

HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR HUMAN RIGHTS
CENTRE FOR HUMAN RIGHTS



PROFESSIONAL TRAINING SERIES No. 6

Human Rights Training

*A Manual on Human Rights
Training Methodology*



UNITED NATIONS

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CHAPTER I

HUMAN RIGHTS TRAINING METHODOLOGY

1. The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) has been involved for many years in training persons working in various professions in areas of human rights which touch on their particular field of competence. The methodological approach developed on the basis of the experience gained is comprised of basic elements which, appropriately adapted and modified for each target group, can provide useful guidance for the conceptualization, planning, implementation and evaluation of human rights training programmes for adult professionals. These elements are described below.

A. Collegial presentations

2. For the selection of resource persons, OHCHR advises drawing from a list of experts which is practical in orientation. Rather than assembling panels composed entirely of professors and theorists, it is better to opt for practitioners in the relevant field. In the experience of OHCHR, much more can be accomplished through a collegial approach, in which development professionals, police, or judges, for example, discuss these matters with each other, than by a professor-student model of training. This approach allows the trainer to access the distinctive professional culture which surrounds each particular audience. At the same time, practitioners/trainers should be accompanied and supported by experts in human rights, thus ensuring that the substance of international human rights standards is fully and consistently reflected in the course contents.

B. Training the trainers

3. Participants in human rights training courses should be selected on the understanding that their responsibilities will continue after completion of the training exercise. Each will be charged with conducting his/her own training and dissemination efforts after returning to his/her duty station. In this way, the impact of such courses is multiplied as the information imparted is disseminated throughout the institutions concerned. Accordingly, in addition to substantive content, the courses should include training methodology and capacity-building components, such as lessons and materials designed to impart training skills to participants.

C. Interactive pedagogical techniques

4. The courses developed by OHCHR and described in these materials include a section designed to introduce

a variety of effective techniques for training adults. In particular, suggestions are made for the use of creative, interactive teaching methods, which offer the best hope for securing the active involvement of the programme participants. OHCHR has identified the following techniques as especially appropriate and effective in human rights training for adults: presentation and discussion, panel discussion, working groups, case studies, problem-solving/brainstorming, simulation/role-playing, field trips, practical exercises (including drafting), round-table discussions and visual aids. Pointers on the use of such techniques are provided below in chapter II.

D. Audience specificity

5. OHCHR has learned that the mere recitation of vague principles of general applicability offers little hope of affecting the actual behaviour of a given audience. To be effective—indeed, to be at all worthwhile—training and education efforts must be directly targeted and appropriately addressed to a particular audience, be they police, health-care workers, lawyers, students or development professionals. Accordingly, the content of OHCHR teaching materials focuses more on the standards directly relevant to the daily work of the professional trainees and less on the history and structure of United Nations machinery.

E. A practical approach

6. OHCHR training begins with the recognition that professional groups in the real world want to know not just what the human rights rules are, but also how to do their job effectively within the confines of those rules. Without bowing to instrumentalist approaches to human rights, trainers must also recognize that professionals will also want to know “what is in it for them?”. That is, what value can a better understanding of human rights bring to their work? Training efforts which ignore either of these areas are likely to be neither credible nor effective. Accordingly, trainers and course designers must include practical information* on proven techniques for the performance of the actual duties of the participating professionals, as derived from the recommendations of experts

* While practical recommendations are a key component of courses offered under this approach, it would not be possible to provide detailed training on technical professional skills in a human rights course. Instead, the existence of such techniques should be highlighted and targeted for further training as a follow-up to human rights training, and conceptual linkages should be made between the two sets of skills.

and literature on the current best practice for the profession in question.

F. Comprehensive presentation of standards

7. These courses should be thorough in their presentation of the relevant international standards. To this end, relevant instruments and simplified learning tools should be translated and distributed to participants. In every case, one or more persons specialized in human rights should be involved, to control the substantive content of the courses and workshops, and to supplement course presentations as required.

G. Teaching to sensitize

8. In addition to imparting standards and practical skills, OHCHR courses should also include exercises designed to sensitize trainees to their own potential for contributing to violative behaviour, however unwitting. For example, well-developed exercises (including role-playing) which can make trainees aware of gender or racial bias in their own attitudes or behaviour can be valuable. Similarly, the special import of particular standards as they apply to women, for example, is not always obvious. Trainees should be made to understand that, for example, the term “degrading treatment”, as found in various international instruments, may imply different activities and thresholds when applied to women as compared to men, or to one cultural group as opposed to another.

H. Flexibility of design and application

9. To be universally useful, training courses must be designed in such a way as to facilitate their flexible use, without imposing a single rigid focus or approach on the trainers. Courses must be adaptable to the particular cultural, educational, regional and experiential needs and realities of a diverse range of potential audiences within the target group. Accordingly, course materials should not be intended to be read verbatim to trainees. Trainers should create their own targeted presentation notes and materials, based upon the content of prepared materials and the particular realities on the ground. Training should be constructed in self-contained modules, allowing appropriate selection and tailoring according to particular needs and objectives.

I. Competency-based

10. The training courses should result in improved competence in the relevant field. Unlike briefings and seminars, training courses should be designed around learning objectives, and all trainees should be required to demonstrate competence throughout the course during assigned exercises, and to undergo testing (in the form of a written examination) both before, and upon completion of the course. Comparison of pre- and post-course test results, together with careful attention during course presentations by participants, provides a concrete measure for evaluating improved competence.

J. Evaluation tools

11. Training courses include pre- and post-training evaluative exercises, such as testing questionnaires, which serve three crucial purposes. Pre-course questionnaires, when properly utilized, allow a trainer to tailor his/her course to the particular educational needs of the audience. Post-course questionnaires and evaluation sessions will both allow trainees to gauge what they have learned, and assist trainers in the continuous (crucial) modification and improvement of courses and materials.

K. The role of self-esteem

12. The importance of appropriate regard for the self-esteem of adult trainees cannot be overemphasized. Professionals will bring to the classroom their own professional expertise and practical experience, which should be acknowledged and can be tapped for the benefit of the course. The extent to which the trainer does so will largely determine the trainee’s reaction to the training exercise. Obviously, participants will not respond well to instruction which is seen as “spoonfeeding”; nor will a “school-teacher” approach or a “military” approach be well received. Instead, trainers should seek to create a collegial atmosphere in which the exchange of expertise and experience is facilitated, the professional knowledge of trainees recognized and professional pride encouraged. The goal here is to send the message that knowledge of human rights is a key element of professionalism in the work of the target group and that, accordingly, the trainees have much to gain and also much to contribute in this area.

L. Linkage to organizational policy

13. If training is to produce the desired impact on behaviour and professional performance, it must be clearly supported by, and linked to, corresponding rules in the trainees’ institutions. Institutional policy must reflect the human rights imperatives taught in the classroom, and management must be trained in and committed to ensuring its application.

M. Planned follow-up

14. Traditional human rights training initiatives have often been composed of “a lecture and a wave”. Meaningful, competency-based and objective-oriented training, on the other hand, requires a certain degree of sustained commitment and planned follow-up, if improved capacity is to be achieved. This means that the training programme should include structured follow-up plans from the formulation stage. They may include periodic return visits by specialists for quality control, review and reinforcement purposes, or a system of review and reporting to be carried out by the local trainers themselves. The newly trained trainers should be charged with implementing fully-developed training programmes in their own right, following from the pilot or initial programme. Of course, periodic and final evaluation is a must.

CHAPTER II

EFFECTIVE TRAINING TECHNIQUES

A. Learning objectives

15. Human rights training should be based upon clearly articulated objectives. The objectives of the trainer should facilitate satisfaction of the needs of the trainee. Three basic learning objectives should form the foundation of such programmes and mirror the following needs of the trainees.

—*To receive information and knowledge* of what human rights and humanitarian standards are and what they mean for the work of the trainees in their professions;

—*To acquire or reinforce skills*, so that the functions and duties of the professional group can be fulfilled effectively with due respect and regard for human rights. Simple knowledge of standards is not enough to enable trainees to transfer these rules into appropriate professional behaviour. The acquisition of skills should be viewed as a process whereby skills are fine-tuned through practice and application. This process may need to be continued, in the light of training needs identified in specific areas of the trainees' work, including through appropriately tailored follow-up programmes;

—*To become sensitized, i.e. to undergo a change in negative attitudes or to reinforce positive attitudes and behaviour*, so that the trainees accept, or continue to accept, the need to promote and protect human rights through their work, and actually do so in the course of their professional duties. The question at issue here is the **values** of the trainee. This, too, is a long-term process, to be reinforced by further, more technical, training.

16. Thus, to be effective, training should be aimed at improving knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to contribute to appropriate professional behaviour.

B. Tailoring courses

17. When arranging training programmes, the principles of audience specificity and relevance require that organizers follow a few basic rules of thumb:

(a) Courses and programmes should be preceded by and based upon a **consultative needs assessment** involving the target institution or group to be trained;

(b) Whenever possible, **separate training programmes** should be arranged for different categories within the profession, according to the particular function and context of that sub-group's daily work. This allows training to focus on:

- Strategy and policy-making aspects for managerial personnel;
- Pedagogical aspects for trainers;
- Operational aspects for others;
- Aspects of particular relevance to professionals with specific functions, such as regional specialists, "technicians", etc.;
- Basic training in only the most fundamental areas and key concepts for support staff;

(c) The largely **practical and pragmatic orientation** of adult trainees who are professionals should be reflected in the education and training methods adopted. This means:

- Creating the opportunity to translate ideas and concepts into practice;
- Enabling participants to focus on real problems of their profession;
- Responding to issues of immediate concern to participants raised by them during the programme.

C. The participatory method

18. For maximum effect, a few basic principles should be kept in mind in applying the participatory training method described below. Recall the 13 elements of the OHCHR approach to training, detailed in chapter I:

- Collegial presentations;
- Training the trainers;
- Interactive pedagogical techniques;
- Audience specificity;
- A practical approach;
- Comprehensive presentation of standards;
- Teaching to sensitize;
- Flexibility of design and application;
- Competency-based;
- Evaluation tools;
- The role of self-esteem;

—Linkage to organizational policy;

—Planned follow-up.

19. This method requires an approach which is interactive, flexible, relevant and varied, as described below:

Interactive—This programme implies the use of a participatory, interactive training methodology. Adult trainees most readily absorb human rights course curricula when they are not “spoonfed” the material. Rather, for effective training, they should be fully involved in the process. As practitioners, the trainees will bring to the course a rich pool of experience, which must be actively drawn on in any interesting and effective course.

Flexible—Contrary to certain myths associated with adult training, it is not advisable to adopt a “military” approach, in an attempt to force trainees to participate. The result of such techniques is, more often than not, the sowing of resentment among trainees and, consequently, the closing of effective avenues of communication between trainer and trainees. While a certain level of control should be maintained by the trainer, the first rule should be flexibility. Questions—even challenges—from the audience should be welcomed, and should be addressed by trainers in a positive and forthright manner. Similarly, excessively rigid timekeeping can leave participants feeling frustrated and resentful and should be avoided.

Relevant—The unspoken question of the trainee throughout the course will be: “What does this have to do with my daily work?” The extent to which the trainer continuously answers this question will be an important measure of his/her success. Every effort must therefore be made to ensure that all material presented is relevant to the work of the audience, and that such relevance is made clear where it is not self-evident. This task may be easier when operational themes are being addressed. It may require more careful preparation, however, with respect to more topical themes, such as the protection of especially vulnerable groups.

Varied—To secure and retain the active commitment of participants, it is best to vary the teaching techniques used throughout the course. Most adults are not accustomed to long classroom sessions, and a tedious and monotonous routine will leave them more conscious of the classroom than of the subject matter. A varied selection of techniques should be used, alternating discussion with role-playing and case studies with brainstorming, as appropriate to the subject matter.

20. Broadly speaking, this means that the following methods and approaches should be adopted:

Presentation of standards—a short presentation on the human rights standards relevant to a given aspect of the work of the profession, and on how such standards can be effectively applied by the audience;

Application of participatory techniques—enables participants to use their knowledge and experience to translate into practice the ideas and concepts referred to

in the presentation; and also enables them to consider the practical implications of human rights standards for their day-to-day work;

Focus and flexibility—enables participants to focus on matters of real and current concern; and enables educators and trainers to adapt to participants’ needs as the course progresses.

D. Participatory techniques

21. Selected participatory techniques are provided below:

1. Presentation and discussion

22. Following a presentation (as described above), an informal discussion is useful to clarify points and facilitate the process of translating ideas into practice. Such discussions are conducted by the presenter, who should try to involve all participants. It is useful for presenters to have a prepared series of questions available to initiate the discussion.

23. At the conclusion of the presentation and discussion, the presenter should provide an overview or summary. Presentations should be supplemented with pre-prepared visual aids or study materials distributed in advance to all participants.

2. Panel discussion

24. The formation of a panel of presenters or experts, possibly following a presentation by one or more of them, has frequently been shown to be a useful training device. Such an approach is particularly effective when presenters have expertise in different aspects of a topic, because of their professional backgrounds or countries of origin. Ideally, human rights experts should be included on the panel, together with experts in the relevant professional field.

25. One presenter should act as facilitator, to enable the widest possible participation, to ensure that participants’ needs are met and to provide an overview or summary at the conclusion of the discussion. This method should include direct exchanges between panel members themselves, and between the panel and the audience.

3. Working groups

26. These are created by dividing a course into a number of small groups of a maximum of five or six participants. Each group is given a topic to discuss, a problem to solve or something concrete to produce, within a short time period—up to 50 minutes. A facilitator may, where necessary, be assigned to each group. The course is then reconvened and the results of the deliberations of each group are presented to the full course by a spokesperson for the group. The course participants can then discuss the topics and the response of each group.

4. *Case studies*

27. In addition to dealing with discussion topics, working groups can consider case studies. These should be based on credible and realistic scenarios which are not too complex and which focus on two or three main issues. Case studies should require participants to exercise their professional skills when responding to them and to apply human rights standards.

28. The scenario for a case study can be presented to participants for consideration by them in its entirety, or “fed” to them sequentially as a developing situation to which they have to respond.

5. *Problem-solving/brainstorming*

29. These sessions can be conducted as intensive exercises to seek solutions to both theoretical and practical problems. They require a problem to be analysed and then solutions to be developed. Brainstorming encourages and requires a high degree of participation and it stimulates those involved to maximum creativity.

30. Following presentation of the problem, all ideas in response to it are recorded on a board or flip chart. No explanations are required and no interventions are judged or rejected at this stage. The presenter then categorizes and analyses the responses—at which stage some are combined, adapted or rejected. Finally, the group makes recommendations and takes decisions on the problem. The learning or sensitization process occurs as a result of the group discussion around each suggestion.

6. *Simulation/role-playing*

31. These exercises require participants to perform a task or tasks in a realistic situation simulating “real life”. Simulation or role-playing exercises may be used to practise a skill or to enable participants to experience hitherto unfamiliar situations.

32. A written factual situation is distributed in advance and each participant is allocated a particular role (the police officer, the victim, the witness, the judge, etc.). During the exercise, no one is allowed to leave his or her assigned role for any reason. This technique is particularly valuable for sensitizing participants to the feelings and perspectives of other groups and to the importance of certain issues.

7. *Field trips*

33. Group visits to relevant institutions or sites can provide valuable perspectives. The purpose of the visit should be explained in advance and participants should be instructed to pay critical attention and to record their observations for a subsequent discussion.

8. *Practical exercises*

34. This involves the assignment of trainees to apply and demonstrate particular professional skills in a super-

vised exercise. For example, lawyers might be required to draft an affidavit and trainers might be assigned to draft a lesson plan or to deliver a session of the course itself.

9. *Round-table discussions*

35. Round-table discussions, like panel discussions, necessitate the assembling of a diverse group of resource persons, representing a variety of perspectives on the subject to be addressed. An animated discussion is the goal here, and for this it is crucial to have a strong and dynamic moderator skilled both in the subject matter and in the techniques of “devil’s advocate”, and the use of hypothetical situations. The moderator should be intentionally provocative, stimulating debate between and among the various panellists and the audience, and should control the direction of the discussion.

10. *Visual aids*

36. Adult learning can be enhanced by the use of blackboards, overhead transparencies, posters, displayed objects, flip charts, photographs, slides and videos/films. As a general rule, information produced on transparencies and charts should be concise and in outline or list form. If more text is required, printed handouts should be circulated.

E. Locations for training courses

37. Ideally, the following conditions should be met in respect of the location for a training course:

(a) Courses should be held at a location away from the normal place of work of the participants;

(b) The room used for a course should be of sufficient size for the number of people it is intended to accommodate;

(c) There should be a sufficient number of small ancillary rooms available to accommodate working groups, so that participants may focus without interruption on their assigned topics;

(d) Seating facilities should be comfortable and flexible, allowing chairs, desks and tables to be moved around to accommodate various training techniques.

F. Planning for participants’ needs

38. The level of physical comfort of course participants will have a direct impact on the outcome of the learning exercise. For planning purposes, keep in mind, the following basic factors:

(a) It should be possible to regulate the temperature and ventilation of the room;

(b) Classrooms should never be filled beyond a comfortable capacity;

(c) Rest rooms should be easily accessible;

(d) The daily programme should include a 15-minute coffee/rest break at mid-morning, a lunch break of at

least one hour, and a 15-minute coffee/rest break at mid-afternoon;

(e) Allow participants to occasionally stand and stretch between scheduled breaks. A two or three minute break is sufficient for this, at appropriate intervals, perhaps twice a day;

(f) Where possible, provide for water, coffee or juice to be available in the classroom;

(g) Lunch breaks should be scheduled within the period to which participants are accustomed. This will vary from region to region, and from workplace to workplace.

CHAPTER III

TRAINERS

A. Selection of trainers

39. The selection of trainers and resource persons should be based on the following criteria:

- Expertise in the subject matter;
- Ability to apply the interactive methodology of the programme;
- Professional credibility and appropriate reputation among other practitioners.

40. Ideally, a panel of trainers should be primarily composed of practitioners from the relevant profession, accompanied by at least two experts in the field of human rights.

B. Briefing trainers

41. It is important that trainers are adequately briefed on the following matters:

- If the training is country-based: basic historical, geographical, demographic, political, economic, cultural and social information on the country where the programme is to be introduced; basic information on the constitutional and legal arrangements of that country; human rights and humanitarian law treaties to which the State is a party; current or planned human rights projects;
- Organizational aspects of the professional group to be trained;
- Categories and numbers of trainees participating in the programme;
- Particular issues of current concern in relation to the professional audience to be trained.

C. Instructions for trainers

42. Whatever their previous experience or level of expertise, the course trainers themselves should be carefully prepared for this particular assignment. As a measure of quality control, OHCHR recommends written instructions, in addition to pre-course oral briefings. The instructions should cover the points outlined below.

1. *What are the objectives of the course?*

- To provide information on international human rights sources, systems, standards and issues relevant to the work of the target profession;
- To encourage the development of skills, and the formulation and application of policies, necessary to transform that information into practical professional behaviour;
- To sensitize participants to their particular role in protecting and promoting human rights and their own potential for affecting human rights in their daily work.

2. *What is the course methodology?*

- A typical course session consists of a brief presentation by two team members, followed by the application of a participatory training method. Plenary discussions are open to all and are led by the resource person delivering the session. All members of the training team are expected to contribute to all session discussions, as necessary.

3. *What is expected of the trainer with regard to the course?*

Before the course:

- Study the materials sent to you in advance, with particular attention to the sessions to which you are formally assigned;
- Prepare very brief lecture notes, keeping in mind the time limitations set out in the course programme;
- Think about what practical recommendations you might make to the trainees, based upon your professional experience, to assist them in implementing the relevant human rights standards in their daily work;
- Attend a pre-course briefing to be held on the day prior to the opening of the course.

During the course:

- Participate in daily pre- and post-course briefings with the rest of the training team;

- Attend and participate in all course sessions;
- Meet with your session co-presenter the day before each scheduled presentation to prepare your presentations jointly;
- Deliver brief presentations, adhering to specified time limits, based on the training materials, for the topics assigned to you as a session presenter;
- Make practical recommendations, based on your professional experience, during discussion periods and in working groups, including during sessions for which you are not the session presenter;
- Use concrete examples. Save newspaper clippings, project evaluations and excerpts from reports to provide actual cases to illustrate your points. You can also select a hypothetical exercise from the materials or develop one of your own for each session you are to present or for use in working groups;
- Use visual aids (overhead projector and blackboard/whiteboard/flip chart) whenever possible;
- Ensure that any comments or recommendations made are consistent with the international standards set out in the training materials;
- Encourage active group participation and discussion;
- Provide advice and comments on the training materials;
- Attend all opening and closing ceremonies and ancillary events of the programme.

After the course:

- Participate in a final debriefing session with the rest of the training team;
- Review and revise your materials, on the basis of this experience.

D. Tips for making presentations

43. A few basic pointers are to be kept in mind:

- (a) Make eye contact with participants;
- (b) Encourage questions and discussion;
- (c) Do not read from your notes—be conversational and natural, speaking in a forceful and animated voice. No matter how interesting the material, a monotone presentation, or one which cannot be heard, will dash any hopes of engaging the audience's attention;
- (d) Watch the time—time your presentation beforehand and keep a clock or watch in view while you are making it;
- (e) Move around—do not present from your chair. When responding to a question, approach the person who asked it. If someone seems inattentive, approach him/her and speak directly to him/her;
- (f) Use visual aids. Transparencies and charts should be simple, in point form and should not contain too much

information. If you must provide detailed information to reinforce presentations, do so in a handout and review the basic points contained in the handout with the trainees. Provide participants with copies of visual aids for later study and review. Finally, speak to the participants, not to the board or chart;

(g) Do not criticize—correct, explain and encourage;

(h) Have participants use the written materials provided—for example make them look up standards in the source materials and then read them out to the class (this teaches them how to find the human rights “rules” by themselves when the course is finished and they have returned to their duty stations). Materials which are not opened during the course are likely never to be opened. By the end of a course, each participant's copy of *Human Rights: A Compilation of International Instruments* should show clear signs of wear, with folded pages, bent bindings and marked text;

(i) Be honest;

(j) Facilitate the participation of individuals who tend not to speak up. Draw them out with direct questions and then acknowledge the value of their comments. Pay particular attention to ensuring equal participation from women and members of minority groups, who may be accustomed to discrimination within their professional setting. A discussion dominated by males, or by the dominant group in the society or professional group, will be less satisfactory for women and members of minority groups, and cannot succeed in convincing (by example) other participants in the course of the importance of non-discrimination in their own work;

(k) Do not let discriminatory, intolerant, racist or sexist comments pass without comment. Address them as you would address any other issue which may be encountered during discussions, that is, calmly, tactfully, directly and substantively. Point out the relevant standards and explain why they are important for the effective, legal and humane performance of the work of both the United Nations and the relevant profession, and the role they play in fostering professionalism within those groups. Be prepared in advance to counter myths and stereotypes with facts. Remember that the goals of the trainer include the improvement of knowledge, skills and attitudes, and that the latter goal, albeit the most difficult to achieve, is often the most important;

(l) Structure your presentation. The old basics are best in this regard: every presentation should have an introduction, a body, a conclusion and a summation of major points;

(m) If you are confronted with a question which you are not prepared to respond to, refer to one of the other presenters, or to the audience, or to the materials (having participants look it up), or offer to provide the answer later (and be sure to follow up as promised);

(n) Use repetition—people forget;

(o) Appearance counts. A trainer must project a professional image. Obviously, it is not appropriate for the trainer to present in a T-shirt while the course participants are in uniform. The dress standards of the trainer should not fall below those of the participants and should respect their cultural and social rules;

(p) Prepare in advance—know your subject. Follow these basic steps in preparing your session:

- Refer to the training materials provided and to the programme;
- Note the time available for the session;
- Prioritize the subject matter—be sure to cover the most important (“must know”) points;
- Prepare your lesson plan;
- Draft your speaking points (introduction, body, conclusion, summary of major points);
- Select the exercise and questions to be used;
- Select or prepare your visual aids (handouts, overhead transparencies, etc.);
- Practise your presentation until you can deliver it naturally and confidently and within the time limit.

E. Key terminology

Briefing: A brief, cursory and introductory overview of a single topic. The purpose is to introduce the audience to some basic concepts with respect to a given subject.

Seminar: An organized exchange of views, ideas and knowledge on a particular topic or set of related topics. The purpose is to bring together various persons, usually (relatively) equal in their degree of expertise, each of whom is to contribute to an examination of the subject from his/her own professional, ideological academic or official position.

Workshop: A training exercise in which participants work together to study a particular subject and, in the process, create a “product”, such as a declaration, joint paper, plan of action, set of rules, written policy or code of conduct. The purpose is thus twofold: learning and the development of a “product”.

Training course: An organized training exercise, designed to allow “trainers” to impart knowledge and skills and to influence the attitudes of “trainees” or “participants”. It may either be interactive (as in the OHCHR approach described above) or follow a “professor-student” lecture model, or may be a combination of both. Whichever model they follow, training courses are a highly intensive method of learning.

F. Adapting courses to challenging field conditions

44. OHCHR has conducted training under widely varying field conditions, in countries across Africa, Asia, the Middle East, Latin America and Europe. Available facilities have varied in terms of physical conditions, infrastructure and technology, such that one course may have been conducted in a state-of-the-art, climate-controlled and electronically-equipped modern conference centre, another on the roof of a supply building and still another in an open field.

45. Persons organizing training under the approach set out in this guide must therefore take into account the setting in which the training will be offered when selecting appropriate methodology and materials, determining numbers of trainees and drafting programmes. For example, the duration of sessions will be affected by temperature and weather for outdoor courses, or courses where fans, heaters or other appropriate climate-control devices are not available. Where temperature is a factor, the timing of courses will also be affected. Similarly, flip charts and handouts must be used where electric facilities are not available for overhead transparency or slide projection.

46. If interpretation is required, the lack of facilities for simultaneous interpretation will necessitate the use of consecutive interpretation, which will cut the productive time of course sessions by half. The lack of desks or tables will mean that more printed materials will be required for distribution, as note-taking may be impractical. Finally, if the training has to be conducted in the workplace of the target audience, owing to a lack of alternative facilities, organizers should plan for additional time, as conflicting duties will almost invariably be imposed on some of the participants.

47. These are only a few of the eventualities to be taken into consideration during the planning of courses held in the field. Such courses will rarely be conducted in ideal training conditions and it is the duty of the course organizers to plan in advance for all factors with a potential impact upon the objectives of the course. Course organizers already in the field will have an advantage in this regard, as they will be able to visit possible training sites in order to select the most appropriate. Where this is not possible, advance contact with people in the field is imperative and should continue throughout the planning process. In sum, effective planning requires answers not only to such questions as “Who is the audience?” and “What are their training needs?”, but also “When is the rainy season?”, “What is the security situation?” and, inevitably, “Where are the bathrooms?”.

CHAPTER IV

AN INTRODUCTION TO HUMAN RIGHTS AND THE UNITED NATIONS HUMAN RIGHTS PROGRAMME

48. As outlined in the OHCHR training approach described above, every human rights course should be tailor-made for the particular needs of the audience to be trained. As such, the various audience-specific human rights training materials of the United Nations and other organizations should be employed in identifying appropriate content for each course. As a substantive and normative starting point, however, the following section contains a basic explanation for trainers of the international conception of human rights, and their key sources, systems and standards.

A. What is meant by “human rights”?

49. Human rights are universal legal guarantees protecting individuals and groups against actions which interfere with fundamental freedoms and human dignity. Human rights law obliges Governments to do some things and prevents them from doing others. Some of the most important characteristics of human rights are the following:

- They are internationally guaranteed;
- They are legally protected;
- They focus on the dignity of the human being;
- They protect individuals and groups;
- They obligate States and State actors;
- They cannot be waived/taken away;
- They are equal and interdependent;
- They are universal.

50. International cooperation in promoting and encouraging respect for the human rights and fundamental freedoms of all is one of the purposes of the United Nations, as outlined in Article 1 of its Charter. Thus, since the founding of the Organization in 1945, human rights have been the business of every Member State, every constituent body, every programme and agency, and every staff member of the United Nations.

B. Some examples of human rights

51. Human rights and fundamental freedoms are enumerated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in various treaties (also called “covenants” and “conventions”), declarations, guidelines and bodies of principles elaborated by the United Nations and by regional organizations. They include a broad range of guarantees, addressing virtually every aspect of human life and human interaction. Among the rights guaranteed to all human beings are:

- The right to life;
- Freedom from torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment;
- Freedom from arbitrary arrest or detention;
- The right to a fair trial;
- Freedom from discrimination;
- The right to equal protection of the law;
- Freedom from arbitrary interference with privacy, family, home or correspondence;
- Freedom of association, expression, assembly and movement;
- The right to seek and enjoy asylum;
- The right to a nationality;
- Freedom of thought, conscience and religion;
- The right to vote and take part in government;
- The right to just and favourable work conditions;
- The right to adequate food, shelter, clothing and social security;
- The right to health;
- The right to education;
- The right to property;
- The right to participate in cultural life; and, of course,
- The right to development.

C. What is “development”?

52. For the United Nations, *sustainable human development* means looking at development in an integrated, multidisciplinary way. Human rights are central to this concept of development, which stresses not just economic growth, but equitable distribution, enhancement of people’s capabilities and enlargement of their choices. It gives highest priority to the elimination of poverty, the integration of women in the development process, self-reliance and self-determination of people and governments, including the rights of indigenous peoples. Sustainable human development places people at the centre of development and advocates the protection of the life opportunities of present and future generations, respecting the natural systems on which all life depends.

D. The right to development

53. The right to development may be expressed this way: “Everyone has the right to participate in, contribute to and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development.” This right includes permanent sovereignty over natural resources; self-determination; popular participation; equality of opportunity; and the advancement of adequate conditions for the enjoyment of other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights.

54. The beneficiaries of the right to development are clear as well. As with all human rights, the *human person* is the subject. The right to development is claimable by individuals and, collectively, by peoples. Importantly, the right obligates both individual States (to ensure equal and adequate access to essential resources) and the international community (to promote fair development policies and effective international cooperation).

E. How does a “rights-based approach” to development differ from a “needs-based approach”?

55. Development is not a simple matter of charity, but a right. The distinction is an important one. When something (like development) is defined as a right, it means that someone holds a *claim*, or legal entitlement, and someone else holds a corresponding *duty* or legal obligation. This means that Governments, and their agents, are *accountable* to people for fulfilling such obligations. The duties held (by individual States vis-à-vis their own people, and collectively by the international community of States) are in some cases *positive duties* (to do or provide something) and, in others, *negative duties* (to refrain from doing something). With a rights-based approach, effective action for development moves from the optional realm of charity into the mandatory realm of law, with identifiable rights, obligations, claim-holders and duty-holders. What is more, adopting a rights-based approach opens the door for the use of a rich and growing pool of *information, analysis and jurisprudence* developed in recent years by treaty bodies and other human rights specialists on the requirements of adequate housing, health, food, childhood development, the rule of law, and virtually all other elements of sustainable human development.

F. Where do human rights “rules” come from?

56. Human rights norms and standards are derived from two principal types of international sources, namely “customary international law” and “treaty law”:

—Customary international law (or, simply, “custom”) is international law which develops through a general and consistent practice of States, followed because of a sense of legal obligation. In other words, if over a period of time States perform in a certain way because they all believe that they are required to do so, that behaviour comes to be recognized as a principle of international law, binding on States, even if not written in a particular agreement. Thus, for example, while the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is not, in itself, a binding treaty, certain provisions of the Declaration are considered to have the character of customary international law;

—Treaty law includes the law of human rights as set out in many international agreements (treaties, covenants, conventions) collectively (either bilaterally or multilaterally) developed, signed and ratified by States.

57. Some of these treaties cover whole sets of rights, such as:

—The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; and

—The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

58. Other treaties focus on particular types of violations, such as:

—The Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide;

—The International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; and

—The Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.

59. Still other treaties focus on particular groups to be protected, such as:

—The Convention on the Rights of the Child;

—The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women;

—The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families; and

—The Convention (and Protocol) relating to the Status of Refugees.

60. Another type of treaty focuses on particular situations, such as armed conflict, including:

—The four Geneva Conventions of 1949; and

—The two Protocols of 1977 additional to those Conventions.

61. All of these instruments are legally binding on the States which are parties to them.

62. Human rights standards are also enshrined in other types of instruments: declarations, recommendations, bodies of principles, codes of conduct and guidelines (such as the Declaration on the Right to Development; the Declaration on the Rights of Persons belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities; the Basic Principles on the Independence of the Judiciary; the Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials; and the Guidelines on the Role of Prosecutors).

63. These instruments are not legally binding on States in and of themselves. Nevertheless, they have moral force and provide practical guidance to States in their conduct. The value of such instruments rests on their recognition and acceptance by a large number of States and, even without binding legal effect, they may be seen as declaratory of principles that are broadly accepted within the international community. What is more, some of their provisions are declaratory of elements of customary international law and are thus binding.

64. The Declaration on the Right to Development, adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1986, is an important example of such a declaration. In the Declaration development is recognized as:

“a comprehensive economic, social, cultural and political process, which aims at the constant improvement of the well-being of the entire population and of all individuals on the basis of their active, free and meaningful participation in development and in the fair distribution of benefits resulting therefrom.”

The Declaration confirms that development is a right which belongs to every human person and identifies as its key elements: permanent sovereignty over natural resources; self-determination; popular participation; equality of opportunity; and the advancement of adequate conditions for the enjoyment of other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights.

G. Who makes these rules?

65. The international legal system, as outlined in the Charter of the United Nations, is built around a community of States. The law which governs that system, therefore, is principally law for, by and about States. As such, it is the States themselves who make the rules, through the development of custom, through the development of treaties and through the development of declarations, bodies of principles and other similar instruments. States agree on the content of these sources and agree to be bound by them. In the case of human rights law, while it is individuals and groups which are protected, it is the conduct of States (and State actors) which is regulated.

H. Where are the rules made?

66. Human rights standards are developed and codified in various international forums, through a process in which representatives of State members of those forums meet, usually repeatedly over a period of years, to work

out the form and content of international human rights instruments, article by article and line by line.

67. In United Nations forums, all States are invited to attend and participate in the drafting so as to ensure that the final document reflects the views and experience of all regions of the world and all major legal systems. Whether for a binding treaty or for an authoritative declaration, every proposal is closely scrutinized and debated, until a final text is at length agreed upon. Even then, in the case of treaties, a State is not bound by the instrument until it has signed and ratified (or acceded to) it.

68. Instruments of universal application are elaborated in United Nations human rights bodies (such as the Commission on Human Rights), for submission to the General Assembly for adoption. Additionally, expert studies on various human rights problems which may lead to the development of new human rights standards are undertaken each year by the Sub-Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights.

69. Specialized instruments of universal application are also elaborated and adopted by United Nations specialized agencies, such as the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

70. Lastly, a number of important regional human rights instruments have been developed by the major regional organizations, including the Council of Europe, the Organization of American States and the Organization of African Unity.

I. Who monitors human rights?

71. Of course, merely establishing a set of rules is not enough to ensure their application. The implementation of human rights standards is closely watched at several levels. National institutions and organizations monitoring human rights are:

- Concerned government agencies and services;
- “Paris Principles institutions”, such as an independent human rights commission or an ombudsman (these are sometimes referred to simply as “national human rights institutions”);
- Human rights groups and other non-governmental organizations (NGOs);
- Community-based organizations;
- The courts;
- Parliament;
- The media;
- Professional associations (such as lawyers’ or doctors’ associations);
- Trade unions;
- Religious organizations; and
- Academic institutions.

72. At a second level, regional organizations have developed mechanisms to monitor compliance with human rights standards of countries in their respective regions. Such mechanisms include the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, the Inter-American Court of Human Rights, the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, the European Court of Human Rights and the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe.

73. At the international (global) level, human rights are monitored by a number of international NGOs, and by the United Nations. Within the United Nations, several types of monitoring are carried out.

74. The first is "conventional" (or treaty-based) monitoring. Some human rights treaties establish a committee of experts (a "treaty body", such as the Human Rights Committee or the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women) whose main task is to monitor the implementation by States parties of the relevant treaty, mainly through the analysis of periodic reports submitted by those States. Three treaty bodies also have competence to examine individual complaints of human rights violations, under optional complaints procedures (the Human Rights Committee, the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination and the Committee against Torture).

75. The second type of monitoring is "extraconventional" (or Charter-based) monitoring. It is based on procedures and mechanisms established by the Commission on Human Rights or the Economic and Social Council, including a confidential procedure (known as the "1503 procedure") for dealing with communications relating to consistent patterns of gross violations of human rights and special procedures which examine, monitor and publicly report on human rights situations either in specific countries and territories ("country mechanisms or mandates") or concerning a specific human rights problem ("thematic mechanisms or mandates"). They are entrusted to working groups composed of experts acting in their individual capacity (such as the Working Group on Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances and the Working Group on Arbitrary Detention), to individuals designated as special rapporteurs, representatives or independent experts (such as the Special Rapporteur on the independence of judges and lawyers, the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on the situation of human rights in Cambodia, and the independent expert on the situation of human rights in Haiti) or directly to the Secretary-General (as is the case for the question of human rights and mass exoduses).

76. The third type of monitoring is through peacekeeping and human rights field operations. Recently, the inclusion of human rights aspects in the mandates of United Nations peacekeeping operations has increased dramatically. The assignment of various human rights functions to the international personnel involved in their implementation, has included monitoring the human rights situation and reporting on it. Extensive human rights mandates were assigned to the United Nations Observer Mission in El Salvador, the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia, the United Nations Mission for the Verification of Human Rights in Guate-

mala, the International Civilian Mission to Haiti, the United Nations Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina and other such operations.

77. In addition, the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights has established human rights field presences with monitoring mandates in several countries.

J. The role of the High Commissioner for Human Rights

78. In addition to serving as the secretariat for the United Nations human rights treaty-based and extraconventional human rights bodies, the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) implements the High Commissioner's global mandate to:

- Promote and protect the effective enjoyment by all of all civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights, and in particular the right to development;
- Provide, through the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights and other appropriate institutions, advisory services and technical and financial assistance in the field of human rights at the request of the State concerned and regional organizations;
- Coordinate relevant United Nations education and public information programmes in the field of human rights;
- Play an active role in removing the current obstacles and in meeting the challenges to the full realization of all human rights and in preventing the continuation of human rights violations throughout the world, as reflected in the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action adopted by the World Conference on Human Rights in 1993;
- Engage in a dialogue with all Governments with a view to securing respect of all human rights;
- Carry out the tasks assigned to her/him by the competent bodies of the United Nations system in the field of human rights with a view to improving the promotion and protection of all human rights.

K. Institution-building and technical cooperation

79. The United Nations has been involved in the delivery of human rights assistance since the 1950s. In 1955, the General Assembly established a programme of advisory services and technical assistance in the field of human rights (now the programme of technical cooperation in the field of human rights). Since that time, countless developing countries on all continents have benefited from the programme, which provides advice, expertise and other support for the strengthening of domestic institutional capacities for the promotion and protection of human rights. The programme, which is developed and administered by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, focuses on human rights institution-building for key national actors and agencies.

80. Programme areas, as elaborated upon in the annual report of the Secretary-General to the Commission on Human Rights, today include a broad range of institutional entry points for human rights, democracy and the rule of law. Among these are advisory services, training, fellowships and grants directed to: constitutional assistance; legislative reform; free and fair elections; independent judiciaries; fair prosecutions; humane policing; decent penal institutions; effective parliaments; independent national (“Paris Principles”) institutions; and strong, capable and free national NGOs. As mandated by the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, the programme also makes available direct support for the drafting of national plans of action in the field of human rights. Complementary forms of assistance are made available by other actors in the United Nations system, including the United Nations Development Programme.

L. Enforcement

81. International human rights law obliges States to take all necessary measures to give force to the standards contained in its treaties and customary principles. This means, *inter alia*, ensuring redress for victims, prosecuting offenders, preventing abuses and combating impunity. Thus, in the first instance, it is the individual States themselves which must act to enforce the standards, principally through their domestic legal systems.

82. Where they do not, cannot or will not do so, States may be compelled, in certain circumstances, to extradite, transfer or surrender an alleged offender for prosecution elsewhere. Some treaties, like the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, expressly require States parties to try or extradite offenders.

83. At the international level, in the 1990s, in the wake of genocide and crimes against humanity in Rwanda

and the former Yugoslavia, ad hoc tribunals were established by the United Nations Security Council to bring to justice persons responsible for serious abuses in those countries. Subsequently, as the decade and the millennium drew to a close, the international community advanced the cause of enforcement significantly, with the adoption, in Rome on 17 July 1998, of the Statute of the International Criminal Court, laying the foundation for a permanent international tribunal to give effect to the half-century-old affirmation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that:

“It is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law”.

M. How are human rights complaints and petitions handled?

84. The United Nations receives thousands of complaints of human rights violations every year. A variety of mechanisms have been established by the Organization to handle such complaints, including:

- Treaty-based procedures, which provide for the consideration of “communications” by treaty bodies described above;
- Extraconventional mechanisms, such as special rapporteurs and working groups of the Commission on Human Rights, including through urgent appeals to Governments;
- The “1503 procedure” (so named after the Economic and Social Council resolution by which it was established), handles complaints confidentially, identifying patterns of gross violations of human rights.

Further information can be obtained from: The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland

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ANNEX

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

[Adopted and proclaimed by the General Assembly in its resolution 217 A (III) of 10 December 1948]

Preamble

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations,

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in cooperation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms,

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now, therefore,

The General Assembly,

Proclaims this Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1

All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2

Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3

Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4

No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5

No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6

Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7

All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8

Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10

Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11

1. Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.

2. No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each State.

2. Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14

1. Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.

2. This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15

1. Everyone has the right to a nationality.

2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16

1. Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

2. Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

3. The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17

1. Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.

2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.

2. No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21

1. Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.

2. Everyone has the right to equal access to public service in his country.

3. The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22

Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international cooperation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23

1. Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

2. Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

3. Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

4. Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24

Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25

1. Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

2. Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26

1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27

1. Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

2. Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28

Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29

1. Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

2. In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

3. These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30

Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.