Overseas Development Institute

Opportunities and challenges in promoting policy- and practice-relevant knowledge on child rights

Caroline Harper, Nicola Jones and Carlotta Tincati

Working Paper 318

Results of ODI research presented in preliminary form for discussion and critical comment

Working Paper 318

Opportunities and challenges in promoting policy- and practice-relevant knowledge on child rights

Caroline Harper, Nicola Jones and Carlotta Tincati

July 2010

Overseas Development Institute
111 Westminster Bridge Road
London SE1 7JD
www.odi.org.uk

---

* Disclaimer: The views presented in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of The African Child Policy Forum, Childwatch International Research Network, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre or Oak Foundation.

ISBN 978 1 907288 27 2
Working Paper (Print) ISSN 1759 2909
ODI Working Papers (Online) ISSN 1759 2917

© Overseas Development Institute 2010

Readers are encouraged to quote or reproduce material from ODI Working Papers for their own publications, as long as they are not being sold commercially. As copyright holder, ODI requests due acknowledgement and a copy of the publication.

Acknowledgements

This paper was originally published with the African Child Policy Forum, Childwatch International Research Network and UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre as background paper for the conference "Children's rights at a Cross-Roads" organised in Addis Ababa November 30th - December 2nd 2009.

A first draft of the paper was shared with the participants in the conference.

The authors wish to acknowledge the valuable peer review comments of Rachel Marcus, participants at the Children's rights at a Cross Roads Conference, as well as the helpful research assistance of David Walker.

For information about the conference see: http://www.africanchildinfo.net/conference/

Oak Foundation generously provided the funding necessary for developing this report.

Contents

Acronyms v
1. Introduction 1
- 1.1 Key research questions 1
- 1.2 Theoretical framework 2
- 1.3 Structure of this paper 4

2. The knowledge–policy interface 5
- 2.1 Knowledge and professional understandings of childhood 5
- 2.2 The evolution of child rights 8

3. Political and macro policy contexts 11
- 3.1 Children and macro policy contexts 11
- 3.2 Children in PRSPs 11
- 3.3 Economic crisis and social protection 12
- 3.4 Aid effectiveness 14
- 3.5 Fragile states and the UNCRC 15

4. Links between knowledge and policy processes relevant to child rights 17
- 4.1 Knowledge management 17
- 4.2 Knowledge translation – actors, ideas and processes 27

5. Conclusions 35

References 37
Appendix 1: Towards the development of a high-quality actionable outcome conference document 42
Appendix 2: Tables and figures 52
Appendix 3: Major authors of information from CRIN mapping 69

Acronyms

AAA	American Anthropological Association
ACPF	African Child Policy Forum
ADAP	Adolescent Development and Participation Unit (UNICEF)
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANDI	News Agency for Children's Rights
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CIHR	Canadian Institutes of Health Research
CMRN	Child Migration Research Network
COP	Community of Practice
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CRIN	Child Rights Information Network
CRR	Center for Reproductive Rights
DAC	Development Assistance Committee (OECD)
DCI	Defence for Children International
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Surveys
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EAA	Ecumenical Advocacy Alliance
EC	European Commission
ECPAT	End Child Prostitution, Pornography and Trafficking
ELDIS	Electronic Development and Environment Information System
ESPAD	European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs
EU	European Union
FACE	Coalition to Fight Against Child Exploitation
GCE	Global Campaign for Education
HBSC	Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (WHO)
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HRW	Human Rights Watch
IDA	International Development Association
IDASA	Institute for Democracy in Africa
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
IPPF	International Planned Parenthood Federation
IRC	Innocenti Research Centre (UNICEF)
ISCI	International Society for Child Indicators
JLICA	Joint Learning Initiative on Children and HIV/AIDS
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MONEE	Monitoring Eastern Europe (IRC)
MSF	Médecins Sans Frontières
NCCP	National Centre for Children in Poverty
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
Norad	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OPT	Occupied Palestinian Territories
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment

PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RAPID	Research and Policy in Development (ODI)
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
Sida	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SIMPOC	Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (IPEC)
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Studies Matrix
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	Joint UN Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNCRC	UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNDP	UN Development Program
UN ECOSOC	UN Economic and Social Council
UNESCO	UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	UN Population Fund
UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
UNIFEM	UN Development Fund for Women
UNODC	UN Office on Drugs and Crime
UNOHCHR	UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
US	United States
USAID	US Agency for International Development
WABA	World Alliance for Breastfeeding Action
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WHO	World Health Organization

1. Introduction

It is now 20 years on from the birth of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), and the realisation of children's rights is at a crossroads. The past two decades have underscored the fact that progress on child well-being is not automatic or inevitable, even with economic growth. Some global trends are positive, such as falling numbers of children dying each year thanks to improved nutrition and health interventions such as immunisation – down from 93 deaths before the age of five for every 1000 live births in 1990 to 68 in 2007 (UNICEF, 2008). But progress in some developing countries is slow, stagnating or even reversing. Progress on all child-related indicators is slowest in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, and especially in West and Central Africa. For instance, in 2006 infant mortality rates were as high as 270 per 1000 live births in Sierra Leone, whereas figures in Europe are as low as three to seven child deaths per 1000 (Adamson, 2008). Without dramatic change, most developing countries will miss the child-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), including MDG5 – halving the maternal mortality rate – which has a direct impact on children. This is particularly concerning in the context of the recent global economic crisis. Proven impacts of crises on children include increases in child malnutrition, mortality and morbidity, child labour, youth unemployment, child exploitation and violence and other forms of abuse, alongside falling school attendance, reduced use of health services and a decline in the overall quality of education, care, nurture and emotional well-being (Harper et al., 2009a) – and there are clear signs that the current crisis will be no different (Conceição et al., 2009). Child poverty rates also remain high in many developed countries: in the US, the proportion of children in poverty was 16.2% in 1979, reached a peak of 22% in 1993 and stood at 18% in 2007 (NCCP, 2000).

At the same time, research and analysis efforts related to children and children's rights have burgeoned in a variety of institutional forums – academia, think-tanks, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), research networks, international agencies, multilateral and bilateral donors – with growing numbers of journals, communities of practice (COPs) and epistemic communities on specific aspects of children's rights. However, this knowledge base is partial; indeed, one of the reasons behind the poor performance on child well-being indicators mentioned above relates to a deficit of knowledge and of strategic knowledge use in policy and practice arenas.[1] The question motivating this paper is, therefore, how to create a more relevant knowledge base to underpin future children's rights strategies that safeguard children's rights?

1.1 Key research questions

Drawing on a systematic review of both published and grey literature, this paper seeks to answer the following broad questions about the knowledge–policy interface surrounding children's rights issues:

- How are global political trends challenging the present relationship between policymaking and academic institutions, and how does this affect children's rights and knowledge production related to child poverty and well-being? For instance:
  - How are governance challenges (e.g. fragile or failing states) affecting the realisation of children's rights?
  - How is the shifting international aid architecture affecting these debates?
  - To what extent is the current global economic downturn likely to pose a challenge to future progress?
- What are the relationships between research, policy and practice in the area of children's rights?
  - What are the challenges involved in strengthening the collection and analysis of child-sensitive data?

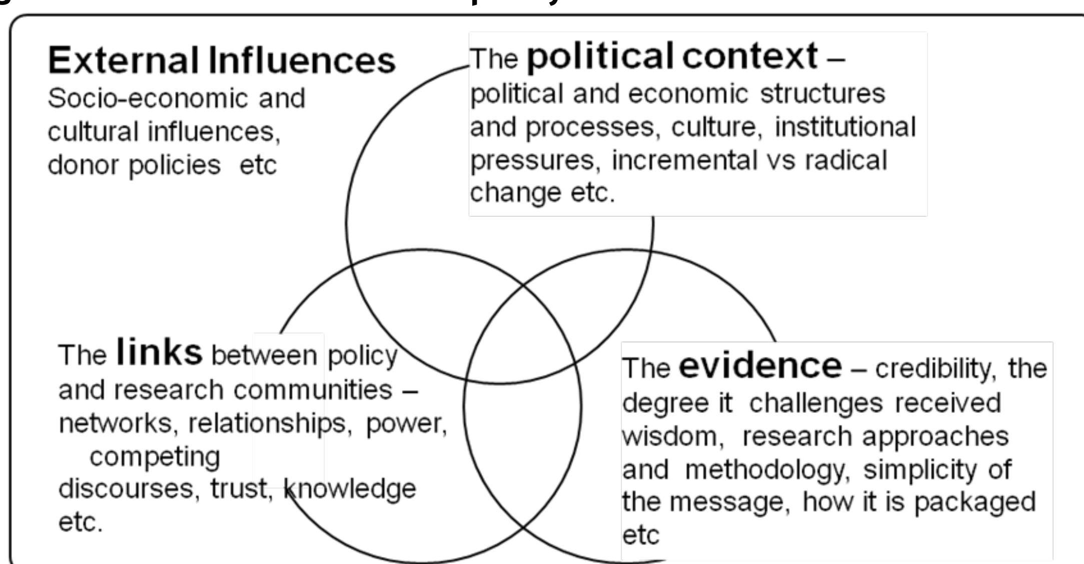
1 We acknowledge a range of other contributing variables, including political economy factors, resource constraints, patterns of globalisation and socio-cultural attitudes (Wells, 2009).

- What are the challenges in terms of information sharing, knowledge management and learning, as well as more innovative use of existing data?
- What types of frameworks have been used to better understand children's rights, and to what extent have they had effective policy purchase?
- What types of networks and COPs have been effective in strengthening relationships within the research–policy–practice triangle?
- How does the research–policy–practice nexus function in other relevant sectors, and what lessons can be learnt for children's rights epistemic communities?
  - In particular, what lessons can be learned from gender mainstreaming initiatives, where the relationships between researchers, policymakers and practitioners have arguably been better institutionalised?

1.2 Theoretical framework

Our collective understanding of the dynamics of the knowledge–policy–practice interface in developing country contexts is still in a fledgling state (Jones et al., 2009a). This paper takes the research–policy framework of the Overseas Development Institute's (ODI's) Research and Policy in Development (RAPID) programme as its starting point, which emphasises: 1) the importance of political context; 2) bridging often isolated policy and knowledge communities; and 3) framing research evidence into politically palatable and memorable messages (see Figure 1). It applies a modified version to questions related to child rights policy and practice as elaborated below.

1.3 Figure 1: The RAPID research-to-policy framework



1.3.1 Evidence

In order to understand how to strengthen the link between knowledge and policy in child rights, it is important to look at how different types of knowledge can contribute. The broader knowledge–policy interface literature initially focused on the role of *science* and *research* in informing policy in a rational way. Models then began to incorporate an understanding of the pragmatic and often opportunistic ways in which policymakers draw on different sources, with the nature of *evidence* (typically understood as facts or documentation to strengthen a claim or a set of conclusions) the central focus. Looking at *knowledge* more broadly – i.e. not only research-based evidence but also familiarity, awareness or understanding of a particular phenomenon based on experience or study – allows us to look at the source of the influences guiding policy and to investigate the political and epistemological dynamics in the production and use of such knowledge, while still including (but also reframing) the insights already gained into evidence and research.

Many types of information have a role to play in improving policy and practice with regard to child well-being, including scientific and social scientific research (from a single discipline or trans-disciplinary), project and programme knowledge, reflexive knowledge (i.e. reflections on practice), children's voices and impact assessments. Each has strengths and weaknesses, potential benefits and downsides. Additionally, each of these domains is influenced by historical and cultural circumstances.[2] The central question guiding this dimension of our framework is therefore:

What roles do different ***types of knowledge*** *(experiential, mono-disciplinary, trans-disciplinary) play in evidence-informed policy processes on child rights?*

1.3.2 Context

Political context has consistently been identified as the most influential factor determining the importance attached to evidence in policy spaces (Court et al., 2005; Nash et al., 2006). This comprises a range of factors, including: nature of the political system (e.g. authoritarian or democratic, roles of political ideology and religion), as well as level of democratic competition; strength of government leadership; relative strength of advocates – in this case advocates for child rights; incentive structures within policymaking organisations; capacities of both policymakers and institutions (e.g. social development ministries mandated to deal with child rights); and level of influence of external actors (e.g. donors and international institutions). Together, these factors shape who is able to participate in the policy process and on what terms, and how the process is structured.

In addition, the dynamics of participation in policy dialogues vary markedly across policy sectors. For instance, trade policy decisions are often taken behind closed doors, and are based on very specific technocratic and legal evidence (e.g. Newell and Tussie, 2006). Conversely, policy development in the education or public health sectors increasingly involves extensive consultation processes and draws on multiple sources of evidence, including experiential knowledge of beneficiaries such as parents and children. Surprisingly, these distinctions have received only limited attention in the evidence-based policy literature to date, even though understanding how knowledge–policymaking relationships vary according to the characteristics of a policy sector is critical for designing appropriate knowledge translation and uptake strategies (Jones and Pomares, forthcoming). In the case of child rights, which straddles multiple sectors, these challenges are magnified, but our contention is that more careful mapping of these dynamics could enhance the uptake of knowledge on child well-being and ultimately the realisation of child rights.

The second dimension of our framework is thus guided by two broad questions:

How do the characteristics of the knowledge–policy interface related to childhood well-being differ across ***policy contexts,*** *from developmental states to fragile states?*

To what extent do knowledge–policy–power dynamics differ across policy ***sectors,*** *from highly technical policy areas such as trade policy to more inclusive debates on primary education?*

1.3.3 Links

Knowledge and the power to utilise evidence to inform the policy process can pass through many hands. Accordingly, it is important to understand different policy actors' abilities to critically engage with new knowledge as well as the opportunities and challenges they face when bringing evidence to the table during policy discussions. In many developing countries, the range of actors linking knowledge and policy over the past 20 to 30 years has become increasingly diverse, and these actors are playing more fluid roles (Culpeper, 2008; Stone, 2008). Non-state actors (such as political parties, interest groups and the media), in both private and not-for-profit sectors (Ahmed, 2005; Stone, 2004),

---

2 Clearly, these are very complex dynamics, and it is beyond the scope of this paper to review all this material in depth merely to illustrate its potential influence.

are increasingly involved at regional and international levels in the context of globalisation, as well as at national and sub-national levels, as power and resources are decentralised (Scoones et al., 2006). A key question guiding this third dimension is therefore:

What role do different ***actors*** *(civil servants, legislators, think-tanks, academics, NGOs, civil society organisations (CSOs), donors) play in evidence-informed policy processes on child rights?*

Understanding how different actors behave at the knowledge–policy interface also involves consideration of the incentives and barriers to knowledge generation, translation and uptake. In the case of child rights, in some areas – especially protection and participation – data collection is itself a real challenge, especially because of the socio-cultural sensitivities involved. In others, there is already a substantial body of existing knowledge – e.g. nutrition and education – but often this is not easily accessible to decision makers (as we discuss in more depth in Section 4). For instance, considerable research exists on the effects of past economic crises on human development outcomes, but the practical value of these results may not be obvious to policymakers and practitioners deliberating over appropriate responses to the current crises. Hence, research may need to be 'translated' into a language and format that policymakers can readily grasp and apply. The Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) have referred to knowledge translation as 'a dynamic and iterative process that includes synthesis, dissemination, exchange and ethically sound application of knowledge'.[3] Knowledge translation thus goes beyond disseminating research and the isolated production of communication materials to critically engaging with users of knowledge in different ways and promoting better knowledge management and information sharing. It must also, however, be informed by a recognition that policy processes can at times be likened to 'a chaos of purposes and accidents. It is not at all a matter of rational implementation of the so-called decisions through selected strategies' (Clay and Schaffer, 1984). So, for instance, chance encounters with trusted sources and informants may take on a disproportionate role in shaping policy direction. Our analysis is therefore motivated by the following question:

What do we know about ***knowledge translation processes*** *(data collection, information sharing, knowledge management, policy advocacy) and can we identify good practice that could be adopted more broadly?*

1.4 Structure of this paper

Building on this framework, this paper begins by discussing the multiple types of knowledge that have shaped dialogues on child rights – both the various frameworks that have been used to conceptualise childhood and child rights and child-sensitive data collection initiatives and approaches. It then turns to an overview of the evolving global political context shaping the way child rights are addressed by the international development community. Here, we consider the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP) process, economic crisis and social protection, the new post-Paris aid environment as well as increasingly complex governance challenges. The fourth section discusses the links between researchers, policymakers and practitioners, focusing on both knowledge management and knowledge translation processes. The final section concludes, emphasising issues of contested power in knowledge generation as well as political context and the knowledge translation processes.

---

3 www.cihr-irsc.gc.ca/e/29418.html.

2. The knowledge–policy interface

This section starts with a brief discussion of professional and disciplinary knowledge about childhood, which illustrates how social/scientific perspectives, through lines of questioning determined by theory, reveal very variable insights. (Different disciplinary perspectives will be expanded on in Section 4 to illustrate and analyse their policy purchase.) This knowledge is both informed by and interpreted within historical and cultural settings, illustrating that knowledge about children depends on time and space as well as particular disciplinary perspectives, and emphasising the deep understandings that historical and cultural analysis brings to issues of childhood and child rights. The ways in which this social scientific knowledge interacted further with the evolution of child rights is then illustrated. Finally, we focus on commonly used contemporary data regarding child well-being to illustrate some of the challenges involved in this data collection. Data sources and data interpretation in a particular political context (the subject of Section 4), along with disciplinary approaches, play a major role in shaping policy outcomes.

2.1 Knowledge and professional understandings of childhood

Broadly speaking, for professionals, academic discipline partially informs conceptual thinking about childhood, with differing emphases and priorities accorded by psychologists, economists, lawyers, sociologists and so on.

Western interest in the field of child development began early in the 20th century with psychoanalytic and stage development (Freud, Erikson), cognitive (Piaget) and behavioural and social theorists (Bowlby, Watson, Skinner) beginning to develop increasingly sophisticated understandings of child development. By and large, human development was conceived as a function of age and children were seen as immature beings in a state of development, although some theorists identified children as pseudo-independent beings (for example Piaget).

This early developmental approach also considered children's welfare largely in relation to women as mothers (rather than in the social context of women's lives, gender inequalities, etc) (Mayall, 2000) which, while clearly important, neglects multiple other influences. The overall approach has been widely criticised for assuming the existence of universal characteristics, and indeed stages of development, that apply to all boys and girls. Nevertheless, stage theories extended considerable influence over understandings of child development and practice, and continue to do so,[4] with some notable exceptions.[5]

While certain aspects of childhood are indeed universal – indisputable needs, such as food, rest and sleep, as well as certain commonalities in cognitive development, such as acquisition of language – the notion of children developing in stages that occur universally in a fixed sequence is questionable (Boyden and Levison, 2000). Contemporary sociology of childhood is focused particularly on addressing the tension between the understanding of shared commonalities across age cohorts and the need to recognise that childhood is not merely a common and biological phase in the life course. It has also introduced a focus on the importance of children's own perspectives of their needs, competencies, abilities and potential free will, alongside recognition of their subordination to and control by adults (Mayall, 2000). This posed a challenge to the dominant body of knowledge, which conceived of children as largely incompetent, unreliable and unstable and still relied on ideas of children's innocence, as promulgated in the 18th century in Western notions of childhood (see Box 1 below).

---

4 Their impact on policy and practice are evident, especially in education, health care and social work. For example, mainstream schooling in most countries is structured according to age grades (Boyden and Levison, 2000) and relations between teachers, pupils, school curricula and age-based targets for achievement still rely on stage-based theories (Morrow, 2006).

5 Maria Montessori, for example, rejected age segregation in education. Montessori schools tend to have mixed age classes.

Scholars of the sociology of childhood from the 1980s have highlighted the emergence of a paradigm opposing predominant theories of development psychology, based on four key elements (James and Prout, 1990). First, childhood is conceptualised as a social construction used to contextualise the early years but with no natural or universal feature. Second, childhood is conceived of as a variable that cannot be separated from others, such as class, gender and ethnicity. Third, childhood and children are worth studying in their own right and are not dependent on adult perspectives. Finally, children are active actors in the construction of their social lives.

These new perspectives build on research analysing the effect of the social and cultural environment on children, notably by Lev Vygotsky, and recognise that this has a profound 'structuring' effect on childhood (Wood, 1998). As emphasised by Boyden (2003), the social construction of human experience is now widely accepted and is seen to greatly influence child development and behaviour.

Box 1: Economic analysis of childhood

Economic frameworks stand out for the extent to which children remain largely unrecognised (Boyden and Levison, 2000). Either represented as passive actors (human capital theory) or largely invisible (unitary model of household economics), children fail to receive recognition as economic agents with specific preferences (collective model of household economics and bargaining literature), or are placed within worlds that do not reflect their realities (child labour theories).[6] It is true that, in recognising how increasing skills and knowledge have future economic returns (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1974; Schultz, 1971), human capital theory has highlighted children since the 1950s as 'actors worth investing in'. But children are not recognised as active agents with the power to affect outcomes in the present, and are at best viewed as passive recipients of education and potential future workers with an income. Human capital theory essentially highlights the role of education in enabling escape from poverty (Bell and Gersbach, 2009) and children as the main drivers for achieving this.

Economic analysis of the household has been challenged for assuming the existence of one welfare function, reflecting the preferences of all members (unitary model). Implications for child well-being are evident in the assumption that the household is headed by a 'benevolent dictator', who not only ignores internal dynamics but also disregards the fact that children ultimately have preferences that they may want to express in decision-making processes. The weak theoretical foundations of the unitary model led economists to call for a shift towards collective approaches (non-cooperative and cooperative models), which conceive of households as 'small factories' of different individuals (Becker, 1981), motivated by both altruism and self-interest (Chiappori et al., 1993). Along these lines, bargaining literature has developed as a move away from the limits of household economics towards the recognition of the existence of internal negotiations between men and women. While this represents a turning point vis-à-vis children also, these models nonetheless leave child–parent negotiations in a black box (Boyden and Levison, 2000) and, most importantly, disregard child agency.

Lack of attention to children's realities is particularly evident in labour economics, which has shown little interest in children at work, owing to a Northern construction of childhood as a time of education and play and preparation for adult responsibilities, a time in which children are implicitly not considered part of the workforce (Boyden and Levison, 2000). As economics started to model child labour force participation, such dissonance with reality persisted, in failing to look at whether discouraging child work is in fact good for children and society at large, focusing instead on what it would take to discourage it.

The emphasis and lack of specificity regarding children can have significant implications. A focus on paid labour, for example, with little attention to what happens within a household, can lead to blanket assumptions about children and work. It is important to consider the possibility that children's work can be beneficial for their own development, as opposed to that of the household, and that household work can limit educational attainment more than labour force work (Levison, 2000). Moehling (1997, in Boyden and Levison, 2000), for instance, has suggested that the share of household income earned by children may enhance their role in family decision making, with working children in early 20th century urban America receiving a larger share of household resources than non-working children. Thus, economic theories that suggest that child labour perpetuates poverty by displacing schooling for children and, in turn, children's prospects of raising future earnings (Ravallion and Wodon, 2000; Ray, 2000) constitute a partial approach.

6 Often, branches of economics reflect these features simultaneously.

Social and cultural knowledge thus permeate understandings of childhood and exert important influences both on the framing of research-based evidence and on how policymakers filter and interpret research-based evidence. Are children born to play or to work? Is physical punishment allowable? When or should sex education be taught in schools? How should we deal with violent children? How do children recover from traumas? Policy responses are informed by individual experience, culture, history and social and scientific theory and evidence These influences cross national boundaries as policy 'solutions' are shared. This is well illustrated by Boyden (2003) in her account of war-affected children and resilience, where she describes the influence of Western psychological theories operating in a de-contextualised manner and resulting in inappropriate or unhelpful policy and practice decisions.

Box 2: The influence of 18th century notions of childhood

The extent to which culture is inevitably translated into policy can be seen when childhood is placed in historical and sociological perspective. In the 18th century, Jean-Jacques Rousseau took issue with the then contemporary idea that children were imperfect adults, leading to widely held perceptions of childhood as a distinct and innocent period of life – which has become a cherished notion of Western culture. In Rousseau's view, as he articulated in his account of the life of Emile (1762), childhood functions according to its own laws and developmental stages – ideas that have significantly influenced contemporary ideas on children and 'stages of development' (still reflected in psychology and education). William Blake, the writer and poet, further encapsulated this by juxtaposing the innocent, pastoral world of childhood against an adult world of corruption and repression.[7] Similar perceptions were depicted in Western visual art of the time. It is argued that these ideas remain deeply rooted in the Western national consciousness, coming into conflict with the reality of children as active and sometimes violent and unpredictable beings.[8]

Western societies, as with most cultures worldwide, also have deeply held notions of gender-appropriate roles. An early example of this is revealed in Britain in the 18th century in Rousseau's description of Emile's future wife and her 'naturally' lower place in society, perceptions that continue to run deep in many Western societies.[9] In this vein, according to Cohen (2004), English society has since the 17th century portrayed girls' superior educational achievement as a phenomenon to be addressed. Concern about 'underachieving boys' still informs today's educational policy and is apparent in the discussion of reduced standards in examinations and girls' consequent relative achievements. Girls' achievement has thus been an engine for change because it has always been seen as a problem requiring changes in the examination or educational system.

Incorporating cultural and historical perspectives into contemporary understandings of childhood well-being can help lead not only to appropriate policy but also to a broader understanding of underlying and hidden factors affecting policy. Szreter (2007), for example, challenges the narrow argument that birth registration in developing countries is a luxury. He argues that, in early industrialising Britain, a comprehensive registration system and a social security system were important and that, while birth registration is clearly a human rights priority, it can also be strongly linked to broad-based liberal market development. Other such historical studies in the UK address a range of topics: from enforcement of paternal responsibility vis-à-vis illegitimate children (Nutt, 2006), support for lone parenthood (Evans, 2006) and work–life balance within the family (Cook, 2003; Thane, 2002); to issues of the broader living environment of the child, which include juvenile justice systems (Wills, 2007); to studies focusing on educational matters, such as school absenteeism (Sheldon, 2009) and

---

7 In *Songs of Innocence and Experience* (1794).
8 When children are revealed as violent, as in the UK in 1993 with the murder of two-year-old James Bulger by two boys aged 10 and 11, the notion of the ideal innocent child is destroyed and society's response appears inadequate and unprepared. The courts were criticised for failing to know how to treat these children in an age-appropriate way.
9 This brief description of female education sparked an immense contemporary response. Mary Wollstonecraft, for example, dedicated a substantial portion of her chapter 'Animadversions on Some of the Writers who have Rendered Women Objects of Pity, Bordering on Contempt' in *A Vindication of the Rights of Women* (1792) to attacking Rousseau and his arguments.

boys' underachievement (Cohen, 2004) – all of which are shown to have policy-relevant historically informed pathways.

However, cultural and historical trajectories, while illuminating with regard to local contexts, are not a justification for practices. Early marriage, denial of education to girls and female genital mutilation all articulate powerful perceptions of childhood and also demonstrate that informing and overlaying more general societal understandings are religious and moral codes, often called upon to justify or explain so-called 'cultural practices'.

Thus, how disciplines, societies and individuals interpret childhood is clearly hugely variable and subject to a deep and complex knowledge base. As professionals, scientific objectivity and rigorous method allow us to partially overcome stereotypical observations and interpretation; however, our own professional training and culture lend bias and, as anthropological discourse on reflexivity has uncovered, our personal experience is undeniable. Stepping outside of our deep and implicitly shared understandings onto a new cultural and disciplinary terrain is necessary on the path towards innovative and relevant policymaking. Interdisciplinary research that challenges us all to reconsider the boundaries of our intellectual questioning opens up new possibilities for inventive policy. How, then, are we to make sense not only of our understandings of childhood but also of what common aspirations we pursue, and thus what relevant policy we, as a development community, seek? Placing our own professional discourse in historical context alongside that of the evolution of the UNCRC allows us to understand better the evolving perceptions of the child.

2.2 The evolution of child rights

Child rights frameworks have clearly evolved, encompassing new dimensions in response to a slowly changing policy environment and knowledge base regarding children's well-being, as described above. Different understandings of childhood are reflected in critiques on the UNCRC which, to an extent, also acts as a lens on the array of thought processes regarding childhood and their change over time.

It is unsurprising that in its early years the idea of child rights focused on protection and 'relief', since this reflected the welfare perspectives common in the early 20th century. At this time, movements to protect children in different settings had gained limited momentum and the human rights regime was overarching rather than focused on differentiated responses (Alston and Tobin, 2005). The notion of children as rights-bearers emerged in response to the vulnerability of children so starkly observed following World War II. Eglentyne Jebb, Founder of Save the Children, drafted a Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1923, which was adopted by the League of Nations in 1924.

In historical perspective, this was an important turning point. At the time, the Declaration, and the international legal instruments that followed, tended to focus on children's entitlement to emergency assistance and protection rather than civil and political rights and empowerment: satisfying needs (Art. 2), prioritising relief in times of distress (Art. 3) and protecting against exploitation (Art. 4). The four Geneva Conventions on International Humanitarian Law (1949) also included children as a specific category of protected persons, emphasising linkages of child rights to mothers and women. International organisations gradually started getting involved, maintaining throughout the first half of the century and beyond what has been defined as a welfarist approach to children (Alston and Tobin, 2005).

The Cold War period has largely been seen as a period of stagnation in international efforts in human rights, including the rights of the child, although some changes were made during this period. At a legislative level, while the texts of the major international human rights instruments of the time, the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the two International Human Rights Covenants, barely mentioned the term 'children's rights' (Alston and Tobin, 2005), the UN General Assembly adopted a new version of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1959, with additional points on entitlement to a name and nationality from birth (Art. 3) and to a caring living environment (Art. 6). It took another

10 years before the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights entered into force, ratified by 35 states. Importantly, however, women's rights in particular gained some momentum, and were the focus of a number of forums, such as the 1975 World Conference on International Women's Year in Mexico, the 1980 World Conference on the UN Decade for Women in Copenhagen, which saw states sign the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), adopted the previous year by the General Assembly) and the 1985 World Conference in Nairobi.

The end of the Cold War marked what has been defined as the 'new human rights movement' (Alston, 1987), with the recognition of a range of new rights, such as the rights to development, to a clean environment and to humanitarian assistance. Some have argued that this began to correct what has been seen as an individualistic bias in human rights, with a move to consider a range of new needs, including those of developing countries. Indeed, Buergenthal (1997) argues that, with the fall of the Berlin Wall, human rights were liberated from ideological conflicts, and what had been until then a dichotomy between civil-political rights and economic-social-cultural rights ended. Others have claimed it made human rights synonymous with state rights and collective rights and was thus pushing an anti-Western agenda with its attempts to counterbalance the individualistic bias of former rights discussions (ibid).

Nevertheless, the 1993 Vienna Declaration reflected contemporary political changes by recognising the legitimacy of promoting and protecting 'all' human rights (Para. 4) and declaring their universal character (Para. 5). Cultural relativism, which had justified violations of human rights by reference to religion and culture, was rejected. By highlighting the interdependence of democracy, development and respect for human rights (Para. 8), Buergenthal (1997) suggests that the Declaration also abandoned the Cold War's 'legal and political fiction' that all governments, including non-democratic ones, could protect human rights. This remains a partial view of non-democratic society, whose achievement in some areas of human rights could be seen to outperform that of some democratic societies, for example the commitment of some communist countries to gender equality in the workplace, and attention to child development and survival, including maternal health.

The UNCRC signalled the beginning of a new stage, in which international standards to promote children's rights had to be translated into domestic law (Lansdown, 2005) and the child was recognised as a rights-holder independently as well as in relation to the family. In particular, for the first time, an international treaty recognised that the child had the right to participate in all matters affecting him or her (Art. 12) and asserted that direction and guidance provided by parents or others with responsibility for the child must take into account the capacities of the child to exercise rights on his or her own behalf (Art. 5) (ibid).

Analysts from a sociological and anthropological perspective (broadly speaking) were initially opposed to the universal prescriptions as outlined in the UNCRC. At the same time, they argued that, through international rights legislation, and specifically the UNCRC, a European conception of childhood based on the values of a white, urban middle class had been exported to the South (Boyden, in James and Prout, 1990). The UNCRC was felt to be responsible for reflecting Western constructs of the child as still an immature being in need of protection (Jefferess, 2002), and for making children's daily activities, including contributing towards household economies, seem dysfunctional, as opposed to being survival mechanisms (Mayall, 2000; Boyden, in James and Prout, 1990). Western provisions for 'normal' childhoods – including survival, schooling and anti-labour legislation – it was argued, could be promoted in the guise of science, ignoring the plurality of pathways to maturity, the relativity of children's 'needs' (Woodhead, in James and Prout, 1990) and the linkage of rights and cultural values. It was held that ignoring 'markers of social difference' between children along the lines of gender, ethnicity and religion (Morrow, 2006) (which created particular discomfort among delegates from the South at the time of the consultations involved in drafting the Convention) would contribute to the globalisation of the concept of childhood based on Western constructs. Indeed, the particularisation of child rights issues, isolated from class, race and gender, was conceived of by some as a way of

avoiding direct engagement with the political and economic realities of the emerging global economy (Fernando, 2001).

Clearly, these critiques have many points of validity. Interpretations of children's rights – for example, the right not to work, or indeed the right to work – have been the subject of many debates on national and international labour policy and practice. However, such concerns may have been overly alarmist, and are also in danger of failing to tackle discriminatory attitudes under the guise of respect for 'cultural norms or differences'.

A contrasting interpretation of the UNCRC argued that it was actually groundbreaking in the extent that it challenged the assumptions of conventional child development theory based on the universality of child development, the normative status of adulthood and the idea that childhood is an extended period of dependence (Lansdown, 2005). Through the Convention, children would become subjects that acquire different competencies according to the environment and culture they are raised in (as opposed to specific ages), parental rights and responsibilities would not be unbounded and children would have rights within the family.

These two remarkably different views place their emphasis on different aspects of the Convention. The former focuses on the Convention's aim of universal ratification and raises issues such as a universally defined age for childhood as under 18, thereby referring to a universal, immature child who is on a particular developmental trajectory and in need of protection. The second perceives space for difference within the detailed articles. In this regard, the rights-based framework, promoted through the UNCRC and its three 'Ps' (protection, provision and participation), can be seen to move away partly from this risk of 'essentialising' childhood (Morrow, 2006) by highlighting the concept of the evolving capacities of the child (Art. 5) and the right to participation (Art. 12), and also arguing that recognising rights to participate may reflect the beginning of an altered construction of childhood.

It has been argued that the children's rights discourse is unable to address the issue of power relations affecting children, with the danger of ending up further marginalising the real needs of children (Fernando, 2001). This may be partially valid, but the rights-framed approach derived from the UNCRC often promotes the views of the child as a subject both in need of protection (Art. 32) and with the right to express views and participate, thus including (among a wide range of areas) birth registration policies, anti-child labour legislation and national development plans 'informed' by children views.

Critiques based in cultural relativism now do generally support the idea of human rights. An important milestone was passed in 1999 when the American Anthropological Association gave its backing to the Universal Declaration on Human Rights by acknowledging it and the associated implementing international legislation as a baseline:

> 'People and groups have a generic right to realize their capacity for culture, and to produce, reproduce and change the conditions and forms of their physical, personal and social existence, so long as such activities do not diminish the same capacities of others. Anthropology as an academic discipline studies the bases and the forms of human diversity and unity; anthropology as a practice seeks to apply this knowledge to the solution of human problems. As a professional organisation of anthropologists, the AAA has long been, and should continue to be, concerned whenever human difference is made the basis for a denial of basic human rights, where "human" is understood in its full range of cultural, social, linguistic, psychological, and biological senses.'

Following from this, it becomes clear that 'difference' is seen to coexist alongside universal human rights, and sociological understandings of different childhoods retain their validity without necessarily denying the importance of children's rights. The healthy debate on culture, universality and rights is far from over, but undoubtedly the framework for the debate has changed.

3. Political and macro policy contexts

Political context has consistently been identified as the most influential factor in determining the importance attached to evidence in policy spaces (Court et al., 2005) (see Section 1). Participation in policy dialogues varies across sectors. In some, decisions are very much behind closed doors; in others, such as education or natural resource management, more open dialogues take place. Understanding how the relationship between knowledge and policymaking varies according to the sector is critical for designing appropriate knowledge translation and uptake strategies.

ODI has recently developed an analytical framework to understand these specificities (Jones and Pomares, forthcoming). Key variables include: level of technical expertise required to participate in policy debates; level of contestation in the sector; and extent to which policy discourses are internationalised. These factors are in turn shaped by broader political context factors, such as the extent to which knowledge producers can effectively communicate their work and the pivotal role of advocates or champions for specific causes. Our discussion here focuses on dialogue at a macro policy level to analyse the extent to which children are considered by actors involved in macro policy decisions and the way in which the knowledge–policy interface operates in particular policy contexts.

3.1 Children and macro policy contexts[10]

As Section 2 reveals, the very existence of the UNCRC and its evolution is interdependent with progress in understandings of and knowledge about poverty and child development, both separately and together. Nevertheless, the extent to which mainstream aid and development policies incorporate understandings of childhood remains minimal, outside of development policy on vitally important health and education needs, among other child-focused and sector-specific areas. It is clear that progress is not automatic or inevitable, even with economic growth, good governance and state recognition of the importance of improving child well-being. Slow progress on the MDGs indicates that progress towards child rights requires a more concerted approach, and one that moves the interests of children beyond sector-specific approaches, important as they are, into mainstream aid and development agendas. Drawing lessons from the relative success of gender mainstreaming (explored further below), it is necessary to look beyond a focus on human capital development and actively extend the reach of dominant development debates to include children's multidimensional rights, including rights to care, protection and participation.

Mainstreaming requires not only a child-sensitive lens, to elicit possible effects or consequences of macro-level policies, but also demonstrable causation, linking children to the macro-level issue under discussion, and a policy response suggesting possible changes and adaptations. Because children's poverty is above all multidimensional, dynamic over the lifecourse, dependent on relationships and subject to a particular depth of voicelessness, exceptional clarity is needed in making such links apparent, thereby addressing the particular characteristics of childhood deprivation.

We consider four policy 'contexts' that are potentially instrumental in advancing children's rights, all part of a changing macro policy environment, in order to better understand the knowledge policy links in these domains: the uptake of child well-being in PRSPs; the effect of the current economic crisis on children and social protection policy responses; the broader aid environment and consideration of child well-being; and governance challenges in relation to the UNCRC in fragile states.

3.2 Children in PRSPs

In response to growing disillusionment with structural adjustment and aid conditionalities, prioritisation of country ownership and more effective aid coordination rose rapidly up the policy agenda in the late 1990s. PRSPs emerged as the key policy instrument, with a strong emphasis on

10 Some material from this section is drawn from Harper and Jones (2009a).

partnership between governments and other actors, participation and results-oriented approaches. In light of the importance of this, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child in 2003 called for children to be mainstreamed into the process (General Comment 5).

Overall, however, evaluations suggest that, although child-related policies such as basic child health and education are well addressed, comprehensive child rights approaches receive low visibility (e.g. Minujin et al., 2006). Consideration of the specificity of children's experiences of poverty, and the way these evolve over the course of childhood, are seldom included in situational analyses and, besides MDG-related indicators, are generally not reflected in monitoring and evaluation (M&E) progress targets to which governments are held to account (Harper and Jones, 2009b).

A number of initiatives have involved children and youth in consultation processes so that PRSPs can better reflect children's concerns and priorities. For instance, a UN Children's Fund- (UNICEF-) supported initiative in Liberia led to greater attention in the 2007 PRSP to girls' personal safety. In El Salvador, grassroots consultations with young people led to greater attention to domestic violence as part of a multidimensional approach to poverty reduction (ADAP, 2009). Generally, however, despite opening up new spaces for child-focused policy advocacy, such initiatives have tended to be small in scale, with limited ultimate influence on policy content (O'Malley, 2004).

It would appear that far more coordinated action from national governments, child rights advocates and donors is urgently needed. There is now compelling evidence not only that childhood poverty affects a higher proportion of children than adults and is potentially more damaging, but also that it is analytically distinct, especially because of the ways children's capacities and multidimensional needs evolve over the course of childhood (Jones and Sumner, 2007). This knowledge base needs to be reflected in national poverty situational assessments as well as translated into measurable and actionable targets and indicators, so that accountability mechanisms can be strengthened. For this, capacity-strengthening support for typically resource- and capacity-constrained social welfare ministries and children's agencies is urgently required. Similarly, to promote more meaningful consultation processes with children and young people, greater thought is needed as to how child and youth facilitators can more effectively translate children's and young people's insights into mainstream policy dialogues, and triangulate participatory knowledge with more conventional and often more 'acceptable' research-based knowledge (e.g. Pham and Jones, 2005; Theis, 1996). Additionally, accessible child-sensitive budgeting tools have been developed (although uptake has been much more limited than that of broader pro-poor and gender budgeting tools (Vasquez, 2004)) and could usefully be integrated into broader PRSP M&E efforts.

Overall, despite several years of advocacy by concerned groups, uptake of children's issues in poverty planning has been slow. Nevertheless, knowledge- and action-based initiatives can be undertaken to promote children's visibility in this domain (see excellent discussion in Beazley et al., 2009). Children's enhanced visibility in poverty planning, a multidimensional appreciation of children's needs and well-being outcomes that also consider influences on the child from the macro to micro levels would enhance child well-being.

3.3 Economic crisis and social protection

Proven impacts of crises on children include increases in child malnutrition, mortality and morbidity, child labour, youth unemployment, child exploitation and violence and other forms of abuse, alongside falling school attendance, reduced use of health services and a decline in the overall quality of education, care, nurture and emotional well-being (Harper et al., 2009a). With clear signs that the current global financial crisis will be no different, this could jeopardise the future capabilities of children from poor households to rise above the poverty level, contributing to a lifetime of poverty and potentially its intergenerational transmission (Harper et al., 2003).

These effects are a direct result of declining investments in public services, reduced household incomes and purchasing power, increased parental unemployment and migration effects, related increases in domestic tensions and violence, considerably increased workloads for parents, especially women, and related reduced capacity for nurture, care and protection. With significantly higher estimates of numbers of people in poverty than might have been expected and, relatedly, 30,000 to 50,000 additional infant deaths in sub-Saharan Africa in 2009 alone (Friedman and Schady, 2009), could policy approaches respond with more of a child focus and effectively mainstream children's concerns?

There is sufficient evidence (Harper et al., 2009a) that responses to financial shocks can be nuanced towards more child-sensitive outcomes, through recognition of the effects of crisis on children, through considerably more timely and systematic age- and gender-disaggregated data collection and crisis monitoring initiatives and through more strategic uses of aid. Hossain et al. (2009), for instance, have included children's experiences as part of their qualitative social impact assessment of the global crisis, highlighting children's vulnerability to sexual exploitation, nutritional deprivation and exposure to familial tensions, for instance.

More nuanced crisis responses would also include a better understanding of the potential space for civil society to shape policy dialogues and hold governments accountable for crisis management efforts. The fostering of synergies between formal social protection approaches and existing informal mechanisms, which often come under strain during crises, is especially critical, including specific attention to the gendered effects of unemployment and underemployment and related measures to address women's time poverty and support women's greater responsibility for care and domestic work. This could include: subsidised child care services; services focused on countering rising rates of mental ill-health and drug and substance abuse; and countercyclical policy choices, protecting investments in basic and social services and allowing for more timely scaling-up of targeted social protection interventions for the most vulnerable. Such responses, although fragmentary, have proven to be effective in protecting children in past crises (e.g. Jones and Marsden, 2009; Marcus, 2009). However, , as discussed in more depth below, they remain poorly understood in policy circles because of poor knowledge management systems and a relative dearth of knowledge intermediaries to effectively translate research messages into actionable policy and programmatic interventions.

Social protection is increasingly seen as an important component of poverty reduction strategies and efforts to reduce vulnerability to shocks and stresses. Children can be direct targets – child protection is increasingly seen as an important component of poverty reduction strategies and efforts to r or benefit indirectly through measures that increase household income and consumption capacities and potentially reduce demand for child labour. However, commitment levels to social protection vary. A number of developing countries have mainstreamed social protection, including child-focused measures, into their national development plans, and some have developed specific national social protection plans (Ghana, Senegal). Yet, while a limited number of middle-income countries have been able to scale up child-focused programmes significantly (e.g. Brazil's Bolsa Familia and South Africa's Child Grant), for others the small scale and ad hoc nature of existing programmes is a key constraint to addressing the depth and severity of poverty and vulnerability. Moreover, especially in low-income sub-Saharan Africa, social protection institutions and policies are scarce, and developing coordinated and effective national systems requires that they be established anew (Holmes and Braunholtz-Speight, 2009).

Equally importantly, relatively little attention has been paid to children's multidimensional experiences of poverty and vulnerability, and how this can best be reflected in social protection policies and programmes (Jones, 2009). Children's vulnerabilities are not exclusively economic in nature, and often intersect with socio-cultural factors, including gender and intra-household relations, social exclusion and legal and cultural power imbalances (Holmes and Braunholtz-Speight, 2009). Indeed, recent evidence suggests that protection-related vulnerabilities represent some of the most pressing challenges facing children globally (UN, 2006a). But existing child protection systems are weak,

fragmented and under-resourced, both financially and in terms of human capital, in much of the developing world. In order to address child-specific vulnerabilities holistically, important potential synergies between social protection and child protection systems are beginning to be recognised (Jones, 2009), but much more needs to be done to mainstream these initiatives effectively. An understanding of social protection as potentially 'transformative' allows for complementarities between social equity measures such as legislative frameworks that seek to address children's right to protection and social protection policy frameworks. It also provides important entry points for fostering synergies between existing programmes (e.g. cash transfers, social health insurance schemes and public works programmes) and social welfare services (child care services, family violence counselling and shelters, education programmes for out-of-school children) (ibid). Context-appropriate mainstreaming responses will require concerted investments in awareness raising and capacity strengthening for programme designers and implementers, and efforts to improve coordination and data collection efforts across multiple sectors, from social development to health, justice and migration.

3.4 Aid effectiveness

There is an implicit assumption that funding to realise children's rights in developing countries (primarily low-income countries) flows naturally through aid systems, not least because of the increasingly coordinated focus around poverty reduction and the MDGs, and that correcting any flaws in the system itself will result, automatically, in improved child well-being. The 2005 Paris Declaration was a much-needed landmark agreement on improving aid quality. However, the shift towards sector and direct budget support has affected the realisation of children's rights (Harper and Jones, 2009b): the Paris agenda affects the content of aid, as well as the modality. New and linked processes for aid delivery demand new and linked negotiations among donors and among groups of donors and government, in forums where specific issues, such as child well-being, may fall off the agenda through lack of common agreement and support or because they are not seen as sufficiently 'upstream' and strategic. Viewed as a 'crosscutting' or, more frequently, 'special interest' issue, children's rights can suffer from the problems of policy evaporation that have plagued attempts to mainstream other human rights issues.

There is relatively high visibility of child rights in donor cooperation (it is generally a 'good news issue', especially with the electorate), but there is little strategic consideration of children within core donor strategies, and only modest attention in M&E or records of investment (Harper and Jones, 2009c). Jones and Young (2007), in a review of international research donors, found, for instance, that rights and social justice issues, including the rights of children and young people, primarily were included in the research strategies of smaller donors. It is also telling that those working on child rights portfolios feel marginalised and that linkages and networks with other governmental, non-governmental and multilateral agencies are reported to be quite limited. Moreover, while specific aspects of child rights (especially education and health) are integrated into research and knowledge management, sometimes with significant funding, there is little or no overall child rights strategy behind this.

It is clear that, to achieve children's rights, donors need to step up their own capacities to prevent a decline in the amount of attention children receive in the new international aid architecture. Currently, there is no cross-donor working group on child rights, in contrast with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Assistance Committee's (DAC's) GENDERNET model. The very limited understanding of child vulnerabilities and child rights, in particular participation and protection, is evidenced by the lack of discussion on core policy documents, the lack of child rights strategies or senior management interest in such issues and the very thin staffing accorded child rights.

What these examples illustrate is the ways in which actors at the macro policy table engage with issues of childhood and the importance of knowledge about children in terms of informing decisions. There is good knowledge of how children should be incorporated into poverty planning or responses to

economic crises; nevertheless, difficulties remain in framing and communicating this knowledge and ensuring it is taken seriously. Important players in these policy discussions have not assimilated the wealth of knowledge that exists on childhood well-being to better enable its uptake in developing country contexts. As Section 3.5 illustrates in relation to fragile states, where aid is particularly important, issues of child well-being need to be articulated at the macro policy table, to address these countries' attempts to fulfil their commitments under the UNCRC. And as Section 4 illustrates, making more of the skill sets and insights of the range of actors involved in the knowledge–policy process is critical to addressing child rights.

3.5 Fragile states and the UNCRC

The almost universal ratification of the UNCRC (currently 194 countries, with the exception of the US), and even the large number of countries that are party to CEDAW (over 90% of members of the UN), do not constitute evidence of countries' progress on child rights. Human rights regimes are generally weak in providing for enforcement mechanisms, and studies focused on the relationship between treaty ratifications and human rights ratings are suggestive of frequent negative correlation between the two (Hathaway, 2002). On the one hand, a treaty can modify nations' practices; on the other, it can be seen to reward positions rather than effects (ibid). In contexts of low monitoring and enforcement efforts, and high external pressure to conform to international treaties, treaty ratification can become a costless means of offsetting pressure to undertake real changes in policies, or even a shield for repressive behaviours (Hafner-Burton and Tsutsui, 2005). Given the possibility that human rights treaties represent 'window dressing', as opposed to a serious commitment to implementation, the current UN policy of promoting universal ratification has been questioned by some, and initiatives for making ratifying benefits less easily obtainable are encouraged. Demonstrating compliance before becoming a signatory to a human rights treaty could be considered a step forward here.

However, the risks entailed in increasing the costs of joining a treaty cannot be disregarded, as some nations may consequently choose to opt out. Moreover, although treaty ratifications have been portrayed as a 'paradox of empty promises' (Hafner-Burton and Tsutsui, 2005), it is undeniable that related activities surrounding human rights legislation have an important 'informational effect', communicating the legitimacy of human rights across international society at large (ibid). In this vein, it seems that international frameworks should be recognised for their specific capacity to create and nurture a network of relevant actors and advocates who can enable change over the long term. The Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing 1995), for instance, initiated a process with civil society that continued through the review and appraisal sessions of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action in 2000 (Beijing +5) and 2005 (Beijing +10).

Table 3 (in Appendix 2) analyses selected Concluding Observations of the Committee on the Rights of the Child, consolidating the common areas of concern identified by the Committee across the countries in our sample, including for fragile states (as per the International Development Association (IDA) definition), released by the Committee across 2008-2009. State parties analysed are Chad, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Djibouti, Eritrea, Mauritania and Niger.[11] What the analysis reveals is the enormous challenges facing fragile states in relation to ratifying the UNCRC: lack of human and financial resources, poor coordination, lack of appropriate child governance bodies, lack of comprehensive national plans, little independent monitoring, lack of targeted resources for children, absence of efficient data collection systems, limited cooperation with civil society, limited evidence of child-centred policy, lack of adequate birth registration, poor basic health services and education, involvement in armed conflict, a failure to protect children against violations, armed conflict, sexual exploitation and wanting juvenile justice systems. Faced with such enormous challenges, it is clear that full ratification of the UNCRC is a long-term objective, intimately linked not only to the issues discussed above regarding different perceptions of childhood and children's rights, but also to aid and

11 A full list of Concluding Observations released to date is at: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/sessions.htm.

development policy more broadly, and the incorporation of children's issues at the macro policy level. In order to promote progress in these areas, enhancing the generation of a rigorous evidence base, and ensuring that this is widely accessible to actors at the interface between knowledge, policy formulation and implementation, is clearly a critical tool worthy of more systematic investment and monitoring.

4. Links between knowledge and policy processes relevant to child rights

Having surveyed trends in the evolution of knowledge generated about children and children's rights, we now turn to discuss how this knowledge is utilised in policy processes. Accordingly, this section focuses on knowledge management and the ideas, actors and processes involved in translating knowledge into policy-resonant messages. The discussion is informed by a comparative perspective, looking at efforts to mainstream gender in order to highlight strengths and weaknesses of child rights-related efforts to date.

4.1 Knowledge management

Broadly defined, knowledge management refers to efforts to capture and share both tacit and codified forms of knowledge so that it is accessible to end-users.

> 'Raw information may be widely available to a number of agencies, but only some organisations will be able to convert the information into relevant knowledge and to use this knowledge to achieve their aims. The processes by which they do this are known as Knowledge Management strategies' (Hovland, 2003).

Approaches to knowledge management tend to vary, from the systematic to the ad hoc, and while we would hypothesise that more systematic approaches are likely to lead to the development of better policies and programmes, there has been limited empirical exploration in this area. In particular, determination and measurement of 'impact' in terms of knowledge production and use are largely limited or incoherent (Ferguson et al., 2008). Nonetheless, we focus our discussion on networks, institutions and databases established to promote better information and knowledge sharing on child rights, and provide a brief overview of their relative strengths and weaknesses in terms of knowledge management. We also briefly discuss the knowledge management approaches of a select number of major international NGOs.

4.1.1 Child Rights Information Network

One of the leading global information networks for children's rights is the Child Rights Information Network (CRIN). Established in 1995, it currently provides publications, research and information to over 2100 organisations across 150 countries. Its aims are to support the implementation of the UNCRC, address the information needs of those working for child rights and support the development of information systems and information exchange. The network also facilitates coordination between governments, activists, NGOs and UN agencies on child rights issues and provides additional support where necessary to encourage effective advocacy. CRIN is supported by UNICEF, Save the Children Sweden, Save the Children UK and the International Save the Children Alliance. The majority of its members are NGOs and in the South (Khan, 2001).

To get a grasp of the relative depth and breadth of information currently available on child-related issues, as well as any patterns existing, we carried out a simple mapping exercise on the basis of a sample of CRIN publications, according to the following criteria: 1) 2008-2009 publications; 2) English-language sources; 3) 'any publication type' (excluding websites); and 4) relevance to the following four UNCRC themes: survival, development, views of the child and protection.[12] A fifth theme, HIV/AIDS, was

---

12 Survival: Children and health; Development: Children and education and Education; Child views: Children and participation; Protection: Child labour and working children, Sexual exploitation of children, Children and violence, Children in conflict with the law, Discrimination, Armed conflict; HIV/AIDS: Children living with HIV/AIDS and HIV/AIDS. A further selection was made to exclude from the outcome of the search general publications that hindered the possibility of identifying common patterns of issues (e.g. resources with lack of focus on a specific theme).

added in conformity with UNICEF's organisational categorisation of five focus areas (UNICEF, 2009a).[13] For each of the five themes, the resources were then classified according to a number of more specific issues. The results of the mapping exercise have been consolidated into graphic form and are shown in Figures 2 to 13 (Appendix 2). Given the wide range of topics and themes encompassed, and the even greater number of resources published on the CRIN website, the aim is far from that of informing scientifically, but rather offering food for thought on the relative strengths and gaps in this field.

Overall, a large proportion of publications lies in the field of 'Protection' (56%).[14] 'Development' represents 19%, followed by 'Survival' (14%) and 'HIV/AIDS' and 'Voices of children', which together account for approximately 11% of the total.

Protection encompasses issues of child labour, followed by sexual abuse, discrimination, corporal punishment, juvenile justice and trafficking. A number of resources have a gender focus, especially those related to sexual abuse and violence in schools. Most resources focus on Europe, the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region (especially the Occupied Palestinian Territories (OPT)) and Asia.

Development publications focus on education, with most addressing the issue of ethnic minorities in schools. A large number cover education in emergencies, right to education and sexuality education (including HIV/AIDS preventive education). A few present a gender focus (specifically vis-à-vis violence in schools). There is almost equal coverage of Africa, Asia and the MENA region, with Latin America and Oceania in the minority. The majority of information has a general focus.

Survival encompasses resources on children and health. There is a surprising dearth of resources focused on water and sanitation.[15] The majority of resources cover a scattered range of topics (ranging across UNICEF's State of Children's Health reports, child-focused situation analyses and surveys). There is nonetheless a noticeable trend of publications focused on child health in emergencies, food security and malnutrition, child mortality and maternal/neonatal health. Most publications are not focused on a specific country or region, although MENA and Africa are the most covered in our sample.

HIV/AIDS contains an equal share of publications focused on access to treatment for HIV/AIDS and global reports. Slightly fewer in number, but more specific, are the remaining resources, which include analyses of approaches to address the epidemic, children who are forced to look after HIV/AIDS-affected household members, sexuality education/information in schools and child views on services and education. Most resources focus on Africa, although almost half are not country focused.

Child views is the least represented category, although major coverage of juvenile justice issues is noticeable and, to a lesser extent, training guides to enhance child participation. There is an equal (and low) share of publications across Europe, Africa and Asia, with a large portion of general resources (i.e. lacking country focus).

4.1.2 Electronic Development and Environment Information System

The Electronic Development and Environment Information System (Eldis) is a service coordinated by the University of Sussex (UK), focused primarily on free of charge, point of service maintenance and delivery of evidence-based knowledge. The service also includes facilities providing country profile, jobs and announcements – the latter including funding and training opportunities. It divides its resources section between guides and broader entry-level dossiers, thereby covering specific research and policy issues, as well as introductions and contextual background with recommended reading. With core funding from the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), the

---

13 Young child survival and development (nutrition, health, water and sanitation); Basic education and gender equality; HIV/AIDS and children; Child protection from violence, exploitation and abuse; and Policy advocacy and partnerships for children's rights.
14 Corresponding to a total of 145 publications.
15 CRIN provides no such theme to search from ex ante.

Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (Norad), the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) and the UK Department for International Development (DFID), and a consistent commitment to 'evidence-based' approaches, there are no particular statements of intention relating to specific medium- or long-term goals, or embeddedness in universal conventions or principles.

Of the 35 general categories, ranging from aid and agriculture through to participation and trade policy, children feature twice: first under the category of 'children and young people' and second under 'trafficking of women and children'. Within each of these categories, there are crosscutting links providing further access to a range of child-related issues and sector-specific guides. With an overall stock of 1800 editorially selected papers specifically on children and youth, Eldis provides a valuable tool to access well-constructed research – both formal and of the informal 'grey' variety.

On the other hand, without a specific section focusing on policy processes and implementation, the Eldis site does not provide a dedicated space for the research or discussion of the particular dynamics at play in child-centred policy processes. Although this may be understandable given the vanguard nature of knowledge and policy research linkages, this remains a notable gap in a policy area that has idiosyncratic characteristics – such as multidimensionality, an established convention (UNCRC) and M&E constraints.

4.1.3 DevInfo

DevInfo is an innovative initiative in terms of providing knowledge management services for child-related information. The UN system at national and global levels is responsible for supporting national efforts to monitor the MDGs and other national priorities. A number of approaches and software tools have been established to help improve data collection, analysis and application for evidence-based policy development. Among these, DevInfo was endorsed by the UN in 2002 under the auspices of UNICEF.

This is a free and downloadable system that allows users to organise, store and display data in a uniform format. It allows for querying and production of a number of 'presentation objects', including tables, maps and graphs, with the long-term vision of setting universal standards for data storage, access and dissemination. DevInfo is thus claimed to be a powerful advocacy tool, allowing national entities to use what should ultimately become an integrated and shared database across government departments and UN agencies.

DevInfo is a database of human development indicators and provides a number of advantages over previous meta-data packages: data transfer is harmonised and more efficiently transferable; maintenance is decentralised and duplication reduced, lowering administrative costs significantly; data have a quality standard and will be available on a more timely and consistent basis; the motor of data development is shifted from 'push' to 'pull'; and a range of information system platforms can support the datasets (Rossel-Cambier et al., 2007).

The number of countries using DevInfo increased from one (India) in 1999 to 134 in 2009. Of these, 36% are in the African region, 21% in Asia, 13% in Europe, 24% in the Americas, 9% in the Middle East and 2% in Oceania. In 2009, 285 adaptations of DevInfo took place, although these have been limited in scope, mainly the inclusion of specific socioeconomic indicators or customising the name of the system, images, graphics, logos and the colour scheme. Adaptations can also comprise the inclusion of a number of indicators for monitoring specific issues: UNICEF, for example, has adapted DevInfo on child protection from violence, exploitation and abuse (Child protection), on key HIV/AIDS indicators (Evidence to action) and on gender statistics (Gender info).

DevInfo is not a source of information per se. In fact, it is strictly dependent on the existence of a ready and reliable database. This reflects key weaknesses of existing initiatives measuring child well-being, particularly the heavy reliance on pre-existing sources of data as opposed to creation of new and more tailored information. Therefore, although it is a significant effort towards the standardisation of

monitoring tools, DevInfo does not address the issue of information quality, with regard to which parallel efforts at the country level must be encouraged. Moreover, users do not have access to whole datasets, which limits use for quantitative analysis, in particular multivariate and causal analysis.

4.1.4 UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre

The Innocenti Research Centre (IRC) was created in 1988 to strengthen UNICEF's research and advocacy capabilities. It plays a key role in interfacing between fieldwork experience, international experts, research networks and policymakers, as well as generating new knowledge: indeed, over time, the focus has been shifting towards greater emphasis on knowledge brokering and external engagements (UNICEF, 2005b). This is exemplified in the 2006-2008/09 strategic programme goals of 'promotion of the exchange and brokering of knowledge to support reflection, debate and cross-fertilization of experiences' (UNICEF, 2005d), and is demonstrated in practice through the Monitoring Eastern Europe (MONEE) programme. This latter has recognised that it is not only availability and quality of data that need improvement but also their use and accessibility. Consequently, the IRC has encouraged increased emphasis on longer-term capacity building on uses of data for policy advocacy by stimulating dialogue between national statistics offices, relevant government ministries and research centres (UNICEF, 2009b). More generally, policies on brokering include 'organizing and facilitating expert discussions and information exchange with academic and research institutions' and 'providing strategic and technical support to national independent institutions for children's rights, including promoting their cooperation through the Global Network of Ombudspersons for Children' (UNICEF, 2005b).

Naturally, there is some (although not striking) resonance with these approaches within the UNICEF Medium-Term Strategic Plan (2006-2009) (UNICEF, 2005c). The ultimate aim of UNICEF's knowledge management policy is to raise the profile of 'knowledge', to include it as a key contribution to achieving the MDGs and to promote a culture of learning within the organisation. These goals are broadly addressed through four measures: giving greater attention to strengthening UNICEF's internal systems, structures and practices in order to learn from field experience; identifying significant knowledge gaps (and allocating resources for studies to address them); promoting pilot programmes; and enhancing research quality.

4.1.5 University-based research centres

Given differing incentive structures, such knowledge management practices are less obvious in research centres based in university systems. The UK, for instance, has prominent child-oriented centres in the Townsend Centre (University of Bristol), the Interdisciplinary Centre for Child and Youth Focused Research (Brunel University), the Child and Youth Studies Group (Open University), the Child Studies Unit (King's College London) and the Young Lives child poverty project at Queen Elizabeth House, Oxford. However, there is little substantive content on knowledge management strategies and processes. The Interdisciplinary Centre for Child and Youth Focused Research, for instance, funded by UNICEF (among others), promotes 'interdisciplinary collaboration in the design, conduct and dissemination of research', paired with the Norwegian Centre for Child Research at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology.

However, the Centre provides no freely available knowledge management platform or system, despite having access to the Centre for Information and Knowledge Management within the same institution. Similarly, the Townsend Centre has worked with UNICEF on the global poverty and disparities database, but has not allocated any external communications space for knowledge management. In practice, a range of publications are available but these are not actively promoted to target audiences, with a resulting tendency to isolate or trap outputs at their point of origin. Understanding knowledge management as a system that goes beyond the storage, organisation and presentation of knowledge toward promoting communication and interaction is a mandatory step in bridging child research and child policy audiences. COPs, for instance, have demonstrated significant value in three key ways: ensuring that research is relevant and innovative; supporting and driving policy networks; and creating

'discourse coalitions' that build a common language between research and policy communities (Hearn and White, 2009).

The Child Migration Research Network (CMRN), funded by DFID and the Rockefeller Foundation, was developed out of research and discussions in the Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty, and is coordinated from the University of Sussex, UK. Its core aims are to focus on the grey literature and other isolated research in order to expand the evidence base on the effects of migration on children. The themes addressed by the network are 'independent child migration', 'children left behind' and 'migration with families'. There are additional sub-themes and tertiary themes, such as South–South interactions and rural–urban flows, each of which demonstrates a unique focus on children as the key actors – highlighting their voices and experiences in order to capture high levels of complexity.

Ostensibly, the CMRN exists for 'promoting policies to maximise the benefits and minimise the risks of migration for poor people', but the functionality of the CMRN site remains dedicated to the supply side of the knowledge management cycle, with no clear section emphasising policy processes and/or their dynamics. The CMRN does provide linkages to such research (see Thomas, 2009), but the particular roles of certain actors and contexts in promoting or preventing efficient child-based knowledge management practices is not a high-profile feature in the network.

4.1.6 Child-focused international NGOs

Although prominent child-oriented development NGOs such as Save the Children, World Vision, Plan and Kindernothilfe have varied knowledge management structures, the sector standard is based on documenting methodologies, strategies and outcomes into thematic categories and crosscutting issues for internal purposes, while providing specified learning externally for COPs. To this end, a range of publications are available that can be classified by geography, theme, publication type and date (up to five years). However, specific knowledge management strategies or procedures such as data-gathering methodologies, and best practice on lesson learning, capture, communication and storage, are rarely made available. Child-focused monitoring and assessment toolkits are periodically made public, but such initiatives, as with many similar M&E activities in non-child focus areas, fail to provide a comprehensive approach to knowledge management that monitors and addresses barriers to effective production and use of research (Talisayon, 2009).

The case in Box 3 is indicative of the type of process that is presented in other forums (in this case the UN Office for Humanitarian Affairs website) but not consistently disseminated on participant websites.

Box 3: The need for a knowledge management stream in the Inter-Agency Network for Emergencies

Education clusters have been established in a number of countries to help ensure that children have access to education during emergencies and to share best practice. There are cluster representatives at regional and district levels as well, and leads generally consist of actors in UN agencies, international and national NGOs and the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies Secretariat.

The need for a consistent knowledge management system in the Education Cluster Working Group was recognised in 2009, to improve institutional memory, coordination and handovers. The Knowledge Management Task Team aims to establish mechanisms to address the fact that, although the need for accurate assessment of data is significant, tools and processes to develop initial assessments of education facilities in emergency contexts are largely lacking. The role of the team is to design and develop a comprehensive and standardised system, consistent with Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies standards, to guide emergency responses and the capture of best practices.

Source: http://www.humanitarianreform.org/humanitarianreform.

Table 1: Overview of key English-language initiatives for measuring child well-being

Initiative	Institution	Timeframe	Description
IRC Report Card 7 An overview of child well-being in rich countries: a comprehensive assessment of the lives and well-being of children and adolescents in the economically advanced nations http://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/rc7_eng.pdf	UNICEF IRC	Report published in 2007 but part of a broader series: 2005 on poverty; 2008 on early childhood care; 2010 will focus on social exclusion	Provides a full evaluation of the lives and well-being of children and youth living in the 21 industrialised nations and allows comparisons not just on income poverty but also along six differing dimensions: material well-being, health and safety, education, peer and family relationships, behaviours and risks and young people's own subjective sense of well-being. Scores indicate how far above or below the OECD average each country stands. Each dimension is captured by a variety of indicators, which have been collapsed into three equally weighted components: material well-being – percentage relatively poor, percentage living in households without an employed adult, reported direct measures of deprivation; health and safety – infant health, vaccination rates, childhood accidental death rate; education – school achievement at age 15, percentage remaining in school after 15, transition from school to work; relationships – indicators measuring family structure, time spent with parents, quality of friendships; behaviours and risks – a great many indicators, collapsed into components that capture health behaviours, risk behaviours and violence; subjective sense of well-being – whether children report being satisfied with their health, their school experience and themselves. Data for this report are largely drawn from the World Health Organization (WHO) Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC) study, Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) and WHO.
Multi-National Project for Monitoring and Measuring Children's Well-Being http://multinational-indicators.chapinhall.org/ This project culminated in the foundation of the International Society for Child Indicators (ISCI) http://www.childindicators.org/goals.html	Center for Research and Public Education, National Council for the Child, Israel Chapin Hall Center for Children at the University of Chicago National Center for Children in Poverty,	Phase I 1996-2000 Phase II 2001-2005	Brought together 80 diverse experts from nearly 30 countries to define the concept of child well-being and identify measures to capture the concept that move beyond mere survival. Phase I, which was coordinated by the Israeli National Council for the Child, identified five domains of child well-being, captured by approximately 60 indicators. Domains (and sub-domains) identified were: children's economic resources and contribution (macroeconomic and intergenerational distributive justice, children's autonomy, expenditure on children and access to resources), children's personal life skills (interpersonal, intrapersonal and academic skills and resources), children's civil life skills (community activities, opportunities for community activities and

Initiative	Institution	Timeframe	Description
	Columbia University German Youth Institute		community values), children's safety and health status (safety and physical status) and children's activity. Phase II had as its goals to build a 'reliable and valid scientific protocol for collecting new data, to build a collaborative multinational network of partners, to develop an archive of data collected and to build a strategic plan for disseminating the knowledge gained'.[16] Phase II successfully culminated in 2006 with the creation of ISCI.
Global Study on Child Poverty and Disparities http://www.unicef.org/socialpolicy/index_45357.html http://www.bris.ac.uk/poverty/	UNICEF Townsend Centre for International Poverty Research	2007-2009	Involved an analysis of household survey data from over 40 countries in seven regions. It looked at lacunae in national poverty reduction strategies, which included employment, economics, demographics, expenditures, fiscal space and foreign aid, in order to identify how policies could reduce child deprivation. The study used definitions of poverty that included both income and non-income factors and considered how inadequate resources are perceived differently by children of varying genders, ages, social statuses and household constructions. It utilised a lifecycle approach and placed high value on a caring environment as a key requirement for children's well-being. The study produced internationally comparable figures for poverty, nutrition, health, education and child protection. Data included Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) and demographic and health surveys (DHS).
Institute for Democracy in Africa (IDASA) http://www.idasa.org.za/index.asp?page=output_details.asp%3FRID%3D508%26TID%3D8%26OTID%3D7	IDASA	*Monitoring Government Budgets to Advance Child Rights – A Guide to NGOs* was published in 2003	IDASA works with NGOs around Africa to facilitate child-sensitive budgeting. It clearly lays out for stakeholders the rights of children as identified in the UNCRC, the roles of players in children's rights and the obligations of each role player to ensuring those rights. It provides practical advice on how to identify the budget allocations dedicated to children's issues, how to calculate the percentage of total expenditures that impact children and how to calculate nominal growth rates in allocations while factoring in real growth rates and inflation. It also provides a framework for information dissemination.

16 http://multinational-indicators.chapinhall.org/.

Cohort studies • National Survey of Health and Development • National Child Development Study • British Cohort Study • Millennium Cohort Study http://www.cls.ioe.ac.uk/	Centre for Longitudinal Studies	• 1946-present • 1958-present • 1970-present • 2001-present	Ongoing longitudinal studies of all children born in England, Scotland and Wales during one particular week of the target year (the 2001 cohort had different collection criteria and covered, for the first time, the entire UK). Every seven years the cohorts are traced and data are collected on the physical, educational, social and economic development of each member. Cohorts have been augmented to include immigrants who were born in the target week. In addition to interviews with the subjects, parental interviews, teacher questionnaires, medical exams and psycho-educational testing are collected. With the exception of the 1946 cohort, which was smaller, each cohort has involved approximately 17,000 children. The Millennium cohort was disproportionally stratified to ensure representation of low-income and minority areas.
The Child and Youth Well-Being Index http://www.soc.duke.edu/~cwi/	Duke University	1975-present	An evidence-based measure of children's well-being in America. The index allows composite comparisons over time, as well as providing specific trends for different ages, ethnicities, income levels and genders. The index uses 28 indicators collapsed into seven equally weighted domains: family economic well-being, social relationships, health, safety and behavioural concerns (crime, smoking, adolescent pregnancy), educational attainment (reading and math scores), emotional well-being and community connectedness (school attendance, employment rates). Data utilised by the index come from many sources, including the US Census, the US Current Population Survey and the National Assessment of Educational Progress.
Child Trends Data Bank http://www.childtrendsdatabank.org/	Child Trends	1979-present	Houses information on over 100 child-related indicators for US children. Collecting information from federal and state officials, as well as other researchers, Child Trends staff work to help public and private agencies develop and use statistical indicators to improve the well-being of US children. Data fall into six domains: health, social and emotional development, income and assets, education and skills, demographics and family and community. Indicators are continually updated and range from condom use to the number of children in foster care to adolescent volunteer participation.

Youth in Numbers series http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTCY/0,,menuPK:396466~pagePK:162344~piPK:149090~theSitePK:396445,00.html	World Bank	Reports published in 2004	Consists of six reports, one for each region in which the World Bank operates: East Asia and the Pacific, MENA, Eastern Europe and Central Asia, South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean. The reports contain tables of statistical indicators that have been collected by multilateral organisations on the population, education, health and employment of young people around the world.
Demographic Health Surveys Adolescent Data Guides http://www.unfpa.org/adolescents/dhs_adolescent_guides.html	UN Population Fund (UNFPA)	Reports have been published since 2002	Utilise data drawn primarily from the DHS and aim to arm stakeholders with country-level data on youth aged 10-24. Reports are available for nearly 50 developing countries and aim to highlight the lacunae between investment and need. While programmes are available for the most advantaged of the world's youth, including those who are male, in school, living in urban areas and unmarried, those most in need are often statistically invisible.
Child Labour Data Country Briefs http://www.ilo.org/ipec/ChildlabourstatisticsSIMPOC/lang--en/index.htm	Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) (International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour – IPEC – of the International Labour Organization – ILO)	Briefs published in 2008	SIMPOC, the statistical arm of IPEC, aids more than 60 countries in the collection and analysis of data relevant to child labour. To date, more than 250 surveys, 60 of them on a national scale, have been carried out. Child Labour Data Country Briefs have been produced for nearly 20 nations.
Child Development Index http://www.savethechildren.org.uk/en/docs/child-development-index.pdf	Save the Children UK	Uses data from 1990 to present	Combines each country's performance in three child-specific areas to produce a score scaled from 0 to 100. Scores are produced for more than 140 countries around the world and are composed of equally weighted indicators measuring child health, child nutrition and education. Given that data are not collected annually in all countries, there are currently three sets of scores available: 1990-1994, 1995-1999 and 2000-2006. Low scores represent low levels of child deprivation. A score of zero, for example, would indicate that all children survive to their fifth birthday and are well fed and all primary school children are enrolled in school. The index provides an interesting counterpoint to the UN's Human Development Index and differences clearly indicate that children's well-being is not necessarily tied to adult well-being.

Index of Child Well-being in the European Union http://www.camhee.eu/images/default/source/attachments/useful/AN%20INDEX%20OF%20CHILD%20WELL-BEING%20IN%20THE%20EUROPEAN.pdf	Social Policy Research Unit J. Bradshaw, P. Hoelscher and D. Richardson	2006	Composed of 51 individual indicators collapsed into 23 components and then eight equally weighted domains: material situation, housing, health, subjective well-being, education, relationships, civic participation and risk and safety. It uses a rights-based approach to analyse existing data, including surveys such as HBSC and PISA as well as series from the WHO and World Bank, on the European Union 25 (EU-25). The index attempted to use the child as the unit of analysis and excluded indicators not available for at least 70% of the countries. For each of the domains, an average score was calculated and then countries were ranked according to their distance above or below that average.
MICS http://www.childinfo.org/mics3_background.html	UNICEF New York	Initiated in 1995, with survey rounds every five years	Developed by UNICEF to fill in data gaps of countries vis-à-vis monitoring status of children and women (made a priority following the 1990 World Summit for Children). MICS are typically carried out by governmental organisations with the support of UNICEF and other partners and present three core questionnaires: 1) household, 2) women aged 15-49 and 3) children under five. This makes the survey stand out against the majority of sources of data – European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD), HBSC, PISA, Trends in International Mathematics and Science Studies Matrix (TIMSS) surveys – which tend to focus on late childhood as opposed to early childhood (ages 0-5 years) or middle school (6-11) (Ben-Arieh, 2006; Bradshaw et al., 2006). The three 'standard' questionnaires can be customised to the data needs of a country. MICS3, for example, includes a set of optional modules encompassing issues of disability, child discipline, security of tenure and durability of housing, source and cost of supplies for insecticide-treated nets and maternal mortality (household questionnaire); unmet need, security of tenure and attitudes toward domestic violence (women questionnaire); child development and source and cost of supplies of oral rehydration solution, antibiotics and anti-malarials (children questionnaire).

HBSC http://www.hbsc.org/	HBSC is housed at the University of Edinburgh and is undertaken in collaboration with the WHO	1982-present	A multinational, school-based study that uses a common protocol to collect data on health-related attitudes and behaviours of nationally representative samples of youth in up to 43 countries. Data collection began in 1983, with new waves every four years. Approximately 4500 young people, aged 11, 13 and 15, are included in each survey in each participating country. The surveys include information on demographics, individual and social resources, health behaviours and health outcomes.
National Longitudinal Study of Children in Ireland http://www.childinfo.org/mics3_background.html	Economic and Social Research Institute, Trinity College Dublin	2007-present	This survey, also known as 'Growing Up in Ireland', is monitoring the development of more than 18,000 Irish children with the goal of identifying the factors that impact their well-being. The study includes two cohorts, one of infants and one of nine-year-old children, and will track them for seven years, gathering data on the social, economic and cultural environments of contemporary Irish children. The first wave of data collection was completed in early 2009 and work is underway on the first main report.

4.2 Knowledge translation – actors, ideas and processes

Having provided a brief overview of some key knowledge management initiatives in the field of child rights, we now turn to discuss the actors, ideas and processes involved in transforming ideas and evidence related to child rights into policy- and practice-relevant concepts and guidelines. We draw on the CIHR definition of knowledge translation as 'a dynamic and iterative process that includes the synthesis, dissemination, exchange and ethically sound application of knowledge'.[17]

4.2.1 Actors

Earlier work on the knowledge–policy interface was dominated by notions of 'divided communities', with researchers and policymakers divided in terms of their professional incentive structures and priorities, such that evidence-informed policy processes were deemed challenging, or even unlikely. According to this argument, while researchers privilege quality of evidence, regardless of the time it takes to generate, and theoretically informed analysis, policymakers tend to be more pragmatic, demanding timely, context-specific information that resonates with intuition and is politically feasible (Court and Young, 2006). However, the range of actors linking knowledge, policy and practice has become increasingly diverse, and actors are now playing more fluid roles (Culpeper, 2008; Stone, 2008). As such, there is an increasing focus on networks and COPs (Court et al., 2005)[18] as a key way in which tacit knowledge is managed within organisations and knowledge fields. COPs are informal groups or networks of professionals who share common problems, interests or knowledge and who communicate with each other about this. Their core competency is that they can enable a learning conversation and nurture capacities of members (see also Box 4).

17 www.cihr-irsc.gc.ca/e/29418.html.
18 The literature refers to a range of such networks and communities, including issue networks, epistemic communities, advocacy coalitions and global public policy networks (see Lindquist, 2001).

In the field of child rights in developing country contexts, knowledge translation efforts have increasingly been shaped by COPs over the past 10 to 15 years, as highlighted by Table 4 in Appendix 2. As with our analysis of CRIN, COPs in the field of child protection largely outnumber those active in the other fields, although interestingly this is a field that has received less attention in global monitoring systems as well as being relatively less covered in the academic literature on child well-being in developing countries.

Box 4: Key ingredients in communities of practice

Key elements of COPs include the following:

- **Purpose** – shared purpose or passion; shared needs and clear value potential. Scott Peck (1987) describes various stages of COPs: pseudo-communities (people remain at the level of politeness); chaos (people decide they need to defend their views); emptiness (people empty themselves of the desire to change others); and community building.
- **Enablers** include technology, time, budget, support and incentives.
- **Leadership** of the community to facilitate the weaving of the threads of emerging conversations to overcome possible fragmentation.
- **Processes** – people may want to use different means of communicating, which is why flexible communication strategies are as important as storytelling and learning conversations.
- **Individual agency** – competencies, affinities, commitment, behaviours and diversity of perspectives are all elements that people bring to COPs.
- **Time** (cited as an enabler) is a key issue.

Source: Ramalingam (2005).

Most of the COPs analysed[19] are undergoing growth, and all are active in the two initial stages of the policy cycle: framing debates/agenda setting and encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors.[20] However, the focus appears to be largely one of information sharing, with only a handful having formalised their efforts into concrete policy documents: for instance, the Global Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) Campaign, the Joint Learning Initiative on Children and HIV/AIDS (JLICA) and the African Child Policy Forum (ACPF). Very few appear to have reached a maturity that has allowed them to extend their influence to the following stages of the policy cycle (securing procedural changes from policy actors, effecting policy change and changing the behaviour of target actors). Important exceptions include End Child Prostitution, Pornography and Trafficking (ECPAT), which contributed to the 2006 UN World Report on Violence against Children (UN, 2006b); the World Congress III against Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents; and ANDI, the child rights-focused Latin American News Agency for Children's Rights, which has contributed to a significant shift in reporting on child rights.

4.2.2 Ideas and their policy purchase

A second key dimension of knowledge translation is the extent to which different types of ideas or frameworks used to conceptualise child rights have had effective purchase on policy and practice. Here we consider a sub-sample of such ideas: development psychology, rights-based approaches and sociology of childhood all represent key conceptual frameworks that have been used to understand children and childhood across the years (see also Section 2 and Table 5, Appendix 2).

Development psychology paradigms are based on a universalistic concept of the child, who develops through identifiable stages. Although this approach has been criticised for its assumption of the existence of universal characteristics (Morrow, 2006), stage theories have long been the basis for understanding children and, as such, have had a substantive impact on childhood policy and practice.

---

19 See Table 4 in Appendix 1 for selected COPs and their respective stages/impacts.
20 See discussion on Keck and Sikkink's (1998) framework in Jones and Villar (2008).

Moreover, they still largely reflect the basis for practitioners currently working with children across disciplines and professions, as well as the ways in which social policies about children are formulated. For instance, the importance that stage theories still enjoy is reflected in continued assessment of the extent that children have or have not 'achieved' in relation to school curricula or agendas (ibid).

The rights-based framework, promoted through the UNCRC and its three 'Ps', partly moves away from this risk of 'essentialising' childhood, and some argue that recognising children's right to participate may reflect the beginning of an altered construction of childhood (Jefferess, 2002). Nevertheless, by failing to interrogate the meaning of the 'child' and 'childhood' (the UNCRC merely states that any person under age 18 is a child), the Convention still partly reflect the limits of stage theories, in referring to a universal, immature child who is on a particular developmental trajectory and in need of protection.

Other concerns relate to the tendency within child rights discourses to associate children with education and adults with work, reflecting dominant (Western) conceptions that implicitly question the values of societies in which children are contributors to household economies (Fernando, 2001). Such understandings of childhood also tend to overlook issues of power relations affecting children: the particularisation of children's rights issues, isolated from class, race, and gender, is conceived by some as a way of avoiding direct engagement with the political and economic realities of the emerging global economy (ibid).

Common application of the rights-framed approach derived from the UNCRC includes, among others, birth registration policies in developing countries, anti-child labour legislation and national development plans 'informed' by children views, strengthening of juvenile justice systems as well as policies on fostering, adoption and guardianship. Meanwhile, the right of the child to be protected, including from harmful forms of child labour, has turned out to be more complex than initially envisaged. Research has called for caution regarding anti-child labour legislation, insofar as it may risk undermining children's right to protection in some contexts by obscuring situations in which children are actually exploited (Jacquemin, 2006).

The risks implied in the formal and apparently neutral application of such legislation have been illustrated in contexts where models of child labour coexist in the forms of unpaid work in households of family members ('little nieces'), exploitation in households with no kinship ties ('hired help') and domestic labour, which seldom benefits from labour laws ('little waged maid').[21] In such contexts, the effectiveness of development programmes targeting domestic servants in a children's rights-based approach has had to be revisited. Targeting non-kin paid maids under 15 assumes that the family is the ideal place for children to live, but ends up neglecting the 'little nieces' – while simultaneously failing to consider the potential protection and livelihood benefits that the maids derive from informal labour remuneration (Hashim, 2005). Formalising effective policy implications of a rights-based approach to child labour thus seems to require an understanding that the application of official regulations concerning minimum age of employment does not necessarily translate into protection of working children. In a context of diversified forms of child domestic labour, targeting has the disadvantage of overshadowing children who are not included as 'targets'.

It has also been argued that legislation such as the ILO international ban on the worst forms of child labour, including drug trafficking, underground mining, prostitution, etc, may not be the best option to fight child labour, as it could end up having a negative effect on family well-being, given that it addresses the symptoms as opposed to the causes of harmful forms of child labour, such as poverty (Dessy and Pallage, 2005). Moreover, evidence from Bangladesh suggests the detrimental effects that a Bill presented in the US in 1993 and aimed at eliminating children from the workplace can have. By failing to address the socioeconomic realities of working children, the Child Labor Deterrence Act 1993,

21 Jacquemin (2006) refers specifically to Côte d'Ivoire, but such practices are widespread in West and Central Africa.

which proposed a ban on imports to the US from countries using child labour in the production of goods for international markets, risked creating incentives for children to engage in more hazardous and exploitative jobs in the informal sector (Rahman et al., 1999).

Child participation has been encouraged in the field of education and is receiving increasing attention in national development processes. Major concerns with regard to the participation of children include paternalistic traditional models of children's needs that are built on adult knowledge and perceptions (Jones and Sumner, 2009). There are also questions as to the assumption that children are able to participate and articulate ideas that resonate with questions being addressed in sophisticated development strategies, as well as the appropriateness of encouraging participation in contexts where resources are lacking (ibid). Perhaps most importantly, effective policy purchase of the views of the child in development policies remains an empirical matter. Evidence from Vietnam, for instance, suggests weak impact of child participation in the development of the Social and Economic Development Plan (2006-2010), with the final version presenting no specific section on child rights, children or childhood poverty, despite the opportunities that the broader *Doi Moi* economic and political reform process had opened up for consultation with children (Nguyen et al., forthcoming). Similarly, in Kenya, although children from across the country were consulted, the PRSP document integrated only a limited number of their insights and did not embrace a holistic, child-rights informed approach to poverty reduction (Heidel, 2005). Indeed:

> 'Even though many national poverty reduction strategies mention the needs of young people, often these strategies are limited in their analysis of the situation of youth and many national development plans lack consideration of differences in young people's needs, realities, obstacles, priorities, and opportunities' (ADAP, 2009).

Sociology of childhood reflects an understanding of children's experiences as extremely varied, as opposed to a universal norm (Prout, 2004). As we have seen, Boyden and Levison (2000) argue that, while certain aspects of childhood are indeed universal, with unquestionable needs such as food, rest and sleep, as well as certain commonalities in cognitive development, such as the acquisition of language, the notion of children developing in stages that occur universally in a fixed sequence is not sustainable. According to the sociology of childhood framework, childhood must be reconceived as a political issue, acknowledging that theories about what children need and how they develop are all derived from adult perspectives (James and James, 1999). 'Sociologising childhood' implies conceiving of children as competent social actors who can alter the conditions of their own lives, whose wishes and needs are relevant to the construction of social policies but whose ability to participate risks being heavily controlled and subordinated by adulthood (Mayall, 2000). This is a challenge, given the large body of knowledge on child development that has contributed to building Western dominant conceptions of children as incompetent, unreliable and unstable (ibid). The sociology of childhood also takes seriously the notion of the 'generational order', whereby it is recognised that the categorisation of societal members by age is not a natural distinction but rather socially constructed and deeply connected to other dimensions of social inequality (Alanen and Mayall, 2001).

Policy implications include questioning the extent that government initiatives are based on evidence of or assumptions about gender, ethnicity and social status (Morrow, 2006). Although it has been argued that children as a category has remained insufficiently differentiated (Morrow and Connolly, 2006), intergenerational bargaining theories – and their implications, including policies of indirect targeting – have been critical to an understanding that children occupy a special relational category within the household, which can be uniquely affected by specific policies. There is a broad literature on mothers investing additional household income in their children's welfare, whereas fathers are more likely to invest in income-generating activities and personal needs (Kabeer, 2003). However, generational dynamics within the household are increasingly emerging as more complex, including differences among different age categories of children and links between not only parents and children but also grandparents and children. For instance, some studies have found that, as children's share in the family income increases, family expenditures change to favour children of that same age group (12-18),

while the share of expenditure going to other groups, including younger children, decreases (Moehling, 1997, in Boyden and Levison, 2000). Moreover, there is suggestive evidence from Brazil that the presence of an elderly man in the family can improve children's education (Ponczek, in Reynolds, 2008) and research in South Africa (Duflo, 2003) has highlighted how pension receipts by grandmothers can have a positive effect on granddaughters' nutrition status.[22] Notwithstanding gaps in coverage (e.g. girls or boys without a living grandparent) and the ethical questions inevitably raised by policies from which some are (by chance) excluded, indirect targeting, such as targeting of grandparents to help grandchildren, may thus be an effective way of enacting policy.

Overall, however, the sociology of childhood framework has not had significant traction in the policy world. It has been argued, for instance, that language used by those advocating for children is affected by 'gender neglect', which discriminates against children by referring to them as an object ('it') (e.g. Saunders and Goddard, 2001). Similarly, the relatively few provisions that exist in England, for example, on the protection of children's interests in the absence of a marriage contract between parents are suggestive of legislation that is supportive of a model that fails to cater for all children (such as those whose parents are not married but who might equally be in dispute) (James and James, 1999). Moreover, despite innovations in legislation that have brought children centre stage in divorce (the latest expression being the 1989 Children Act), the law seems to foster a particular model of the child in which ideas of agency are underplayed and their social status relegated as one of subordinate family members to be heard at the discretion of adults (ibid).

4.2.3 Processes

The policy process has been defined as the sum of the interactions occurring among different organisations – each with its own interests and ideas – to decide on what course of action should be taken in a specific sector (Nash et al., 2006). It is part of a wider environment of formal and informal rules governing the relations among different players, and can be conceptually broken down into two related interfaces: research–policy, covering the generation and translation of knowledge into policy; and policy–practice, including the challenge of maximising knowledge impact.

Policymaking is widely recognised as a complex process, with no linear progression linking technical evidence to policy design to accurate implementation (Young, 2008). The structural constraints are such that unexpected policy results may in some instances be explained not by inadequate research per se but rather by the limited responsiveness of research tools and or policy engagement strategies to the complexities of the policymaking process. The failure of poverty reduction policies, for instance, is said to be suggestive evidence of this complexity and, more specifically, of the need to challenge existing biases in policy processes towards reductionist approaches that tend to construct blueprints to apply across different contexts (Jones et al., 2009a). As such, knowledge translation efforts need to be informed by an iterative and dynamic understanding of policy and practice change (Figure 14 in Appendix 2). However, these acknowledgments also need to be supplemented with an awareness and analysis of the role of political economy in enabling or preventing child-focused policies. Children's and youth groups in particular often suffer from capacity constraints to articulate young people's perspectives into policy-relevant inputs (Williams, 2004); tend to be accorded low priority, at least in part because they are non-voters; and are frequently inadequately represented within the bureaucracy because of resource- and capacity-constrained civil service interlocutors.

From research to policy: The impact of research on policy is explained by a number of factors, starting from research quality. Considering the complexity of international development, this is increasingly recognised as encompassing multiple sources of knowledge, including relevant information derived from development projects as well as more participatory forms of evidence. In child-related policymaking, for instance, studies are advocating for the adoption of mixed methods approaches,

22 In measuring the impact of the South Africa pension programme on child nutrition (weight for height and height for age), the paper provides evidence of the collective household model – which allows for different interests within the household.

combining traditional quantitative analyses focused on measuring breadth and causes of child poverty with qualitative analyses addressing intra-household dynamics, as well as children's experiences and perceptions of deprivation and vulnerability (Jones and Sumner, 2007).

The involvement of non-state actors can also shape the knowledge–policy interface, but opportunities for such influence are filtered through the specific contours of particular policy sectors or areas. It is recognised, for instance, that while trade policies are more likely to be taken behind closed doors (Newell and Tussie, 2006), policies in the education sector tend to rely on more participative forms of evidence (Jones and Pomares, forthcoming). Levels of participation in policymaking are affected by a number of sector-specific variables, including levels of technical expertise required (e.g. fluency in macroeconomic policy issues is often a prerequisite for participation at the policy dialogue table on policy responses to economic shocks), levels of influence among economic interests in the sector (e.g. dominance of private sector groups in trade policy negotiations), levels of contestation within the sector (e.g. polarisation of the reproductive health field) and levels of internationalisation of policy discourses (e.g. human rights debates are increasingly shaped by international non-state actors) (Jones and Pomares, forthcoming). Meanwhile, the limited legitimacy of children's perspectives in many societies, alongside weak institutional arrangements, including capacity- and resource-constrained governmental agencies mandated to address child rights as well as limited space for civil society to raise child rights issues, appears to limit children's opportunities to have a say in decision-making processes affecting them, hampering considerably the influence of evidence on policy in this sector (Jones and Sumner, 2009).

These sector-specific dynamics between knowledge and policy call for a shift in the boundaries of analysis, beyond scientific knowledge or quality research into the broader environment of policymaking. The political context encompasses aspects such as 'the distribution of power, the range of organisations involved and their interests, and the formal and informal rules that govern the interactions among different players' (Nash et al., 2006). The complexity is such that there is no straightforward way of predicting the likelihood of successful research-based policymaking on the basis of a country's political system. For example, present-day Bolivia, which is characterised by greater participation in policymaking of non-state actors, has not to date resulted in more evidence-informed or higher-quality policy dialogues (Jones et al., 2009a). Moreover, the cases of authoritarian Chile in the 1970s and 1980s and present-day one-party Vietnam suggest that unexpected opportunities for influencing policymaking rise in countries where political systems are less competitive. In both instances, research evidence was/is strongly demanded by policy decision makers, as a means for political leaders to better tackle the growing complexity of globalised policy environments. It has also been argued that crises or regime changes can foster greater chances for research to influence policy changes (Macdonald, 2008). Peru is one example, with post-authoritarian governments showing enthusiasm for research-informed advice (Correa, in Jones et al., 2009a).

Even with quality evidence, active COPs and favourable sector contexts, success still rests in significant part with the capacity of researchers to understand the political context and, ultimately, to be 'good networkers, engineers and political fixers' (Young, 2008). Effective policy entrepreneurs are able to map the political context and to frame messages in context- and politics-resonant ways (Keck and Sikkink, 1998). This means having the ability to 'package' messages in ways that are easy for policymakers to understand and apply, identifying implications without leaving research findings open to interpretation and making them appropriate in their own context. This may include recognition of the 'localisation' of international frameworks in policy debates and according priority to equivalent national versions, such as the National Action Plan for Ethiopian Children as opposed to the UNCRC in the case of efforts to ensure the integration of a child rights approach to childhood poverty in Ethiopia's second PRSP.

From policy to practice: While studies on the knowledge–policy interface outlined above focus on the factors that either enable or hinder the likelihood of research take-up by policy, the policy–practice literature focuses on different types of impacts that evidence-informed policy can have on practice,

informed by a recognition of the multiple and multilayered meanings of research influence (Jones and Sumner 2009). Here, we return to Keck and Sikkink's framework on the policy–practice interface derived from their work on transnational advocacy networks, which identifies five key impacts of evidence-based policy (see also Box 5).

Box 5: Lessons learned from gender mainstreaming initiatives

International policy on gender equality has been shaped by CEDAW in 1979 and the Beijing Platform for Action, which was the culmination of the high-profile Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995. International organisations and bilateral development agencies have since been involved in bringing gender perspectives into regular development activities that do not specifically target women in the first place. In many cases, such initiatives have been referred to as cases of 'good start and lost momentum' (DFID, 2004; Keller et al., 2002; UNDP, 2006) yet, having a relatively better-established relationship among relevant actors in the policymaking process, they offer a number of lessons for knowledge translation efforts aimed at encouraging the uptake of new knowledge on child rights into mainstream development policy and practice.

- **Importance of tackling cultural and organisational attitudes:** Organisational cultures that are unsupportive of gender mainstreaming initiatives have proven to be a major institutional challenge (UN ECOSOC, 2003), resulting in significant gaps between policy commitments and limited resource allocations (DFID, 2004; UNDP, 2006). Additional limitations include lack of professional gender equality expertise (Freeman et al., 2002; Mikkelsen et al., 2002) and the ambiguous visibility of gender mainstreaming structures. For instance, UN Development Program (UNDP) gender focal points have had no clear job description and are generally junior-level staff (UNDP, 2006).
- **Framing debates so they resonate with broader development discourses:** There has been a tendency to equate gender equality narrowly with women's participation in development programmes and projects (Keller et al., 2002) or social sectors such as girls' education and maternal health, at the expense of a broader focus in the areas of economic opportunities (DFID, 2004). However, more recent efforts, such as the World Bank's focus on investing in gender equality initiatives because it constitutes 'smart economics' and UNICEF's call to capitalise on the 'double dividend' – i.e. promote women's empowerment in order also to achieve better child outcomes – highlight the power of integrating gender considerations into the core business of existing development paradigms.
- **The importance of systematic data collection and analysis, including M&E efforts:** Over the past 20 years, there have been increasing efforts to address the serious gaps in the availability of sex-disaggregated gender data and indicators of progress that help to mainstream gender issues. Initiatives include UNDP's Gender-related Development Index and the Gender Empowerment Index, as well as UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) data collection on women's time use in both paid and unpaid work roles. Other key developments include the OECD-DAC's gender marker to track official development assistance expenditure on gender equality objectives and the recent initiative by Germany to introduce a gender marker in its assessment of all development projects, such that the onus is on project and section leads, to demonstrate where they think that gender is *not* relevant before they can receive project and funding approval.
- **Mainstreaming as a political exercise:** Gender mainstreaming is not merely a technical exercise involving strategies, methodologies and skills, but encompasses initiatives that must develop links with a variety of stakeholders, such as NGOs, academia, civil society, the private sector, religious institutions and the media (UN ECOSOC, 2003). As such, the importance of understanding the political context for achieving successful research-based policy influencing cannot be underestimated.
- **Encouraging lasting, participatory change:** Participation and consultation with women and men are regarded as essential for successful gender mainstreaming. This is not only about increasing the number of women in the development agenda but also a matter of encouraging a transformative process to ensure that both men and women can influence and participate in practice. This has been highlighted by initiatives in the health sector, where involving men in women's and children's health care has led to significantly better outcomes (WHO, 2007).

The first level of impact refers to 'framing debates and agenda setting'. Examples include mainstreaming children in public policy debates, sensitising authorities to their differential needs and drawing attention to how children can be equally (if not more) affected by macro-level policies (e.g. governance reforms, free trade agreements) than by obviously child-oriented sector-specific policies such as education and health (Jones and Villar, 2008). Child-focused advocacy initiatives in Ethiopia

have spotlighted the detrimental effects that agriculture-led industrial development can have on child labour, at the expense of school attendance (Woldehanna et al., 2008). Similar experiences in Peru point to the need for social assessments of trade liberalisation policies, including intra-household and intergenerational assessments for children living in rural areas (Escobal, 2007).

The second level refers to efforts to promote 'discursive commitments from states and policy actors'. While such commitments may not automatically translate into concrete impacts in children's lives, they often constitute an important source of leverage for promoting future policy and behavioural changes. A good example of such commitments is the recent announcement by the transitional government in Somalia that it will ratify the UNCRC.

The third level of policy impact encompasses 'securing procedural changes from policy actors'. There is suggestive evidence of efforts to work with provincial authorities in Vietnam being effective in opening up dialogue with civil society, setting up partnerships between CSOs and government stakeholders in PRSP consultations and incorporating children as a crosscutting issue in the nationwide policy process.

The fourth stage of policy impact, 'affecting policy', includes achieving budget increases or adopting new legislation. The former is often more challenging, as it requires that child-focused ministries, which often have weak budget planning and negotiation skills, effectively lobby ministries of finance and economics for increased budget allocations.

The final stage includes the challenge of 'changing the behaviour of target actors', which is often the most time-intensive type of activity, given that it requires tackling frequently deeply engrained institutional practices and socio-cultural attitudes. A good example here is efforts to eradicate harmful traditional practices such as genital mutilation/cutting: many countries in West and Central Africa have passed legislation, for instance, but the practice remains widespread.

In sum, while knowledge translation initiatives have burgeoned over the past two decades in a variety of sectors, in both North and South, they appear to have been more effective in shaping policy agendas and securing discursive commitments from national and international decision makers than in impacting policy or behavioural changes. As argued in Box 5, lessons from gender mainstreaming initiatives suggest that, to effectively address the marginalisation and limited visibility of children and knowledge about children's rights within the international development community, efforts will need to pay particular attention to the following: tackling barriers related to institutional culture dynamics whereby child rights remain an 'add-on' rather than a central component of achieving better development outcomes; framing debates so that they resonate with broader development discourses; and encouraging more meaningful and strategic participation by children, young people and their advocates in policy initiatives.

5. Conclusions

This paper has provided an overview of the evolution of knowledge generation on children's rights and efforts to 'translate' this knowledge into accessible policy- and practice-related messages. While highlighting the considerable advancements made in our collective understanding of children, childhoods and children's rights over the past two decades and efforts to expand and deepen this knowledge base as well as its uptake into policy and practice arenas, the paper also underscores a number of important challenges. In order to strengthen the knowledge–policy–practice interface on children's rights, these will need to be tackled strategically and through coordination across sectors and researcher, policymaker and practitioner communities.

First, in terms of knowledge generation, while knowledge about children is central to any policy change, the power dynamics around knowledge cannot be denied. Positivist approaches aim at identifying 'objective truths' about the nature of childhood and the routes to child well-being (pursued by medical science, for example), but our review of the literature highlights that the observer's standpoint affects what is seen at every level. The ideas people themselves generate about childhood are as important in the views they hold as are 'objective' measures of the quality of life or research-based explanations of social phenomena. There is thus a complex, multidimensional and dynamic process involved in the construction of knowledge on child well-being, which involves the exercise of power, from the selection of important questions for investigation to the methodology used, the people involved and the selective use of available evidence. Different insights flow from the choices made and, in turn, often have important policy implications. As professionals, scientific objectivity and rigorous method allow us partially to overcome stereotypical observations and interpretation about childhoods; however, our own professional training and culture lend bias and, as anthropological insights on reflexivity show, our personal experience is undeniable in the way we take up and frame new information.

Knowledge about children is dependent on time and space, as well as particular disciplinary and epistemological traditions and perspectives. In the pursuit of data, we must be aware of the genesis of new knowledge. Clearly, empirical data employed across scientific and social scientific fields vary hugely in terms of methodological enquiry, from anthropological understandings of children's experiences through to econometric impact assessments. Nevertheless, such data are increasingly shared across disciplines. Incorporating historical perspectives into contemporary understandings of childhood well-being, for instance, leads not only to more nuanced policy approaches but also to a broader understanding of the underlying and hidden factors supporting policy choices. How disciplines, societies and individuals interpret childhood is clearly hugely variable and presents both considerable challenges as well as opportunities in monitoring child well-being. As this paper has discussed, a burgeoning array of monitoring initiatives have been undertaken, but there are still significant gaps that need to be addressed if we are to effectively promote an evidence-informed policy culture on child well-being.

Understanding the complexities of knowledge generation is an important first step in mapping the knowledge–policy interface on child well-being but equally important is an analysis of knowledge translation dynamics. As we have emphasised, very little critical analysis has been undertaken in this field, and accordingly this paper has provided a framework to think about opportunities and barriers for direct and indirect knowledge uptake as well as an initial mapping of some key factors.

The framework highlights the importance of power relations and political contexts in shaping knowledge translation opportunities, successes and failures. Here it is critical to understand the type and quality of governance, the focus of nation-building projects, civil society–state relations in the policy process as well as the relative influence of external actors, among other factors. Recognising that political activity around childhood needs to be facilitated from a macro level to prevent 'ghettoisation' of children's issues in only one or two social development sectors, our discussion has focused on

examples at the macro policy level, including the uptake of child well-being in PRSPs; the effect of the current global economic crisis on children and social protection policy responses; the broader aid environment and consideration of child well-being; and governance challenges in relation to the UNCRC in fragile states.

Making more of the potential synergies among the range of actors involved in the knowledge-to-policy process is also critical to address child rights. In this regard, there is increasing recognition of the vital importance of knowledge management, i.e. developing a strategic approach to capture and share tacit as well as codified forms of knowledge in order to promote accessibility of that knowledge among end-users. However, while there have been important advances in this field, including CRIN, DevInfo, Eldis and the IRC, knowledge management approaches in the field of child rights, especially in terms of breadth of geographical and thematic coverage, are still in a relatively fledgling state. This is particularly the case for university and international NGO knowledge generation efforts. Addressing these weaknesses will require coordinated and concerted action among actors across a range of sectors, institutions and contexts, if children are to become routinely integrated into key development policy debates, whether on the global financial crisis or on efforts to address threats to human security.

Similarly, knowledge translation initiatives – encompassing the actors, ideas and processes involved in transforming ideas and evidence related to child rights into policy- and practice-relevant concepts and recommendations – have burgeoned over the past two decades in a variety of sectors in both North and South, but appear to have been more effective in shaping policy agendas and securing discursive commitments from national and international decision makers than in impacting policy or behavioural changes. This said, stage theories on children's physiological and psychological development have held considerable sway over the design of social policy approaches and services in many contexts, while rights-based frameworks have led to the introduction of critical social equity measures, including birth registration campaigns and efforts to regulate harmful forms of child labour. By contrast, more recent and nuanced understandings of childhood emerging from the sociology of childhood school have had only limited policy purchase to date.

In short, in order to address the marginalisation and limited visibility of children and knowledge about children's rights within the international development community, particular attention will need to be paid to: tackling barriers related to institutional culture dynamics, whereby child rights remain an 'add-on' rather than a central component of achieving better development outcomes; framing debates so that they resonate with broader development discourses; and encouraging more meaningful and strategic participation in policy initiatives by children and young people. A more dynamic and proactive knowledge–policy–practice interface on child well-being will also necessitate greater investment in knowledge translation efforts that go beyond basic knowledge provision and focus on strategic promotion of that knowledge to target audiences at multiple levels, from the international to the local. This could include support, for instance, to knowledge hubs embedded within key government ministries (along the lines of the WHO's support to health policy research hubs in ministries of health in select developing countries to streamline the channelling of new research knowledge to policymakers but also to communicate demand for new knowledge to researcher and practitioner communities), or fostering knowledge networks linked to legislative committees (such as those established in Vietnam with the aim of strengthening the evidence base available to the legislative committees on economic and social affairs). Critically, such initiatives need to focus as much on improving knowledge production as on enhancing capacities of policy actors to effectively identify and articulate their demand for knowledge on child well-being and children's rights.

References

Adamson, P. (2008) 'The Child Care Transition: A League Table of Early Childhood Education and Care in Economically Advanced Countries'. Report Card 8. Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre: Florence.

Adolescent Development and Participation Unit (2009) 'Youth Participation in Poverty Reduction Strategies and National Development Plans. A Desk Study'. New York: UNICEF.

Ahmed, M. (2005) 'Bridging Research and Policy'. *Journal of International Development* 17(6): 765-773.

Alanen, L. and B. Mayall (2001) *Conceptualizing Child-Adult Relations*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Alston, P. (1987) 'The Nature of International Human Rights Discourse: The Case of the "New" Human Rights'. Conference on an Interdisciplinary Inquiry into the Content and Value of the So-Called 'New Human Rights'. Oxford, 29-31 May.

Alston, P. and J. Tobin (2005) 'Laying the Foundations for Children's Rights. An Independent Study of Some Key Legal and Institutional Aspects of the Impact of the Convention on the Rights of the Child'. Florence: IRC.

American Anthropological Association (1999) 'Declaration on Anthropology and Human Rights'. Adopted June 1999.

Beazley, H., S. Bessell, J. Ennew and R. Waterson (2009) 'The Right to Be Properly Researched: Research with Children in a Messy, Real World'. *Children's Geographies* 7(4): 365-378.

Becker, G.S. (1964) *Human Capital.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Becker, G.S. (1981) *A Treatise on the Family.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Behrman, J.R. (2007) 'Policy-Oriented Research Impact Assessment Case Study on the IFPRI and Mexican PROGRESA Anti-Poverty and Human Resource Investment Conditional Cash Transfer Program'. Washington, DC: IFPRI.

Ben-Arieh, A. (2006) 'Strong Foundations: Early Childhood Care and Education. Measuring and Monitoring the Well-Being of Young Children around the World'. Background Paper prepared for UNESCO (2007) *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007*. Paris: UNESCO.

Bell, C. and H. Gersbach (2009) 'Child Labour and the Education of a Society'. *Macroeconomic Dynamics* 13(2): 220-249.

Bolton, P. et al. (2007) 'Interventions for Depression Symptoms among Adolescent Survivors of War and Displacement in Northern Uganda: A Randomized Controlled Trial'. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 298(5): 519-527.

Boyden, J. (2003) 'Children under Fire: Challenging Assumptions about Children's Resilience'. *Children, Youth and Environments* 13(1).

Boyden, J. and D. Levison (2000) *Children as Economic and Social Actors in the Development Process*. Working Paper 2000:1. Stockholm: Ministry for Foreign Affairs.

Bradshaw, J., P. Hoelscher and D. Richardson (2006) 'Comparing Child Well-Being In OECD Countries: Concepts and Methods'. Florence: IRC.

Buergenthal, T. (1997) 'The Normative and Institutional Evolution of International Human Rights'. *Human Rights Quarterly* 19(4): 703-723.

Cairo Conference (2009) 'Child Poverty and Disparities: Public Policies for Social Justice' Conference'. Cairo, 19-20 January.

Chiappori, P., L. Haddad, J. Hoddinott and R. Kanbur (1993) *Unitary versus Collective Models of the Household. Time to Shift the Burden of Proof?* Policy Research Working Paper 1217. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Clay, E.J. and B.B. Schaffer (1984) *Room for Manoeuvre; An Exploration of Public Policy in. Agricultural and Rural Development*. London: Heineman Educational Books.

Cohen, M. (2004) 'Knowledge and the Gendered Curriculum: The Problematisation of Girls' Achievement'. *History and Policy* (December).

Conceição, P. and N. Kim (2009) *The Asymmetric Impact of Growth Fluctuation on Human Development: Evidence from Correlates of Growth Decelerations and Accelerations*. Working Paper. New York: UNDP/ODS.

Cook, H. (2003) 'No Turning Back: Family Forms and Sexual Mores in Modern Britain'. *History and Policy* (November).

Court, J. and J. Young (2006) 'Bridging Research and Policy in International Development: An Analytical and Practical Framework'. *Development in Practice* 16(1): 85-90.

Court, J., I. Hovland and J. Young (2005) *Bridging Research and Policy in Development: Evidence and the Change Process*. London: ITDG Publishing.

Culpeper, R. (2008) 'Research, Practitioners and the Public Good: Danger Signs'. 2008 ISA Conference. San Francisco, 26 March.

Department for International Development (2004) 'Evaluation of DFID Development Assistance: Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment. DFID's Experience of Gender Mainstreaming: 1995-2004'. London: DFID.

Dessy, S. and S. Pallage (2005) 'A Theory of the Worst Forms of Child Labour'. *The Economic Journal* 115(500): 68-87.

Duflo E. (2003) 'Grandmothers and Granddaughters: Old-Age Pension and Intra-Household Allocation in South Africa'. *Work Bank Economic Review* 17(1): 1-25.

Engsted-Maquet, I. and A.C. Guio (2008) 'Fighting Child Poverty in the European Union: How International Benchmarking Can Contribute to Awareness Raising and Enhance Delivery at EU and National Level'. Brussels: EC/IWEPS.

Escobal, J. (2007) 'Trade Liberalisation and Children. Understanding and Coping with Children's Vulnerabilities'. 2002 Focus brief on the World's Poor and Hungry People. Washington, DC: IFPRI.

Evans, T. (2006) 'Is It Futile to Try to Get Non-Resident Fathers to Maintain Their Children?' *History and Policy* (October).

Eyben, R. and S. Ladbury (2006) 'Implications for Aid Practice: Taking a Citizen's Perspective'. Citizenship DRC Synthesis Brief.

Ferguson, J., K. Mchombu and S. Cummings (2008) 'Meta-Review and Scoping Study of the Management of Knowledge for Development'. IKM Emergent Paper 1.

Fernando, J. (2001) 'Children's Rights: Beyond the Impasse'. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 575(1): 8-24.

Freeman, F., M. Barahona, A. Bonde, S. Forti, B. Mikkelsen and G. Salinas (2002) 'Country Report Nicaragua'. Sida's Support for the Promotion of Gender Equality in Partner Countries. Stockholm: Sida.

Friedman, J. and N. Schady (2009) *How Many More Infants are Likely to Die in Africa as a Result of the Global Financial Crisis?* Policy Research Working Paper 5023. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Hafner-Burton, E. and K. Tsutsui (2005) 'Human Rights in a Globalizing World: The Paradox of Empty Promises'. *American Journal of Sociology* 110(5): 1373-1411.

Harper, C. and N. Jones (2008) 'Why Are Children's Rights Invisible?' Opinion. London: ODI.

Harper, C. and N. Jones (2009a) 'Raising the Game: Mainstreaming Children's Rights'. London: ODI.

Harper, C. and N. Jones (2009b) 'Child Rights and Aid: Mutually Exclusive?' London: ODI.

Harper, C. and Jones, N. (2009c) 'Child Rights and Aid: Always Awkward Bed Fellows? Assessing the Visibility of Children's Rights in Donor Action'. London: ODI.

Harper, C., R. Marcus and K. Moore (2003) 'Enduring Poverty and the Conditions of Childhood: Life Course and Intergenerational Poverty Transmissions'. *World Development* 31(3): 535-555.

Harper, C., N. Jones and A. McKay (2009a) 'Including Children in Policy Responses to Economic Crises: Lessons from the Past and Policies for a Sustainable Future'. ODI and UNICEF Synthesis Conference Paper.

Harper, C., N. Jones, J. Espey, N. Patrick, P. Pereznieto and D. Walker (2009b) *EC Toolkit on Child Rights: Child Rights in Poverty Reduction Strategy Processes: Desk Review*. New York: UNICEF.

Hathaway, O. (2002) 'Do Human Rights Treaties Make a Difference?' *Yale Law Journal* 111(8): 1935-2042.

Hashim I. (2005) 'Exploring the Linkages between Children's Independent Migration and Education: Evidence from Ghana'. Brighton: Sussex Centre for Migration Research.

Hearn S. and White, N. (2009) 'Communities of Practice: Linking Knowledge, Policy and Practice'. Background Paper. London: ODI.

Heidel, K. (2005) 'Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers: Children First! A Case Study on PRSP Processes in Ethiopia, Kenya and Zambia from a Child Rights Perspective'. Duisburg: KNH.

Holmes, R. and T. Braunholtz-Speight (2009) 'Strengthening Social Protection For Children: West and Central Africa'. Regional Thematic Report for UNICEF Regional Office for West and Central Africa.

Hossain, N. et al. (2009) 'Accounts of Crisis: Poor People's Experiences of the Food, Fuel and Financial Crises in Five Countries'. Report on a pilot study in Bangladesh, Indonesia, Jamaica, Kenya and Zambia, January-March 2009. Brighton: IDS.

Hovland, I. (2003) *Knowledge Management and Organisational Learning: An International Development Perspective. An Annotated Bibliography*. Working Paper 224. London: ODI.

Jacquemin, M. (2006) 'Can the Language of Rights Get Hold of the Complex Realities of Child Domestic Work? The Case of Young Domestic Workers in Abidjan, Ivory Coast'. *Childhood: A Global Journal of Child Research* 13(3): 389-406.

James, A. and A. James (1999) 'Pump up the Volume. Listening to Children in Separation and Divorce'. *Childhood: A Global Journal of Child Research* 6(2): 189-206.

James, A. and A. Prout (1990) *Constructing and Reconstructing Childhood: Contemporary Issues in the Sociological Study of Childhood*. London: The Falmer Press.

Jefferess, D. (2002) 'Neither Seen Nor Heard: The Idea of the "Child" as Impediment to the Rights of Children'. *Topia: A Canadian Journal of Cultural Studies* 7 (Spring): 75-97.

Jones, N. (2008) 'Civil Society Organisations and Legislators. Policy Engagement in East and Southern Africa'. In *Capacity.org*. Research, Policy and Practice 35 (December).

Jones, N. (2009) 'Child Protection and Social Protection Systems in West and Central Africa'. Regional Thematic Report for UNICEF Regional Office for West and Central Africa.

Jones, N. and H. Marsden (2009) 'Assessing the Impacts of and Policy Responses to the 1997-1998 Asian Financial Crisis through a Child Rights Lens'. Report commissioned by UNICEF.

Jones, N. and J. Pomares (forthcoming) 'Evidence-Based Policy Processes: A Systematic Review of the Knowledge–Policy Interface across Policy Areas'. Working Paper. London: ODI.

Jones N. and A. Sumner (2007) *Does Mixed Methods Research Matter to Understanding Childhood Well-Being?* Working Paper 39. Bath: University of Bath.

Jones, N. and A. Sumner (2009) 'How, When and Why does Child Research Influence Policy (or Not?)' Conference on Child Poverty and Disparities: Public Policies for Social Justice. Cairo, 19-20 January.

Jones, N. and E. Villar (2008) *Situating Children in International Development Policy: Challenges Involved in Successful Evidence-Informed Policy Influencing*. Bristol: Policy Press, University of Bristol.

Jones, N. and J. Young (2007) 'Setting the Scene: Situating DFID's Research Funding Policy and Practice in an International Comparative Perspective'. Scoping Study commissioned by DFID Central Research Department.

Jones, N., A. Datta and H. Jones (2009a) 'Knowledge, Policy and Power. Six Dimensions of the Knowledge–Development Policy Interface'. London: ODI.

Jones, N., H. Jones, S. Steer and A. Datta (2009b) *Improving Impact Evaluation Production and Use.* Working Paper 300. London: ODI.

Kabeer, N. (2003) 'Mainstreaming Gender Equality in Poverty Eradication and the MDGs'. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

Keck, M. and K. Sikkink (1998) *Activists Beyond Borders: Advocacy Networks in International Politics*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Keller, B., B. Mikkelsen and T. Freeman, S. Possing, K. Schoeman and R.-P. Pethu Serote (2002) 'Country Report South Africa'. Sida's Support for the Promotion of Gender Equality in Partner Countries. Stockholm: Sida.

Khan, A. (2001) *Managing Flows of Information in the Child Rights Community*. London: CRIN.

Lansdown, G. (2005) 'The Evolving Capacities of the Child'. Insight 05/18. Florence: IRC.

Laws, S., C. Harper and R. Marcus (2003) *Research for Development, A Practical Guide*. London: Sage.

Levison, D. (2000) 'Children as Economic Agents'. *Feminist Economics* 6(1): 125-134.

Lindquist, E.A. (2001) *Discerning Policy Influence: Framework for a Strategic Evaluation of IDRC-Supported Research*. Ottawa: IDRC.

Macdonald, C.M. (2008) 'The Fragile State of Evidence: The Role of Evidence in the Policy Processes of Fragile States and Donor Engagement Strategies with Fragile States'. Master's Thesis, Department of War Studies, Kings College, London.

Marcus, R. (2009) 'Transition to a Market Economy and Children's Rights: Kyrgyzstan in Regional perspective'. London: ODI.

Massesa, J.W. (2004) 'Children and Poverty: What Children and Young People are Saying about Poverty in Tanzania: An Overview Report on their Issues in Tanzania'. Tanzania: TMC.

Mayall, B. (2000) 'The Sociology of Childhood in Relation to Children's Rights', *The International Journal of Children's Rights* 8(3): 243-259.

Mendizabal, E. (2006) *Building Effective Research Policy Networks: Linking Function and Form*. Working Paper 276. London: ODI.

Mikkelsen, B., T. Freeman, M. Huda, S. Leowinatha and J. Rahman (2002) 'Country Report Bangladesh'. Sida's Support for the Promotion of Gender Equality in Partner Countries. Stockholm: Sida.

Mincer, J. (1974) *Schooling, Experience, and Earnings.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Minujin, A., E. Delamonica, A. Davidziuk and E.D. Gonzalez (2006) 'The Definition of Child Poverty: A Discussion of Concepts and Measurements'. *Environment and Urbanization* 18(2): 481-500.

Morrow, V. (2006) 'Understanding Gender Differences in Context: Implications for Young Children's Everyday Lives'. *Children and Society* 20(2): 92-104.

Morrow, V. and P. Connolly (2006) 'Editorial'. *Children and Society* 20(2): 87-91.

Mosley, H. and L. Chen (1984) 'An Analytical Framework for the Study of Child Survival in Developing Countries'. *Population and Development Review* 10(Suppl.): 25-45.

Muralidharan, K. and V. Sundararaman (2008) *Teacher Performance Pay: Experimental Evidence from India*. Working Paper. Nashville: National Center on Performance Incentives.

Nash, R., A. Hudson and C. Luttrell (2006) 'Mapping Political Context. A Toolkit for Civil Society Organisations'. London: ODI.

National Centre for Children in Poverty (2000) 'Child Poverty in the States: Levels and Trends from 1979 to 1998'. Childhood Poverty Research Brief 2. New York: NCCP.

National Children's Office (2005) 'The Development of a National Set of Child Well-Being Indicators'. Dublin: NCO.

Newell, P. and D. Tussie (2006) *Civil Society Participation in Trade Policy-making in Latin America: Lessons and Reflections*. Working Paper 267. Brighton: IDS.
Nguyen, T., M.H. Nguyen and T.L. Pham (forthcoming) 'Fostering the Right to Participation: Children's Involvement in Vietnam's Poverty Reduction Policy Process'. *Children's Geographies*.
Nutt, T. (2006) 'The Child Support Agency and the Old Poor Law'. *History and Policy* (October).
O'Malley, K. (2004) 'Children and Young People Participating in PRSP Processes: Lessons from Save the Children's Experience'. London: Save the Children.
Peck, S. (1987) *The Different Drum: Community Making and Peace*. New York: Simon & Shuster.
Pham, T.L. and N. Jones (2005) *The Ethics of Research Reciprocity: Making Children's Voices Heard in Poverty Reduction Policy-Making in Vietnam*. Young Lives Working Paper 15. London: Save the Children UK.
Pratham (2007) 'MDG to the People: The PAHELI Experience'. Human Development Toolkit and Report Cards. Mumbai: Prathan.
Prout, A. (2004) *The Future of Childhood. Towards the Interdisciplinary Study of Children*. Abingdon: RoutledgeFalmer.
Rahman, M., R. Khanam and N. Absar (1999) 'Child Labor in Bangladesh: A Critical Appraisal of Harkin's Bill and the MOU-Type Schooling Program'. *Journal of Economic Issues* 33(4): 985-1003.
Ramalingam, B. (2005) 'The Knowledge and Learning Toolkit'. London: ODI.
Ranjan, P. (1999) 'An Economic Analysis of Child Labor'. *Economics Letters* 64(1): 99-105.
Ravallion, M. and Q. Wodon (2000) 'Does Child Labour Displace Schooling? Evidence on Behavioural Responses to an Enrollment Subsidy'. *The Economic Journal* 110(462): C158-C175.
Ray, R. (2000) 'Child Labors, Child Schooling, and Their Interaction with Adult Labor: Empirical Evidence for Peru and Pakistan'. *World Bank Economic Review* 14(2): 347-367.
Reynolds, S. (2008) *Complexities of Colombian Families: Intergenerational Intrahousehold Bargaining*. Working Paper. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
Rigby, M. and L. Kohler (2002) 'Child Health Indicators of Life and Development (CHILD)'. Report to the EC.
Rossel-Cambier, K., T. Olsen and N. Pourzand (2007) 'Investing in Knowledge for Evidence-Based Social Policies for Children: Two Case Studies of Knowledge Dissemination Initiatives in the Eastern Caribbean'. *Knowledge Management for Development Journal* 3(2-3): 74-84.
Saunders, B. and C. Goddard (2001) 'The Textual Abuse of Childhood in the English-Speaking World: The Contribution of Language to the Denial of Children's Rights'. *Childhood: A Global Journal of Child Research* 8(4): 443-462.
Schultz, T. (1971) *Investment in Human Capital: The Role of Education and of Research.* New York: Free Press.
Scoones, I., M. Leach and K. Cockburn (2006) 'Science and Citizens: Global and Local Voices'. Policy Briefing. Brighton: IDS.
Sheldon, N. (2009) 'Tackling Truancy: Why Have the Millions Invested Not Paid Off?' *History and Policy* (February).
Stein, R. and D. Jessop (1982) 'A Non Categorical Approach to Chronic Childhood Illness'. *Public Health Reports* 97(4): 354-362.
Stone, D. (2004) 'Transfer Agents and Global Networks in the "Transnationalisation" of Policy'. *Journal of European Public Policy* 11(3): 545-566.
Stone, D. (2008) *Transnational Philanthropy, Policy Transfer Networks and the Open Society Institute*. Working Paper 41/08. Coventry: GARNET.
Szreter, S. (2007) 'The Right of Registration: Development, Identity Registration and Social Security'. *World Development* 35(1): 67-86.
Talisayon, S. (2009) 'Monitoring and Evaluation in Knowledge Management for Development'. IKM Emergent Paper 3.
Thane, P. (2002) 'The Work-Life Balance in an Ageing Society'. *History and Policy* (May).
Theis, J. (1996) 'Children and Participatory Appraisals: Experiences from Vietnam'. PLA Notes 25: 70-72.
Thomas, N. (2009) *Children, Politics and Communication. Participation at the Margins*. Bristol: Policy Press, University of Bristol.
UN (2006a) 'Report of the Independent Expert for the United Nations Study on Violence against Children'. Secretary-General A/61/299.
UN (2006b) 'Study on Violence against Children'. Independent Expert for the Secretary-General. New York and Geneva: UN.
UN Children's Fund (2005a) *Childhood under Threat. The State of the World's Children*. New York: UNICEF.
UN Children's Fund (2005b) 'Evaluation of the IRC'. Florence: IRC.
UN Children's Fund (2005c) 'The UNICEF Medium-Term Strategic Plan, 2006-2009. Investing in Children: The UNICEF Contribution to Poverty Reduction and the Millennium Summit Agenda'. Florence: IRC.
UN Children's Fund (2005d) 'Progress Report and Proposed Activities for 2006-2008'. New York: UNICEF.

UN Children's Fund (2007) 'Report Card 7. An Overview of Child Well-Being in Rich Countries. A Comprehensive Assessment of the Lives and Well-Being of Children and Adolescents in the Economically Advanced Nations'. Florence: IRC.

UN Children's Fund (2008) 'Releasing Declining Numbers for Child Mortality, UNICEF Calls for Increased Efforts to Save Children's Lives'. Press Release.

UN Children's Fund (2009a) 'Progress and Achievements against the Medium-Term Strategic Plan'. Annual Report of the Executive Director, Executive Board Annual Session, 8-10 June.

UN Children's Fund (2009b) 'Innocenti Social Monitor 2009. Child Well-Being at a Crossroads: Evolving Challenges in CEE and the CIS'. Florence: IRC.

UN Development Program (2006) 'Evaluations of Gender Mainstreaming in UNDP'. Evaluation Office. New York: UNDP.

UN Economic and Social Council (2003) *Putting Gender Mainstreaming into Practice*. New York: UN ECOSOC.

Vasquez, E. (2004) *Los Niños Primero? Cuanto Invirtio el Estado Peruano en Niños, Niñas y Adolecentes de 2001 a 2003*. Santiago: Save the Children Sweden and Universidad del Pacifico.

Wells, K. (2009) *Childhood in a Global Perspective*. London: Polity Press.

Williams, E. (2004) 'Children's Participation and Policy Change in South Asia'. Report 6. London: CHIP.

Wills, A. (2007) 'Historical Myth-Making in Juvenile Justice Policy'. *History and Policy* (July).

White, S. (2002) 'Being, Becoming and Relationship. Conceptual Challenges of a Child Rights Approach in Development'. *Journal of International Development* 14(8): 1095-1104.s

Woldehanna, T., N. Jones and B. Tefera (2008) 'The Invisibility of Children's Paid and Unpaid Work: Implications for Ethiopia's National Poverty Reduction Policy'. *Childhood* 15(2): 177-201.

Wood, D. (1988) *How Children Think and Learn: The Social Contexts of Cognitive Development.* Cambridge, MA and Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing.

World Health Organization (2007) *Engaging Men and Boys in Changing Gender-Based Inequity in Health: Evidence from Programme Interventions.* Geneva: WHO.

Young. J. (2008) 'Impact of Research on Policy and Practice. Working with Complexity.' *Capacity.org* 2008. Research, Policy and Practice 35 (December).

Appendix 1: Towards the development of a high-quality actionable outcome conference document

What insights can be gained from an analysis of the outcome documents from relevant international conferences in terms of ensuring a high quality, easily accessible outcome document?

The general success of a conference is a function of a number of variables. While some of these are not easily measurable, such as the achievement of its objectives and the quality of its participation, the fact that steps and actions have taken place or not as a follow-up to the conference is less contestable. If the existence of follow up actions represents a good proxy for the success of a conference, the documents produced by the conference, which realistically include the directions for future action, become a key aspect worth investing in and analyzing.

The role played by documents in the uptake of key messages conveyed in a conference becomes especially important when the conference aims at developing a knowledge base and a research agenda for the realization of child rights (as with the case of the upcoming conference "Children's Rights at a Cross-Roads"). But the challenges are considerable considering the widely recognized complexities of the knowledge-policy interface. Given the non-linear and highly context-specific nature of the policy process, knowledge translation aiming at evidence-informed policy and practice depends on a variety of different factors and requires a strategic approach (Jones et al., 2009). Within this context, framing and communicating key messages from a conference emerges as an important element of the overall efficacy of the event (Mendizabal and Young, 2009).

When looking at the outputs produced by international conferences on child-related issues there seems to be a confusing range of different documents, from general conference reports (e.g. 2009 Report on the International Girl Child; 2005 Report on the East Asia and Pacific Regional Consultation on Violence Against Children; 2005 Report on the Europe and Central Asia Regional Consultation on Violence Against Children), to mere "declarations" (2005 Bethlehem Declaration), to papers and presentations presented by participants on the occasion of the conference (as for the four UNICEF-GPIA conferences), and a relatively limited number of 'outcome documents' defined as such. Indeed, only approximately half of the conferences analyzed (see table in appendix) have produced documents that are defined as 'outcomes' (i.e. the "Rio Outcome Document" (2008), the outcome document from the conference on "Children, torture and other forms of violence" (2001) and the outcome documents of the "International Conference on War-affected Children" (2000)).

Outcome documents can be stand-alone papers (as the Rio Declaration) or can alternatively be included as a section, annex or appendix of a more general conference summary report (as the Report on the International Girl Child Conference (The Hague, March 2009) or the outcome document of the 2000 International Conference on War-affected Children in Canada). They can consist in relatively short documents (18 pages for the Rio Declaration) or much longer papers (56 pages for the outcome document from the 2001 conference on Children, torture and other forms of violence in Finland). They can be available as a html page on the internet and downloadable as a pdf document only when searching for the specific document on the web (Yokohama Global Commitment) or they can alternatively be easily accessible and downloadable in word or pdf format from the website of the conference as well as by searching for the specific document on the web (Rio Declaration). The fact that the outputs of a conference are only accessible in the form of a html page evidently hampers the readability of the document, the possibility of retrieving the information easily in the future and thus the sustainability of its messages. Furthermore, the lack of a website specifically designed for the conference as a platform for exchanging information, opinions and updates following the event, seems to further worsen the sustainability of the conference messages (within the sample of child-related conferences analyzed, 4 have a related website).

It is worth pointing out that merely defining a document as an 'outcome' seems no guarantee for the take up of its messages. In our sample of child-related conferences analyzed, only 3 conferences

present evidence that follow up actions have indeed taken place: the Yokohama Global Commitment found follow up in the Third World Congress against the Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents (Rio de Janeiro 2008), the Rio Declaration was followed up (partly) by a conference on related issues that took place in Strasbourg ("Council of Europe Platform on Children's Rights", Launching Conference June 2009) and specific actions have followed the International Girl Child Conference that recently took place in the Hague (specifically, the appointment of a UN Special Representative on Violence against Children, monitoring initiatives of participants' efforts in implementing the conference and a follow-up conference in November 2009). It is interesting to note how two of these conferences presenting follow up actions are linked to one another, suggesting the existence of positive returns to follow ups, with the occurrence of one increasing the likelihood of the next. Although the objective of the Strasbourg conference was to agree on a strategic vision to prevent and address violence against children in Europe - and was not focused exclusively on the Rio follow up - it did encompass efforts specifically aimed at creating a more informed environment for the implementation of the Rio Outcome Document. Along these lines, it suggested a number of possible follow-up actions for a "European Agenda for Action", though these have not been formalized into a conference outcome document, nor do they consist in a set of clear indications for the Council of Europe.

Building on the sample of documents analyzed, the following key features have been identified as a possible guideline for the development of future outcome documents:

1. *Definition*: The documents are clearly defined as 'outcomes' of the conference

2. *Context*: They can be downloaded as pdf documents from the conference website designed ad-hoc

3. *Type*: They consist in independent, stand-alone papers and are not only part or sections of general conference reports

4. *Title*: They have a name that distinguishes them and is easily recallable (e.g. "The Rio Declaration", "The Yokohama Global Commitment", "The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action")

5. *Length*: They are relatively short documents with a limited number of pages (not over 20 pages)

6. *Form*: They convey the message of the conference in the form of participants' intentions (i.e. "we") and in numbered and/or bullet points divided in a set of sub-sections

In addition to these five variables, a sixth aspect - the *structure* of the document - is worth considering. While most conference papers present a set of recommendations and a call for action to governments and other actors, outcome documents in particular stand out in the sense that they present a more structured arrangement. Drawing from the sample of papers analyzed, the following can be suggested as a tentative plan for the outline of an effective outcome document:

a) Preamble or a presentation of the conference issues including the number and the characteristics of participants and a general statement of its objectives (e.g. "*We, participants at... representing governments, inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations... have gathered today to...")*

b) Review of progress or an assessment of the major developments/achievements since the previous related conference(s) (e.g. "*We welcome the progress achieved.."* in numbered/bullet points). These are usually not classified into specific achievements but consist in a general list of items. They can include 'local' achievements such as small-scale regional consultations and seminars that have lead to the conference or the international-level events such as the ratification of specific international instruments, the adoption of legislative measures, the development of national plans and multilateral agreements, or ideally improved child-related indicators.

c) Review of challenges or a presentation of the scope of the issue including reference to existing challenges and concerns (e.g. "*We note particular challenges and concerns..."* in numbered/bullet

points). Again, the classification of challenges into sub-sections does not seem necessary at this point since the objective of sections b) and c) should realistically be presenting the broad picture of the issue at stake. The challenges presented in the Rio Declaration, for instance, are not categorized into topics and they consist of very general observations. The Declaration refers to broad issues such as the "lack of *adequate* resources" hampering law enforcement, "*insufficient focus* on measures to eliminate demand for sex with children", *inconsistent* incorporation of children's views in national legislation or "lack of *reliable* data" and to vague remedies such as "a *more coherent* framework for *effective* actions" or the need for "all *feasible* measures" to assure "all *appropriate* assistance to child victims". While the qualification of these issues - for instance the concepts of 'appropriateness' or 'sufficiency' - remains an open matter, such generality is somewhat compensated by the following sections of the document, where actions are indeed organized into major themes and are described in more detail

d) Declaration/Commitment or participants' promises clearly spelt out (e.g. "*We will be guided…We recognize…We welcome…We will support…We will strengthen…We encourage"* in numbered or bullet points). This section should consist of a "manifesto" of the conference. It should include a formal re-affirmation of commitments of previous relevant international conferences and should go hand in hand with the following section (e) with regard to the extent to which it highlights participants' determination to ensure successful implementation of the recommended action points. The Beijing Declaration, for instance, explicitly refers to the 1985 Nairobi conference and its forward-looking strategies. Similarly, the Rio Declaration makes explicit reference to the recognition and the endorsement of international frameworks such as the MDGs, the recommendations of the UN study against Children, the ILO's Global Action Plan and the recommendations of the Adolescent Declaration to End Sexual Exploitation. While this section can include very general statements (e.g. "we are determined to promote women's economic independence" – Beijing Declaration), even at the expense of appearing over-ambitious (e.g. "eradicate all customary and traditional practices that constitute violence against children" – Tampere Declaration), the inclusion of specific recommendations at this stage of the document outline can turn out to be redundant, given the specificity of the following section. For instance, the Tampere Declaration's (2001) specific suggestion to appoint a Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Children in this part of the document creates confusion to the reader. Jones and Villar's 2008 (drawing on Keck and Sikkink's 1998 work on transnational activism) categorisation of the possible impacts of evidence-based policy provides a useful framework for understanding which types of recommendations are more suitable for this section. Recommendations that can be pinned down to "framing debates" or "changing the behaviour of key actors" seem appropriate here, leaving more specific ones to the following section on calls for action (see table 1).

e) Call for action: this is arguably the most important part of an outcome document as it outlines a number of action points that the participants of the conference direct to State parties and other relevant partners such as the UN, civil society and the media, often grouped per specific topic or per geographical area (e.g. *"We call upon States and…to…*"). Our review of a sample of child- and gender-related conferences highlights the presence of a wide range of recommendations. Although this section is often used to present recommendations that are still relatively general in nature (as in the previous section), such as acknowledging the role of education in preventing domestic violence (International Girl Child Conference 2009), conducting educational and awareness raising campaigns to improve the understanding of an exploitative use of the internet (Rio Declaration 2008) or eliminating trafficking in women (Beijing +5), the call for action should reflect the central steps of Jones and Villar's classification (see table 1) and indeed a large portion of action points across conference outcomes are classified within these three specific categories. "Encouraging discursive commitments from states and relevant policy actors" includes involving religious leaders in honour-related violations (International Girl Child Conference 2009) or strengthening political commitment to close the gender gap in primary and secondary education (Beijing+5). "Securing procedural changes at the international and domestic level" encompasses encouraging community involvement to stop the practice of early marriage (International Girl Child Conference 2009),

strengthening international cooperation through arrangements for the prevention, detection and prosecution of sexual abuse against children (Rio Declaration 2008) or increasing the participation of women in conflict resolution at decision making levels (BPfA 1995). Examples of "affecting policy" include increasing the number of specialists on domestic violence within governments (IGCC 2009), criminalizing the production, distribution and possession of child pornography (Rio Declaration 2008) or adapting environmental and agricultural policies to incorporate a gender perspective (BPfA 1995) (see table 1 for further examples).

While the lack of specification as to who the action should be undertaken by might not always be critical (as in cases in which the type of action is limited to a specific context and the actors involved are thus easily identifiable e.g. recommendations vis-à-vis legislative measures), in other cases a higher degree of definition as to who should realistically be included in accomplishing the action could be important in facilitating actual implementation. Moreover, the lack of a sense of urgency expressed in most recommendations raises the question as to whether the inclusion of concrete deadlines could enhance the likelihood of their take up.

f) Follow up or practical steps for promoting effective implementation of the call for action. Despite the recognition of the importance of monitoring and evaluating progress across outcome documents, there is a general dearth of suggestions in this regard. The Rio Declaration, for instance, identifies a very limited set of qualitative actions encompassing (1) general biennial reporting on the measures taken at the national level for the implementation of the declaration (2) support to human rights bodies at the international level so as to maintain awareness about the Declaration and (3) call upon the private sector to join the UN Global Compact and communicate its progress in the field. Similarly, the International Conference on the Girl Child only scheduled a follow-up event to the conference in November 2009. The Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) was relatively more focused on follow up efforts, identifying a number of institutional and financial arrangements (at the national, regional and international level) for securing the conditions that would be necessary for implementing the objectives of the document. The former include a range of actions such as promoting public awareness of the document through the mass media and public education or developing governmental plans of action and the latter include allocating grants and loans of international financial institutions to programmes specifically aimed at implementing the BPfA. However, there is virtually no reference to measurable nor time-bound indicators, nor a statement about the extent to which (or the process through which) the resources to ensure implementation and monitoring and evaluation will be secured.

While further suggestions as to the possible ways for moving from mere recommendations to tangible achievements would be useful (thus avoiding that a conference remains a mere 'talk-shop'), the lack of specific and quantitative indicators offered by conference outcomes documents should not over-concern. Indeed, it has been argued that the greater focus on outcomes produced by the series of international conferences that have taken place over the last decade has lead to an excessive demand for indicators which often cannot be satisfied by national statistical systems in the short term (Schweinfest 2001). Rather than risking that such pressure for information raises issues of data quality and inconsistencies, it seems important to consider whether the use of indicators is realistic at all, and eventually, agree on a limited number of indicators which are (i) technically sound (ii) understandable (iii) relevant and (iv) cost-effective ("TURC test") (DeVries 2000). This is particularly relevant in the context of child-related conferences given the existing challenges that exist in collecting and analysing child-sensitive data worldwide.

Examples of recommendations from conference outcome documents (classified according to Jones and Villar's 2008 framework)

Nature of recommendations					
	(1) Framing debates/agenda setting *(General Recommendations* *Suitable for section d)*	(2) Encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors *(Less General recommendations suitable for section e)*	(3) Securing procedural changes at the international and domestic level *(Specific Recommendations* *suitable for section e)*	(4) Affecting policy *(Less General recommendations suitable for section e)*	(5) Changing the behaviour of key actors *(General Recommendations* *suitable for section d)*
Child-related conferences					
International Girl Child Conference (9-10 March 2009, The Hague, The Netherlands)	Scheduling of a follow-up event for presenting the overall results of the conference	Invite the Special Representative on VAC to address girls' societal position asap; emphasize child participation in preventing and addressing violence against girls	The development of community-based approaches to solve problems; child help lines; inter-agency cooperation; multi-stakeholder partnerships in combating violence; maintaining website conference for info sharing	Appointment of the Special Representative on VAC	
	CHILD ABUSE: urge preventing and combating child abuse PARENTING: Make parenting a mainstream issue DOMESTIC VIOLENCE: acknowledging role of education in prevention EARLY MARRIAGE: recommend abandonment of practice	DOMESTIC VIOLENCE: government exchange of info and experiences HONOUR-RELATED VIOLENCE: involve religious leaders in violations SON PREFERENCE: encourage new interpretations of laws for redefining the concept of the family	CHILD ABUSE: government monitoring through specific targets and indicators; equip communities to solve the problem PARENTING: Set up an international rating system to compare successful policies in different countries; extend UN database on VAW with info on VAC GIRLS AND INTERNET: support research on key protective factors and on the involvement of children; DOMESTIC VIOLENCE: invest in parental participation FGM: facilitate bridges between communities (of origin and diaspora); collect disaggregated and reliable data	GIRLS AND INTERNET: removal of abusive websites from internet service providers DOMESTIC VIOLENCE: increase number of specialists within government EARLY MARRIAGE: promote passage and implementation of legislation (i.e. ensuring consent, registration at birth, age of marriage, criminalizing issue) HONOUR-RELATED VIOLENCE: abolish legal provisions treating human rights violations not strictly SON PREFERENCE: amend laws that discriminate against girls; make the education system more gender-sensitive	

			EARLY MARRIAGE: encourage community involvement to stop practice HONOUR-RELATED VIOLENCE: systematic collection of disaggregated data at national and community levels SON PREFERENCE: encourage interaction among actors for equality advocacy; encourage reconceptualisation of accepted norms of femininity (through film making, theatre etc.)		
World Congress III against the Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents (25-28 November 2008, Rio de Janeiro)	Conduct educational and awareness raising campaigns to improve understanding of exploitative use of the internet Encourage the involvement of the private sector in preventing sexual exploitation of children through corporate social responsibility initiatives	Call upon IFIs to review PRSs with a view to counteract negative effects on children and their families; Human Rights Council to ensure that Universal Periodic Review process includes examination of state's obligations towards children	Mobilize communities to engage them in dialogue and in planning and monitoring strategies Strengthen international cooperation through arrangements for the prevention, detection and prosecution of offenders	Continue work towards ratification of international and regional instruments Criminalize the production, distribution and possession of child pornography Encourage adoption of professional codes of conduct for the protection of children from sexual exploitation in tourism Take legislative measures to ensure appointment of a guardian for every unaccompanied child and registration system of all trafficked children Establish special gender sensitive/child desks units within police forces Develop National action plans on sexual exploitation of children Establish by 2013 children's ombudspersons/focal points in children's rights institutions	

2nd World Congress against commercial sexual exploitation of children (Yokohama December 2001)	Reiterate the importance of implementing the UNCRC		Collect gender-disaggregated data; networking among key actors to combat commercial exploitation	Encourage early ratification of relevant international instruments; commit to developing national agendas, designate focal points; criminalize commercial exploitation of children in all forms	
Gender conferences					
Beijing Platform for Action (examples of strategic objectives illustrated here, not the actions to be taken)	Promote and protect the rights of the girl child and increase awareness of her needs and potential		Increase the participation of women in conflict resolution at decision making levels	Review, adopt and maintain macro policies and development strategies that address the needs and efforts of women in poverty Allocate sufficient resources for and monitor the implementation of educational reforms	Provide women with access to savings and credit mechanisms and institutions Eradicate illiteracy among women Increase women's access to appropriate, affordable and quality healthcare Eliminate trafficking in women
Beijing+5 (examples of actions and initiatives)		Strengthen political commitment to close the gender gap in primary and secondary education	Use of targets including quotas to promote gender balance in all areas of public life Encourage collaboration among governments, NGOs, community leaders etc. for the protection of all human rights of women and girls	Adapt environmental and agricultural policies to incorporate a gender perspective Ensure reduction of maternal mortality is a health sector priority Adopt, review and revise health legislation	

Sample of international conference documents analysed

A. Conference	B. Available Document(s)	C. Structure/Content of document	D. Evidence of follow up to document
4th World Conference on Women (Beijing 1995)	Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA)	• Beijing Declaration (commitment to implement the BPfA) • Platform for Action: a. Mission Statement b. Global framework (contextualizes Beijing in relation to other previous conferences and presents issue and major happenings) c. 12 Critical areas of concern d. Strategic objectives and actions to be taken by specific actors (governments, IFIs, NGOs) e. Institutional arrangements (national, regional, international level) f. Financial arrangements (national, regional, international level)	Beijing + 5, Beijing + 10
Beijing + 5 (November 2000)	Further actions and initiatives to implement the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action	• Introduction • Achievements and obstacles in implementing the 12 areas of concern • Current challenges affecting full implementation of the BD and BPfA • Actions and initiatives to overcome obstacles and achieve full implementation (by governments, by private sector, NGOs, civil society, by UN and international organisations etc.)	
International Girl Child Conference (9-10 March 2009, The Hague, The Netherlands)	Report on the International Girl Child Conference	• Recommendations of participants/Outcomes of the conference (4 pages): - In general: urge the appointment of the UN Special Representative on violence against children asap; recognize community's role in addressing the issue etc - Specifically (per 8 sub-themes i.e. child abuse, parenting, girls and the internet, domestic violence, FGM, forced and early marriage, honour-related violence, son preference) • Literature on conference themes • Justification of conference theme (overview of previous related conferences) • Conceptual background on meaning of childhood, girls etc • Outcomes of the 8 thematic workshops (summary, case studies, discussions and recommendations) • Setting the context of the conference which is a follow up to the 2006 UN study in violence against children • Conclusions and next steps	• Appointment of the first UN Special Representative On Violence Against Children in May 2009 • Survey sent to participants for monitoring i.e. asks major recommendations taken to heart or implemented etc and results will be published on website • Conference scheduled for November 2009 for highlighting achievements
World Congress III against the Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents (25-28 November 2008, Rio de Janeiro)	Rio **Outcome Document** (also called The Rio Declaration and Call for Action to prevent and stop sexual exploitation of children and adolescents) – 18pgs	o Preamble on objectives of conference, concerns regarding current state of the issue, recognition of international frameworks o Review of progress/challenges since previous related conference (including ratification of international instruments, adoption of legislative measures, development of national plans, multilateral agreements and remaining challenges/concerns related to identifying vulnerable children, coordinating action, enforcing law, child participation, lack of resources, lack of reliable disaggregated data etc) o Declaration from participants: highlighting future cooperation efforts etc o Call for Action (in numbered points): participants call on states to act vis-à-vis a number of frameworks: a) International and regional instruments (ratification) b) Forms of sexual exploitation (Child pornography and online abuse images, Sexual exploitation of children in prostitution and in tourism, Trafficking and sexual exploitation) c) Legal framework and enforcement of law	Possible follow-up actions to the Rio Declaration have been identified at the conference in Strasbourg (2/3 June 2009). See paper "Third World Congress on Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents: Some Thoughts about a European Follow-up." (Prof. Jaap E. Doek)

		d) Integrated cross-sectional policies and national plans of action e) International Cooperation f) Social responsibility initiatives g) Monitoring o Follow-up	
Ombudswork For Children (Athens, 29-30 September 2006)	Statement of the conference and Conclusions https://wcd.coe.int/ViewDoc.jsp?id=1183245&Site=COE&BackColorInternet=99B5AD&BackColorIntranet=FABF45&BackColorLogged=FFC679	Summary of conference	
Kids Behind Bars – A child rights perspective (Bethlehem, June 2005)	Bethlehem Declaration	o General statement recalling issue, dissonance between international framework and national policies, consequences of issue o Call for Government Action (i.e. to refrain from specific actions/encourage others) o Call for action to other partners (UN, NGO/civil society, media)	
East Asia and Pacific Regional Consultation on Violence Against Children (Bangkok from 11 to 16 June 2005)	Report on the East Asia and Pacific Regional Consultation on Violence Against Children (concluding statement and set of recommendations are part of the report)	o Concluding statement (bullet points) o Set of recommendations (bullet points) per context: a) Home b) School c) Institutions d) Work e) Community f) Conflict with the law g) Cyberspace	
Europe and Central Asia Regional Consultation for the UN Study on violence against children (5 -7 July 2005, Ljubljana, Slovenia)	Report on the Europe and Central Asia Regional Consultation on Violence Against Children (recommendations and Ljubljana Conclusions part of the report http://www.crin.org/resources/infoDetail.asp?ID=5838&flag=report)	o Recommendations (bullet points per context) o Conclusions include: reference to international frameworks (UNCRC, Optional Protocols etc), description of the scope of the issue, agreement to take priority actions (in numbered points) including ratification of international treaties, public info campaigns, establishing systems of data collection, developing systematic education on child protection	
2nd World Congress against commercial sexual exploitation of children (Yokohama December 2001)	**Congress Outcome document:** The Yokohama Global Commitment 2001 http://www.unicef.org/events/yokohama/outcome.html (html page)	o Developments since 1st World Congress in Stockholm (mobilization of governments and NGOs; role of private sector; participation of children; entry into force of legislative frameworks) o Recall set of regional consultations and seminars o Global Commitment including ratification of international treaties, developing national agendas, networking among actors, resource allocation etc (12 points) o Appendix: explanatory statements on the Yokohama Commitment from European countries, USA, Iran, India, Arab and African States	Rio Declaration
2nd International Workshop on Indigenous Children and Youth (Geneva 2001)	Report/outcomes as limited number of bullet points at the end of the report	o Set of bullet points including the adoption of the Statement on Indigenous Children and Armed Conflict, a set of recommendations and planning the 3rd conference	

Children, torture and other forms of violence (27 November- 2 December 2001, Tampere - Finland)	**Outcome document** (56 pages)	o Tampere Declaration (including who attended, participants' concerns/recognition/recommendations - in numbered points - to UN and States) o Final recommendations to State parties to define more precisely States' obligations against violence against children: a) General forms of violence: legislative measures, monitoring, investigations, reintegration, staff capacity, funding, international cooperation b) Specific forms of violence: Violence in juvenile systems, violence in child institutions, violence in school, violence in the family, sexual violence/trafficking, child slavery o Regional Plans of action (e.g. Africa: actions in conflict and post conflict situations, trafficking, religious practices, children in conflict with the law, follow up) o Interpretation of torture within the framework of the rights of the child o Situations of torture o Need for Special Rapporteur on violence against children o Proposal framework for UN study on violence against children	
International Conference on War-affected Children (Winnipeg, Canada 10-17 2000)	**3 Key Outcome Documents** (as appendix of 110 page conference report): 1. Youth Statement (Youth Meeting) 2. A Framework for Commitment to War-Affected Children (Experts Meeting) 3. The Agenda for War-Affected Children (Ministerial Meeting) Recommendations from thematic workshops (as appendix)	1. Youth Statement highlights main priorities on a set of topics 2. (a) Knowledge advancement (b) Identification of major immediate commitments (c) Fundamental priorities per theme and per institution (government, non-state entity, corporate actors, UN, civil society, youth, media, families) 3. Call for action in numbered points	

Appendix 2: Tables and figures

Table 2: Examples of data sources

Name	Institution	Timeframe	Focus
Civic Education Study survey	Funded by National Center for Education Statistics Pilot phase data collected by the American Institutes for Research, and Westat, Inc. handled field operations in the US	Reports released in 2001	US ninth-graders' knowledge of democratic practices and institutions across democracy, national identity and international relations and social cohesion and diversity, compared with the knowledge of students in 27 other participating countries
DHS	Funded by US Agency for International Development (USAID), with contributions from other donors	Conducted every five years	Population, health and nutrition
European Quality of Life Survey	Eurofound	Latest survey 2007	Adults (18 and over) resident in the EU-25 countries. A range of issues, e.g. employment, income, education, housing, family, health, work–life balance, life satisfaction and perceived quality of society
ESPAD	Swedish Council for Information on Alcohol and Other Drugs coordinates the project	Fourth data collection published results in 2009	Adolescent substance use in the world
European Social Survey	Funded by European Commission's (EC's) Framework Programmes, the European Science Foundation and national funding bodies in each country Directed by the Centre for Comparative Social Surveys, City University, UK	Biennial survey Currently undergoing fifth round; data to be released in September 2011	Media use, social and public trust, political interest and participation, socio-political orientations, governance and efficacy, moral, political and social values, social exclusion, national, ethnic and religious allegiances, well-being, health and security, human values, demographics and socioeconomics
European Community Household Panel Survey	EC	Total duration of panel survey from 1994 to 2001	Living conditions: income information, financial situation in a wider sense, working life, housing situation, social relations, health and biographical information

Name	Institution	Timeframe	Focus
Eurostat Population and Social Conditions	Eurostat/EC	Annual collection of data, although rates at which data is consolidated vary from country to country	Population, health, education and training, labour market, living conditions and social protection, crime and criminal justice, culture
EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	Eurostat/EC	Launched in 2003 Cross-sectional data in a given time or time period and longitudinal data at the individual level over a four-year period	Income, poverty, social exclusion and other living conditions
International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education study	IEA headquarters and national research institutes in participating countries, Humboldt University of Berlin and the International Steering Committee Since 1998, the German Science Association has been among its major funding partners	Major reports released in 2001 and 2002 International data released in 2003	Civic education (how students view their citizenship identity and how views are influenced by political, educational and social contexts)
Luxembourg Income Study	Luxembourg Income Study Center	Data available on average on a four- to five-year period	Household variables (e.g. composition, demographic info, labour market information, expenditure variables) and personal-level variables (demographic, labour, income)
OECD health database	OECD	Annual release	Key indicators covering health status, health resources and utilisation: life expectancy, maternal and infant mortality, health employment, inpatient beds, medical technology, immunisation, average length of stay, discharges, surgical procedures and transplants and dialyses
OECD Society at a Glance	OECD	Latest data available 2009	Headline social indicators, leisure, general context, self-sufficiency, equity, health, social cohesion

OECD Education at a Glance	OECD	Annual release	Who participates in education, what is spent on it, how education systems operate and results achieved (e.g. student performance, impact of education on earnings and employment chances)
OECD Income Distribution and Poverty	OECD	Trend data available since mid-1980s	Income distribution and poverty
PISA	Organised by the OECD	Administered every three years Most recent administration in 2006 on science literacy	15-year-olds' capabilities in reading literacy, mathematics literacy and science literacy
Progress in International Reading Literacy Study	Coordinated by the IEA	Five-year cycles, latest information 2006	Reading achievement and reading behaviours and attitudes of fourth grade students
TIMSS	IEA	Reports every four years. Current: TIMSS 2011	State-of-the-art assessments of student achievement supported with extensive data about country, school and classroom learning environments
WHO Mortality Database	WHO	From 1979 to 2005, latest survey results 2005	Deaths and underlying causes of deaths
WHO HBSC	In collaboration with WHO Regional Office for Europe	Most recent survey: 2001-2002	Young people's health and well-being, health behaviours and their social context
World Bank World Development Indicators	World Bank	Latest information 2009	Over 800 indicators across more than 90 tables organised in six sections: world view, people, environment, economy, states and markets and global links
World Bank Health, Nutrition and Population data	World Bank	Data available for 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2007	Population dynamics, nutrition, reproductive health, health financing, medical resources and usage, immunisation, infectious diseases, HIV/AIDS
World Bank Gender Statistics	World Bank	Data available for 2000, 2004 and 2007	Demographics, education, health, labour force, political participation and gender monitoring

Table 3: Committee on the Rights of the Child concluding observations on fragile states (2008-2009)

Main areas of concern[23]	Key challenges identified by the Committee
Legislation	Slow progress/lack of progress in reforming legislation to achieve harmonisation with the Convention; often hindered by lack of human and financial resources.
Coordination	National Council for Children lacks mandate, human and financial resources to implement convention (DRC); National Committee for the Survival, Protection and Development of Children poorly staffed and regional committees not yet set up (Niger); Ministry for the Promotion of Women and Children receives small funding from state budget (Niger); delay in adoption of proposal for creation of inter-ministerial committee to oversee implementation of the Convention; difficulty of coordination given vastness of state party's territory and weak governance at local level (Chad); insufficient coordination between Ministry of Social Affairs (coordinating body) and National Council for Children (consultative body) (Mauritania); national coordination of implementation of the Convention not sustained, lack of information on mandate and resources to national and regional coordinating bodies (Eritrea); lack of national mechanism to coordinate activities (Djibouti).
National action plan	Lack of a comprehensive national plan on promotion/protection of the rights of the child.
Independent monitoring	National Human Rights Monitoring Centre not integrated into the new 2006 constitution (DRC); National Commission on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedom lacks human and financial resources to conduct its mandate (Niger); no ombudsman or independent national institution specialised in children's rights (Chad); National Human Rights Commission lacks resources and is not accessible to children (Mauritania); lack of independent national human rights institution to monitor and promote the Convention (Eritrea); lack of independence and resources in the National Human Rights Sub-commission for the Protection of the Rights of the Child; overlap between role of Sub-commission and Office of the Ombudsman (Djibouti).
Allocation of resources for children	Insufficient allocation to health and education sectors (DRC, Chad, Mauritania) and advancement of children and women (Djibouti); no child rights approach in the elaboration of the state budget/no visibility to investment in children/imprecise allocations (Niger, Mauritania, Eritrea); transferring funds to decentralised levels of government remains a challenge, Ministry for Social Action and the Family (responsible for implementing the Convention) does not receive adequate financial and human resources to carry out its work (Chad); insufficient resources to improve the implementation and protection of human rights, with considerable military expenditure vs. education or health (Eritrea).

23 Some areas of concern have been grouped together for easier analysis.

Data collection	Absence of efficient data collection system: National Statistical Research Centre lacks the capacity to carry out its work and insufficient attention paid from appropriate ministries (DRC); National Institute of Statistics inadequately staffed and financed to assess progress in the implementation of child rights (Chad); lack of collection in several areas, including child abuse, sexual exploitation and child labour (Eritrea); lack of capacity to centralise and analyse data (Djibouti).
Cooperation with civil society	Limited cooperation with insufficient financial assistance provided to NGOs and lack of official policy for systematic cooperation (DRC); cases of intimidation, threats and violence against some human rights advocates (Chad); severe administration and practical restrictions upon operation of international and national NGOs (Eritrea).
Best interest of child/respect for the views of the child/family environment	Limited evidence that these are primary considerations by the legislative, executive and judicial branches of power (e.g. in Djibouti separation of child in cases of abuse and neglect is not possible owing to lack of appropriate infrastructure; family code not yet adopted and polygamy remains a common practice in Niger); lack of decentralised state services to reinforce capacity of families; family allowances paid only to limited number of families; children deprived of their family environment cannot be integrated in centres of alternative care (Niger).
Birth registration	Inadequate institutional structures, particularly in rural areas, leading to low/decreasing registration levels. Specific problems can be encountered in registering certain ethnic groups (Chad).
Health and access to health care/adolescent health/right to an adequate standard of living	Lack of access to basic health and social services, lack of qualified health practitioners, medical facilities concentrated in urban areas; no adequate services for adolescent healthcare; lack of access to clean drinking water, inadequate shelter and basic sanitation facilities, chronic food insecurity.
Education	Insufficient access to primary education, poor educational infrastructure, overcrowding in classrooms, schooling costs remain relatively high, small percentage of qualified teachers, teachers irregularly paid, lack of learning materials.
Children in armed conflict/recovery and reintegration	Failure to protect children and prevent violations by non-state groups (DRC); minimum age for voluntary or compulsory recruitment not specified by law (Niger); recruitment and use of children by all parties of the conflict, small number only have been demobilised since 2007 (Chad); forced underage recruitment and lack of physical and psychological recovery for children affected by armed conflict (Eritrea).
Economic and sexual exploitation/trafficking/refugee and displaced children/street children	Lack of data and statistics at the national level and of updated information on initiatives to combat these; impunity for perpetrators and very limited resources devoted to the fight against this; issues not fully recognised by the state party, lack of coordination between ministries and lack of resources provided to victims.
Juvenile justice	Lack of human and financial resources allocated to specialised juvenile courts and quasi absence of institutions for the placement of children who can be detained for long periods in same structures/prisons as adults.

Source: Authors' compilation from http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/sessions.htm.

Figure 2: Relative weight of the five areas within our sample of CRIN resources

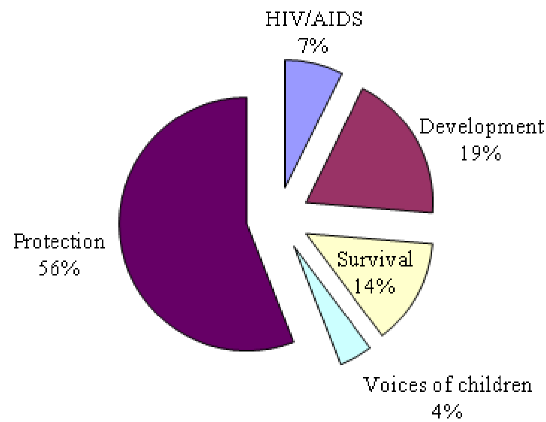
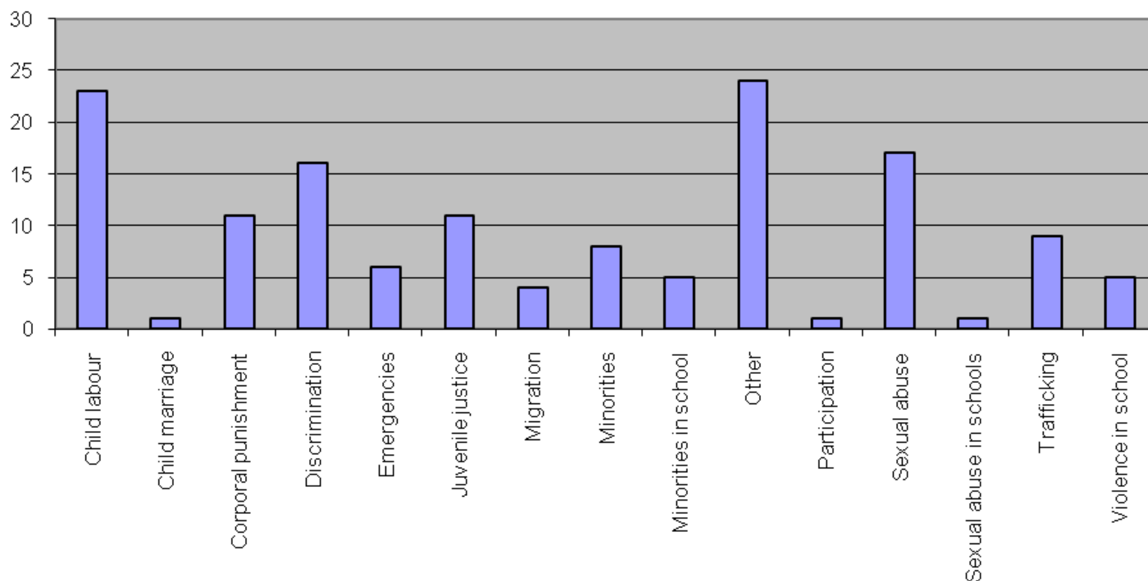
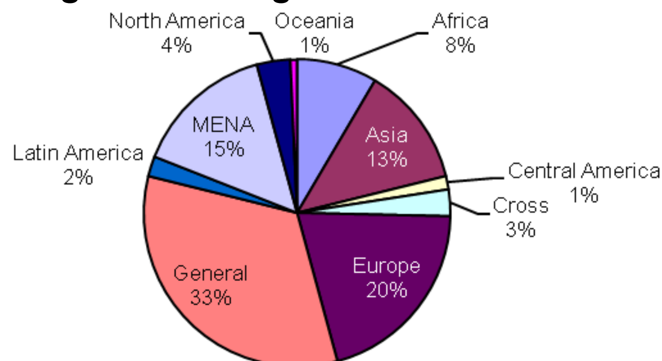


Figure 3: Protection – major issues covered



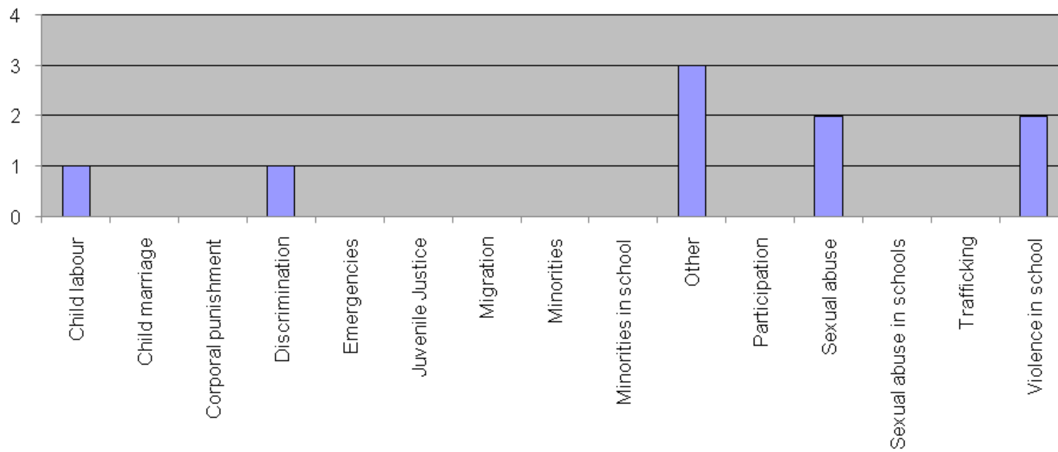
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 4: Protection – regional coverage



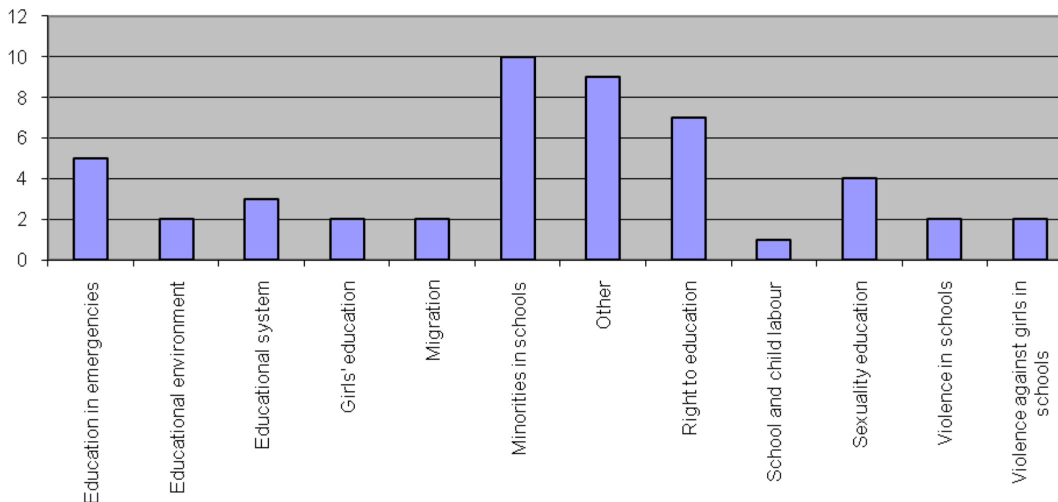
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 5: Protection – gender-sensitive coverage



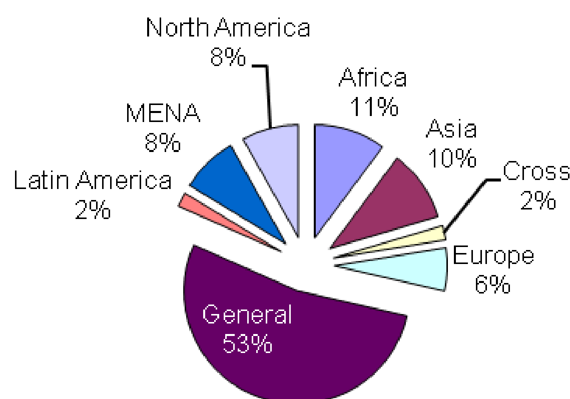
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 6: Development – major issues covered



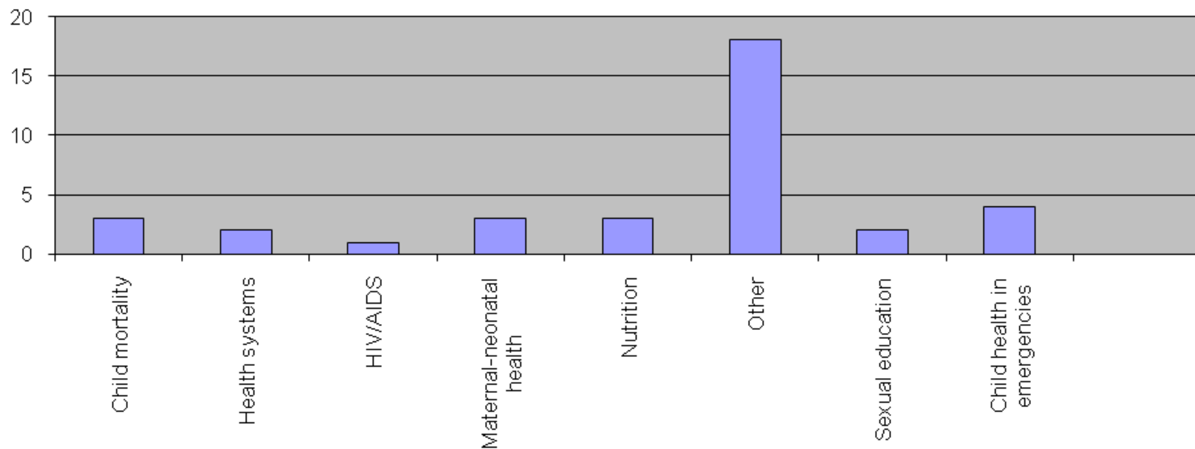
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 7: Development – regional coverage



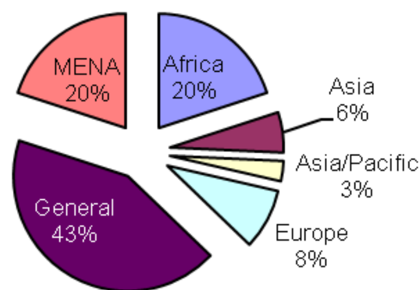
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 8: Survival – major issues covered



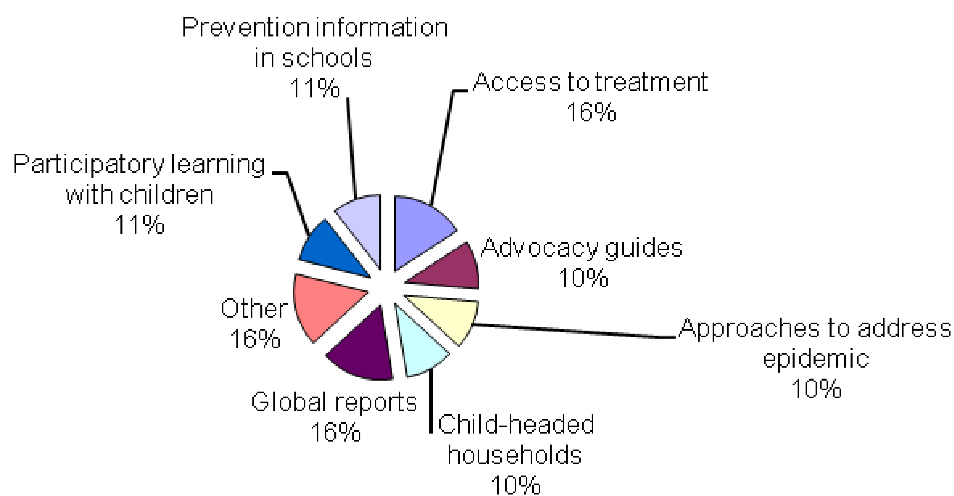
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 9: Survival – regional coverage



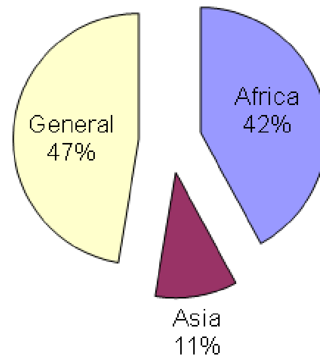
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 10: HIV/AIDS – major issues covered



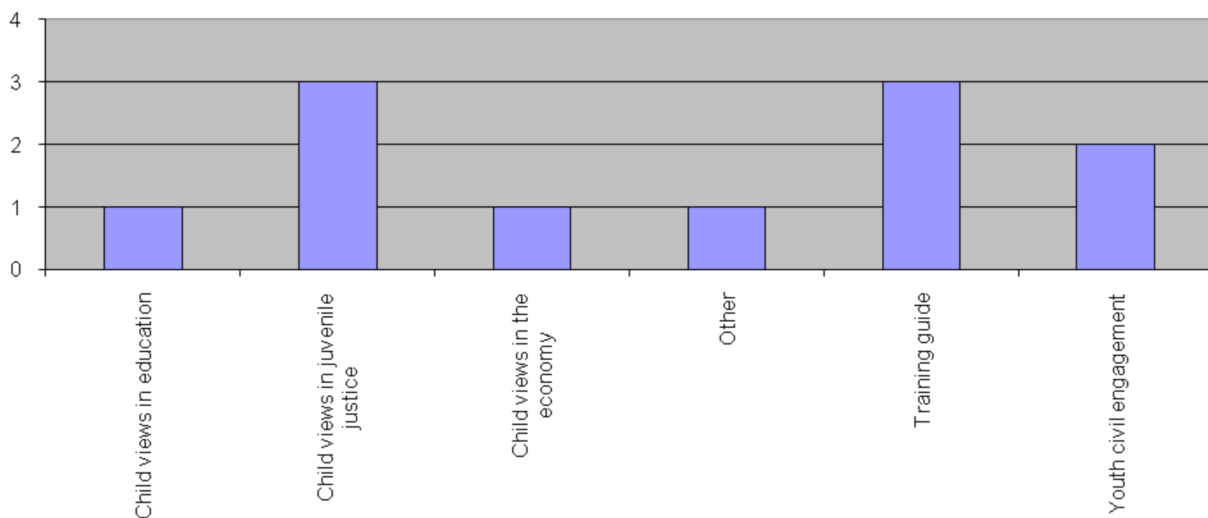
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 11: HIV/AIDS – regional coverage



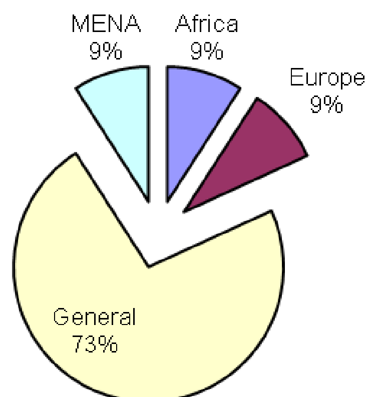
Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 12: Views of the child – major issues covered



Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Figure 13: Views of the child – regional coverage



Source: Authors' compilation from http://www.crin.org/.

Table 4: Select Northern and Southern child-related communities of practice

Name	Year of launch	Description	Stages/types of impact (Keck-Sikkink)
Research			
ChildWatch International Research Centre http://www.childwatch.uio.no/	1993	Global, non-governmental network of institutions that collaborate in child research for the promotion of child rights and well-being	**Framing debates and agenda setting/ encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** ChildWatch encourages multidisciplinary research on children, organises training in this field and supports policy development through the organisation of conferences
Research Programme Consortium on Women's Empowerment in Muslim Contexts http://www.wemc.com.hk/web/about.htm	2005	Aims at building a body of knowledge that will strengthen bottom-up transformations relatively to women empowerment in Muslim contexts Based in China, works in partnership with eight key organisations from the North and the South (including the International Gender Studies Centre, Oxford University, and the Centre for Environment, Gender and Development) and it is has been funded by DFID since 2006 (funding will end in June 2011)	**Framing debates and agenda setting** Works in three areas: research to document and analyse women empowerment strategies, capacity building through strategic alliances and communication of transformative knowledge to marginalised women
Child protection from violence, exploitation and abuse			
Campaign against Child Labour http://www.caclindia.org/	1992	A network of over 6000 anti-child labour groups spread over 21 states in India, committed to eradicate child labour through building public opinion, investigation of abuse, advocacy and monitoring of national and international development plans	**Framing debates and agenda setting** A National Coordination Committee Meeting was held in September 2008 and produced a Future Action Plan
Asia Against Child Trafficking http://www.cridoc.net/asia_acts.php	2002	Part of the International Campaign against Child Trafficking coordinated by Terre des Hommes, Germany and the International Federation of Terre des Hommes. It works as a regional campaign to fight child trafficking in Brunei Darussalam, Myanmar, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam	**Framing debates and agenda setting/encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** Lobbies governments and authorities to implement human rights standards for trafficked children (through national legislation, the creation of regional protection mechanisms, cooperation, support to victims, prosecution of offenders)

Name	Year of launch	Description	Stages/types of impact (Keck-Sikkink)
ECPAT http://www.ecpat.net/EI/Ecpat_vision.asp	1996	In 2007 the network included over 80 groups in more than 70 countries working together for the elimination of child prostitution, pornography and trafficking for sexual purposes	**Affecting policy change** ECPAT supports legal research on domestic legislation, analyses gaps in standards so as to recommend reforms in child protection and offers advisory service on child-friendly laws and procedures to protect children from exploitation
The Coalition to Fight Against Child Exploitation (FACE) http://www.un.or.th/TraffickingProject/FACE/face_home.html	1995	Operates in Thailand at both the policy and the grassroots levels Members include the Center for the Protection of Children's Rights, Development & Education Programmes for Daughters and Communities Centre, Friends of Thai Women Workers in Asia and Child Workers in Asia	**Framing debates and agenda setting/encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** FACE started with the aim to monitor the justice system in Thailand (assisting in obtaining evidence from victimised children, accompanying these to court) and is now also active with local and international NGOs in lobbying for laws, raising awareness through education and mass media and cooperating against the prosecution of offenders
The African Network for the Prevention and Protection against Child Abuse and Neglect http://www.childtraffickinginafrica.org/	2007	Based in Nairobi, works in partnership with other organisations against child maltreatment in Africa	**Framing debates and agenda setting** Its anti-trafficking programme aims at raising awareness and increases the capacity building of service providers towards eliminating child trafficking in Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda
Stop Child Labour http://www.stopchildlabour.net/	2000	An Alliance2015 campaign, a partnership of seven like-minded NGOs from Italy (Cesvi), German Agro Action, the Netherlands (Hivos), Denmark (Ibis), Czech Republic (People in Need) and Ireland (Concern), France (Agency for Technical Cooperation and Development) seeking to eliminate child labour through provision of full-time education	**Framing debates and agenda setting** The campaign’s two core objectives include ending all forms of child labour and supporting the global campaign for education
Global Initiative to end all corporal punishment of children http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org/	2001	Endorsed by UNICEF, the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNOHCHR) and a large number of organisations and individuals	**Framing debates and agenda setting/encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** Aims at forming an alliance of human rights agencies to ensure visibility of corporal punishment, lobby governments and provide capacity building to support states in adopting reforms against this practice

Name	Year of launch	Description	Stages/types of impact (Keck-Sikkink)
Respect Works Out http://www.respectworks.eu/	2007	Partnership between Germany (Association for a New Education), UK (the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children) and Poland (the Nobody–Children Foundation) aiming at securing a non-violent upbringing of the child through support to parenting skills and law reforms for the abolishment of physical punishment	**Framing debates and agenda setting** 50,000 copies of booklet on non-violent child raising have been disseminated in each partner country
UNICEF Child Poverty Network (ChildPov-Net)	2008	Core, global network of child poverty experts who foster knowledge sharing and collaboration across every region	**Framing debates and agenda setting** A forum for discussing concepts and frameworks, exchanging experiences and information
Learn Without Fear (Plan) http://plan-international.org/learnwithoutfear/learn-without-fear?set_language=en		Plan is defined as a 'child-centred community development organisation' working with children and communities all over the world on eight core areas (education, health, water and sanitation, protection, economic security, emergencies, child participation and sexual health including HIV) funded primarily through child sponsorship from individuals across 18 countries to 49 developing countries (Africa 23, Americas 13, Asia 13) Learn Without Fear aims to end violence against children in all schools in developing countries (focus specifically on sexual violence, bullying and corporal punishment). Partners of the campaign include, among others, UNICEF, ActionAid, the African Child Policy Forum, the Global Initiative to end all corporal punishment of children	**Framing debates and agenda setting/encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** Key aims of the campaign include persuading governments to enforce laws against violence in schools, working with teachers and school leaders to promote alternative discipline methods and creating awareness to tackle violence in schools in developing countries
'Raise your hand against smacking!' http://www.coe.int/t/dc/files/themes/chatiments_corporels/default_EN.asp?	2008 (birth)	Europe-wide initiative against corporal punishment, launched by the Council of Europe, aiming at challenging society's perception of corporal punishment alongside implementing legal reforms that ban it	**Framing debates and agenda setting/encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** The focus of the campaign is on three pillars: legal reform (promoting a ban on corporal punishment in all member states), positive parenting and awareness raising

Name	Year of launch	Description	Stages/types of impact (Keck-Sikkink)
Survival and development (nutrition, health, water and sanitation)			
World Alliance for Breastfeeding Action www.waba.org.my/	1991	Global network of individuals and organisations aimed at promoting, protection and supporting breastfeeding worldwide Works in liaison with UNICEF	**Framing debates and agenda setting** Inter alia, holds the WABA Global Forum and acts as a platform to spotlight relevant information in the field
Global WASH Campaign http://www.wsscc.org/en/what-we-do/advocacy-communications/global-wash-campaign/index.htm	2001	As a response to failing to recognise sanitation as a goal at the UN Millennium Summit (2000), it is a worldwide advocacy campaign to raise public and political awareness of safe water, adequate sanitation and hygiene services	**Encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** WASH is now a global concept understood across sectors. The campaign achieved the inclusion of sanitation to the MDGs at the World Summit for Sustainable Development in 2002 (MDG7, Target 10) Individual and local WASH campaign activities have been set up in more than 30 countries
Basic education and gender equality			
Global Campaign for Education (GCE) http://www.globalcampaignforeducation.org/about/about.html	1999	CSOs, NGOs, teacher unions and child rights activists mobilising public pressure on governments and the international community to implement the Education for All Goals and Strategies agreed by 185 governments (Dakar, April 2000) The GCE calls specifically upon communities to develop plans of actions for delivering free and quality public education, upon governments to abolish fees for primary education, upon the World Bank and the North to increase aid for basic education and upon CSOs to hold their governments accountable for securing the right to education	**Framing debates and agenda setting** The GCE World Assembly produces resolutions every three years (most recently in São Paolo, Brazil, in 2008)
HIV/AIDS			
JLICA http://www.jlica.org/index.php	2006 (close)	Time-limited network of policymakers, practitioners, researchers, community leaders and people living with HIV/AIDS to mobilise research and discussion on children affected by HIV/AIDS The initiative conducted research around four Learning	**Encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** The JLICA final report (recently released in February 2009) is addressed to national policymakers in burdened countries and calls upon governments to shift policies and programmes towards addressing family poverty and gender inequality as conditions for the effectiveness of large scale AIDS

Name	Year of launch	Description	Stages/types of impact (Keck-Sikkink)
		Groups which have generated more than 50 systematic reviews and research products. It concluded its work in June 2009 with the release of its final report which summarises evidence of two years of research and analysis	programmes
Policy advocacy and partnerships for children's rights			
ACPF http://www.africanchildforum.org/index.asp	2003	A pan-African policy advocacy centre based in Addis Ababa with the mission of putting African children on the public agenda through the following four advocacy strategies: 1) building knowledge about African children; 2) speaking out against child rights violations; 3) reforming laws and policies affecting children in Africa; and 4) building alliances of child rights organisations It aims at providing a forum for dialogue and improved knowledge of African children, promoting African action to develop and implement effective policies and programmes Its 2007-2011 Business Plan includes: 1) child rights advocacy (incl. promotion of the African Information Hub as a platform to strengthen the information base on the state of African children); 2) child protection (including auditing of national laws and practices and research on public policy impacts on child well-being); 3) children's voice and participation (including carrying out polls, supporting the development of artistic talent in children and promoting access of children to mass media)	**Encouraging discursive commitments from states and policy actors** The 'African Report on Child Well-being: How Child-friendly Are African governments?' was prepared by the ACPF (www.africanchildinfo.net/africanreport08/index.php). Its recent launch (November 2008) makes evaluations on its take-up premature but its groundbreaking nature is evident in scoring the performance of African governments in improving child well-being. Governments are ranked as 'most child friendly' (e.g. Namibia, Tunisia, South Africa), 'child friendly', 'fairly child friendly', 'less child friendly' and 'least child friendly' (including Chad, Liberia, Eritrea) It also stresses the dissonance between countries' formal acceptance of an international treaty and practice, such as the decrease in government budgetary commitment Specific actions are suggested for African governments to improve performance in child friendliness (expanding primary health care and education, addressing the growing orphan population and violence against children, strengthening legal capacity to fight child abuse, addressing needs of children with disabilities and lobbying for accountability of states to their citizens
ANDI www.andi.org.br/	1992	ANDI believes that quality of information is key to building awareness and fostering constant change within	**Framing debates and agenda setting** **Changing behaviour:** ANDI has led to important changes in the ways in which journalists and editors of newspapers in

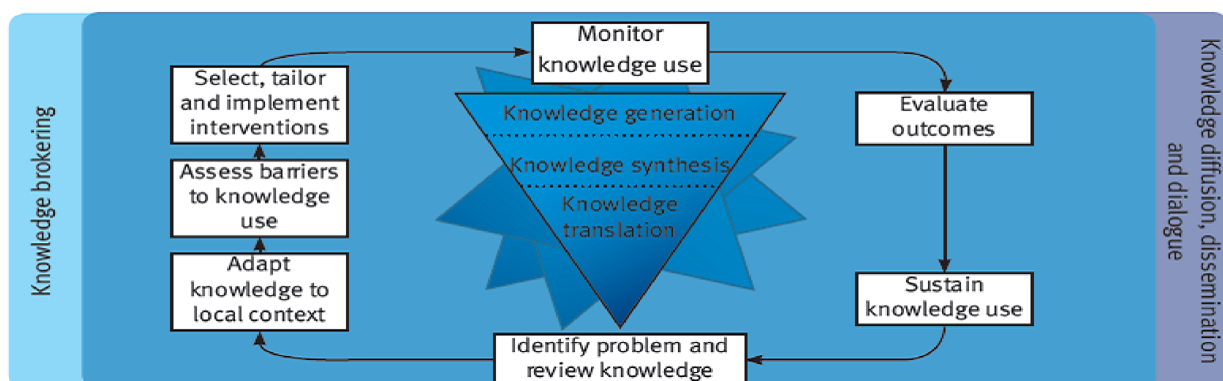
Name	Year of launch	Description	Stages/types of impact (Keck-Sikkink)
		societies and recognises the importance of creating a culture of responsibility for the quality of public information and the inclusion of children as key stakeholders in the national development agenda. It is thus specialised in working with media in awareness raising, capacity building and mobilisation in the field of child rights ANDI Network Brazil was created in 2000 and encompasses 11 organisations working closely to spotlight childhood on the media agenda. Monitoring of media relative to coverage of child issues is among the main activities conducted as well as training of professionals in this field (e.g. 'Journalists Friends of Children' project). In this respect, the function of 'community builders' (i.e. promoting and sustaining the values and standards of the individuals or organisations within them) is predominant (Mendizabal, 2006) Among other initiatives, it aims at strengthening the system of protection of rights, at improving means of access, production and delivery of communication, at encouraging child and adolescent participation in media and society at large, at improving access and quality of primary education and at directing public policy around childhood and adolescence	Brazil and other parts of Latin America report on children. Since the year 2000 a total of 346 journalists have been trained and honoured recognition

Table 5: Frameworks for understanding children/childhood and policy purchase

Framework	Description	Examples of impact on policy and purchase
Development psychology/stage theories	Childhood as a biological phase, human competence is a function of age, universal characteristics between boys and girls Children as immature in a state of development, rejected as social actors Children needs are perceived and derived from adults assumptions	Education: schooling structured in age grades; school agendas and curricula decided by governments; no attention to linkages between what happens at school and out of school Health Social work (child professionals, mother education)
Rights-based	Recognition of the right to participate and evolving capacities of the child (UNCRC) but child remains an immature being in need of protection Reflects dominant Western concepts of childhood (innocence and play)	Anti-child labour legislation Birth registration policies Child participation in education, work and national development plans
Sociology of childhood	Childhood is a concept that is socially constructed Children are competent social actors Children cannot be treated as a monolith; experiences are varied along lines of gender, ethnicity and social class The concept of the Generational Order highlights that age-based categorisations are not natural distinctions but socially constructed and underpinned by social inequalities	Indirect targeting recognises the existence of intergenerational dynamics within the household and the impact that policies have on children as a differentiated category of actors

Source: Authors' compilation.

Figure 14: Knowledge generation and translation cycle



Source: Adapted from the CIHR Knowledge to Action Cycle at www.cihr-irsc.gc.ca/e/39033.html.

Table 6: Key messages for understanding the research–policy–practice interface

The research–policy interface: Ingredients for successful research-based policy influencing (Jones, 2008)	a. Quality of research b. Intent to shape policy c. Understanding the political context d. Networking with key actors e. Packaging of messages
The policy–practice interface: Possible impacts of evidence-based policy (Keck and Sikkink, 1998)	1. Framing debates and agenda setting 2. Discursive commitments from states and policy actors 3. Securing procedural changes from policy actors 4. Affecting policy 5. Changing the behaviour of target actors

Appendix 3: Major authors of information from CRIN mapping

The CRIN mapping in Section 4 also mapped authors/institutions generating information/ knowledge on child-related issues. These encompass a range of organisations from both developed and developing countries. The table highlights those recurrent in our mapping exercise.

Themes	Major authors of publications in our sample of CRIN resources
Survival	Gaza Community Mental Health Programme (OPT) Save the Children UNICEF
Development	Amnesty International Council of Europe CRIN International Save the Children Alliance/Save the Children Tamer Institute for Community Education (OPT) Understanding Children's Work UNESCO Plan
Views of the child	UNICEF IRC
HIV/AIDS	ACPF Asia Catalyst Center for Reproductive Rights (CRR) Childhope UK Ecumenical Advocacy Alliance (EAA) Human Rights Watch (HRW) International HIV/AIDS Alliance International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) JLICA Kindernothilfe Mercy Corps Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) Plan International Save the Children Sweden Save the Children UK Joint UN Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) UNESCO UNICEF
Protection	Amnesty International Anti-Slavery International (UK) Council of Europe CRIN Defence for Children International (DCI) (Switzerland) Gaza Community Mental Health Programme (OPT) Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children HRW ILO Land Center for Human Rights (Egypt) NGO Group for the Convention on the Rights of the Child Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons Plan Save the Children Understanding Children's Work UNICEF UNICEF IRC UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) UNOHCHR

Overseas Development Institute
111 Westminster Bridge Road
London SE1 7JD
UK

Tel: +44 (0)20 7922 0300
Fax: +44 (0)20 7922 0399
Email: publications@odi.org.uk
Website: www.odi.org.uk

ISBN 978 1 907288 27 2
Working Paper (Print) ISSN 1759 2909
ODI Working Papers (Online) ISSN 1759 2917