1-1-1975

The peace transformation process : toward a framework for peace education.

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Recommended Citation

Carpenter, Susan L., "The peace transformation process : toward a framework for peace education." (1975). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 2164.
https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/2164

THE PEACE TRANSFORMATION PROCESS:

TOWARD A FRAMEWORK FOR PEACE EDUCATION

A Dissertation Presented

by

Susan Lynn Carpenter

Submitted to the Graduate School of the

University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

December 1975

School of Education

THE PEACE TRANSFORMATION PROCESS:

TOWARD A FRAMEWORK FOR PEACE EDUCATION
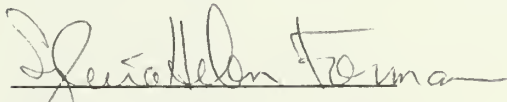

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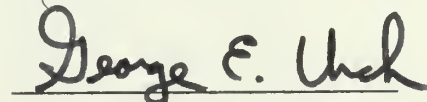
by

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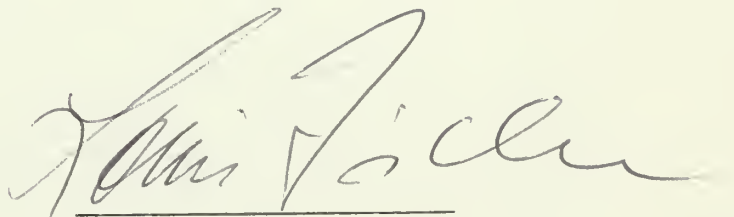Approved as to Style and Content by:

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

The Peace Transformation Process:
Toward a Framework for Peace Education

(December 1975)

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Elementary and secondary peace education is being
promoted by national educational and professional organiza-
tions, regional and local organizations and by individuals
within state and local school districts. Because it is a
new field much confusion exists about its basic goals and
approaches. Expanding interest in peace education is not
being matched by the development of guidelines for producing
and organizing materials or developing programs.

This study examines the growth of interest in peace
education, identifies approaches currently in use and suggests
a framework which may be used to develop and organize curri-
culum materials and programs.

Assumptions that peace can and should be learned in
the schools is supported by ethological, sociological, anthro-
pological, psychological and educational research. Foundations
for peace education are provided by a wealth of historical
experiences in nonviolent social action, internationalism and

pacifism extending as far back as recorded history. The
field of peace research provides its most immediate roots.

Review of at least three-fourths of the available
curriculum units on peace education for elementary and second-
are schools reveals five major approaches to peace education--
war and war prevention, conflict and conflict resolution,
world order, development and social justice and nonviolent
action. Discussion of each approach includes a list of basic
assumptions, a statement of goals, possible content areas and
general comments.

The peace transformation process introduces one pos-
sible guideline for developing and organizing peace education
materials and programs. Peace is defined as a relationship
between individuals, groups or nations which is characterized
by collaboration for mutual benefit. The peace transformation
process suggests seven basic components which will enhance
the development of understandings and skills necessary to
restructure less peaceful relationships into more peaceful
ones. The seven components are description, analysis, imaging,
education, confrontation, conflict resolution and development.
In addition to these components the peace transformation pro-
cess examines the context of a specific relationship or set
of relationships and explicitly includes a systems perspective,
a futures perspective and incorporates a consideration of all
points of view. Classroom exercises accompany the discussion
of each component.

Methodologies which are consistent with the content

of peace education are briefly discussed. Supportive method-
ologies include research experiences, active learning exercises,
application opportunities, informal learning opportunities,
and personalized learning. Possible learning outcomes are
mentioned. Directions for future efforts in peace education
are offered.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

For thousands of years people dreamed of flying,
but only in this century have we been able to fly. The
reason is that our stock of knowledge--of mechanics, of
aerodynamics--finally rose over the threshold at which
human flight became possible.

Similarly, for thousands of years people have
dreamed of peace, and wars have gone on. But here too
the stock of knowledge--of social systems, of human
psychology--has been rising, and we may be close to
that dramatic threshold at which the human race will
learn to live at peace as it has learned to fly.
                              Kenneth Boulding

While the incidence and potential cost of violence may
appear to be increasing, some theorists such as Kenneth Boulding
believe that as an evolving civilization we may be reaching a
dramatic point in our history which will enable us to acquire
and maintain a lasting peace throughout the world.

Today we are experiencing an impressive growth of
peace-related academic and occupational activities. A number
of academic disciplines in the humanities, social sciences and
natural sciences have established working committees within
their professional organizations to address specific peace
concerns. For example, the American Sociological Association
has established a Committee on the Sociology of World Conflicts.
At the same time, new professional organizations have been
created to focus exclusively on peace-related concerns. The

Conference on Peace Research in History (CPRH) grew out of the concerns of some members in the American Historical Association. CPRH has sponsored conferences on peace research, has prepared a survey of available curriculum materials in peace studies and is now publishing a journal, Peace and Change, as a forum for communicating current thought the research on the historical and humanistic dimensions of peace studies. Finally, both interdisciplinary organizations, (i.e., the International Studies Association), and new areas of study, (i.e., future and world order studies), include peace as a central concern in their work.

While the advent of peace studies as a discrete area of study is relatively recent, it draws on an impressive collection of knowledge from the full range of disciplines. Learning about peace may focus on conflict management, international dispute settlement, social justice and development, community crisis intervention, the military-industrial complex, transnational networks, family conflict counseling and non-violent social change.

Today the employment opportunities available to persons trained in peace-making skills are increasing. Government, businesses, educational systems and international organizations are recognizing the value of peace training. Union arbitration, education, crisis intervention, family/ marriage counseling, international relations and development planning are but a few of the fields open to persons with peace-making skills.

The composite peace-related knowledge available today may be enough to put us over the dramatic threshold. But knowledge, in itself, will not create peaceful relations. The knowledge must be accompanied by people who are committed to seeking, transmitting and applying that knowledge.

In a world of crises, conflict and rapidly changing conditions, interest in educating people for peace and about peace becomes more appealing. The current growing interest in peace education as a discrete area of formal learning in the United States can be attributed in part to:

1. The realization that certain interrelated global issues, such as the proliferation of nuclear arms, the depletion and uneven distribution of natural resources, the disruption of the global ecological balance, the ever-widening gap between the rich and the poor and the rapidly expanding global population, threaten the survival of life on this planet unless immediate and novel steps are taken;

2. The awareness that an ever-increasing rate of social and technological change also increases the number of conflicts at all levels of human relationships;

3. The conclusion that the American society can no longer afford the consequences of violence like that experienced both domestically and internationally in the Sixties;

4. The realization by peace researchers that if their work is to have a substantial impact on the attitudes and practices of both national leaders and the general public they will need to address a larger audience than they do at pre-

sent, and do it more effectively;

5. The conviction by some educators that the task of developing responsible citizens for tomorrow's world will require major changes in the school and university curriculums of today.

Encouragement and support for the development of peace-related education is being voiced not only by professional educators but by a range of concerned individuals--scientists, business people, parents, social workers and religious leaders.

General Problem

Despite current popular interest there still remains great confusion about the field of peace education. People question whether it should include examination of the growth of the military-industrial complex, international political systems, imperialism, ethnic conflict, inner peace, resource distribution, community action or human relations training. Questions are also asked about the most appropriate ways to learn about peace.

To date there are no adequate answers for these questions. We do know that peace education may draw on the knowledge and competencies of all the established disciplines. While the awareness of the potential importance of this new area grows, people are becoming more conscious of the lack of consensus on guidelines for understanding the field, for organizing peace programs and for producing peace learning materials. More dialogue and agreement is needed on the basic

parameters for the content and methodology of peace education.

Higher education programs and courses lead peace education in the United States. At the college level, over 50 institutions offer programs and some 200 additional campuses offer courses which focus specifically on peace, compared to a handful currently identified at the pre-collegiate level (Washburn and Wehr, forthcoming).

Most of the college programs were born in response to the student unrest of the 1960s over the United States government's actions in Southeast Asia, over the government's domestic policies and over the dissatisfaction of university programs which were not addressing current crucial issues and future national and global needs. College programs had the advantage of being able to draw more easily on the knowledge and skills of peace researchers, because they are generally university-based.

Specific Problem:

The Lack of Guidelines for Developing Peace Education Materials, Courses and Programs in Elementary and Secondary Schools

Peace education has been slower to develop at the pre-collegiate level. While national organizations such as the National Council for the Social Studies, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the National Education Association are supporting the development of peace education, few materials, programs and projects have been created for use in the schools.

Materials which do exist cover such diverse topics as war prevention, world hunger and personal affirmation exercises. Few people have a clear idea of what the field of peace education may encompass. Peace educators, themselves, have difficulty agreeing on a working definition of peace. No major effort has been made to identify categories of approaches currently in use and, to date, no general guidelines for the development of materials, courses or programs exist.

If peace education is going to have an effect on elementary and secondary education, today's growing interest will need to be matched by the development of quality materials, courses and programs. Their development will require the careful articulation of the general goals, purposes, approaches and components of peace education.

Proposal

To address the specific problem stated above, this study will respond to the following questions as they relate to elementary and secondary education:

1. Can and should peace be learned in schools?

2. What are the foundations of peace education?

3. What approaches are currently being used to educate about and for peace?

4. What programs and organizations currently focus their work on peace education?

5. What type of general curriculum framework can be developed which will cover the basic components of peacemaking?

6. What methodologies are most appropriate for learning peace?

7. What might be some possible outcomes of such a curriculum

framework?

8. What further work needs to be done in peace education?

Procedure

The following procedures will be used. The basic literature related to peace education will be reviewed. This will include research on the development of children's attitudes toward peace and war, ethnographic studies and surveys related to the socialization of peaceful behaviors and literature on the history and current activities in peace education. Elementary and secondary peace education materials will be collected and reviewed to determine basic approaches currently in use.

Two questionnaires will be sent to collect information. The first questionnaire will be addressed to state social studies coordinators and supervisors to identify materials and programs which have been produced by state social studies education departments or by specific systems within a state. A second questionnaire will be sent to persons working at the elementary and secondary level in peace education organizations to collect data on specific approaches and services offered by their organization.

Finally this work will draw on the author's observations, conversations, correspondence and experiences with domestic and foreign peace educators acquired in the context of workshops, conferences, conventions, project sessions and meetings over the past three years.

The work will be organized in the following sequence of chapters:

Chapter One presents reasons for current interest in the study of peace, looks at general concerns in the field of peace education, states the specific problem which this work will address, presents the proposal, the procedure, the limitations of the study and the definition of terms.

Chapter Two discusses the rationale for including peace education in the formal curriculum of schools. Issues of whether peace can and should be learned are explored.

Chapter Three presents the history of peace education including its early roots, the contributions that peace research has made to its development, its growth in other countries, its North American antecedents and its recent developments at the collegiate and pre-collegiate levels.

Chapter Four examines the approaches currently being used in peace education at the elementary and secondary level in the United States and presents a survey of current programs and organizations focused on peace education.

Chapter Five offers a peace transformation process as a framework for developing peace education materials and programs at the elementary and secondary level.

Chapter Six considers methodologies which may contribute to the learning of peace, discusses some possible outcomes of using the peace transformation process and concludes with a look at several priorities which need to be addressed if peace education is going to have an impact on the formal educa-

tion system.

Limitations of the Study

This study will have two major constraints. First, it will be directed to formal elementary and secondary education in the United States, though many parts may have application beyond this scope. Second, the curriculum framework will not be definitive, but rather one guideline to be used by individuals interested in the developing of their own peace education materials and programs.

Definition of Terms

Peace. Peace is a relationship between individuals, groups or nations which is characterized by a high level of collaboration for mutual benefit (Curle,1971).

In American society, the word peace is as pervasive a household term as MacDonald's, T.V. and football. One can hear about peace and quiet, peace with honor, peaceful neighborhood, peaceful coexistence, peaceniks, a peaceful scene, Peace Corps, inner peace, fighting for peace, peace-keeping force and stable peace. Each phrase conjures up its own set of connotations.

For some, peace has religious significance, achieving "peace on earth" being one major goal of humanity. Others associate peace with anti-war marches or demonstrations which they may consider to be patriotic or unpatriotic depending on their political views. A mother may shoo her children out of the house pleading for some "peace and quiet." The word peace

and its symbols are subjects of songs, films, buttons, bumper stickers, posters, graffiti, slogans, decals and jewelry.

Despite its widespread usage, one can find little agreement on the definition of peace. It is perhaps one of the most misunderstood words in the English language. Its meaning is so ambiguous that one can justify almost any belief or action in the name of peace.

Traditionally, the word peace has meant the opposite of war. War was characterized by physical harm and overt hostilities among nations and peace was characterized by the lack of them. Webster's Third New International Dictionary defines peace as "a freedom from civil clamor and confusion; a mental or spiritual condition marked by freedom from dis-quieting or oppressive thoughts or emotions; a tranquil state of freedom from outside disturbance and harassment; harmony in human or personal relations; a state of mutual concord between governments; absence of activity and noise; one that makes, gives or maintains tranquility" (1966, s.v. "peace"). Only the last meaning suggests an active process rather than a passive condition.

Some people today suggest that peace would be more appropriately placed opposite the word violence since violence can include the less observable forms of social injustice. Johan Galtung, a Norwegian peace researcher, divides the con-cept of peace into negative and positive components. Negative peace is the absence of behavioral or overt violence. This would include physical or psychological violence caused by acts

such as blackmail, beatings, riot or war. Positive peace is the absence of structural violence, that violence built into a system by the uneven distribution of resources and uneven distribution of power over the resources, as in colonial systems and in racial discrimination. Both negative and positive peace are required to have peace in its fullest sense (Galtung,1969,167-91).

Adam Curle, a peacemaker, writer and teacher, prefers the dichotomy of peace and unpeacefulness.

> Peace is a condition from which the individuals or groups concerned gain more advantage than disadvantage. Ideally, it means something even more positive, the harmonious and constructive collaboration typified by a happy marriage, or an effectively run common market. Unpeacefulness is a situation in which human beings are impeded from achieving full development either because of their own internal relations or because of the types of relations that exist between themselves (as individuals or group members) and other persons or groups (Curle,1971,1).

Alexander Solzhenitzyn, Soviet author and Nobel laureate, feels that the contrast "peace-war" involves an error of logic. According to him,

> War is a mass phenomenon--compact, noisy, distinct. But it is by no means the only expression of the world-wide wave of violence that never ends. A logically balanced and morally truthful contrast would be: peace-violence. It is necessary to wage a war against the "quiet," hidden types of violence with no less determination than one would wage battle against "noisier" types (Solzhenitzyn,1973).

Maria Montessori, an early childhood educator and peace education advocate, believed that the cessation of war was not an adequate description of peace.

> War might be likened to the burning of a palace filled with works of art and precious treasures. When the palace is reduced to a heap of smoldering ashes and suffocating smoke, the physical disaster is complete; but the smolder-

ashes, the smoke that prevents people from breathing,
can be compared to peace as the world ordinarily under-
stands it. . . . Peace is not the ultimate and permanent
triumph of war, rather it is the triumph of justice and
love among people, the building of a better world where
harmony reigns (Montessori,1972,5-6).

To all the above writers, the concept of peace incor-
porates both the lack of physical violence done to individuals
or groups and the lack of structural violence which discri-
minates or oppresses through economic, political or social
institutions and practices. Peace is seen as a positive, dyna-
mic effort toward the transformation of relationships from
lower levels to higher levels of social justice and coopera-
tion.

The concept of peace as a dynamic process which ad-
dresses both physical and structural violence can be found
throughout history. In the sixteenth century, for example,
Erasmus, a Dutch humanist, defined peace as a composite re-
sulting from mutual enrichment through mutual concessions; a
whole, not a part; the sum of the good will of all, not a sur-
render to the unyielding will of one (Chapiro,1950,xiv). Accord-
ing to Erasmus:

Peace is a cause and effect at the same time. Cause and
effect, however, are not obtained by passive attitude.
Peace is not a result of passivity. To create it, and
derive all its benefits, requires a strong will and con-
stant vigilance. For the art of peace is more difficult
than the art of war and must, consequently, be learned
with more application, as it takes far more knowledge
to build than destroy.

Everywhere there are military schools which teach
the art of making war; but where are the schools where
young men are taught the arts and tactics for winnins,
building and strengthening peace? Their absence is one
of the greatest contradictions in the life of nations

which naturally aspire to peace (Chapiro,1950,62).

Today many peace educators are building on the definition of peace offered by Adam Curle. They are attempting to strengthen the image of peace as an active, dynamic process which has been overshadowed by the concept of peace as a passive state or condition, and they are including in their definition the absence of structural as well as physical violence.

Conflict. Conflict is a relationship between two or more parties who (or whose spokesperson) believe they have incompatible goals (Kriesberg,1973,17). Conflicts are a natural part of society. They may be healthy or unhealthy. If a conflict forces two parties to more carefully articulate their grievances and thereby enables the two parties to come closer to understanding each other, the conflict may be contributing to the development of a more peaceful relationship. If, on the other hand, a conflict increases hostilities between two people or groups, the conflict may provoke violence. Today, while an increase in the number of conflicts is not in itself dangerous, the use of violence as a means of resolving them is.

Violence. Violence is damage done to the potential for human fulfillment by either the personal, physical or psychological harm through such events as war, beatings or blackmail; or the harm caused by structures of institutions which unevenly distribute resources and power over those resources as in cases of economic, political or social discrimination, manipulation or oppression (Galtung,1969,11).

Structural violence may lead to physical violence and

vice versa. Groups experiencing economic discrimination because of their cultural, racial or religious affiliation may become sufficiently provoked to use violence to change their condition. Persons using physical violence to attain a desired end may be quelled by the establishment of excessively repressive measures by the national government or local authorities.

Peace education. Peace education is the process of developing an understanding of the nature of peace, conflict and violence and acquiring the knowledge and experience of how to transform less peaceful relationships to more peaceful ones. Peace education aims to develop "peace-able" rather than peaceable behavior.

Summary

Interest in peace education continues to expand in the United States. Support for it is being generated by a range of educational and professional organizations. Higher education leads in the development of materials and programs.

Enthusiasm for peace education at the elementary and secondary level has not been matched by the development of clear guidelines for organizing and producing courses, materials and programs. The following chapters will examine a rationale for learning peace, explore its history and identify approaches currently in use as the background for presenting the peace transformation process as one possible guideline for learning peace.

A RATIONALE FOR PEACE EDUCATION

POGO   By WALT KELLY

Pogo's friend raises an issue of major concern to
peace educators, why doesn't making peace seem as natural as
making war? What inside us questions the value of learning about
peace? To present a rationale for peace education one needs
to face at least four questions. Can peace be learned? Should
peace be learned? Can peace be learned in schools? Should
peace be learned in schools? This chapter will address these
questions.

Can Peace Be Learned?

Recently a number of works rooting human conflict and
fighting in the innate tendency toward aggression have received
popular attention. Based on the observation of animals,

ethologists Lorenz (1969) and Morris (1967) have claimed that the human species are evolutionarily programmed to be aggressive. Ardrey (1962, 1966) has popularized the notion of an inborn "aggressive drive" relating it to territorial behavior and by presenting evidence for the existence of a "killer instinct."

Sharp criticism for their views have come from those who feel that the gap between human and lower animal behavior is too great to permit drawing such parallels. In leaping from the simple systems to the complex, the essential character of the complex may be omitted. Human behavior is grounded more on cultural evolution than biological (Boulding,1968).

The term aggression when used to refer to the animal world generally does not have the negative connotation of violence it does when associated with human behavior. Aggression in the animal world is one of many interrelated innate tendencies which contributes to individual and group survival. When related to human behavior aggression acquires intentionality to attack, fight or do harm. Even in humans aggressive behavior may be healthy if it is expressed in constructive ways, such as a successful salesperson or a football player. Aggressive behavior becomes harmful when it destroys property or injures another person. In many cases the perception of what constitutes aggression depends on the value position of the observer. The North Vietnamese were considered "aggressors" by the sympathizers of South Vietnam and "liberators" by people who supported North Vietnam.

Emphasis on aggressive tendencies also ignores a number of complex interacting variables which coexist with aggression such as cooperation, empathy, sacrifice, deferment of gratification, social bonding. These can be understood only in reference to one's social matrix. The framework for aggressive behavior must be expanded beyond its simplistic, direct association with instincts (Holloway,1967).

The belief in an innate aggressive propensity has important political implications. It gives a certain legitimacy and inevitability to conflicts and fighting and may therefore become a self-fulfilling prophecy. It is interesting to note that the theory of innate aggression in humans became popular at the height of the Vietnamese War, and was woven by politicians into the official justification for the war (Boulding,1968,89). In a Gallup poll of the late Sixties, a large portion of the respondents felt that the war was an inevitable consequence of human nature and that efforts to do away with it were futile (Wehr,1974,9).

Another ethologist, Eibl-Eibesfeldt (1971) feels that both aggressive and altruistic behavior are preprogrammed in individuals.

> Man's aggressive impulses are counterbalanced by his
> equally deep-rooted social tendencies. It is not only
> conditioning which programs us to be good--we are good
> by inclination. The disposition to cooperation and
> mutual aid is innate, as are many specific behavior
> patterns of friendly contact (Eibl-Eibesfeldt,1971,5).

According to his findings only the teleost fish, birds and mammals are capable of personal bonding. His research,

based more on the observation of human beings, than the work
of the aggression ethologists, suggests that with the develop-
ment of the capacity for love, the higher vertebrates have
outgrown aggression and have reached an evolutionary state
that must be evaluated as higher (Ibid.,93).

He feels that the hope for civilization lies in the
fact that specific aggression-inhibition tendencies are
innate rather than learned. Society now needs to recognize,
develop and extend the innate bonding capacity to all fellow
humans in order that they might "evolve the social responsi-
bility which is a prerequisite for a peaceful communal exis-
tence, probably indeed for any further existence at all as a
species" (Ibid.,245).

Sociologist Elise Boulding feels the presence of
such inherited tendencies means that learning certain social
behaviors will be easier than others (Boulding,1972,4). The
learning of peace, for example, may draw on an individual's
propensity for social bonding, problem-solving and altruism.

To other scholars the influence of one's environment
has a stronger influence on the development of one's behavior
than does heredity. To understand the development of a human
personality one must look to the social processes which form
individual and group personalities. According to Alexander
Alland, "the evidence tells us that man is not driven by
instincts but rather that he is born with a set of capacities,
potentials which are developed or thwarted and given direction
by early learning and the cultural process" (Alland,1972,62).

Two ethnographic studies, which may be cited as illus-
trations of the importance of socialization on the development
of personal behavior, are the Yanamamö of southern Venezuela
and northern Brazil and the Semai of Malaya.

According to Chagnon (1968) the Yanamamö society
selects for and encourages "ferocity." Parents frequently
tease a small boy to strike his tormenter and reward his anger
with approving laughter. Boys have numerous opportunities
to participate in fights. Forced by their parents to fight,
boys' initial fears turn to anger and rage, and they end up
enthusiastically pounding each other as hard as they can,
bawling, screaming and rolling in the dirt.

Young men are competitive and often show their capacity
for rage by throwing temper tantrums. As they acquire wives
their anger is vented on the women by beating them, burning
them or shooting them in the buttocks with barbed arrows. One
implication of this behavior is that men will be equally fierce
with male opponents.

In addition to wife beating, other common forms of
violence include chest-pounding duels, club fights, spear
fights, raids and treacherous feasts (where male guests are
massacred and their women abducted). The form a fight takes
can easily be escalated to the next more serious level. The
cause of the fight may soon be forgotten as it is perpetuated
largely by reason of its own being. Both the abundance of vio-
lent roles to model and the reinforcement of desirable fighting
behavior, contribute to the Yanamamö's acquisition of fierce

behavior.

The Semai of Malaya, on the other hand, have created through the same process of modeling and reinforcement a social system characterized by nonviolent behavior. Children learn early to fear the potential violence of others and the results of any expression of their own aggressive impulses (Dentan,1968).

Parents refrain from using any harsh physical punishment on their children. Parents will scare or threaten to use violence in order to stop children from doing a bad or dangerous act. If a young child tries to hit an adult he or she may be fended off with laughter or a threat. Children therefore have little personal experience with human violence and, in the absence of punishment, have no aggressive models to imitate.

Semai parents also have a low tolerance for fighting among children. If a child loses his or her temper with another child, an adult immediately snatches up the angry child and carries him or her off crying to his or her house. Games played by the children avoid any form of pain or hurt and none of the indigenous games involve competition. Children are expected to conform to the Semai's image of nonviolent behavior and quickly learn that violence will not be tolerated.

It is interesting to note that during the Communist insurgency in the early 1950s the British-trained Semai troops were excellent soldiers. While people expected the Semai to avoid killing, once out of their nonviolent society and ordered to kill, they seemed to have become obsessed with killing. Once back in Semai society, ex-soldiers seemed as gentle and afraid

of violence as anyone else. This experience illustrates the
strong influence social norms may exert over members of a
society.

In our own society a number of studies have been con-
ducted which relate the development of violent behavior to
particular social influences. David Mantell (1974) traces
the roots of attitudes toward war and violence in young men
back to the influence of home life. Mantell compared 25 Green
Beret soldiers who supported the war and use of violence in
Vietnam and who showed a notable preference during adolescence
for aggression and violent situations with 25 war resisters
who opposed the war and use of violence in Vietnam. Through
analyzing a series of questionnaires and extensive interviews,
Mantell discovered that the parents of the Green Berets demand-
ed obedience without question to their authority, relied heav-
ily on physical punishment to enforce their demands, expected
their sons to show respect for adults without reciprocating
respect to their children and expected conformity to the stan-
dards of the community. Fathers tended to be formal, cere-
monial and cold, engaging in few conversations with their sons
and taking little interest in their son's development.

Parents of the draft resisters, on the other hand,
attempted to justify their own actions and views to their chil-
dren, never used or threatened to use violence against each
other, seldom used more than shouting to express anger against
their children, let their sons use their own judgment rather
than laying down rigid rules for behavior and permitted criticism

of their own behavior. Fathers tended to be helpful, res-
pectful, patient, affectionate, understanding, accepting. In-
stead of punishing, parents tried to encourage desired beha-
vior by means of praise, reasoning and rewards. Family dis-
cussions of intellectual topics commonly encouraged all mem-
bers to think for themselves.

Mantell's study concluded that a high correlation
exists between the degree to which children have been exposed
to arbitrary authority, physical abuse and intimidation and
their later readiness to submit to these practices and to
make use of them.

Jerome Frank also has found that corporal punishment
seems to increase aggressive behavior by frustrating the child
and by supplying him with an aggressive model to imitate. "It
seems safe to conclude," says Frank, "on the basis of present
evidence that the strongest internal controls (against uses
of violence) are developed by children whose parents have
shaped their behavior through affection, praise and reason
rather than through physical punishment and deprivation of
privileges" (Frank,1967,283).

In addition to the family, a number of other important
social spaces exist for the development and reinforcement of
social behavior. Mass media, schools, peer groups, and neigh-
borhood and community organizations are some of the other impor-
tant socializing agents in the child's life.

The influence of these social spaces change during the
child's development. According to a study of the sources of

attitudes on war and peace in American and Canadian children Haavelsrud (1971) found the family and neighborhood to be more important in earlier years. Later the peer group, school and other formal institutions became more influential. Media remained significant and unchanged throughout, from pre-school through high school years. Tenth-grade students ranked their peers as the most important source of information about peace and felt that teachers, textbooks and media taught them more effectively about war than peace.

People do have the capacity for learning peace. A repertoire of propensities including social bonding, empathy, altruism and problem-solving may enhance the learning, while a number of social spaces such as the family, schools, peers, the media, neighborhood and community organizations may provide specific models and reinforcement for learning "peaceable" behavior.

Peace can be learned.

Should Peace Be Learned?

There is no doubt that we have arrived at a dramatic moment in our history, when for the first time the very survival of the earth and all its inhabitants is in question. A series of interrelated global events hastens, at best, an increase in the numbers of conflicts on all levels of human relationships and, at worst, the annihilation of all global life.

Certain regions of the world already feel the pressures of explosive population growth. More will feel the direct pressures as the world's population could more than double in

the next thirty years. Population growth creates conflicts between countries and within communities over appropriate responses to rapid population growth. Conflicts over the amount and kind of population control services which should be provided, over plans for controlled community growth, and over proposals by citizens within and between nations for specific national government population policies are only a few of the conflicts which have been spawned by the current population growth rate.

Environmental deterioration and destruction have already sparked a number of important conflicts over the acceptable level of environmental cost for economic growth and over issues involving guidelines for land use--who may decide about the use, who may own, who may control, who may develop and who may use our rivers, lakes, oceans, air and other shared natural resources.

Both the distribution and depletion of natural resources are issues that will continue to produce conflicts. The United States, with 6% of the world's population, alone consumes nearly one-third of the world's natural resources (Miller,1975, 201). If current trends continue in the next twenty years the United States will have less than 6% of the world's population while consuming up to 80% of the world's resources. Tensions will continue to increase as the unequal distribution of resources within and between nations continued to widen the gap between the rich and the poor.

Current projections estimate that more of the earth's

natural resources will be removed in the next 15 years than in all previous human history. In the process the world will soon exhaust several non-renewable sources. With the doubling of the world's population and continued emphasis on rapid economic growth, struggles over the distribution and use of natural resources will sharpen and intensify.

The power of weapons has increased 1,000,000 times over the past 100 years (Platt,1969). Both the United States and the U.S.S.R. have the nuclear capacity to destroy life on this earth 15 times over. Today 6 nations belong to the nuclear club. Officials of the U.S. Arms Control and Disarmament Agency have estimated that by the year 1985, two dozen nations could acquire nuclear weapons (New York Times,7/5/74). Control and use of these weapons will cause conflict over policies of international limitations, over distribution within and between countries and over production and safety regulations.

The global proliferation of nuclear power plants offers an additional danger. Nuclear reactors and power plants make plutonium, the necessary material for constructing a nuclear weapon, readily available. Plutonium bombs, unlike the uranium bombs, are not technically difficult to construct. They can be built from half as much material as a uranium bomb and can be made from impure plutonium. A simple implosion nuclear weapon requires from 4 to 8 kilograms of plutonium depending on the weapon design. A medium-sized reactor produces in excess of 200 kilograms of plutonium per year. Accordingly, a few months of operation of the reactor would produce enough

material for a number of nuclear weapons ("The Proposed U.S.-Supported Egyptian and Israeli Nuclear Programs," 1974).

Today there are 15 countries operating atomic power plants, all of them quietly producing plutonium. Atomic power plants are being built in at least 10 other countries and are on order in 10 more. This does not include a number of countries who are developing small research reactors.

In addition to the areas of conflict described above, the rate of social, economic and political change causes conflicts as individuals find it more difficult to respond to the increasing acceleration and volume of change. Human history may experience more change in the next 25 years than it has in the preceding 2,500 (Boulding,1964).

As individuals continue to break away from their traditional cultural patterns, conflict over living patterns and social values may also increase. Rapid social change has already sharpened conflicts produced by ethnocentrism, racism, militant nationalism, ethnic and religious differences, euthanasia practices, the demand for women's rights, for abortion, for equal access to education and for the right to sexual preference.

Technological developments such as personality-control drugs, the artificial creation of life, weather control, genetic control, man-machine symbiosis, household robots and advanced techniques of opinion control offer other areas for conflict as individuals, communities and nations disagree on the potential application and social consequence of each new tech-

nological development.

No society has ever been free of conflicts and probably
no society ever will. Conflicts in themselves may be healthy
or unhealthy. While an increase in the number of conflicts
is not in itself dangerous, the use of violence as a means of
resolving them is. The point has been reached where society
can no longer afford the consequences of violence. In addi-
tion to physical damage, violence causes severe psychological
strains, is exorbitantly expensive and places a serious drain
on our rapidly dwindling financial and natural resources. It
has been estimated, for example, that the budgeted military
cost of the Vietnamese War will increase by at least 50% as
veterans benefits are paid out over the next 100 years   (U.S.
Senate Committee of Foreign Relations, June 1971). Violence
may destroy parts of nature's delicately balanced ecological
system, requiring years to restore. As much as a century
may be required to reclaim some of the land destroyed in Viet-
nam.

Violence multiplies the chances that one group or
nation might resort to the use of nuclear weapons to annihi-
late major portions of the population. Such an act could re-
sult in the total extinction of planetary life.

Today limited acts of violence in one part of the
world may touch large numbers of people elsewhere because of
our increasing global interrelatedness. The withholding of oil
by Arab nations as a retaliatory measure against nations who
supported Israel in the Middle East War illustrates the impact

which a limited conflict may have on other members of the global community.

For the first time society can think about providing adequate food, clothing, housing, medical care and dignity for all members of the human family. Yet societies continue to inflict suffering on all levels of human relationships--suffering from the behavioral violence caused by acts of war terrorism, bombings and child abuse and from the structural violence caused by practices which produce poverty, discrimination and other forms of injustice.

Today many people in the United States have the freedom to make choices about the quality of their lives and their environment. Unfortunately, few people are educated to be aware of the wide range of choices which are possible or of the long-range impact of these choices. We select on the basis of what is _tolerable_ in the short-range rather than what is _desirable_ in the long-range.

We are reminded of the laboratory experiment with the frog who when placed in a beaker of boiling water immediately jumped out. When the same frog was placed in a beaker of cold water that was slowly warmed to the boiling temperature, however, the temperature change was gradual and the frog adapted in increments making no attempt to escape until he finally died (_Changing Images of Man_,1973).

"As democratic processes become widespread, it becomes more and more difficult to permit the masses to remain in a state of ignorance" (Mannheim,1950). Ignorance for Mannheim

includes not only illiteracy, but the masses' lack of experi-
ence at participating and intervening in the historical pro-
cess. Most Americans remain globally illiterate though their
personal and country's actions continue to have increasingly
more widespread and long-range implications for all members
of this planet.

The future quality of our lives and our environment
depends on the choices we make or do not make in response to
the dramatic changes occurring about us. To fail to acquire
the information and skills necessary to cope creatively and
peacefully with conflicts and to fail to recognize and act
on the opportunities for transforming institutions in order
to better meet human needs can have nothing but the most
serious consequences for all humankind.

Peace should be learned.

Can Peace Be Learned in Schools?

While the literature of research contains few specific
references to the formal learning of peace, a number of related
studies may provide useful insights into this process. In the
classroom children may learn from the teacher's behavior, the
structure of the learning environment, the selection and organ-
ization of the curriculum and the curriculum materials them-
selves.

Barbara Stanford, working with a group of 500 eighth
grade students in Westminster, Colorado found that students
who participated in a nine-week unit on conflict and conflict
resolution showed a greater increase in their knowledge of con-

flict and scored higher on conflict resolution application
measures on certain variables than the control group of stu-
dents who received no instruction on conflict and conflict
resolution. The unit did effect in certain areas the develop-
ment of the students' understanding of conflict and abilities
to use conflict resolution skills (Stanford,1973).

In a study of children's political socialization about
international conflict Howard Tolley (1973) administered
questionnaires to 2,677 children in grades three through eight
in New York, New Jersey and Maryland to explore children's
beliefs about war in general, and their attitudes and know-
ledge about the war in Vietnam, in particular. Tolley found
that while the youngest children (third graders) in all partici-
pating schools in his survey (public, private, religious and
military) gave similar responses to questions about war, signi-
ficant differences began to appear by the eighth grade. Boys
in military school professed great respect for the armed forces
and an appreciation of military values while Quaker counter-
parts renounced war unquestioningly. Experience with military
routines at school, he found, fostered an acceptance of both
war and patriotic values. Efforts in Quaker schools also had
decisive and contrary results. "While subject to outside in-
fluences, evidence was ample to show that military and Quaker
schools communicate values consistent with their unique aims"
(Tolley,1973,46-47).

Tolley found that schools had less influence on atti-
tudes toward specific conflicts, the war in Vietnam, for example,

than on views of war in general and correspondingly, that families had less influence on general attitudes toward war, but had a greater impact on children's opinions of specific conflicts (Ibid.,80). For children of less vocal or concerned parents, family influence assumed less importance, and schools played a larger role (Ibid.,121).

Peter Cooper in his research on over 300 British children between the age of seven and sixteen discovered that the first coherent utterances on the subjects of war and peace occurred around the age of six, and by the age of seven or eight these words were fairly well-defined. Between the ages of seven and sixteen children changed their image of war and peace. The older children placed less emphasis on the concrete aspects of war, such as guns and ships, and to a lesser degree the participants of war, soldiers and countries. They placed more emphasis on the activities and consequences of war and the emotional responses associated with war than the younger children. Eight year-olds argued that war had no justification, while only a handful of the fifteen year-olds shared this view.

With the same group of children the concept of peace generally prompted fewer responses than the concept of war. The older children's dominant images of peace were of inactivity and personal considerations of quiet and silence. Peace was clearly associated more with a state of mind rather than a vigorous drive toward international cooperation.

Cooper identified several stages which affected the

development of the child's concept of war both inside and outside the school.

1. Play involving conflict and fighting (earliest ages)

2. Experience of social and personal conflicts (earliest ages)

3. Identification of war with fighting (6-8 years)

4. Subjective 'reality' of conventional war in games and gang-play (6-10 years)

5. Internalization of the rules of fighting and roles to be taken (6-10)

6. Acquisition and information on historical and conventional wars, through teaching and literature, mass-media and grown-ups (9 years)

7. Appearance of group solidarity and hostile patriotism (9 years)

8. Increased recognition of motives in others (13 years)

9. Growing awareness of contemporary and international events (13 years)

10. Denial of the personal effects of nuclear war (13 years) (Cooper,1966,10).

Cooper suggested that schools might have a greater effect on the development of the concept of peace if the schools made changes in the content of influences on the child's development, changes in the timing of the influences, and identified means of advancing mental stages beyond their currently described limits.

Trond Ålvik, a Norwegian educational researcher, building on the work of Cooper, found in his sample population of 172 Norwegian students, ages 8, 10, and 12, that associations with the word war concentrated upon the more concrete aspects (fighting, killing, dying, war, weapons) and seemed to be connected to conventional rather than nuclear war. The bulk

of associations with the word peace reflected a state of respite and inactivity; a passive state more than an active intergroup contact. Alvik, contrary to Cooper, found that age made little difference in the knowledge about the concrete aspects of war and peace.

Alvik used Piaget's concept of "horizontal decalage" to account, in part, for the children's less developed sense of the abstract aspects of peace than war (Decalage represents the fact that an individual will not necessarily be able to perform all tasks within the cognitive structure by which he or she is generally characterized.) (Flavell,1963,23). Alvik offered two reasons why the child's comprehension of peace was below the stage of reasoning by which an individual was ordinarily characterized. First, peace as a real entity may have been quite remote from the child's general sphere of interest and therefore, the growing structures of intelligence had not yet been applied to them. Second, the grown-ups in the child's environment did not capitalize upon the child's growing intellectual capacity. The child got too little information and explanation concerning what lies at the bottom of conflict conditions on the personal and intergroup level (Alvik, 1968,173).

Alvik suggested that more can be done to inform children about the abstract concepts of peace and war and that more encouragement can be given to apply their growing mental capacities to develop deeper understandings. He recommended that parents and teachers should continuously help children analyze

any conflict situation in terms of values fought for and in terms of what specifically can be done to prevent a conflict or resolve it properly once it has broken out. Children, he felt, can and should be trained to use peacemaking behavior as well as learning about it (Ålvik,1968,189).

Studies in political socialization of children give other insights into the learning of peace in schools. Hess and Torney concluded that the public school appeared to be the most important and effective instrument of political social-ization in the United States (Hess and Torney,1967,100). Schools reinforced other community institutions and contributed a cognitive dimension to political involvement. Political socialization occurred through classroom instruction, the textbooks which portray national heroes and actions of the homeland in most favorable light, and through the school cere-monies, such as the pledge of allegiance and singing of patriot-ic songs. "Political socialization at early levels emphasized behavior that relates the child emotionally to his country and impresses upon him the necessity for obedience and conform-ity" (Hess and Torney,1967,110).

The teacher as a model for identification and imita-tion also contributed to the socialization of political atti-tudes. The Hess and Torney study provided evidence that much of the basic socialization of political attitudes occurs before the end of the elementary school years.

Langton and Jennings (1965) have demonstrated that children learn what to believe in the elementary years before

they know the facts; high school students may learn <u>why</u>, but their attitudes remain stable, relatively uninfluenced by new learning.

Today the concerns of peace and peace-making receive almost no attention in the formal schools. By introducing peace education learning materials and by more conscientiously examining the behaviors and structures used in both the formal curriculum and the informal interactions, schools may influence the development of more concrete images of peace and peace-making.

Peace can be learned in the schools.

Should Peace Be Learned in Schools?

Some people question whether peace education should have a place in the formal school curriculum. Perhaps, they suggest, peace concerns should be left to the families or Sunday schools. Others, who associate peace with pacifism, feel it may promote unpatriotic values. The war in Vietnam has helped to lessen the stigma that many people have felt about learning peace. Toward the end of the Vietnamese War people began to recognize that opposition to their government's overseas military efforts was less likely to be considered unpatriotic than in previous conflicts.

According to Freire "democracy and democratic education are founded on faith in men, on the belief that they not only can but should discuss the problems of their country, of their continent, their world, their work, the problems of democracy itself" (Freire,1973,38). Unfortunately most schools

today are not addressing the problems of today's and tomor-
row's world. Schools, in general, have failed to keep pace
with the dramatic changes in conditions, opportunities, ideas,
and technologies in society. As a result, the gap between
the environment of the school and the society continues to
widen.

> True problems of living--in politics, economics, edu-
> cation, marriage, etc.,--are always problems of over-
> coming or reconciling opposites. They are divergent
> problems; they cannot be solved by logical reasoning,
> as opposed to convergent problems which can. They have
> no solution in the ordinary sense of the word. They
> demand of man not merely the employment of his reason-
> ing powers, but the commitment of his whole personality.
> Naturally spurious solutions, by the way of clever
> formula, are always being put forward; but they never
> work for long, because they invariably neglect one of
> the two opposites and thus lose the very quality of
> human life. To have to grapple with divergent problems
> tends to be exhausting, worrying and wearisome. People
> try to avoid it and run away from it (Schumacher,1973,91-92).

Peace education addresses true problems of living.
The consequences of running from such problems today are grave.
If society is to survive, students must be prepared to engage
in constructive personal and social behavior. ". . . in today's
complex, precarious world a society has little choice, but to
pursue the path toward humanitarian behavior" (Weinstein and
Fantini,1970,19). To fail to prepare students with the skills
and experiences necessary to participate constructively in re-
lationships, at all levels of society, will mean avoiding a
serious responsibility of education and will in no way contri-
bute to the health of the society.

One major goal of formal education is to prepare stu-
dents for responsible citizenship. By offering opportunities
for students to begin to understand the nature of peace, con-

flict and violence and to gain the knowledge and experiences needed to move from less peaceful toward more peaceful relationships, schools may further this goal.

Peace should be taught in schools.

Summary

We are now living in a dramatic and potentially catastrophic era, characterized by an increasingly more dangerous set of interrelated global issues and rapid rate of change unknown in any previous period of human history; yet we find ourselves in an era of tremendous choice, with a high potential for the enhancement and development of all members of the human family. Both inherited tendencies, such as social bonding, altruism and problem-solving and our socialization patterns may contribute to the development of more peaceful ways of relating to one another. Formal education offers one social space for learning peace.

Peace education in the schools can provide students with some badly needed approaches for constructively dealing with today's and tomorrow's realities. The assumptions that peace can and should be learned in the schools is supported by ethological, sociological, anthropological, psychological and educational research.

CHAPTER   THREE

THE HISTORY OF PEACE EDUCATION

The Early Roots of Peace Education

The roots of peace education extend back to the ear-
liest human societies. Though information about the early for-
mal learning of peace is limited, evidence exists that non-
violent social action, internationalism and pacifism have
been concerns of people at least as far back as history is re-
corded.

Successful nonviolent movements have been documented
in both the Egyptian and Roman Empires (Sharp,1973). In Egypt,
for example, peasant workers would flee to temples to seek pro-
tection of the gods or to the swamps and desert when their con-
ditions became intolerable. This characteristic feature of
Egyptian life continued at least into the second century A.D.
(Rostovtzeff,1957,677). Rostovtzeff writes:

> When the demands [of the State] became intolerable and
> made life a heavy burden for any group of natives, they
> resorted to passive resistance, to strikes. A strike was
> a resolve to submit the case to the judgment of the god,
> and was effected by leaving their usual place of resi-
> dence and taking refuge in a temple. Here the strikers
> remained in idle resignation until the wrong was redressed
> or compulsion was used to make them resume work.
> (Rostovtzeff,1957,276)

For another example, the Roman army, in 258 B.C., re-
turned from battle to find proposals for reform blocked in the
Senate. Rather than use military action, the army marched to

the fertile district of Crustumeria, occupied "the Sacred Mount," a hill outside the city of Rome, and threatened to establish a new plebeian city. The Senate gave in to the army's demands (Mommsen,1894).

Other forms of nonviolence practiced during the Roman Empire included professional strikes (groups of people in one profession going on strike for political, economic or other reasons), revenue refusal, group or mass petitions and producers' boycotts (refusal by producers to produce or deliver a product) (Sharp,1973).

In general, information about the history of nonviolent action is scanty. Historian Gene Sharp has suggested several reasons for the lack of attention paid by historians to nonviolent action. More dramatic and heroic acts of violence for a good cause were easier to romanticize. Violence was assumed to be the only significant and effective form of combat. The ruling minority saw that the availability of such information might provide anti-elitist techniques which people could use against rulers. Documenting successful nonviolent actions might have implied that the ruler was inefficient or unpopular (Sharp,1973,72).

Schemes for creating world peace based on a reorganization of world society have been propounded throughout history. The Greek's Delphic Amphictyonic Council was the nearest approach in ancient times to a working league of nations. Specific proposals for international cooperation were developed by Dante in the 14th century, by King George of Bohemia in the 15th cen-

tury, Erasmus in the 16th century, by Crucé, Grotius, Sulley and William Penn in the 17th century, Abbé de St. Pierre, Rousseau, Bentham and Kant in the 18th century. (Hemleben,1943) Examination of the proposals put forth by these writers could benefit peace workers today.

In Europe and America, the 100 years following the Napoleonic Wars, 1815-1915, saw the rise and spread of peace societies, peace congresses, international organizations, new developments in international law and other efforts to bring about the political implementations of peace-oriented ideas (Fink,1973). The Massachusetts Peace Society and the New York Peace Society, both founded in 1815, were some of the earliest efforts for world peace in America (Jacobs,1940,71).

Pacifism or war resistance has been practiced in various forms by individuals and sects throughout history. Pacifist conscientious objection, the rejecting of all wars, was often linked to a particular religious community such as the Quakers, Mennonites, Brethren or Annabaptists. Selective conscientious objection, which singles out a particular war rather than re-jecting all war, was generally based on a personal philosophi-cal or political stance. Pacifism has played a part in certain utopian communities which have tried to provide a model of a better social structure. The Oneida and Hopedale communities in America, for example, had strong anti-war overtones. Lately war resisters have channeled energy into the elimination of con-scription which they saw as an essential instrument to war. Pacifism has provided a galvanizing point around which major

anti-war movements have been organized. Such movements were designed to grow in power and influence until its members achieved their goals of world order without war (Gara,1970).

Peace Research

Peace education emerges most directly from peace research. The field of peace research was formally established during the rise of the social sciences in the 19th century. Peace had, at last, become a subject of scientific analysis.

In 1849, a young Belgian lawyer, Bara, received the first prize to be awarded at the Paris Peace Congress for seeking to discover the "laws of war and peace" and urging pacifists to rely on scientific analysis in their formulation of peace propaganda (Fink,1973,5). The conflict theories of Marxism and Social Darwinism helped a range of war and peace issues, from human aggression to problems of international law, become major concerns in the social sciences.

Several institutions were established specifically to promote peace-related research, such as the American Society for International Law in 1906, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace in 1910, the World Peace Foundation in 1910 and the Peace Palace Library in 1913 (Wright,1942,419).

World War I stimulated new thoughts on war prevention. At the conclusion of World War I new programs were initiated by older institutions and new organizations were established. Studies, symposia and conferences were held to promote the work of peace-related research. It was during this period that the movement to establish international relations as a special

interdisciplinary field of study and research began.

War prevention efforts were not enough to prevent World War II. Following that war, activities by peace researchers were intensified. New institutions continued to be formed. Journals like the <u>Bulletin of the Research Exchange on the Prevention of War</u> (which later became the <u>Journal of Conflict Resolution</u>) were begun to facilitate communication between peace researchers. By the 1950s peace research had a solid institutional base (Fink,1973,18).

Since 1960 the number of peace related research organizations has about doubled, growing to at least 150 institutions in nearly 40 countries by 1971. International peace organizations such as the International Peace Research Association (IPRA) have been created to bridge efforts of national institutions.

Peace research has contributed a substantial body of knowledge and experience to the foundation of peace education. A number of peace research institutes, based in colleges and universities, have conducted and collected research relevant to peace concerns and have provided opportunities for students and faculty to learn about and to become directly involved in peace research projects.

The Formalized Study of Peace

In Europe

At the end of World War II significant efforts to formalize the study of peace in institutions of learning began to appear in different regions of the world. In Europe the study of peace focused primarily on building international understanding, a basic prerequisite for world peace. Projects such as Unesco's Associated Schools Project were organized to provide ideas and materials to pre-collegiate educators interested in developing international understanding in the classroom and to facilitate direct information exchanges between students in different parts of Europe and the world (Unesco, 1965).

In Japan

Deeply affected by the experiences of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japanese peace education was based on a pre-war tradition of moral education, "shushin," which had been designed primarily to inculcate loyalty to the emperor and piety toward parents and ancestors. The new, broader-based moral education, "dotoku," reintroduced in 1958 in the primary and middle schools, embraced such concepts as respect for human life, courtesy and self-discipline, as well as such virtues as truthfulness, generosity, respect for others, international understanding and love for humankind (Japan Times, 2/6/64). The principal aim of the new moral education was to develop individuality and those qualities that would enable the Japanese to contribute to a peaceful world society. Respect for human life was parti-

cularly stressed (Japan Times,3/9/64).

In addition to moral education, groups of concerned teachers and citizens have produced materials for use in the classroom. Some of these materials expose the horrors of a nuclear attack and stress the absolute imperative of avoiding nuclear war in the future.

In India

In India, Mahatma Gandhi has contributed through his writing a wealth of ideas on peace education. To Gandhi peace meant:

a. peace in the mind of the individual,

b. the end of colonial rule in India, and

c. world peace.

Peace education he felt should cover all three areas. The most important goal of education to Gandhi was liberation. Knowledge through education included all training useful for the service of humankind and liberation meant freedom from all manner of servitude. True education for Gandhi was education which was accessible to all and of use to all villagers in their daily lives. It was to be learned from the Book of Life, "which costs nothing and which cannot be taken away from one by any force on earth" (Gandhi,1947).

Basic education was Gandhi's model for peace education in India. Gandhi's ideas on "basic education" included the learning of handicrafts, the development of a sense of love through community living, the development of a sense of freedom for the individual and for all humanity and the pupil's acquisi-

tion of full self-expression. Unfortunately Gandhi died before
he was able to widely implement his model. Today, twenty-
five years after his death, less than 20 basic education
schools exist in all of India.

Another more widespread peace education project in
India, also growing out of Gandhi's ideas, is the Shanti Sena
or peace brigade organization (Desai,1972). Shanti Sena trains
both youth and adults to intervene in outbreaks of violence,
to work for relief and rehabilitation in cases of disaster
(physical and man-made), to struggle nonviolently against in-
justice and corruption and to provide dynamism to the village
development movement. After several months of training the
Shanti Sainiks return to villages and towns to resume their
regular occupations. Their role, in part, becomes similar to
a volunteer fire brigade. When a disturbance or violence
erupts in a town the Shanti Sainiks intervene to quell the
violence and help the town's citizens work toward a resolution
of the conflict.

Shanti Sena emphasizes the importance of developing a
peace-filled person. Training includes meditation and music
appreciation in addition to the development of intervention and
conflict resolution skills.

In Latin America and Africa

While Latin American and African countries have no peace
education in their formal pre-collegiate school curriculums,
both regions are beginning to express concern for eliminating
structural violence, caused by foreign neo-colonialism or domes-

tic oppression of particular groups within a society. Attempts
in a few areas are being made to educate people away from an
acceptance of old colonial patterns toward the creation of
new goals more appropriate for expanding social and economic
justice. The Ujamaa schools in Tanzania (Nyerere,1967) and
Paulo Freire's (1970) process of "conscientizacion" in Latin
America are examples of attempts to eliminate strongly embedded
structural violence in particular African and Latin American
countries (International Peace Research Newsletter,Vol.XII,
1974).

Foundations for Peace Education
in the United States

While the study of peace as a distinct discipline may
be new, education in the United States has been touched by
peace activities and concerns throughout its history. Reli-
gious sects, such as the Society of Friends, Mennonites and
Brethren have fostered, in their own privately supported schools,
the development of peaceful attitudes and behaviors as early
as the 18th century.

Nineteenth century peace education in the United States
was primarily an effort to engage citizens in public peace edu-
cation. The American Peace Society, organized in 1828, stood,
for decades, as a vital organization with a substantial mem-
bership opposed to the Mexican War of 1842 and other conflicts
(Chatfield,1973,xi). It educated largely through public lectures,
regional meetings and personal correspondence by its leadership.
It sponsored a peace journal and stimulated interest in some

colleges. Its services were not directed solely to North American groups. One of its primary leaders, Elihu Burritt, spent over a decade living and traveling in Europe, lecturing, establishing journals and newsletters and soliciting contributions for the peace education movement.

In the first half of the 20th century, national peace action organizations established educational sections to transmit their ideas to the public. Many of these groups related formally and informally to collegiate and pre-collegiate educators and students.

The National Council for Prevention of War, organized in 1921 to federate the activities of 17 peace-related organizations, provided schools with a wide selection of programs and classroom materials. The League of Nations Association's Education Committee produced publications on the activities of the League of Nations and allied organizations for use in the classroom, sponsored contests for high school students, prepared bibliographies of peace-related materials, involved students in radio discussions on peace-related topics and developed model League assemblies for secondary and college students which have been widely used ever since (Jacobs,1940, 84-96).

The American Friends Service Committee (AFSC), in the interim period between 1919 and 1941, offered International Relations Institutes on peace-related topics for educators and students. These institutes were held at nine sites around the country during the summer months. Participants were expected to return home to educate others.

For a fifteen year period beginning in 1926, peace caravans, also sponsored by the AFSC, involved over 1200 youths who voluntarily gave their summers to work for peace. Students drove from town to town to distribute peace literature and talk with church groups and clubs. The peace caravans evolved into the Student Peace Service as summer activities expanded into the winter on more than 300 campuses. Students again organized teams to carry peace education into rural areas (Chatfield,1971).

The Emergency Peace Campaign (EPC), from 1937-1938, conducted an intensive one-half million dollar peace campaign throughout the country, organizing local committees and councils, operating an extensive program of lectures, public meetings and forum discussions and distributing peace-related literature. The EPC involved over 30,000 members on 375 college posts.

Other peace-oriented organizations such as the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Foreign Policy Association, World Peace Foundation, Rotary Program for Peace, Womens International League for Peace and Freedom, YWCA, YMCA and various religious organizations fostered student involvement in peace activities and studies by providing reading material, course and discussion outlines, by facilitating scholar and student exchanges, by offering teacher/student services and by sponsoring essay contests.

From 1900-1917 less politically oriented students were involved in peace group activities. An American School Peace

League was formed prior to World War I to influence elementary and secondary public school curriculum. Its activities were formally endorsed by the National Education Association (Peterson,1973,120). On college campuses a number of groups including the Cosmopolitan Clubs, the Intercollegiate Peace Association, the Collegiate Anti-Militarist League and the Christian Students Federations, were organized to promote peace and internationalism through lectures and discussion meetings.

Prior to World War I the Young People's Socialist League (YPSL) took a vigorous stand against the war. After 1914 anti-militarist action was directed by YPSL at urban high schools in New York and New Jersey. YPSL's Inter-High School Anti-Militarist League was created to offset the "military hysteria" of the boy scouts.

During the 1920s the YWCA and YMCA leaders became active in the struggle against campus militarism. In 1922 the New Student Forum (NSF) concerned itself with antiwar issues. Its publication, the New Student, became the student voice of opposition to campus militarism and the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC) (Peterson,1973,121).

Throughout the 1920s conferences drew large numbers of students together from wide variety of ideological perspectives to discuss militarism on campus.

In the 1930s antiwar issues helped galvanize coalitions within the student movements. YPSL and Student League for Industrial Democracy (SLID) were among the more active antiwar

student groups. They were joined by the Young Communist League and the National Student League. The Fellowship of Reconciliation, the YMCA and the YWCA continued their work with students. The American Student Union, (ASU), a coalition founded in 1935, provided a forum for the antiwar concerns of students.

The two outstanding student antiwar efforts of the thirties were the Oxford Pledge and the antiwar strikes. In England, in 1933, the Oxford Student Union passed a resolution stating that under no circumstances should one fight for King and Country. The ASU picked up the resolution and adapted it to America's needs. Between 1936-1938 more than 175,000 American students signed the pledge, refusing to support the U.S. government in any war it might conduct.

The antiwar strike became a popular tactic. In 1934 about 25,000 students participated in the first nationwide antiwar student strike. Three years later the United States Peace Union coordinated a national antiwar strike involving 500,000 students. These strikes usually consisted of leaving classes for one hour. "Peace assemblies" also took place on many campuses as ASU-sponsored events (Peterson,1973,125-26).

Between 1940-1960 massive interest in antiwar and militarism issues waned. After World War II a number of peace-oriented student groups sprang up. The Youth Council on Atomic Crisis, whose negative reactions to the Japan bombings caused it to dedicate itself to the peacetime use of atomic power, is one such example (Ibid.,127).

In the late 1950s the student peace movement became revitalized with the creation of the student affiliate of the National Committee for Sane Nuclear Policy (SANE) and the Student Peace Union (SPU). SANE's major energies were directed toward ending nuclear testing and SPU's attempted to educate the public through creative antiwar skits, folk songs and antiwar balls. The signing of the nuclear test ban treaty in 1962 diffused their energies (Ibid.,128).

Finally the war in Vietnam gave students another opportunity to organize opposition to war and militarism by sponsoring teach-ins, demonstrations and discussion groups. Student participation in antiwar activities provided an important vehicle for students to educate themselves and others on crucial war/peace issues.

Recent Developments in Peace Education

At the College Level

Peace education in universities in the United States is generally referred to as peace studies. It began in an organized fashion in 1948 at Manchester College in Indiana, although individual professors such as historian Merle Curti, and political scientist Mulford Q. Sibley, had for decades been teaching courses in pacifist studies. By the late 1960s, the Vietnam War had brought university faculty and students to a new level of awareness of the causes and consequences of war and this was influential in encouraging and shaping the growth of formal peace studies programs. In May 1970, the establishment of the National Consortium on Peace Research, Education and

Development (COPRED) in Boulder, Colorado, gave impetus and direction to peace studies growth.

At present, there are some fifty undergraduate programs in peace studies of various sizes and emphases. Four categories of approaches found at the collegiate level are the world order approach, which looks at the interrelationship between problems of war, poverty, injustice and ecological imbalance; social change and conflict resolution, which places emphasis on application and action; peace and conflict research, which offers the tools for peace research; and religiously-oriented peace studies, which explores the ethical and religious dimensions of conflict, violence and war.

As American involvement in the Vietnam War entered a more covert phase, the interest in peace studies declined somewhat but is now powered by the more serious students and faculty who are totally committed to making it a basic and permanent part of the curriculum.

In addition to formal peace studies programs there are hundreds of college and university campuses where individual professors teach a course or courses in some aspect of peace studies.

These programs and individuals are tied together in several organizational networks such as those of COPRED, the Institute for World Order, and the Peace Science Society (International). A basic and essential task of all such organizations is to build a sense of community and common purpose and to encourage sharing of problems, among their programs and in-

dividuals. For in most cases they are pioneers whose objectives are regarded most critically and with much skepticism by many of their colleagues.

At the Pre-Collegiate Level

Peace education at the pre-collegiate level has been slower to develop for a variety of reasons than have college level peace studies. Elementary and secondary schools are subject to more direct pressure from parents and community, and therefore they have had less freedom to experiment with politically sensitive issues. Many school personnel who associate the word peace with pacifism, feel that peace education might encourage students not to fight for their country. Others who associate the word peace with efforts toward internationalism, feel that peace, if not mutually exclusive from the goals of nationalism, is at least potentially contrary to national goals. In either case peace education suggests possible unpatriotic positions, which many people find intolerable for public school consumption.

Pre-collegiate education has been handicapped by its more limited exposure to peace activists and peace researchers. Fewer peace education learning materials are available for the elementary and secondary level and finally few teachers have had any specific training in peace education.

Some private religiously affiliated schools have done more to promote peace education than public schools. The Quaker philosophy of pacifism has influenced their pre-collegiate schools' curriculums. In 1974 Charles Woodford conducted

a survey of 46 Quaker elementary and secondary schools across the country. He found that thirteen schools offered separate courses or seminars dealing with nonviolence, five included peace as a part of other courses, while fourteen others linked the development of peacefulness to the entire curriculum. Nine had no specific peace education, but three of those had plans to add peace studies in the future. More elementary and secondary schools replied that the spirit of nonviolence permeated all the school's activities, and therefore a separate course was not needed (Woodford,1974,106-07).

Some Catholic schools have also been active in promoting peace education. Pope John XXIII's historic encyclical "Pacem in Terris," suggested that development should be the new word for peace. Supported by the Pope's message some Catholic schools have begun to develop peace education curriculums which focus on issues of social justice and development.

Several professional education organizations have given pre-collegiate peace education a boost. The National Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development's 1973 handbook, entitled Education for Peace: Focus on Mankind, encourages educators to teach about peace, informs readers about issues of war and peace and provides literary references and statistical data to help develop a foundation for individuals who want to improve their effectiveness as educators for peace. This work commissioned and published by the most respected and influential body of curriculum developers in the country is an important contribution to the legitimization of peace educa-

tion in the public schools.

The theme of the 1973 annual meeting of the National Council of the Social Studies (NCSS) was "Conflict: Creative, Divisive or Disabling Force . . . Must the Future Just Happen?" Several panels and sessions were devoted specifically to peace education. NCAA has also published a booklet entitled, "Teaching Youth About Conflict and War." This booklet explores the causes of war and the meanings and control of conflict, examines intergroup conflict and cooperation, suggests classroom units on war-peace topics and offers exercises and a guide to available materials.

The National Education Association (NEA) sponsored a Peace Studies Exhibition of outstanding instructional materials produced in the United States at its annual meeting in 1975. In 1976 NEA plans to offer an expanded version of the exhibition. Included will be peace education curriculum materials from all over the world. The Peace Studies Exhibition is one project in NEA's bicentennial program. Through the Exhibition NEA is encouraging the inclusion of peace studies in the public school curriculum.

The topic of peace education has been the major focus or a central theme of several international education conferences such as the World Council of Organizations of the Teaching Profession which met in Nairobi, Kenya, in 1973 and the World Council on Curriculum and Instruction which met in Keele, England in 1974.

A number of national and international organizations have begun to promote the development and dissemination of peace

education materials in pre-collegiate schools. Organization at the regional and local level are supporting peace education activities through their publications, newsletters, consulting services, workshops and conferences.*

A few state departments of education are beginning to create peace education curriculum materials or support their development in local school districts. Based on information received from questionnaires sent to 86 state coordinators or supervisors of social studies education in 1974, six state departments of education have developed learning materials in peace education and another seven state coordinators were aware of public schools or systems in their states which offered a course or program in peace education.**

New York State Department of Education, for example, has supported through its Center for International Programs and Comparative Studies a "Studies in International Conflict" project for the study of war and its control. Materials which have been produced include a selective annotated bibliography for teachers, a handbook of data which succinctly summarizes important information, a case study of the July 1914 crisis and a collection of readings for high school students which explores the questions of a relationship between human nature

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*For information about the work of specific organizations see Chapter Four and Appendix D, "A Resource Guide for Teachers."

**Of the 86 questionnaires which were sent to state coordinators and supervisors of social studies education, 27 responses were received. The received responses represent 26 different states. A copy of the questionnaire is in Appendix A.

and war.

In addition to New York, state social studies coordinators in Alaska, California, Florida, Maine and Pennsylvania responded that they had developed materials at the state level.

At the district level, the Lakewood School District in Lakewood, Ohio has produced a special curriculum entitled, "Dealing with Aggressive Behavior," for middle and junior high school students. The materials were designed to help students develop an understanding of aggressive behavior and acquire the tools for constructively controlling it.

States in which the state coordinators were aware of existing peace education courses or programs included Illinois, Missouri, Oklahoma, Oregon, Vermont, Washington and Wisconsin.

The questionnaire revealed that a total of 13 states, or half of the states which responded to the questionnaire, were involved in or aware of peace education activities within their state at the pre-collegiate level. This response does not reflect the development and use of peace education materials by individual teachers within particular schools or school districts.

Summary

While the study of peace may be a relatively new phenomenon, its legacy is rich with experiences which extend as far back as recorded history. Peace research, which for over a century has been attempting to identify the causes and alternatives to the problems of war and destructive conflicts, contributes a solid foundation to the development of peace education.

Following World War II the formalized study of peace began to emerge around the world in a variety of forms reflecting the historical realities of a geographical or political region.

The United States has had an elaborate tradition of peace-related activities extending back to the colonial period. Each generation has made its contribution to the development of peace and peace education. Though still in an embryonic form, peace education in the United States today seems to be gaining momentum at both the college and pre-collegiate levels of formal education.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRENT APPROACHES AND ACTIVITIES

IN PEACE EDUCATION

Current Approaches

A person who enters the field of elementary or second-
ary peace education is likely to get confused by the diversity
of existing approaches. Books, pamphlets, curriculum materials,
programs and organizations may promote the study of conflict
resolution skills, aggressive behavior, problems of hunger and
famine, affirmation skills, international relations, future
imaging or the military-industrial complex. Newness of peace
education and disagreement about the nature and substance of
peace and strategies for obtaining it contribute to the gene-
ral confusion.

To identify categories of approaches to pre-collegiate
peace education approximately eighty curriculum units, repre-
senting more than three-fourths of all available materials,
were collected. Many of the materials came from national and
regional peace education organizations, some came from the
resource collection of the Consortium on Peace Research Educa-
tion and Development (COPRED) in Boulder, Colorado, while others
were located through the Educational Resources Information
Clearinghouse (ERIC) system.

Based on a thorough review of the materials five major
approaches emerged, war and war prevention, conflict and con-

flict resolution, world order, development and social justice, and nonviolent action. Many of the materials reviewed contained elements of more than one of the approaches. Below a set of assumptions, major goals, a listing of possible content areas and some general comments are offered for each of the five approaches.

War and War Prevention Approach

Basic Assumptions

1. War is an institution harmful to individuals and to societies

   a. The cost (financial, human, psychological, environmental) of war is tremendous

   b. National defense systems place serious drains on resources that are badly needed for other problems in society, such as urban renewal, health, pollution, social services and poverty

2. The danger of annihiliation by nuclear war makes the effort to avoid such war an absolute imperative

3. War is not inevitable

   a. War is an institution created and used by people as one means of resolving conflict

   b. The conditions essential to a world without war are known

   c. War will become an obsolete institution when people and governments become aware of and committed to the use of alternative ways to resolve their conflicts

Goals

The basic goals of this approach are to equip students with the tools to work effectively to reduce the level of organized violence by nations and political groups to the point where war will cease to exist as a social institution.

Content

1. Causes of war (social, psychological, economic and political)

2. Nature and dynamics of war

3. Cost of war (human, financial, psychological, environmental)

4. Types of war and weaponry (nuclear, chemical/biological, other)

5. Moral, religious, philosophical and ethical thoughts on war

6. Supporters of war

   a. Military-industrial complex

   b. Personal attitudes

7. Alternatives to war

   a. International organizations and world law

   b. Improved international relations

   c. Arms control

   d. Demilitarization

Comments

The war and war prevention approach generally offers a clearer statement of its goals and of the analysis of how they can be pursued than the other approaches. Because the goals and methodologies of war prevention are more focused and tangible, they may be easier to study and may have a greater chance of being achieved by society.

On the other hand, while the study of war and war prevention is a crucial area within the peace education field several dangers exist. First, this approach tends to study war as an isolated phenomenon, paying little attention to other

global issues which may have an important influence on war and war prevention, such as the unequal distribution of wealth within or between nations or the control of particular resources within a country. Second, the goal of the "no war" approach is often not accompanied by a consideration of the dimensions of positive peace needed to achieve, maintain and develop a fuller spirit of peace once a particular war has ceased or the institution of war has been eliminated. Missing is a picture of the social institutions and individual behaviors which would best contribute to the maintenance of peace. Finally, this approach often avoids examining values on which society's actions are based.

The war and war prevention approach generally limits itself to the study of nation-states and the international political system ignoring other local, national and transnational actors which could have an important influence on war prevention and control, such as labor organizations, religious groups, educational communities and industrial firms. While discussing alternatives to war at the national or international level, this approach seldom explores ways individuals can become personally involved in crucial war-related issues.

Conflict and Conflict Resolution Approach

Basic Assumptions

1. Conflict is a natural process found at all levels of human interaction in all societies

2. With the ever increasing interdependence, population growth, communication and change, an increase in conflict seems inevitable

3. Conflicts can be functional or dysfunctional; that is, they can help or hinder social growth and progress

4. The behavior of people determines whether a conflict is handled justly by nonviolent means or whether it escalates into violence

Goals

The main goals of this approach are to recognize conflict as a normal part of the human condition, to understand the dynamics of conflict and to learn models of conflict resolution in order to prepare students to manage conflict in the most creative and peaceful way in their own lives and in their complex environment.

Content

1. Causes and origins of conflict

2. Dynamics of conflict

3. Types and examples of conflict

4. Conflict management

   a. Conflict limitation

   b. Models of conflict resolution (legal regulation, negotiation and bargaining, crisis management, empowerment, conciliation)

   c. Skills in conflict resolution (listening, communication, legitimization, timing)

Comments

Unlike the war and war prevention approach, conflict and conflict resolution materials address all levels of human relationships. The terms conflict and conflict resolution are less threatening to people than the term peace and, therefore, are easier to introduce into school systems.

One danger in this approach is that concepts and methods may be presented too simplistically or incompletely. It would be false to assume that a conflict resolution strategy which works on one level of relationships or even between one set of parties on a particular level will work with all others. This approach also has a tendency to be too theoretical and descriptive, often focused at the international level. Rarely do materials relate conflict theory to specific situations in the lives of individual students. Little emphasis has been placed on the development of personal skills in conflict management and conflict resolution and few opportunities are provided to apply skills to current conflict situations.

World Order Approach

Basic Assumptions

1. The survival of the human species is dependent on the recognition and response to several major world order issues (The Institute for World Order lists five--peace, economic welfare, social justice, ecological balance and citizen participation)

2. These world order issues are interrelated and they cannot be treated or taught separately

3. To address these issues new global systems, significantly different from the current international political system, need to be developed

Goals

The basic goals of this approach are to provide the knowledge and skills necessary to achieve the five major world order goals (limiting violence, raising the levels of economic welfare, expanding social justice, broadening opportunities for people to participate in public policy-making, restoring

the quality of global environment) and for creating a global political system which could achieve and maintain these goals.

Content

1. Defining conditions which threaten the survival of life on the planet and which would contribute to the improvement of the quality of living for all people

2. Examining the interrelationship between the several world order issues through the study of the following:

   a. peacekeeping

   b. disarmament

   c. peaceful settlement of conflict

   d. science and technology

   e. human rights

   f. economic development

3. Exploring a variety of alternatives to current world order as a means of more effectively coping with these issues

Comments

The advantage of world order approach is that it does not limit its study to the role of the national state, but rather it seeks to understand a variety of systems, issues and actors which affect the conditions of world peace. It is concerned with both the elimination of war and the development of social justice. The world order approach contains an explicit futures dimension, emphasizing the need to create alternatives to present systems. Clarifying existing and determining most desirable values is a major concern.

The danger of the world order approach lies in the tendency for these combined issues to seem so overwhelming that

concerned individuals may feel paralyzed rather than motivated to action. World order generally does not offer enough concrete suggestions for alternatives to current situations or strategies for achieving alternative conditions at either the global or personal level.

Development and Social Justice Approach

Basic Assumptions

1. The elimination of war and other forms of behavioral violence are not in themselves sufficient to achieve peace, but must be accompanied by the development of conditions by which individuals can most easily attain their human potential

2. Structural violence, the institutions, behaviors and attitudes which inhibit social justice, human rights and self-realization, needs to be eliminated

3. Focusing on development and social justice will help minimize both structural and behavioral violence in society

Goals

The major goals of this approach are to identify and understand the effect of structural violence on society; and to image, analyze, and create alternative institutions and relationships which will maximize social justice and human rights for all people.

Content

1. Forms of structural violence in society

2. Effects of structural violence on individuals and society

3. Emphasis on the development of specific images of alternative human relationships which better contribute to conditions of positive peace

    a. Theories of social justice and human rights

b. Structures and behaviors which <u>inhibit</u> social justice, human rights and self-realization

c. Structures and behaviors which <u>enhance</u> social justice, human rights and self-realization

Comments

The development and social justice approach receives less attention in the peace education field than the three previous approaches. This may be, in part, because it is easier for people to identify problems than it is to create alternatives to existing conditions.

Exposure to the ideas of this approach does not mean that a student will internalize its ideas and values and contribute to their fulfillment. The development and social justice approach is handicapped by the lack of clear directions for change. This approach covers the full range of possible human relationships from personal to international and has a tendency, like the world order approach, to seem overwhelming to the student.

At the elementary school level the development and social justice approach tends to focus on creating more peaceful behaviors between students, while the focus at the secondary level is more often on national and international issues. At the national and international level materials seldom offer more than a superficial analysis of complex issues. Without a thorough analysis the development of adequate alternatives and strategies for attaining them become impaired.

Nonviolent Action Approach

Basic Assumptions

1. In order to create a more peaceful world there needs to be a change in many current attitudes, behaviors and institutions

2. These changes may be brought about by the use of violence or by peaceful methods

3. The means used for action should be compatible with the desired end

4. In both the long and short run, violence is more harmful than productive as a means of action

5. There are many effective alternatives to the use of violence

Goals

The main goals of this approach are to understand the theory behind the use of nonviolence and to learn the dynamics and strategies for nonviolent action.

Content

1. Rationale for the use of nonviolence

2. Use of nonviolence through history

3. Examples of contemporary nonviolence movements and their leaders (Gandhi, Dolci, King, Chavez)

4. Dynamics of nonviolent action; how and why it works the way it does

5. Strategies for nonviolent action (protest, persuasion, non-cooperation, intervention)

Comments

The nonviolent action approach contains the smallest number of curriculum materials. Nonviolent action may not appeal to some who confuse the word with non-action or "doing

nothing" and are unaware that nonviolence often requires careful training and discipline to be effective. While nonviolent action has played a major role in the history of the United States. The term may threaten individuals who feel "action" is out of the realm of appropriate curriculum activities and others who may associate the term unfavorably with radicals, youth protesters or particular religious ideologies.

Knowledge of nonviolent action provides the vital link between the analysis of current conditions and the creation of more ideal ones. In today's world of rapid change the theories, dynamics and methods of nonviolent action offer constructive alternatives to the use of violence for effecting and controlling social change.

Summary

Several general comments can be made about all five approaches. Few peace education materials relate their content to the lives of the learners either by exploring ways students' actions might be contributing to the maintenance of unpeaceful conditions or by exploring ways students can become involved in restructuring specific unpeaceful relationships. Many learning materials never get beyond broad generalizations or high levels of abstractions about peace and violence. Few opportunities are provided to address specific issues or problems.

Far more attention is given to the analysis of current conditions than the creation of and strategies for achieving alternatives. While materials may increase the student's

understanding of certain conditions and situations, seldom are students allowed to develop their own skills in peacemaking. Finally few materials consciously attempt to make the learning methodology compatible with the content being learned.

Each of these five approaches covered above educates about peace. Many people assume that learning about peace also provides the knowledge and skills to work for peace which is not necessarily true. In addition to these five specific approaches there are a number of related areas of study which do not educate about peace, but which could be considered to educate for peace. Such areas would include international or cultural understanding, human relations, international relations and social change.

Programs at the Pre-collegiate Level

Very few "programs" of peace education exist at the pre-collegiate level. More common are the scattered, often isolated, courses initiated and taught by an individual teacher in a school or school system. Two exceptions are the Diablo Valley Education Project in Concord, California and the Nonviolence and Children Program in Philadelphia.

The Diablo Valley Education Project is a cooperative effort between the Mt. Diablo Unified School District in Concord, California and the Center for War/Peace Studies. The Center for War/Peace Studies, whose main office is in New York, serves as a bridge between national educational resources and the local undertaking in Diablo Valley.

The Diablo Valley Project is an effort to prepare individuals through schools and communities to better cope with and shape accelerating social change and conflict. Studies focus on concepts of conflict, interdependence, and change. The Project involves people from all segments of the community, students, teachers, parents and others presenting diverse views. The Project develops and tests educational programs it hopes will prove successful throughout the country. The community advisory board includes fifty civic, organizational, educational and student representatives, who meet to discuss and evaluate goals, materials and specific concerns of the program.

The Project's activities include writing curriculum guides which define knowledge, attitudes and skills to be emphasized; drafting new curriculum material (over 40 experimental units for intermediate and high school level have been developed, some of which are now available commercially); offering in-service programs and individual consultation for teachers in the district; providing new resources; publication and dissemination of projects, work-curriculum units, reports and evaluations.

Nonviolence and Children Program of the Friends Peace Committee in Philadelphia believes education toward nonviolence must begin at an early age. They are concerned with the development of a nonviolent, caring environment that allows children to grow into caring, loving adults.

The Program works primarily through a few selected elementary schools in the Philadelphia area to help children

learn to recognize and cope creatively with negative forces and feelings on a personal and group level and to learn ways to lovingly and purposefully transform unpeaceful relationships and conditions. It encourages an awareness of the importance of role-modeling behavior, a development of an atmosphere of affirmation and methods which encourage group tasks and shared leadership. While the Nonviolence and Children Program began its work in Quaker elementary schools it now works in public schools as well.

Elementary and Secondary Peace Education Organizations

Though there are few peace education programs at the pre-collegiate level a number of organizations are contributing to the development and promotion of peace education activities.*

The Consortium on Peace Research, Education and Development (COPRED), an umbrella organization of peace studies and peace research programs in North America, promotes peace studies development by:

1. Building and maintaining a communications network linking scholars, teachers, students and peace actionists in the United States and Canada;

2. Producing literature and teaching methods useful in developing new courses and programs;

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*The following descriptions are based on information received from questionnaires sent to 15 peace educators working at the pre-collegiate level in 10 different peace education organizations. A copy of the questionnaire is in Appendix B.

3. Consultation of COPRED staff with different colleges and universities seeking to develop peace and conflict studies;

4. Assisting peace researchers to integrate their research with undergraduate teaching rather than sharing it only with research colleagues;

5. Linking North American peace studies development with peace studies growth in the rest of the world through its affiliation with IPRA and other organizations.

The Institute for World Order's major purpose is to forward the world education effort necessary to create a system of international relations in which war has been eliminated and world-wide economic welfare and social justice have been achieved. The Institute seeks to introduce the subject of world order into curriculum of all major educational systems from elementary to graduate levels as well as adult education groups. The Institute sponsors three major programs:

1. The World Order Models Project consists of leading scholars in this country and in eight other regions of the world, who have developed a future-oriented, value-centered and global approach to international relations and world affairs. They are producing models of the world from different cultural perspectives toward which both decision-makers and national policies can work.

2. The University Program has established a peace and world order resource network of about 50 scholars around the country who, along with the Institute staff, are available for curriculum consulting, speaking engagements and workshops.

The University Program provides a newsletter and informational mailings, as well as books, articles, anthologies and teaching tools.

3. The School Program provides curriculum materials, teaching methods, bibliographies and practical approaches for implementing study of world order issues and values for pre-collegiate education. The School Program produces a newsletter and like the University Program provides a national network of teachers who conduct teaching demonstrations, organize workshops, assist classroom teachers, develop and test materials, and help identify needs and services required by teachers.

The Institute is engaged in some transnational curriculum development activities with educators in other countries.

The Center for War/Peace Studies works with elementary and secondary educators and students across the country in all types of schools. The basic purpose of the Center is to help prepare young people acquire the global perspectives necessary to cope responsibly with conflict and to work toward the gradual reduction and eventual elimination of organized human violence.

For teachers, the Center operates a program of action workshops and seminars, usually jointly sponsored with a school, a school district or an educational institution, fitted to local needs.

The Center helps identify suitable existing materials, works with teachers and publishers in testing and evaluating materials and helps schools implement quality materials in

their classroom. The Center produces through commerical publishers its own curriculum materials as well as two publications, one for use in the classroom and one for background readings.

In addition to the New York office, the Center for War/Peace Studies has two regional centers, one in Orinda, California, and one in Denver, Colorado, and several projects for developing, testing, evaluating and disseminating materials.

The World Without War Council has offices in seven regions of the United States. Its primary objective is to establish the elimination of war as a guiding force in American life. Their work concentrates on the identification of the minimal conditions essential to a world without war, the obstacles to bringing them into being, the policies and strategies that can overcome those obstacles and the development of the will to overcome them.

The Council provides in-service teacher training through courses and workshops; supports the work of teachers by providing a resource center of curriculum materials, speakers and special materials; provides evaluative instruments; offers a consulting service to individuals or groups of teachers; and runs a peace intern program for teachers and college graduates interested in becoming teachers.

The American Friends Service Committee peace education division promotes peace education activities through its area and regional offices throughout the country. It is concerned with clarifying the roots of conflict and violence, the possi-

bilities for conciliation and the means by which people can move from one to the other both as individuals and as participants in the larger social community. In addition to its adult programs on such topics as the B-1 Bomber, Indochina War, amnesty for war resisters, criminal justice, vocations for social change, and research projects on the military-industrial complex, several offices work closely with public school teachers. These offices provide resource materials, including locally written and used course outlines; circulate information about the field through public media, educational newsletters and public speaking; build networks of peace education teachers through individual training workshops and conferences, and help teachers develop their own learning materials.

The Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF) has over 7,000 United States members with chapters throughout the country. WILPF considers human rights to be the basic cornerstone of peace and is concerned that peace be accompanied by justice. Its national education office in Philadelphia produces and disseminates educational materials for pre-school through adult age groups. Many local chapters promote peace education programs in their communities.

The Institute for Education in Peace and Justice, located in St. Louis, Missouri, addresses itself primarily to a Catholic constituency. It offers a unique mix of university peace and nonviolence studies, a kindergarten through twelfth grade program for peace education and community action. The Institute's major peace education concerns focus on issues of global

awareness, conflict resolution, structural violence and futurism, the importance of methodology as a way of learning peace and questions of appropriate life styles.

The major activities of the Institute include university courses for teachers in peace education; work with Catholic schools in St. Louis through workshops, newsletters, speakers bureau, news service to high school newspapers and the development of curriculum materials; curriculum library for St. Louis people; and extensive consultation.

The Center for Teaching About Peace and War involves approximately 300 people from the Detroit area in peace education activities. The Center draws from all five approaches to peace education, with particular attention given to understanding the nature, causes and resolution of interpersonal, intergroup and international conflict. This is one of the few university-based organizations that maintains a direct link to the public school system as well as to the metropolitan community. The Center is the first institution to conduct a peace education television program (65 segments) on both commercial and educational stations. The primary activities of the Center are a graduate seminar in peace education, a television course, entitled "International and Domestic Conflict," and school consultations. Other services include a resource library of curriculum materials, conferences and workshops for Wayne State University and the Detroit community, a world affairs newsletter and the creation of new curriculum materials.

Summary

The five approaches to elementary and secondary peace education, war and war prevention, conflict and conflict resolution, world order, development and social justice and non-violent action, covered in the beginning of this chapter represent one scheme for organizing the tremendously diverse content offered in the name of peace education today. Most pre-collegiate peace education materials, programs and organizations address one or more of these five approaches.

Today there is little agreement among peace educators as to what should and should not be included within the parameters of peace education. As peace education becomes more fully established and accepted as a legitimate field of study in formal schools peace educators will need to provide a clearer set of guidelines for developing peace education materials and programs.

C H A P T E R   F I V E

A FRAMEWORK FOR PEACE EDUCATION

"Children need help in understanding the complexity
of the world order so that they may have the basis
for reacting intelligently to its problems as they
grow older. Indoctrination with simple pacifism,
the idea war is bad and peace is good, is futile
unless some direction to this conviction is provided."
                              Judith Torney,1974,372

Judith Torney speaks to the major dilemma before peace

educators today. How does one go about replacing centuries

of vague, amorphous, sentimental impressions of peace with con-

crete, useful definitions which enable individuals to develop

and employ skills to transform relationships characterized by

low levels of cooperation and mutual benefit to those charac-

terized by high levels of cooperation and mutual benefit?

In a simple exercise which illustrates this dilemma

a class of junior high school students was asked to draw a

picture of violence and give a one sentence definition of it.

Consistently, responses contained elaborate, detailed draw-

ings of acts of violence--bombings, tanks, shootings, killings,

attacks, as well as detailed and explicit definitions, such as,

"violence is when someone beats up someone else" or "violence

is when countries fight each other."

The same students were then asked to draw a picture

of peace and define it in one sentence. The drawings, in gene-

ral, contained abstract or romantic symbols, such as the peace

symbol, ☮ , a peace dove, a flower or a tranquil scene, and definitions contained only brief, intangible statements, such as, "peace is being calm" or reflected the mere absence of violence, such as, "peace means no fighting."

The people students included in the peace drawings were less active than the people in the drawings of violence. While students had rich images of violence they had great difficulty visualizing "acts of peace."*

Today, despite the widespread and growing interest in peace education at the elementary and secondary levels, most educators in the schools still lack a clear definition of peace and for the most part do not share a common vision of peace education. As was seen in Chapter Four there are different approaches currently being used to educate about and for peace. Often they may appear to compete with each other as in the case of the world order approach, which emphasizes a series of interrelated systems, and the war and war prevention approach, which prefers to focus directly on the war system. If not viewed as competitive, they may seem to have little to do with each other. For example, what do personal affirmation exercises have to do with hunger in India, or nonviolent direct action with acts of terrorism in our own country?

Are these approaches as diverse and unrelated as they may seem or is it possible to develop a comprehensive frame-

_____

*This exercise was conducted in a middle school in Denver, Colorado, and has also been used with numerous groups of college students at the University of Colorado and University of Massachusetts.

work into which this diversity, like pieces of a mosaic, may be fit?

The Peace Transformation Process

Beginning with the definition of peace offered in Chapter One, a relationship between individuals, groups or nations which is characterized by a high level of collaboration for mutual benefit, it is possible to create a framework for learning to transform relationships characterized by low levels of peace to ones characterized by high levels.

The framework for the peace transformation process would include these seven components:

ANALYSIS: 1.   Description of the peaceful and unpeaceful qualities in a relationship

              2.   Analysis of the parties, their attitudes, perceptions, values and goals; the history of the relationships; the current dynamics, including behaviors and general societal pressures; and the cost-benefit considerations.

IMAGING: 3.   Imaging more peaceful patterns for the relationship.

STRATEGIES: 4.   Education of parties in the relationship to raise the levels of awareness

              5.   Confrontation by the less powerful party in order to acquire more power

              6.   Conflict resolution between the two conflicting parties through conciliation and bargaining

              7.   Development of more harmonious, mutually beneficial patterns of relating

These seven components may be applied to any relationship from the interpersonal level to the international--between students and teachers, between two groups in a community, be-

tween two organizations and between two nation states.

For example, students could examine a relationship at the interpersonal level in which they are directly involved, perhaps one they have with a brother or sister. Students could proceed through the seven components by describing what they consider to be peaceful and unpeaceful qualities which exist in the relationship, analyzing factors which have caused and continue to perpetuate the relationship, imaging patterns of behavior that they would consider to be more peaceful and by exploring ways to transform the relationship through education, confrontation, conflict resolution and development.

Students might also select a relationship on a larger social scale, such as, the relationship women have had with the American society as a whole. Students could describe general peaceful and unpeaceful qualities in this relationship, analyze the causes and current dynamics of the relationship, image more peaceful alternatives (for example, new life styles which allow both men and women to share more equitably the satisfactions of family and professional life), examine strategies of education, confrontation and conflict resolution necessary to create more peaceful alternatives.

In addition to using the seven components, the peace transformation process should be examined in the context of a specific relationship or set of relationships and should explicitly include a systems perspective, a futures perspective and incorporate a consideration of all points of view.

The peace transformation process should be studied in

the context of a specific relationship whether it be at an
interpersonal level between two students, at the community
level between two organizations or at the international level
between a multinational corporation and a national government.
There are two important reasons for this. First, a specific
relationship provides a concrete basis around which one can ex-
plore both the meanings of peace and violence and the alter-
native goals and strategies for creative personal and social
change. Without the use of specific relationships the study
of peace remains either highly theoretical or superficial or
both.

Second, all specific incidents of violence or peace
may be traced to relationships of one sort or another. Inci-
dents studied apart from a relationship are merely symptoms
of a condition, not the condition itself. For example, if
students study only a ghetto riot they will miss the impor-
tant factors which provoked the riot. However, by looking
at the relationship the rioting group had to the society in
which it was interacting, students can begin to see the causes
for a particular incident and can begin to see peace and vio-
lence in a broader societal scope than the isolated incident.

Students and teachers could select relationships for
study from a range of sources including case studies, news media,
novels, short stories, historical texts, poetry, songs, films,
personal experiences and observations or interviews.

The system's perspective looks at a specific relation-
ship in the context of the larger community or social system

in which the relationship exists. Not only should incidents of peace and violence be put into the context of a relationship, but a relationship should be examined as a member of larger social systems to which it belongs.

If a student is attempting to understand a relationship he or she might have with a brother or sister, it would be important to consider the external pressures which might be influencing both the student's and the sibling's particular behavior. For example, the latter might be under pressure from other members of the family--siblings or parents, or from school or neighborhood friends.

A system's perspective would also be necessary for the imaging and the strategy components. It would foster an understanding of the wider implications of an envisioned restructured relationship and would assess the broader societal impact which the implementation of specific strategies could have.

A future's perspective considers the long-range possibilities and implications of the current dynamics operating in a relationship, of the proposed alternative relationships and of possible strategies for changing the current relationship.

Relationships which may appear peaceful in the present may have harmful long-run consequences. For example, in a relationship between an African nation and a development assistance program provided by a Western nation, a future's perspective would ask what are the long-range implications of a policy

requiring that all machinery associated with the assistance must be bought in the Western nation or of no provisions for training citizens of the recipient nation to administer the assistance program?

While the immediate implications of this assistance program may appear to be beneficial because it is providing Western-produced machinery and instruction, inquiry into the long-range implications would reveal that the development program was not "developing" the recipient nation, but rather, was forcing it into an economic and political dependency relationship with the Western donor and thereby, in fact, inhibiting the former's development.

A future's perspective should also be used when considering alternatives to the current relationship and when selecting strategies for creating a more peaceful relationship. Will a proposed alternative to this current assistance program promote more dependency on a foreign nation? If the African state decides to sabotage the Western-made machinery, as a strategy to restructure its relationship with the Western nation, what implications would this have for future relationship between these two nations?

Finally, all points of view in a particular relationship need to be considered. One needs to understand the perceptions, feelings and goals of each party in a relationship if one is to create a relationship which is more peaceful than the existing one.

In an unpeaceful sibling relationship, if the younger

sister can begin to understand the goals, interests and perceptions of the elder, and vice versa, they will be better able to recognize the unpeacefulness in the relationship and have a better basis for imaging alternatives and selecting strategies for transforming it.

At the international level, as well, politicians from two nation-states must have a clear picture of each other's perceptions, needs, and goals in order to realistically analyze their relationship, create alternatives acceptable to both states and to implement those alternatives.

The framework presented in Figure 1 represents the basic elements necessary for learning the peace transformation process. Beginning with a specific relationship, continuously keeping in touch with a system's perspective, a future's perspective and all involved parties' points of view, parties may proceed through the seven transforming components of description, analysis, imaging, education, confrontation, conflict resolution and development in order to create a more peaceful relationship.

One must keep in mind that the peace transformation process will always be more dynamic in practice than can be represented in this diagram. Several of the component actions might be occurring simultaneously. While becoming educated about a specific relationship one may develop new images of a more peaceful relationship or recognize new areas which need to be analyzed, or while engaged in conflict resolution one may return to do more analysis.

Figure 1

The Peace Transformation Process
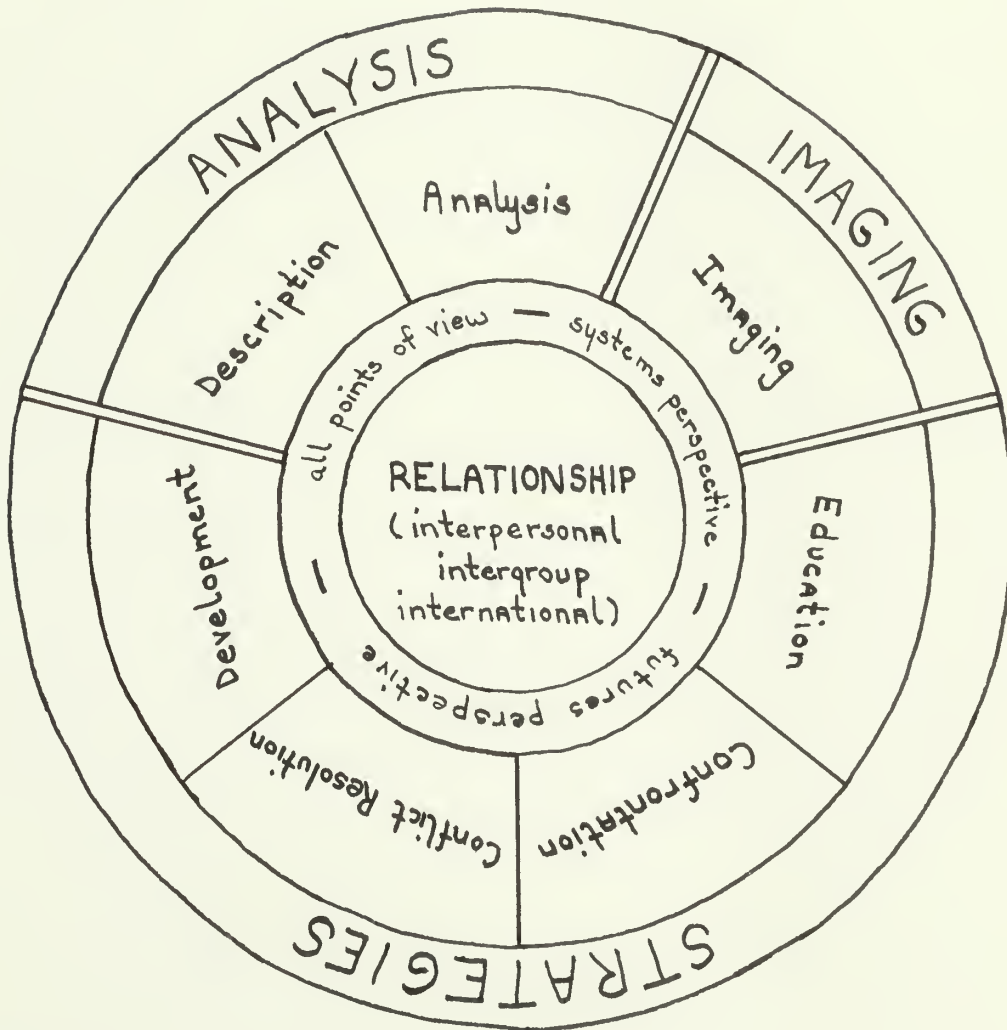
This framework has emerged from the experiences--field work, readings, teaching, reflecting--I have done over the past several years. I offer it as one step in the direction of sharpening the process of learning peace.

The remainder of this chapter will discuss each of the seven components, as it relates to the total peace transforming process and suggest ways each might be learned in the classroom. Supplementary resources can be found in Appendix D, A Resources Guide for Teachers.

Analysis

Description

The first step in the peace transforming process is describing a relationship in terms of its peaceful and unpeaceful qualities. Almost all relationships are a combination of both peaceful and unpeaceful qualities. What is important for description is the degree to which a relationship is more or less peaceful.

To determine the degree, one must establish specific criteria. Establishing criteria forces one to articulate the qualities one would associate with peaceful and unpeaceful behavior in a particular relationship. Description thereby fosters the development of more concrete images of peaceful and unpeaceful relationships in one category of interaction.

Describing exercises. With the definition of peace, a relationship between individuals, groups or nations which is characterized by a high level of collaboration for mutual benefit in mind, students could select a relationship around

which to develop a list of specific qualities which they would consider characteristic of an extremely peaceful relationship and another set which they would consider characteristic of an extremely unpeaceful relationship. Qualities should relate both to the current behavior and to the basic nature of the relationship.

A continuum for a relationship between one student and another student in the same class might look like Figure 2. Students could then list qualities which were characteristic of the particular relationship which they were studying and could mark the place on the continuum where they felt their relationship best fit. Students would be expected to justify the selection of their location.

A new set of peaceful and unpeaceful characteristics would need to be developed for each relationship studied. A relationship between two nation-states, for example, would have a different listing of qualities than those listed in Figure 2. By articulating specific peaceful and unpeaceful qualities students will begin to develop a "peace lens" through which to describe other relationships.

Since most relationships will contain in varying degrees, both peaceful and unpeaceful qualities, students may disagree on the placement of their relationship on the continuum. By encouraging students to share their reasons for their place-ment with each other, they may gain more insight into their own perceptions and own set of values through which they judge all relationships.

PEACE DESCRIPTION CONTINUUM

A Relationship Between Myself and Another Student in My Class

extremely peaceful qualities

- enjoy cooperating
- high level of respect for each other
- high level of caring for each other
- able to listen well to each other
- understand each other well
- can depend on each other
- each feels free to make his or her own decisions
- enjoy sharing ideas and resources
- high level of trust

extremely unpeaceful qualities

- no desire to understand the other
- refuses to cooperate
- high level of fear between the two
- one threatens to use force against the other
- always competing to be better than the other
- makes nasty statements about the other
- one tries to control the other
- one acts and feels as if he or she superior to the other
- use of force against the other

Figure 2

Analysis

Analysis explores the nature of a relationship--who
are the parties involved, what is the history of the relation-
ship, as well as the current dynamics operating in the rela-
tionship. Analysis provides an important basis for imaging
alternative relationships and for selecting strategies for
transforming the current relationship.

Some basic categories of information to be analyzed
could include:

Identity of parties. Students need to identify the
persons, groups or institutions directly involved in a parti-
cular relationship. What are their backgrounds? What are
their central values? What does each party possess in terms
of rights, powers, and resources? What are both the immediate
and long-range goals of each party? If the party consists
of more than one individual, what is the internal structure
of the group? Who provides the leadership? How are decisions
made? What different opinions exist within the group? What
types of norm enforcement, control and communication mechan-
isms exist within the group? Are there any other people or
groups who are interested, peripherally involved or potential
supporters of a party in this relationship? In what ways?

History of the Relationship. Analysis of the history
could include questions such as, how long have the two parties
been relating, what specific events have happened before, what
feelings have existed between the two parties, can the rela-
tionship be characterized by any dynamic such as a cycle, phase

or pattern of behavior, how does each party perceive the history of their relationship? Students could develop their own set of questions to help them better understand the relationship's history.

Current dynamics of the relationship. Information needs to be collected on the goals, interests and needs of each party in a relationship. Students might be concerned with what goals and needs are held in common between the two parties and which are in conflict. Can priorities in goals and needs be established for each group?

What attitudes does each party hold toward the other? How does each currently perceive the activities of the other? What forms of communication exist between the two parties?

What types of action, or behavior, are being used by each party in the relationship with the other? Would you describe them as more peaceful or more violent and why?

What are the circumstances and environment which surround the relationship? How does this relationship fit into the larger societal structures? What effect do these larger structures have on the peacefulness of the relationship? What external forces or pressures are or may be used by an individual or a group to exert an influence on the relationship? What are the attitudes of the surrounding community, whether peer group, community or nation, toward each party and toward the relationship?

In what direction and how quickly does the relationship seem to be moving? Does it seem to be gradually becoming more

peaceful or more violent? Does it appear to be remaining
constant? What evidence is there to support your view?

Cost-benefit considerations. An important tool for
the analysis of relationships is the ability to determine
both the immediate and long-range benefits and costs to each
party if the relationship, as it is currently constituted,
is maintained. In addition to the material costs of a rela-
tionship, students should look at psychological, physical
and other costs to the desirable qualities listed on the con-
tinuum.

Students may discover in some relationships that the
long-range costs are much greater than the shorter-range bene-
fits as in the case of the African nation's relationship with
a Western development assistance program.

Analytic tools. There are a number of different ways
to approach an analysis depending on the age and nature of the
learning group. Students might verbally share information
they have collected about a relationship.

They may design a list of 20 or so "analysis questions"
derived either from the suggestions above or from their own
experiences. This list could be used as the basis of compari-
son with other relationships.

Students might develop a grid in order to juxtapose
analysis information about each party. Figure 3, while it
lists only general categories, enables the analyst to separate
factual from subjective information. Figure 4 allows the per-
son who is analyzing to acquire more detailed information about

PEACE ANALYSIS CHART

	Identity of Parties	History of Relationship	Current Dynamics	Cost-Benefit
Objective Data (agreed to by both parties)				
Subjective Data Party 1's Perspective				
Subjective Data Party 2's Perspective				

Figure 3

each party.

Both factual and subjective information for analysis may be collected in a variety of ways depending on the type of relationship. If it is a historical relationship, written documents from primary source materials, such as newspapers, journals, court cases, documents, letters, diaries, as well as history texts might be used. If the relationship is contemporary, one could add to the above sources personal interviews with the parties involved.

Relationships at different levels of interaction will require different sets of analytic tools. The dynamics operating in a tenant-landlord relationship will differ from those of a relationship between a multinational corporation and a steelworkers union. Students can develop different tools for different categories of relationships.

Figure 4

ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

(Answers may be listed under separate parties when appropriate)

	Party 1	Party 2

IDENTITY OF PARTIES

1. Who are the parties?

2. What are their back-
   grounds?

3. What are their central
   values?

4. What are their short-
   term goals?

5. What are their long-
   term goals?

6. What rights, powers, and
   resources does each party
   have? (legal rights,
   voting privileges, veto
   powers, financial assets,
   knowledge)

7. If the party is a group
   or organization, what does
   its internal structure
   look like? (who provides
   the leadership, how are
   decisions made, what rules
   and communication mechan-
   isms exist)

8. List related, interested,
   or potential supporters
   of either party and type
   and amount of support
   each might contribute.
   (political, economic,
   social)

HISTORY OF THE RELATIONSHIP

1. How long has the rela-
   tionship existed?

(Answers may be listed under separate parties when appropriate)

	Party 1	Party 2

2. Describe chronologically the significant events in the relationship.

3. What have been the attitudes, feelings, perceptions of each party toward the other?

4. Describe any noticeable cycles or patterns in this relationship.

CURRENT DYNAMICS

1. List the current needs of each party. (Circle those in common, check those in conflict, rank, if possible, the most important to the least important)

2. List the current goals of each party. (Circle those in common, check those in conflict, rank, if possible, the most important to the least important)

3. What actions, techniques, behaviors are being used by each party with the other? (Put a P by the ones you feel are more peaceful and a V by the ones you feel are more violent)

4. To what degree is each party aware of the actions and effect of the other party on themselves?

5. What are the current attitudes, feelings, perceptions of each toward the other?

6. How do the two parties communicate with each other?

(Answers may be listed under separate parties when appropriate)

	Party 1	Party 2

7. If one side is more powerful than the other, describe how.

8. Describe the circumstances and environment which surround the relationship:

   - how does the relationship fit into the larger society?

   - what external forces or pressures are or may influence the relationship? (people, organizations, events)

   - what are the attitudes of outsiders toward the relationship?

9. In what direction does the relationship seem to be moving and why? (becoming more peaceful, more violent or remaining the same)

COST-BENEFIT

1. What are the immediate benefits to each party for maintaining the current relationship?

2. What are the immediate costs to each party for maintaining the current relationship?

3. What might be the long-range benefits to each party for maintaining the current relationship?

4. What might be the long-range costs to each party for maintaining the current relationship?

Imaging

While many curriculum theorists advocate the study
of alternatives in social relations, few published curriculum
materials actually give the learner opportunities to consider,
explore or develop alternatives. In part, this may be a re-
flection of the past-oriented focus which dominates most of
our education systems. Curriculums are designed to inform
the students about what was rather than what could be.

Peace education, to the contrary, places special em-
phasis on the future because it believes that students can
and should be equipped with the tools to create their most
desirable futures. Fred Polak (1972), a Dutch futurist, has
demonstrated that the potential strength of a culture can be
determined by measuring the intensity and energy of its image
of the future. An image of the future can act not only as
a barometer, but as a regulatory mechanism. It not only indi-
cates alternative choices and possibilities, but actively
promotes certain choices and in effect puts them to work in
determining the future.

Broad concepts like peace, social justice and develop-
ment need to be translated into concrete images of structures
or behaviors which will best contribute to the enhancement
of individuals, groups and organizations. Imaging provides
opportunities for students to develop a number of peaceful
alternatives and to evaluate those alternatives. Imaging was
intentionally made a separate category to give emphasis to the

necessity of considering a range of alternatives. Too often people limit themselves to one or two obvious alternatives and fail to see the rich range of options available for any particular relationship.

Imaging exercises. The simplest type of imaging exercise would have students who are working with a specific unpeaceful relationship reflect on what this relationship would be like if it could become an ideal peaceful one. Ideas might be drawn from the learner's past experiences, from models he or she has seen working, from readings or from the learner's imagination. Descriptions of the transformed relationship can be shared with others in the class.

Another method for creating alternative images is brainstorming, a process of rapidly generating many alternatives or responses to a specific problem. An example of a problem which could be brainstormed is, "what would be the ideal qualities which we would like to see exist between the students and faculty in our school." Members of the group would be encouraged to share all ideas that come to mind related to the issue. A recorder would list all the responses in front of the group. During the brainstorming session value statements (good or bad) about any of the ideas are prohibited. This process was designed to help individuals break away from traditional patterns of competitive thinking in order to draw out as many creative ideas as possible.

After the initial brainstorming session, students may review their list of ideas and select the alternatives they

feel would be most desirable for the relationship.

Creating a vision gallery* is another method for imaging alternatives. Working in small groups, students can draw pictures which visually represent their image of an ideal relationship. This particular exercise not only requires that students articulate important qualities of an ideal relationship, but it necessitates imaging specific visual symbols of behavior which would reflect those ideal qualities.

To develop more comprehensive images of an alternative students might write scenarios which would describe the structure and function of their ideal relationship--suggesting the new qualities which would make it more peaceful and how they would be manifest in the relationship.

Students could share their scenarios with others for discussion or develop the scenarios into role-plays or puppet shows for class presentation and discussion.

Scenarios allow the students to spell out in greater detail specific dynamics of interaction in a relationship which they feel would make the relationship more peaceful.

Students may wish to adapt some synectics exercises (W. Gordon,1961) to peace imaging. Synectics is a process developed by William J.J. Gordon to increase group creativity in order to solve problems or develop products. The synectics method has since been adapted for use with school children (W. Gordon,1970).

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*The idea of the vision gallery was taken from the "Macro-Analysis Seminar Manual" published by the Philadelphia Macro-Analysis Collective, 1975.

Regardless of what method students have used, the alternative(s) must be evaluated. Students should be able to clearly explain why the alternative they selected will further enhance the development of each party.

Students might ask: does the alternative bring the relationship closer to the peaceful criteria listed on the peaceful/unpeaceful continuum? How well are the needs and goals of each party being met? Does the alternative consider and reflect both parties's points of view?

Alternatives should also be checked for feasibility; is it physically possible to achieve this alternative. On the global level, for example, an equal distribution of resources between the developed and less developed countries would not result, as many people have assumed, in everyone having a standard of living comparable to the United States. Data on the known amount of mineral reserves today suggest that if an equal distribution of resources were to occur, all people on the earth would be living at the level of bare subsistence.

Another important consideration is the long-range effect of the alternative. Will it contribute to the enhancement of each party's potential over a long period of time as well as a short period?

Finally students might ask how the alternative might affect others not directly involved in the relationship. Will anyone outside the immediate relationship be harmed by this alternative?

If difficulties are identified in the evaluation of

the alternative, students may need to modify their suggestions. Sharing of alternatives and evaluations of alternatives helps students recognize their own differences in perceptions and values.

Strategies

As with imaging, strategies for transforming relationships are treated superficially in our schools. Fortunately a wealth of literature is available on strategies for creating or strengthening peaceful qualities in a relationship.

In some ways, strategizing is the most difficult transformation category to learn. The exercises suggested for analysis and imaging can be applied to almost any type of relationship at any level of society. In this category, however, the selection of a particular strategy for restructuring a relationship depends on the nature of that relationship.

There are many ways to classify an unpeaceful relationship. One system used by Adam Curle (1971) divides unpeaceful relationships both into categories of higher and lower levels of awareness and according to the balanced and unbalanced division of power in a relationship (see Figure 5).

If a relationship can be characterized by both a low level of awareness and an unbalanced distribution of power, such as that which exists between a slave and master, education is required to create in the parties an awareness of the unpeacefulness which exists in the relationship. If the parties have attained a high awareness level, but do not have a balanced division of power, as in the case of a relationship between an

Figure 5

Peacemaking approaches appropriate for different sorts
or stages of conflict

	UNPEACEFUL RELATIONS	PEACEFUL RELATIONS
	Higher awareness of conflict	No conflict
	Lower awareness of conflict	
Balanced		(3) Techniques of concil-iation and bargaining applied to end the open conflict, agree upon a settlement and permit development	(4) Development and restructuring of the formerly unpeaceful relations
Unbalanced	(1) Various forms of education to increase awareness to the point of confrontation	(2) Various techniques of confrontation aimed at reducing the imbalance and enabling the under-dogs to negotiate (con-ciliation and bargain-ing) on a basis of greater equality	

Notes: (a) The peacemaking sequence, may, of course, begin at any of the stages
           of conflict.

       (b) The broken arrow would illustrate, for example, that a minority
           group, having striven for greater equality, is satisfied with a
           measure of self-government short of independence; even so, the
           relationship would clearly be more peaceful than it was previously
           with an acceptable degree of imbalance.   (Curle,1971,186)

ethnic minority and adiscriminating dominant majority, confrontation may be used by the party of lesser power to establish a more equal balance of power. Having achieved a high level of awareness and balance of power, the two parties are ready for conflict resolution. When the conflict has been resolved the two parties need to establish and maintain patterns which will enable them to continue their peaceful relations (development).

Education

Education in this context refers to the process of raising the level of awareness about the peaceful and unpeaceful qualities in a relationship, through a number of different methods.

Consciousness-raising is a phrase describing a number of educational efforts which attempt to change the understanding and perceptions of individuals and groups. On an individual level, consciousness-raising might occur through small discussion or support groups, such as women's and men's groups which discuss sexism. Here concerned individuals may come together to share their understandings and experiences about a particular relationship or set of relationships, and thereby gain a greater clarity of understanding about the particular relationship or relationships. Such meetings may use professional facilitators who might use structured exercises or the group may consist of interested persons who have no specific agenda beyond the exploration of the issues.

At the societal level, consciousness-raising may take

the form of a citizen information campaign. Such efforts are generally directed through a national interest organization such as the Sierra Club, Zero Population Growth or the National Organization for Women.

Citizen information might be conveyed through: displays or posters in public areas; talks, discussions, or media shows for different organizations, businesses or agencies; personal interviews, editorial comments or public interest messages on radio or T.V. feature shows; interviews, or editorials in newspapers or magazines; leafleting or distribution of brochures at information booths at conferences or fairs; street theater-- acting out a message before an informal gathering of people. The form of education used will depend on the nature of the particular relationship being studied.

Educational activities. One way to explore the range of awareness-increasing educational strategies would have students collecting examples of current consciousness-raising efforts at both local and national levels. Students could determine what methods of education were being used in each effort. What was the basic message, how was it being conveyed, to what extent did they feel the efforts were being effective, and in what ways might they change the techniques if they were to be responsible for the effort?

Students might identify issues about which they are personally concerned in school, community or on a larger scale and organize their own education effort. They could cooperate with other concerned interest groups or do volunteer work for

a local or national citizens information organization which is involved in transformating a relationship. Students could keep a detailed record of the types of educational activities the organization practiced.

Confrontation

Confrontation is a challenge by the less powerful, but more aware, party to the more powerful party to alter its awareness and behavior.

The basic goal of confrontation is to raise the level of power of the less powerful party to approximate that of the more powerful to facilitate the process of conflict resolution.

In a mild confrontation, the less powerful would seek to change the perceptions of the dominant group, to raise its level of awareness until it understands what it has done and accepts responsibility for the damage it has inflicted and subsequently reapportions the division of power and restructures the relationship (Curle,1971,207). A mild confrontation might have a wife confronting her husband or a business person challenging an associate over decision making powers. Tenants may confront landlords over housing rights and responsibilities. Individuals or groups may also challenge the judicial or political systems to acquire a more equal distribution of power.

Nonviolent confrontation, unlike violent confrontation, recognizes at the individual level that the party wielding the greater power is also a human being. Nonviolent confrontation

seeks to challenge the more powerful party without diminish-
ing the humanity of either. The methods employed must be com-
patible with the ultimate goals of the transforming process.

If milder forms of confrontation do not work, the
less powerful party will attempt to coerce change by ultimately
making life so intolerable for the more powerful party that
it will be forced to change its practices out of necessity
or will have to accept the change thrust upon them.

The most comprehensive work on confrontation strate-
gies is Gene Sharp's The Politics of Nonviolent Action (1973).
Sharp presents the theoretical arguments for the use of non-
violence, explains the dynamics of nonviolent action and des-
cribes and documents the use of 198 different nonviolent
methods used throughout history. He organizes these methods
into three categories: protest and persuasion, such as public
statements, speeches, petitions, letters, slogans, posters,
symbolic public acts, public assemblies; noncooperation, such
as refusing to support social events and customs, economic
boycotts by consumers, workers or managers, strikes, citizens'
noncooperation with government; and intervention--psychological,
physical, social, economic or political--such as a fast, a
sit-in, a ride-in, nonviolent obstruction, alternative social
institutions, and disclosing identities of secret agents.

Power may be achieved by the less powerful group by
conversion, accommodation or coercion. Public education offers
little information about the uses of nonviolent action even
though it has played and is continuing to play a major role in

the shaping of our history.

Confrontation exercises. Students might begin by listing examples of nonviolent confrontation which have occurred in their own family, school or community. These could be situations where people have been converted or coerced into making or agreeing to changes which do not seem to be to their advantage. Students could expand this list by collecting examples of nonviolent confrontation from periods of history.

Some people suggest that American independence could have been gained five to six years earlier if the colonists had continued to use nonviolent methods of confronting the British rather than bearing arms. Explore this possibility.

Read a detailed account of one effort to change the balance of power in a relationship through nonviolent confrontation. Keep a record of the different general strategies and specific methods which were used throughout the effort. Develop a list of guidelines you felt were important to the success of this effort.

Choose one specific relationship and work out a strategy for nonviolent confrontation within it. Include both general strategies and specific methods you would use.

Choose a relationship in which you are currently involved and feel you would like to see become more peaceful. Consider what forms of confrontation would be most appropriate to change this relationship. After careful planning implement your strategy by yourself or with others. Keep a record of

what you did and what effect it had.

Conflict Resolution

If a high level of awareness and redistribution of power exists in a relationship then the parties are ready for conflict resolution. Curle divides conflict resolution into conciliation and bargaining phases.

Conciliation is "essentially an applied psychological tactic aimed at correcting perceptions, reducing unreasonable fears, and improving communications to an extent that permits reasonable discussion to take place, and in fact, makes rational bargaining possible" (Curle,1971,177). With or without the use of a third party, each party attempts to move toward a clearer understanding of its own role and a clearer perception of that of the other party. The two parties become more likely to listen to each other, somewhat less suspicious of each other, and better informed about the feelings of the other side than they were before.

Bargaining occurs after some form of conciliation has taken place. Like conciliation, bargaining may take place with or without the assistance of a third party. Each party presents concrete proposals for courses of action. Each proposal or suggestion is discussed until some agreement can be reached.

While the processes of conciliation and bargaining generally overlap and may be inextricably mixed, there are some important distinctions.

1. Conciliation deals primarily with subjective phenomena;

bargaining with the objective

2. Conciliation tends to be carried out at an individual
    level; bargaining is more a matter for organizations
    (governments, unions)

3. Conciliation is the beginning of a psychological settle-
    ment; bargaining leads to a material settlement

                                    (Curle,1971,178-79)

    Techniques used to bring about conciliation include
the establishment of mechanisms for more accurate and controlled
communication between the two parties, emphasis on active lis-
tening by the involved parties or a third party, the develop-
ment of better credibility and trust and exercises which at-
tempt to alter the distorted perceptions each side often has
of the other.

    Techniques used in bargaining include compromise, trade
offs, joint-costing (both sides determine the potential gains
and losses of continuing and changing the relationship) and
transforming what may have been an all-win/all-lose situation
into a partial-win/partial-win outcome.

    Conflict resolution specialists employ both concilia-
tion and bargaining. Thomas Gordon's (1970) Parent Effective-
neww Training method, for example, trains parents to improve
their relationship with their children through a process of
active listening (conciliation), through the negotiating and
explicit definition of acceptable behavior of the other party
(bargaining) and through modification of the conflict environ-
ment.

John Burton (1969), in working with warring states at the international level, attempts to change perceptions and develop accurate and controlled communication (conciliation), engages in a joint-costing process between the two parties and assists them in identifying common superordinate goals (bargaining).

A range of conflict resolution strategies exists for each level of relationships and each category of conflicts (Wehr,1976 and Stanford,1976). Conflicts of interest, such as two fishing nations who disagree about off-shore fishing limits, generally can be settled through forms of personal negotiation, while conflicts of values, such as the Arab and Israeli conflict, will more likely require the assistance of an outside party.

Conflict resolution exercises. Students can record the different ways they have personally been involved in or have observed conflicts being resolved throughout some short time period. Students' individual journals may be shared with the class to establish categories of methods used to re-solve conflicts. From this general listing students may de-velop guidelines for resolving conflicts.

Students should read about and discuss the skills in-volved in being a third party intervener-mediator, arbitrator or conciliator such as a family conflict counselor, community dispute settler or an international crisis intervener. Stu-dents may develop some hypothetical conflict situations for a particular level of relationships and role-play their reso-

lution. Students may wish to switch roles in the middle of the resolution process in order to get the feel for the different positions involved in the conflict.

Students can select a specific conflict relationship in which a high level of awareness and a healthy distribution of power exists and can work out a guideline they, as a conflict resolver, would recommend for resolving the conflict. Students can read the works of several conflict resolution theorists who have written for that particular level of relationships. Again students may wish to role-play the resolution of the conflict.

Students may select a conflict in which they are currently involved and attempt to apply the guidelines they have developed. Students should record what happened in the resolution process and attempt to explain why.

Students may wish to establish a conflict resolution committee in their classroom or school to handle conflicts which occur between students inside or outside the school. The committee would attempt to facilitate a resolution of conflicts which were submitted to it. Membership on such a committee could be on a rotating basis, thus giving a large number of students experience in conflict resolution. Students might also take turns functioning as a class or school ombudsperson.

Development

Development is the building and acting out of the re-structured relationship in order that creative, cooperative associations for mutual benefit between the two parties might occur. Parties which have reached this stage need to actively maintain their relationship through the continuation of open dialogue and active listening. This often requires the esta-blishment and support of new behavior patterns between the two parties.

Development exercises. A number of peace "development" manuals have been written for use in the classroom (Bodenhamer, 1974 and Harrison,1974). These manuals contain exericses for increasing skills in personal affirmation, community and cooperation-building, communication (listening, observing, speaking) problem solving and resource sharing. Such exer-cises are designed to help students develop the foundation necessary to maintain peaceful relationships.

Students might try to identify the relationship in their own life which comes closest to their ideal of a peace-ful relationship. Students could list activities which con-tribute to maintaining its peaceful character.

Students can read case studies, biographies or other accounts of people who have worked at different levels to achieve and maintain peaceful relations. Students can note specific attitudes and behaviors maintained and practiced by these peacemakers.

Students working a specific relationship through the

peace transforming process may wish to list ways both parties
in the relationship, once they have resolved their conflicts,
might be able to maintain their newly restructured relation-
ship. What particular activities or behaviors would they
consider important to maintaining the newly structured rela-
tionship.

Summary

This chapter has provided one model for acquiring speci-
fic understandings and tools necessary for restructuring and
developing peaceful relationships. This contributes more sub-
stance to the vague images of peace itself. The framework
I have presented is intentionally broad to accomodate all
levels of human interaction from interpersonal to international.

In response to the earlier problem of coping with seem-
ingly conflicting approaches to peace education, all five can
be fit into one or more of the seven basic components of the
peace transformation process. For example, the teaching of
nonviolent social change fits primarily into the confrontation
and conflict resolution categories. World order-focused
peace education generally covers description and analysis and
encourages some imaging of alternatives, but pays less atten-
tion to methods appropriate to achieving those alternatives.
Conflict and conflict resolution fits solidly into the con-
flict resolution category and may include some analysis. Af-
firmation exercises which develop and maintain peaceful rela-
tionships fall neatly into the development component. Likewise,
any peace education curriculum material or program can be fit

somewhere into the total peace transformation process.

The peace transformation framework might have several potential applications. In addition to providing a basis for the development of new peace education curriculums, it could be used to establish criteria for evaluating existing ones. A simple questionnaire might be constructed which would ask if the existing curriculum contained opportunities for analysis, imaging and strategies, if the learning was placed in the context of a specific relationship, and if the learning provided for a system's perspective, a future's perspective and considered all points of view in the relationship. Depending on the response existing materials could be appropriately supplemented.

The framework could provide guidelines for adapting related curriculum materials, such as cross-cultural case studies or other descriptions of relationships between people and/ or organizations. Persons wishing to examine relationships within the school environment or interested in establishing out-of-school internship programs might also use the framework.

The following chapter will discuss some methodologies which would be helpful for learning the peace transformation process and will present some of the possible learning outcomes therein. It will conclude with a look toward specific needs which will further contribute to the development of the field of peace education.

C H A P T E R   S I X

METHOLODOGY, OUTCOMES AND CONCLUSIONS

Methodology

While the peace transformation framework may be used to create curriculum materials and programs in a variety of ways, there are some general methodological considerations which are important for its effectiveness. Methodology, in and of itself, may be a powerful source of learning. Where methodology is inconsistent with the content, the student will generally learn from the methodology rather than the content (Goldhammer,1969 and Galtung,1974), in other words the student will learn "what one does, not what one says."

While most education today attempts to avoid physical violence, structural violence in schools still persists. It may occur, for example, through an authoritarian one-way communication system, through emphasis on individual competition which inhibits cooperation or through examination systems which sort individuals into social hierarchies. Because peace is both a condition and a process, the methodologies used in the classroom and in the general structures and behaviors practiced in the school are extremely important. Every methodology used should be evaluated according to its peace-building potentials. The impact of methodology on learning deserves more specific attention than it currently

receives in curriculum development and teacher training courses.

Figure I represents five methodologies important to learning peace. The three overlapping circles in the center, research experiences, active learning exercises and application opportunities, represent the basic components of useful methods. They may be blended in any number of ways depending on the needs and interests of the learners. The core activities are placed in the context of the informal learnings--all the behaviors and structures which operate in the learning environment apart from the formal curriculum. The core activities and the informal learnings are placed in an even larger context of personalized learning. The remainder of this section will look more closely at each of the components suggested in Figure I.

Research Experiences

Research plays a crucial role in the process of peacemaking. It provides the information about and pertaining to the parties in the relationship. The effectiveness of the peacemaker and the peace transformation process depends to a large degree on the quality of information collected about a particular relationship. Good research is essential to all phases of the peace transformation process--analysis, imaging and strategies.

Acquiring experience in research--formulating and testing hypotheses, collecting information, evaluating it and drawing conclusions should be one of the basic learning

Figure 1

Useful Methodologies for Learning the

Peace Transforming Process

Personalized Learning

Informal
Learning Opportunities

Research
Experiences

Active
Learning
Exercises

Application
Opportunities
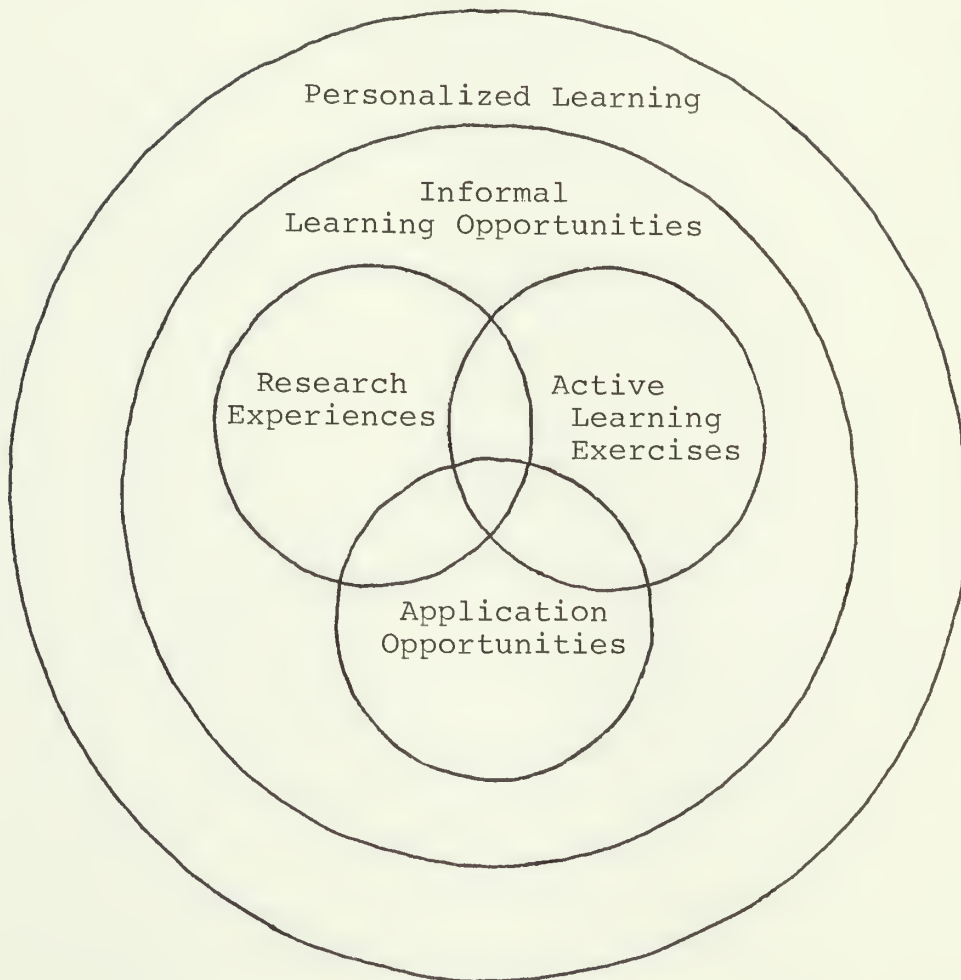
methodologies in the peace transformation process. Depending on the nature of the relationship, research may be conducted-- through the use of primary and secondary source material, in libraries or public archives, or through personal encounters-- interviews, observations, surveys or questionnaires.

Research might be conducted individually or by a group. A group of students at the University of Colorado, for example, concerned about the presence of two potentially dangerous military installations located in the Denver metro- politan area produced a research document to inform concerned people about the two installations.[*] One of the instal- lations, the Rocky Mountain Arsenal, produces and stores nerve gas, much of which is stored in cannisters near the end of one of the runways at Denver's Stapleton International Airport.

Students researching the two installations organized themselves into different fact-finding teams. Some explored the history of the two installations; others investigated the preparedness of official agencies to respond in the event of a disaster at either installation; a third group looked into the physiological effects of nerve gas; another group studied the organizational structure of the Atomic Energy Commission to better understand Rocky Flat's position in the overall structure of the nuclear establishment; finally, group members explored ways in which local citizens might influence changes in either installation.

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[*]This research project was conducted by a group of students in a Sociology of Peacemaking course at the University of Colorado in the fall of 1974.

To conduct this research students used government documents, clipping files in the local newspaper offices, interviewed government officials responsible for contingency plans in the event of a disaster, read and interviewed physicians familiar with the physiological effects of nerve gas, interviewed workers and administrators at both installations and met with members of concerned citizen's action groups.

The students produced a fifty page report which was distributed to state and national officials and concerned citizen's groups. The students thus made an important contribution to a larger community effort which was working toward minimizing the danger of these two installations. A number of the students continued to work with concerned community groups after the completion of their class project.

This research effort is illustrative of student peace-related research. The students in this particular project not only gained the experience of collecting data from a number of community sources, which they might never have thought to tap, but also were forced to evaluate conflicting information.

Active Learning Exercises

Active learning exercises are those activities which allow students to experience what they are learning. They are important because as John Dewey says:

> To 'learn from experience' is to make a backward and a forward connection between what we do to things and what we enjoy or suffer from things in consequence.

> Under such conditions, doing becomes a trying; an
> experiment with the world to find out what it is
> like; the undergoing becomes instruction--discovery
> of the connection of things . . . Experience is
> primarily an active passive affair; it is not
> primarily cognitive (Dewey,1964,140).

Anyone who has ever learned a craft, such as pottery, weaving or calligraphy, knows that one's skill in the craft is developed only through the personal practice of what has been read or learned from another person. The same is also true of persons developing tools to cope creatively with unpeaceful relationships. Students need opportunities to practice their "peace-able" behaviors.

Active learning exercises can include activities such as simulations, role-playing games, problem-solving exercises, drama, case studies, and the creation of audio-visual aids. Active learning exercises may focus on hypothetical or real situations. In either case, the student is given the opportunity to "act on" the learning by combining action and reflection.

For example a group of students might decide to create an educational board game about peacemaking. They would have to decide what the basic goals, issues and outcomes of the game should be, establish the scope of the game (the limits of the physical or social situation), determine the major roles of the players, decide what resources each player will have (skills, knowledge, rights, privileges and resources), establish rules for interaction between players, determine external constraints on the players, establish

scoring rules or win criteria, and create a setting which best reflects a potential reality for the game.

To create such a product students would have to draw on their past experiences and knowledge stock as well as seek new sources of information. Their product could be critiqued by others as to whether it accurately reflected reality and whether, indeed, people did learn something appropriate about peacemaking by playing the game. Through the creation of its rules, characters, board design, opportunity and chance cards, students are provided with opportunities to grapple with the analysis, imaging and strategies components necessary for transforming a relationship or relationships.[*] Again this is only one example from a wide range of active learning exercises which might be used by students.

Application Opportunities

Application opportunities are learning situations in which the student applies his or her learning to events or conditions outside the classroom. Dewey argues:

> From the standpoint of the child, the great waste
> in the school comes from his inability to utilize
> the experiences he gets outside the school in any
> complete and free way within the school itself;
> while, on the other hand, he is unable to apply in
> daily life what he is learning at school. That is
> the isolation of the school--its isolation from
> life. When the child gets into the classroom he
> has to put out of his mind a large part of the

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[*] A similar project was conducted by another group of students in the Sociology of Peacemaking course at the University of Colorado in the fall of 1974. Students created a board game around their goal of achieving a high quality of living through nonviolent means.

ideas, interests and activities that predominate
in his home and neighborhood. So the school, being
unable to utilize this everyday experience, sets
painfully to work, on another track and by a
variety of means, to arouse in the child an inter-
est in school studies (Dewey,1900,75).

Just as the pilot learns to fly by practicing both
on the ground and in the air, a student needs opportunities
to practice his or her learning in both simulated conditions
and real situations. Application may occur either inside or
outside the classroom.

One high school class on Long Island, interested in
issues of human rights, compared historical literature on
human rights to current cases of people being held in jail
for political or religious beliefs.

Opportunities were created for students to apply
their learnings to specific issues of human rights, including
work with Amnesty International for the release of specific
prisoners of conscience. Students obtained the names of
three political prisoners, one in Brazil, one in the U.S.S.R.
and one in Spain. Students contributed to efforts to release
the prisoners by contacting the appropriate embassies, for-
eign governments and families. After a year, partially as
a result of their efforts, two of the three prisoners had
been released (Hawke, n.d.).

Out-of-classroom application might include working
with community action centers, service programs, legal assist-
ance efforts and citizen information organizations. Appli-
cation opportunities not only connect learning with reality,

but foster a sense of individual or group efficacy as students discover that, indeed, they can have an effect on "real" life.

The peace transformation process can be used to structure application opportunities. Students working with a particular relationship could proceed through the steps of analysis, imaging and strategies.

Informal Learning Opportunities

Existing concurrently with the formal learning methodology in the classroom are informal learning opportunities. These are the learnings which occur in the school which are not deliberately sought. They are sometimes called "incidental learnings" or the "hidden curriculum" (Goldhammer, 1969). They may enhance the intended learning, they may be irrelevant to it or they may contradict the formal learning.

Consider, for example, what might be learned when students are not allowed to work together on projects. While the teacher's intentions may have been that each student do his or her own work, the student, in fact, may be learning that working together is wrong. Another informal learning could be that which occurs if the curriculum contains no information or discussion about conflicts in society. Students may be learning that conflicts are not important or that they should be suppressed.

Informal learnings occur in the classroom and school through the nature and quality of relationships maintained among members of the school community--the students, teachers

and administrators. Learnings may result from the atti-
tudes and behaviors manifest by individuals toward each other,
from ways groups cooperate or do not cooperate within and
between themselves, and from the way conflict is treated in-
side and outside the classroom.

Informal learnings may occur through the organization
of the school--the rules, scheduling and physical set-up . . .
through the ways decisions are made in the classroom and in
the school, the ways students are evaluated, the amount of
responsibility given them, and the availability of space for
privacy or sharing.

Finally, informal learning may occur through the
materials and resources used in the formal curriculum, from
what is presented and what is omitted from the curriculum,
as well as what is emphasized and not emphasized. A history
textbook may devote major portions of its text to the cover-
age of wars, while numerous successful efforts to settle dis-
putes nonviolently may receive little or no mention. Students
may learn implicitly that wars are the most effective or most
important way to settle conflicts.

Members of the school community, the organization of
the school and the formal curriculum may enhance the learning
of peace if they foster cooperation, respect for all members,
problem-solving, trust, good communication, affirmation,
caring for each person, shared decision-making, autonomy,
mutual responsibility, community building and conflict reso-
lution. Because so much of the informal learning in the

schools today runs contrary to the practices of peace, persons interested in developing peace education programs should pay more attention to its important role.

Personalized Learning

None of the methodologies offered above will have much meaning to the learner unless they are placed in the context of the learner's own experiences, needs, interests, and feelings. "A person learns significantly only those things which he perceives as being involved in the maintenance of or the enhancement of his own self" (Rogers,1969,158).

Weinstein and Fantini list four causes which contribute to irrelevance in education; (1) the failure to match teaching procedures to children's learning styles, (2) the use of material that is outside or poorly related to the learner's knowledge of his or her physical realm of experience, (3) the use of teaching materials and methods that ignore the learner's feelings, and (4) the use of teaching content that ignores the concerns of the learners. All four causes stem from the lack of personalized learning (Weinstein and Fantini,1970,21-22).

Like Rogers, Weinstein and Fantini feel that "unless there is a connection between the knowledge placed before the child and his experiential and emotional framework, the knowledge gained will matter little to him and will not be likely to contribute to the behavioral aims of education" (Weinstein and Fantini,1970,23).

While the rationale for personalizing learning may

seem natural and obvious to some, its implementation may not be so evident. How does a teacher continuously build on the experiences, feelings, resources, skills and interests of the learners both in the formal and informal curriculum?

Students using the peace transformation process, should be able to select relationships which have personal meaning to them. Throughout the components of analysis, imaging, and strategies, the learning should be connected to the student's own experiences and concerns. That might mean selecting relationships in which students are personally involved or exploring ways students are or might be personally affected by relationships at the national or international level. Clearly, more serious attention needs to be channeled to the development of ways to personalize the learning if the learning of peace is going to be effective.

Each of the five methodologies discussed above makes a unique contribution to the learning of the peace transformation process. Research provides the basis for understanding a particular relationship and the factors which effect it; active learning facilitates the learning of skills through personal participation and practice; application enables the learner to test out the learning, thereby gaining a better sense of reality and personal or group efficacy; informal learning may provide models for peaceful structures and processes; personalized learning not only increases the depth and speed by which one learns, but also fosters its internalization.

Outcomes

A brief look at some possible learning outcomes might also be helpful. Ideally, if the formal curriculum covered all the elements in the peace transformation framework using the methodologies described in this chapter, one could expect several types of outcomes. Bruce Joyce distinguishes two types of learning outcomes, the instructional and the nurturing. Instructional outcomes consist chiefly of the knowledge and skills which are developed by the student through the learning activities, while the nurturing outcomes consist primarily of changes in capacity (thinking, creating, integrativeness) and values (including depth and flexibility as well as direction of values) which result from experiencing the learning activities (Joyce and Weil,1972,25).

Looking first at the instructional outcomes, three central concepts which might be learned from the peace transformation process are peace, violence and conflict. Other important concepts might include justice, nonviolence, development, cooperation, interrelatedness, interdependence, autonomy, empowerment, dignity, power, change, exploitation, competition, dependence, manipulation and dominance.

Specific skills which could be developed through the use of the peace transforming process might cover these broad categories:

1. description (of peaceful and unpeaceful qualities in a relationship)

2. analysis (research, observation, extrapolation, systems thinking, critical thinking)

3. imaging

4. consciousness-raising

5. confrontation (political and judicial action, nonviolent action)

6. conciliation (listening, communication)

7. bargaining (negotiation, problem-solving)

8. development (values clarification, affirmation, sharing)

One nurturing outcome might be a desire to create more peaceful relationships; another might be a commitment to the use of nonviolence for constructive social change. The peace transformation process might also nurture a high level of self-awareness, as an individual develops a better understanding of his or her own feelings and conditions and reasons for those feelings and conditions; a high level of awareness of others, as the learner develops his or her capacity to understand the feelings and conditions of other people along with an understanding of the reasons for those feelings and conditions; and a high level of systems awareness as individuals increase their ability to see relationships in the context of larger interconnected social systems at the community, national and global level.

These are a few of the potential outcomes from using the peace transformation process together with the suggested methodologies. Each set of learning opportunities will, of course, provide its own unique set of potential outcomes depending on the particular activities and the people involved.

Through the combined instructional and nurturing outcomes, students may begin to make their own lives and

world more intelligible and thereby be able to more respon-
sibly participate in the creation of their desired world.

Conclusions

This study has explored reasons for the current
interest in peace education, argued that peace can and should
be learned in the context of the formal education system,
recognized a substantial body of knowledge and competencies
useful for the learning of peace, examined the historical
roots for learning peace, reviewed the approaches and activi-
ties currently being used to educate for and about peace and
has explored the peace transformation process as one pos-
sible framework for developing and organizing peace education
materials and programs.

The future of peace education lies in the hands of
those individuals who are concerned about unpeacefulness as
it exists at all levels of human interaction today and who
believe in the possibility of a more positive, peace-filled
future. These individuals may include those who work indi-
vidually or in groups in the formal education system, those
who work in supporting educational and professional organ-
izations and those who express their concern through other
channels. An enormous amount of work lies ahead of those
who seek to create both a formal and an informal learning
environment where individuals can truly learn peace.

In many ways elementary and secondary level peace
education today is in a position similar to that of non-

western studies five to ten years ago. While more people
are becoming aware of the importance of the issues raised in
peace education, both as a positive response to current con-
ditions and as a means for creating a more desirable future,
their interest has yet to be matched with adequate guidelines
or materials for organizing and implementing peace education.

If peace education is to have a substantial impact
on the lives of individuals and societies in the future
several efforts need to occur simultaneously.

1. Peace education needs to be recognized, understood and
    accepted by educators, funding institutions and the
    general public as a legitimate area of study in our
    educational institutions.

2. Peace educators need to offer useful models for select-
    ing and organizing the content and methodologies
    appropriate for learning peace. Content which links
    personal participation to all levels of society and
    methodologies which do not violate the peace content are
    needed.

3. Imaginative curriculum materials which address specific
    components of analysis, imaging, and strategies in the
    peacemaking process need to be developed.

4. Teacher training procedures which deal specifically with
    peace education need to be designed and offered in both
    pre-service and in-service teacher training programs.
    Teachers need to develop skills in using and creating
    their own materials and need to become more conscious of
    the powerful influence the methodology has on learning.

5. Support networks of people interested in developing and
    sharing their skills in peace education need to be
    organized and strengthened at the community, national
    and international level. The elementary and secondary
    peace education network of the Consortium on Peace Research
    Education and Development is one example of such a support
    network.

6. More transnational programs and product efforts which
    incorporate diverse cultural perspectives and values
    need to be created.

7. Links between peace education and other related efforts

such as environmental education, future studies and humanistic education need to be identified and strengthened.

8. More effective methods for sharing and supporting the needs, goals, experiences and findings between the communities of peace researchers, activists and educators need to be developed

9. Further research is needed to understand the learning process, content, and methodologies most appropriate for peace education at different developmental levels and backgrounds of learners. For example, at what age level can a child begin to understand a conflict from different points of view and what methods best develop a system's perspective?

Living at this dramatic time in history demands the active participation of each one of us if we are going to responsibly prepare ourselves and the current generation of students for the demanding life ahead. The rapidly growing and refreshing new field of peace education is beginning to offer one range of options for preparing for these demands.

A P P E N D I X   A

Questionnaire sent to state social studies

supervisors and coordinators

COPRED
INSTITUTE OF BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO • BOULDER, COLORADO 80302

303 443-2211

May 28, 1974

Dear

I am writing to ask for your assistance on a research project being conducted by the COPRED pre-collegiate education task force. COPRED (Consortium on Peace Research, Education and Development) is a four year old bi-national network of approximately 100 institutional members and 150 individual members involved in the advancement of peace and conflict education.

COPRED regularly receives requests from pre-collegiate teachers for information about peace education. Growing interest in peace education is also reflected in professional educational organizations' commitments to this new area. The 1973 ASCD (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development) Handbook is entitled Education for Peace: Focus on Mankind. The theme of the 1973 Annual Meeting of the National Council of the Social Studies was "Conflict: Creative, Divisive or Disabling Force...Must the Future Just Happen?"

The pre-collegiate education task force with the help of the Social Science Education Consortium and ERIC/CheSS is compiling a comprehensive bibliography of peace education learning materials. We are interested in identifying materials which have been produced by state social studies education departments or by specific systems within a state.

The enclosed questionnaire will help us identify both materials and projects which may be useful to educators interested in developing peace education courses or programs. We would be glad to send you the results of this questionnaire, if you are interested.

In addition to our questionnaire we have included a brochure on COPRED and a brief working description of peace education.

Thank you for your time and effort.

Appreciatively,

Susan Carpenter
Pre-collegiate task force

PEACE EDUCATION

Peace is one of the most misunderstood words in the English language. Traditionally, the word peace has been placed opposite that of war. Many today feel peace placed opposite the word violence is more appropriate.

Peace may be divided into two parts. Negative peace is the absence of behavioral violence, the physical or psychological harm committed by a person, such as a beating or blackmail; by a group, such as a riot; or by a nation as in the case of war. Positive peace is the absence of structural violence, the violence built into a system or institution by the uneven distribution of resources and uneven distribution of power over the resources, as in the case of colonial systems and racial discrimination. The concepts of peace, violence and conflict may be studied at all levels of human relationships--inner, interpersonal, intergroup, national and international.

Peace education, then, provides opportunities for students:

--to understand the concepts of peace, violence and conflict.

--to acquire the tools for analyzing peaceful, violent and conflict relationships.

--to generate and select the most desirable alternatives to un- peaceful relationships.

--to identify nonviolent, socially just means for achieving the most desirable alternatives.

--to apply their learning to situations which exist around them.

PEACE EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Have you developed any learning materials which provide opportunities for the students:

yes/no

_____ to understand the concepts of peace, violence and conflict.

_____ to acquire the tools for analyzing peaceful, violent and conflict relationships.

_____ to generate and select the most desirable alternatives to unpeaceful relationships.

_____ to identify non-violent, socially just means for achieving the most desirable alternatives.

_____ to apply their learning to situations which exist around them.

2. If you answered yes to any of the above, complete the following:

name and description of the material	grade level	teaching duration	# of schools using materials

3. Do you have plans to develop materials on any of the above areas? If so,

which area/describe the material	grade level	teaching duration

4. Are you aware of any public school or system in your state which offers a course or program in peace education? If so,

name of school or system	person responsible	address

5. Other information/comments:

We would appreciate the return of the questionnaire by June 17th.

Thank you for your assistance!

Please return questionnaire to:
Susan Carpenter, COPRED
Institute of Behavior Science
University of Colorado
Boulder, Colorado 80302

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A P P E N D I X   B

Questionnaire sent to elementary and secondary

level peace educators

May 30, 1974

I am writing to ask for your assistance on a research project I am conducting in conjunction with COPRED (Consortium on Peace Research, Education and Development) pre-collegiate education network. I would like to describe the work which is going on in organizations who are directly involved in promoting peace education at the pre-collegiate level.

In addition to including the results of this questionnaire in my dissertation on peace education I plan to provide COPRED with a brief document which can be distributed to interested members and to all the pre-collegiate educators who write to COPRED for information. The results will also be used as the basis of a section in the upcoming International Peace Research Association Newsletter on peace education.

The enclosed questionnaire will provide us with a better understanding of your organization's particular philosophy, contributions and services available to educators interested in peace education. I would be glad to share the results, if you would be interested.

Thank you for your time and effort.

Appreciately,

Susan Carpenter
Pre-collegiate network

PRE-COLLEGIATE PEACE EDUCATION ORGANIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name of your organization:

2. Approximate size of your peace education organization:

3. How would you define peace education in one paragraph?

4. In what ways do you feel your organization is unique from others working in the peace education field?

5. What are the primary activities (programs/projects) of your organization? What are the secondary activities?

6. What are the most important reasons you would cite for the inclusion of peace education in the public schools?

7. What content areas (concepts, facts, values) in peace education does your organization emphasize, e.g., war prevention, community conflict, human rights, world order?

8. What levels of relationships does your organization emphasize in peace education—inner, personal, group, national, international?

9. What do you feel are the 5-10 most important skills for the peace education student to acquire?

10. What do you feel are the most important learning methods for peace education?

11. What do you feel are the most important priorities for peace education in the future?

12. What services does your organization provide for pre-collegiate educators? (curriculum materials, newsletters, workshops, etc.)

13. How does your organization disseminate its ideas and materials?

14. What learning materials have you produced? Please include your publication list. If that is not available, complete the following:

name and description of the material	grade level	teaching duration

15. Other information/comments:

Please return the questionnaire by June 20.

Thank you for your help!

Return to:
Susan Carpenter, COPRED
Institute of Behavioral Science
University of Colorado
Boulder, Colorado 80302

APPENDIX   C

"Creating the Future: An Introduction

to Peace Education"

A slide show written by
Susan Carpenter and
Pam Solo in cooperation
with the Elementary and
Secondary Peace Education
Network in the Consortium
on Peace Research Educa-
tion and Development.

<u>Slides</u>	<u>Script</u>
1. title	CREATING THE FUTURE: AN INTRODUCTION TO PEACE EDUCATION
2. child's drawings	In what type of future would you like to see your students live? What role can peace education play in creating a more desirable future?
3. earth from space	We have reached a decisive moment in our history, when for the first time the very survival of the earth and all its inhabitants is in question.
4. crowded city scene	We hear about the stress to be placed on our human and natural environment as our world population could more than <u>double</u> in size over the next thirty years.
5. industrial pollution	We are exposed to case after case of <u>disruption</u> or <u>destruction</u> done to our delicately balanced ecological system on which we depend for our life support.
6. mining	We hear accounts of the rapid <u>depletion</u> of our natural resources as we plan to consume more in the next fifteen years than we have in all of human history before us.
7. aerial view of Panama City	We see examples of the grossly <u>unequal distribution</u> of resources which continues to widen the gap between the rich and the poor.
8. nuclear explosion	We watch the frightening <u>proliferation of nuclear technology</u> which even now is a major threat to our health and survival.
9. protest demonstration	All around us rapid and profound economic, political and social change breed a series of conflicts which are and will touch all levels of human relationships.
10. Ma Jones march	No society has ever been free of conflicts and probably no society ever will. Conflicts in themselves may be healthy or unhealthy.
11. negotiation table cartoon	But what is <u>imperative</u> for us is to find alternatives to violent responses to conflicts.
12. bombing	Both the <u>physical</u> violence produced by actions of war, bombings and beatings.

13.	old man	And the <u>institutional</u> violence caused by practices which produce poverty, discrimination and other forms of injustice. No longer can we afford the consequences of violence in any form.
14.	Vietnamese women	Violence in addition to destroying human life, causes severe psychological strains,
15.	U.S. tax dollar	is exorbitantly expensive (the military is only one form of violence we pay for),
16.	stockpile of weapons	and places more of a strain on our rapidly dwindling resources.
17.	Ethiopian children	Violence prevents individuals from developing to their fullest potential.
18.	bomb craters in Vietnam	Violence has already destroyed parts of our ecosystem. In Vietnam it may take as much as a century to restore this land.
19.	nuclear devastation	Violence increases the chances that we may resort to the use of nuclear weapons, as we did in Japan.
20.	silhouette of tanks	Because of our global interrelatedness limited acts of violence in one part of the world may touch large numbers of people elsewhere, as in the case of the Arab-Israeli conflict.
21.	housing development	For the first time we can think about providing adequate food, clothing, housing, medical care and dignity for all members of the human family. Here in this Latin American community good housing is being provided for all members of the community.
22.	shanty town	Yet we continue to perpetuate suffering on all levels of human relationships.
23.	aerial view of a town	In this country many people have the freedom to make choices about the quality of their lives and their enviornment.
24.	global half eaten	Unfortunately few people are educated to be aware of the wide range of their choices or the long-range impact of their choices.
25.	congested traffic	People tend to select on the basis of what is <u>tolerable</u> in the short-range rather than what is <u>desirable</u> in the long-range.
26.	frog out of beaker	We are reminded of the laboratory experiment with the frog who when placed in a beaker of boiling water immediately jumped out.

27. dead frog in beaker — When the same frog was placed in a beaker of cold water that was slowly warmed to the boiling temperature, however, the temperature change was gradual and the frog adapted in increments making no attempt to escape until he finally died.

28. children around book — The future quality of our own lives and our own survival depends on the choices we make or do not make in response to the needs and potentials of the human family.

29. child's drawing — How realistic is it to think of a world with little or no violence?

30. DaVinci sketch — For thousands of years people dreamed of flying, but only in this century have we been able to fly.

31. Wright Brothers' plane — The reason is that our stock of knowledge—of mechanics, of aerodynamics—finally rose over the threshold at which human flight became possible.

32. peace conference — Similarly, for thousands of years people have dreamed of peace, and wars have gone on. But here too the stock of knowledge—of social systems, of human psychology—has been rising, and we may be close to that dramatic threshold at which the human race will live at peace as it has learned to fly.

33. peace related books — Both the traditional disciplines in the humanities, social sciences and natural sciences and new areas of study, like future studies, are contributing to rapidly growing areas of knowledge and competencies in a range of peace fields.

34. positions available signs — The development of these fields is also generating a range of new peace-related careers.

35. school building — People who work within the formal education system can make a unique contribution toward creating the future by preparing students for constructive personal and social roles in society.

36. buttons — What exactly do we mean by peace and peace education?

37. sign: Peace: — The concept of peace most widely accepted by peace educators includes both decreasing the amount of physical and institutional violence and increasing the amount of social and economic justice.

38. laughing girl

Peace is seen as a set of behaviors, conditions, and structures necessary for the fullest development of each human being.

39. staff and students

Peace education provides opportunities for students to acquire the tools to create and live in a peaceful world. The following five areas provide the basis for learning peace.

40. sign: HIGH LEVEL OF SELF AWARENESS

A HIGH LEVEL OF SELF AWARENESS helps students understand their own feelings and conditions and reasons for them.

41. two children

This learning may lead toward greater self respect, an understanding of one's own unique talents and potential, and a capacity for self empowerment.

42. sign: 2. A HIGH LEVEL OF AWARENESS OF OTHERS

2. A HIGH LEVEL OF AWARENESS OF OTHERS helps students grasp the feelings and conditions of other people and the reasons for those feelings and conditions.

43. two children

Learning may progress to a respect and feeling of responsibility toward each other, an ability to cooperate, provide support, develop community and share resources.

44. sign: 3. A HIGH LEVEL OF GLOBAL AWARENESS

3. A HIGH LEVEL OF GLOBAL AWARENESS helps students understand current global trends, their underlying values,

45. UN simulation

their interconnectedness and the effects these trends may have on our own lives and the lives of others around the globe.

46. sign: 4. A HIGH LEVEL OF CONFLICT RESOLU-TION SKILLS

4. A HIGH LEVEL OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION SKILLS attempts to help students understand and resolve conflicts without violence.

47. two high school students

Learning may lead to the specific skills of self-limiting conflict, third party intervention, arbitration and negotiation.

48. sign: 5. A HIGH LEVEL OF IMAGINATION SKILLS

5. A HIGH LEVEL OF IMAGINATION SKILLS offers opportunities for the students to more fully develop their own sense of imagination

49. puppet theater

in order to free them to image new models of more peaceful relationships and new strategies for moving toward their models.

50. chart

The combination of these five areas provide the basis for learning peace at all levels of education.

51.	elementary classroom	Three ways schools help students learn for and about peace are, through the _formal curriculum_ offerings--all the in-classroom activities;
52.	intern with elderly person	through the _out-of-classroom_ experiences as in this internship program;
53.	merry-go-round	and through all the _informal learning_ in the classroom, ranging from the way conflicts are managed, to the process for making decisions,
54.	one boy outside	to the way students are encouraged or permitted to relate to each other.
55.	U.S. map	We have explored some reasons for learning about peace and have seen some ways peace might be learned in students' school experience. Now let's look at what some specific groups are doing to promote peace education around the country.
56.	education conference	Major professional and educational organizations are stressing the importance of learning peace through their national conferences, major publications and working groups.
57.	title: "Conflict..."	The National Council of the Social Studies used this theme for one of its recent annual meetings.
58.	two books	The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the National Council of the Social Studies are encouraging peace education through these publications.
59.	title of exposition Peace Studies Exposition description	The National Education Association has sponsored a Peace Studies Exposition of outstanding instructional materials at its annual meetings.
60.	teachers' workshop	Several state departments of education are beginning to create peace education curriculum materials themselves or support their development in local school districts.
61.	N.Y. State materials	New York, for example, has developed this series of units at the secondary level for the study of war and its control. This project also involves teacher training workshops and conferences.
62.	Dealing with Aggressive Behavior	One school district in Ohio has produced this special curriculum for middle and junior high school students to help develop an understanding of aggressive behavior and the tools for constructively controlling it.

63. materials display   A number of national and international organiza-
                         tions spend large portions of their time developing
                         and disseminating peace education materials.

64. newsletters   Organizations at the regional and local level pro-
                         mote peace education activities through their pub-
                         lications, newsletters, consulting services, work-
                         shops and conferences.

65. teacher in   In many cases today the use of peace education
    classroom   materials is initiated by one or two concerned
                         teachers within a particular school.

66. classroom with   In one Long Island High School a class is ex-
    Amnesty International ploring issues of human rights in literature
    poster   and comparing it to current cases of people being
                         held in jail for political or religious beliefs.

67. political prisoners One way students may become personally involved
                         in human rights issues is through work with
                         Amnesty International for the release of specific
                         prisoners of conscience.

68. group of high school In Westminster, Colorado middle and high school
    students   teachers have developed activities intended to
                         give students insights and skills necessary
                         to generate alternatives to conflict situations.

69. two high   This simulation game is one example of the wide
    school students   range of activities which have been created.

70. staff with newsprint In Philadelphia, the Nonviolence and Children
                         Program is developing activities around their
                         goals of affirmation, sharing feelings, community
                         building, passing on skills, exploring conflict
                         resolution and having fun.

71. classroom staff   Their goals they feel will provide a solid frame-
    and student with   work for nonviolent behavior in children and
    hand puppets   adults.

                         These are only a few of the activities occurring
                         across the country.

72. teachers in staff   Living at this dramatic time in history demands
    room   the active participation of each one of us if we
                         are going to responsibly prepare ourselves and
                         students for the demanding life ahead.

73. close-up on one   Peace education offers one range of options for
    individual, hands   preparing for these demands. In what ways would
    around the world   you like to become involved in creating the future?

74. credits

75. credits

A P P E N D I X   D

Resource Guide for Teachers

Introduction

This resource guide contains a selected list of materials related to elementary and secondary peace education. In no way does it begin to capture the volume of materials currently available. The guide is organized into five sections: Section I offers general readings for expanding the teacher's background; Section II focuses on the theory and content of peace education: Section III suggests curriculum materials for use in the classroom; Section IV describes bibliographies; Section V recommends newsletters and periodicals; Section VI lists organizations working specifically in elementary and secondary peace education.

The resource guide is limited to a few "starter" materials. Teachers interested in further information are encouraged to write to any of the organizations listed in this guide for additional resources and other forms of assistance.

Section I, General Readings

From the wealth of literature which exists on the general topic of peace I have selected these few readings which I think will be of particular interest to classroom teachers.

Conflict Regulation. Paul Wehr.
    Washington, D.C.: The American Association for the Advancement of Science, forthcoming.

While directed to college teachers, this manual provides a clear and concise introduction to conflict analysis and an overview of different models and techniques used to regulate conflict. It includes exercises which may be used in the classroom.

Creating the Future: A Guide to Living and Working for Social Change. Charles Beitz and Michael Washburn.
    New York: Bantam, 1974.

A resource for teachers interested in developing an action component in their course work. Discusses approaches to social change and describes and offers resources for a range of current social change movements.

This Endangered Planet. Richard Falk.
New York: Random House, 1971.

Looks at the interrelationship of global problems
which threaten our survival. Connections between population
growth, pollution, depletion of natural resources, poverty,
the denial of human rights and international violence and war
are explored. World order alternatives which promote values
shared by all human beings are discussed.

International Conflict for Beginners. Roger Fisher.
New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

A handbook on the analysis of recent international
affairs; uses current problems in presenting ideas; gives use-
ful guidelines for national leaders who are involved in inter-
national negotiations.

Introduction to World Peace Through Law. Grenville Clark and
Louis B. Sohn.
Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1966.

Proposals for a radical restructuring of the U.S.
with provisions for disarmament and economic development.

Making Peace. Adam Curle.
New York: Barnes and Noble, 1971.

A cogent description of peacemaking as a process by
which individuals or groups raise their levels of awareness
and redress a balance of power in order to restructure more
peaceful relationships. Theory is supported by a variety of
illustrative case studies.

Nonviolence in America. Staughton Lynd, ed.
Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1966.

A good collection of essays, tracts, diary entries and
other literature by major figures in the development of non-
violent thought and action in the U.S. Supports the proposi-
tion that nonviolence is as American as cherry pie.

The Politics of Nonviolent Action. Gene Sharp.
Boston: Porter Sargent Publishers, 1973.

The definitive work, to date, on nonviolent action.
Includes the theory behind the use of nonviolent action, des-
cribes and gives examples of nearly 200 different methods which
have been used and explores the dynamics of its application.
An excellent resource.

The Sociology of Social Conflicts. Louis Kriesberg.
    Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

    A comprehensive treatment of conflict theory, dynamics
and termination. Good for background.

Teacher Effectiveness Training. Thomas Gordon.
    A manual for resolving conflicts within the classroom
and for improving teacher/student relationships. Includes
strategies for active listening, modification of the environ-
ment and enlarging areas of acceptable behavior.

            Section II, Approaches to Elementary and
                Secondary Peace Education

    Because of the newness of this field there are few
materials which provide a general background or good overview
of the field.

Education for Peace: Focus on Mankind. George Henderson, ed.
    Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and
    Curriculum Development, 1973.

    The 1973 Handbook for the Association of Supervision
and Curriculum Development encourages educators to teach about
peace, informs readers about issues of war and peace and pro-
vides literary references and statistical data to help indivi-
duals develop a foundation in this area.

Education for Peace: Reflection and Action. Magnus Haavelsrud,
    ed. London: IPC Science and Technology Press, 1975.

    Recommended for teachers interested in understanding
the development of peace education outside the United States.
This book contains 30 contributions from 20 countries, cover-
ing all continents. It deals with both the substantive and
methodological aspects of peace education from early child-
hood to university level and out of school education.

Handbook on Peace Education. Christoph Wulf, ed.
    Oslo: International Peace Research Association, 1974.

    A compilation of papers by peace educators from around
the world. Topics include foundations for peace education,
conceptual approaches and descriptions of current activities
in the field.

Teaching Youth About Conflict and War. William Nesbitt,
        Norman Abromowitz and Charles Bloomstein, eds.
        Washington, D.C.: Nation Council for the Social
        Studies, 1973.

        This booklet explores the causes of war and the mean-
ings and control of conflict, examines intergroup conflict
and cooperation, suggests classroom units on war/peace topics
and offers exercises and a guide to available materials.

Section III, Peace Education Curriculum Materials

        This sampler of materials reflects the diversity of
approaches available for learning peace at the elementary and
secondary level.

"Children's Workshops in Creative Response to Conflict, A
        Preliminary Handbook." Gretchen Bodenhammer, Leonard
        M. Burger and Priscilla Prutzman.
        Quaker Project on Community Conflict, 133 West 14th
        Street, New York, New York, 10011, 1974.

        This teacher's manual offers a variety of exercises
to help elementary students develop skills in open communica-
tion, understanding and sharing feelings, problem solving and
conflict resolution. Categories of classroom activities
include exercises for loosening-up, personal affirmation, com-
munity and cooperation building, open communication, conflict
resolution, individual and group problem solving. In addition
to exercise descriptions, the manual suggest a variety of for-
mats for offering teacher workshops and a list of suggested
readings.

Dealing with Aggressive Behavior. Prepared by the Lakewood
        City Public School System, the Educational Research
        Council of America, and the State of Ohio Department
        of Education. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Department of
        Education, 1971.

        A workbook designed to help middle and junior high
school students develop an understanding of aggressive beha-
vior and acquire the tools for constructively controlling it.
Students explore their own reactions to particular situations,
determine the effects of those reactions and consider alterna-
tives to destructive behavior.

The Human Family, Human Rights and Peace. Alice Doumanian Tank-
        hard. Detroit: The Center for Teaching about Peace and
        War, Wayne State University, 1973.

        A lay version of the Universal Declaration of Human
Rights, includes statements on its world impact, legal impli-

cations, discussion questions related to both the background of needs and the goals stated in the document. May be used at either the elementary or secondary level.

"Learning Peace." Grace Abrams and Fran Schmidt of the
Women's International League for Peace and Freedom.
Philadelphia: The Jane Addams Peace Association, 1972.

This 50-page booklet contains a smorgasbord of activities to enable 7-12 grade students learn about and for peace. It attempts to help the student develop interest in peace, realize that peace is possible and understand that each individual can contribute to the goals of peace.

The booklet offers problems which may be solved through research, discussion, role-playing and values clarification. An extensive bibliography of resource organizations and films is included.

Manual for Teaching Peace and Justice: A Manual for Teachers.
Jim McGinnis, Kathy McGinnis, Mary Ann McGivern and
Mary Beth Gallagher. St. Louis: Institute for Education
in Peace and Justice, 3700 West Pine, St. Louis,
Missouri, 63108, 1974.

Sections contained in this manual include peace and justice in a social studies curriculum (covering alternative world futures, nonviolent conflict resolution, structural violence and the causes and alternatives to war); peace and justice in a religion curriculum; mutual-education--the methodology of peace education; living justice and peace--the lifestyle implications of peace education; and appendices. While the focus is primarily junior and senior high school specific units are included for primary school students. Though addressed to a Catholic constituency most sections would be useful to the public school teacher as well.

Patterns of Human Conflict. David King.
New York: Schloat Productions, 1973.

This combination of sound and silent filmstrips and student booklets introduces a variety of conflict situations in human life and methods of resolution. The unit presents examples of conflict from the personal to international level. Designed for interdisciplinary use at the high school level.

"Peace Is In Our Hands." Grace Abrams and Fran C. Schmidt, of
the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom.
Philadelphia: The Jane Addams Peace Association, 1974.

This 90-page booklet provides a range of activities for 1-6 grade students to help them deal constructively with their feelings and attitudes, handle feelings of aggression

in a nonviolent way, build self-esteem, develop empathy for other's feelings and actions, understand common hopes and aspirations of all people.

The unit includes study and action in the fields of natural science, social science, literature, creative writing, music, art, drama, library research, school and community service. Bibliography includes books for the students and teachers and list of resource organizations.

"Peacekeeping." Jack Fraenkel, Margaret Carter, and Betty
     Reardon. New York: Random House, 1972.

This is the first title in the "Perspectives in World Order Series." The booklet considers why nations go to war and how they plan for peace; examines the causes and issues behind four international crises; and explores the strength and weaknesses of the four peacekeeping systems used to stem these crises: the League of Nations, the United Nations, Mutual Deterrence and World Law.

The unit, designed for high school students, uses the inquiry approach, values clarification and role-plays along with case studies.

Peacemaking: A Guide to Conflict Resolution for Individuals,
     Groups and Nations. Barbara Stanford. New York:
     Bantam Books, 1976.

This paperback book contains the best collection of reading to date for high school students on peacemaking. Readings cover conflict resolution strategies; theories about the cause of aggression and suggestions for controlling aggression; effects of prejudice and other forms of social justice; the role of force in preserving overall peace; and possible changes in the international system. A variety of student exercises are provided. Poems and cartoons enrich the readings.

An excellent text for high school peace education.

"Studies in International Conflict." Produced by the Center
     for International Programs and Comparative Studies,
     State Education Department of New York, Albany, New York.

This series of materials produced for high school students includes a selected annotated bibliography for teachers, a handbook of data which succinctly summarizes important information, a case study of the July 1914 crisis and a collection of readings for high school students which explores the questions of a relationship between human nature and war.

Section IV, Bibliographies

The following bibliographies are the most useful works of their kind.

<u>Teaching About War and Its Control</u>. William Nesbitt, ed.
Available from the Center for International Programs
and Comparative Studies, State Education Department
of New York, Albany, New York.

This bibliography is written for high school teachers. In addition to general categories of readings it includes sources for useful classroom materials such as films, simulations, case studies and data.

<u>To End War: An Introduction to the Ideas, Books, Organiza-
tions and Work That Can Help</u>. Robert Pickers and
Robert Woito. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

While addressing issues of war and war prevention this bibliography includes issues of development, world order, social change, peace efforts and action resources. It is the most comprehensive and useful work of its kind.

<u>The War/Peace Film Guide</u>. Lucy Dougall.
Available through World Without War Publications,
7245 South Merrill Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, 60649.

Describes a variety of films which could be used in a peace studies class. It includes both short and feature-length films.

Section V, Peace Education Periodicals

While there are at least twenty-five major peace-oriented journals and newsletters published in English the following two most directly address pre-collegiate educators.

<u>Intercom</u>.
Available from Center for War/Peace Studies, 218 East
18th Street, New York, New York, 10003. Published
quarterly. Subscription rates: 1 year, $6.00;
2 years, $11.00; 3 years, $15.00.

<u>Intercom</u> is a magazine which brings a global perspective to bear on basic issues and problems including war, peace, conflict, change, economics, social justice, population changes, resource depletion, environmental deterioration and development. Each issue provides activities for use in the classroom.

"Ways and Means."
        Available from the Institute for World Order, 1140
        Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York, 10036.
        Published monthly. Sent without charge to all teachers
        on IWO's mailing list. Cost to the Institute is
        $1.50 per teacher. Contributions are gratefully re-
        ceived.

        "Ways and Means" is a four page newsletter which covers
a range of world order topics, including peace, social justice,
economic welfare and ecological balance. It explicitly ad-
dresses values and considers future alternatives. Each issue
contains teaching suggestions as well as follow-up resources.

Section VI, Peace Education Organizations

        A variety of services are offered by each of the listed
peace education organizations. Their services may include pro-
viding resource and curriculum materials; offering workshops,
consulting services and in-service programs; circulating in-
formation through newsletters and mailing lists; and develop-
ing networks of teachers interested in peace education. Many
of these organizations have regional or area offices in various
locations around the country.

American Friends Service Committee
        Peace Education Division
        160 North 15th Street
        Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19102

Center for International Programs and Comparative Studies
        State Education Department of New York
        99 Washington Ave.
        Albany, New York 12210

Center for Teaching about Peace and War
        5229 Cass Avenue
        Wayne State University
        Detroit, Michigan 48202

Center for Teaching International Relations
        Graduate School of International Studies
        University of Denver
        Denver, Colorado 80210

Center for War/Peace Studies
        218 East 18th Street
        New York, New York 10003

Consortium on Peace Research Education and Development
        Institute of Behavioral Science
        University of Colorado
        Boulder, Colorado 80302

Global Education Associates
        552 Park Avenue
        East Orange, New Jersey 07017

Institute for Education in Peace and Justice
        3700 West Pine Boulevard
        St. Louis, Missouri 63108

Institute for World Order
        1140 Avenue of the Americas
        New York, New York 10036

SANE
        318 Massachusetts Ave., N.E.
        Washington, D.C. 20002

United Nations Association of the United States of America
        (UNA-USA)
        833 United Nations Plaza
        New York, New York 10017

UNICEF (The United Nations Children's Fund)
        U.S. Committee for UNICEF
        331 E. 38th St.
        New York, New York 10016

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural
        Organization)
        UNESCO Publications Center
        317 E. 34th St.
        New York, New York 10017

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom
        1213 Race Street
        Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107

World Without War Council
        1730 Grove Street
        Berkeley, California 94709

APPENDIX   E

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Changing Images of Man. Center for the Study of Social Policy,
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