteristics of this subject as it has evolved in Denmark since the 1960s, which is of relevance for other Nordic countries, including Norway. First, there has been a shift from a focus on the state and its rules to an increased focus on citizens and society. Second, there is a connection between normative democratic Bildung [dannelse], socio-scientific Bildung and analytical access to societal structures and processes. Christensen (2015) specifies how "students' social acts not only should be founded in good democratic intentions, but also build on insights founded in science and involve current societal structures and processes" (p. 11). Third, there is a focus on scientific disciplines, such as sociology and political science, as well as scientific inquiry. Fourth, there is a focus on current affairs. Subsequently, there is an emphasis on students' processes of learning – "learning to learn" – and not only on subject content. Finally, there is a focus on interdisciplinarity and enabling students to understand the connections between the various disciplines that constitute the subject.

My study relates to these characteristics in intertwined ways, especially regarding the focus on citizens and society, current affairs and the interdisciplinary approach. Examining how teachers teach about sexual harassment and abuse is linked to exploring subject content on current affairs concerning relations between citizens and society. Exploring the factors that condition teachers' practice involves analysing the conditions underpinning how students are supposed to learn to become democratic citizens. My study links to what Christensen (2015, p. 11) refers to as the connection between normative democratic Bildung [dannelse], a scientific Bildung and an analytical access to societal structures and processes in the sense that learning about sexual harassment and abuse may contribute to strengthening students' abilities to exert their citizenship democratically. This learning process should be anchored in research-based knowledge that illuminates societal structures and processes underpinning sexual violence.

Christensen (2015) portrays connections in social science education between 1) topical issues, structures and processes, 2) social science disciplines, 3) students' life-worlds and 4) democratic values. In my study, the focus on students' life-worlds is an

intersecting feature of social science education, human rights education and sexuality education. If human rights education is to be transformative, young learners' experiences of injustice in school can be considered pedagogical opportunities for obtaining legal knowledge, which could enable them to defend both their own and others' rights (Lundy & Sainz, 2018). This relates to Article III, in which I address young learners' perceptions of learning about sexual harassment in school and the pedagogical potential of taking their experiences of harassment in and outside of school seriously.

3.3 Towards a social and relational epistemology

The educational researcher, Lim (2015), connects critical thinking and ethical consciousness in social science education by calling for a social and relational epistemology, in which:

> Schools need to develop in students' ways of thinking that encourage the important processes of negotiation and translation between various social positions. Only so can they foreground the multiple ways in which people's lives are primordially connected to others. (p. 7)

Lim (2015) contends that knowledge production in social science education should be relational and interactional in the sense that students should be enabled to understand how their lives are intertwined with the lives of others, with the ability to relate to various social positions. This pinpoints the relational dimension of social experience. These perspectives are important in teaching and learning about sexual violence because unwanted sexual acts occur in human relations based on unequal power positions. Lim (2015) discusses how a democratic society consists of a system of moral values and principles, such as freedom, justice, equality and respect. This should have implications for social science education; we cannot only address individuals and institutions, such as knowledge about the political system, political parties and voting in elections. We should also address the relational and interactional components of human experience by enabling students' critical reflections on how we exert our citizenship and treat each other in everyday life. This is key to fostering democratic citizens who respect their own and others' rights to bodily integrity and gender freedom.

4. Relevant studies

In this chapter, I discuss relevant empirical studies in the Nordic region that provides an important backdrop for my own study. Given that my study is situated in the intersection between three educational fields, my pragmatic approach in this chapter consists of mainly looking into studies conducted over the last decade in the fields of social science education, sexuality education and human rights education. Social science education in the Nordic region shares several features, including a focus on social scientific disciplines such as political science and sociology, and developing knowledge and skills that pupils will need as participants in a democratic society (Sandahl, Tväråna & Jakobsson, 2022, p. 86). This makes it relevant to look into educational research in the Nordic region in particular.

I chose to include studies on sexualized othering processes between the sections on social science education, sexuality education and human rights education to make a point out of how these processes are part of everyday life in school. I refer to theoretical contributions when I find this necessary to provide a context for the empirical work, and to international research in the 2000s when I find this of great relevance for the context. I review *relevant works* "that have important implications for the design, conduct, or interpretation of the study" (Maxwell, 2006, p. 28). I subsequently reflect on how the studies in this literature review have implications for the interpretation of my study, and I complement and extend the review sections of the research articles.

International studies are referred to in various chapter throughout the extended abstract when this is of relevance for empirical or theoretical support. For instance, in Chapter 1, I refer to an American study showing that being exposed to sexual offenses involves negative consequences for young people's health (Gruber & Fineran, 2008). My understanding and use of the concept of sensitive is derived from a British empirical study among students in higher education and experiences of teaching sensitive topics (Lowe, 2015). In Chapter 1, I refer to a Swiss study that finds that people who have experienced sexual abuse that children rarely tell this to their teacher (Schönbucher et al, 2012). The reference to Struthers (2021) is based on her research on human rights education in England, among other things, related to sexual abuse against children and

safe-guarding. In Chapter 2, I refer to Laura Lundy's (2007) work (Northern Ireland), which I address in more detail in Chapter 5 to address how the articles in the Convention of the Rights of the Child must be seen in context. In Chapter 3 on trends in social science didactics, I draw in Lionel Lim's perspectives on critical thinking, and he is based in Singapore. The theoretical framework in Chapter 5 and research methodology in Chapter 6 is anchored in international literature. I hope and believe that I have found a balance between highlighting the national, the Nordic and the international in this extended abstract, although I mainly focus on the Nordic region in this chapter.

4.1 Social science education

In a comprehensive research review, Skjæveland (2020) finds that empirical studies have proliferated in Norwegian social science education over the last decade. This is also reflected in recent publications of several antologies in the field (Børhaug, Hunnes, & Samnøy, 2022; Erdal, Granlund, & Ryen, 2021; Ferrer & Wetlesen, 2019). In this section, I discuss empirical studies in this discipline that are particularly relevant for my thesis by focusing on studies related to critical thinking, controversial and sensitive issues, teachers' strategies for dealing with such issues and students' agonistic emotions.

4.1.1 Critical thinking

Recent studies address the potential for critical thinking in social science education by exploring critical perspectives in participatory research with teachers (Jøsok & Elvebakk, 2019), critical thinking and news as didactical resources (Ryen, 2019), and democracy and critical thinking in textbooks (Lorentzen & Røthing, 2017). Jøsok and Elvebakk (2019, p. 66) find that the critically thinking teacher is key in enabling students to engage with various perspectives and power relations. Ryen (2019, p. 83) discussed the potential of using current affairs and news to "build a bridge between the content […] and students' understandings and experiences of how this is relevant for their lives" (my translation). Lorentzen and Røthing (2017) affirm the need for more norm critical perspectives in textbooks that not only seeks to highlight oppressive norms but also seeks to alter them – inspired by norm critical pedagogy (Kalonaityté, 2014). This norm-

critical perspective is part of the theoretical foundation for the participatory research I engaged in with teachers (see Chapter 6 on research methodology). In Chapter 6, I elaborate on the potential drawbacks of normative and critical perspectives in research.

4.1.2 Controversial, emotional and sensitive issues

Exploring controversial issues in education is currently an emergent field of research in the Nordic region (Andresen, 2020; Ljunggren, Unemar, &, Englund, 2015; Larsson, 2019; Lomsdalen, 2021; Samnøy, 2022; Sætra, 2019, 2021a, 2021b; von der Lippe, 2019). This string of research is inspired by the international field of research known as *controversial issues education,* which has developed over the last decades (Hand & Levinson, 2012; Kerr & Huddelstone, 2015; Noddings & Brooks, 2017; Stradling, 1984). Stradling defines controversial issues as "issues that deeply divide a society, that generate conflicting explanations and solutions based upon alternate worldviews" (Stradling, 1984, p. 121). Gereluk (2012) contends that controversies are sensitive when "people are easily moved to distress, anger or offence" (p. 89). In this dissertation, I use the term *sensitive* to refer to issues that are emotionally charged and close to teachers' and students' lives (Lowe, 2015). There might be controversies that are not sensitive, and sensitive issues that are not necessarily controversial. However, how this plays out in the classroom is intertwined with teachers' and students' identity and lives, which is an essential contextual factor. Together with my colleagues, Kristin Gregers Eriksen and Mari Jore, we have merged the concepts of controversial, emotional and sensitive, claiming that such issues are "characterized by high emotional and political intensity, that can lead to debate and disagreement and be close to teachers' and students' lives and identity in various ways" (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, Eriksen & Jore, 2022, p.14). As addressed by Aashamar (2022), this approach is fruitful for considering emotions as a resource in teaching.

A common feature in the research on controversial issues is that discussing such matters in class is considered important for education for democratic citizenship and human rights education, as well as for enabling students' abilities for critical thinking (Kerr & Huddelstone, 2015; Noddings & Brooks, 2017). Nevertheless, as addressed in

the report "Living with Controversy – Teaching Controversial Issues Through Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights (EDC/HRE) - Training Pack for Teachers" issued by the European Council, many children and adolescents do not necessarily have the opportunity to discuss such issues (Kerr & Huddelstone, 2015). As addressed in Article I, teaching about sexual violence that targets children and adolescents may appear controversial in school in the sense that not all teachers agree and feel that these issues should be addressed. As illustrated later in Section 4.1.4 on students' agonistic emotions, incidents of peer sexual victimization among students can be controversial, emotional and sensitive in cases where the different parties have different views of what has occurred and there are processes of victim-blaming in play.

Regarding elements of good practice when addressing controversial issues in the classroom, Sætra (2020) finds that a constructive learning environment has three core elements: (1) good social relationships, (2) appropriate norms for social interaction and (3) skilful facilitation. By building on the pedagogy of recognition (see Chapter 5), I expand on Sætra's (2020) contribution by asserting that the teacher-student relations should not only be good but also that these relations should be founded in love and care for the students.

Based on observations in school and teacher interviews, Andresen (2020) examines the organizational factors influencing teaching practice on controversial issues in Norwegian classrooms, identifying teachers' perceptions of being in lack of time as one constraint for opening up for controversial issues. This focus of examining factors on a system-level resonates with my study and my Bronfenbrenner-inspired model that I include in Article I and II, and elaborate on in more detail in Chapter 5.

4.1.3 Teachers' strategies for dealing with controversial, emotional and sensitive issues

Recent Norwegian studies have explored teachers' strategies for dealing with controversial, emotional and sensitive issues in the classroom (Frøvik, Torstensen, & Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2022; Trysnes & Skjølberg, 2022a). Based on teacher interviews exploring how they deal with hate speech and extreme utterances, Trysnes and Skjølberg (2022a) categorize five strategies teachers draw upon in their everyday practice:

the *hesitator* [konfliktvegreren], the *provocateur* [provokatøren], the *debate-leader* [debattlederen], the *relational* [den forståelsesfulle] and the *bridging-strategy* [brobyggeren]. Drawing upon auto-ethnographic considerations of own teaching experiences related to pornography, Frøvik et al. (2022) present the *critical* strategy, emphasizing how the teacher can enable students to deal with issues of power and domination, both in interpersonal relations and a broader societal context looking into human trafficking as part of this industry.

Some of these strategies are of great relevance to my study. Trysnes and Skjølberg's (2022a) account of the *hesitator* who avoids getting into conflicts is a prevalent strategy that I also find in my empirical material. In Article I, I see that there is a particular reluctance to address child sexual abuse and rape among young peers, which could be understood as a strategy for avoiding becoming part of the agonistic dimensions of students' life-worlds. Another strategy of great relevance is that of the *critical*: In Article I, I discuss how teaching about child sexual abuse must include an account of how asymmetrical relations of power form part of the abusive situation. Addressing negative emotions accompanying one's experience of disrespect, such as shame and guilt, also forms part of this critical teaching strategy that aims to empower students. The *relational* strategy is a common feature in the studies addressed in this paper (Frøvik et al., 2022; Trysnes & Skjølberg, 2022a), and one dimension of this strategy entails an emphasis on teachers' care for their students. Teachers' care and interest in students' life-worlds are given great importance in my dissertation. Still, care can be a double-edged sword, which I return to in more detail in Chapter 8. These strategies are not mutually exclusive, can overlap and be combined.

4.1.4 Addressing young learners' agonistic emotions

Recent empirical studies from the Nordic region have looked into the role of emotions in social science education (Blennow, 2018, Børhaug & Borgund, 2018; Jore, 2022; Sætra, 2021). The most relevant emotions in this regard are fear and anger: whereas Sætra (2021), among other aspects, investigates pupils' fear of offending someone during a discussion, Jore (2022) explores how fear for the "other" is expressed in

students' understanding of terrorism. In my Articles I and III, I engage with how fear and shame might form part of young human beings' experiences of being "othered".

In Børhaug and Borgund's (2018, p. 110) study, which is based on interviews with 26 students at one Norwegian upper secondary school, the researchers point out that these students were motivated by learning about issues that concern them directly, invoke emotions and involve ethical considerations, such as sex, sexual harassment, circumcision of boys and girls and sexual and romantic relations. Their results coincide with the study I conducted among social science students (N = 111) concerning how they would like to learn more about peer sexual harassment and abuse, as discussed in Article III. One of the informants in Børhaug and Borgund's (2018) study states that:

> Tuesday, and then a guy said that sometimes girls say they have been raped when in reality they just regret having had sex. Then I got so mad! As did many others in the class. So then I discussed for a long time. (p. 110).

Børhaug and Borgund (2018) highlight the role of emotions as an important dimension of learning. However, there is great untapped potential here regarding analysing this quote in terms of othering processes in school, the girls' anger as fuel for discussing and fighting back when experiencing disrespect and the role of the teacher in such situations.

This takes us to Sætra's (2021) study on the role of emotions when discussing controversial issues in class based on interviews with 11 teachers and 26 students in social science education at several upper secondary schools in Norway. Sætra (2021, p. 6) refers to his informants' perspectives on how students and teachers seem to agree that emotions need to be controlled and that one should have self-control and not let emotions take over or be aggressive. From my perspective, it is worth noting that this focus on "keeping things civil" during classroom discussions can be oppressive – imagine if the girl in the quote above was asked "to behave". Sætra's informants are not discussing that particular situation, however, my point is that teachers' potential need to be in control might reinforce the already existing power imbalance in the classroom (Gressgård & Harlap, 2015). I complement Sætra's (2021) work by exploring how intersecting axes of differentiation, such as gender, age and power, might play into both

teachers' and students' emotions, especially when experiencing being subjected to othering processes. This takes us to the next section concerning empirical studies on sexualized othering processes in and outside of school. I use the term other and othering processes in the same sense as Kumashiro (2002), referring to processes in which groups are "traditionally marginalized, denigrated or violated (i.e. Othered) in society" (p. 32).

4.2 Sexualized othering processes in school

Countering the stereotypical notion that children and adolescents are mostly sexually violated by adults, American researchers Gewirtz-Meydan and Finkelhor (2020) addressed the increasing trend of peer sexual victimization, referring to how adolescents sexually victimize other adolescents. In a study conducted among American adolescents (N=1,086), the informants reported that school was the most common location of peer sexual victimization (Young, Grey & Boyd, 2009). Over the last two decades, several studies in the Nordic region have explored teachers' and students' perceptions of sexualized othering processes in school (Draugedalen, 2020; Draugedalen, Kleive, & Grov, 2021; Gådin & Stein, 2019; Witkowska & Gådin, 2005; Witkowska & Kjellberg, 2005; Witkowska & Menckel, 2005).

In Norwegian primary schools, publications on teachers' responses to sexually harmful behaviour are of relevance, both concerning the thematic focus and the methodological considerations discussed in regards to conducting research that explores children's conditions at school, experiences of unwanted sexual attention and teachers' responses to such experiences (Draugedalen, 2020; Draugedalen et al., 2021). In this, study, teachers express a sense of guilt over having little knowledge about what constitutes sexually harmful behaviour in children and that they portray great concern for potentially having ignored or not seen children's experiences of unwanted sexual attention (Draugedalen et al., 2021). Teachers' sense of guilt has also been present in my study throughout the data collection. As part of the discussion in Chapter 8, I elaborate on how I have sought to alleviate my informants' sense of guilt, which is one of my study's ethical contributions.

In Sweden, Witkowska and Menckel (2005) conducted a survey on perceptions of sexual harassment in high schools among 17- and 18-year-old girls (N = 540). The results showed that 49% of the female students regarded sexual harassment as a problem in their schools. Verbal harassment, such as demeaning comments about gender and sexuality, sexualized conversations, attractiveness ratings and sexual comments, was among the most frequently reported types of harassment. Such experiences were reported by over 50% (56%–77%) of the girls (Witkowska & Menckel, 2005, p. 80). I address young students' perceptions of harassment as a problem in school in Article III.

Gådin and Stein (2019) discuss whether schools normalize sexual harassment based on a legal case in upper secondary school in Sweden. The 18-year-old girl, Kate, had experienced severe sexual harassment from one of her male peers, and she had notified her teachers and school principal several times without much action being taken. The offender, Harry, commented on her body in sexualized ways and asked for inappropriate sexual favours (Gådin & Stein, 2019, p. 923). These experiences were reported by Kate's boyfriend to the Ombudsperson for Discrimination (DO) in Sweden, who took the case to court. Gådin and Stein (2019) analyse the responses from the school personnel of Kate's report on harassment. Their analysis portrays interesting findings regarding organizational processes that enable such misbehaviour to continue. There was a lack of a systematic action plan in cases of sexual harassment, and the school management shifted the responsibility for the sexual harassment from the school and perpetrator to the victim. These processes of victim-blaming, trivializing experiences of harassment and ignorance led to the normalization of sexual harassment in that school. Such processes constitute challenges for the recognition of young learners' human dignity. In sum, the DO won the case and the verdict declared that the municipality had to compensate Kate financially for the discrimination she had suffered. The school had not acted according to the law concerning taking action when the staff was informed of the discrimination (Gådin & Stein, 2019, p. 924). This case is extraordinary in many ways; in most cases, students have passive coping strategies, such as ignoring misbehaviour, walking away without pushing back or using humour (Trysnes et al., 2022). Kate's case provides hope for change. Justice might be served after all, but it requires that young students know their rights and the legal pathways to take when

facing violations of their rights (Osler, 2016; Lundy & Sainz, 2018). However, there is a difference between *knowing* one's rights and *claiming* them, as there might be emotional obstacles and asymmetrical power relations in play (Draugedalen & Osler, 2022). This brings us to the next section on studies concerning human rights education.

4.3 Teachers and human rights education

Children's rights in education and HRE have increasingly gained attention in the Nordic region (Hidle, 2021; Lile, 2011, 2019a, 2019b, 2021; Osler & Skarra, 2021; Osler & Solhaug, 2018; Quennerstedt et al., 2020; Vesterdal, 2016, 2019). Lile's (2011) doctoral dissertation examined the aims of education as enshrined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child art. 29 by focusing on the discrepancies between what children should learn about the Sami people based on a legal analysis of the Convention and what they actually learn in school based on interviews with students and teachers at schools in Norway. Lile's (2011) study concluded that teaching practice does not comply with Norway's legal obligations. Lile (2019a) also discusses the realization of human rights education in Norway, contending that the implementation could be compared with a fine-looking Ferrari without an engine; Norway has a human rights image, but there are few state efforts to ensure human rights education in practice.

Vesterdal (2016) conducted a qualitative study based on an analysis of Norwegian policy documents and in-depth interviews with social science teachers to understand approaches to human rights education. One of the main findings concerns how human rights violations are primarily seen as a problem outside national borders – presenting harmonic Norway in contrast to foreign countries. This harmonic image of Norway as a country championing for human rights is part of the Norwegian national identity (Vesterdal, 2019).

In a comparative study of curriculum documents in Australia, England and Sweden, the educational researchers Robinson, Phillips and Quennerstedt (2020) examined the responsibilities placed on teachers to educate pupils about human rights. Their analysis portrays national differences; the English curriculum documents place less emphasis on teachers' HRE responsibilities compared with Australian and Swedish

curriculum documents, especially regarding responsibilities related to the transmission of knowledge and values and, to some extent, teachers' responsibilities concerning agency and action (Robinson et al., 2020, p. 236).

Osler and Skarra (2021) discuss whether the human rights discourse in Norwegian educational policy is sufficient based on document analysis, complementing this analysis with teacher interviews. They found that rights-related teaching is dependent on personal interests and conditioned by teachers' limited legal literacy (Osler and Skarra, 2021, p. 206). They affirm that this knowledge gap should be addressed by ensuring a stronger focus on human rights knowledge and legal literacy in teacher education programs (Osler & Skarra, 2021). Hidle (2021) analysed the curriculum for kindergarten and found that human rights education is ensured in this document. Comparing Osler and Skarra (2021) and Hidle's studies (2021), the curriculum plan for kindergarten appears to be somewhat better developed than the curriculum for schooling. It is worth noting, however, that curriculum plans do not necessarily cohere with practice, as policy as written and policy as performed might differ greatly (Lipsky, 2010).

Draugedalen and Osler (2022) call for integrating both the cognitive and emotional dimensions of teaching when addressing teachers as children's human rights defenders. They affirm the importance of taking into consideration how power relations and negative emotions might hinder children's process of voicing experiences of violations concerning child sexual abuse. Finnish educational researcher Pyy (2021) discusses the role of emotions in human rights education, building on Martha Nussbaum's perspectives of narrative imagination, which is also part of my theoretical discussion in Article I when addressing how teachers could address child sexual abuse in the classroom.

Lile's (2011) work on the aims of education and the discrepancies between what children have the right to learn and what they actually learn resonates with my study concerning how teachers' practice does not necessarily comply with the CRC. Vesterdal's (2016) study is also relevant in the sense that there appears to be little educational space for acknowledging that children in Norway face human rights

violations through harassment and abuse in their everyday lives. Teachers' limited legal literacy, as pointed out by Osler and Skarra (2021), is also an important finding in my study.

4.4 Postcolonial perspectives on comprehensive sexuality education and HRE

Postcolonial and feminist scholars have provided a critique of how textbooks in schools portray sexuality in the Nordic region (Honkasalo, 2018; Røthing & Svendsen, 2011; Svendsen, 2017). Critically addressing the effects of Nordic countries' national self-image as the beacon of gender equality and sexual liberation, Svendsen (2017, p.139) has pointed out how the history of imperialism and the continuation of its epistemology is central to comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) as it is currently practiced in the Nordic countries. In Røthing and Svendsen's study of how sexuality is linked to national identity, ethnicity, and cultural diversity in Norwegian social science textbooks, they find that Islam represents cultural difference and the problematic "other" (Røthing & Svendsen, 2011, p.1962). They draw attention to how these textbooks may produce "the problematic effect that tolerance towards homosexuality and support for gender equality as political positions become difficult to inhabit for non-white minority Norwegian students, while they are considered necessary for their acceptance as properly 'integrated' Norwegian citizens" (Røthing & Svendsen, 2011, p.1969). In a similar vein, Honkasalo (2018) finds that Finnish health education textbooks tend to portray Finnish sexual norms as superior to the sexual norms of "other cultures".

These studies inform my own study in the sense that I include feminist legal theory developed by women of colour such as Kimberlé Crenshaw (1989, 1991) when analyzing the empirical material, and I have done so with great precaution concerning avoiding the perpetuation of stereotypes. I also see a certain connection between the postcolonial critique of the Nordic countries' image of gender-equality and sexual liberation with Vesterdahl's study (2016, 2019) on HRE, finding that teachers often address human rights violations as phenomena outside of Norwegian borders, placing the problems with the "others". This could not only contribute to make human rights violations in Norway invisible, but also contribute to consolidate a divide between "us" and "them", which I believe is the contrary to the intention of HRE. Still, the concept of

universal human rights has been critizised for being a colonial project (Saghaye-Biria, 2018). However, there were non-Western women from across the world – including Minerva Bernardino from the Dominican Republic, Mehta Hansa from India and Begum Shaista Ikramullah from Pakistan, who challenged colonialism and racism through the lense of human rights, playing pivotal roles in the process of developing human rights documents such as the UDHR (Adami, 2016, 2021). Including these women's efforts when teaching about the development of human rights documents would be important steps towards epistemic justice in HRE (Adami, 2021). Adami contends that "the facets of dignity, equality and non-discrimination become meaningful if learners in different contexts feel addressed and included as rights-bearers in the historical and present-day narratives of human rights" (2021, p.7). This brings us to the next section that provides theoretical and empirical insight into children as rights-bearing subjects.

4.5 Children as right-bearing subjects

Quennerstedt, Thelander and Hägglund (2020, pp.29-35) look into three theoretical perspectives on the child; namely, the *competent*, the *growing* and the *vulnerable* right-bearing subject. In this dissertation, I draw upon this multi-faceted understanding of the child, taking into consideration that children can be agents in their own lives, they are constantly developing, and they are simultaneously vulnerable and dependent on the individuals in their environment (See Chapter 5 on the facilitating environment). Children's dependence on adults might place them in vulnerable positions. Quennerstedt et al address how the competent right-bearing subject should be understood

> As a person, who based on experiences of being a fellow human and citizen of its time, continuously learns to understand human rights and its complexity in relation to one's own and others' human worth. And who has the ability to act based on that (2022, p.30, my translation).

Children can learn to understand human rights and its complexity in relation to their own and others' human dignity. At the same time, *there is a difference between knowing one's rights and claiming them in practice*, as Draugedalen and Osler (2022) point out, and especially so when it comes to child sexual abuse that often involves

asymmetric power relations and emotional obstacles for disclosure (e.g Steine et al, 2017). Too much focus on the child as competent might underscore children's vulnerability. Still, we need to take into consideration that children have agency. In teaching practice, these three perspectives on the child as right-bearing subject could be combined. This would entail a teaching practice based on the combination of human rights knowledge and emotional support in learning processes about such topics, as the students must feel emotionally secure and trust in their teacher. It is the teachers' responsibility to earn this trust, and it is the adults' responsibility to ensure children's rights. I see Quennerstedt et al's perspectives (2020) on the growing child in relation to how children need love and care to develop, and this is closely linked to my theoretical chapter based on recognition theory and its implications for teaching practice (Honneth, 1995; Jordet, 2020).

4.6 Summarizing the review

This review has pointed to some dilemmas in the educational fields in which I situate my study. For example, Vesterdal's (2016) study portrays that when teachers choose which topics to link to human rights, they tend to emphasize human rights violations abroad rather than such violations in Norway. This is an example of how teachers might face the dilemma of addressing national or international human rights issues. Adami holds that learners in different contexts should be included as rights-bearers in the historical and present-day narratives of human rights (2021), which could pose another dilemma for teachers – should they address historical or present-day narratives of human rights? The best approach would probably be to find a balance between discussing both national and international human rights issues, both historical and present-day human rights issues relevant for children's everyday lives. Osler and Skarra (2021, p. 206) find that rights-related teaching is dependent on personal interests and conditioned by teachers' limited legal literacy. This points to another dilemma, which is related to the overall organization of teaching practice: How much autonomy should teachers have? Ensuring children's rights could entail finding a balance between teachers' autonomy and institutional support.

Based on this review and the preceding chapters of this dissertation, I would recommend that teachers build students' knowledge of and respect for children's rights as enshrined in the Convention of the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), enable their ability for critical thinking by creating an awareness of asymmetrical power relations and the role that negative emotions, such as fear and shame, might play in the aftermath of harassment and abuse. This approach, in combination with emotional support, could form the basis of good teaching practice in this field. The following Chapter 5 outlines my theoretical framework in which I critically engage with recognition theory founded in the concepts of love, rights and solidarity in combination with intersectional perspectives applied to educational purposes.

5. Theoretical framework: Critically engaging with recognition theory

In this chapter, I discuss the theoretical framework of my dissertation by drawing upon Honneth's (1995) critical theory of recognition, as outlined in his book *The Struggle for Recognition – The Moral Grammar of Social Conflicts* (Honneth, 1995). While acknowledging his theoretical contributions, I believe that his concepts of love and rights should be expanded when applied to pedagogical purposes. I complement his writings with the ideas of recognition put forth by Norwegian Professor of Education Jordet (2020) in his book *Anerkjennelse i skolen* [Recognition in school]. I combine recognition theory with intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1989, 1991; Osler, 2015).

Subsequently, I build upon the perspectives of the British political philosopher McNay (2008), as put forth in her book *Against Recognition,* to discuss how recognition theory does not adequately provide an analysis of power relations. I integrate McNay's (2008) critique concerning how such a theory fails to address gender oppression and discuss teachers' possibilities to grant recognition as an embodied and relational practice based on her Bourdieusian readings. I link McNay's (2008) considerations to my Bronfenbrenner-inspired model concerning the organization of teaching practice at a micro-, meso-, macro- and supra-level.

The concept of cultural taboo, shame and fear-related feelings could work as obstacles for both granting and seeking recognition, which I believe is an underdeveloped dimension of Honneth's (1995) work. Therefore, I address the importance of emotionally secure teacher–student relations and the concept of epistemic trust to empower young learners to overcome shame- and fear-related feelings in regard to their own potential experiences of disrespect. There is great potential in democratic dialogues anchored in teachers' love for their students, respect for their rights and a sense of solidarity based on a common concern and interest in students' well-being and dignity.

My project is grounded in critical theory in the sense that I investigate how social reality and, in particular, teaching practice are perceived by teachers and young learners as social actors. I investigate human beings' possibilities for freedom and self-realization in the context of teaching and learning about sexual harassment and abuse,

and I provide a critique of practices that I contend may contribute to reproducing violence and oppression. As we will see in Chapter 6, I continuously communicate my research findings beyond the academic realm, hoping that my research could contribute to improving social conditions.

5.1 Introducing Honneth's theory of recognition

Professor of philosophy, Axel Honneth, forms part of the third generation of critical theorists from the Frankfurt School in Germany that came into being at the end of the 1920s, succeeding, among others, Horkheimer, Adorno and Habermas (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018). Honneth emphasizes agonistic[2] aspects of social conflicts and is known for his contribution to the importance of social recognition (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018, p. 192). I now turn to Honneth's considerations of three patterns of intersubjective recognition: love, rights and solidarity.

5.1.1 Love

The point of departure for Honneth (1995) is that human beings develop practical relations to the self through one's relations to others:

> The reproduction of social life is governed by the imperative of mutual recognition, because one can develop a practical relation-to-self only when one has learned to view oneself, from the normative perspective of one's partner in interaction, as their social addressee. (p. 92)

Honneth (1995) starts in childhood and writes about the importance of children's socialization processes in the family, especially focusing on the relationship between mother and child.[3] A child who experiences love from his or her mother develops basic self-confidence related to his or her own belief in the ability to voice needs and feelings and to have these needs and feelings met by the caregiver. This emotional confidence

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[2] The etymological origin of the term agonist is Greek and refers to " one who struggles" (Nilstun, 2018, my translation). Thus, I understand the adjective agonistic as describing characteristics of struggles or persons who struggle for recognition.

based on the intersubjective experience of love is a "psychological precondition for the development of all further attitudes of self-respect" (Honneth, 1995, p. 107). Love is considered a relationship of reciprocal recognition, in which both subjects view the other as an independent person. Honneth (1995) associates the concept of love with primary relationships and contends that "love relations are to be understood here as referring to primary relationships insofar as they – on the model of friendship, parent-child relationships, as well as erotic relationships between lovers – are constituted by strong emotional attachment among a small number of people" (p. 95). Honneth (1995) contends that every loving relationship presupposes liking and attraction, which he considers to be out of an individual's control (p. 107). He further elaborates that since positive feelings about other people are not matters of choice, the loving relationship cannot be extended at will beyond primary relations to cover a large number of partners to interaction (Honneth, 1995, p. 107); his perspective appears to be that love is about naturally given feelings that we cannot influence.

From my perspective, such an understanding of love is too narrow, and I coincide with Jordet (2020), regarding how this concept could be expanded. Jordet (2020) writes about how love in the teaching profession involves two essential components: firstly, it comprises an attitude towards all learners as equal subjects with their own needs, feelings and wishes, and secondly, it entails an action component anchored in doing what is in the young learners' best interest in everyday practice (Jordet, 2020). This understanding of love challenges the Honnethian view in the sense that relations anchored in love and care are not necessarily limited to a small number of people. Thus, the relationship between mother and child based on love and care can be extended to the teacher–student relationship, although the relationship between mother and child most likely constitutes a stronger emotional bond. From my perspective, caring about one's students is an essential part of the teaching profession that teachers can choose to fulfil – it is a matter of choice. It could also be considered an ethical obligation. In this sense, portraying love and care for one's students is not necessarily about having warm feelings. Thus, I discard the Honnethian perspective on love as limited to primary relations with strong emotional bonds and coincide with the more widened conceptual idea of love in the teaching profession as consisting of both an attitude and an action

component, as put forth by Jordet (2020). I do not detach the emotional dimension from the concept of love; rather, I contend that love in the teaching profession does not presuppose deep emotional bonds.

5.1.2 Rights and legal recognition

Honneth's (1995) second pattern of reciprocal recognition is that of rights and legal recognition. Honneth (1995) affirms that "we can only understand ourselves as the bearers of rights when we know, in turn, what various normative obligations we must keep vis-à-vis others" (p. 108). Whereas the experience of love is associated with developing self-confidence, the experience of legal recognition is associated with developing self-respect. Honneth (1995) holds forth that "adult subjects acquire, via the experience of legal recognition, the possibility of seeing their actions as the universally respected expression of their autonomy" (p. 118). Love generates the psychological foundation for trusting one's own sense of one's needs and urges, while legal recognition "gives rise to the form of consciousness in which one is able to respect oneself because one deserves the respect of everyone else" (Honneth, 1995, p. 119). In Honneth's (1995) reasoning here, we see a shift from addressing love and children to addressing adults and rights, implying that those bearers of rights are adults and not children. This is a problematic view, especially given that the CRC was adopted by the General Assembly in 1989 – six years upon publication of Honneth's (1995) book.

Jordet (2020), on the other hand, makes the link between children as bearers of rights and the CRC with explicit references to article 3 concerning that in all actions regarding children, the child's best interest shall be safeguarded and article 12 on the children's right to be heard in matters that affect their lives in school. The principles of children's right to participation and children's best interests were included in the Norwegian Constitution in 2014, as addressed in Chapter 2. The overarching part of the curriculum has an emphasis on "how the education and training given must comply with human rights, and the pupils must also acquire knowledge about these rights" (The Norwegian Ministry of Education & Research, 2017). In addition, as also mentioned in Chapter 2, one of the purposes of social science education in the new curriculum renewal

is to develop students' respect for human rights (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019).

Honneth's (1995) emphasis on right-bearing adults does not resonate with legal developments regarding children's rights or important policy documents in Norwegian schools. Nevertheless, Honneth's (1995) considerations of recognition as rights could be transferred to the context of children and schooling, which is of great relevance in my dissertation. To provide a conceptualization of children's rights, I draw upon the Lundy model. Article 12 of the UNCRC concerns children's rights to form their own views and express them freely. Lundy (2007) critiques the concept of "pupils' voice" in educational settings, stating that article 12 requires more than enabling children's voice if it is to be implemented fully. The Lundy model looks at four dimensions that should be integrated into educational settings:

- Space: Children must be given the opportunity to express a view
- Voice: Children must be facilitated to express their views
- Audience: The view must be listened to
- Influence: The view must be acted upon, as appropriate (Lundy, 2007, p. 933)

Inspired by Lundy's model, I contend that prevention of unwanted sexual acts and protection of children and youth concerns creating an educational space in which children get the opportunity to participate and express their views or experiences of violations of their rights, that they are facilitated to express themselves to a trusted adult and that their expressions are actively listened to and acted upon. This resonates with Osler and Solhaug's (2018) considerations on how "children cannot be protected from abuse and their bodily integrity ensured, if we do not guarantee their right to participate, and especially their rights to be heard" (p. 284).

5.1.3 Solidarity

Returning to Honneth (1995), the third and last pattern of reciprocal recognition is solidarity. In addition to affectionate care and legal recognition, human subjects need a sense of "social esteem that allows them to relate positively to their traits and abilities"

(Honneth, 1995, p. 121). The experience of solidarity is associated with the development of a person's self-esteem. Honneth (1995, p. 122) elaborates that solidarity is a form of mutual recognition in which members of a society share common values. For teachers, the overarching part of the curriculum could be considered an essential document aimed at establishing a "teaching community" based on values (Norwegian Ministry of Education & Research, 2017). As outlined in the introductory section, according to this document, promoting young learners' human dignity is an essential value in schools. The concept of solidarity is mentioned several times in this overarching part and is, together with love [nestekjærlighet], considered to be necessary for "the growth and development of human beings" (Norwegian Ministry of Education & Research, 2017). As such, I see a direct link between recognition theory and this value platform for schooling. However, as we will see later, my empirical material indicates that there might be a discrepancy between theory and practice in Norwegian schools.

There is one idea in Honneth's (1995) considerations of solidarity that is of special relevance in this dissertation. Honneth (1995, p. 94) presents the idea of *Sachgemeinschaft* – a community of shared concern. With regard to my project, young learners' experiences of harassment and abuse should be of concern to teachers, and ideally, they should have a common interest in young learners' well-being. Teachers could encourage their students to voice their experiences of disrespect and misrecognition of their human dignity and stand with them when they do. This is what I consider to constitute solidarity in the teaching profession, inspired by the idea of *Sachgemeinschaft*.

In sum, recognition as love is linked to the emotional dimensions of teaching, whereas recognition as a right is related to more cognitive aspects (Jordet, 2020). In my perspective, portraying solidarity in the teaching profession constitutes a combination of both the emotional and cognitive dimensions in the sense that sharing someone's concern requires opening your heart to feel empathy while simultaneously respecting the young learner's fundamental rights, listening to his or her voice and taking action to empower that voice. This brings us to Honneth's (1995) considerations of experiences of disrespect and how this relates to a struggle for recognition.

5.2 Experiences of disrespect, negative emotions and the struggle for recognition

Honneth (1995) defines disrespect [Mißachtung] as the "specific vulnerability of humans resulting from the internal interdependence of individualization and recognition" and discusses how various forms of disrespect entail being denied recognition (p. 131). He poses a question that he considers that neither Hegel nor Mead were able to answer, namely: "How is that the experience of disrespect is anchored in the affective life of human subjects in such a way that it can provide the motivational impetus for social resistance and conflict, indeed, for a struggle for recognition?" (Honneth, 1995, p. 132). He starts out answering this question by addressing the type of disrespect that affects an individual's physical integrity in which "a person is forcibly deprived of any opportunity to freely dispose over his or her body", which he exemplifies by torture and rape (Honneth, 1995, p. 132). He holds forth that such experiences can destroy the most fundamental form of practical relation to the self (learned through love), which is one's underlying trust and self-confidence in oneself (Honneth, 1995). The second form of disrespect involves being "structurally excluded from the possession of certain rights within a society", which can destroy a person's self-respect and one's ability to relate to oneself as a "legally equal interaction partner with all fellow humans" (Honneth, 1995, p. 133–134). The third and last form of disrespect involves the experience of social devaluation of individual or collective ways of life that "brings with it a loss of personal self-esteem" (Honneth, 1995, p. 134).

Honneth (1995) finally answers his question by arguing that "the experience of disrespect could represent precisely the affective motivational basis in which the struggle for recognition is anchored" (p. 135). My questions, which I believe Honneth fails to answer, are as follows: How can we understand that individuals who experience the most degrading forms of disrespect, such as rape, choose not to voice their experiences but rather struggle in silence? How can we grasp the complexity of understanding why it takes, on average, 17 years before a human being who has experienced child sexual abuse tells anyone about this experience? (Steine et al., 2017). Experiences of disrespect, such as abuse, may be accompanied by feelings of shame and fear (Steine et al., 2017). Such feelings are linked to the concept of cultural taboos. This taboo could be defined as a cultural phenomenon that includes a social prohibition on

making visible or telling others about unwanted sexual experiences, such as harassment or child sexual abuse (Søftestad, 2008). This forms part of the cultural norms regarding which issues one could openly address and which issues one should not address in social interactions. This points to another dimension of Honneth's (1995) theoretical framework that I consider underdeveloped: Honneth (1995) does not fully take into consideration how *shame- and fear-related feelings may inhibit a person's struggle for recognition*, and it might especially do so when that person is a *child or adolescent who is trapped in an asymmetrical relation of power*. There are asymmetrical relations of power in play when children and adolescents experience harassment and abuse by either older adolescents or adults, as well as asymmetrical relations of power between teachers and learners regarding the power teachers possess to grant, or fail to grant, recognition to learners by acknowledging their experiences of disrespect. This leads us to the concept of intersectionality.

5.3 Intersectionality

Honneth (1995) affirms that experiences of disrespect, such as abuse and rape, are detrimental to one's development as a person and one's practical relations to the self (pp. 131–139). However, there is a need to complement his theory with intersectionality, as there are two "elephants" in the room in his writings: 1) Are there some groups of people who experience harassment, abuse and rape to a greater extent than others? and 2) Are some human beings' experience of disrespect acknowledged to a lesser extent than other human beings?

These questions lead us to the writings of Crenshaw (1989), who is an American lawyer who coined the term 'intersectionality', which has become a key concept within Black feminist legal theory. Intersectionality helps us understand "'how categories of race, class and gender are intertwined and mutually constitutive, giving centrality to questions like how race is 'gendered' and how gender is 'racialized'" (Davis, 2008, p. 71). Crenshaw (1989) focuses on women of colour's experiences of disrespect, arguing that examining neither race nor gender is insufficient; rather, she suggests looking into the intersection of both *race* and *gender*. Crenshaw (1989) considers how women of

colour experience sexual discrimination and sexual violence differently from White women. This claim is exemplified by outlining how it historically has been unthinkable that a White male be convicted for having raped a woman of colour (Crenshaw, 1989, p. 159). Crenshaw (1989) critically addresses how the difference is found in the degree of legal recognition: White women's experience of violence has judicially been more recognised than that of women of colour. As I address in Article III, Osler (2015) applies the concept of intersectionality to the educational context to shed light on how multiple axes of differentiation may influence young learners' experience of justice/injustice in school (Osler, 2015).

To answer my first question regarding whether there are some groups of people who experience harassment and abuse to a greater extent than others, there are clear gender differences, and Honneth's (1995) theoretical framework does not include considerations of gender or social class, which I consider as another limitation of his work. As I address in Article I, more girls than boys experience unwanted physical violations of the body (Mossige & Stefansen, 2016; Myhre et al., 2015). In Article III, I refer to how especially girls, sexual minority youth and transgender youth experience harassment (Landstedt & Gådin, 2011; Williams, Connolly, Pepler, & Craig, 2005). In a recent study conducted among children and adolescents (N = 13,052) on features of sexual abuse in the United States, the analyses indicated that "sexually abused children were more likely female, Black (non-Hispanic), of low socioeconomic status, and residing in a large city" (Gewirtz-Meydan & Finkelhor, 2020, p. 207). This illustrates how various axes of differentiation might intersect and condition young people's vulnerability. In a similar vein, Quennerstedt et al. (2020, p. 25) reflect on how children constitute an intersectional category in the sense that age interacts with factors such as gender, ethnicity and socioeconomic background.

This brings us to my second question regarding whether there could be some groups of people whose experience of disrespect is acknowledged to a lesser extent than others. We see that Crenshaw's (1989) perspective could also be extended to include various axes of differentiation, such as *age.* This is an essential factor in the discussion of the empirical material in this dissertation. It could be that adults' experiences of

disrespect are recognized to a greater extent than those of children and adolescents. As such, *being a child* combined with other axes of differentiation could condition the extent to which one's experience of disrespect is acknowledged.

To disrespect another human being through harassment and abuse could be considered a subordination technique (Sletteland & Helseth, 2018), which involves a kind of social domination. This brings us to McNay's (2008) critique of how the nature of social domination and power relations are underplayed in recognition theory.

5.4 McNay's Bourdieusian readings on habitus, practice and gender

McNay (2008) argues that insights from thinkers of recognition "are not sufficiently embedded in a sociological understanding of power relations" (p. 3). The nature of social domination is underplayed by "the disconnection of an understanding of subject formation from an analysis of power relations, with the consequence that the idea of recognition fails to grasp some important dimensions to the reproduction of social inequalities" (McNay, 2008, p. 8). She exemplifies her claim by arguing that gender oppression must not only be understood as a form of interpersonally engendered misrecognition but also as a systemically generated one (McNay, 2008). McNay (2008) holds forth that there are structural dynamics of power "which often operate at one remove [remote] from the immediate relations of everyday life", which the idea of recognition does not capture (p. 9). To address this limitation in recognition theory, McNay (2008) draws on Bourdieu's (1990) writings and his concepts of habitus and practice.

Bourdieu's (1990, p. 53) concept of habitus can be understood as the embodiment of "structuring structures" that, once internalized, become predispositions that condition our practice. McNay (2008) eloquently addresses how "habitus denotes a process through which power relations are incorporated into the body in the form of durable physical and psychological predispositions" (p. 12). McNay (2008, p. 11) argues that Bourdieu's (1990) concept of habitus provides a notion of embodied subjectivity that is located within a sociological account of power, which allows us to see how *subject formation cannot be defined apart from relations of power*. She holds forth that the

intrinsic "connection between subjectivity and power delivers a firmer grounding for understanding aspects of *embodied agency in the context of the construction of social inequalities*, especially gender" (McNay, 2008, p. 11) (emphasis added). The way I understand McNay's (2008) reasoning here is that gender is part of an individual's habitus, which, to a certain extent, is conditioned by the social structures under which it is shaped. This provides an account of how social structures contribute to shaping one's gendered practices, which differ from actor-oriented theories of gender. McNay (2008) considers how:

> Habitus understand emotions as engendered through the complex of embodied tendencies, intentional relations with the world and social structures. This disrupts the tendency to explain agency through a naturalized set of emotional dispositions (recognition) or a single of dimension of embodied identity (sexuality). (p. 16).

McNay (2008) offers essential insight into the question I posed in the previous section on experiences of disrespect and struggle for recognition: How could it be that human beings who experience harassment and abuse choose not to voice their experience but rather struggle in silence? If we follow Bourdieu (1990) and McNay's (2008) reasoning on how habitus is constructed through the embodiment of power relations and social structures, we also open up a space for understanding how cultural norms can become embodied in the same process. As previously mentioned, the cultural taboo forms part of society's cultural norms, and these norms may influence our emotions. Honneth (1995) considers how negative emotions may fuel a struggle for recognition and fails to grasp how *emotions can also inhibit action*. Shame- and fear-related feelings may work as obstacles to exerting agency when one experiences forms of disrespect, such as harassment and abuse. The embodiment of the cultural taboo may inform practice.

Practice is understood as "the pre-reflexive living through of embodied dispositions which are the result of the incorporation of the latent tendencies of the world into the body" (McNay, 2008, p. 14). My Bronfenbrenner-inspired (model 4.5) portrays

the organization of teaching practice and integrates the educational fields in which I situate my study, placing teaching practice at the heart of the model:
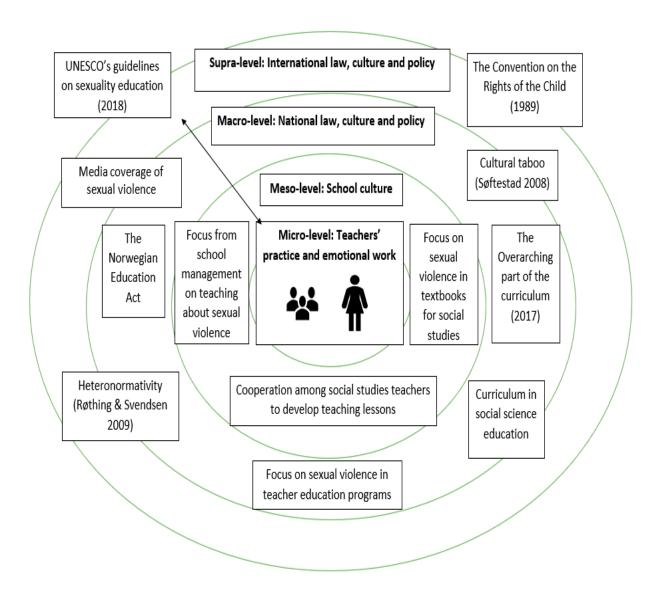
Figure 4.5. Published in Articles I and II

Understanding practice as embodied opens up for understanding how different teachers, in different bodies at different ages, differ in teaching practice – as this practice develops in tune with how teachers embody "the latent tendencies of the world" (e.g McNay, 2008, p. 14).

McNay (2008) addresses how it might seem curious to choose Bourdieu's (1990) habitus as a counterpoint to theories of recognition due to the criticism that has been

made of "the determinist tendencies of his thought" (p. 11). Yet, I coincide with McNay (2008) instead of his critics on the point that habitus is not necessarily a determinist category but rather a generative one in the sense that habitus might react upon the field and alter it, and this way, it transforms the field(s) in which it was shaped (McNay, 2008, pp. 12–13).

5.5 Nussbaumian considerations of shame- and fear-related feelings

Alleviating shame- and fear-related feelings should be part of the teaching practice concerning harassment and abuse. American philosopher Nussbaum (2018) turns to Ancient Greece to explore what fear is, referring to how Aristotle defined fear as "pain at the seeming presence of some impending bad thing, combined with a feeling that you are powerless to ward it off" (p. 24). Nussbaum (2018) contends that "overcoming fear – to the extent we ever can – is a relational matter" (p. 35). She is inspired by psychiatrist Donald Winnicott's concept of the *facilitating environment,* which constitutes the conditions children need to overcome fear to grow and flourish. Like Honneth (1995), Winnicott considers that the role of the family and loving parent–child relations are essential for enabling the child's emotional security (Nussbaum, 2018, p. 39). The family must provide a core of loving stability in which they unconditionally love the child, regardless of the child's behaviour. Through this experience of love, the development of the child's security and self-confidence enables a healthy reciprocity and the "democratic self is ready to be born" (Nussbaum, 2018, p. 34).

Nussbaum (2018) asks: How can a nation be, as a whole, a "facilitating environment" that allays fear and protects democratic reciprocity? (pp. 60–61). My concern has a narrower scope: How can the classroom, and school at large, be a "facilitating environment" that alleviates shame and fear in a way that contributes to human flourishing? This question requires that we transfer the parent–child relation to the teacher–student relation, and I do believe the concept of epistemic trust can provide additional insights. The child or adolescent needs a trustworthy person to create a space that alleviates shame- and fear-related feelings concerned with experiences of sexualized and disrespectful behaviour. Jordet (2020, pp. 204–206) draws upon the

concept of *epistemic trust* in the teacher–student relation as a prerequisite for children's learning. I understand this concept as a component of establishing emotionally secure teacher–student relations in which the students trust the knowledge the teacher represents and trust the teacher's interest in promoting their well-being. Epistemic trust should form the pedagogical foundation of a space in which the teacher can contribute to alleviating young learners' shame- and fear-related feelings and knowledge about rights, which could open up for young learners' empowerment. This could be achieved in democratic dialogues in which the teacher is genuinely interested in young learners' life-worlds.

I have pragmatically chosen multiple theories that complement each other, which I have found both necessary when navigating in extensive empirical material. My Bronfenbrenner-inspired model enabled me to keep an analytical focus on the system-level, and combining this model with Bourdieusian concepts has provided fruitful lenses for connecting societal structures and individuals to shed light on embodied teaching practice. When I first read Axel Honneth's theory of recognition, I instantly started thinking about how I could apply this theory to education. Approximately a year later, I found that someone had already done that piece of work, namely Arne Jordet (2020). As I worked my way through the first stages of engaging with Honnethian theory, I also saw in light of my own empirical material, that this theory had certain limitations concerning voicing experiences of disrespect. It is not necessarily as straightforward as Honneth (1995) implies concerning how experiences of disrespect could form the motivational basis for a struggle for recognition, perhaps especially not when there are asymmetrical relations of power are in play and you're a child forced to silence. Intersectional perspectives have opened up for a more nuanced look on what condition young individuals' struggle for recognition. Honneth's concept of love has great potential for schooling and could be expanded in the way Jordet suggests. Finally, Nussbaum and the facilitating environment has offered insight into the importance of relations and feeling secure to overcome fear, which has great transfer value to the classroom. Mixing both theory and methods has enabled deeper understanding of the multi-faceted phenomena of teaching and learning about sexual violence, which brings us to the next chapter on research methodology.

6. Research methodology

In recent years, researchers have applied a mixed methods approach to gain a deeper understanding of complex educational phenomena in Norway (Brevik, 2015, 2022; Brevik & Mathé, 2021; Burner & Biseth, 2016; Mathé, 2019). In this chapter, I discuss my mixed methods approach for exploring teachers' and young learners' experiences and perceptions of teaching practice concerning sensitive issues related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse. I provide an overview of the methodological design by focusing especially on the *integration* of sample, data and phases.

6.1 My approach to theory of science in mixed methods research

Mixed methods social inquiry entails "a plurality of philosophical paradigms, theoretical assumptions, methodological traditions, data gathering and analysis techniques", as well as "personalized understandings and value commitments" (Greene, 2007, p. 13). I have found it fruitful to draw upon the research paradigm of *dialectical pluralism* (DP), as this provides opportunities for *integrating* various realms of social inquiry (Johnson & Stefurak, 2013; Johnson, 2017). Johnson (2017) states that the characteristics of DP constitute an intertwined three-fold hermeneutical, dialectical and dialogical process. As for hermeneutical aspects, this paradigm entails interpreting and building on past interpretations in a continuous process. In a dialogical sense, it involves a "continual and equal dialogue and discussion" with research participants, and as for the dialectical dimension, the paradigm "uses back-and-forth disputation and examination", considering *integration* as a key requirement.

DP in *conducting* mixed methods has three major characteristics: 1) listen thoughtfully to different paradigms/worldviews, disciplines, theories, stakeholders and citizens; 2) the researchers' and stakeholders' values should guide the project and 3) this collaboration should be conducted with fairness and justice (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 41; Johnson & Stefurak, 2013, p. 38). I have listened carefully to teachers and students with fairness and without moral judgement. The following figure illustrates how I understand the relationship between DP and other relevant paradigms/worldviews for this project:
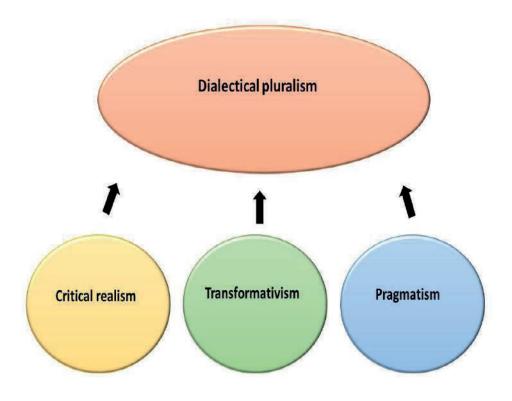
Figure 6.1 DP as the overarching philosophy of my research design

Like critical realists, I have been interested in finding patterns of social behaviour. I sought to map 64 social studies teachers' practices regarding addressing sensitive issues in upper secondary schools, as discussed in Articles I and II. I do not consider the teaching patterns I uncover as universal but "rather as contextual and emergent" in a society that is constantly changing (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018, p. 51). I share critical realists' ontological perspective of reality in the sense that I believe reality exists independently from researchers' ideas and descriptions of it (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018, p. 50). One example is that many children and adolescents experience harassment and abuse in their everyday lives, and this happens regardless of the researchers' knowledge of the scope of this violence. Critical realism has a radical vein: "What is important is not just to explain the world but also try to change it" (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018, p. 48). My ambition has not necessarily been to "change the world"; rather, it is to go beyond "just explaining" teaching practice by engaging in participatory research with both teachers and students. The aim of this research is based on ethical principles, such as contributing to social change for increased social justice and the

furtherance of human rights, which also resonate with transformativism (Mertens, 2007, 2010). Respect for cultural norms is also part of the transformative approach, but I do not fully adhere to this principle. Rather, I argue for taking a norm-critical standpoint by critically examining the cultural norms that may underpin injustice and how cultural norms may influence knowledge production in the classroom. This can be considered in tune with a social and relational epistemology founded on critical thinking in social science education (Lim, 2015).

Pragmatism has also been an influential philosophical branch of my project. Pragmatism is especially associated with mixed methods research (Creswell & Clark, 2018; Greene, 2007; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Johnson, 2017; Morgan, 2007), stemming from the American philosophers Peirce (1902) and Dewey (1938). The Greek word "pragma" means action, and pragmatism is characterized by emphasizing "human beings as agents and their practical relations to the world" (Delanty & Strydom, 2003, pp. 277–278). Dewey (1938) considers that social inquiry should start by taking into consideration *the nature of the problems* of social inquiry. The research questions guide the methods, not vice versa, and one chooses the best-suited method(s) to answer one's questions.

In sum, critical realism enabled me to dig deeper into the *challenges* of teaching about sensitive issues, whereas transformativism provided a useful lens for exploring the *possibilities* of enhancing such teaching practices to ensure that education promotes human rights and young learners' human dignity. Pragmatism opened up for letting practical problems guide the way for which methods I have applied. DP provided a philosophical umbrella to move in between these paradigms. I discuss how these perspectives are integrated into the analysis in Section 6.7. Paradigmatic mixing is one type of mixed methods legitimation, referring to "the extent to which the researcher's epistemological, ontological, axiological, methodological, and rhetorical beliefs that underlie the quantitative and qualitative approaches are successfully (a) combined or (b) blended into a usable package" (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006, p. 57). I consider that my paradigmatic mixing works well in answering the overarching research question in my project.

The researcher's reflexivity is key in knowledge production (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018). I draw upon normative theories, such as recognition theory, to discuss how we can improve educational practices. However, my study did not start out as normative in Phase 1 as I sought to identify patterns in teaching practice and factors influencing different teachers' practices without inferring any value-laden perspectives to the teacher informants. When findings from Phase 1 portrayed little emphasis on teaching practice related to harassment and abuse among the younger generation, I saw that there was potential for exploring how we can enhance such teaching practices by linking these issues to young learners' life-worlds, and explore how young students could actively participate in such teaching lessons. In this sense, Phase 2 has a normative dimension founded in the essential values of promoting human rights and human dignity – values that are expressed as guiding principles for education in the overarching part of the curriculum (Norwegian Ministry of Education & Research, 2017). Exploring ways of enhancing social practices is part of my approach to the theoretical foundation for science.

I acknowledge that there are potential drawbacks of having a normative and critical standpoint in research. One potential drawback is that such a standpoint could influence the researcher's gaze in a way that twist the interpretations of the empirical material, leading to the problem of bias. As addressed by Eriksen (2021), research that is openly value-based is neither more nor less ideological than research that claims value-neutrality. However, it is an important part of researcher's reflexivity to be aware of the potential bias this can cause and be open to the readers about standpoint. Throughout the research project, I have engaged with the empirical material with this awareness in mind, keeping an open mind to what the empirical material portrays. I have let the data surprise me and have not tried to twist my interpretations in any way.

6.2 The research design, integration and purposes for mixed methods

My study is based on a research design over two phases, as illustrated in table 6.2:

Table.6.2 Overview of the research design

	Phase 1: Telephone interviews with social science teachers	Phase 2: Participatory research with teachers and learners at one upper secondary school
Articles	Article I and Article II.	Article III.
Research questions	RQ1: To what extent are social science teachers reproducing or transforming the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse? RQ2: How can we understand the variation in teaching practice concerning sexual harassment and abuse based on social studies teachers' personal characteristics, school-culture related factors, curriculum content and media coverage of sexual violence?	RQ3: How can young learners be active participants in learning about sexual and gender-based harassment, and how do they experience such participation?
Main findings	- There is little focus on sexual violence targeting children and adolescents. - There is little cooperation among social science teachers on these topics. - An increase in cooperation is associated with an increase in the degree of teaching about these issues. - Teachers' personal characteristics and school culture influence teaching practice on sensitive issues; gender and age influence teaching practice; especially young female teachers address these sensitive matters the most.	- Students appreciate being able to influence the content of teaching lessons and being active participants. - The students wanted to know more about sexual harassment and sexual violence that affect their generation. - In everyday life, students rarely experience anyone intervening in harassing situations. - Findings across the two phases: School management influences the extent to which these issues are addressed in the classroom.

Research participants	64 social science teachers	2 teachers and students from one upper secondary school (teachers recruited from phase 1) 111 students were surveyed 43 students took part in teaching lessons 29 students were interviewed
Data sources	- The participants' answers to the fixed response alternatives were transferred to the computer program Stata. - Detailed notes of their reasoning were gathered in a notebook.	- Students' answers to a digital survey on which topics they would like to address in class - Field notes from the participatory research process - Interview material that was audio-recorded and transcribed
Analytical concepts	Emotions School culture Habitus	Pedagogy of recognition Intersectionality Legal literacy Cultural capital

The data were collected sequentially with some overlap: Phase 1 from February to October 2018, and Phase 2 spanned over the schoolyear 2018/2019 from August to June. The qualitative and quantitative traditions have equal status in my research design (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). I integrate quantitative and qualitative data in each phase, which makes it possible to compare information to better understand a social phenomenon (Brevik & Mathé, 2021; Creswell & Clark, 2018; Greene, 2007). In the following section, I present how I have integrated the sample, data and phases.

6.2.1 Sample integration

Sampling in mixed methods is complex since the sampling designs "must be chosen for both the qualitative and quantitative components" and "for the point(s) of interface between the qualitative and quantitative components" (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2017, p. 135). Sample integration refers to the relationship between qualitative and quantitative samples (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). Such integration might be illustrated in "a procedural diagram through the use of an arrow to highlight the point where it occurs" (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 300). I visualize this study's sample integration in and between phases by using arrows to demonstrate how this occurs in the following figure:
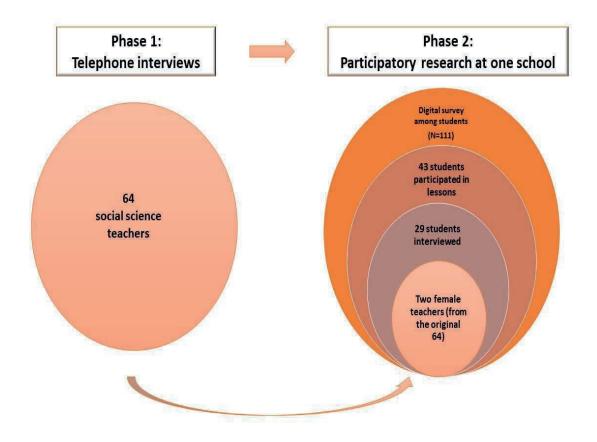
Figure 6.2.1. Sample integration across phases

Figure 6.2.1 visualizes how I integrated the same teacher informants throughout the phases of the research project, drawing upon both qualitative and quantitative research approaches to explore their perceptions and experiences. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007, 2017) discuss different sampling designs in mixed methods research and how sampling can increase inference quality (i.e. the quality of the conclusions drawn from the study). Based on their overview, I characterize my sampling design as *sequential* and *nested*: sequential in the sense that I first sampled the teachers and then subsequently their students, and nested because I have recruited individuals in one sample that are a subset of the individuals in the preceding sample. Figure 6.2.1 illustrates how the sampling process was *sequential* and *nested*. The relationship between the quantitative and qualitative samples may contribute to quality meta-inferences (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Meta-inferences refer to "integrative inferences or conclusions based on qualitative and quantitative data and findings" (Johnson & Christensen, 2017, p. 633), which I return to in the section on analysis.

The following model visualizes and summarizes how I integrated the quantitative and qualitative data into each phase:
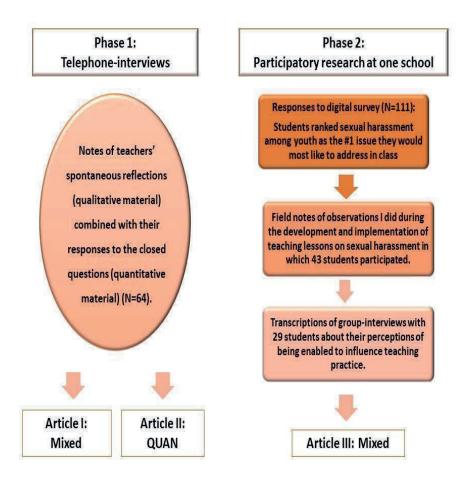
Figure 6.2.2. Data integration in each phase

In Phase 1, I collected both quantitative and qualitative data through telephone interviews. In Article I, I combined teachers' responses to a Likert-scale measuring their perceptions of teaching practice (quantitative) with my notes of teachers' spontaneous reasoning for why they answered the way they did (qualitative). This technique enabled me to better understand the quantitative components. Article II is primarily based on the quantitative material of the telephone interviews. However, I have included some reflections from the qualitative material for elaborating on how cooperation influence teachers' practice by addressing how a senior male teacher (56 – 65 years), who according to the linear predictions would not have a high average score on teaching

practice, actually was the informant with the highest average sore (3.07). He explained to me that they had a vivid cooperation at the school he was working at, and together with his teacher colleagues, they had developed a #MeToo-project with full endorsement from the school management (Article II, p. 174). This is one example of how the qualitative material enriched my understanding of the quantitative components.

In Phase 2, I combined the results from the digital survey among students (N = 111) concerning which topics they would like to learn more about in class with my field notes from the subsequent development and implementation of teaching lessons about sexual harassment among youth. This was combined with transcriptions of the group interviews with the students. This data integration is presented in Article III.

6.2.3 Phase Integration

The final dimension of integration is phase integration. In Phase 1, there were four findings that legitimated the participatory research in Phase 2, namely 1) teachers do not teach about issues related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse to any great extent, 2) especially issues related to sexual violence targeting children and adolescents are to a little extent addressed, 3) there is little cooperation among teachers concerning developing teaching lessons on these topics, but on a positive note, 4) when teachers do cooperate on developing lessons, this is related to an increase in teaching practice to the extent that it is highly statistically significant. These findings ignited the need to explore how such cooperation could enhance teaching practice in this field. Knowing from phase 1 that there is little emphasis on linking harassment and abuse to the younger generations' life-worlds, it became essential to also integrate this aspect into phase 2 in the sense that the teaching lessons we developed should be based on which related topics students expressed that they needed to learn more about, and their active participation in these lessons. We sought to include their active participation both before, during and after the implementation of the developed teaching lessons. As such, the main findings from Phase 1 became stepping stones to Phase 2.

6.2.4 Purposes for conducting mixed methods research

Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) and Greene (2007) have identified five purposes for conducting mixed methods, and here I present how four of these purposes; triangulation, development, initiation, and expansion play out in my study.

The first purpose for conducting mixed methods research is *triangulation*, which seeks correspondence and convergence of results from multiple methods. If the results are consistent, this may increase the credibility and trustworthiness of the results (Greene, 2007). In Article I, based on Phase 1, I triangulate the empirical material across the quantitative and qualitative traditions by using the qualitative components to better understand the quantitative elements. Additionally, I use teachers' reflections concerning how they are worried about re-traumatizing or stigmatizing students to understand why they teach about child sexual abuse and rape among young peers to such a small extent.

Development concerns how the results of one method are used to inform the development of the other method (Greene, 2007). This purpose is especially relevant for Article III based on Phase 2, in which I develop teaching lessons with teachers and students based on which issues the students would like to address in class (peer sexual harassment ranked #1). My observations of the implementation of lessons with 43 students formed an important background for the group interviews with 29 of these original 43 students. The purpose of *development* is considered to be coherent with a sequential sampling design (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007, p. 292).

The fourth purpose, *initiation,* refers to how different methods are implemented to assess various facets of the same complex phenomena. "It evokes paradox […] in the service of fresh insights, new perspectives, original understandings" (Greene, 2007, pp. 102–103). The intended result may be dissonance (in contrast to the purpose of triangulation, which seeks correspondence) (Greene, 2007). This purpose is present in my study in the sense that I wanted to listen to the students' voices concerning their perceptions of teaching practice. In Article III, I address how listening to their voices uncovered a paradox, namely that teachers report that they address at least the issues

that the students would most like to learn more about (sexual violence among youth). This is an essential meta-inference that integrates the findings across phases.

The fifth and last purpose is *expansion*, which expands the scope and range of the study by using different methods to assess different phenomena (Greene, 2007). Phase 2 can be considered expansion in the sense that this phase expanded the sample and method by observing and conducting group-interviews with student informants. This expansion widened my understanding of the challenges and possibilities for the recognition of young learners' human dignity by applying different methods.

This section concludes the overview of my research design, integration and purposes for conducting mixed methods research. In the following section, I present each phase in more detail.

6.3 Phase 1: Personal telephone-interviews

Here, I present the survey design and recruitment process for Phase 1, as well as how this phase informed the following phases. The survey is attached as Appendix II.

6.3.1 Designing the survey instrument

The survey design was inspired by my own experience as a social science teacher in upper secondary schools. Based on my informal observations of teachers while I was working as a teacher, my hypothesis was that teachers' gender and age play a role in what they address in the classroom. I also thought that school culture might be relevant. Therefore, I included several aspects of teachers' personal information in the survey, as well as aspects related to school culture. I also made use of my knowledge about the national curriculum in social science (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013) and the content of the most widely used social science textbooks. By drawing upon my "situated knowledge" as a former teacher to design the survey (Haraway, 1988), I made the survey such that it was culturally adapted to the Norwegian upper secondary school context. This resonates with the founding father of pragmatism, Charles S. Peirce, who considered that "research always starts from the actual situation we find ourselves in" (Johnson, de Wall, Stefurak, & Hildebrand, 2017,

p. 65). Moreover, a method cannot be separated "from the inquirer's assumptions about the world and about knowledge, the inquirer's theoretical predispositions, professional experience, and so forth" (Greene, 2007, p. 114). This quote eloquently illustrates how I understand the relation between the researcher and the concepts of ontology, epistemology and methodology.

The survey consisted of seven components (see Appendix II): 1) personal information; 2) perceptions of their educational background, their eligibility to teach about these issues, perceptions of difficulty and of importance; 3) the degree of teaching about matters related to gender, sexuality and sexual violence; 4) perceptions of to what extent the social science textbook addresses these topics; 5) perceptions of the national curriculum; 6) the degree of cooperation regarding designing teaching lessons and 7) the degree to which the school management contributes to teachers' competence. I specifically asked for their perceptions of how much the informants had taught about these issues during the 2018–2019 school year or the past school year if they were not teaching social studies in the present year to limit possible challenges of measuring phenomena that require informants' long-term memory (Foddy, 1993). The entire survey consisted of 53 questions, and 14 questions addressed the extent to which certain topics related to sexual violence were covered in their teaching. The fixed response alternatives were based on a version of the Likert scale: (0) No degree, (1) Little degree, (2) Some degree, (3) Relatively high degree and (4) High degree. The topics included the degree to which they covered the following topics through their teaching:

- Rape: Statistics and penalties for committing rape
- Laws protecting against sexual harassment and abuse
- The #MeToo movement
- Sexual harassment: Gender differences in sexual harassment and sexual harassment as a challenge to gender equality
- Asymmetrical relations of power in sexual harassment and abuse
- Non-consensual sharing of sexual imagery
- Child sexual abuse

These specific questions regarding the extent to which teachers address topics related to gender, sexuality and sexual abuse were inspired by previous research on various dimensions of abuse in Norway (Mossige & Stefansen, 2016; Myhre et al., 2015).

I measured the research participants' perceptions of their own practice through a telephone survey, seeking to uncover regularities in social science teachers' practices by applying both descriptive statistical analysis and regression analysis to the empirical material, but I collected the data by talking to the research participants personally on the telephone "while ticking off the boxes" of the predetermined Likert scale, as addressed in Articles I and II. My interview technique entailed using a structured survey with fixed-response alternatives while inviting participants to share their thoughts. It aimed to quantitatively measure which sensitive topics were being taught and simultaneously gain insight into teachers' experiences in everyday life in the classroom. The participants were asked follow-up questions that were not part of the structured survey when I wanted to know more about why the informants answered the way they did. I took detailed notes on a physical copy of the survey while also "ticking the boxes" on a predetermined Likert scale (ranging from 0–4, to be explained later). The answers to the fixed-response alternatives were later transferred to the computer program Stata for analysis, whereas the qualitative information was collected in a notebook. The reliability of this survey is discussed in the section on research credibility.

My approach is both a *confirmatory* and *exploratory* way of producing statistical knowledge (Gobo, 2015; Johnson & Christensen, 2017) by measuring teachers' perceptions and actively listening to their narratives. My previous work experience as a telephone interviewer for Statistics Norway has influenced how I view statistical knowledge production. Our job was to register informants' answers to the fixed-response alternatives; however, I often experienced that people felt like explaining to me *why* they responded the way they did. Therefore, when I could design my own study years later, I sought to include the *teachers' reflections on why they replied* the way they did. This qualitative material provided a richer understanding of how they perceived

their practice. This approach is founded on the notion that we can, and should, talk to people to get their subjective perspective on their perceptions of reality (Repstad, 2019).

6.3.2 Recruitment process

Although I had an extensive social network of former colleagues in parts of South-Eastern Norway that could function as *gate-openers* for recruiting social science teachers (Fangen, 2010, p. 67), the recruitment turned out to be much more time-consuming and demanding than I imagined. Letting a researcher explore your teaching practice might feel intimidating, and the question was whether eligible "participants would accept being studied" (Fangen, 2010, p. 58). I applied a series of recruitment strategies: I published a request on the website for Norwegian social science teachers on Facebook, I contacted former colleagues asking if they could put me in contact with eligible participants and I sent emails to school leaders all over the country. As such, the sampling was purposive and not random. The most efficient recruitment strategy turned out to be the snowball method, in which participants whom I had already interviewed introduced me to other potential informants. Once participants agreed to take part, we organized a time for the telephone interviews to take place, and at times, the informants forgot our appointment, they did not pick up or they rescheduled. After recruiting and interviewing from February to October, 64 participants had taken the survey and the data collection reached a point of saturation.

To establish trust in the telephone survey setting, I sent the participants the information sheet and the approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data in advance (see appendices A and F). Conducting telephone interviews does not necessarily enable the researcher to invest too much time in developing the relationship (Bloor & Wood, 2006), but I sought to present myself in a friendly manner, and I told them that I had previously worked as teacher to ease the participants and encourage them to talk openly about their perceptions of teaching practice.

6.3.3 Participants

The participants in this first phase were 34 female and 30 male teachers who were currently teaching or had taught the compulsory social science subject in Norwegian upper secondary schools during the last two years before data collection. This was a prerequisite for the purposeful sampling along with an aim to recruit teachers from all over the country, all ages, various ethnicities and different school locations (rural, sub-urban or urban). Purposeful sampling refers to how "researchers intentionally select (or recruit) participants who have experienced the central phenomena or key concept being explored in the study" (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 176). The gender representation in this study (53% women/ 47% men) coincides well with the overall national percentage of teachers in upper secondary schools (55% women/45% men (Ekren, Holgersen, & Steffensen, 2018). The majority of the surveyed teachers are below the age of 45 (N = 49), with relatively few over this age (N = 15). It is likely that the empirical results would show even less degree of teaching about these issues if there were more teachers above the age of 45, as age was associated with lesser degree of teaching – an effect that was stronger for women than for men.

6.4 Phase 2: Participatory research

Through the telephone interviews in Phase 1, I established contact with a middle-aged social science teacher. She worked in the area where I was planning data collection and agreed to take part in the next phase of the project. She put me in contact with more informants who were working at the same school. Initially, three female teachers agreed to take part in the participatory research, but due to heavy work-loads, the third teacher later decided to opt out. Therefore, I refer to the participatory research with two teachers, whose pseudonyms are Helena and Julie.

The overall intent of this participatory research approach was to bring about change – change in the sense that sensitive issues, such as sexual violence, should be addressed to a greater extent because learning about such matters can increase young learners' ability to protect themselves because they are then enabled to notify to a greater extent (Mikton & Butchart, 2009; Walsh, Zwi, Woolfenden, & Shlonsky, 2015). Thus,

this participatory research project has a clear normative dimension, which I consider to be legitimated through the overarching part of the curriculum (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017), which promotes human dignity, teachers' care for their students and an education in tune with human rights, as I addressed in the theoretical chapter.

Educational research on teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching and learning about sensitive issues related to sexual violence is an intriguing and unexplored field that benefits from a mixed methods participatory social justice design (Creswell & Clark, 2018). I have combined and integrated the knowledge produced through the participation of both teachers and students as stakeholders, applying different theories and methodological approaches, with the overall intent to understand and contribute to counter social oppression related to harassment and abuse (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 123). As such, research for understanding teaching practice concerning gender, sexuality and sexual violence in order to identify the challenges and opportunities for increased social justice through such teaching is at the heart of this project. Creswell and Clark (2018) combine participatory research and social justice mixed methods, as both approaches require active collaboration with "participants and call for changes in society or in communities as a result of the research" (p. 123). Both social science teachers and their students are actively involved in the research throughout the process, with the intent of identifying, understanding and taking action against "problems by involving the people who are most affected by the problem throughout the research process" (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 125). The problem in question is as previously introduced the high prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse among children and adolescents both nationally and internationally, and the lack of teaching about these issues in school, as addressed in Article I.

The participatory research approach in this study entails designing teaching lessons together with two social science teachers. As such, *developing* teaching lessons together in a team was an essential part of this study. The teachers carried out the lesson, while I had the role of a participatory observer. I consider participatory research to be an inclusive research procedure. Ryen (2017, p. 139) writes about how contributing to

social change in order to improve women's situations has been essential for feminist-oriented researchers. My feminist lens differs somewhat from that, as the feminism I adhere to seeks to counter social oppression and increase social justice for all human beings, regardless of their gender and sexuality, which resonates with the feminism put forth by Nussbaum (1999).

6.4.1 Recruitment process

I experienced difficulties in recruiting participants for the participatory project, although one of the teachers from Phase 1, Helena, was a gate-opener for me in the school where we developed and implemented teaching lessons. Out of approximately 15 teachers in the social science department at Helena's school, four teachers came to the initial meeting in autumn 2018. In the meeting, I provided an overview of the participatory research and related research questions, with an explicit focus on including young learners' voices and their right to be heard in matters that affect their lives (CRC, 1989, Art. 12).[4]

In this meeting, one of the teachers expressed concern for teaching about sexual violence due to lack of time for dealing with students' potential personal experiences after such teaching practice. This teacher's statement pinpoints *structural factors* conditioning teachers' practice, such as the excessive amount of competence aims (35) in the curriculum and relatively little time to teach in depth (3 x 45 minutes per week). In addition, the curriculum in 2018 (LK06) included that students should learn about abuse [overgrep], but the sexual dimension here was not specified. It was important for me to convey that I understood this concern. To make sure that the participatory research would not add an additional time-burden to the teachers, I encouraged them to use their fixed time for meetings to take part in this research to find ways together of developing

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[4] As previously addressed in Chapter 2, my understanding of Article 12 is in tune with Lundy's model on how voice is not enough and that full implementation of this provision requires space, voice, audience and influence (Lundy, 2007). However, I use the term "the right to be heard" as a practical abbreviation.

teaching practices that could work for both teachers and students, and that could promote students' rights and human dignity.

As addressed initially in this section, the participatory research was carried out with two teachers: Helena and Julie, out of potentially 15 teachers at that social science department. The recruitment difficulties could be related to a variety of reasons. The aspect of *time* is essential; teaching about sexual harassment and abuse could require time-consuming preparations and also work in the aftermath if student(s) disclose having experienced unwanted sexual attention. Although I sought to develop the teaching lessons in the teachers' fixed time for meetings, taking part in this project could become an extra burden and "an additional thing to spend time on" in an already hectic everyday life in school, because it could for instance in part require reading up on literature they might or might not be familiar with. Secondly, the nature of these topics is sensitive, and some teachers are concerned about causing students harm in any way when addressing such matters, as addressed in Article I. A recent Norwegian study on sensitive issues in schools related to sexually harmful behaviour reported similar challenges in recruiting teachers (Draugedalen, 2021). Thirdly, participating in this kind of project would entail "letting me in on their practice", which could cause discomfort for the teachers. Moreover, letting the students choose which topic they would learn more about entails that the teachers would yield a part of their power to the students by giving up their control of the lessons. Struthers (2020) discusses that some teachers' need to be in control could be an obstacle to students' participation and voice. Another dimension is that some teachers are reluctant to change and would like to continue with their "embodied practices" – business as usual – without any interference (Bourdieu, 1977, 1990).

These considerations regarding recruitment challenges could also be relevant for understanding why the response rate for the digital survey among students was low (in Phase 2). It was an essential value for this research project that young learners were heard and taken seriously, which is in tune with CRC Article 12 on the right to be heard in matters that affect their lives. This is an essential point in educational settings, including educational research (Osler, 2016). Still, there were challenges regarding

getting access to social science students and their voices because the process of gaining access was influenced by my teacher informants' colleagues and their "good will" to take the time to conduct the survey. The aspect of *time* is important because although it was not meant to take more than a few minutes, it simply came "on top" of everything else a teacher is asked to do.

6.4.2 Presenting Helena and Julie

Here, I present the teachers who took part in the participatory research. They worked at the same school in South-East Norway. Helena was a teacher in her fifties and had worked as a teacher for decades. She was enthusiastic about developing and implementing teaching lessons, and she also read up on relevant literature. Simultaneously, I could tell that she was exhausted working as a teacher. At times, she forgot our meetings or that I was to attend her teaching lessons as an observer. I elaborate in more detail in the section on the ethical considerations of how I sought to protect Helena from the extra distress our cooperation could represent.

Julie was in her thirties, and she had worked as a teacher for some years. She attended all of our preparatory meetings, where we organized when and where I was to attend the classes, both before and during the implementation of the teaching lessons. She was actively involved in shaping the content of the lessons and defining which theoretical concepts we were to include, and like Helena, she also read up on relevant literature.

Helena and Julie had different strategies for cooperation; Julie opted for an "always present and all-in" strategy and Helena was "halfway in, halfway out". Hargreaves (1994) discusses how different schools have different cultures for cooperation, ranging from various forms of individualism to administratively regulated cooperation. Different individuals at the same school can have different strategies. The strategies teachers apply could be a result of the combination of their personality, the quality of relations between colleagues and the overall school culture. Imsen (2017, p. 528) addresses how many teachers work isolated from other teachers and are content

with doing so, while others like to cooperate and have enriching routines for cooperation.

By working closely with Helena and Julie, we established good relations. Good fieldwork relations are important for conducting valid research because the relationship with research participants influences what the researcher is allowed to observe or be told (Bloor & Wood, 2006).

6.4.3 Survey among social science students

Through my teacher informants and their colleagues, I got access to their social science students, who took part in a digital survey regarding which topics they would like to learn more about in social science education (see Appendix III). Helena, Julie and I discussed which topics could be of interest to the students. Based on our discussion, I made a simple survey consisting of only two questions: 1) gender and 2) which topics related to gender, sexuality and sexual violence they would like to learn more about in social science class. In the alternative for gender, we included the gender-neutral pronoun "hen" to respect students who identify as transgender. The alternatives for the sensitive topics for which they could vote included the following:

- The "good sexuality"
- Femininity/masculinity
- Sexual harassment among young peers
- Female gender mutilation
- Pornography
- Sexual violence among young peers
- Sexual violence as a weapon of war
- Child sexual abuse
- Transgenderness
- I do not feel like answering this question

Helena and Julie distributed the digital survey to their social science students, and they encouraged their teacher colleagues to distribute the link to their students. As such, their colleagues would work as gate-openers for surveying the students. Helena and Julie encouraged their colleagues to let their students participate. However, not all of the students were given the opportunity to participate despite several encouraging emails

from Helena. Only 111 respondents out of a total of 438 eligible informants at that particular school took part in the survey. This constitutes a response rate of 25%, which is rather low, and this could be considered a methodological limitation. However, although the response rate was low, the students' voices led the way for our work regarding which kinds of topics we were to try out in the classroom. As we have seen in Chapter 3, students' life-worlds constitute a component of social science education (Christensen, 2015) and are of relevance in both transformative human rights education and sexuality education (Lundy & Sainz, 2018; UNESCO, 2018). The results show that 55% of the surveyed students wanted to learn more about sexual harassment among peers, and 48% of the surveyed students responded that they wanted to learn about was sexual violence among peers. These findings indicated that they would like to engage in topics that were relevant for their age group and lives. These results, in combination with findings from Phase 1, concerning how an increase in cooperation among teachers is associated with an increase in the degree of teaching about topics related to sexual violence, were crucial findings that informed the development of teaching lessons.

6.4.4 Developing and implementing teaching lessons

When brainstorming about a variety of methods for addressing sexual harassment together with the teachers, I suggested that we try role-plays as a pedagogical method. We had prior experience with role-plays in teaching, and together, we agreed that this would be an interesting approach. Using role-plays as a pedagogical method was inspired by the Theatre of the Oppressed developed by Boal (2002), in the sense that we sought to illuminate power relations in harassing situations through the performance of drama written by the young learners themselves. After theoretically introducing harassment as a concept and discussing various motives and norms underpinning different kinds of harassment, Helena and Julie divided the classes into groups consisting of 5–6 students. The students were placed in groups with fellow students with whom they felt comfortable and safe. This was a pedagogical measure to ensure that the role-plays would not become a site for the reproduction of already existing harassing relations. The purpose of using role-plays was to create an awareness of various motives and norms underpinning harassment, as well as to make the students aware of their own

roles and opportunities to intervene in harassing situations. Helena, Julie and I discussed the different roles the learners were to play, and the roles we opted for were: the bystander(s), the harasser(s), the harassed and the interventionist. We considered that the role of the interventionist was important in preventing feelings of disempowerment. In Article III, I discuss how the students perceived this role-play as artificial because in the 'real world', they rarely experience that anyone intervenes when they face harassment, which leads to a sense of disempowerment. I did not get the impression that the students' perceived powerlessness was linked to the didactic choices we made, but rather that they rarely feel that someone intervenes in such situations.

The model we developed for role-plays can be transferred to other contexts and could be tested out by teachers, teacher educators and researchers, which gives this project a dimension of transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). We spent four school hours teaching lessons about harassment (4 x 45 minutes). I played an active role in designing the lesson, and I was a participant observer during implementation (Fangen, 2010). Forty-three students in three different classes were involved in these lessons. The content of these lessons is outlined in table 6.4.4:

Table 6.4.4. Overview of teaching lessons. Published in Article III.

Time	Activity	Resources	Objectives
45 minutes	Theoretical concepts introduced by the teacher, including an overview of what harassment is, motives for harassment and norm-critical perspectives related to gender and sexuality The teacher explains the different roles in the role-play and divides the class into groups	PowerPoint about sexual and gender-based harassment News article about a case of gender-based harassment in Oslo Julie reads an excerpt from the book Det jeg skulle ha sagt [What I should have said] (Sletteland & Helseth, 2018) related to the Norwegian TV series SKAM and shows a video clip from this series portraying harassment	The learners should know what constitutes sexual and gender-based harassment, different motives for harassment and the legal framework.
45 minutes	The learners write the manuscripts for the role-plays	The learners use their own ideas to shape the role-play	The learners should link the concepts to everyday situations in their lives where harassment can occur

45 minutes x 2	Performance and discussion of the role-plays	The learners' own role-plays	Enhance knowledge about harassment and action-skills for defending one's own and other people's rights in practice

After each role-play, there was a class discussion about the performance, what the students thought and felt when they saw it and the challenges and opportunities of intervening in harassment. I was asked if I had any comments, and I facilitated a discussion regarding the motives for harassment and how harassment is often related to norms. Additionally, I invited students to reflect critically on norms related to gender and sexuality. One of the groups performed the harassment in a way that made me *feel* the shame that the person being harassed expressed through her body language. Their role-play performance was based on a young girl entering a bus who was harassed by other young girls regarding her "slutty" appearance. This could be interpreted as an expression of harassment between girls as a form of policing behaviour (Gådin & Stein, 2019). The intervention that came was subtle: another girl sat down beside her in solidarity, asking, "How are you?" After this performance, I replied that it had *made me feel* the girl's discomfort. I asked the students what they felt, and they did not necessarily feel it the way I did, or they were shy to say so in class. The ways in which we sought to safeguard the students from harm are discussed later in the ethical dimensions of this research.

6.4.5 Conducting group-interviews with young learners

For a period of two weeks after we had implemented the teaching lessons, I conducted group interviews with 29 out of the 43 students: five group interviews in total. These interviews were based on their perceptions of being involved as active participants in the teaching lessons and how they experienced learning about sensitive issues through, among other aspects, role-plays as a pedagogical method. I had observed the students' performance of the role-play as a participatory observer and drew upon my observations during the interview by asking them how it was to perform the various roles of harasser, harassed, bystander and interventionists taking action against the harassment. These group interviews were audiotaped and transcribed for analysis. In Article III, I address

that a common feature of the group interviews is that the students do not consider the teacher to have any particular responsibility in preventing and protecting them from harassment, and they would hesitate to notify the teacher if they experience unwanted sexual attention.

6.5 Overview of strengths and limitations

The recruitment challenge was one of several limitations of this study. The research findings from the survey portray 64 social science teachers' self-reported perceptions of their practice in a given place and time – Norway in 2018 – which could be considered a methodological limitation. Another limitation could be that I sampled purposefully instead of randomly, which might have led to selection bias in the sense that those who agreed to participate in the digital survey in Phase 1 were the ones who taught the most about these issues. However, as outlined in Article II, given the widespread variation I uncovered in teaching practice, I do not believe that selection bias has posed a serious problem.

To what extent were the students involved as active participants in the participatory research in Phase 2? It is not enough to only carry out a survey to be able to claim that the students' voices have been taken into account. I would say that the students influenced which topics we should focus on, but that there was a limitation in the survey that they could only "tick off" topics that we had predefined. We could have had an opportunity for an open answer, where the students themselves could enter which sensitive topics they would like to address in teaching. Having fixed response alternatives was a way of narrowing down the focus, and it also provided an opportunity to compare with the telephone-survey I conducted with the teachers.

In the planning phase, I met with the teachers during the teachers' fixed meeting time at school, when the students did not have lessons. In hindsight, it would have been possible to invite the students to stay after school to give us advice on how to design the teaching lessons. This could have included the students to an even greater extent in the decision-making about what kind of pedagogical methods we were to try out, but it could also have placed an additional workload on the students. Still, such an approach could

have strengthened the student participation in the research project, and I would recommend exploring that alternative in future research.

The following table provides an overview of the strengths and limitations of the data collection:

Table 6.5 Overview of the strengths and limitations of data collection.

Strengths (+) and limitations (-) of data collection	
Phase 1: Telephone-interviews	Phase 2: Participatory research
Structured interviews: + Standardized instrument + Closed-ended items combined with inviting participants to share their reflections + Possible to do advanced statistical analysis to identify patterns + Highly reliable index construction - Self-reported data - Purposeful sampling	Digital survey (N=111): + Relatively many respondents + Standardized instrument - Self-reported data - Closed-ended items only - Relatively low response rate My observations of teachers and students during the teaching lessons: + Students did not alter their behaviour to any great extent due to my presence + My former experience as a teacher and my teacher habitus enabled me to have a role as an 'insider' - The risk of 'going native' Group interviews with students: + Open-ended questions + Flexible interview guide +/- My role as teacher could have influenced their openness both positively and negatively - Self-reported data - Group dynamics may influence students' answers

6.6 Analysis

This section provides an overview of how I analysed the empirical sources in this study. My analytical work has been inspired by the pragmatic approach, which entails relying on a "Version of *abductive reasoning* that moves back and forth between induction and deduction – first *converting observations* into *theory* and then *assessing those theories through action*" (Morgan, 2007, p. 71) (emphasis added). This resonates greatly with what I have done: converting observations from the telephone survey in Phase 1 into theory, which I subsequently explored through action in Phase 2. I find it relevant to share some reflections on how I developed my theoretical model based on an adaptation of the Bronfenbrenner model because it is relevant for understanding how I have analysed the empirical material throughout the phases.

After concluding the data collection in Phase 1, I started the analytical process by 'cracking the numbers' in the computer program Stata. At the same time, I attended a course on education for social justice held by Professor Audrey Osler. One part of this course entailed that course participants were to present their projects, and I was reflecting upon how I could visualize my preliminary findings in a way that would help my fellow course participants grasp the complexity of my study. To visualize the findings, I developed the Bronfenbrenner-inspired model adapted to the school setting. As we have seen in the theoretical framework, this model portrays different levels of factors influencing teaching and learning: the *micro-level* concerning relations in the classroom, the *meso-level* deals with aspects of school culture, the *macro-level* is related to national law, culture and policy and the *supra-level* addresses international law, especially regarding how the CRC, culture and policy might influence and condition teachers' practice. This supra-level did not come out of nowhere; the overarching part of the curriculum (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017) makes clear references to how education should be in tune with the CRC. This model has been analytically useful during both phases of this research project, and I have integrated it in Article I and Article II. The Bronfenbrenner-inspired model has also been relevant for understanding the challenges I encountered in participatory research, especially regarding school management's role in motivating teachers to address sexual harassment and abuse, as discussed in Article II. In the *hermeneutical* sense, the analysis

process entailed interpreting and building on past interpretations in a continued process; in the *dialectical* sense, it involved back-and-forth disputation and examination of data (Johnson, 2017).

In Article I, I integrated the findings from a descriptive statistical analysis with the reflections of the teachers' informants to broaden the understanding of their teaching practice. Using the statistical software program Stata, I calculated the mean average of teachers' perceptions of how much they taught about 14 different topics related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse (See Section 6.3.1). The quantitative material measured, among other aspects, the degree to which the teachers addressed different sensitive issues. The issue of child sexual abuse was measured statistically to be the most silenced topic. Through their reasoning and through the process of taking notes on their reasoning, I understood that one of the reasons why many teachers are reluctant to address this issue is the emotional work of being a teacher, which includes their concerns of potentially causing harm to young learners by re-traumatizing or stigmatizing them in any way. This insight is based on my interpretation of the (qualitative) notes I took of the teachers' reasonings especially regarding to the question of teaching about child sexual abuse. There was a pattern in teachers' comments, which highlighted their concern of in any way retraumatizing or stigmatizing their students by opening up for addressing child sexual abuse. I theoretically interpret these concerns as linked to the concept of cultural taboo, which I understand in this context and refer to in Article I as a cultural phenomenon that entails a social prohibition on making visible or telling others about child sexual abuse (Leira, 1990). For victims of harassment and abuse, hiding experiences of unwanted sexual harassment and abuse can be a strategy of trying to avoid potential stigmatization, shame and fear-related feelings. This is key in understanding why it takes on average more than 17 years for a person who has experienced child sexual abuse to tell anyone about these experiences (Steine et al, 2017). Teachers' concern of stigmatizing their students could be understood as a concern of revealing something that shouldn't be revealed and potentially revealing a kind of mask that is meant to cover unwanted sexual experiences. For instance, one of my informants expressed concern about how teaching about child sexual abuse could make a potential victim run out of the classroom in tears. My interpretation is that this

hypothetical situation could possibly reveal what shouldn't be revealed, making the teacher in question feel that maybe she had done something wrong by addressing the matter in the first place, and therefore, it would be better to rather avoid it. Opening up for teachers' reasonings for why they do what they do, and taking notes of their reasoning, enabled me to conduct a more thorough analysis of teaching practice than what I could have done if the teachers filled out the survey themselves or if I hadn't listened carefully or documented the reasons for their practice. In order words, the quantitative and qualitative insights complemented each other and were integrated into the analysis of Article I. This resonates with how, "during the data analysis stage, qualitative data can play an important role by interpreting, clarifying, describing, and validating quantitative results" (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 34).

The descriptive analysis in Article I portrays great variation in the extent to which teachers address issues related to sexual violence. To identify patterns and understand which factors were at play in this variation, I further analysed the empirical material by applying a multi-regression analysis in Article II. The phone survey had 64 observations, and I followed the informal rule of having at least 10 observations per independent variable. Therefore, the scope of this study was limited to a maximum of six independent variables. Including more variables could lead to overfitting the model, which refers to "asking too much from the available data" (Babyak, 2004). The dependent variable was *Teachingaboutsexualviolence,* which I generated with an index construction of 14 questions regarding teaching about topics related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse (see Table 6.6) I calculated the mean average of what each respondent replied to these fourteen questions about their teaching practice, collapsing these items into an index of the degree of teaching. Therefore, each participant got a score ranging from 0 – 4.

To what extent: [I hvilken grad:]	0 - No extent [Ingen grad] 1 – Little extent [Liten grad] 2- Some extent [Noe grad] 3- Relative high extent [I vesentlig grad] 4 – High extent [I høy grad]	Index – Mean average of teaching
1. Do you address sexuality and different sexual orientations in teaching? [Tar du opp seksualitet og seksuell orientering i undervisningen?		When calculating the mean average of what each teacher responded to these 14 questions, each teacher has a score between 0-4. This score is used as the dependent variable in the regression analysis.
2. Do you address intimacy boundaries regarding one's own and others' body? [Tar du opp grensesetting når det gjelder egen og andres kropper?]		
3. Do you talk to the students about sexual offenses and abuse? [Snakker du med elevene om seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep?]		
4. Do you talk to the students about sexual offenses online, such as (non-consensual) sharing of sexual content? [Snakker du med elevene om seksuelle krenkelser på nett, som for eksempel (ufrivillig) deling av bilder med seksualisert innhold?]		
5. Do you talk to the students about the legal framework protecting against sexual offenses and abuse? [Snakker du med elevene om hva slags lovverk som beskytter mot seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep?]		
6. Do you talk to the students about rape? [Snakker du med elevene om voldtekt?]		
7. Do you talk to the students about statistics related to sexual harassment, attempted sexual abuse or sexual abuse? [Snakker du med elevene om statistikk knyttet til seksuell trakassering, overgrepsforsøk og/eller voldtekt?]		
8. Do you talk to the students about legal penalties for rape? [Snakker du med elevene om hva slags strafferammer en voldtekt kan gi?]		
9. Do you talk to the students about how peers often commit rape? [Snakker du med elevene om at det ofte er jevnaldrende som begår voldtekt?]		
10. Do you talk to the students about child sexual abuse? [Snakker du med elevene om seksuelle overgrep på barn?]		
11. Do you talk to the students about asymmetrical relations of power in sexual offenses and/or abuse? [Snakker du med elevene om asymmetriske maktrelasjoner når det gjelder seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep?]		
12. Do you talk to the students about gender differences related to sexual offenses and/or abuse? [Snakker du med elevene om kjønnsforskjeller knyttet til seksuelle krenkelser og/eller overgrep?]		
13. If you have taught this schoolyear, to what extent have you taught about the #MeToo-movement? [Om du har undervist dette skoleåret, I hvilken grad har du snakket med elevene om #MeToo-kampanjen?]		
14. Have you discussed sexual harassment and/or sexual offenses as a challenge for gender equality? [Har du tatt opp seksuell trakassering og/eller seksuelle krenkelser som en utfordring for likestilling mellom kjønn?]		
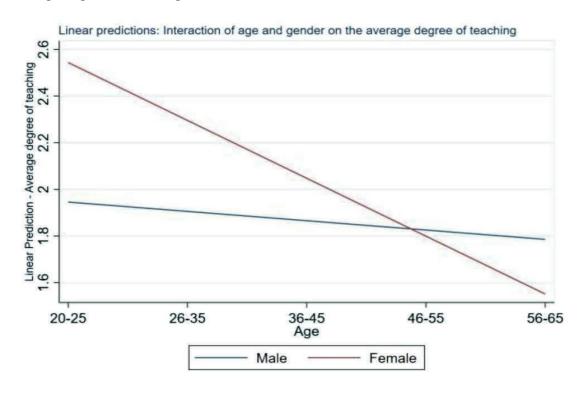
Table 6.6 Overview of index construction applied to measure the average degree of teaching about issues related to sexual violence. To provide transparency, the following illustration include questions in Norwegian, so the reader sees the English translation. First published in Article II.

Mathematical analysis techniques, such as multivariate regression analysis (Mehmetoglu & Jakobsen, 2017), can provide valuable information about certain social phenomena. As outlined in Article II, the model to be estimated includes this dependent variable and six independent variables related to both teachers' personal characteristics and school culture-related factors:

$$Teachingaboutsexualviolence = \beta0 + \beta1Age + \beta2Female + \beta3Education + \beta4Educationalrelevance + \beta5Cooperation + \beta6Management + r$$

I also conducted an analysis of the interaction effects of gender and age in Stata, which gave insight into the influence of teachers' personal characteristics on teaching. Female teachers tend to teach more about these issues on average than men do, and that younger generations of teachers address such topics more than senior generations:

Graph 6.6 Graphical representation of linear predictions of the interaction of age and gender on average degree of teaching about sexual harassment and abuse. Published in Article II.

As previously addressed, there were findings from the analysis from Phase 1 that guided the next phase: 1) social science teachers do not address issues related to harassment and abuse to any great extent, 2) the least addressed topics were related to child sexual abuse and rape among young peers, 3) the mean average of teachers' perceptions of cooperation regarding designing teaching lessons on topics related to gender, sexuality and sexual violence was low with a score of 1.08 on the scale from 0–4 and lastly, 4) the regression analysis indicated that an increase in level of cooperation was associated with an increase in the degree of teaching about these issues. *These findings legitimated the participatory research approach*, as the results indicated that teachers are more likely to address such topics in class if they cooperate with colleagues about content and teaching methods.

The main units of analysis in Article III are students' perceptions of teaching practice based on the participatory research. I applied thematic analysis in Article III to identify and understand patterns of meaning across my dataset, consisting of transcriptions of group-interviews with the students who had taken part in the teaching lessons. The psychologists, Virginia Braun and Victoria Clark, has given direction to the use of thematic analysis in qualitative research (e.g Braun & Clark, 2006, 2020), referring to their approach as reflexive thematic analysis, which is considered suited for several theories of science, including critical realism (Braun & Clark, 2006, 2020). In reflexive thematic analysis "meaning and knowledge are understood as situated and contextual" and "researcher subjectivity is considered a resource for knowledge production" instead of a "must-be-contained threat to credibility" (Braun & Clarke, 2020, p.7). This is an acknowledgement of the researcher's involvement in the analytical process. The ways in which I have made meaning of the interviews are conditioned by my prior work experience as a teacher, my academic background and training and theoretical assumptions about teaching and learning about issues related to sexual violence. The knowledge production taking place during the interviews was conditioned and shaped by contextual factors, such as the importance of providing a sense of safe space for the students and placing them in groups with other students they felt comfortable with. This was a prerequisite for enabling them to talk about sensitive

issues. I had spent several weeks at that school so that the students would get to know me a little bit, and to establish a sense of trust.

Prior to the interviews, when I made the semi-structured interview guide, I sought to develop questions that would grasp the students' perceptions of taking part in the teaching lessons (see Appendix V). Since I applied the same semi-structured interview guide to the group-interviews, it was possible to identify patterns across the various group-interviews. Although the researcher is to a certain extent conditioned by theoretical assumptions about certain phenomena, I sought to develop open questions that would enable them to share their own perceptions without inferring theoretical assumptions. In this sense, the analysis in Article III is based on a data-driven approach.

Braun and Clark explicate a six-phase process for data engagement when conducting reflexive thematic analysis, namely 1) data familiarization, 2) systematic data coding, 3) generating initial themes from coded data; 4) developing and reviewing themes; 5) refining, defining and naming themes; and 6) writing the report (2020, p.). I would not say that my approach to the analytical process was as linear as these phases might give the impression of, as these six phases can blend together and be recursive in the sense that the researcher might go back and forth between phases (2020, p.4). My approach was to first spend time to get familiar with the data. The analytical process started already during the interviews as I began to identify patterns in what the students were expressing. Shortly after the interviews, I took notes of the impressions I had from the interviews, and that was a way of working through my understanding of their perceptions. Given that I conducted the interviews myself, I was familiar with the data prior to transcription. Both listening through the interviews, the transcription process and reading the transcriptions several times, gave me a good overview of the data.

I subseqently proceeded to categorize the themes that I identified, which was related to 1) students' understandings of sexual harassment, 2) sexual harassment as a topic in school, 3) students' knowledge of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 4) their experiences of taking part in the role-plays and 5) challenges of countering sexual harassment. As such, the first step in the analytical process entailed identifying patterns

in students' perceptions, and subsequently applying theoretical lenses to the material to understand these students' perceptions. The relevant theoretical concepts I draw upon in Article III, consist of recognition, intersectionality and a legal literacy as educational capital (Bourdieu, 1986; Crenshaw, 1989, 1991; Honneth, 1995; Jordet, 2020; Lundy and Sainz, 2018).

When I compare the main findings based on teachers' and learners' perspectives, I find divergence and convergence, depending on interpretation. In Article III, I discuss how teachers address sexual harassment and abuse among children and adolescents to a small extent, whereas paradoxically, this is exactly what young learners would like to discuss in more detail. This forms part of this study's *meta-inferences* (Johnson & Christensen, 2017; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006), referring to the inferences that might be drawn from across all phases of the project. My interpretation is that these findings complement and explain each other; teachers address these matters to a small extent, and that might be precisely *why* the students expressed that they want to learn more about these sensitive issues.

6.7 Multiple Validities in Mixed Methods Research

Mixed methods research requires multiple ways of validating one's research by critically examining the quality and defensibility of both the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study by using validity types for both traditions, as well as mixed validity types (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). I am aware that some researchers may prefer reserving some validity criteria for quantitative research and other criteria for qualitative research, but I rather combine and apply criteria to both strands, which I consider to be in tune with my pragmatic methodological approach. In this section, I discuss this study's validity, reliability and trustworthiness to integrate perspectives from both the quantitative and qualitative research traditions, as well the mixed methods research community. I draw upon different writing styles to shed light on the multi-faceted dimensions of my research design. I consider this to be in tune with how mixed methods research opens up for "multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued

and cherished", which can provide a more "complete and meaningful understanding of complex social phenomena" (Greene, 2007, p. xii).

The concepts of reliability and validity stem from quantitative research, and these concepts do not necessarily grasp the essence of how to validate qualitative research (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Ryen, 2017). Lincoln and Guba (1985) have proposed five alternative quality criteria in qualitative research that I find useful: 1) *credibility* concerns if the research findings represent plausible information and correct interpretation of participants' original views, 2) *transferability* refers to whether results can be transferred to other contexts, 3) *dependability* involves participants' evaluation of the findings, 4) *confirmability* entails the degree to which the findings could be confirmed by other researchers and lastly, 5) *reflexivity* is the process of critical self-reflection about oneself as a researcher and the research relationships. Guba and Lincoln (1994) added the concept of *authenticity*, concerning the extent to which the researcher expresses the participants' experiences and feelings in a faithful manner (Cope, 2014). Discussing these concepts openly and critically can contribute to enhancing the study's trustworthiness, which I understand as the extent to which the research process and findings are transparent and can be trusted.

Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006, p. 57) have developed a typology of mixed methods legitimation types consisting of nine different types, and I will integrate five of these types into my discussion: sample integration, inside-outside (emic/etic) perspectives, paradigmatic mixing, multiple validities and political. In addition, triangulation is an essential dimension of this study's validation. I have triangulated different methods within the qualitative tradition (in-depth interviews, observation and group interviews) and across the quantitative and qualitative traditions. Data from multiple methodological approaches are integrated into the analysis (see Section 6.7).

6.7.1 Reliability

Reliability is the accuracy of the instruments of measurement, how reliable and precise the obtained information is and whether the analysis is conducted without errors and shortcomings (Repstad, 2019). In Phase 1, I applied an index construction to measure

the degree of teaching about sexual violence (the dependent variable named *teachingaboutsexualviolence*) by collapsing these items into an index construction – see Article II. I calculated the mean average of what each respondent replied to the 14 questions about their teaching practice (see Table 3.8.1). Therefore, each participant received a score ranging from 0–4. The items were weighted equally. I ran the Cronbach's alpha test in the computer program Stata to check the reliability of this index construction. The reliability of a scale is estimated as 1 minus the proportion of error variance (Mehmetoglu & Jakobsen, 2017). The result of the Cronbach's alpha test was a coefficient score of 0.89, indicating very strong reliability and that removing one item would not make it stronger. The coefficient of 0.89 means that 89% of this index construction is highly reliable, and 11% of the variance is due to error (Mehmetoglu & Jakobsen, 2017). This confirms the solid measurement reliability of the scale construction.

6.7.2 Validity

Validity concerns whether or not the researcher has been able to measure what she sought to measure and/or explore (Repstad, 2019) and refers to "the correctness or truthfulness of the inferences that are made from the results of the study" (Johnson & Christensen, 2017, p. 283). One criterion for checking the soundness and quality of one's research entails engaging in dialogue with the involved stakeholders regarding the researcher's descriptions, interpretations and conclusions (Repstad, 2019). This is referred to as "participant validation" (Repstad, 2019; Ryen, 2017) or "member-checking" (Creswell & Clark, 2018). One strategy could be to let informants read excerpts from the transcripts and/or analysis. It was important for me to communicate my interpretation of the data to the research participants. In this regard, I sent Article I to the informants who wished to obtain the research results by email post publication. I discussed this article informally with my research participant Helena during a lunch break (who also took part in the survey) because it was published in the middle of our development and implementation of the teaching lessons in spring 2019. Helena expressed that she coincided with the main findings and that she greatly supported that

more emphasis should be placed on teaching about sensitive issues related to gender and sexuality. This is linked to *dependability* as a quality criterion for research, relating to participants' evaluation of findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It could be considered ideal that informants recognize themselves and their context in the research report, but at the same time, that they get a widened or deepened understanding of practice (Repstad, 2019). I am unsure to what extent reading this article contributed to Helena's widened understanding, but I do believe that it *might have contributed* to a more in-depth understanding of teaching practice concerning sensitive issues.

Central members of the research community are also relevant for checking the validity and reliability of the research (Repstad, 2019). All three articles that constitute this doctoral thesis have been subject to double-blinded peer reviews, in which several referees have commented on each of the articles. This process strengthens the overall research credibility of this project. I have also presented my research each year at the National Conference of Social Studies Education in Norway in 2018, 2019 and 2020.

Another dimension of ensuring the validation of one's research is not only to engage with the research community but also to communicate and disseminate research findings to a wider audience (Repstad, 2019). Brevik (2015) refers to this as an *external audit*. In addition to publishing the three articles in international journals, I have sought to communicate these findings to a broader audience. Table 6.7.2 portrays my contributions concerning research dissemination:

Table 6.7.2. Overview of my research dissemination to a wider audience.

Genre	Title	Place and date
Public opinion pieces	Vi må utdanne lærere som våger å undervise om seksuelle krenkelser. [We must educate teachers who dare to teach about sexual violations.] Goldschmidt-Gjerløw & Trysnes	Published on the newspaper Fædrelandvennen, 09.10.2020.
	Hvor er anerkjennelsen av elevers menneskeverd og rettigheter i skolen? Et tema for lærer- og rektorutdanning. [Where is the	Published on the digital website for news related to higher education – Khrono, 07.04.2021. https://khrono.no/hvor-er-

	recognition of learners' human worth and rights in school? An issue for teacher – and school management education]. Goldschmidt-Gjerløw & Draugedalen. Pornografi og seksuelle krenkelser må på pensum i høyere utdanning. [Pornography and sexual abuse should become part of the curriculum in higher education]. Goldschmidt-Gjerløw	anerkjennelsen-av-elevers-menneskeverd-og-rettigheter-i-skolen-et-tema-for-laerer--og-rektorutdanning/568026 Published on the digital website for news related to higher education – Khrono, 20.01.2022. https://khrono.no/pornografi-og-seksuelle-krenkelser-ma-pa-pensum-i-hoyere-utdanning/653800
News articles with interview	-Lærere må snakke med elevene om seksuelle overgrep, mener forsker. Hva skal til for at lærere tør å snakke med elevene om seksuelle overgrep?	Published in forskning.no, 05.07.2019. I was interviewed by Siw Ellen Jakobsen in regard to Article I. https://forskning.no/vold/laerere-ma-snakke-med-elevene-om-seksuelle-overgrep-mener-forsker/1355842 Published in forskning.no, 18.02.2021. Siri Søftestad, and I were interviewed by Siw Ellen Jakobsen in regard to Article II. https://forskning.no/skole-og-utdanning/hva-skal-til-for-at-laerere-tor-a-snakke-med-elevene-om-seksuelle-overgrep/1814884
Research contest	Forsker Grand Prix [National Research Competition for Ph.D. Research Fellows in Norway]. I was ranked #1 in the regional final of Southern Norway (Kristiansand) on the 24th of September, 2020. I was ranked #4 in the national final in Trondheim on the 26th of September, 2020.	The regional and the national contest was broadcasted on Norwegian television (NRK) in February, 2021. Currently available at this link: https://tv.nrk.no/serie/kunnskapskanalen/2021/KOID75005520/avspiller
Political outreach	I was invited to the National Conference on Gender Equality to present my research and moderate a discussion concerning sexual harassment in school. The Minister of Education and Research was among the participants in the discussion on the 2nd of March, 2022.	https://www.regjeringen.no/no/aktuelt/nasjonal-likestillingskonferanse-2022/id2902234/

An essential dimension of critical theory is to further critique of socially harmful practices beyond the academic realm (Jordet, 2020). This has been my active strategy to contribute to societal change, seeking to improve the school's potential for recognition of young learners' human dignity. According to the positive feedback I have received, I believe my broad research dissemination has been valued by researchers, the wider community and politicians.

6.7.3 Generalisability and transferability

In Phase 1, my intention in conducting a telephone survey among 64 social science teachers was to uncover patterns of teaching practice in the specific sample. I do not consider these patterns as universal, but rather contextual (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018), which I consider this to be in tune with the critical realist approach. The survey instrument is culturally adapted to the Norwegian educational context for social science education in upper secondary school. However, I contend that it would be possible to replicate this study in other educational contexts with the appropriate cultural adaptations.

6.7.4 In between being an insider and an outsider: Emic/etic perspectives

How did the teachers and students perceive my role as a researcher during the participatory research in Phase 2, and how is this related to research credibility? As a researcher, I balanced between being an insider and an outsider. The insider's view is known as the *emic* perspective, whereas the outsider's view is referred to as the *etic* perspective (Darling, 2016). The emic perspective is that of a group member, whereas the etic perspective is the view of an observer (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Integrating both emic and etic insights may enhance the overall validation of the results (Brevik, 2015; Morris, Leung, Ames, & Lickel, 1999; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

Regarding emic perspectives during the participatory research, I believe I was considered an 'insider' to a certain extent in the school where the teaching lessons were tried out. After having worked for several years in upper secondary schools, I am used to socializing with both teachers and young learners, which has shaped my teacher

habitus, in the words of Bourdieu (2010). Regarding etic perspectives, there was especially one situation during the planning phase in which I felt that my role as an insider shifted a bit to assuming the role of an outsider. I suggested that we include relevant articles in the CRC (UN, 1989) in the teaching lessons to increase students' legal literacy. Julie said that she was not familiar with this convention and that it would feel a bit artificial for her to talk about it. She did not see how it was necessary to address the CRC since the majority of students soon reached the age of 18. I respected her perspective and let her decide to what extent she would like to emphasise children's rights. She chose to refer briefly to the CRC in the teaching lessons. Julie's hesitance to address children's rights in teaching can be seen in relation to one of the findings from the telephone-interviews in phase 1, in which teachers reported that they did not address the legal framework concerning gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse to any great extent in their teaching. An important meta-inference in my study, based on findings across phases, is that there appears to be untapped potential for enabling students' respect for children's rights in social science education.

6.8 Ethical considerations

My research project is approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (project number 58236) [Norsk Senter for Forskningsdata (NSD)] and has been conducted in line with their ethical recommendations (see appendices VI, VII, VIII and IX).[5] The teachers were verbally informed about the purpose of the telephone survey, and they were sent the information sheet digitally (see Appendix I). Subsequently, students received information digitally as an introduction to the survey about which kind of topics related to gender, sexuality, sexual and gender-based violence they would like to address in social science education (see Appendix III). The students were given the information sheet in advance in writing, and I also went through this information with them verbally, especially focusing on the rights they had to withdraw at any time, to get access to the empirical data and to get the empirical data deleted if they wanted (see Appendix IV). I

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[5] There have been some modifications, and these modifications have been approved by NSD (see Appendix VII, VIII and XI). There has been no data collection in Spain. I did not video-record the teaching lessons at the upper secondary school, rather they were audio-recorded.

also repeated the information sheet by reading it aloud before conducting the group interviews. Nevertheless, the ethical concerns I had related to this project went far beyond the information sheet and informed consent, although these aspects are also important. I was concerned that this study could cause students harm, and the principle of doing as little harm as possible should be at the heart of every project design (Ryen, 2017; The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee, 2019).

As addressed in Article III we took several measures to reduce potential harmful effects. When dealing with such sensitive issues, it is essential that students are given time to mentally and emotionally prepare and that they get the opportunity not to take part. The students were informed about the content and aim of the teaching lesson two weeks in advance and were encouraged to contact their teacher or me if they had any queries. As such, they were given time to prepare emotionally (Lowe, 2015). The students were limited to verbal and nonverbal ways of harassment, such as body language, to avoid physical harassment, which could be the most degrading form. We opted to design the teaching lesson in a way that did not leave the students feeling belittled or disempowered to stop harassment because this would have been the contrary of what the intention was. We added an element of students' active engagement in stopping harassment; one or more of the roles in each group was to be an interventionist.

In chapter 8, I discuss how I sought to alleviate teachers' sense of guilt related to teaching about these sensitive issues, which I consider an ethical contribution.

6.9 Brief concluding remarks

In this chapter, I have presented my use of a mixed methods research design to explore teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching practice on harassment and abuse in Norwegian upper secondary schools by focusing on the integration of sample, data and phases. Applying a mixed methods approach has felt liberating for me as a researcher. The integration of quantitative and qualitative strands has been essential for enriching and deepening my understanding of this complex phenomenon.

Part II

7. The articles

Article I: Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, B. (2019). Children's rights and teachers' responsibilities: Reproducing or transforming the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse? *Human Rights Education Review (HRER), 2*(1), 25–46. https://doi.org/10.7577/hrer.3079

Article II: Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, B. (2022). Exploring variation in Norwegian social science teachers' practice concerning sexuality education: Who teachers are matters and so does school culture. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 66*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2020.1869072

Article III: Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, B. (2022). Young learners' perceptions of learning about sexual and gender-based harassment: The struggle for recognition in school. *The International Journal of Children's Rights*, *30*(2), 404-437. https://doi.org/10.1163/15718182-30020005

Children's rights and teachers' responsibilities: reproducing or transforming the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse?

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Abstract: Enhancing young learners' knowledge about appropriate and inappropriate sexual behaviour is crucial for the protection of children's rights. This article discusses teachers' understandings of their practices and approaches to the topic of child sexual abuse in Norwegian upper secondary schools, based on phone interviews with 64 social science teachers. Countering child sexual abuse is a political priority for the Norwegian government, and the Committee on the Rights of the Child acknowledges several state initiatives to counter child sexual abuse through education. Nevertheless, this study finds that teachers do not address this topic adequately, indicating that cultural taboos regarding talking about and thus preventing such abuse, including rape among young peers, still prevail in Norwegian classrooms. Furthermore, emotional obstacles, including concerns about re-traumatising and stigmatising learners, hinder some teachers from addressing this topic thoroughly. Additional explanatory factors include heavy teacher workloads, little preparation in teacher education programmes, insufficient information in textbooks, and an ambiguous national curriculum.

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Abstract: Enhancing young learners' knowledge about appropriate and inappropriate sexual behaviour is crucial for the protection of children's rights. This article discusses teachers' understandings of their practices and approaches to the topic of child sexual abuse in Norwegian upper secondary schools, based on phone interviews with 64 social science teachers. Countering child sexual abuse is a political priority for the Norwegian government, and the Committee on the Rights of the Child acknowledges several state initiatives to counter child sexual abuse through education. Nevertheless, this study shows that teachers do not address this topic to any great extent, indicating that the cultural taboos regarding teaching about and preventing such abuse, including rape among young peers, still prevails in Norwegian classrooms today. Emotional obstacles such as concerns about re-traumatising and stigmatising young learners hinder some teachers from addressing this topic thoroughly in the classroom. Additional explanatory factors may include heavy teacher workloads, little preparation in teacher education programmes, insufficient information in textbooks, and an ambiguous national curriculum.

Keywords: Children´s rights, social science education, child sexual abuse, Norway

Introduction

 'Sexual violence should not be a topic in social science education. We (teachers) don't have time to deal with the consequences' (personal communication with the author, 2018). This Norwegian teacher's statement might provoke several questions. Does sexual violence have anything to do with social science education? Do we have time to talk about sexual violence, as doing so might open up Pandora's box? What would the consequences be of keeping that potentially troublesome box closed, and why do some teachers avoid the topic? Although teachers have the potential to detect and prevent violence, the Council of Europe (2015, p. 7) pinpoints that many young people do not, in school, get the opportunity to discuss topics such as sexual orientation, gender-based violence or child sexual abuse. Some teachers may feel that these issues are too challenging to address.

Previous research in Norwegian secondary schools shows that sex education is primarily taught in natural science classes, less so in religion classes and even less so in the social sciences (Røthing & Svendsen, 2009, p. 16). A narrow understanding of sexuality appears to have dominated Norwegian sex education, one primarily emphasizing the biological aspects such as fertilization and reproduction (ibid, p. 23) instead of the more social dimensions of sexual behaviour.

In 2007, the Norwegian Centre for Violence and Traumatic Stress Studies conducted a survey among 548 students studying to become preschool teachers, elementary teachers or child protection workers. They were surveyed about how much knowledge they got about the following topics through their education: 1) The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), 2) physical child abuse, 3) child sexual abuse and 4) conversational methods with children (Øverlien & Sogn, 2007). Elementary school teacher students, in particular, reported a great lack of preparation regarding how to deal with children exposed to violence (ibid). In a follow-up study eight years later, results show that 427 students within the same disciplines report that they have received more teaching about the four topics than those participating in 2007 (Øverlien & Moen, 2016, p. 3). However, the students in this study do not report a clear increased focus on these issues in their educational programme. The researchers find this worrisome and pinpoint how teachers and preschool teachers are in the unique position of seeing children daily and over time, which:

> Gives them the opportunity to observe children's well-being, behavioural changes, signs of injury or other signals indicating that the child is in a difficult situation. Therefore, they have an important role in prevention and intervention (Øverlien & Moen, 2016, p. 3)

This article is based on the first study of how the issue of sexual violence is taught in social science classes in Norwegian upper secondary schools. The empirical data was collected through a phone survey of 64 upper secondary school teachers in 2018. The analytical focus of this article is narrowed down to child sexual abuse, and the research question is: 'To what extent are social science teachers reproducing or transforming the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse?' This is an essential field to study, because sexual crime against children and adolescents is a serious social challenge both in Norway and across the world today (National Police Directorate & Norwegian Prosecuting Authority, 2018; Mossige & Stefansen, 2016; Myhre, Thoresen & Hjemdal, 2015; World Health Organization, 2017).

Countering violence and child sexual abuse is a political priority for the Norwegian government (Norwegian Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion, 2014). There is a need for more knowledge about teaching practice on child sexual abuse in order to strengthen the practical implementation of the UNCRC through education. This article argues for the need to address this issue. The argument is based on key articles of this convention, which sees children's rights as a framework for education for social justice (Osler, 2016). The factors influencing teaching practice, based on empirical material, will be analysed. This is followed by recommendations on how teachers can include the children's rights perspective and use literary fiction in their teaching.

Child sexual abuse in Norway
This section briefly outlines what I refer to when using the concepts of sexual violence and child sexual abuse, and how I perceive the differences between these terms. Sexual violence is a gendered phenomenon as it is 'intertwined with understandings of both masculinity and femininity as well as gendered relations of power on a societal level' (Skilbrei and Stefansen, 2018, p. 11). This article draws on the World Health Organization's definition of sexual violence as:

> Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work (World Health Organization 2002:149).

I consider child sexual abuse to be a branch of the wider concept of sexual violence. Child sexual abuse entails any sexual act between an adult and a minor under the age of consent, or between two minors who have an asymmetrical power relationship, either in age, physical strength, or development, and there is an element of coercion (Bechtel & Bennett, 2019). Sexual abuse includes forcing or persuading a child to engage in sexual contact, including non-contact acts such as exposure to pornography, involving the child in pornography, and sexualized communication through the phone or the Internet (Townsend & Rheingold, 2013).

Children can sometimes also sexually offend each other, and this phenomenon is referred to by different terms. The following section is based on Skilbrei and Stefansen's overview of this body of literature (2018, pp. 14-15). The psychologist Kjellgren (2009) refers to this phenomenon as 'adolescents who sexually offend' or 'youth who sexually abuse'. In addition, the term 'young people displaying sexually harmful behaviour' is also found in research literature; this is often defined as young people who commit sexual acts in an asymmetrical relation of power due to age, emotional maturity, gender, physical strength, and/or intellect (Myles-Wright & Nee, 2017).

In Norway, it is illegal to engage in sexual acts with children under the age of 16. It is also illegal for minors to have sex with each other. Sexual acts with children below the age of 14 are considered rape, in order to enhance children's protection and signal the severity of engaging in sexual acts with children (National Police Directorate & Norwegian Prosecuting Authority, 2018, p. 53). In a phone survey conducted by the Norwegian Centre for Violence and Traumatic Stress Studies, 1,012 girls and 1,050 boys between the ages of 16 to 17 were asked if they had experienced sexual abuse (Myhre, Thoresen & Hjemdal, 2015). Thirteen percent of girls and four percent of boys said that they had experienced sexual abuse, which includes sexual contact before the age of 13, rape, drug-related abuse, unwanted touching by using threats, or pressure to commit sexual acts. Seventy-five percent of these abuses were committed by a person known to the victim (ibid, p. 14). In Mossige and Stefansen's study (2016), 2,673 girls and 1,857 boys between 18 and19 were asked about their experiences of sexual violence. The results showed that 775 girls and 130 boys of the 4,530 teenagers surveyed had experienced sexual abuse.

According to the Norwegian police, there has been a substantial 46 percent increase in reported crime related to sexual acts and rape of children under the age of 14 from the first third of 2017 to the first third of 2018 (National Police Directorate & Norwegian Prosecuting Authority, 2018, p. 55). This increase in reported crime is explained by several factors; there has been an increase in uncovering unreported cases, but the police also believe that there has been an actual escalation in sexual crimes against children, especially related to online abuse.

Norway's implementation of the UNCRC in educational institutions
The UNCRC is a legally binding document, since Norway ratified the Convention in 1991. Two articles in the UNCRC, namely articles 19 and 34, explicitly protect the child from violence and sexual abuse;

> Article 19
> 1.States Parties shall take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child. (UNCRC, 1989, article 19, part 1)
>
> Article 34
> States Parties undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. For these purposes, States Parties shall in particular take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent:
> (a) The inducement or coercion of a child to engage in any unlawful sexual activity;
> (b) The exploitative use of children in prostitution or other unlawful sexual practices;
> (c) The exploitative use of children in pornographic performances and materials (UNCRC, 1989)

In order to provide children and adolescents with protection from child sexual abuse, it is important they have access to knowledge and participation rights (Osler, 2016, p. 144). This is linked to the right to education (UNCRC, article 28) and the right to be heard in matters that affect their lives (UNCRC, article 12). According to the report of the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the right to education:

> The right to education includes the right to sexual education, which is both a human right in itself and an indispensable means of realizing other human rights, such as the right to health, the right to information and sexual and reproductive rights [...] Thus, the right to comprehensive sexual education is part of the right of persons to human rights education (United Nations, 2010, p. 7).

Human rights education consists of education and training *about, through* and *for* human rights (United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2011, article 2). Education *about* human rights includes 'knowledge and understanding of human rights norms', education *through* human rights consist of 'learning and teaching in a way that respects the rights of both educators and learners', and education *for* human rights entails 'empowering persons to enjoy and exercise their rights and to respect and uphold the rights of others' (ibid). When addressing how child sexual abuse is a violation of children's rights, the teacher creates a space for education about human rights. By actively listening to children's voices in the classroom, and perhaps listening to their experiences with this kind of

violence outside the classroom, the teacher educates through children's rights. Through that potential transfer of knowledge about abusive situations from student to teacher, the teacher has an ethical and professional commitment to act on behalf of that acquired knowledge: the UNCRC article 3 safeguards this by stating that 'the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration'. The teacher could directly influence the life of a child who is being abused through talking about how some secrets should not be kept, informing the child protection services and contributing to ending the violence. Such actions are efforts that work for children's rights. Education for human rights in relation to sexual violence entails equipping young learners with profound respect for their own human worth, their own bodily rights, and the human worth and rights of others both in the present and in the future.

It must be stressed, however, that the child's voice should also be taken into consideration when informing the child protection services, because it might take some time before the child agrees to that. This could constitute an ethical dilemma, because according to the Norwegian law on child protection services §6-4 (www.lovdata.no, 2018), notifying the authorities if there is suspicion of child abuse is a professional obligation. In such cases, it would be important to talk with the child in question about how some secrets should not be silenced (Raundalen & Schultz, 2016).

In the new Norwegian general principles for education, it is stated that 'when teachers care for the pupil and see the individual, human worth is recognized as an essential value for the school and society' (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training 2017, p. 5). This document confirms that education should be in concordance with the UNCRC regarding both children's knowledge and practical implementation of their rights.

The Committee on the Rights of the Child monitors implementation of the UNCRC by its state parties (United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2019). The latest report from the Committee acknowledges that the Norwegian state has undertaken measures to deal with violence and child sexual abuse through education (Committee on the Rights of the Child [CRC], 2016). From 2014-2016, county governors organized courses on talking to children about violence and sexual abuse for staff working in kindergartens and schools. The report affirms that:

> The school's role in preventing violence and sexual abuse has been strengthened in recent years. The goals concerning pupils' knowledge about violence, violations, violence linked to sexuality, and violence in close relationships were clarified in the learning objectives [...] in 2013 (CRC, 2017, p13)

The Norwegian government has made it a priority to counter violence and child sexual abuse, publishing the strategic document *Childhood Comes but Once* (2013) and the action plan *A Good Childhood Lasts a Lifetime* (2014). This plan includes an increased focus on violence and child sexual abuse in professional educational programs and assigns human resources in schools to support the teachers in their work (Norwegian Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion, 2014). The document *A Good Childhood Lasts a Lifetime* acknowledges that:

> We all have a duty to act when we have reason to believe that a child or an adolescent is at risk. Management and the individual staff members in public service agencies have a special responsibility. It is also important that members of children's social networks act on any suspicion of violence or sexual abuse. We can all make a difference in the lives of children and youth at risk. There is no excuse for looking the other way (Norwegian Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion, 2014).

According to this document, countering violence and child sexual abuse is Norway's most important contribution to fulfilling the country's commitment to the UNCRC (ibid, p. 9). Nevertheless, there appears to be a discrepancy between the alleged strengthening of the school's role in preventing violence and sexual abuse when this is compared to my empirical material on teaching practice in Norwegian upper secondary schools (discussed later).

The cultural taboo on child sexual abuse

The concept of cultural taboos is essential to understanding the findings in my empirical data. This section is in part based on my translation of Søftestad's discussion of cultural taboos (Søftestad, 2008, pp. 49-52). The taboo is here defined as a cultural phenomenon that entails a social prohibition on making visible or telling others about child sexual abuse (Leira, 1990). The culture maintains its taboos with contempt as a sanction and this contempt can lead to shame, stigmatization, and isolation. Most people will seek to avoid these social reactions, and therefore subordinate themselves to comply with the norm of making sure that the invisible remains unseen. According to Mossige (2000), the cultural taboo regarding child sexual abuse can work in two ways: firstly, it prevents adults from engaging in sexual actions with children; secondly, it works as an obstacle for talking about the sexual abuse that has taken place - for the offender, the offended, and others who know or might know about the misconduct. Steine et al. (2016) conducted a survey of 508 victims who had experienced sexual abuse as children. The anecdotal evidence reflects some of the emotional obstacles victims of sexual violence face:

> Afraid of consequences/punishment, afraid of not being believed, afraid of ruining the family, afraid of doing harm to the perpetrator and the rest of the family, the feeling it was my fault, I had done something wrong, afraid that others would get mad at me, shame, afraid that everybody else would know what I had done, afraid of being rejected, afraid that everybody else would know how disgusting I was, and that they would think I was disgusting (Steine et al., 2016, [the author's translation]).

This quote pinpoints how fear and shame work as obstacles to telling someone about their experiences. It takes on average 17.2 years before victims of child sexual abuse tell anyone (ibid).

International research on preventive teaching

There is international recognition for the potential of preventive teaching to enable children to recognize and avoid potentially sexually abusive situations, as 'developmentally, it makes sense to educate young people in appropriate and inappropriate sexual behaviour in a time when their sexual identities are forming' (WHO, 2010, p. 46). A review on child maltreatment prevention from mainly English-speaking countries found mixed results on the effectiveness of child sexual abuse (CSA) programmes in schools (Mikton & Butchart, 2009, p. 354). Through these programmes, children learn about body ownership, the difference between good and bad touch, and how to recognize abusive situations, say no, and disclose abuse to a trusted adult. These programs have a positive effect on strengthening knowledge and protective behaviours against sexual violence. However, it is uncertain whether such programmes decrease child abuse.

A review of 24 school-based education programs for the prevention of child sexual abuse (Walsh, Zwi, Woolfenden & Shlonsky, 2015) also indicates that preventive teaching is effective. These studies included 5,802 participants in both primary and upper secondary schools in the United States, Canada, China, Germany, Spain, Taiwan, and Turkey. The educational programs included the 'teaching of safety rules, body ownership, private parts of the body, distinguishing types of touches, and who to tell' (ibid, p. 3). Children who receive preventive education are more likely to report past or on-going abuses, and it is likely that such education increases the child's capability to protect himself or herself from abuse (ibid).

Merging quantitative and qualitative research methods

I collected the data for this study through a phone survey with 64 social science teachers in Norwegian upper secondary schools from February – October 2018. The 34 female and 30 male respondents were currently teaching, or had previously taught, the mandatory social science subject in upper secondary school in the previous two years. This subject is the only social science subject taken by all upper secondary school students in Norway, regardless of their study program.

My interview technique was to use a structured survey with fixed response alternatives, but simultaneously invite the participants to share their thoughts during the phone interview, merging elements from both quantitative and qualitative methods. This resonates with a branch of mixed methods research called 'merged method', embodying in one single method the advantages of both approaches or methods (Gobo, 2015). One of the objectives of this study was to quantitatively measure which sensitive topics are being taught and, at the same time, gain insight into the teachers' experiences from everyday life in the classroom. In most cases, I asked follow-up questions that were not part of the structured survey, because I wanted to know more about why the informants answered the way they did. I took detailed notes on a physical copy of the survey, while also 'ticking the boxes' on the predetermined Likert scale, which will be explained below. The answers to the fixed response alternatives were later transferred to the computer programme Stata for analysis, and the qualitative information was gathered in a notebook.

Alvesson and Sköldberg (2009) call for 'reflexive research', referring to awareness of how one produces knowledge. My previous job as a phone-interviewer for Statistics Norway influences how I view statistical knowledge production. At Statistics Norway, we only registered informants' answers to the fixed response alternatives, although people often wanted to explain why they replied the way they

did. In my own study, I wanted to include teachers' reflections on why they responded the way they did, because it provides a richer understanding of how they perceive their practice. This article's analysis is based on descriptive statistics and qualitative information I obtained through my phone interviews with the teachers. In addition, I have conducted a brief content analysis of the most frequently used social science textbook.

Survey design

This survey was designed based on my experience as a social science teacher in 3 different Norwegian upper secondary schools over the last six years. It consists of:

1) Personal information: age, gender, education, work experience.

2) Perceptions of:

- Their education's relevance for teaching about gender, sexuality and sexual violence
- Their eligibility to teach about these issues
- The importance of addressing gender, sexuality and sexual violence in the classroom
- The difficulty of teaching about these issues in different classrooms

To measure their perceptions, I applied a version of the Likert scale. For example, in asking 'to what extent has your educational background been relevant to teaching about sexual violence', the fixed alternatives range from 0 – To no extent, 1 – To a little extent, 2- To some extent, 3 – To a relatively high extent, and 4 – To a high extent.

3) 14 questions about to what extent certain topics related to sexual violence are covered through their teaching:

- Rape: Statistics and penalties for committing rape
- Laws protecting against sexual harassment and abuse
- The #MeToo movement
- Sexual harassment: Gender differences in sexual harassment, sexual harassment as a challenge for gender equality
- Asymmetrical relations of power in sexual harassment and abuse
- Non-consensual sharing of sexual imagery
- Child sexual abuse

I calculated the mean average of what all of the respondents answered to each of these 14 questions. Each topic has a score between 0-4 – see Table 1.

4) Questions about what kind of work methods teachers use to address sexual violence, including to what extent they use:

- Clips from TV-series, movies or news - Audio-visual tools
- Reading the social science textbook
- Reading news articles
- Writing
- Group work
- Class discussion

5) Questions about to what extent social science textbooks cover topics related to gender, sexuality and sexual violence.

6) Questions about to what extent the national curriculum covers the issues in question.

7) Questions about cooperation among the social science teachers and focus on sexual violence from the school management.

The 'Dark Room' investigation and media coverage of child sexual abuse
Recently, the Norwegian police launched an investigation named 'Dark Room', in which 84 persons have been charged with rape, human trafficking, and presenting and sharing sexualized pictures and abusive material online, involving babies and children worldwide (www.nrk.no, 2019). This is the most extensive investigation related to online child sexual abuse in Norwegian history, and the trials have been closely covered in the media. In 2019, a man was sentenced to 16 years in prison for having sexually abused over 190 babies and children under the age of 16. This man had contacted a mother in the Philippines, paying her to make her three-year-old daughter sexually abuse her three-month-old baby brother (Rognstrand, 2019). This case illustrates how child sexual abuse has moved to digital realms – transcending time and space as it can be video-recorded and spread worldwide, no longer being confined to the physical presence of victim and perpetrator.

Although there is much focus on child sexual abuse in the media, the cultural taboo in personal relations seems to prevent teachers from addressing this topic thoroughly. Søftestad (2008, p. 51) writes that media often portray scandalous cases of this kind of abuse, which might give the impression that child sexual abuse is no longer a general cultural taboo. However, she points out that the cultural taboo still prevails in the everyday work of uncovering such abuse by schools, kindergartens, and child protection services. This coincides with the findings in this survey that portray the prevalence of taboos on this issue in Norwegian classrooms today.

Factors influencing teachers' practice regarding sexual violence
This model pinpoints factors influencing teachers' practice regarding sexual violence; it is based on my empirical material. The analytical focus has evolved around three aspects: namely, teachers' perceptions of how sexual violence is addressed in 1) the most widely used textbooks, 2) the national curriculum for social science and 3) the media. The concept of cultural taboos is relevant for understanding how child sexual abuse is partly silenced in social science textbooks and the national curriculum.
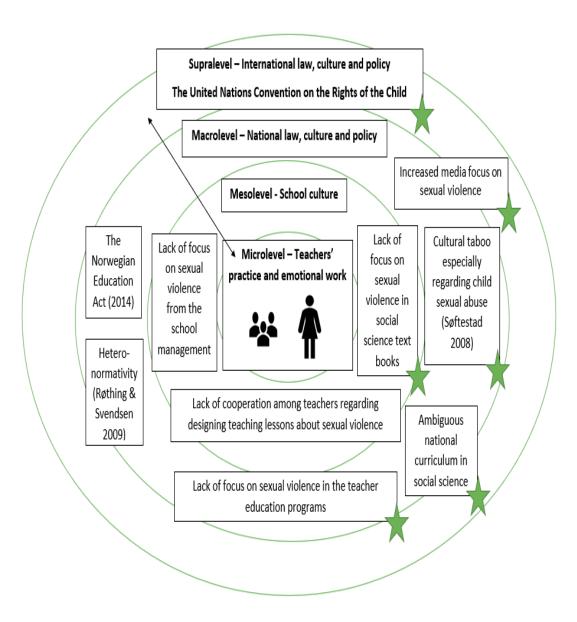
Figure 1: Structural and relational factors influencing teaching practice in the classroom.
(The stars indicate the analytical foci of this article. The model is based on empirical data collected by the author, 2018. It is inspired by Uri Bronfenbrenner [1979]).

From teaching about #MeToo to child sexual abuse
Table 1 portrays the mean averages of responses regarding the extent to which social science teachers say they cover these topics through their teaching. It includes a percentage overview, so that nuances may be seen:

Ranking	To what extent informants say that they cover these topics through their teaching	Average 0 (No extent) – 4 (High extent)	No extent	Little extent	Some extent	Relatively high extent	High extent
1	The #MeToo movement	2,55	6%	13%	27%	29%	25%
2	Penalties for rape	2,25	6%	9%	50%	22%	13%
3	Sexual violence	2,10	5%	19%	40%	14%	12%
4	Non-consensual sharing of pictures with sexual imagery	2,09	11%	11%	45%	23,5%	9,5%
5	Sexual harassment as a challenge for gender equity	2,06	6%	25%	41%	12%	16%
6	Asymmetrical relations of power in relation to sexual harassment and abuse	1,96	14%	17%	39%	17%	13%
7	Gender differences in sexual harassment and abuse	1,95	9%	23%	38%	22%	8%
8	Intimacy boundaries regarding one's own body and the body of others	1,90	9%	25%	39%	19%	8%
9	Statistics about rape	1,89	6%	25%	45,5%	20,5%	3%
	Rape	1,89	6%	28%	44%	14%	8%
10	The legal framework protecting against sexual harassment and abuse	1,87	16%	19%	39%	17%	9%
11	Sexuality and sexual orientation	1,82	6%	22%	56%	14%	2%
12	Rape among peers	1,81	16%	20%	38%	20%	6%
13	Child sexual abuse	1,62	9,5%	31,5%	50%	6%	3%

* The #MeToo movement is relevant from the schoolyear 2017/2018 and onwards.

Table 1: Perceived teaching methods when addressing sexual abuse

According to Table 1, the #MeToo movement was the most discussed topic regarding sensitive issues during the school year 2017/2018, whereas the two least addressed topics were rape among young peers and child sexual abuse. There appears to be more focus on the penalties for rape rather than on the legal framework that protects citizens from sexual harassment and abuse, and we see a greater

emphasis on punishment than on the rights every human being possesses. There is room for improvement in how Norwegian social science education can raise young students' awareness of the legal framework protecting children and adolescents from sexual violence. This resonates with the report from the Committee on the Rights of the Child, which states there is a need for more familiarity with the UNCRC in Norwegian educational institutions (CRC, 2017, p. 5). In the words of Osler (2016, p. 119), 'People need to know they have rights in order to claim them'.

Forty-two percent of the informants said that they do not, or to a small degree, cover the topic of child sexual abuse through their teaching. In this study, I have identified several obstacles to why teachers are willing to address child sexual abuse. Some are hesitant because it might be time-consuming to hear the children's stories of abuse and from there take necessary measures. This is linked to at least two factors: the workload teachers face, and the sheer amount of competence aims in the current curriculum. The mandatory social science curriculum consists of 35 competence aims with only three 45-minute teaching lessons per week (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). Such organisation makes many teachers feel stressed for lack of time, disabling them from contributing to in-depth learning for their students, which is not an ideal situation.

There is one competence aim in this curriculum that clearly states: '*Analyse the extent of various forms of crime and abuse and discuss how such actions can be prevented, and how the rule of law works*' (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). However, 73 percent of the informants stated that the national curriculum in social science does not, or to a small extent, cover sexual abuse. This might be because of the different interpretations of the Norwegian word for 'abuse' [*overgrep*] – this term can also be used for physical or psychological abuse that is not sexual. However, it is most commonly used in referring to sexual abuse (www.overgep.no, 2017). This lack of clarity provides room for individual interpretation, which contributes to making this topic invisible to many teachers. The objective here is not to blame teachers, but rather to critically examine the curriculum.

Beyond the 'lack of time' phenomenon and the ambiguity of the curriculum, 66 percent of the informants said that their educational background has had no or little relevance for teaching about sexual violence. There is reason to believe that there is room for improving how teacher education programmes can open up for classroom dialogue about sexual violence and, in particular, child sexual abuse.

Moreover, there are several emotional obstacles to putting child sexual abuse on the agenda. Some teachers are anxious about re-traumatising children who might have experienced unwanted sexual acts by talking about it in the classroom. Most teachers are concerned about not causing the students any harm, and some feel that teaching about child sexual abuse could potentially do this. My interpretation of this is that most teachers care for their young students, but that their care is misunderstood if this issue is not addressed: such silence does no-one any favours. Addressing child sexual abuse is a way of taking the child seriously, recognizing that, for some children, childhood can have dark sides.

Some teachers surveyed spoke of the risks for potential stigmatization, if, for example, one of the students exits the classroom in tears during the lesson. This shows a concern for how fellow students would react if they knew, and also a concern for how the potential student would feel if s/he knew that others possibly knew that there had been an abusive situation. This is linked to the cultural taboo: what if

someone found out about something that no one was supposed to know? I would argue that the silence needs to be broken if we wish to counter the perpetuation of sexual abuse. Teachers have the opportunity to do this, and an ethical responsibility to do something about the fact that it takes an average of 17.2 years for victims to disclose that they have suffered child sexual abuse.

According to Table 1, rape committed by young peers is, on average, the second most silenced topic in the classroom. This relative silence is problematic for a variety of reasons. When examining the surveys on the prevalence of unwanted sexual acts experienced by children and adolescents in Norway, we see that those who most frequently sexually abuse girls under the age of 14 are not adult men, which is the stereotypical image, but rather adolescent boys between 15 and 19 (Mossige and Stefansen, 2016). In Mossige and Stefansen's study (2016), the respondents who had at least one experience with unwanted touching, rape or attempted rape, also answered a question regarding their relationship to the offender. Two-thirds of the unwanted sexual acts were committed by a friend, boyfriend/girlfriend or acquaintance (ibid). According to Skilbrei and Stefansen (2018, p. 59), knowledge about which relations that are most 'dangerous' is important for preventing sexual violence when talking to adolescents.

The mandatory social science subject is offered in the first year for those in general studies and the second year for those in vocational studies, meaning that most students taking the course are between 16 and 17. This is a crucial age for discussing these issues. Preventive teaching can not only make adolescents aware of potentially abusive situations, but it can also increase their knowledge about their inherent rights and sense of self-worth. In addition, young people who sexually offend could also become more aware of the implications and consequences of their actions.

One of the challenges teachers face when addressing rape among peers is victim-blaming. This concept refers to how victims of sexual violence are perceived as having taken part in what happened to them and having shown poor judgement by being at the wrong place at the wrong time (Skilbrei & Stefansen, 2018, p. 12). One informant, whose pseudonym is Maya, told me that one of the comments she hears in the classroom is 'it's not really rape – the girls want it'. When this occurs, she tries to relate it to a beloved member of the family: 'What would you say if someone raped your mother or your sister?' She says that this is useful in making young students think about what they are actually saying and is a way of triggering their sympathy.

Making sexual violence invisible in social science textbooks
Most of the informants surveyed use the textbook *Fokus* (Aschehough, 2013), whose nearly 300 sides have only half a page devoted to sexual violence. This includes some information about an increase in reported sexual crime, and three sentences about how many victims of sexual abuse often know the offender. There is no mention of the asymmetrical relations of power that often prevail between victim and offender, nothing about the shame that might make victims reluctant to press charges, nothing about how the UNCRC explicitly protects children from sexual exploitation and abuse, and, perhaps what is worst, nothing about the importance of telling someone after experiencing unwanted sexual acts. Seventy-four percent of the informants believe that the social science textbook does not include or to a small degree include the topic of sexual violence. To counter the insufficiency of the textbooks, many informants find alternative tools for addressing sensitive topics. Table 2 portrays

which kind of teaching methods the teachers use if addressing sexual violence in the classroom:

Teaching methods	Mean average 0 (No degree) – 4 (high degree)	No degree	Little degree	Some degree	Relatively high degree	High degree
Class discussion	2,64	8%	9%	23%	30%	30%
News articles	2,07	8%	23%	37%	16%	16%
Group work	1,73	23,5%	19%	28%	20%	9,5%
Video-clips, movies or other audio-visual tools	1,62	22%	25%	33%	9%	11%
Writing	1,26	25%	37%	27%	8%	3%
Reading the textbook	1,12	28%	39%	26,5%	4,5%	2%

Table 2: Perceptions of teaching methods based on data collected by the author in 2018.

In this study, the most common teaching method for addressing sexual violence is class discussion. Several teachers reported how they use news articles as a point of departure for class discussion and/or group work. Several of the informants said that they use different kinds of literary fiction and/or documentaries as a strategy of varying the teaching methods and countering the insufficiency of textbooks. Two of the series and video-clips they mention are the popular Norwegian TV-series *SKAM* [Shame] (https://tv.nrk.no, 2016) and the video-clip "The UK explained sexual consent in the most British way possible" (www.youtube.com, 2016). This latter production uses the metaphor of drinking tea – we would not pour tea down someone's throat if they had said they didn't want a cup.

Countering the insufficiency of textbooks by cultivating the learner's narrative imagination

It can be challenging as a teacher to know where to start when planning a class on child sexual abuse. Discussing different approaches with colleagues and designing a lesson together can be useful. When dealing with highly sensitive issues in general, I believe that it is important to prepare the students some days in advance. In this case, this would entail informing them that the next lesson will be about child sexual abuse, and telling them how you will be working with the topic. I recommend that teachers explicitly highlight how this topic is related to the UNCRC - every child has the right to be protected from sexual exploitation and abuse, the right to comprehensive

sexuality education including child sexual abuse and the right to be heard in matters that affect their lives.

It is essential to mention to students that if anyone has questions or any comments, they are more than welcome to approach the teacher privately beforehand. In this section, I would like to make some recommendations on how to go about the actual teaching. In addition to TV-series or video-clips such as those mentioned above, it can be useful to turn to literary fiction, to short stories or animated picture books. Inspired by the Indian poet and educator Tagore, Nussbaum writes about the importance of cultivating young people's narrative imagination, which can be defined as:

> The ability to think what it might be like to be in the shoes of a person different from oneself, to be an intelligent reader of that person's story, and to understand the emotions and wishes and desires that someone so placed might have. As Tagore wrote, 'We may become powerful by knowledge, but we attain fullness by sympathy… But we find that this education of sympathy is not only systematically ignored, but it is severely repressed' (Tagore 1961, p. 219 in Nussbaum 2006, p. 391).

From my perspective, enhancing both knowledge and sympathy is probably the most powerful combination when addressing different kinds of oppression. Nussbaum goes on to say that 'the narrative imagination is cultivated, above all, through literature and the arts' (ibid). The idea is that through our imagination we can gain insight into the experience of another person that is difficult to attain in daily life (Nussbaum 2014, p. 391).

Raundalen and Schultz (2016) suggest the use of literary fiction for opening up a dialogue about child sexual abuse in the classroom. The great advantage of this approach is that young students learn through a story and characters that are not them, but with whom some might identify. It creates a common platform for discussing the content, which can form the basis of a democratic dialogue between teacher and pupils about social taboos, feelings of shame and guilt, asymmetrical power relations, the power of trust, and adults' responsibility to protect children and adolescents from harm. In their book, they include literary fiction on preventive teaching through the story 'Mom's Secret' (Raundalen & Schultz 2016, pp. 75- 120). The protagonist of the story is 16-year-old Kaja, who discovers that her mother had been sexually abused by her own father as a child, and that her best friend Kathrine has also been abused by her step-father. It might be thought that this story upholds stereotypical images of who sexual offenders are; both Kaja's mother and Kathrine were abused by older adult men, which is not necessarily always the case. However, it creates a common platform for discussion.

The picture book *Blekkspruten* [The Octopus] (Dahle & Nyhus, 2016) tells the story of a young girl who is sexually abused by her teenage brother. Here the stereotypical image of an adult male offender is challenged because it recognizes that there are also some children who abuse other children sexually. In Mossige and Stefansen's study (2016), approximately 10 percent of unwanted sexual acts were committed by a family member.

In both of these fictional works we meet a girl who is abused by an older boy or man. In the classroom, it would be important to pinpoint that sexual abuse is not

just something that happens to girls - it also happens to boys and, in some cases, the perpetrator of violence could be of the same gender. Moreover, it is increasingly important to talk about the fact that abuse can also occur online.

Literary fiction can be used to explain the term 'asymmetrical relations of power' and students need to be provided with knowledge about how asymmetrical relations of power and shame are part of the cultural taboo that maintains the silence. Discussion of this issue can be based on Søftestad's more extensive overview of what often characterizes the relationship between offender and offended (Søftestad 2008, pp. 49-55). Asymmetrical relations of power can be understood as relations in which one party has a greater ability to get his or her needs covered than the other party, given differences in age, physical strength, and so on. By not taking into consideration the other person's emotions and wishes, a subject-object relationship is established. Treating a person as a subject instead of an object requires respecting the person's own will, emotions and wishes. It could be a useful exercise for the students to identify the asymmetrical relations of power that are at play in the piece of literature. The shame many victims feel is also an element that should be brought up in class. I recommend pinpointing that victims of sexual violence are never to blame for the crime committed, although some might feel that way. Students should also know that it takes on average 17.2 years before a victim tells anyone about his or her experiences, because shame is a powerful obstacle to disclosure (Steine et al., 2016). Perhaps the most important aspect to include in this kind of teaching is the importance of telling someone if you are the victim of sexual abuse - this enables young learners' action skills. Telling a trusted person about such experiences requires acknowledging and respecting one's own human worth and dignity, as well as upholding one's right to freedom from sexual abuse. It might be that becoming aware of one's right to freedom from violence and sexual abuse can contribute to restoring a sense of worth. Through breaking the silence, a victim of sexual injustice can embark on a process of healing, transforming him- or herself from a victim to a survivor.

Concluding remarks

Sexual injustice cannot be silenced in educational institutions if we are to foster healthy, respectful, and democratic citizens who protect not only their own human worth and human rights, but also those of others. However, there are factors maintaining the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse in the classroom: inadequate preparation in teacher education programmes; insufficient information in textbooks; and the ambiguous national social science curriculum. Moreover, some teachers are concerned about doing harm to students when addressing child sexual abuse. It would appear that these factors combine to silence this topic in the classroom. I argue that today's teaching practice on child sexual abuse does not fully comply with the children's right to education, the right to be heard in matters that affect their lives, and the right to freedom from sexual exploitation and abuse. As pinpointed by the Norwegian government, there is no excuse for looking in a different direction, because despite these obstacles, teachers have both the agency and the opportunities to counter the perpetuation of child sexual abuse.

I recommend working closely with other social science teachers, as well as in interdisciplinary teams, when designing classes on child sexual abuse. Working together can overcome the cultural taboo. Including literary fiction to cultivate young learners' narrative imagination is a powerful teaching method in combination with

key knowledge about the UNCRC, asymmetrical relations of power, how the cultural taboo works to maintain victims' silence and the importance of telling someone about the crime committed. I conclude with an inspirational quote: 'Equipping learners with skills implies equipping them with action skills through which they can take the next step to shape and realize a more just society' (Osler, 2016, p. 119).

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Exploring Variation in Norwegian Social Science Teachers' Practice Concerning Sexuality Education: Who Teachers Are Matters and So Does School Culture

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ABSTRACT

This article explores teaching practice concerning sexual harassment and abuse in Norwegian upper secondary schools based on phone interviews with 64 social studies teachers. This study portrays great variation in what extent teachers address these issues and discusses how this variation can be understood considering teachers' personal characteristics, their interpretation of the curriculum, school culture-related factors and media coverage of sexual harassment and abuse. Young female teachers address such matters the most and younger teachers teach more about these issues than older teachers in general. The effect of age is stronger on women than men; the older the female teachers are, the less do they address sexual harassment and abuse. Male teachers have the same level of teaching regardless of age. Teachers' characteristics appear to be equally influential as school culture-related factors.

Introduction

Sexuality education has gained attention in Norway and worldwide over the last decade (Hind, 2016; Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2009; Støle-Nilsen, 2017; Stubberud et al., 2017; Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2018). Research in the field of Norwegian sexuality education focuses on teachers' understandings and perceptions of practice in either secondary school from 8th to 10th grade (Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2009; Støle-Nilsen, 2017) or from 1st to 10th grade (Hind, 2016; Stubberud et al., 2017), whereas less research has been done in upper-secondary schools (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019). In 2008, Røthing & Bang Svendsen conducted a survey among 11 school leaders, 10 school nurses and 24 teachers in secondary schools in Mid-Norway ($N = 45$) (Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2008, author's translation). 21 respondents answered that they taught about sexual violence, 26 respondents replied that they address rape in class and 25 respondents answered that they taught about sexual harassment (Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2008; p. 51). At that time, there was not an explicit goal related to these issues in the curriculum from 2006 for secondary and upper-secondary school [Kunnskapsløftet]. They pointed out that this was rather peculiar given the prevalence of sexual violence among Norwegian adolescents (Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2009, p. 196). Since then, the curriculum was revised in 2013 and for the first time in Norwegian history, learning about sexual violence was made an explicit goal in secondary school; learners should now be able to 'analyze gender roles in descriptions of sexuality and explain the difference between wanted sexual contact and sexual abuse' (The National Directorate for Education and

Training, SAF1-03, 2013, author's translation) in social studies. In the mandatory social studies subject [samfunnsfag] in upper secondary school, sexual violence was included implicitly as students should learn to: 'Analyze the extent of various forms of crime and abuse and discuss how such actions can be prevented, and how the rule of law works' (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013, author's translation). There appears to prevail a cultural taboo regarding teaching about sexual violence, especially when it targets children and adolescents. In my own study (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019), I have found that child sexual abuse and rape among young peers are the least addressed topics related to sexual violence in upper secondary school. Still, there is not enough knowledge regarding *why* some teachers bring these matters into upper secondary classrooms, whereas others do not or do so to a little extent. This article contributes to fill both this knowledge gap and a methodological gap, since no current studies have explored through regression analysis how both teachers' personal characteristics and school culture-related factors such as cooperation between teachers and focus from the school management influence teaching about issues related to sexual harassment and abuse in social studies in Norwegian upper secondary schools.

Based on phone-interviews with 64 social studies teachers, this study discusses variation in teaching practice concerning sexual harassment and abuse in Norwegian upper secondary schools. The influence of curriculum content on teaching practice regarding sexual harassment and abuse will be discussed based on an analysis of the national curriculum in social studies (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013) and teachers' interpretations of this curriculum in upper secondary school. The research question is: How can we understand the variation in teaching practice concerning sexual harassment and abuse based on social studies teachers' personal characteristics, school-culture related factors, curriculum content and media coverage of sexual violence?

I have developed a theoretical figure based on the empirical content for this article, which is inspired by Bronfenbrenner (1979). This figure visually illustrates the organization of teaching practice regarding sexuality education in Norway, including factors influencing practice on a micro, meso, macro and supralevel. Complementing this figure, I draw upon Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, capital, field, doxa and reflexivity to provide lenses through which teachers' personal characteristics and practices in class within the wider school field can be analyzed (Bourdieu, 1977, 1986, 1990, 1993; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; Swartz 1997).

Støle-Nilsen (2017, pp. 18–20) identifies four different approaches to sexuality education in Norway; (1) the health approach, (2) the gender and diversity approach, (3) the crime approach and (4) the integrated approach, which combines the three preceding approaches. The purpose of the crime approach is to prevent criminal actions in relation to sexuality, such as sexual harassment and abuse, and the topics addressed include sexual boundaries, the legal framework, consent, abuse, rape, offenses and harassment (Støle-Nilsen, 2017, pp. 18–20). My own study could be thought to be situated within the crime approach, however, there are dimensions regarding sexual harassment and abuse that are linked to both health issues and gender and diversity matters. One example is to be found in Bendixen, Kennair and Daveronis' study (2018) among Norwegian adolescents; being exposed to verbal sexual harassment from young peers is associated with lower scores on indicators of well-being and unwanted sexual behavior negatively affects adolescents' mental health; an effect that is stronger for girls than boys. Sexual harassment is closely linked to gender and diversity matters, as sexual harassment can be heterosexual harassment, harassment based on sexual orientation and/or harassment based on gender non-conformity (Meyer, 2009). Therefore, I do not situate my study within the crime approach to sexuality education, but rather encourage the readers to consider these issues through an integrated and holistic lense. The holistic perspective on sexuality education is also recently addressed internationally by the United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (UNESCO, 2018). This organization promotes comprehensive sexuality education, which is a:

Curriculum-based process of teaching and learning about the cognitive, emotional, physical and social aspects of sexuality. It aims to equip children and young people with knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will empower them to: realize their health, well-being and dignity; develop respectful social and sexual relationships; consider how their choices affect their own well-being and that of others; and, understand and ensure the protection of their rights throughout their lives (UNESCO, 2018, p. 2016)

These guidelines are in tune with the Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989), which Norway ratified in 1991. Article 28 in this convention pinpoints children's rights to education and the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the right to education affirms that:

The right to education includes the right to sexual education, which is both a human right in itself and an indispensable means of realizing other human rights, such as the right to health, the right to information and sexual and reproductive rights. (United Nations Special Rapporteur on the right to education, 2010, p. 7)

The new general guidelines for Norwegian education [Overordnet del av læreplanen] (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017), confirms that the Convention on the Rights of the Child form part of the human rights, that it provides children and adolescents special protection and that the educational system should adhere to human rights.

The need for addressing the cognitive, emotional, physical and social dimensions of sexual behavior through education has become urgent as recent Norwegian quantitative studies confirm high prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse among adolescents (Bakken, 2019; Bendixen et al., 2016; Mossige & Stefansen, 2016). The UngData-report confirms that 1 out of 4 girls in upper secondary school have been exposed to unwanted sexual touching against their will, which also applies to 10% of boys (Bakken, 2019, p. 3). Mossige and Stefansen's study (2016, p. 80) also portray gender differences regarding experiences with unwanted sexual acts; nine percent of girls has experienced being forced to unwanted sexual intercourse and this also applies to five percent of boys. Children who are sexually abused have a greater risk of becoming perpetrators themselves later in life (Glasser et al., 2001), and it takes on average 17.2 years before victims of child sexual abuse tell anyone about their experience (Steine et al., 2016). Studies indicate that education about body ownership, private parts of the body, distinguishing between types of touches, and who to tell could increase young learners' capabilities of protecting himself or herself from abuse and increase the likelihood of reporting past or on-going abuses (Mikton & Butchart, 2009; Walsh et al., 2015), which could be considered an essential step towards countering the cycle of sexual violence.

This article applies the World Health Organization's definition of sexual violence as:

Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work. (World Health Organization, 2002, p. 149)

This definition of sexual violence includes a wide range of unwanted sexual acts ranging from comments and looks to physical sexual abuse including penetration of the body. The Norwegian Equality and Anti-Discrimination Act §13 defines sexual harassment as 'any form of unwanted sexual attention that aims to or is perceived as offending, frightening, hostile, condescending, humiliating or bothersome' (www.lovdata.no 2019). I consider sexual harassment to be a branch within the wider concept of sexual violence.

Approaches to Understanding the Organization of Norwegian Sexuality Education

Figure 1 illustrates the organization of Norwegian sexuality education based on the empirical content for this article, starting from micro-level with teachers' practice in the classroom, to school culture-related factors at meso-level such as the level of cooperation among social studies teachers in regard to developing teaching lessons together on sexual harassment and abuse and focus from the school management regarding enabling teachers' competence in this field. The macro-level includes
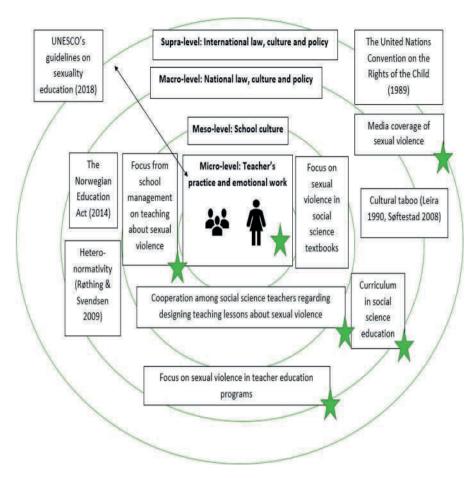
Figure 1. Factors influencing teaching practice in the classroom. The stars indicate the analytical foci of this article. The model is based on empirical data collected by the author, 2018. It is inspired by Uri Bronfenbrenner (1979). First published in Goldschmidt-Gjerløw (2019).

national law, culture and policy documents for education, in which the national curriculum for social studies is of relevance for the discussion. The supra-level addresses law, culture and policy documents on an international level, such as UNESCO's guidelines on sexuality education (2018) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). Media coverage of sexual violence operates on both macro and supra level and is therefore situated "in between". This figure is inspired by Bronfenbrenner (1979) and will now be discussed in light of Bourdieu's conceptual framework of practice, fields, capital forms, doxa and reflexivity as a theoretical backdrop for discussing the empirical content.

Bourdieu (1990) presents *habitus* as one of the most central concepts in his social theory and it addresses among other aspects whether the individual is conscious of, or not, how the socio-cultural strata in which that person belongs, influence how he or she perceives and interacts in the social environment. Our actions and ways of being are not primarily based on reflection, but rather a pre-reflexive understanding of how we must act (Bourdieu, 1990). Teachers embody the social norms and conditions of their socio-cultural and historical context and are likely to a certain extent reproduce these norms through their teaching. It is of interest for this article to address the social norms concerning whether or not one could actually talk about sexual harassment and abuse. Social movements pushing for sexual liberation in the 1960s marked the beginning of increased openness concerning sexuality in the Western world (Tønnesen, 2018). However, the cultural taboo

regarding sexual violence has prevailed up until recently. This taboo can be defined as a cultural phenomenon that entails a social prohibition on making visible or telling others about acts related to sexual violence (Leira, 1990), which does not necessarily operate at a conscious level and can become embodied in teachers' habitus through an internalization of this social prohibition, because habitus develops according to the social sphere in which the person lives. Bourdieu terms this sphere the "field" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992), which is a sphere of action that conditions those who act within it, according to their status within the field. The classroom can be seen as a field, situated within the wider field of the school. Teachers possess resources or what Bourdieu calls capital. He distinguishes between four forms of capital: economic, social, cultural and symbolic capital (Bourdieu, 1986). The empirical material for this article provides insight linked to cultural capital, and what I consider to be academic capital. Cultural capital can be seen as the aggregate of resources accumulated throughout one's *informal education*, whereas academic capital is the aggregate of resources accumulated throughout one's *formal education*. Through developing teaching lessons together with colleagues on issues related to sexual violence, teachers can increase their knowledge and insights into ways of teaching about these phenomena, which in turn could influence whether they address these matters in the classroom. The school management could also influence teachers' resources, or cultural capital, through for example addressing teaching about sexual violence in staff meetings. Depending on teachers cultural and academic capital, each teacher possesses different sets of resources, which are likely to influence what they address, how and why in class.

Our habitus develops according to how our life conditions change, yet it does not change through mere reflection. Teachers are likely to develop ways of teaching which are in tune with their own habitus and changing this developed teaching practice is not impossible, but it would require social conditions for change. Conditions for change, rather than reproduction, are made when habitus meet structures radically different from those under which it was originally shaped (Swartz, 1997, p. 113). This can contribute to reflection over practice, which Bourdieu refers to as reflexivity. Reflexivity occurs from moments of mismatches between habitus and field which reveal the taken-for-granted assumptions of the "game" (Bourdieu, 1977). The condition for change of importance here is the #MeToo-movement, which altered the public discussion on sexual harassment and abuse from October in 2017 (Sayej, 2017). If this movement were to influence teaching practice in the sense that the topics of sexual harassment and abuse were included to a higher extent in class, we could perceive this as a changing doxa—altering the 'taken for granted-assumptions' of the implicit rules of teaching, which has implied not addressing these issues to any great extent.

Bourdieu is sometimes criticized for ending up in structural determinism, and it is not my intention to contend that teaching practice is structurally determined, but rather discuss that there are many factors influencing and to a certain extent, conditioning their practice. Still, as the empirical content will portray, teachers can also exert agency in the classroom, choosing which topics to emphasize in their teaching.

Methodological Overview

From February to October in 2018, in the midst of the #MeToo movement, I conducted a phone-survey with 64 social studies teachers from Norwegian upper-secondary schools regarding their teaching practice concerning sexual violence for the schoolyear 2017/2018. I applied a series of recruitment strategies; contacting former colleagues asking if they could put me in contact with eligible participants, publishing a request on the website for Norwegian social studies teachers on Facebook and sending emails to school leaders nationwide. The sampling was purposive, referring to how 'researchers intentionally select (or recruit) participants who have experienced the central phenomena or key concept being explored in the study' (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2019, p. 176). The reasons for recruiting purposively are linked to how the sample should have a particular profile; they had to teach or have taught the mandatory social studies subject in upper secondary schools during the last two years. It was also an aim that the gender representation coincided

Table 1. Overview of research participants regarding gender, age and educational level.

Gender
Male teachers (*N* = 30) Female teachers (*N* = 34)

Age group	Educational level
• 20–25 years (*N* = 1)	• Four years of higher education [Adjunkt] (*N* = 3)
• 26–35 years (*N* = 23)	• Five years of higher education [Adjunkt med tillegg] (*N* = 14)
• 36–45 years (*N* = 25)	• Five years of higher education with a Master's degree (*N* = 6)
• 46–55 years (*N* = 7)	• Five years of higher education with a Master's degree and additional pedagogical studies (*N* = 41)
• 56–65 years (*N* = 7)	
• 65 years > (*N* = 1)	

with the gender representation of teachers in Norway and that teachers from all age groups, multiple ethnicities and different study programs were included. As such, I purposively recruited to fulfill these criteria. This could be considered to be a potential drawback, thus, breaching the principle of random sampling (Mehmetoglu & Jacobsen, 2017, p. 221). I depended on gate-openers to have personal contact with eligible candidates to recruit informants, because they could motivate them to participate. This was important since teachers could be hesitant to talk about their practice regarding these issues. The response rate might have been very low without motivating gate-openers. Therefore, I opted for purposive sampling and the regression analysis is conducted as if the sample was random, which could be considered a limitation of method.

I used a structured survey with fixed response alternatives, while simultaneously inviting the participants to share their thoughts. I 'ticked the boxes' on the predetermined Likert-scale (discussed later) according to what the informants answered and took notes of their spontaneous reflections regarding the questions simultaneously on a physical copy of the survey. The quantitative material was transferred and analyzed in Stata, whereas the qualitative information was gathered in a notebook (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019).

There is a potential self-selection bias in the sample, because it could be that some of the informants taught more about these issues than those who declined to participate. A potential drawback with personal phone-contact with informants is the social desirability effect—the possibility that the individuals might reply what they think the interviewer would like to hear (Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2001). However, I did not notice that informants answered to "please me", and I encourage them to answer as truthfully as possible.

To discuss representativity, the surveyed teachers' characteristics are compared with key information from the national survey conducted by Statistics Norway among 16,400 teachers in upper secondary schools, in which 3157 are social studies teachers (Ekren et al., 2017). Table 1 portrays the informants' personal characteristics in my study:
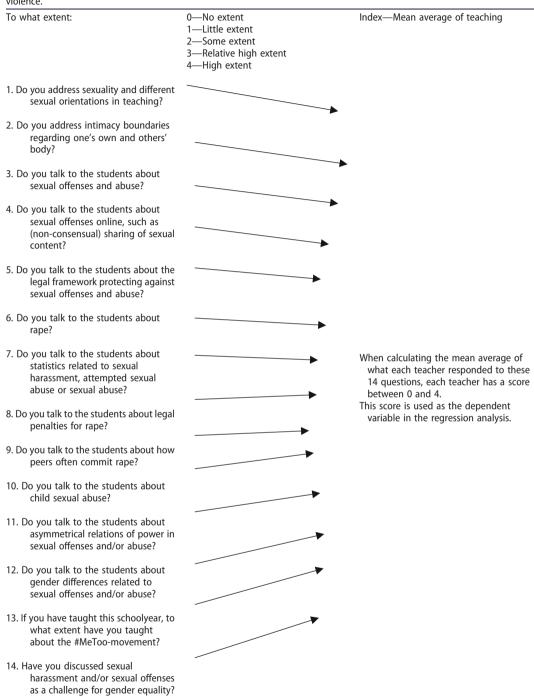
Fifty-five percent of teachers in Norwegian upper secondary schools are women (Ekren et al., 2017, p. 19), which coincide well with the gender representation among the research participants in this study, in which 53% are women/47% are men. A gender-neutral alternative [hen] was included in the response alternatives, however, no informant identified with this option. The informants in this study are highly educated and over 73% of them holds a Master's degree or Master's degree with additional pedagogical studies (*N* = 47), whereas 27% do not (*N* = 17). When comparing to the educational level of the social studies teachers surveyed by Statistics Norway (*N* = 3157), 49.1% has a long higher education of 5 years or more (Ekren et al., 2017, p. 29). In sum, the characteristics of the participants coincide well regarding gender representation in the Statistics Norway report, however, they are younger and more educated than the national average.

Survey Design

The survey design was based on my experience as a teacher in upper secondary school over a period of six years. The questions related to what extent teachers address topics related to sexual

Table 2. Overview of index construction applied to measure the average degree of teaching about issues related to sexual violence.

To what extent:	0—No extent 1—Little extent 2—Some extent 3—Relative high extent 4—High extent	Index—Mean average of teaching

1. Do you address sexuality and different sexual orientations in teaching?

2. Do you address intimacy boundaries regarding one's own and others' body?

3. Do you talk to the students about sexual offenses and abuse?

4. Do you talk to the students about sexual offenses online, such as (non-consensual) sharing of sexual content?

5. Do you talk to the students about the legal framework protecting against sexual offenses and abuse?

6. Do you talk to the students about rape?

7. Do you talk to the students about statistics related to sexual harassment, attempted sexual abuse or sexual abuse?

When calculating the mean average of what each teacher responded to these 14 questions, each teacher has a score between 0 and 4.

This score is used as the dependent variable in the regression analysis.

8. Do you talk to the students about legal penalties for rape?

9. Do you talk to the students about how peers often commit rape?

10. Do you talk to the students about child sexual abuse?

11. Do you talk to the students about asymmetrical relations of power in sexual offenses and/or abuse?

12. Do you talk to the students about gender differences related to sexual offenses and/or abuse?

13. If you have taught this schoolyear, to what extent have you taught about the #MeToo-movement?

14. Have you discussed sexual harassment and/or sexual offenses as a challenge for gender equality?

harassment and abuse were in part inspired by research on sexual harassment and abuse in Norway (Bendixen et al., 2016; Mossige & Stefansen, 2016). I applied my knowledge of the national curriculum in social studies (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013) and

Table 3. Description of the five independent variables—age, gender, education, educational relevance, cooperation and management, and the dependent variable average degree of teaching.

Variable	Description of values
Age	(0) 20–25, (1) 26–35, (2) 36–45, (3) 46–55, (4) 56–65, (5) 65>
Female	(0) Male
	(1) Female
Education	(0) Bachelor's degree
	(1) 4 years of higher education [adjunkt]
	2) 5 years of higher education [adjunkt med tillegg]
	(3) Masters' degree—5 years of higher education,
	(4) Masters' degree and additional credits—6 years or more
Educational relevance	To what extent their educational background was relevant for teaching about sexual violence: (0) No extent—(4) High extent
Cooperation	Cooperation among social studies teachers regarding to which degree they cooperate with each other about teaching lessons on sexual violence: 0) No extent—(4) high extent
Management	School management's degree of focus on enabling the teachers to address sensitive topics in the classroom:
	(0) No extent—(4) high extent
Average degree of teaching	The mean average of what each teacher replies to 14 questions about the sensitive topics addressed in the classroom (discussed previously).

Table 4. Overview of results from the multivariate regression analysis.

Average degree of teaching (y–variable) in relation to these variables (x-variables), $n = 64$	Parameters estimates (coefficients)	Robust standard errors	Associated t-values	P-value
Age	−.13	.06	−2.27	0.027**
Female	.33	.14	2.37	0.022**
Education	−.16	.06	−2.43	0.018**
Educational relevance	.19	.07	2.76	0.008***
Cooperation	.15	.08	1.94	0.058*
Management	.18	.08	2.07	0.043**

The prob $> F = 0.0000$, indicating that the overall model is significant. The R-square is 0.43, indicating that this model explains 43% of the variation in the average degree of teaching. The symbol * indicates p-value < 0.1, ** indicates p-value < 0.05 and *** indicates p-value < 0.01.

content of the most widely used textbook, which made the survey culturally adapted to the Norwegian school context.

The survey consisted of 53 items (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019) and include questions about:

(1) Personal information: age, gender, education, work experience.
(2) Perceptions of their education's relevance for teaching about sexual violence. The Likert scale was applied to measure perceptions (see an overview of this scale on the following page).
(3) 14 questions about to what extent certain topics related to sexual violence are covered through their teaching (see an overview on the following page).
(4) Questions about to what extent the national curriculum covers these issues.
(5) Questions about cooperation among the social studies teachers and focus on sexual violence from the school management.

Scale Construction and Scale Reliability

By combining the 14 questions about to what extent the teachers address different topics related to sexual violence, I made an index construction of their average degree of teaching (see the following page). The items were weighted equally. The Cronbach Alpha-test in Stata verified the reliability with a coefficient score of 0.89, showing very strong reliability and that removing one item would not make it stronger. The coefficient of 0.89 refer to how 89% of this index construction is reliable, and 11% of the variance is due to error (Mehmetoglu & Jacobsen, 2017).

Variables and Regression Model

This study has 64 observations and following the informal rule of having at least 10 observations per independent variable, the scope of this study was limited to a maximum of six independent variables. Including more variables could lead to overfitting the model, which refers to 'asking too much from the available data' (Babyak, 2004). The model to be estimated includes one dependent variable—teaching about sexual violence and six independent variables related to both teachers' characteristics and school-culture related factors:

$$\text{Teaching about sexual violence} = {}_\beta 0 + {}_\beta 1\text{Age} + {}_\beta 2\text{Female} + {}_\beta 3\text{Education}$$
$$+ {}_\beta 4\text{Educational relevance} + {}_\beta 5\text{Cooperation}$$
$$+ {}_\beta 6\text{Management} + r$$
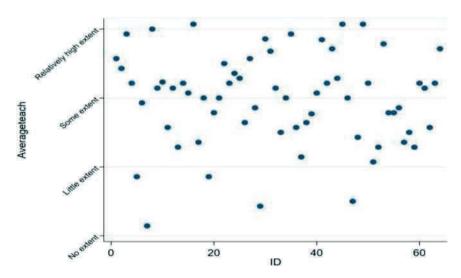
The main hypothesis was that there would be variation in teaching practice on sexual harassment and abuse, which is based both on my observations of teaching practice as a social studies teacher in three upper secondary schools from 2012 to 2018, and previous research (Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2008; Støle-Nilsen, 2017). Another hypothesis was that female teachers address these issues the most, because girls and women are mostly affected by sexual violence and it could be that female teachers, to a greater extent than male teachers, try to influence young learners' knowledge and attitudes regarding these matters through teaching.

The findings from this study are not generalizable to all teachers in Norway, but they portray correlations that are highly statistically significant for teachers' practice concerning sexual violence in the mandatory social studies subject in upper secondary schools based on a highly reliable survey instrument.

Results

This scatter plot shows great variation in the extent to which the informants teach about sexual harassment and abuse, ranging from 0.14 (close to no extent) to 3.07 (relatively high extent) (Graph 1):

This finding coincides with the hypothesis that there would be variation, however, the variation is greater than expected. These teachers teach according to the same national curriculum in social

Graph 1. Scatter plot of the variation in teaching practice based on each informant's individual score measured by the index construction.

studies (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013), yet, their teaching practice differs greatly. This illustrates how teachers are not 'puppets on strings'; they exert agency in their teaching, although the curriculum conditions their teaching to a certain extent.
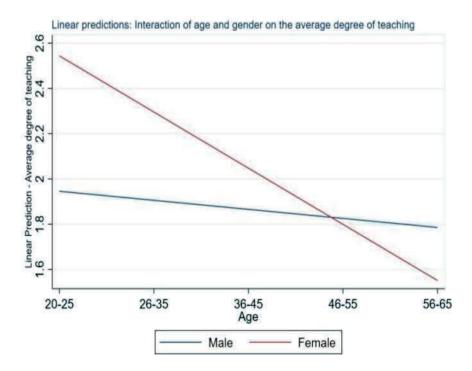
This regression analysis helps us see how both teachers' personal characteristics and school culture-related factors are correlated with this variation in teaching practice:

Teachers' Gender and Age

Female teachers tend to teach more about sexual harassment and abuse than their male colleagues. There are likely several reasons for this; women are most exposed to sexual violence and might feel a stronger need to counter such misbehavior through education than men do. Moreover, there was much public attention regarding the #MeToo-movement when these interviews were conducted, and this movement primarily shed light on young women's experience with sexual harassment and abuse. Therefore, it might be that female teachers, and especially young female teachers, identify more with this movement than other teachers, and that this has influenced their teaching practice. When analyzing the mean average of teachers' perceptions regarding the importance of addressing sexual harassment and abuse, female teachers express a higher level of importance than male teachers do, although male teachers also stress the importance of bringing these issues into the classroom.

When examining possible interaction effects of age and being female on the average degree of teaching, age appears to have a stronger negative effect on female teachers than male teachers (Graph 2):

Comparing generations, the senior teachers could be more influenced by an embodied cultural taboo than later generations of young teachers due to changing social norms and public attention given to these sensitive issues. Today's senior teachers grew up in an era with major societal

Graph 2. Graphical representation of linear predictions of the interaction of age and gender on average degree of teaching about sexual harassment and abuse.

changes. In school during the 1960s, the reproductive aspects of sexuality were prevalent (Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2009, p. 81). By the 1970s, gender equality was established as an important ideal on a societal level and in the 1974-curriculum, there was an explicit gender equality focus (Røthing & Bang Svendsen, 2009, p. 82). However, issues related to sexual violence have not been included explicitly in the curriculum for secondary school until 2013, and still are implicit in the upper secondary curriculum (discussed later). It is likely that senior teachers have not been socialized into talking about sexual violence through their own schooling, which form part of the historical structures conditioning their habitus and practice in class, and that they to a certain extent reproduce these historical structures through their own practice. The historical doxa in school has been not to address these issues, which is also linked to the cultural taboo of sexual violence; senior teachers are likely to have embodied this taboo to a greater extent than the younger generations of teachers. This taboo does not necessarily operate at a conscious level as "the habitus—embodied history, internalized as a second nature and so forgotten as history—is the active presence of the whole past of which it is the product" (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 56). This finding contrasts previous research, as Støle-Nilsen (2017, p. 122) did not find that age influenced teaching practice. This is probably due to how we have applied different methods and analysis; her study was based on qualitative interviews with 4 social studies and/or religion and ethics teachers, 4 natural science teachers and 4 school nurses ($N = 12$) (Støle-Nilsen, 2017, p. 56).

Teachers' Educational Level and Educational Relevance

The analysis shows that an increase in teachers' educational level is associated with a decrease in teaching about sexual violence. This finding might seem counterintuitive, but if we see this in relation to another empirical finding, it is logical; the teachers were asked to what extent they perceived their educational background to be relevant for teaching about sexuality and sexual violence, and 63%–66% responded to no degree or to a little degree. Støle-Nilsen (2017:, p. 102) also finds that these issues are to a little extent part of teachers' educational background in secondary school. Still, she did not find that this influenced teaching practice, whereas this study, on the contrary, finds that educational background and perceived relevance of education statistically influences teaching practice.

   It is likely that when teachers specialize and hold a Master's degree within a particular branch of social science, they might choose to emphasize topics they have key knowledge about in their teaching rather than sexual violence. If you go through five or six years at the university without learning about sexual violence through social science studies and/or pedagogical courses, this might not seem to be part of teaching social studies in upper-secondary schools. The analysis also implies that an increase in the perceived relevance of educational background is associated with an increase in teaching about sexual harassment and abuse. In other words, the more teachers have acquired of academic capital related to knowledge about sexual violence, the more do they address these issues in class. The participants were also asked to what extent they felt eligible regarding teaching about sexual violence based on knowledge they had accumulated throughout life regardless of their educational background. Fifty-two percent say they feel eligible to a relatively high or high extent, no one answered to no extent and 48% answered between little and some extent. As such, teachers feel they have more cultural capital, knowledge about sexual violence accumulated through informal education, rather than academic capital accumulated through formal education.

Influence of Cooperation on Teaching Practice

This study finds that there is little cooperation among social studies teachers on average in this field in Norwegian upper secondary schools. This might be linked to several factors; there might be little 'fixed time' for cooperation in schools, these topics are not heavily emphasized in the curriculum and therefore, they might cooperate on other topics. Given how these issues are to a little extent

part of teachers' educational background and academic capital, this might contribute to making them focus on other aspects of social studies.

The regression analysis shows that an increase in the level of cooperation is associated with a higher degree of teaching about sexual violence. Through cooperation, teachers can share knowledge and explore didactical opportunities, which could contribute to enhance their cultural capital in this field regardless of their gender, age, educational background and educational relevance. This point is made clear when looking into which teachers who had the minimum (0.14) and maximum teaching score (3.07); the minimum score is held by a middle-aged male teacher (36–45 years) and the maximum score is held by a senior male teacher (56–65 years). The latter contrasts the linear predictions drastically in the sense that his score is highly above average for males in that age group, whereas the first one is considerably below average. Both of these teachers answered that their educational background was to no or little extent relevant for teaching about sexual violence, but there were two factors distinguishing them from one another; whereas the teacher with the lowest average score reported that there were no cooperation among his colleague in this regard and no focus from the school management as for raising teachers' competence, the senior male who had the maximum score reported that there were considerable cooperation at his school—they had made a #MeToo project for the students, and the school management had focus on enabling teachers' competence on sexual violence.

School Management

This study shows that school managements nationwide have little focus on raising teachers' competence regarding how to address sexual violence in general. On a more positive note, the analysis indicates that an increase in the level of school managements' focus regarding enabling teachers' competence is associated with an increase in teaching about sexual violence. When combining the two factors cooperation and school management, it becomes clear that school culture-related factors have an important influence on teaching practice. Some of the informants expressed that they would have appreciated more focus from the school management, and as one male teacher put it: 'It would be great to learn more about this [how to teach about sexual violence] in the otherwise rather tedious staff meetings'. Støle-Nilsen (2017:, p. 120) also found that several teachers in secondary school would like more focus from the school management in order to get more teachers 'pulling in the same direction'. She affirms that 'sexuality education could require more leadership than other issues given the topics' nature and interdisciplinarity' (Støle-Nilsen, 2017, p. 95, author's translation).

Impact of #Metoo: Changing Doxa Influencing Teaching Practice?

The informants who taught about sexual harassment and sexual abuse during the schoolyear 2017/2018, said they did so partly due to the widely discussed #MeToo-movement in public media at that given time and the need for including current societal issues in class. This study finds that the changing doxa in public media coverage of sexual harassment and abuse has to a certain extent had an influence on teaching practice, contributing to making several of the informants include these matters in their own practice. However, the extent to which teachers report having included issues related to sexual violence in their teaching, such as the #MeToo-movement, depends on both teachers' personal characteristics and school culture-related factors.

Changing Doxa in the Curriculum Renewal?

Coming back to the introduction, the United Nations considers that comprehensive sexuality is a 'curriculum-based process of teaching and learning about the cognitive, emotional, physical and social aspects of sexuality' (UNESCO, 2018). As previously introduced, there is one goal in the curriculum for the mandatory social studies subject [samfunnsfag] in Norwegian upper secondary schools that states that young students should learn to: 'Analyze the extent of various forms of

crime and abuse and discuss how such actions can be prevented, and how the rule of law works' (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013, author's translation). Yet, 73% of the surveyed informants express that the curriculum does not, or to a small extent, cover sexual abuse, which could be due to different interpretations of the Norwegian word for 'abuse' [*overgrep*] (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019, p. 16). Although this term can be used for physical or psychological abuse, it is most commonly used in referring to sexual abuse (www.overgrep.no, 2017). There is another more general goal concerning how the learner should 'explore current local, national or global problems and discuss different solutions orally and in writing with an accurate use of relevant concepts' (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013, author's translation). This provides opportunities for the teachers to include current societal issues and opens up for agency regarding which topics to emphasize in teaching.

There is an aspect regarding evaluation in this subject that provides agency for teachers; there is no standardized exam and teachers themselves design the oral exam on the basis of the curriculum. Issues of sexual violence could therefore be included in this locally designed exam if teachers decide to do so.

In the new Norwegian curriculum for year 2020 and onwards in this subject—now called *samfunnskunnskap*, the learner should be able to 'reflect over challenges regarding setting boundaries and discuss different values, norms and laws related to gender, sexuality and body' (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019). Comparing this to the current goal, there are tendencies towards making the legal framework regarding boundaries somewhat more explicit and opening up for discussion concerning norms about gender and sexuality, but simultaneously, tendencies towards making sexual abuse more invisible, because the term abuse is no longer explicit.

The curriculum renewal also emphasizes three interdisciplinary themes (The Norwegian Government, 2016): (1) 'Public health and life skills', which includes matters such as interpersonal relations, sexuality, tolerance of diversity and life choices, (2) 'democracy and citizenship' and (3) 'sustainable development'. Addressing sexual harassment and abuse could form part of these interdisciplinary themes, because being exposed to such misbehavior could affect both one's psychological and physical health, it occurs in interpersonal relations and it assaults one's sexuality. Sexual harassment and abuse is also linked to considerations regarding how one exerts citizenship; a person who sexually harasses another person, cannot be considered to be a democratic citizen, because the harasser would deprive the harassed person of his or her freedom privileges. Being reduced to gender or sexuality entails being deprived of the opportunity to be a citizen on equal terms as others in society (Cornell, 1995 in Sletteland & Helseth, 2018, p. 19, author's translation).

Concluding Remarks

This study finds great variation in the extent to which Norwegian social studies teachers address issues related to sexual violence during the schoolyear 2017/2018. Young, female teachers are the ones who teach most about sexual harassment and abuse, and it is likely that they identify with the #MeToo-movement more than other teachers do, and that this influences teaching practice. It is not the intention of the author to 'blame the male teachers' for addressing sexual harassment and abuse less than female teachers; I rather encourage male teachers to talk to their students about sexual harassment and abuse, because both female and male teachers are essential role-models for young adolescents who are developing their sexual identities and understanding of how to engage in social and sexual relations with others.

The younger generations teach more about these issues than senior generations, which represents a generational shift. Senior generations of teachers could have embodied an historical cultural taboo through their own schooling and upbringing that they reproduce to a certain extent through their own practice. This does not mean that the senior generations of teachers represent 'a lost cause'— as the anecdote about the senior male teacher in his sixties portray, if the school culture consists of widespread cooperation among teachers regarding developing teaching lessons on these topics and focus from the school management, this strengthens teachers' cultural capital and contributes to increased teaching. Through cooperation, teachers can contribute to each other's reflexivity over

practice and strengthen each other's cultural capital by designing teaching lessons together, accompanying each other in class during the lessons and discussing the strengths and challenges of the designed lessons—in a 'lesson study'—fashion. Providing comprehensive sexuality education would most likely require interdisciplinary cooperation with teachers from natural sciences, social studies, religion and ethics and language subjects. This way, teaching about these issues becomes a collective task and a shared responsibility in this field, which it should be—instead of an individual one.

This study finds that increased knowledge about sexual harassment and abuse through formal education has an impact on the extent to which these matters are addressed in class, and this finding should have political implications; The Norwegian state should allocate economic resources to teacher education institutions to provide both teacher students and current teachers professional development in this area. Taking part in professional development programs for teachers could provide conditions for change in their practice, because their habitus could meet structures that are radically different from those under which it was shaped, in Bourdieusian terms. Still, it is not sufficient to strengthen teachers' academic capital through the teacher education and professional development programs for current teachers, because there is also need to increase school leaders' academic capital through the leadership education.

The social studies teachers in upper secondary schools have the same national curriculum guiding their teaching, yet, teachers are not one homogenous group, they implement this curriculum differently and as the regression analysis portrays; both who teachers are matters and so does the school culture, for their teaching practice. In this regard, teachers exert agency through their teaching, because some choose to discuss sexual harassment and abuse in class regardless of the lack of an explicit focus in the curriculum. Exerting agency could here be considered to be a double-edged sword; on one hand, it is positive that some teachers address sexual harassment and abuse despite an ambiguous curriculum, but on the other hand, the opportunity to choose whether or not to include these matters in teaching, also contributes to many teachers' silence on sexual violence. As such, there appears to be too much room for interpretation in this field. In the curriculum renewal in social studies for upper secondary school (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019), the issues of sexual harassment and abuse are still not mentioned explicitly. Therefore, it is likely that some teachers will continue to avoid these topics and there are reasons to critically question whether such issues will be thoroughly addressed in the aftermath of the #MeToo-movement.

A democratic society is more than a system of government consisting of abstract rules and processes; more importantly, it is a system of moral values and principles such as freedom, justice, equality and respect (Kelly, 1995 in Lim, 2015, p. 7). Regarding education, this means that we cannot only address the individual and institutional, such as knowledge about the political system, political parties and voting in elections, but more essentially, we have to address *the individual and the relational*—how we exert our citizenship, how we behave as human beings intrinsically influences other human beings lives. This takes us back to Kant—your freedom ends where the freedom of the other person begins. It is essential that young learners know that in order to protect both their own freedom privileges and those of others.

What teachers address in class can influence young learners' lives—perhaps especially those who have experienced or are experiencing sexual violence without telling anyone, which makes addressing these issues a matter of ethics. If teachers are left to themselves whether to teach about sexual harassment and abuse, young learners are not provided with the sexuality education they should have according to both the UNESCO's technical guidelines (UNESCO, 2018) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989)—the latter being a legally binding document for Norway. What if key knowledge in mathematics and language subjects was taught in such differing ways? Leaving out knowledge about sexual harassment and abuse in education, or not addressing it thoroughly, could have major consequences both for young learners' personal development and sexual boundaries, their relations to others and for society at large. The school system would be fostering citizens without in-depth knowledge on what constitute sexual harassment and abuse, which does not

enable learners to protect their own freedom privileges and rights nor those of others. If education is to contribute to create a democratic society in which all citizens participate on equal terms regardless of their gender, silencing sexual harassment and abuse does no one any favors.

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Disclosure Statement

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Young Learners' Perceptions of Learning about Sexual and Gender-Based Harassment: The Struggle for Recognition in School

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Abstract

Based on participatory research with teachers and young learners', this article explores students' perceptions of learning about sexual and gender-based harassment in upper secondary school in Norway. Drawing upon theoretical considerations on recognition, intersectionality and legal literacy as educational capital, this article discusses approaches to teaching and learning that could ensure young learners' rights to active participation and voice, which is an essential element for protection and prevention of harassment. The empirical material indicates that learners would like to learn more about these sensitive issues, although this applies to a greater extent for girls rather than boys. Their wish to learn more about harassment and abuse could be interpreted as a struggle for recognition, motivated by experiences of disrespect. However, defending one's rights, and having someone defending one's rights, in school requires both students' and teachers' legal literacy, which according to the empirical material is limited.

Keywords

young learners – sexual harassment – recognition – legal literacy – educational capital

1   Introductory Vignette

> Narrator: *It's after school and Adrian is in the locker room. He is alone, putting on make-up. Two girls walk by and notice him:*
> Theresa: *Damn, are you putting on make-up?*
> Adrian: *Um, no …*
> Theresa: *Only girls put on make-up!*
> Mina*: Sorry, are you a girl or a boy? I never understood that.*
> Theresa: *F**king f*g.*
> Adrian's classmate, Sarah, overhears the girls' harassment, and enters the locker room:
> Sarah: *If he wants to put on make-up, he can. If you can do it, he can too.*
> The two girls leave. Roleplay ends.

This is an excerpt from a roleplay written and performed by students at an upper secondary school in South-East Norway. This was part of a participatory research project I conducted with both teachers and students as active participants during the school year 2018/2019. Together with two teachers, to whom I have given the pseudonyms Helena and Julie, we cooperated on including young learners' voices regarding which topics they would like to learn more about. Based on their wishes, we developed teaching lessons about sexual and gender-based harassment that affects the lives of young people.

The Ombudsperson for Children urges the Norwegian government to ensure that more research is conducted on sexual harassment between young people, and that prevalence, causes and preventive measures should be researched (Lindboe, 2018). This article seeks to explore adolescents' experiences of taking part in teaching lessons on these issues, which I consider as part of what could constitute preventive measures. Research on educational programmes about sexual harassment indicates that learning about this phenomenon may influence attitudes positively and increase knowledge about what constitutes harassment (Connolly *et al.*, 2014).

Internationally, Norway is known for ranking highly on the Human Development Index due to high standards of living and a prosperous economy (United Nations Development Program, 2020). Norway is also considered to be in the avant-garde for securing children's rights (Kipperberg *et al.*, 2019), and championing human rights is part of Norway's image and foreign policy (Lile, 2019a; Vesterdal, 2019). Nevertheless, several studies document that children and adolescents in Norway experience human rights violations and face challenges of violence, such as sexual and gender-based harassment (Bakken, 2020; Bendixen *et al.*, 2016; Lindboe, 2018).

This study is situated in the intersection between human rights education, sexuality education and social science education in a Norwegian upper-secondary school. In Norway, neither sexuality education nor human rights education are subjects on their own, but these fields, rather, are integrated into other subjects. Most recent research on sexuality education in Norway has focused on teachers' practice related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019, 2021; Goldschmidt-Gjerløw and Trysnes, 2020; Hind, 2016; Nordbø, 2019; Røthing and Bang Svendsen, 2009; Støle-Nilsen, 2017) instead of young learners' experiences of learning about these issues. However, the Norwegian Ombudsperson for Children has conducted a study among 200 adolescents, exploring their perceptions of what characterises sexual harassment and abuse among adolescents, as well as their perceptions of teaching practice concerning sexuality and boundary setting (Lindboe, 2018). The Ombudsperson's report urges that young learners should be able to influence how the sexuality education should be, and that their active participation and voices are of uttermost importance in such teaching practice (Lindboe, 2018: 45). This would be in tune with both Article 12 on children's rights to be heard and Article 28 on their rights to education, including sexuality education, as enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989). One of the aims of human rights education is precisely to enable learners' voice and active participation in teaching and learning (Osler, 2016; United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2011), which also applies to sexuality education. Students' perceptions, emotions and life-worlds are increasingly gaining interest among educational researchers exploring the potential of social science education in Scandinavia (Blennow, 2018; Mathé, 2019). There are competence aims in this subject regarding how learners should learn about gender, sexuality and intimacy boundaries (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019), which I elaborate on later.

Recent studies have addressed role-play as a pedagogical method for learning about international politics and trade (Evensen, 2015; Hagen, 2018; Ursin, 2018). In social science for teacher education, Leming (2016) has explored the use of role-plays for learning about sexuality, looking into how emotions can play an important part in teacher students' learning processes. However, role-play as a pedagogical method to enable young learners' active participation and learning about gender and sexuality is under-explored in social science education in secondary and upper-secondary school in Norway. The dominant teaching practice in social science education in secondary school is that the teacher speaks or uses class discussion with support from textbooks, whereas role-plays are sporadically used (Solhaug *et al.*, 2020). Social science teachers

rely mostly on class discussion with support from news articles when addressing issues related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019). To my knowledge, no research has been done on how social science students in Norwegian upper secondary school experience actively *participating* in writing and performing role-plays as a pedagogical method for learning about gender-based and sexual harassment.[1] This article aims to fill this knowledge gap. The research questions for this article are: *how can young learners be active participants in learning about sexual and gender-based harassment, and how do they experience such participation?* To answer these research questions, I draw upon theoretical considerations of recognition, intersectionality and legal literacy as educational capital (Bourdieu, 1986, Crenshaw, 1989, 1991; Honneth, 1995; Jordet, 2020; Lundy and Sainz, 2018)

In the new curriculum for social science education in upper secondary school from 2020, the most relevant competence goals for this article are that students should, 'reflect on challenges related to setting [intimacy] boundaries and discuss different values, norms and laws concerning gender, sexuality and the body' and that students should 'explain the basis of human rights and explore and give examples of human rights violations nationally or globally' (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019). This focus on *legal knowledge* combined with gender and sexuality is new in upper secondary school. Before discussing the relevant legal frameworks in this regard, I briefly define harassment in legal terms and provide an overview of the prevalence and consequences of harassment.

2   Defining Harassment

The Norwegian Equality and Anti-Discriminatory Act defines harassment as 'acts, omissions or statements that have the purpose or effect of being offensive, frightening, hostile, degrading or humiliating', whereas sexual harassment refers to 'any form of unwanted sexual attention that has the purpose or effect of being offensive, frightening, hostile, degrading, humiliating or troublesome' (Equality and Anti-Discrimination Act, 2018). Verbal sexual harassment consists of unwanted sexual comments, whereas nonverbal harassment is related to body language, and indirect harassment could entail being subject to sexual rumours or unwanted sharing of sexualised imagery

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1   I have conducted searches in the library database ORIA, using the keywords role-plays in social science education in Norwegian [rollespill i samfunnsfag].

in social media (Bendixen *et al.*, 2017). Sexual harassment can also include being touched in a sexual way, being forced into kissing or other forms of sexual behaviour (Bendixen *et al.*, 2017). There are several forms of harassment: 1) (hetero) sexual harassment, 2) harassment based on sexual orientation and 3) harassment for 'gender-noncomformity' (Meyer, 2009). In addition, same-sex harassment also occurs – between people of the same sex. These categories can overlap, as portrayed by the role-play excerpt in the introductory vignette. The motives for harassing others could be misplaced sexual desire, harassment as a subordination technique or unintentional harassment (Sletteland and Helseth, 2018).

3   Prevalence and Consequences of Harassment

According to the most recent Ungdata-report conducted among 211,500 adolescents from 2018–2020 (Bakken, 2020), many adolescents experience unwanted sexual touching and verbal sexual harassment in a hurtful manner such as being called "whore" or "fag" – this applies to approximately one out of four girls and one out of ten boys (Bakken, 2020: 44). A study conducted among upper secondary students in Norway (N = 1384/1485), finds that being exposed to non-physical sexual harassment is associated with low scores on indicators of well-being and that such misbehaviour is harmful for young students' mental health and self-esteem (Bendixen *et al.*, 2017). This coincides with international studies portraying how experiencing bullying and sexual harassment is associated with low life-satisfaction and having mental health issues such as depression and psychological distress (e.g Gobina *et al.*, 2008; Gruber and Fineran, 2008; Landstedt and Gådin, 2011; Williams *et al.*, 2005). Some groups of people experience more gender-based and sexual harassment; girls more often report being sexually harassed than boys, and their mental health is to a greater extent affected by this unwanted sexual attention. Sexual minority youth more often report being harassed in comparison to heterosexual youth (Williams *et al.*, 2005), and homosexual boys especially experience homophobic remarks (Roland and Auestad, 2009). Transgender youth express that they constantly face harassment and the 'negative reactions they receive on disclosure often have a severe negative effect on their self-esteem' (Grossman and D'augelli, 2006: 124). In sum, sexual and gender-based harassment most often targets girls, sexual minority – especially homosexual boys, and transgender youth, which places them at risk in school and in need of special protection.

Adolescents in vulnerable positions and situations do not always get the protection they are entitled to. In today's Norway, many children and adolescents find that school employees rarely intervene when they are harassed in school (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw and Trysnes, 2020). This could be linked to how some teachers find it difficult to differentiate between healthy, worrisome and harmful sexual behaviour among pupils (Draugedalen, 2020), or that some teachers do not necessarily consider children and adolescents as sexual beings (Draugedalen *et al.*, 2021). Not intervening when teachers are informed about young learners' experiences with unwanted sexual attention constitutes serious breaches of Norway's commitment to fulfilling the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (United Nations, 1989) in regard to multiple articles such as Article 2 – the right to freedom from discrimination, the right to be heard in matters that affect children's lives and last but not least article 29 (d) on children's rights in education. In theory, the CRC seeks to ensure for children fundamental rights to the 4P's; Protection, Participation, Provision and Prevention (Kipperberg *et al.*, 2019). However, there appears to be a discrepancy between theory and practice in educational settings when it comes to ensuring children's protection from gender-based and sexual harassment in Norway, as well as preventive teaching about various forms of sexual violence related to young people's lives (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019; Goldschmidt-Gjerløw and Trysnes, 2020).

4 Norway's commitment to the Convention on the Rights of the Child in Education

Norway ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1991. The CRC has increasingly been integrated in the domestic legal system from 2003, and the revision of the Norwegian Constitution in 2014 was a major legal development (Langford *et al.*, 2019). The bicentennial of the Norwegian constitution (1814–2014) was celebrated and renewed by among other aspects strengthening children's rights through the amendment of paragraph 104, stating that:

> Children have the right to respect for their human dignity. They have the right to be heard in questions that concern them, and due weight shall be attached to their views in accordance with their age and development. For actions and decisions that affect children, the best interests of the child shall be a fundamental consideration. Children have the right to protection of their personal integrity …
>
> the Constitution of the Kingdom of Norway, amended on 20 June 2014

The amendment of paragraph 109 of the Norwegian Constitution explicitly states children's rights to education, and that the education shall promote respect for human rights:

> Everyone has the right to education. Children have the right to receive basic education. *The education shall safeguard the individual's abilities and needs, and promote respect for democracy, the rule of law and human rights.* The authorities of the state shall ensure access to upper secondary education and equal opportunities for higher education on the basis of qualifications.
>
> the Constitution of the Kingdom of Norway, amended 20 June 2014

These amendments could be interpreted as expressions of children's rights to *human rights education*, as addressed by Osler & Skarra (2021). However, Lile points out that "the commitment of the legislator is somewhat obscured by a lack of clear direction on how this constitutional provision should be interpreted" (Lile, 2019b: 421).

In 2017, the Norwegian Education Act was modified and paragraph 9A now states that, 'the school must have zero tolerance for violations such as bullying, violence, discrimination and harassment' and that 'everyone working at the school must keep an eye on the pupils to ensure they have a good psychosocial school environment, and *if possible*, intervene against violations such as bullying, violence, discrimination and harassment' (the Education Act, 1998, modified in 2017). The notion of *'if possible'*, however, could be interpreted as opening up the possibility of not intervening. Thus, this educational legal framework is ambiguous, and it can jeopardise young learners' protection from harassment in school (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw and Trysnes, 2020).

In 2018, the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child listed 22 questions that Norway had to answer, and one of these issues concerned which measures are taken to ensure that children are protected from various forms of violence (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2018b). The official response from Norway included a legal reference to amendments in the Education Act in 2017 concerning 'a clear zero-tolerance policy in compulsory education against all forms of bullying, violence, discrimination, harassment and other violations' (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2018a). Norway's response did not reveal the actual words of the Education Act – intervene 'if possible' (the Education Act, 2017), which is more ambiguous than what is portrayed in this response. Whether the strengthening of the educational legal framework has influenced children's rights in practice remains uncertain.

5 Theoretical Considerations on Recognition, Intersectionality and Legal Literacy as Educational Capital

The United Nations Declaration of Human Rights confirms that 'everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law' (UN, 1948, Article 6). Professor of Education, Audrey Osler, affirms that, 'the concept of recognition of equal and inherent dignity and equal and inalienable rights is fundamental to the human rights project' and simultaneously, she suggests that legal recognition is 'insufficient in human rights advocacy and HRE' (Osler, 2015: 263). My interpretation of Osler is that she argues for critically addressing *lack of recognition* and *asymmetrical power struggles* through schooling (Osler, 2015). Inspired by Kimberlé Crenshaw's concept of intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1989), Osler addresses how an intersectional perspective can be fruitful for understanding how young learners experience injustice in different ways, depending on multiple axes of differentiation (Osler, 2015). The intersection of how one performs one's gender and acts out one's sexuality combined with age is of relevance for the discussion of the empirical material since harassment most often targets girls, sexual minority – especially homosexual boys, and transgender youth (Bakken, 2020; Landstedt and Gådin, 2011; Roland and Auestad, 2009; Williams *et al.*, 2005). To be harassed entails being *denied recognition* (Honneth, 1995), which I return to in more detail.

Recognition of children's rights in practice requires that school management, teachers and other school employees have a certain level of legal literacy (Lundy and Sainz, 2018). Legal literacy can be understood as a set of capabilities related to 'understanding the law and its relevant instruments, as well as the possible legal pathways to take' (Lundy and Sainz, 2018: 17). Teachers' legal literacy is likely to be a prerequisite for teaching children about their rights, enabling them to enjoy their rights in practice and promoting an education that works for their rights.[2] Professor of Law, Laura Lundy, and human rights educator, Gabriela Sainz, address the notion that legal literacy is a prerequisite for transformative human rights education since transforming violations of rights into actionable principles for the protection of rights require legally literate individuals (Lundy and Sainz, 2018). They also argue for critically addressing breaches of rights in formal education through incorporating lived experiences of injustice. This is of relevance for this article, because the students were asked to write and perform role-plays based on harassing situations that were familiar to them in their life-worlds, although this did not necessarily

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2 The concept of legal literacy extends beyond the CRC, but I chose to focus mainly on the CRC for analytical purposes.

mean that it had to be a situation they had experienced themselves. From my perspective, transformative human rights education can be linked to the *pedagogy of recognition*[3] based on love, rights and solidarity (Jordet, 2020).

The pedagogy of recognition builds on Axel Honneths' theory of recognition (Honneth, 1995). An essential component of Honneth's theory of recognition concerns how social relationships shape the sense of self and identity-formation:

> The reproduction of social life is governed by the imperative of *mutual recognition*, because one can develop a practical relation-to-self only when one has learned to view oneself, from the normative perspective of one's partner in interaction.
>
>   HONNETH: 92, 1995, emphasis added

Honneth (1995) contends that recognition is intersubjective and relational, and that we develop a sense of who we are and our self-worth as human beings through how others grant us recognition as subject with emotional needs, wishes and rights.

Professor of Pedagogy, Arne Jordet, has developed a theoretical model built on Honneths' theory of recognition (Honneth, 1995), which portrays how love, rights and solidarity are three dimensions of a pedagogy of recognition that could provide optimal learning conditions for children, and that could ensure fundamental values such as human dignity – as enshrined in the objectives clause of the Norwegian Education Act (1998).

Jordet (2020) expands on Axel Honneth's understanding of love (1995). Instead of focusing on love in primary family relations, Jordet applies this concept to the teacher – student relations. Love is a multi-faceted concept, and love in the teacher profession should not be understood as erotic love. To have love for the students involves meeting them with an *attitude* founded on the notion that all human beings are equal subjects with their own thoughts, emotions and experiences. Love in the teaching profession also consists of an *action* component, which is to enhance the students' best interests in everyday practice both inside and outside of the classroom (Jordet, 2020). Caring

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3   The way I see it, is that the common feature between HRE and the pedagogy of recognition is, amongst other aspects, that learners are entitled to rights, they should know their rights and they should experience that their rights are respected in everyday practice in school. I believe that the *pedagogy of recognition* to a greater extent than HRE grasps the emotional and relational dimensions of teaching, and the important role of emotions and relations for learners' development of a positive self-esteem and sense of worth.

teacher-student relations can have a positive impact on the lives of young people, and perhaps especially for those in vulnerable positions and situations.

Love through recognition of rights can contribute to students' *empowerment.* It can enable students to take ownership of their own lives and resist forces that contribute to *disempowerment.* This concept of empowerment resonates with the principles of education *for* human rights in HRE (United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2011, Article 2). Arne Jordet points out in his book, *Recognition in school*, that empowering young learners is to draw attention to and support the individual's inherent resources (Jordet, 2020), see figure 1. The focus is on what the young learners *actually can do* and not what *he or she cannot do.* As we will see later, this is relevant for the role of the *interventionist* in the students' role-plays, because the purpose was to create awareness of what they could do to counter sexual and gender-based harassment. However, intervening in harassment situations is not necessarily straightforward, which will be discussed in light of the empirical material later.

To teach students about acts of gender-based and sexual harassment as violations that can take place in young learners' life-worlds is to recognise children's lived experiences of injustice. To teach about the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, which gives all children and young people legal protection from discrimination and violence, could build students' legal knowledge base that they can draw upon when they experience that their rights are being violated. To teach about the importance of telling someone about unwanted sexual experiences can *strengthen students' ability to protect themselves* by notifying it to a greater extent. To teach about the inviolable human dignity

of children and young people is a way for adults – teachers and other school staff, to recognise children's rights and to show care and love for students. It is also a way of enabling learners' self-respect and respect for others, as well as a way of *educating in solidarity with young learners* and *promoting solidarity among them.* Teaching in solidarity can be considered to *share a common concern* (Honneth, 1995), which in this case constitutes concerns related to experiences of sexual and gender-based harassment. Being exposed to harassment can entail being insulted or humiliated, which is linked to being *denied recognition*:

> Negative concepts of this kind are used to designate behavior that represents an injustice not simply because it harms subjects or restricts their freedom to act, but it injures them with regard to the positive understanding of themselves that they have acquired intersubjectively.
>
> HONNETH, 1995: 131

To experience harassment and bullying in school is detrimental to students' development as a person and their self-esteem, and this provides poor conditions for learning. Ideally, school should enable students to master their lives through giving them the opportunity to being actors in their own lives. This is linked to the concept of *agency* (Giddens, 1991). However, exerting agency and mastering one's own life, depends on being granted recognition of others in close relations. If school fails to protect and prevent young adolescents from being harassed and bullied, this could constitute an institutional misrecognition of their human dignity (Jordet, 2020).

Honneth writes about how negative experiences of disrespect 'could represent precisely the affective motivational basis in which the struggle for recognition is anchored' (Honneth, 1995: 135). However, how can we understand the fact that not all human beings, who experience being disrespected and denied recognition, do not voice their unwanted experiences of disrespect? I believe that Pierre Bourdieu's concepts of field, capital and power relations could provide insight (Bourdieu, 1986).

If we follow the reasoning of Laura Lundy and Gabriela Sainz (2018) that we need legally literate individuals to transform breaches of rights into actionable principles of protection, we can look at the legal knowledge which could form part of an individual's cultural capital. Cultural capital can exist in several forms, and I am here referring to this kind of capital 'in the embodied state, i.e., in the form of long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body' (Bourdieu, 1986: 17). My interpretation of Bourdieu is that cultural capital can take the form of educational capital, although it entails more than education (Bourdieu, 2010).

Educational capital could be knowledge that constitutes dispositions of the mind and body that can influence one's behaviour and ability to act in a "field of forces" – or power relations. Young learners' legal literacy, or lack thereof, is part of their educational capital that could condition how they act when facing sexually harassing situations.

6 Participatory Research with Teachers and Young Learners

I refer to this research cooperation with teachers and students as *participatory research*, inspired by the mixed methods approach to social justice participatory research design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). The intent is to promote human development by critically addressing challenges to individuals and society, in this case gender-based and sexual harassment, by using the integration of quantitative and qualitative research, in which the theoretical lens is based in human rights (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). This research cooperation builds and expands on findings in my previous research based on phone-interviews with social science teachers (N = 64); if teachers cooperate in developing teaching lessons on sensitive topics related to gender, sexuality, sexual harassment and abuse, teachers are statistically more likely to address these matters (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2021).

In this participatory research project, it was essential to include students' voices. Osler addresses the fact that the CRC, which requires adult decision-makers to take young people's perspectives into consideration, can be integrated into research designs as well as into everyday educational practice (Osler, 2016: 109). The Ombudsperson for Children in Norway states that the school must facilitate that 'pupils are allowed to participate in how their sexuality education should be, and they must be allowed to be active participants in their education in the form of conversations and discussions' (Lindboe, 2018: 37, my translation). Students' voices are included throughout the research project: 1) In a digital survey amongst the students on which topics related to gender and sexuality they would like to learn more about, 2) during the performance of the role-plays, 3) in their reflections in the classroom right after the role-play, and 4) during group interviews with me a few days after the role-play took place.

Norwegian social psychologist, Mons Bendixen, suggests that role-plays with well-developed scripts, in which the learners are active participants, could be a suitable pedagogical method for preventing sexual harassment through education (Brandslet, 2017). Thus, we developed teaching lessons on verbal harassment by using role-play as a pedagogical method. Our approach was inspired by the Theatre of the Oppressed developed by Agosto Boal (2002) in the sense

that we sought to illuminate power relations in harassing situations through the performance of drama written by the young learners themselves. Role-play as a pedagogical method is not suited for gendered or sexual offences involving physical contact, because it would jeopardize learners' physical integrity and sense of security in the classroom.

7   Digital Survey Among Students

The digital survey consisted of only two questions; 1) Gender, and 2) Which topics do you think should be part of social science education? In the response alternative for gender, we included the gender-neutral pronoun *hen* to open up for the learners' different ways of identifying as gender. Three learners out of a total of 111 informants identified as *hen* – which constitutes 2.7 per cent of the informants. This coincides with international studies in this field; between 0.1 per cent – 2 per cent of the population identify as transgender or gender non-conforming – referred to as TGNC population (Goodman *et al.*, 2019). However, this depends on inclusion criteria. A study conducted in the Netherlands (N = 8,064), indicates that 4.6 per cent of natal men (assigned gender as male at birth) and 3.2 per cent of natal women (assigned gender as female at birth) report an ambivalent gender identity (Kuyper and Wijsen, 2014).

8   The Content of the Teaching Lessons

In advance of the role-play, Julie introduced important theoretical concepts. This consisted of explaining various forms of harassment and the distinction between verbal, non-verbal and physical harassment. The legal component consisted of a reference to the Norwegian Equality and Anti-Discrimination Act, para. 13 on the prohibition against harassment (Equality and Anti-Discrimination Act, 2018) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1989) on Article 2 on the right to freedom from discrimination, Article 8 on the right to identity and Article 28 on the right to education, which according to the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education, includes the right to sexuality education (United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2010).

During the implementation of the teaching lessons, I had the role of participating observer (Fangen, 2010), while Julie conducted the lessons. In the group interviews with the students, I wanted to find out how they experienced

TABLE 1   Overview of the teaching lessons (First published in Norwegian in an upcoming 2022 book).

Time	Activity	Ressources	Objectives
35 minutes **10 minutes**	Theoretical concepts introduced by the teacher The teacher explains about the different roles in the role-play and divides the class into groups	Powerpoint about sexual and gender-based harassment News article about a case of gender-based harassment in Oslo	The learners should know what constitute sexual and gender-based harassment, different motives for harassment and the legal framework
45 minutes	The learners write the manuscripts for the role-plays	The learners draw upon their knowledge about the theoretical concepts in their design of the role-play	The learners should link the concepts to everyday situations in their lives where harassment can occur
45 minutes **x 2**	Performance and discussion of the role-plays	The learners' own role-plays	Enhance knowledge about harassment and action-skills for defending one's own and other people's rights in practice

being able to influence what topic the teaching should be about by taking part in the digital questionnaire and their experience of the implementation of the role-plays. The role plays and interviews were recorded on audio tape and transcribed. After each role-play, there was a whole class discussion based on the students' reflections on the harassment. A few days later, I conducted semi-structured group interviews with 29 students who had taken part in the role-plays to find out more about how they experienced the lessons, (Table 1).

9   Ethical Considerations

This study has been approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data, which seeks to ensure that research projects adhere to strict ethical guidelines. The students received information about this study's purpose, their rights to withdraw at any time, to get access to the empirical data, and to get the empirical data deleted if they wanted. Nevertheless, the ethical concerns I had relating to this project went way beyond the information sheet and consent, although these aspects are also important.

We conducted this survey in March/April in 2019, which was one month before the actual teaching lessons and role-plays would take place. For us, it was an essential didactical and pedagogical aspect to introduce these sensitive issues in advance, so that the learners could be emotionally prepared. We emphasised that if any of the students felt uncomfortable about taking part in the teaching lessons, we wanted them to contact us. If one or more of the students were to disclose personal information to us about past or ongoing harassment and/or abuse, we would make sure to cooperate with the school nurse to ensure that proper measures were taken.

A boy contacted Helena and told her that he had experiences with unwanted sexual contact as a child and that he therefore did not want to participate. Of course, he was exempted from participating and informed Helena that his situation had been followed up. Teachers should prepare young learners in advance so that these sensitive issues do not come unexpectedly to students. I recommend that teachers invite the students to contact him or her if they have any concerns or queries in order to enhance students' sense of emotional safety and security. It is also an essential point that teachers prepare well to teach about these topics. We made extensive use of the book, *What I Should Have Said – A Handbook Against Sexual Harassment* [Det jeg skulle ha sagt – En håndbok mot trakassering] (Sletteland & Helseth, 2018).

The principle of doing as little harm as possible (Ryen, 2017) should be at the heart of every project design. According to the ethical guidelines published by the Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee (2019), the principle of avoiding doing harm is an essential part of research ethics:

> In humanities and social science research, there is usually little risk of participants being exposed to serious physical harm. However, serious mental strain is a possibility. This may be more difficult to define and predict, and it can be difficult to assess the long-term effects, if any. "Strain" is used here in a broad sense, and it covers both *everyday discomfort,* risk of

> retraumatisation, and also more serious mental strain which the research
> may cause the participants.
>
>   The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee, 2019

These guidelines apply a broad definition of "strain", including even feelings of discomfort. For students who had previously experienced harassment and abuse, these lessons could potentially be discomforting; and even for those who did not have this prior experience. Several measures were taken in order to reduce potential harmful effects; the students were informed about the content and aim of the teaching lesson two weeks in advance and were encouraged to contact their teacher or me if they had any queries. To avoid physical harassment in the role-plays, which is the most degrading form, the students were limited to verbal and non-verbal harassment such as body language. As part of the preparations for the role-plays and in order to ensure students' sense of emotional safety and security, the students were divided into groups with students they felt comfortable and safe with. This was done to prevent the potential perpetuation of already existing harassing relations. Another aspect was how to design the teaching lesson in a way that did not leave the students feeling belittled or disempowered to stop harassment, because this would have been the contrary of what the intention was. As such, we opted for adding an element of students' active engagement in stopping the harassment; one or more of the roles in each group was to be an interventionist one. They were given the task of designing a role-play that was close to their everyday life in well-known surroundings and places, such as at school, training, bus, party and the like. In each group, there was someone who was harassed, someone who harassed, some "bystanders" who watched and an "interventionist" who intervened in the harassment. As addressed in the theoretical considerations, the purpose of the interventionist was to empower students to defend one's own and other people's rights to protection from verbal sexual harassment among peers.

10   Results

The presentation of results consists of three parts; first, I present the results from the digital student survey and students' perceptions of being able to influence the topics they learn about in social science education. Secondly, I present students' perceptions on taking part in the role-plays. Lastly, I discuss students' knowledge about the CRC and the role of legal literacy.

11   The Digital Survey and Students' Experiences of Participating through influencing Teaching Lessons

The results of the digital student survey showed that many of the students wanted to learn about sexual harassment and sexual violence that affects their generation; 55 per cent answered that they would learn about sexual harassment among peers, and 48 per cent answered that they would learn more about sexual violence among peers, which includes more serious forms of physical sexual violence, such as rape. In this study, it is clear that students want to learn more about *sexual harassment and sexual violence that affects their generation.* Teaching and learning about *issues that are relevant for children and adolescents' lives here and now* resonates with the words written by the educational philosopher, John Dewey, over hundred years ago: 'I believe that the school must represent present life' (Dewey, 1897).

The results from this student survey (Figure 2 and Table 2) portray clear gender differences; there were no limits for how many topics each student could choose, and on average girls have "ticked off" more of the options. Sixty-nine percent of girls voted for sexual harassment among young peers, whereas only 39 per cent of boys voted for this option. The gender differences regarding students' responses to each topic are visualised in this bar graph:

TABLE 2   Results from the student survey (N = 111).

Which topics do you think should be part of social science education?	Girl	Boy	Hen – gender-neutral option	In total
1. The good sexuality	26	15	1	38%
2. Femininity/masculinity	30	19	2	46%
3. **Sexual harassment among young peers**	**41**	**19**	1	**55%**
4. Female genital mutilation	24	10	0	31%
5. Pornography	22	16	1	35%
6. **Sexual violence among young peers**	**35**	**17**	1	**48%**
7. Sexual violence as a weapon in war	26	19	1	41%
8. Child sexual abuse	26	18	1	41%
9. Transgenderness	25	9	2	32%
10. I do not want to answer	2	12	0	13%
In total	59	49	3	111

Students' responses by gender in percent
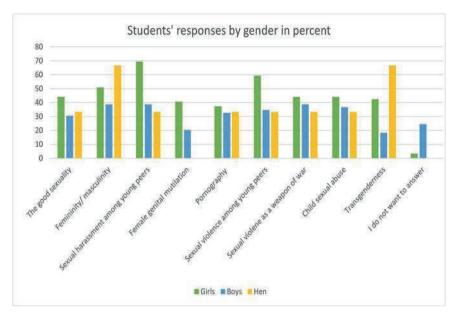
FIGURE 2   Students' responses by gender in percent.

It might be that girls in general are more interested in discussing these sensitive issues, because they are more exposed to harassment and abuse than boys (Bakken, 2020; Mossige and Stefansen, 2016; Myhre *et al.*, 2015). In Bourdieusian terms, for girls, school might be considered as a field of forces that possibly could alter power relations that disfavour them. Learning about harassment could potentially increase learners' educational capital, including legal literacy, about sexual harassment and abuse (Bourdieu, 1986). Young girls' feelings of being disrespected could constitute the motivational basis for a struggle for recognition (Honneth, 1995). I believe this is of relevance for understanding these female students' interest in learning more about sexual harassment and abuse in school, since girls to a greater extent than boys experience this kind of misrecognition of their human dignity and fundamental rights. This does not mean that boys necessarily are the harassers – as earlier pointed out, girls also harass each other – a phenomenon known as same-sex harassment.

There are also more boys than girls who answered that they 'do not want to answer this question', and it could be that boys are less interested in these issues, because it does not affect them to the same extent. However, I believe that it is important for teachers to address the fact that sexual and gender-based harassment also targets boys, and especially homosexual boys, in order to avoid "framing" boys as perpetrators. This would be counterproductive for learning and could reproduce stereotypical images of what it means to

be a boy. Teaching should highlight each young learners' fundamental human rights to freedom from discrimination regardless of gender and sexuality as enshrined in the CRC Article 2 (CRC, 1989).

When looking into what the three students, who identify as the gender-neutral pronoun *hen* answered, there were particularly two topics that were of interest: femininity/masculinity and transgenderness. This is probably related to how these issues are highly relevant for their lives here and now, and for their self-understanding. I do not contend that it is possible to make generalisations here: however, it is interesting that the students in this sample chose topics that are relevant for their lives and sense of self. I consider that opening up an educational space for identifying as *hen* is essential for giving recognition to each individual's self-identification as gender and sense of worth – students' human worth is not conditioned by how they perform their gender.

In the group-interviews after the teaching lessons, some of the students stated that they were disappointed because they would like to learn more about several topics outlined in the survey – not only sexual and gender-based harassment, but also sensitive issues such as pornography, child sexual abuse, transgenderness and so on. Therefore, I interpret both the results from the student survey and group-interviews as empirical material that portrays learners' wish to learn more about the variety of these sensitive topics related to gender and sexuality, and especially in relation to their life-worlds. This can be related to a recent interview-based study among 26 social science students in Norway in which the authors found that students are motivated by content that concerns them directly, involve ethical considerations or that evoke emotions (Børhaug and Borgund, 2018).

In the group-interviews with the students after the role-play, the students were engaged and willing to discuss and participate. Empirical studies indicate that role-play is a suitable pedagogical method to evoke emotions and engagement in social science education (Leming, 2016; Ursin, 2018). My experience was that more students opened up for dialogue when they talked to me in small groups consisting of four to six students (their role-play group) rather than discussing the role-plays in a whole-class discussion. There may be some students who always speak and dominate, whereas other students for various reasons do not feel like taking part in a whole-class discussion. In the group-interviews, I ensured a democratic dialogue in which each student was invited to share perspectives, opinions and emotions concerning the teaching lessons. I coincide with Arne Jordet regarding how 'the key to good dialogical interaction is in open, explorative and authentic questions' where the aim is to unravel the students' knowledge, understandings and experiences, and not control what they know or do not know (Jordet, 2020: 356).

As part of our democratic dialogue, I was interested in exploring how they felt about being able to influence the content of the teaching lessons. Here is an excerpt from our dialogue:

> Beate: What do you think about the possibility of influencing the content of the teaching lessons?
> Alex: It is nice that you can choose what you think is important [to learn more about].
> Martin: I think that it provides an opportunity to decide what you would like to know more about, and that you can have more to say [in the decision-making].
> Beate: Mhm [confirming]. What do you think?
> Michaela: I think it gives an opportunity to be able to decide what one wants to know more about … So it's nice to be able to influence the teaching a bit. It is fun to see what students think they are not learning enough about. It's kind of okay for people to actually get to talk about these things. Although they may not be so easy to talk about.

The majority of the students were positive about being able to influence the content of the teaching lessons. My overall interpretation of students' perceptions is that this kind of participation provided a sense of *agency* in the classroom (Giddens, 1991). Teachers could easily do this in everyday educational practice by letting the learners influence which topic they would like to discuss in more detail within the framework of the curriculum in each subject. Although pupils' voice is about more than a pupils' voice survey (Struthers, 2020), this is one of several alternatives for including learners' voices in the planning phase of teaching. The combination of letting students influence which topics they would like to address in-depth, enabling their active participation and opening up for dialogical conversations between students and between teachers and students, is fruitful for ensuring children's participatory rights as enshrined in the CRC Article 12 on the right to be heard in matters that affect their lives (UN, 1989). I consider that this would be in tune with human rights education and the pedagogy of recognition (Jordet, 2020; Osler, 2016; United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2010).

12   The Role-plays and Learners' Experiences

This overview (Table 3) portrays how 5 groups consisting of 29 students in total chose to play out their versions of the role-plays:

TABLE 3   Overview of students' role-plays.

Groups	Kind of harassment	Place	Digital dimension	Study program
Group 1: **7 boys**	Sexual harassment based on sexual orientation: Among boys	At the mechanics	No	Vocational study program
Group 2: **1 boy** **and** **3 girls**	Sexual harassment based on sexual orientation: girls harass-ing one boy	At the school's library	No	General studies [studiespesial-isering]
Group 3: **5 girls**	Same-gender harassment among girls: A girl is being harassed for her clothing	At a party	Yes	General studies
Group 4 **2 boys** **and** **3 girls**	Sexual harassment based on gender expressions: A boy who puts on make-up gets harassed by classmates	In the locker-room after school	No	General studies
Group 5 **4 girls**	Same-gender harassment among girls	On the bus	Yes	General studies

There was a wide range in how students chose to write and perform the role-plays. Three out of four categories for sexual and gender-based harassment were included: 1) Harassment based on gender expression, 2) same-sex harassment and 3) sexual harassment based on sexual orientation. The fourth category of heterosexual harassment was not performed in Julie's classes. In two of the role-plays, the students included a digital dimension.

Many of the students expressed the view that they felt that the role-play was artificial, and this was especially related to the role of the interventionist. They argued that in real life they rarely experience that someone interferes with harassment:

> Beate: In your role-play, you had to intervene in the harassing situation ...
> What could be the challenges of doing so?
> Selma: In this role-play, or in general?
> Beate: In the real world.
> Selma: Again, it really depends on the situation, I feel. If it's like physical stuff, it can be very uncomfortable, or that you somehow cannot stop it.

> If you are a little girl, and there are big guys somehow. Then it may be that you cannot stop them, or that you do not dare. That was what I thought a bit about in that role-play, that if you are going to intervene, *it is the case very often that there is no intervention* emphasis added.

This student describes that in real life, perhaps, nothing had been done. Selma describes how being 'a little girl' situates you in a less privileged power position in comparison to 'big guys', and that stopping them would be close to impossible. She highlights that the role of the 'interventionist' didn't feel real, because 'it is the case very often that there is no intervention'. Selma's statement can be seen in connection with previous research which shows that 38 per cent of students who experience harassing comments from either teachers or fellow students (N = 260), state that they rarely or never experience that someone intervenes in the situation (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw and Trysnes, 2020).These statements also highlight that students are reluctant to intervene in harassment, among other things due to fear of being dragged into a conflict or of being physically injured, which contributes to a *bystander effect* that inhibits them from showing solidarity with people who are harassed (Darley and Latane, 1968). Other students say that they are reluctant to intervene, because they might have misunderstood the situation and thus can be seen as the person who just does not understand the jargon. Thus, slightly contrasting Honneth (1995), I would say that negative experiences of injustice do not necessarily provide the motivational basis for a struggle for recognition, especially not if fear-related feelings are involved and a strong sense of being unable to alter the power relations are in play. As Selma pinpoints here, one's power position is influenced by multiple axes of differentiation (Crenshaw, 1989, 1991; Osler, 2015), such as gender, age and physical strength, which could condition one's ability to act upon harassing situations in practice although one is theoretically legally protected from such misbehaviour.

13   Lack of familiarity with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child

As part of the group-interviews, I asked the learners about what they remembered about the CRC from the teaching lessons. The main finding is that young learners are not too familiar with this Convention, which is epitomised in Martin's comment on how he does not 'really remember much about the Convention on the Rights of the Child'. However, some students did remember

and some were interested in different articles such as Article 8 on the right to identity:

> Michaela: Yes, I thought about that one [Article 8 CRC].
> Beate: Do you think that expressions of identity can be linked to sexual harassment?
> Alex: This may be what many people target if they are going to harass someone … how they choose to behave and what they choose to do. … They [those who harass] take it out on those who are a little different.
> Michaela: When *people are harassed for who they are*, that is when *it hurts the most*, because it's something they cannot change (emphasis added). …Your identity is a really big part of your life, and the fact that people sort of take hold of it [your identity] and… *It must be a little scary* (emphasis added).

Michaela expresses how harassment can target aspects of one's identity when '*people are harassed for who they are*', and that this kind of harassment is what *hurts the most.* Such experiences entails *being denied recognition* (Honneth, 1995). As previously addressed, experiencing non-physical sexual harassment is associated with low self-esteem, depression and anxiety (Bendixen *et al.*, 2017). Harassment targets one's self-esteem. Michaela states that being harassed could contribute to fear-related feelings. Negative feelings can sometimes have a positive effect; Honneth addresses the fact that negative feelings such as disrespect 'can become the motivational impetus for a struggle for recognition' (Honneth, 1995: 135–139) which would entail standing up for one's fundamental rights. However, 'fighting back' requires that you know you are entitled to rights that protect you from experiencing disrespectful treatment such as harassment. In other words, it would require legal literacy as part of one's educational capital (Bourdieu, 1986, 2010; Lundy and Sainz, 2018). My interpretation is that without legal literacy, fear-related feelings may inhibit a struggle for recognition.

I continued the interview by asking them how the right to identity could apply in practice, whereas Martin answered:

> You have to dare [be who you are], I would say. It is very difficult to create an arrangement that allows everyone to be who they are, because everyone has the right to have opinions about what they want. Everyone here has the right to have an opinion about me. So to be who I am, *I just have to endure it* [*harassment*] *in a way.* It is very difficult (emphasis added).

These quotes portray that the learners are not too familiar with the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and this was a common feature in several group-interviews. As such, there might be a discrepancy between the normative framework of the Overriding part of the curriculum concerning how 'the pupils must also acquire knowledge about these rights' (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017: 4) and their level of legal literacy in practice. Little familiarity with the legal framework that should protect against harassment contributes to how learners *individualise the responsibility to endure harassment* rather than highlighting their right to legal protection from such misbehaviour. Martin pinpoints how other people have the right to have an opinion about him and not the legal limitations regulating what one can say or do to a person. Being legally literate is a prerequisite for being able to defend one's rights in practice (Lundy and Sainz, 2018). My interpretation of the students' quotes is that they are not fully aware of their rights, which in turn does not enable them to protect their rights in practice. Not being able to protect one's rights in practice feels emotionally challenging, as Martin finds this 'very difficult'. Legal framework is among the least addressed topics when teachers address matters related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019), therefore, students' relative lack of legal literacy is not surprising in light of previous research on teaching practice.

Learners' lack of legal literacy could be related to teachers' lack of legal literacy, and teachers' lack of legal literacy appears to be a plausible explanation for why teachers to a small extent address the legal framework related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse. When teacher Julia introduced the theoretical concepts in the first part of these teaching lessons, she included a brief reference to the CRC (1989). Although I wanted to emphasise this Convention to a greater extent than we actually did, Julia said that she was not too familiar with it, and that she did not feel like giving too much emphasis on the CRC. She did not consider it to be necessary since the learners were 17-years old and almost adults. I wanted to give Julie autonomy and space to make the teaching lessons 'her own', and therefore, I did not push to emphasise this Convention. She did not have legal studies in her professional background, and the majority of social science teachers do not. In my previous research among social science teachers (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019, 2021), the informants came from a wide range of disciplines. Lack of legal literacy could be a challenge for social science education in general, and for human rights education in particular, because teachers' lack of legal literacy can be reproduced in learners' lack of legal literacy. Bourdieu's concepts of field and capital is also of relevant here: young learners' legal literacy, or the lack thereof, can be considered as part of

their cultural capital conditioning their ability to act in a field of power relations (Bourdieu, 1986).

14   Students' Reluctance to Voice their Unwanted Experiences of Harassment

In the group-interviews, several of the informants express the view that they would be reluctant to inform the teachers about their experiences with unwanted sexual attention in the school setting. I asked them whether they would have contacted the teacher if they experience harassment in school:

> Alex: Do not think so.
> Martin: Noooo, *it would have to be very serious if I were to report it.* It would require a lot [emphasis added].
> Beate: Why is that?
> Martin: No, I think there are easier ways to solve it without involving a lot of parents and teachers and a lot of adults. At this age you should begin to resolve these things on your own. Yes, I think so. *Unless it's really, really bad, I would not bring it up.* (emphasis added).
> Selma: I kind of agree that you can see if you can resolve it yourself. But it depends a bit on the situation and such. If you feel that you need a little help to solve this ... it does not have to be teachers, you can get help from others, sort of.
> Alex: I would rather have asked a friend or talked about it with friends.

Alex and Martin express that they would deal with harassment on their own, or discuss it with a friend. It could be that for the boys to ask for help could entail showing vulnerability, which possibly could be considered as a sign of weakness that stereotypically is not in tune with ideals of masculinity. Norms for masculinity could inhibit them from showing vulnerability. Alex and Martin choose to resolve harassing situations themselves without seeking help. For girls, notifying about harassment and voicing vulnerability does not counter stereotypical ideals of femininity, and this could play a role regarding why the boys were hesitant in notifying their teacher about unwanted sexual attention, whereas the girl was more prone to seek help from others – albeit not necessarily the teacher. It is clear that they do not consider teachers to be the 'protective agents' they should ideally be according to the Norwegian Education Act paragraph 9A (Education Act, 2017).

15   Concluding Remarks

The starting point for this research project was to design teaching lessons on issues concerning gender and sexuality with both teachers' and students' active participation. When the students stated that they would like to learn more about sexual and gender-based harassment among peers, we opted for creating an educational space for recognising young learners' life-worlds, and that this lifeworld can contain negative experiences of injustice. The way I see it, the teacher can show students a form of love by taking students and their experiences seriously.

Results from the digital student survey reveals that students would like to learn more about sexual harassment and sexual violence that affects their generation. I do not contend that these results are universal, but rather that they portray contextual patterns which can be seen in relation to previous research conducted among social science students regarding how they are engaged and motivated by topics that concerns them directly or evoke emotions (Børhaug and Borgund, 2018). The sample is relatively modest (N = 111), which is a limitation, but the results are interesting in the sense that there are clear tendencies towards the fact that the students wanted to address sensitive issues in their own life-worlds. In my previous study among 64 social science teachers conducted in 2018, I sought to measure which topics related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse teachers address in the classroom (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019). The alternatives included to what extent they had been taught about #MeToo, penalties for rape, intimacy boundaries, non-consensual sharing of sexual imagery, the legal framework protecting against harassment and abuse, rape among young peers and child sexual abuse. I found that teachers do not address such issues related to sexual violence to any great extent and, if they do, they teach to a small extent about harassment and abuse targeting young people. This is a paradox, which can also be understood as an explanation of the results of the digital survey among social science students; teachers do not address harassment, rape among young peers and child sexual abuse to any great extent, and this is precisely why the young students would like to learn more about these issues. In light of previous research (Børhaug and Borgund, 2018; Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2019), the results from the digital survey and in tune with transformative human rights education (Lundy and Sainz, 2018), I would recommend that school staff, teachers, student teachers and teacher educators link teaching about these sensitive issues to young people's lives, because this can create engagement and motivation for learning, and perhaps most importantly, it can also enable them to protect themselves and others from unwanted sexual attention.

Despite the fact that the teaching lessons and the role-plays were theoretically intended to promote empowerment and action-skills for facing harassment and defending both their own and others' rights (Jordet, 2020; Osler, 2016; United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2011), the young learners rather expressed a form of powerlessness due to how sexual and gender-based harassment manifests itself in real life. The common feature of both boys' and girls' perceptions is that they feel disempowered. The students express that they are worried about being drawn into a kind of conflict, that they will be physically harmed or that they have misunderstood the situation. I interpret the students' statements as characterised by disempowerment in the face of harassment, and that they feel to a small degree that they themselves can influence the situation or that someone else can intervene. This contributes to the *bystander effect* (Darley and Latane, 1968). In combination with little legal literacy, fear-related feelings may inhibit a struggle for recognition. In sum, students feel disempowered when facing harassment in their everyday lives and they do not necessarily consider teachers to be protective agents safeguarding their right to protection from harassment.

Gender could be a factor that conditions adolescents' ability to report harassment, and it does so differently for girls and boys – for boys reporting incidents of harassment could entail portraying vulnerability that can be perceived as countering stereotypical norms of masculinity. This is illustrated in the discussion of Alex and Martin's statements concerning their hesitance to notify the teacher if they experience harassment. My interpretation is that gender and ideals of masculinity potentially condition their willingness to notify. This does not apply to girls to the same degree, because showing vulnerability does not necessarily counter stereotypical ideals of femininity. I see that this plays out differently for the boys than for the girl Selma who, rather, highlights an inability to act upon harassment due to an underprivileged power position in terms of the intersecting axes of differentiation such as gender, age and physical strength (Crenshaw, 1991; Osler, 2015).

Young learners' sense of disempowerment could be linked to young learners' lack of legal literacy (Lundy and Sainz, 2018), which in turn could be a consequence of teachers' lack of legal literacy. Young learners' ability to defend their rights is conditioned by teachers' legal literacy. First, it conditions whether or not students learn *about* their fundamental rights. It also conditions education *through* human rights – teachers need to know that students have rights in order for teachers to defend their rights in practice when learners report experiences that constitute breaches of their rights. Defending one's own and others' rights is not straightforward – one's ability to do this in practice is to a certain extent conditioned by the power relations that are in play. I consider

both teachers' and learners' legal literacy as part of educational capital that might condition one's ability to act in a field of power relations (Bourdieu, 1986, 2010). It can condition teaching practice and the content of the teaching lessons, and in turn, *teachers' educational capital conditions what students learn in school* and *what becomes part of learners' educational capital*. However, lack of familiarity with the CRC is not the individual teachers' fault, but should be understood within the broader organisation of teaching practice such as the content of teacher education programmes. Teachers need a certain level of legal literacy in order to teach young learners about their rights and to uphold these rights in practice. As such, I believe that there is a need for more emphasis on legal literacy and human rights in teacher education. There is also a need to strengthen school leaders' legal literacy through management education, because the school management plays an important role in shaping school culture and whether or not teachers address issues related to gender, sexuality and harassment (Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, 2021).

The students felt that the role-play did not reflect "how things work" in real life. I expected that we would have lively class-discussions immediately after each performance, but that did not happen. Rather, the enthusiasm came when we discussed the role-play in small groups, and I believe this is related to the fact that the students might have felt more comfortable and emotionally secure in this setting, rather than in the whole-class setting. My impression is that there is great potential for recognition of young learners' human dignity in such democratic dialogues. I felt that the students I interviewed appreciated my active listening and interest in their perspectives, opinions and emotions, and this can be transferred to teacher-student relations. I believe that opening up a space for such interaction between teacher and students may lay the ground for recognition of learners' human dignity and enhance teachers' possibilities of being a Significant Other in students' lives. This way, role-play as a pedagogical method could provide a point of departure for dialogues about their life-worlds and the challenges they are facing on an everyday basis. Since the most common teaching practice in social science education is somewhat teacher-oriented (Solhaug *et al.*, 2020), it is likely that many students are not too familiar with role-plays as a pedagogical method. Challenging traditional teaching practice requires that teachers are trained in such pedagogical approaches that seek to involve students as active participants. The Norwegian teacher educator, Tove Leming, asserts that student-active pedagogical methods are essential to improve the quality of higher education programmes, including teacher education (Leming, 2016: 62).

To ensure that the teacher listens to all of the young learners' voices – not only those who always speak up, I would recommend engaging in democratic

dialogues with students in smaller groups in which learners are placed in groups with classmates they feel comfortable with. This also provides room to go more in-depth on the topic. Through such democratic conversations anchored in *love* for the students, *recognition* of their lived experiences of injustice and of their rights to protection from discrimination and harassment, teachers can promote learners' human dignity and their legal literacy. They can encourage them to voice their experiences with unwanted sexual and gender-based harassment – and *stand with them and provide emotional support* when they do. There is no doubt that love is an essential component for good teacher-student relations, and student-student relations, and the pedagogy of recognition requires *the combination of love, rights and solidarity*. The realisation of this approach presupposes teachers' legal literacy to enable children and adolescents' development of legal literacy, enable them to enjoy their rights in practice and promote an education that works for their rights (Jordet, 2020; Lundy and Sainz, 2018). I do not contend that teachers should be lawyers, but I concur with Audrey Osler: *Teachers should be human rights activists* (Presentation by Osler, 2021). I would add, "*caring and warm human rights activists*" – building their self-esteem through love in everyday practice and recognition of their rights, which could make a great difference in young people's lives – despite the challenges.

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Part III

8. Discussion of empirical findings and contributions

Here I answer my three research questions and subsequently proceed to discuss the overarching research question – *What are the challenges and possibilities for recognition of young learners' human dignity concerning teaching and learning about sexual violence?* To answer this overarching research question, I discuss empirical findings by focusing on seven challenges and possibilities I have identified for recognition of young learners' human dignity concerning teaching and learning about sexual violence, namely 1) the curriculum and teachers' perceptions of the curriculum, 2) the aspect of time, 3) school culture, 4) teachers' educational relevance and teacher education 5) legal literacy, 6) the cultural taboo and 7) teachers' emotions and care as a double-edged sword.

8. 1 Empirical findings and contributions

Answering RQ1 concerning the extent to which social science teachers are reproducing or transforming the cultural taboo on child sexual abuse, my study indicates that there are both emotions and educational structures that condition teachers' practices, preventing the issues of child sexual abuse and rape among young peers from being properly addressed in class. I find that teachers are concerned about causing harm if such sensitive issues are addressed. The way I see it, teachers' fear of re-traumatizing and stigmatizing young learners may interact with the learners' own potential sense of shame and fear of being rejected if they disclose information about unwanted sexual acts. Thus, both teachers' and students' emotions condition teaching practice on sensitive issues, and this should be seen in relation to the cultural taboo and social norms for what one can say and cannot say in social interaction. In addition to emotional obstacles, teachers report that they have had little training in teacher education and experience a heavy workload. As a result of these emotions and educational structures, they rarely link harassment and abuse to young learners' life-worlds.

Moving on to RQ2 regarding how we can understand the variation in teaching practices concerning sexual harassment and abuse, this study indicates that both teachers' personal characteristics and school culture are statistically associated with the degree of teaching about these matters. Young female teachers mostly address sexual harassment and abuse in social science education, and there is a clear generational shift; younger teachers discuss such issues more frequently than their senior colleagues discuss them. The school culture is influential in the sense that when teachers cooperate on developing lessons and receive support from school management, this contributes to teachers' confidence and emotional security in addressing these matters in class. The majority of the teachers I interviewed did not consider teaching about harassment and abuse to be an explicit part of the curriculum, but those who found these matters of great importance included these topics, regardless of the ambiguous curriculum.

Lastly, turning to RQ3 on how young learners can be involved as active participants in learning about sexual and gender-based harassment and how they experience such participation, I find that there is great potential for consulting students concerning which sensitive issues they would like to address in class and how to work with these matters. However, my study indicates that teachers might be reluctant to open up to this kind of participation. This might have to do with the sensitive nature of the topics, and it could also be linked to teachers' need to be in control. Another dimension of how students experience taking part in the lessons is that they did not feel that the intervention aspect of the role-play reflected how "things work" in their everyday life. They rarely experience that anyone intervenes in such situations and do not consider the teacher to have any particular responsibility for preventing and protecting them from unwanted sexual acts or comments.

My study provides empirical contributions by looking into how teaching and learning about sexual violence in social science education is linked to children's rights, which is an under-explored educational area (Skjæveland, 2020). Synthesizing these empirical findings, the meta-inference in my study is that many teachers do not address sexual harassment and abuse among the younger generations, and students express that they would like to learn more about these issues in regards to their life-worlds. Teachers

are faced with dilemmas concerning what to prioritize in their hectic everyday lives at school, and my study indicates that teachers are not structurally enabled to promote children's rights and ensure that school promote children and adolescents' dignity. In the following discussion, I will address the seven major challenges and possibilities I have identified for recognition of young learners' human dignity.

8.1.1 The curriculum: Content and teachers' perceptions

The social science curriculum is of interest in this study as a structural factor that to a certain extent conditions teachers' practice. I argue that the LK06 – curriculum (SAF1-03, Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013) was ambiguous in the sense that young learners should be able to "analyse various forms of crime and abuse", but given that sexual abuse was not made explicit, many of my informants express that teaching about sexual violence was to a little extent part of the curriculum. Subsequently, it was not given much priority in teaching. Still, regardless of the competence aims in the curriculum, some social science teachers chose to address these matters anyway, because they considered that these issues were important. This pinpoints teachers' autonomy and opportunity to influence the content of social science education. As addressed in Article II, this autonomy is strengthened by the fact that the final evaluation of mandatory social science education in upper secondary school is a locally-given oral exam that the teachers themselves develop on a yearly basis. Depending on how teachers' autonomy is manifested, it either favor or disfavor students' learning. Osler and Skarra (2021) find in their study that whether or not teachers address human rights and human rights violations depend on their own personal interests and what they consider to be important. They argue that "teacher autonomy needs to be matched by a recognition that learners have the right to HRE" (Osler and Skarra, 2021, p. 202). I coincide with Osler and Skarra, and as I previously addressed in Chapter 4, ensuring children's rights could entail finding a balance between teachers' autonomy and institutional support.

I find that the curriculum (LK06) for social science education in upper secondary school was relatively ambiguous concerning its links to human rights and human rights education. There was one competence aim concerning how learners should "find

examples of different kinds of conflicts and human rights violations and discuss what the UN and other international actors can do" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAF1-03, 2013). There was no mention of any particular convention, and of particular interest for my study, no explicit links to the Convention of the Rights of the Child. In Article III, I address that Julie did not necessarily see the relevance of including the CRC in the developed teaching lessons, which could be seen in relation to the lack of focus on children's rights in the curriculum. The adolescents in upper secondary school are nearly adults, why would the CRC be of any importance to them? In regard to the focus of my study and as addressed in the introduction, girls between 10 and 14 years of age are most often sexually victimized by boys between 15 and 19 years of age, and this applies to an even greater extent to girls aged 15 years or older (Mossige & Stefansen, 2016, p.85). As such, it is of crucial importance to raise adolescents' awareness of intimacy boundaries and bodily integrity, knowledge of and respect for children's rights and legal literacy throughout schooling – including upper secondary school. Coming back to Julie and her perceptions of the CRC as less relevant to the adolescents, this should not in any way be considered as her fault, rather, I consider this to be linked to institutional challenges concerning a lack of explicit focus on children's rights in the social science curriculum for upper secondary school. This discussion connects to the work of scholars such as American Professor of Social Science Education, Walter Parker, who address human rights education's curriculum problem by focusing on the US (Parker, 2018). He argues that "curriculum development is what HRE requires now if it is to move forward to institutional stability in schools" (Parker, 2018, p.5). As I address in Article II, the Norwegian curriculum renewal in all school subjects represents to a certain extent a positive development towards a legal turning point in the sense that learners should "be able to reflect over challenges regarding setting boundaries and discuss different values, norms and laws related to gender, sexuality and body" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019). Another relevant competence aim concerns how learners should explain "the basis of human rights and explore and give examples of human rights violations nationally or globally" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019). By emphasizing that students should explore human rights violations nationally

or globally, teachers have the option of not addressing human rights violations close to home, which forms part of teachers' autonomy in this field. As addressed in Chapter 4, Vesterdal (2016) found in this empirical study on teachers' practice concerning human rights education that human rights violations abroad were prioritized in teaching, and that this might be connected to Norway's national identity and self-image as a human rights haven. In one of the wealthiest countries in the world, scoring high on the Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2022, p.272), including the Gender Development Index (UNDP, 2022, p.286), it might be challenging to acknowledge that serious human rights violations target children and adolescents in our neighborhoods, even though we might not see or hear about it.

American Professor of Social Science Education, Keith Barton, addresses that there has been a certain level of disagreement among scholars in the field of human rights education concern whether students should "examine international human rights documents and issues", if they should "be empowered to address issues in their own communities" or whether they should "develop rights-based skills and dispositions as a basis for civic participation and interpersonal relations" (Barton, 2015, p.50). I coincide with Barton concerning how all these aspects are important in human rights education (Barton, 2015, p.63). Still, it could be a dilemma for teachers what to prioritise.

In addition to the new social science curriculum (LK20) in Norwegian upper secondary school, the new curriculum for religion and ethics also opens up for addressing human rights violations, although somewhat implicitly, as students should "identify and discuss ethical issues concerning communication, interpersonal relations and identity" as well as "discuss issues concerning group-based prejudice, racism and discrimination" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, REL01-02, 2019). Teachers could benefit greatly from working interdisciplinary with such sensitive issues, as many already do.

Further research is needed on how teachers interpret the new curriculum, and how they operationalize the competence aims in practice. Comparing LK06 and LK20, there are positive tendencies in the curriculum renewal, and the Overarching part of the curriculum (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017) explicitly states that

education should be in concordance with children's rights. Still, there is potential for explicitly including children's rights in the social science curriculum at all stages of schooling. Here I see one possibility for structural changes that potentially could contribute to enhancing recognition of young learners' human dignity. Still, strengthening the children's rights perspective in the curriculum would not be enough, as teachers and school leaders need a certain level of legal literacy for interpreting the implications this has for teaching practice, which I will return to.

8.1.2 Time

The time constraint is a serious challenge in the everyday life of a teacher, and in this study the time aspect was illustrated by my teacher informants in various ways. Firstly, the teachers reported that they felt stressed due to the amount of competence aims in the social science curriculum (LK06) and few teaching hours. This is also pointed about by Andresen (2020) in her study of teaching practice concerning controversial issues in Norwegian school. The impact on the reduction of competence aims in the LK20-curriculum is an area for further research.

Secondly, as addressed in Article I, opening up for teaching about sexual violence could potentially open up for children's and adolescents' disclosure of experiences of unwanted sexual attention. As one informant said, "we don't have time to deal with the consequences" of such disclosure. This illustrates how the aspect of time might influence teachers' practice and how time might be a structural limitation.

There might be a need to reconsider how many classes a teacher should have per full-time position and how many students there should be in each class. This is a major economic issue, which would require greater funding to education than what we have today. Investing in our children and adolescents is an investment in our future. This is also related to the aspect of care – it takes time to establish trust and good relations between teachers and students, and the more students a teacher has, the more challenging it could be to establish such relations. For teachers to see each individual and realize human worth as a fundamental value for the school and society – as set out in the

overarching part of the curriculum (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017), *teachers should be structurally enabled to do so*.

The perceived lack of time could also potentially be an obstacle for teachers' intervention in bullying and harassment in school. This is illustrated by a Swedish study exploring how teachers and school leaders perceive the inclusion of the zero-tolerance policy in the Swedish Education Act in 2010. Lindgren et al. (2021) conclude that documentation of degrading treatment in school has led to such heavy workloads for teachers – to the extent that some teachers opt for "not seeing" such treatment, because they feel that doing so entails an extra time-consuming workload (Lindgren et al., 2021). Their discussion share certain similarities with my informant's concern of not having time to deal with the consequences of opening up for teaching about sexual violence. This resonates with how some street-level bureaucrats might take shortcuts to make it through the day by focusing on solving issues they have experience with rather than dealing with matters they might be less familiar with (Lipsky, 2010). Lipsky (2010) explains that "bureaucracy" involves a set of rules and structures of authority, and "street-level" denotes a certain distance from the centre where the authority resides. There are policies in the "schooling bureaucracy", such as the social science curriculum and the Education Act; however, policy as written and policy as performed are two different things. Indeed, as pointed out by Lipsky (2010), the routines street-level bureaucrats establish "become the public policies they carry out" (p.xiii). In sum, both Lindgren et al.'s (2021) study and my own study portray how teaching practice interacts with work conditions, and time is a structural factor that influence teachers' practice.

8.1.3 School culture

In my study, I have identified school culture as a challenge for recognition of young learners' human dignity concerning teaching and learning about sexual violence. On average, my teacher informants report that school managements have little focus on raising teachers' competence regarding how to address sexual violence in general, as I address in Article II. My teacher informants also report that there is little cooperation regarding how to develop and implement teaching lessons on these issues. I consider

both the school management and level of cooperation at school to form part of school culture. This relatively low level of institutional support to teachers is a challenge that does not enable them to teach about issues related to harassment and abuse. On the bright side, there is great potential for improvement here. The regression analysis in Article II statistically portrays how an increase in cooperation is associated with an increase in teaching about sexual violence, and how an increase in support from the school management is also associated with such an increase in teaching.

Focusing on the possibilities for recognition of young learners' human dignity concerning teaching and learning about sexual violence, I would like to draw attention to *the importance of providing institutional support for teachers*. This is a major responsibility for school managements. By increasing cooperation among teachers to develop teaching lessons on these sensitive issues, teachers are more likely to address harassment and abuse to a greater extent and feel more confident in so doing, as they will know that they are not alone in managing this task.

8.1.4 Teachers' educational relevance and teacher education

Perhaps one of the most surprising findings in my study is that an increase in teachers' educational level is associated with a *decrease in teaching about sexual violence,* as I address in Article II. This finding might seem counterintuitive, but by looking at it in light of another empirical findings, it is more logical: the majority of teachers responded that their educational background was to no degree or little degree relevant for teaching about sexuality and sexual violence, which corresponds with earlier research in the field (Støle – Nilsen, 2017). It is likely that when teachers specialize and hold a Master's degree within a particular branch of social science, they rather focus on topics and issues they have key knowledge about in their teaching rather focusing on issues they might feel less competent in teaching such as sexual violence. This also links to my previous reference to Lipsky in Section 8.1.2, concerning how some street-level bureaucrats make it through the day by focusing on issues they have experience with rather than dealing with matters they might be less familiar with (Lipsky, 2010).

My study indicates that these sensitive issues is to a little extent addressed in teacher education. Still, it also highlights the potential and possibilities in teacher education: When teachers report that their educational background has been relevant for teaching about sexual violence, this is statistically associated with an increase in such teaching practice.

In contrast to the social science curriculum for upper secondary school, the regulations for teacher education explicitly address that teacher students should acquire:

> Knowledge of children living in difficult circumstances, including knowledge of violence and sexual abuse against children and young people, of children and young people's rights in a national and international perspective and on how to take necessary action under current legislation (Ministry of Education and Research, 2020, p.2)

These regulations for teacher education are explicit about how teacher students should have knowledge about both child sexual abuse and children's rights, and includes knowledge about *how to take necessary action* (Ministry of Education and Research, 2020, p.2)*,* which could provide a basis for teacher students' and future teachers' action capacity – at least in theory. Whether teacher students get training in issues related to gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse, is likely to depend on whether the teacher educators they meet have competence in this field. In a recently published report by Svendsen and Furunes (2022), they discuss findings from interviews with 14 teacher educators across teacher education institutions in Norway. Their three main findings portray that 1) the interviewed teacher educators do not feel they have sufficient competence for comprehensive sexuality education, or 2) they feel alone in having high competence and 3) teacher educators' perceived lack of competence is especially high concerning sexual violence, gender and sexual diversity.

Svendsen's and Furunes' informants say that the teaching on sexual violence is to a great extent "outsourced" to external actors and that the teacher educators take little part. The teaching is typically held during a one-day seminar. They conclude that this is not sufficient to provide the teacher students with the knowledge base they need (Svendsen & Furunes, 2022, p.28). This greatly resonates with my findings among teachers in upper secondary school as well – many of my informants spoke of how they

involve external actors such as representatives from the Centre against Incest and Sexual Abuse [SMISO] – or the police to address various aspects of sexual violence with the students. Bringing in external actors might be a good supplement to teaching – in primary -, secondary -, upper secondary - and teacher education, especially when teachers or teacher educators feel they lack the required competence. However, in school an external actor cannot replace the teacher, with whom the students most likely will know better and feel more emotionally secure with. Students' sense of emotional security and epistemic trust (Jordet, 2020) is essential if they are to discuss sensitive issues.

On a positive note, Svendsen and Furunes see possibilities for improvements in teacher education, and call for a variety of measures, including the need for 1) strengthening comprehensive sexuality education in the curriculum for teacher education, 2) increasing teacher educators' competence on sexual violence, gender and sexual diversity, 3) conducting future research and development projects to develop subject-specific knowledge bases in teacher education, and lastly, 4) conducting future research and development projects on how interdisciplinary cooperation can promote comprehensive sexuality education in teacher education (Svendsen & Furunes, 2022, p.6). Although their recommendations are meant for teacher education, I see that they also are of great relevance for several levels of education, including upper secondary education.

8.1.5 Legal literacy

In Article III, the empirical material portrays that the students have limited legal literacy. I understand legal literacy as "understanding the law and its relevant instruments, as well as the possible legal pathways to take" (Lundy and Sainz, 2018, p.17). Harassment is a phenomenon that several of my informants say that they just have to endure. This resonates with findings in the study conducted by The Ombudsperson for Children, finding that adolescents seem to have too little knowledge of what is legal and what is not concerning issues related to harassment and abuse (Lindboe, 2018, p.5). Another related aspect is that they would not notify the teachers unless it is "really bad". They

do not consider the teacher to have any particular responsibility for protecting them from such misbehaviour at school. As I addressed in the introductory chapter, victims of child sexual abuse rarely disclose information to their teacher according to a study in Switzerland (Schönbucher et al, 2012), and there is likely untapped potential for teachers to assume a safe-guarding role as human rights defenders (Draugedalen & Osler, 2022; Struthers, 2021).

In phase 1, one of the topics in the telephone-interviews included a question about to what extent the teachers address the legal framework concerning gender, sexuality, harassment and abuse in their teaching. In Article I, we can see that the legal framework was among the least addressed topics with a mean average of 1,87 (0-4), and 35% answered to no or little extent, and 39% responded to some extent. This implies that teachers do not emphasize this legal framework to any great extent in social science education. My teacher informants came from a wide range of disciplines, including Sociology, Social Anthropology, Business & Administration, Geography, and a few came from Law. According to Solhaug et. al (2020), Law has previously played a minor role in social science education, however, there are tendencies towards increased legal focus in the curriculum. As I addressed in Chapter 3, there is now an explicit competence aim concerning the learner should be able to "reflect on challenges associated with setting boundaries, and discuss how different values, norms and laws apply to gender, sexuality and the body" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, SAK01-01, 2019). I find that there is a "legal turning point" in the curriculum concerning gender, sexuality and boundaries. To enable teachers to engage with the legal framework and empower students by increasing their knowledge of, and respect for both their own and other human beings' rights, I find that a fruitful way forward would be to strengthen both future and current teachers' legal literacy. I coincide with Osler and Skarra (2021, p.194) concerning how "basic legal literacy and human rights knowledge do not necessarily enable a more just society, but they are essential prerequisites for facilitating structural change».

That said, increasing teacher educators', teachers' and students' legal literacy is not necessarily enough. There is a great difference between knowing one's rights and

claiming them, especially when there are asymmetrical relations of power in play combined with fear and shame- related feelings (e.g Draugedalen & Osler, 2022). Therefore, in teaching about sexual violence, in addition to addressing the legal framework, there is a need to address how fear and shame-related feelings work as obstacles for disclosure, how victims of abuse are never to blame and the importance of telling a trusted person about one's experiences. Being open about experiences of harassment and abuse entails a certain risk of loosing status and might entail a certain level of social rejection and mistrust. This brings us to the next challenge I have identified, namely the cultural taboo.

8.1.6 Cultural taboo

The cultural taboo on harassment and abuse might prevent people from seeing and hearing acts of abuse, and it might prevent potential victims from speaking out. I see the cultural taboo at work in both phases in various ways; it could both prevent teachers from addressing rape among young adolescents and child sexual abuse and prevent students from speaking out about their own potential experiences with unwanted sexual attention. In Article III, I find that this cultural taboo appears to be even stronger for boys than for girls in the sense that boys might me even more reluctant to disclose such information, which could be seen in relation to traditional ideals for masculinity of not showing vulnerability. As I addressed in Section 6.6, victims of harassment and abuse might hide such experiences to avoid potential stigmatization. Teachers' concern of stigmatizing their students could be understood as a concern of interfering and revealing a kind of social mask that is meant to cover unwanted sexual experiences. In Goffmanian terms, not addressing harassment and child sexual abuse to any great extent entails not interfering with students' potential masks (e.g Goffman, 1959/1963), which maintains a certain social equilibrium without too much discomfort in the social interaction. As Søftestad (2008) attentively addresses, although the cultural taboo appears less prevalent in public media concerning coverage of issues such as child sexual abuse – there has been extensive coverage of police operations such as Operation Dark Room (e.g Reikrås & Røren, 2021), this taboo still might operate in interpersonal relations in everyday life.

8.1.7 Love and care as a double-edged sword

My informants expressed that they were concerned of doing "something wrong" and harm the students in any way if they addressed sexual violence. I interpret this concern of causing harm as anchored in teachers' care for their students. The logic is that if addressing sexual violence among children and youth could potentially cause harm, it could be better to avoid it altogether. Protecting students from knowledge about harassment and abuse in their life-worlds becomes some teachers' strategy for caring. This approach is a misunderstood way of caring, because it contributes to reproducing the silence that enables violence to take place. Not creating such an educational space does not comply with Norway's legal obligations to the CRC (UN, 1989).

There is a need for awareness concerning how emotions shape behaviour in teaching and learning about sexual violence, and there is a need for reflection regarding what love can mean in everyday life in school. Arne Jordet (2020) helps us a long way by arguing that love consists of both attitude and action: An attitude towards all students as equal in worth and taking action to ensure that children's best interests are promoted in practice in everyday life. In other words, love in the teaching profession could be to promote children and adolescents' growth. As Honneth reminds us, nothing is more detrimental to a person's growth and positive development than torture and rape (1995).

Loving in a rights-promoting way entails enabling young learners' understanding of intimacy boundaries, their inviolable rights to bodily integrity, the importance of telling someone they trust if their rights are violated, how emotions such as fear and shame work to prevent disclosure and that the victim of sexual offense never is to blame. The combination of emotional support, providing a knowledge base and building action-capacity should not be underestimated. This way, teachers could contribute to lower the average of 17 years before a person who has experienced unwanted sexual attention as a child tells someone about these experiences (Steine et al, 2017). In this regard, there is relation between providing love and care, and ensuring children's rights.

On the other hand, there is also tension between the concepts of love and rights – it takes time to provide love and care, and time is a scarce resource. Setting aside time

103

in teaching itself to address sexual offenses is one part of the picture when trying to get through lots of competence aims within the schoolyear. Another aspect that the empirical material portrays is that teachers also worry about the follow-up that might come in the aftermath of such teaching, what could be considered as time- consuming follow- up in an already hectic everyday life at school. In this respect, time is a factor that conditions teachers' ability to address sexual violence, and perhaps also their ability to follow up if one or more students confide in them.

8.1.8 Summarizing the challenges

Summarizing the challenges, I find that they operate on different levels, forming part of structures that condition teaching practice: 1) Micro- level in the emotional interaction between teachers and students in the classroom, 2) Meso-level – the school culture by the influence of the school management and level of cooperation at each school, and 3) Macro -level – the national law, culture and policy such as the curriculum, the Education Act and policies for teacher education programs, and lastly 4) Supra – level – the international law, culture and policy such as covenants and conventions, and of particular importance in this dissertation the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989). I see that this Convention to a certain extent has had a trickle-down effect from the supra-level to the meso- level in the sense that amendments to the Constitution has over the last decade strengthened the legal status of children's rights in Norway (see Chapter 2), and the Overarching part of the curriculum explicitly states that education should be in concordance with children's rights (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). However, the children's rights perspective is to a little extent integrated into the social science curriculum in Norwegian upper secondary school, which is the most frequently used document that teachers use in their everyday planning and implementation of teaching practice.

Some of the challenges I have identified can also be considered as opportunities for enhancing recognition of young learners' human dignity in school, but as I have argued, it would require structural changes on different levels of the organization of teaching practice. To visualize the challenges and opportunities for enhancing

recognition of young learners' human dignity through teaching and learning about sexual violence, I have developed a theoretical model. This takes us to the next section on theoretical contributions.

8.2 Theoretical contributions

This dissertation has two main theoretical contributions: 1) my Bronfenbrenner-inspired model portraying how educational structures at different levels combined with teachers' and students' emotions condition teaching practice and 2) the need to complement pedagogical approaches anchored in recognition theory with intersectional perspectives, especially addressing how gender and age are of importance for understanding power relations.

First, the multiple regression analysis in Article II confirmed the usefulness of the Bronfenbrenner model by portraying that school culture-related factors, such as the level of cooperation among teachers and perceived support from school management, were statistically associated with the degree of teaching about issues related to harassment and abuse.

My critique of recognition theory, as presented by Honneth (1995), deals particularly with experiences of disrespect, such as harassment and abuse. In light of intersectional perspectives concerning gender and age (Crenshaw, 1989, 1991; Quennerstedt et al., 2020), there are groups of human beings whose experiences of disrespect are heard and given recognition to a lesser extent than others. Honneth (1995) affirmed that experiences of disrespect can become the motivational impetus for a struggle for recognition without taking into account how children and youth, as an intersectional category, embody cultural norms for social interaction and how these norms and accompanying feelings of shame and fear may hinder the disclosure and voicing of experiences of disrespect. I contend that these theoretical perspectives should have implications for teaching practice in the sense that young learners' negative emotions, which may accompany experiences of disrespect and breach of rights, should be addressed in educational settings. This is essential for schooling to be transformative for children and youth's lives.

8.3 Methodological contributions

The overarching methodological contribution of my thesis is that I have developed a mixed methods research design in multiple phases to examine and explore teaching practice based on both teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching practice.

My first contribution to Article I is the development of a survey instrument to measure teachers' perceptions of teaching practices concerning issues related to harassment and abuse. This instrument was developed to encompass the cultural context of social science education in Norwegian upper secondary schools. However, it might be applied to similar research in other countries as long as it is culturally adapted to fit different contexts. As such, this instrument has great potential for transferability.

Second, I consider my application of mixed method during telephone interviews to be an innovative methodological contribution. By taking notes of my informants' reasoning while simultaneously ticking off the boxes on the Likert scale, I was able to measure their perceptions of practice while simultaneously gaining insight into their emotions concerning practice and their reasoning for why they do what they do.

The third methodological contribution is my approach to participatory research with teachers and students in social science education, anchoring the development of teaching lessons and pedagogical methods in students' voices and democratic participation concerning issues they would like to learn more about. Explicitly linking students' voices and participation to children's rights is my methodological contribution to enhancing human rights education in school, particularly as an integrated part of social science education. Part of this contribution was to explore role-play as a pedagogical method for teaching about harassment in combination with democratic dialogues in small groups of students. This participatory research is a transformativist contribution, seeking to change and further enhance teaching practice.

8.4 Ethical contributions

An essential ethical contribution of my research project is how I managed the teachers' sense of guilt as a strategy for avoiding causing harm to the research participants. As addressed in the literature overview, it was identified how teachers may feel guilt for

not being aware of what constitutes sexually harmful behaviour among youth (Draugedalen, 2020; Draugedalen et al., 2021) but do not discuss in detail how educational researchers may manage this sense of guilt to reduce teachers' potential sense of discomfort and guilt when taking part in research that may make them aware of shortcomings in this regard. Dealing with teachers' guilt is important, as it may turn into depressive guilt, which "is at its most intense, perhaps, when we realize that we may be harming or neglecting those for whom we care, by not meeting their needs or giving them sufficient attention" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 144). This can ultimately lead to teacher burnout and exit from the teaching profession (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 155).

After conducting the data collection from February 2018 to June 2019, I became aware that I had been managing teachers' emotions as a researcher throughout the entire period without noticing. During the telephone survey, the informants who had not taught about sexual violence to any extent expressed what I interpret as guilt through expressions such as "*I should have* taught more about sexual violence… but the school year isn't over yet" (my emphasis added). How did I respond? My instant reaction was that they should not feel bad about not addressing different aspects of sexual violence in the classroom, and I emphasized that there are many factors influencing what is being taught in the classroom – such as the curriculum and interpretations of the curriculum – if there is cooperation among teachers regarding developing teaching lessons, focus from the school management and so on. It was important for me to convey that it was not *their fault* because I felt that some of them internalized an individual sense of guilt, whereas I sought to focus on structural factors that influence and condition teaching practice to alleviate their guilt. This epitomizes the connection between our emotional lives and public issues. Hargreaves (1994) writes that "while guilt is a deep personal trouble for many teachers […] within many of our personal troubles reside compelling public issues" (p. 142). There are several public issues here that are of relevance, for example, ranging from the actual prevalence of child sexual abuse to structural factors related to the organization of teaching, such as the content of curriculum, the time allocated to teach the curriculum or the content of teacher education. I sought to alleviate their sense of guilt by addressing the fact that their practice is linked to these structural dimensions.

How can we understand the teachers' sense of guilt, and why did I feel a strong need to alleviate their sense of guilt? Teachers' sense of guilt can be linked to several factors. The #MeToo movement was much debated in public and social media at the time when the telephone interviews took place, and students should learn about current affairs in social science studies. Teachers might know that learning about various aspects of sexual violence could increase students' capacity to protect themselves by notifying them if they experience unwanted sexual attention. By not addressing these issues in class, the teacher may feel that he or she is not contributing to enabling their capacity to protect themselves. This can entail the feeling that one is *not caring enough* for students. Hargreaves (1994, pp. 141–157) holds forth that guilt is a key feature in teachers' emotional lives, and he discusses that the commitment to goals of care and nurturance can be a source of guilt for teachers, especially if they feel that they are failing to provide it. It could also be that the informants in my study who expressed guilt felt that they failed my expectations as a researcher – thinking that I was hoping to find that teachers address these matters – and when this was not the case, they felt like apologizing for not fulfilling my expectations. Hargreaves (1994, p. 144) also discusses how not living up to expectations is one of several emotional dimensions of teaching that is linked to guilt. I believe that my feelings should be understood as intertwined with the structural organization of conducting research, which in part consists of the ethical guidelines provided by the Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee (2019), stating that the research should not harm or cause strain on informants. Alleviating their guilt became my strategy for caring for the informants.

8.5 Final reflections

The main meta-inference from study is that teachers do not address harassment and abuse linked to young learners' life-worlds to any great extent, and the students in this study express that these are the topics they would like to learn more about because as one of my student informants put it "it's important. Even though it might not be so easy to talk about". The seven challenges I have identified point to structural and emotional constraints that condition teachers' practice and thereby contributes to a gap between

what teachers do and what students would like them to do. And it is not a simple matter of students' preferences; there is a gap between the education many students get and what *kind of education students are entitled to*. Students have the right to education, and the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education affirms that this right includes the right to comprehensive sexuality education (Muñoz, 2010, p. 7).

If the educational system fails to create a space for young learners' voices and influence concerning how sensitive matters, such as harassment and abuse, in their life-worlds are addressed and handled, there are structures in play that may contribute to the reproduction of both verbal and overt violence. Bourdieu's (2001) concept of *symbolic violence* is of uttermost relevance here, referring to "gentle violence, imperceptible and invisible even to its victims, exerted for the most part through the purely symbolic channels of communication and cognition (more precisely, misrecognition), recognition, or even feeling" (pp. 1–2). Bourdieu (2001) asserts that symbolic violence is imperceptible and invisible even to its victims. My study indicates that students internalize a responsibility of dealing with experiences of disrespect on their own, unaware of teachers' responsibilities and Norway's legal obligations to ensure their protection as enshrined in the CRC (UN, 1989, Art. 19). My study indicates that there is a considerable gap between the Norwegian political rhetoric of school as an arena for prevention and protection and teaching practices in school.

I conclude my thesis by acknowledging that love is one of the most important dimensions of the teaching profession (Jordet, 2020), despite the institutional constraints. As we have seen, love can be a double-edged sword in the sense that caring is misunderstood if it entails protecting young learners from knowledge about violence and abuse, because this does not enable learners' understanding of their rights, the emotions that accompany such experiences of disrespect and the asymmetrical relations that are in play nor does it enable their action capacity to speak out if their rights to bodily integrity are infringed. Therefore, love in the teaching profession could be practiced in a rights-promoting way in school – assuming an attitude in which we recognize all individuals' human dignity and worth, while understanding and taking into consideration that not all of us are equally positioned and taking action to ensure that

promoting children's best interests constitute the foundation of ethical conduct in the teaching profession.

The educational philosopher, Nel Noddings (2003), reminds us that "True happiness requires a capacity to share unhappiness; that is, to be truly happy, we must be moved to alleviate the misery around us" (p. 3).

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Appendix I: Information sheet for teacher informants

<div align="right">Moss, 21/2 - 2018</div>

Informasjonsskriv om prosjektet

«*Å undervise om sensitive tema*»

Formålet med dette prosjektet er å kartlegge om og hvordan samfunnsfagslærere i videregående opplæring underviser om seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep i fellesfaget *samfunnsfag*. Informasjon vil samles inn gjennom en spørreundersøkelse som vil foregå pr telefonintervju med daglig ansvarlig for prosjektet, Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw. Spørreundersøkelsen inngår som en del av en doktoravhandling ved Institutt for Sosiologi og Sosialt arbeid ved Fakultetet for Samfunnsvitenskap ved Universitetet i Agder.

Det vil ikke bli innhentet direkte personidentifiserende opplysninger. Navn og kontaktinformasjon vil ikke bli registrert i datainnsamlingen. Det vil samles inn informasjon om kjønn, alder, utdannelse, arbeidserfaring, oppfatning av utdannelsens relevans for undervisning om sensitive tema, samt ulike type arbeidsmåter i klasserommet. Det vil også bli innhentet informasjon om oppfatning av lærebok, læreplan, samarbeid i fagseksjon og skoleledelse.

Deltakelse i prosjektet er frivillig, og informanter har anledning til å trekke seg når som helst i undersøkelsen uten å gi begrunnelse. Det er kun daglig ansvarlig og veileder, Irene Trysnes, som vil ha tilgang til datamaterialet. Alt materialet anonymiseres ved innhenting. Prosjektet avsluttes i desember 2021, og materialet vil da makuleres. Dersom det er ønskelig, kan informanter gjerne få tilgang til artikler og endelig avhandling.

Behandlingsansvarlig Universitetet i Agder, ved institusjonens øverste leder.

Daglig ansvarlig Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw, mail: beate.goldschmidt-gjerlow@uia.no telefon: 98236462

Veileder Irene Trysnes, mail: irene.trysnes@uia.no

På forhånd, tusen takk for deltakelse.

Vennlig hilsen,

Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw

Appendix II: The guide for the telephone-interviews

1. Personalia: Alder
- ❑ 20-25 år
- ❑ 26 - 35 år
- ❑ 36 - 45 år
- ❑ 46 - 55 år
- ❑ 56 - 65 år
- ❑ 65 år >

2. Kjønn
- ❑ Kvinne
- ❑ Mann
- ❑ Hen

3. På hvilken studieretning underviser du?
- ❑ Yrkesfaglig studieretning
- ❑ Studiespesialisering
- ❑ Begge deler

4. Geografisk plassering av arbeidssted (definisjonene på b) er hentet fra Statistisk Sentralbyrå, og a) er tilpasset etter forståelse av b) 2018)
- ❑ Bygd (Et sted hvor det bor under 200 personer og avstanden mellom husene overstiger 50 meter)
- ❑ Tettsted (Et sted hvor det bor minst 200 personer og avstanden mellom husene ikke overstiger 50 meter)
- ❑ By
- ❑ Større by (Oslo, Kristiansand, Bergen, Stavanger, Trondheim og Tromsø)

5. Hva er din høyeste fullførte utdannelse? (definisjoner hentet fra Norsk Lektorlag, 2018)
- ❑ Fullført bachelorgrad (Tilsatte i undervisningsstilling med utdanning tilsvarende 3 års normert studietid – 180 studiepoeng)
- ❑ Adjunkt (Tilsatte i undervisningsstilling som samlet har godkjent faglig og pedagogisk utdanning fra universitet eller høgskole tilsvarende 4 års normert studietid – 240 studiepoeng – 80 vekttall)
- ❑ Adjunkt med tilleggsutdanning (Tilsatte i undervisningsstilling som har godkjent faglig og pedagogisk utdanning tilsvarende minst 5 års normert studietid (300 studiepoeng/100 vekttall).
- ❑ Lektor (Tilsatte i undervisningsstilling som har godkjent faglig og pedagogisk og godkjent mastergrad, hovedfagseksamen eller godkjent videreutdanning på hovedfags/mastergradsnivå tilsvarende minst 5 års normert studietid (300 studiepoeng/100 vekttall).
- ❑ Lektor med tilleggsutdanning (Tilsatte i undervisningsstilling som har godkjent faglig og pedagogisk utdanning og godkjent mastergrad, hovedfagseksamen og som samlet har godkjent utdanning fra universitet eller høgskole tilsvarende 6 års normert studietid (360 studiepoeng/120 vekttall) eller mer

6. Hva er din religiøse bakgrunn?

☐ Buddhisme

☐ Hinduisme

☐ Jødedom

☐ Islam

☐ Kristendom

☐ Annet

☐ Jeg ser ikke på meg selv som en religiøs person

7. Hvordan stiller du deg politisk?

☐ I sentrum

☐ På høyre-siden

☐ På venstre-siden

☐ Jeg ser ikke på meg selv som en politisk person

8. Hvordan identifiserer du deg selv når det gjelder etnisk tilhørighet?

☐ Ikke-vestlig innvandringsbakgrunn

☐ Vestlig innvandringsbakgrunn

☐ Norsk

☐ Samisk

☐ Annet

9. Arbeidserfaring spm 9 - 10: Når underviste du sist i fellesfaget samfunnsfag på VGS?

☐ Skoleåret 2016/2017

☐ Dette skoleåret 2017/2018

10. Hvor lenge har du undervist i fellesfaget samfunnsfag på VGS?

☐ Mindre enn 1 år

☐ 1 - 3 år

☐ 4-6 år

☐ 7 - 10 år

☐ Mer enn 10 år

11. Opplevelse av utdannelsens relevans (spm 11 - 13): I hvilken grad syns du din utdannelse har vært relevant for å undervise om kjønn?

☐ I null grad - utdannelsen har ikke vært relevant for å undervise om kjønn

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

12. I hvilken grad syns du din utdannelse har vært relevant for å undervise om seksualitet og ulike former for seksuell orientering?

☐ I null grad - utdannelsen har ikke vært relevant for å undervise om seksualitet og ulike former for seksuell orientering

☐ I liten grad

❑ I noe grad

❑ I vesentlig grad

❑ I høy grad

13. I hvilken grad syns du at din utdannelse har vært relevant for å undervise om temaet seksuelle krenkelser og seksuelle overgrep?

❑ I null grad - utdannelsen har ikke vært relevant for å undervise om temaet seksuelle krenkelser og seksuelle overgrep

❑ I liten grad

❑ I noe grad

❑ I vesentlig grad

❑ I høy grad

14. Oppfatning av egnethet spm 14 - 16: I hvilken grad føler du deg egnet til å ta opp temaer knyttet til kjønn og kjønnsroller i din undervisning?

❑ I null grad - jeg føler meg ikke egnet

❑ I liten grad

❑ I noe grad

❑ I vesentlig grad

❑ I høy grad

15. I hvilken grad føler du deg egnet til å ta opp seksualitet og ulike former for seksuell orientering i din undervisning?

❑ I null grad - jeg føler meg ikke egnet til å ta opp seksualitet og ulike former seksualitet

❑ I liten grad

❑ I noe grad

❑ I vesentlig grad

❑ I høy grad

16. I hvilken grad føler du deg egnet til å diskutere temaet seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep i klasserommet med elevene?

❑ I null grad - jeg føler meg ikke egnet til å diskutere temaet seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep i klasserommet

❑ I liten grad

❑ I noe grad

❑ I vesentlig grad

❑ I høy grad

17. Oppfatning av temaenes viktighet spm 17 - 19: I hvilken grad syns du det er viktig å ta opp temaene kjønn og kjønnsroller i undervisningen?

❑ I null grad - jeg syns ikke det er viktig å ta opp

❑ I liten grad

❑ I noe grad

❑ I vesentlig grad

❑ I høy grad

135

18. I hvilken grad syns du det er viktig å ta opp temaene seksualitet og ulike seksuelle orienteringer i undervisningen?

☐ I null grad - jeg syns ikke det er viktig å ta opp

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

19. I hvilken grad syns du det er viktig å ta opp seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep i klasseromsundervisning?

☐ I null grad

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

20. Oppfatning av vanskelighet spm 20 26: Hvis du har erfaring fra klasser hvor det er et relativt flertall av jenter, i hvilken grad syns du det er vanskelig å ta opp temaer knyttet til seksualitet og ulike seksuelle orienteringer i slike klasser? Hopp over om du ikke har erfaring fra slike klasser.

☐ I null grad - jeg syns ikke det er vanskelig å ta opp disse temaene i slike klasser

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

21. Hvis du har erfaring fra klasser hvor det er et relativt flertall av gutter, i hvilken grad syns du det er vanskelig å ta opp temaer knyttet til seksualitet og ulike seksuelle orienteringer i slike klasser? Hopp over om du ikke har erfaring fra slike klasser

☐ I null grad - jeg syns ikke det er vanskelig å ta opp slike temaer i klasser hvor det er et relativt flertall av gutter

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

22. I hvilken grad syns du det er vanskelig å ta opp temaer knyttet til seksualitet og ulike former for seksuell orientering i klasser med relativ kjønnsbalanse?

☐ I null grad - jeg syns ikke det er vanskelig å ta opp dette i slike klasser

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

23. Hvis du har erfaring fra klasser hvor det er et flertall av gutter, i hvilken

136

grad syns du det er vanskelig å ta opp temaer knyttet til seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep i slike klasser? Hopp over om du ikke har erfaring fra slike klasser.

☐ I null grad - jeg syns ikke det er vanskelig å ta opp dette i slike klasser

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

24. Hvis du har erfaring fra klasser hvor det er et relativt flertall av jenter, i hvilken grad syns du det er vanskelig å ta opp temaer knyttet til seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep i slike klasser? Hopp over om du ikke har erfaring fra slike klasser.

☐ I null grad

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

25. I hvilken grad syns du det er vanskelig å ta opp temaer knyttet til seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep i klasser med en relativ kjønnsbalanse?

☐ I null grad - jeg syns ikke det er vanskelig å ta opp dette i slike klasser

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

26. Ulike temaer i undervisning spm 26 - 39: I hvilken grad tar du opp seksualitet og ulike seksuelle orienteringer i undervisningen?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

27. I hvilken grad tar du opp grensesetting når det gjelder egen og andres kropper?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

28. I hvilken grad snakker du med elevene om seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen

☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

29. I hvilken grad tar du opp seksuelle krenkelser på nett, som for eksempel deling av bilder med seksualisert innhold?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

30. I hvilken grad tar du opp hva slags lovverk som beskytter mot seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

31. I hvilken grad tar du opp temaet voldtekt?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

32. I hvilken grad tar du opp statistikk knyttet til seksuell trakassering, overgrepsforsøk og/eller voldtekt?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

33. I hvilken grad tar du opp hva slags strafferammer en voldtekt kan gi?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

34. I hvilken grad tar du opp at det ofte er jevnaldrende som begår voldtekt?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen

☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

35. I hvilken grad tar du opp temaet seksuelle overgrep mot barn (under 18 år)?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

36. I hvilken grad tar du opp asymmetriske maktforhold når det gjelder seksuelle krenkelser og/eller overgrep?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

37. I hvilken grad tar du opp kjønnsforskjeller knyttet til seksuelle krenkelser og/eller overgrep?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

38. Hvis du har undervist i dette skoleåret, i hvilken grad har du snakket med elevene om #Metoo-kampanjen?

☐ I null grad - det tar jeg ikke opp i undervisningen
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

39. I hvilken grad har du tatt opp seksuell trakassering og/eller seksuelle krenkelser som en utfordring for likestilling mellom kjønn?

☐ I null grad
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

40. Arbeidsmåter i undervisningen spm 40 -45: I hvilken grad har dere jobbet

på disse følgende måtene med temaet seksuelle krenkelser og/eller overgrep?

Videosnutter fra film, serier eller nyhetsinnslag

☐ I null grad - vi har ikke jobbet med dette temaet ved bruk av tv-snutter fra film, serier eller nyhetsinnslag

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

41. Lesing av nyhetsartikler?

☐ I null grad - vi har ikke jobbet med dette temaet ved å lese nyhetsartikler

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

42. Lesing i tekstboka?

☐ I null grad - vi har ikke jobbet med dette temaet ved å lese i tekstboka

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

43. Skriving?

☐ I null grad - vi har ikke jobbet med dette temaet gjennom skriving

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

44. Gruppearbeid?

☐ I null grad - vi har ikke jobbet med dette temaet gjennom gruppearbeid

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

45. Klassediskusjon?

☐ I null grad - vi har ikke hatt en klassediskusjon med dette temaet

☐ I liten grad

☐ I noe grad

☐ I vesentlig grad

☐ I høy grad

46. I hvilken grad mener du at læreboka i samfunnsfag inkluderer temaer

knyttet til seksualitet og ulike former for seksualitet?

❏ I null grad
❏ I liten grad
❏ I noe grad
❏ I vesentlig grad
❏ I høy grad

47. Oppfatning av læreboka: I hvilken grad mener du at læreboka inkluderer temaer knyttet til kjønn og kjønnsroller?

❏ I null grad
❏ I liten grad
❏ I noe grad
❏ I vesentlig grad
❏ I høy grad

48. I hvilken grad mener du at læreboka inkluderer temaer seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep?

❏ I null grad
❏ I liten grad
❏ I noe grad
❏ I vesentlig grad
❏ I høy grad

49. I hvilken grad mener du at læreplanen i samfunnsfag inkluderer temaer knyttet til kjønn og kjønnsroller?

❏ I null grad
❏ I liten grad
❏ I noe grad
❏ I vesentlig grad
❏ I høy grad

50. I hvilken grad mener du at læreplanen i samfunnsfag inkluderer temaer knyttet til seksualitet og ulike former for seksualitet?

❏ I null grad
❏ I liten grad
❏ I noe grad
❏ I vesentlig grad
❏ I høy grad

51. I hvilken grad mener du at læreplanen i samfunnsfag inkluderer temaer knyttet til seksuelle krenkelser og overgrep?

❏ I null grad
❏ I liten grad
❏ I noe grad
❏ I vesentlig grad
❏ I høy grad

52. Samarbeid i samfunnsfagseksjonen: I hvilken grad har du og dine kollegaer i samfunnsfagseksjonen diskutert ulike undervisningsopplegg knyttet til kjønn, seksualitet og seksuelle krenkelser?

☐ I null grad
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

53. Skoleledelsen: I hvilken grad mener du at skoleledelsen bidrar til lærernes kompetanse om hvordan man kan undervise om seksuelle krenkelser?

☐ I null grad
☐ I liten grad
☐ I noe grad
☐ I vesentlig grad
☐ I høy grad

Appendix III: The digital survey among students

Spørreundersøkelsen for elever i videregående opplæring

UNIVERSITETET I AGDER

Kjære elev,

Din stemme betyr noe - målet med denne spørreundersøkelsen er at du skal få si din mening om hvilke sensitive tema knyttet til kjønn, seksualitet og seksuelle krenkelser du mener bør tas opp i samfunnsfagundervisningen. Selve undersøkelsen vil ta ca 2 min, og består kun av 2 spørsmål - ditt kjønn og hvilke tema du vil ta opp. Du må bekrefte deltakelse gjennom en link sendt til den epostadressen du oppgir. Dine svar blir anonymisert.

Undersøkelsen er frivillig og du velger helt selv om du ønsker å svare eller ikke. Du kan huke av for flere alternativer om du ønsker det.

Vennlig hilsen,

Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw

Stipendiat ved Universitetet i Agder

Tlf: 98236462

Epostadresse: beate.goldschmidt-gjerlow@uia.no

Hva er ditt kjønn?
- ⃝ Jente
- ⃝ Gutt
- ⃝ Hen - hverken gutt eller jente, men en blanding

Hvilke tema mener du bør tas opp i samfunnsfagundervisning?
- ☐ Pornografi
- ☐ Kjønnslemlestelse av kvinner
- ☐ Den gode seksualitet
- ☐ Transkjønnethet
- ☐ Femininitet/ maskulinitet
- ☐ Seksuelle overgrep på barn
- ☐ Seksuell trakassering blant jevnaldrende
- ☐ Seksuell vold blant jevnaldrende
- ☐ Seksuell vold som våpen i krigføring
- ☐ Jeg ønsker ikke å svare på dette spørsmålet

Forrige	66%	Neste

Appendix IV: Information sheet for students

9.mai, 2019

Informasjonsskriv om klasseromsforskning

Kjære elev,

Du mottar dette informasjonsskrivet, fordi du som elev er invitert til å delta i et forskningsprosjekt relatert til undervisning om seksuell trakassering i videregående opplæring. Formålet med denne studien er at du skal få mer kunnskap om hva seksuell trakassering er, hva slags konsekvenser seksuell trakassering kan ha og hvilke rettigheter du har som skal beskytte deg og andre mennesker mot slik uønsket atferd. Det er også et formål at du skal bli mer bevisst på hvordan du og andre kan bidra til å stoppe seksuell trakassering.

Undervisningsopplegget inkluderer en gjennomgang av viktige begreper, samt forberedelse og gjennomføring av rollespill. Rollespillet vil kun belyse verbal seksuell trakassering, og ingen skal bli utsatt for fysisk seksuell trakassering. Deltakelsen er frivillig, og du kan når som helst trekke din deltakelse uten å oppgi grunn. Det vil bli gjennomført observasjon av undervisningen, og det vil bli gjort lydopptak. Personlig informasjon som navn og skoletilknytning vil bli anonymisert, og alle elevene vil bli gitt fiktive navn. Informasjonen lagres på en låst datamaskin med personlig kode, og lydfiler blir lagret uten direkte personidentifiserende informasjon. Ingen identifiserende informasjon vil bli gjengitt i fremstillingen av forskningen. I etterkant av undervisningsopplegget, inviteres du til å delta i gruppe-intervjuer som vil handle om dine opplevelser av denne undervisningen. Dette intervjuet vil også bli dokumentert med lydopptak.

Opplysningene som innhentes skal brukes som del av mitt doktorgradsarbeid om kontroversielle og sensitive tema i samfunnsfagsundervising i videregående opplæring. Ansvarlig behandlingsinstitusjon er Universitetet i Agder ved Institutt for sosiologi og sosialt arbeid. Personer som vil ha tilgang til den innhentede informasjonen er undertegnede, og veiledere Irene Trysnes og Pål Repstad ved Universitetet i Agder. Prosjektet avsluttes i 2022, og det er kun anonym informasjonen som vil bli oppbevart til mulige fremtidige publikasjoner. Du har rett til å be om innsyn, retting, sletting og begrensning. Du har også rett til å klage til Datatilsynet.

Dersom du skulle ha spørsmål eller tanker som du vil dele med meg, er det bare å ta kontakt når som helst på e-post: beate.goldschmidt-gjerlow@uia.no. Kontakt til personvernombud ved Universitetet i Agder er Ina Danielsen, epost: ina.danielsen@uia.no. Du kan gjerne henvende deg til meg for å få tilgang til fremtidige publiserte artikler.

Vennlig hilsen,

Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw

Stipendiat ved Universitetet i Agder

Appendix V: Semi-structurued interview guide (student interviews)

Semi-strukturert intervjuguide

1. Hva legger dere i begrepet seksuell trakassering?

2. Er seksuell trakassering et tema som bør snakkes om i skolen? Hvorfor, hvorfor ikke?

3. Hva vet dere om Barnekonvensjonen?

4. Sier Barnekonvensjonen noe om beskyttelse fra seksuell trakassering?

5. Hvordan opplevde dere å jobbe med rollespillet om seksuell trakassering?

6. Hvilke utfordringer møtte dere?

7. Er det noen ulemper ved å ha rollespill om ST?

8. Hva kan være fordelene?

9. Hva kan være utfordringene knyttet til å stoppe seksuell trakassering?

10. Hva er deres rolle når det gjelder å si ifra?

Appendix VI: Approval from Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD)

NSD

Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw
Serviceboks 422
4604 KRISTIANSAND S

Vår dato: 20.02.2018   Vår ref: 58236 / 3 / LH   Deres dato: Deres ref:

Tilrådning fra NSD Personvernombudet for forskning § 7-27

Personvernombudet for forskning viser til meldeskjema mottatt 09.01.2018 for prosjektet:

58236	Å undervise om kontroversielle temaer – en komparativ samfunnsfagdidaktisk studie av demokratisk medborgerskap i Norge og Spania
Behandlingsansvarlig	Universitetet i Agder, ved institusjonens øverste leder
Daglig ansvarlig	Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw

Vurdering

Etter gjennomgang av opplysningene i meldeskjemaet og øvrig dokumentasjon finner vi at prosjektet er unntatt konsesjonsplikt og at personopplysningene som blir samlet inn i dette prosjektet er regulert av § 7-27 i personopplysningsforskriften. På den neste siden er vår vurdering av prosjektopplegget slik det er meldt til oss. Du kan nå gå i gang med å behandle personopplysninger.

Vilkår for vår anbefaling

Vår anbefaling forutsetter at du gjennomfører prosjektet i tråd med:
- opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet og øvrig dokumentasjon
- vår prosjektvurdering, se side 2
- eventuell korrespondanse med oss

Meld fra hvis du gjør vesentlige endringer i prosjektet

Dersom prosjektet endrer seg, kan det være nødvendig å sende inn endringsmelding. På våre nettsider finner du svar på hvilke endringer du må melde, samt endringsskjema.

Opplysninger om prosjektet blir lagt ut på våre nettsider og i Meldingsarkivet

Vi har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet på nettsidene våre. Alle våre institusjoner har også tilgang til egne prosjekter i Meldingsarkivet.

Vi tar kontakt om status for behandling av personopplysninger ved prosjektslutt

Ved prosjektslutt 08.12.2021 vil vi ta kontakt for å avklare status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Se våre nettsider eller ta kontakt dersom du har spørsmål. Vi ønsker lykke til med prosjektet!

Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.

NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS   Harald Hårfagres gate 29   Tel: +47-55 58 21 17   nsd@nsd.no   Org.nr. 985 321 884
NSD – Norwegian Centre for Research Data   NO-5007 Bergen, NORWAY   Faks: +47-55 58 96 50   www.nsd.no

Vennlig hilsen

Dag Kiberg

Lise Aasen Haveraaen

Kontaktperson: Lise Aasen Haveraaen tlf: 55 58 21 19 / Lise.Haveraaen@nsd.no
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

Personvernombudet for forskning

Prosjektvurdering - Kommentar

FORMÅL

Formålet med prosjektet er 1) å undersøke hvordan samfunnsfaglærere i Norge og Spania opplever interaksjonen med elever i utfordrende undervisningssituasjoner med fokus på kontroversielle og sensitive temaer som seksuelle krenkelser, homofili og fordommer, og stereotypiske fremstillinger av kjønn, rase og kultur, hvor elever kommer med gruppebaserte fordommer og/eller hatefulle ytringer, og 2) undersøke hvordan man på bakgrunn av læreres erfaringer i Norge og Spania kan utvikle de beste fremgangsmåtene for å fremme tolerante, inkluderende og aksepterende klasserom som del av demokratisk medborgerskap i den videregående skolen.

UTVALG OG REKRUTTERING

Utvalget består av lærere i samfunnsfag ved 3-4 skoler i Norge og 2 skoler i Spania. Rekruttering skjer via kontakter og videre ved hjelp av snøballmetoden der personer som allerede inngår i prosjektet rekrutterer nye deltakere fra sin bekjentskapskrets. Ved sistnevnte fremgangsmåte anbefaler personvernombudet at vedkommende som videreformidler forespørsel ber interesserte kontakte forsker, eller eventuelt få vedkommendes tillatelse til at forsker kan ta kontakt.

INFORMASJON OG SAMTYKKE

Du har opplyst i meldeskjema at utvalget vil motta muntlig informasjon om prosjektet, og samtykke muntlig til å delta. Vi gjør oppmerksom på at for å innhente et gyldig samtykke må utvalget minst motta følgende informasjon:

- hva som er formålet med prosjektet og hva opplysningene vil bli brukt til
- hvilke opplysninger som samles inn og hvordan opplysningene samles inn
- at deltakelse i prosjektet er frivillig, og at man kan trekke seg uten begrunnelse
- hvem som vil få tilgang til opplysningene
- når prosjektet vil bli avsluttet og hva som vil skje med opplysningene ved prosjektslutt; opplysningene anonymiseres, slettes eller lagres/arkiveres
- navn og kontaktopplysninger til behandlingsansvarlig institusjon
- navn og kontaktopplysninger til den daglig ansvarlige for prosjektet

Vi gjør oppmerksom på at forsker må forsikre seg om at deltakerne har forstått informasjonen og deltar frivillig. Forsker har et selvstendig ansvar for å sikre at samtykket som blir gitt er gyldig.

DATAINNSAMLING

I meldeskjema er det krysset av for at personopplysninger skal samles inn gjennom gruppe- og personlig intervju, elektronisk spørreskjema og observasjon. Personvernombudet forutsetter at utvalget som observeres informeres og samtykker til deltagelse dersom det skal registreres personidentifiserende opplysninger fra

observasjon.

SENSITIVE PERSONOPPLYSNINGER
Det fremgår av meldeskjema at du vil behandle sensitive opplysninger om etnisk bakgrunn eller politisk/filosofisk/religiøs oppfatning, samt seksuelle forhold.

INFORMASJONSSIKKERHET
Personvernombudet forutsetter at du behandler alle data i tråd med Universitetet i Agder sine retningslinjer for datahåndtering og informasjonssikkerhet. Vi legger til grunn at bruk av skylagring er i samsvar med institusjonens retningslinjer.

EKSTERN DATABEHANDLER
Du har opplyst i meldeskjema at det kan bli aktuelt å ta i bruk en ekstern databehandler i prosjektet. Dersom det ikke allerede eksisterer en databehandleravtale mellom Universitetet i Agder og databehandleren, skal det inngås en skriftlig avtale om hvordan personopplysninger skal behandles, jf. personopplysningsloven § 15. For råd om hva databehandleravtalen bør inneholde, se Datatilsynets veileder:
https://www.datatilsynet.no/regelverk-og-skjema/veiledere/databehandleravtale/

PROSJEKTSLUTT OG ANONYMISERING
Prosjektslutt er oppgitt til 08.12.2021. Det fremgår av meldeskjema at du vil anonymisere datamaterialet ved prosjektslutt.
Anonymisering innebærer vanligvis å:
- slette direkte identifiserbare opplysninger som navn, fødselsnummer, koblingsnøkkel
- slette eller omskrive/gruppere indirekte identifiserbare opplysninger som bosted/arbeidssted, alder, kjønn
- slette lydopptak

For en utdypende beskrivelse av anonymisering av personopplysninger, se Datatilsynets veileder:
https://www.datatilsynet.no/globalassets/global/regelverk-skjema/veiledere/anonymisering-veileder-041115.pdf

Personvernombudet gjør oppmerksom på at også databehandler må slette personopplysninger tilknyttet prosjektet i sine systemer. Det inkluderer eksempelvis transkripsjoner, filer, logger og koblingsnøkkel mellom IP-/epostadresser og besvarelsene.

Endringsskjema

for endringer i forsknings- og studentprosjekter som behandler personopplysninger

NB: Dette endringsskjemaet kan bare benyttes av prosjekter som skal avsluttes innen 31.12.2019. Se våre nettsider for veiledning dersom prosjektet har lengre varighet.

Endringsskjema sendes per e-post til: personvernombudet@nsd.no

1. PROSJEKT	
Navn på daglig ansvarlig: Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw Universitetet i Agder	Prosjektnummer: 58238
Evt. navn på student:	

2. BESKRIV ENDRING(ENE)	
Endring av daglig ansvarlig/veileder: Ingen endring	Ved bytte av daglig ansvarlig må bekreftelse fra tidligere og ny daglig ansvarlig vedlegges. Dersom vedkommende har sluttet ved institusjonen, må bekreftelse fra representant på minimum instituttnivå vedlegges.
Endring av dato for anonymisering av datamaterialet:	Ved forlengelse på mer enn ett år utover det deltakerne er informert om, skal det fortrinnsvis gis ny informasjon til deltakerne.
Gis det ny informasjon til utvalget? Ja: _____ Nei: _____ Hvis nei, begrunn:	
Endring av metode(r): 1) I tillegg til å gjennomføre telefon-intervjuer med samfunnsfaglærere, ønsker jeg å gjennomføre en kort digital spørreundersøkelse blant elever over 16 år. 2) I tillegg søker jeg om å filme gjennomføringen av undervisningsopplegg i videregående. Elevene vil bli informert på forhånd og har mulighet til å si nei til å delta. All informasjon vil bli anonymisert gjennom hele forskningsprosessen.	Angi hvilke nye metoder som skal benyttes, f.eks. intervju, spørreskjema, observasjon, registerdata, osv.

Endring av utvalg: Ja. I tillegg til å ha lærere som deltakere, ønsker jeg å gjennomføre en kort spørreundersøkelse blant elever i videregående opplæring når det gjelder hva slags type tema knyttet til kjønn, seksualitet og seksuell vold de ønsker å ta opp i samfunnsfagundervisning. På bakgrunn av hva elevene svarer, vil jeg sammen med deres samfunnsfaglærere designe et eller to undervisningsopplegg med de(t) tema(ene) som har fått flest stemmer. Jeg søker om tillatelse til å filme gjennomføringen av undervisningsopplegg som skal gjennomføres med opptil 5 forskjellige lærere i opptil 10 forskjellige klasserom ved en skole i Østlandsområdet.	*Dersom det er snakk om små endringer i antall deltakere er endringsmelding som regel ikke nødvendig. Ta kontakt på telefon før du sender inn skjema dersom du er i tvil.*
Annet:	

3. TILLEGGSOPPLYSNINGER

4. ANTALL VEDLEGG

Legger ved oppdatert prosjektbeskrivelse.	*Legg ved eventuelle nye vedlegg (informasjonsskriv, intervjuguide, spørreskjema, tillatelser, og lknende.)*

Sendt pr epost til NSD den 22.november, 2018.

Appendix VIII: Approval of changes

KOPI AV E-POST

Håkon Tranvåg <Hakon.Tranvag@nsd.no>

ma. 28.01.2019 13:30

BEKREFTELSE PÅ ENDRING

Hei, viser til endringsmelding registrert hos personvernombudet 22.11.2018.

Vi har nå registrert en endring i metode og utvalg. Det vil inkluderes elever i videregående skole som gjennomfører en kort elektronisk spørreundersøkelse. Basert på svarene i denne undersøkelsen vil det utformes et undervisningsopplegg som skal prøves ut ved ulike skoler. Disse øktene vil filmes av forsker. Elevene vil få informasjon både om undersøkelsen og undervisningsopplegget. NSD ber om at et oppdatert informasjonsskriv ettersendes til personverntjenester@nsd.no så snart det er klart.

Personvernombudet forutsetter at prosjektopplegget for øvrig gjennomføres i tråd med det som tidligere er innmeldt, og personvernombudets tilbakemeldinger. Vi vil ta ny kontakt ved prosjektslutt.

 Mvh,

Håkon Jørgen Tranvåg

Rådgiver | Adviser

Seksjon for personverntjenester | Data Protection Services

T: (+47) 55 58 20 43

NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS | NSD – Norwegian Centre for Research Data

Harald Hårfagres gate 29, NO-5007 Bergen

T: (+47) 55 58 21 17

postmottak@nsd.no   www.nsd.no

Appendix IX: Approval of changes

Til: Beate Goldschmidt-Gjerløw

fr. 10.05.2019 14:03

BEKREFTELSE PÅ ENDRING

Hei, viser til endringsmelding registrert hos personvernombudet 24.4.2019.

Vi har nå registrert at det også skal gjennomføres gruppeintervjuer med utvalgene. Vi har også registrert oppdaterte informasjonsskriv til denne endringen.

Personvernombudet forutsetter at prosjektopplegget for øvrig gjennomføres i tråd med det som tidligere er innmeldt, og personvernombudets tilbakemeldinger. Vi vil ta ny kontakt ved prosjektslutt.

Mvh,
--
Håkon Jørgen Tranvåg
Rådgiver | Adviser
Seksjon for personverntjenester | Data Protection Services
T: (+47) 55 58 20 43