International practical guide on the implementation of the Recommendation concerning education for international understanding, co-operation and peace and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms

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Foreword

The following presentation results from the UNESCO project organized in accordance with the Approved Programme and Budget for 1986-1987, 1988-1989, 1990-1991, and the Third Medium-Term Plan (198095) aimed at the preparation of an international practical guide on the implementation of the 1974 Recommendation concerning education for international understanding, co-operation and peace and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms It is based on five national guides and six regional studies conducted in 1987 and 1988:

Algerian regional study, prepared by M. A. Bekhechi
Brazilian regional study, prepared by C. de Paiva Leite
Colombian national guide, prepared by J. de Diaz
French regional study, prepared by F. Best
German (Federal Republic of Germany) national guide, prepared by B. Reich and J. Naumann
German (Ex-German Democratic Republic) national guide, prepared by W. Koehler
Indian national guide, prepared by G. L. Arora
Japanese regional study, prepared by T. Kobayashi
Kuwaiti national guide, prepared by I. Al Fayyad

Nigerian regional study, prepared by M. O. Olisa
Soviet Union regional study, prepared by V. M. Pivovarov.

The practical guide was written in close consultation and collaboration with the above-mentioned experts, following the recommendations of the Kyoto International Consultation of experts in 1989 and bearing in mind the ideas and examples expressed in the national guides and the regional studies. This second revised version took into consideration several suggestions submitted to the editors.

The work covers the whole content of the 1974 Recommendation and aims at providing support to teachers and educational administrators in the performance of their responsibilities with regard to various aspects of international education. The guide will present different ways to approach international education, will encourage the teachers to develop their own strategies, will hopefully initiate various activities, presenting some successful examples which can possibly be transferred into or modified for different situations, thereby stimulating teaching and learning in international education at all levels and stages.

Brigitte Reich, Berlin
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1. See Appendix 1.

Part One
The broad view

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International education –
past and present

G. L. Arora, W. Koehler, B. Reich

Background

International education has grown as a specialization within education. It has emerged as a study of international and intercultural educational problems in their social context, overlapping to some extent with comparative education. While the latter studies education systems and problems in different countries, international education aims at promoting international understanding, peace, co-operation and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms: education is seen as an instrument to bring about mutual understanding among cultures and races and to promote peace by international co-operation in the field of education.

The history of international education can be traced back to the beginning of formal education. It received a strong impetus for growth as a specialization after the First World War when it was realized that the school could be effectively used as a medium of international understanding. Attempts were made to develop curricula which would promote knowledge of foreign countries and cultures together with international understanding. From its creation in 1921, the League of Nations' Committee on Intellectual Cooperation concentrated on promoting international co-operation through the circulation of intellectual work. Guidelines for textbook revision were issued. Steps were taken, both private and governmental, to remove nationalistic biases and the glorification of wars and war heroes from textbooks. The establishment of UNESCO in 1946 further strengthened the international aspect of education.

UNESCO's terminology for this programme has undergone several changes during the forty-six years of its existence. In 1946, it was called 'education for peace and security'. This term was soon replaced by 'education for international understanding'. The term 'world citizenship' was used for some time in UNESCO's programmes. In 1954, an expert committee recommended that the concept should be 'education for international understanding and cooperation'. UNESCO's 1974 Recommendation further widened the scope of the programme by incorporating in it 'education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms'. 'International Education', encompassing education for international understanding, co-operation, peace, and education relating to human rights andRfundamental freedoms was used in the 1974 Recommendation and is currently in vogue.

The harrowing experience of the two world wars and the growing threat to human survival due to nuclear proliferation and the ever-increasing international competition in weaponry created an urgent need for positive measures to promote international understanding, co-operation and peace among nations.

The denial of fundamental freedoms to people in some parts of the world and the absence of proper conditions, in many countries, for the enjoyment of rights warrant creation of awareness among the people, especially the young. Though there are many ways of achieving this goal, education seems to be one of the most fundamental instruments and processes through which enduring peace can be ensured for the survival of humankind. Education has the potential to refine the sensitivities and perceptions of individuals, leading to the development of desirable attitudes and the inculcation of positive values.

Recognizing the significance of education as an instrument of acculturation, the Preamble of the UNESCO Constitution rightly states 'That since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed'. The Preamble reaffirms faithin international peace and co-operation, human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Charter of the United Nations (Articles 13,

56, 62 and 76) also emphasizes the promotion of inter-national co-operation and fundamental freedoms through the different organs of the organization, such operation. as the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, and the Trusteeship Council. Ever since its formation, UNESCO has continuously striven to contribute to building bridges of mutual understanding and co-operation between the different nations of the world. Education was chosen as the most natural and appropriate medium for the promotion of international understanding, peace and co-operation, as it is through education that the new generation can imbibe these values. The theme was intensively deliberated in the general conferences of UNESCO and a number of international seminars and conferences. During the 1950s and lD60s, the United Nations General Assembly, UNESCO, and other international agencies and instruments were seen as having significant impli-cations for education for international understanding, peace, co-operation and human rights.

In a statement prepared by a group of Member States of UNESCO's Executive Board in 1951-52, the following broad guidelines, still valid today, were spel-led out for any programme on 'education for internatio-nal understanding'.

1. Make clear that unless steps are taken to educate mankind for the world community, it will be im-possible to create an international society conceived in the spirit of the Charter of the United Nations.

2. Make clear that states, whatever their differences of creeds and ways of life, have both a duty to co operate in international organisation and an in terest in so doing.

3. Make clear that civilization results from the con-tribution of many nations and that all nations depend very much on each other.

4. ake clear the underlying reasons which account for the varying ways of different peoples, both past and present, their traditions, their characteristics, and their problems and the ways in which they have been resolved.

5. Make clear that, throughout the ages, moral, in-tellectual and technical progress has gradually grown to constitute a common heritage for mankind. Although the world is still divided by conflicting political interests and tensions, the interdependence of peoples becomes daily more evident on every side. A world international organization is necessa-ry; it is now possible.

6. Make clear that engagements freely entered into by the Member States of international organizations have force only in so far as they are actively and effectively supported by those peoples.

7. Arouse in the minds, particularly of young people, a sense of respqnsiluility to thi:i (world) community and to peace.

8. Encourage the development of healthy social atti-

tudes in children so as to lay foundations of improved international understanding and co-operation.

In 1953, UNESCO launched the Associated Schools Project for Education in International Co-operation and Peace. The four basic topics dealt with in these member schools are: (1) world problems and the role of the United Nations system in solving them, (2) human rights, (3) other countries and cultures, and (4) man and his environment. Today, some 2,800 schools in 114 countries have participated in the project (cf. 8. The Associated Schools Project, p. 000).

One of the purposes of the United Nations, ac-cording to Article 1 of its Charter, is to achieve inter-national co-operation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction of race, sex, language or reli-gion. On 10 December 1948, for the first time in human history, the international community assumed responsi-bility for the protection of human rights by adopting the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Declaration of the Rights of the Child was adopted in 1959. In 1966, two covenants, one on economic, social and cultural rights, and the other on civil and political rights based on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights were adopted. The International Conference on Public Education (1968) adopted an instrument on international understanding, co-operation and peace. The International Commission on the Development of Education (1972) asserted that one mission of educa-tion is to help children see foreigners not as abstrac-tions, but as concrete beings, with their own sufferings and joys, and to discover a common humanity among the various nations. These declarations are important landmarks in the development of the basic normative document: the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation on the subject of international education. [1]

**The 1974 Recommendation:
conceptualization and approach to
implementation**

The Seventeenth Session of the General Conference of UNESCO took a formal decision to prepare a compre-hensive recommendation concerning the guiding prin-ciples, aspects, contents, goals and methods of in-ternational education.

The suggested text of this recommendation was discussed in depth at the eighteenth session in 1974. Some of the main critical comments on it referred to the title, which concentrated on international under-standing, co-operation and peace and was supposed

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1. See Appendix 1.

to include explicitly 'education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms'. Another crucial point was to establish a balance between sometimes strictly defined moral and ethical values and contents on the one hand, and the flexibility and freedom needed for arranging and structuring international education in accordance with different political systems and national characteristics on the other hand. It was suggested that the scope of the Recommendation should go beyond national governments and the formal education system, including as well non-formal and out-of-school educational efforts and learning processes.

The approval of this Recommendation marked a fundamental stage of UNESCO's activity in the realm of education for international peace, understanding, co-operation and human rights. It also reflected the evolution in the educational concepts obtaining in Member States. International education appears as an essential element of an education adapted to the realities of the contemporary world, oriented towards the understanding and solution of fundamental problems. In this sense, it must be interdisciplinary and oriented towards a comprehensive notion of personality development in its cognitive, ethical, affective and aesthetic aspects, favourable to the insertion of the individual in the international as well as in the national community.

On the basis of clearly defined guiding principles, the Recommendation suggests specific measures that should be taken in terms of political education, action in different educational sectors, preparation of educators, educational means and material, investigation and experimentation, and international co-operation. It identifies areas that should be included and the principal problems of humanity which require study.

The Recommendation thus provides a framework and some orientation appropriate to inspire systematic action, founded in the analysis of the fundamental problems of humanity, and destined to encourage their understanding and the will to participate in finding a solution to them. It recommends specific measures and actions for the different levels and types of education.

The Recommendation is a milestone in the development of the paradigm of a 'world society', emerging beyond - and in spite of - the frontiers between different political systems. It focuses on major world problems and reflects the growing interdependence of all regions and nations, stipulating that this interdependence calls for new commitments, obligations and duties for the world community as well as for individuals and peoples.

The basic equality of individuals and of peoples, and the right to self-determination are seen as the necessary founda.tiqn for this worldwide co-operation, based on the appreciation of different civilizations, ethics and ways of life, and strictly opposed to all forms of discrimination, oppression and (neo-) colonialism. The role of the United Nations and its efforts for non-violent conflict resolution are emphasized.

In the years following the adoption of the Recommendation, the reference in its title to 'Education Relating to Human Rights smd Fundamental Freedoms' mirrored a major point of emphasis and led to the implementation of a special UNESCO programme on 'Human Rights Teaching', starting with an international congress held in Vienna in 1978.

This congress recommended the preparation of a Plan for the Development of Human Rights Teaching which was adopted by the Twenty-first Session of UNESCO's General Conference (Belgrade, 1980) for the period 1981-1987 (prolonged until 1989 by the Twenty-fourth Session of the General Conference (Paris, 1987)). The aim of the plan was to encourage and facilitate human rights teaching in line with the 1974 Recommendation and based on the principles underlying the Charter of the United Nations, on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenants on Human Rights and other international human rights instruments, and aimed at fostering attitudes of tolerance, respect and solidarity, providing knowledge on human rights and developing the awareness of how to apply them in social and political life. The Plan provided various measures regarding structure, educational materials, programmes and methods.

Four specific activities were recommended: (1) the establishment of worldwide, national and regional structures to further human rights teaching; (2) the development of new teaching materials, the translation and dissemination of human rights studies, the collection of relevant human rights laws, etc.; (3) a programme to decide on research priorities, to compare peace research and research on human rights, the development of relevant curricula, etc.; and (4) discussion of appropriate methods for human rights teaching.

Parallel to the human rights programme, the new issue of 'education for disarmament' was launched and gathered importance in connection with the Tenth Special Session of the General Assembly of the United Nations dedicated to disarmament problems. It culminated in the UNESCO world congress on Disarmament Education (Paris, 1980). The congress recommended ten principles of 'disarmament education' which were widely quoted in the following years and which oriented many activities of non-governmental organizations and groups in the peace movement (for instance: Teachers for Peace).

Nearly ten years after the adoption of the 1974 Recommendation, the Intergovernmental Conference on Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education Relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms with a View

to Developing a Climate of Opinion Favourable to the Strengthening of Security and Disarmament (Paris, 1983) gave fresh impetus to the full and comprehensive implementation of international education. Its aim was to evaluate past efforts in each Member State and to elaborate, in close connection with the plan for human rights teaching, programmes for further action in this field covering all activities in formal and non-formal education at all levels.

The Conference recommended the drawing up of a Plan for the Development of Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace (which was adopted by the twenty-third Session of the General Conference, Sofia, 1985) aimed at giving a more powerful impetus to international education and broadening and intensifying the action undertaken in this sphere; and the establishment of a permanent reporting system indicating the achievements of the national implementation efforts was proposed.

The Plan was launched in 1986, the International Year of Peace, in two phases, 1986 to 1989, and 1990 to 1995, coinciding with the Third Medium-Term Plan (1990-1995). The Consultative Committee on Steps to Promote the Full and Comprehensive Implementation of the 1974 Recommendation, composed of experts in this field, was set up to support and strengthen the implementation through a questionnaire for all Member States, draft guidelines for several interregional projects and co-ordination of the different activities in human rights teaching during the period 1981-1989 and under the ten-year plan (1986-1995).

As these plans were concerned with all the spheres covered by the 1974 Recommendation, they were expected to complement each other. During the implementation of all activities under the two plans, the creation of an improved standard of their co-ordination and interrelation appeared to be neeessary.

Stimulated by the International Congress on Human Rights Teaching, Information and Documentation (Malta, 1987), the consultative committee at its second session (Paris, 1988) recommended the integration of the two plans, taking due account of the specific aspects of each.

The Twenty-fifth Session of the General Conference decided that 'a new, integrated approach will be adopted for planning the development of human rights teaching and of education for international understanding, co-operation and peace, while retaining the specific nature of both these aspects'. Concrete provision was made 'to pursue the implementation of and reporting on the 1974 Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding and Peace and Education Relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, in particular by developing and implementing an integrated Plan for International Education at all levels and for all types of education' (Resolution 25 C/4/107, para. 2(a)(iii)).

The new integrated approach should provide a conceptual framework and a system of concerted actions starting with the 1992-1993 biennium and continuing up to the 2000-2001 biennium. This approach was essentially influenced by new challenges to international education deriving from the fundamental changes in the international environment in the wake of the transformation of the Eastern European states. The leading idea was that 'any valid theoretical, practical or educational considerations of major world problems can only be constructed on a highly integrated and deeply ethical approach' (Document 26 C/ 82). The basic document is the 1974 Recommendation, looked at in the light of the broad lines of the Third Medium-term Plan, the relevant resolutions of the General Conference of UNESCO and the relevant proposals made by the Consultative Committee. Other reference documents are the international human rights instruments already mentioned, relevant normative instruments of UNESCO and documents of important international conferences and congresses. The Integrated Plan should be addressed to all those committed to and involved in international education, aiming at their orientation and co-ordination, their stimulation and motivation 'to take an active part in the implementation of the relevant objectives and activities provided for [. . .] in the integrated plan for international education and to make their own contributions to this end' (Resolution 25 C/5,7.2, para. 1 (c)) .

The main objectives of the Plan are:
- to provide a conceptual framework for an integrated approach to international education taking into account all its interrelated and intertwined components;
- to promote experimentation of organizing the teaching-learning process in international education in its interrelationship with other educational subjects and disciplines;
- to stimulate the development of components of international education such as values education, education for democracy and peaceful conflict resolution;
- to widen national, sub-regional, regional and international action concerning the revision of curricula, textbooks and teaching materials and to establish a worldwide network of textbook research institutes and curriculum centres to deal with international education;
- to promote the integration of international education into teacher training and to set up networks of teacher-training institutes and workshops to this end; and
- to further the innovative and experimental work of the participants of the Associated Schools Project so as to ensure the development of international education corresponding to the present and future challenges of the world.

The Draft Integrated Action Plan was submitted to the Twenty-sixth Session of the General Conference. The revised plan will be presented for adoption at the Twenty-seventh Session (Paris, 1993). The International Conference on Education meeting in Geneva in 1994 will discuss concrete and priority actions, and guidelines for inclusion in UNESCO's Fourth Medium-Term Plan.

Content and methical considerations

The Recommendation exhorts the Member States to formulate and apply national policies aimed at increasing the efficacy of education in all its forms and at strengthening its contribution to international understanding and co-operation, to the maintenance and development of a just peace, to the establishment of social justice, to the development of respect for and application of human rights and fundamental freedoms, and to the eradication of the prejudices, misconceptions, inequalities and all forms of injustice which hinder the achievement of these aims.

The Recommendation also urges the Member States to follow certain major guidelines while formulating their educational policies. The guidelines recommended include making provision for: (a) an international dimension and a global perspective in education at all levels and in all its forms; (b) understanding and respect for all people, their cultures, civilisations, values and ways of life, including ethnic cultures and cultures of other nations; (c) awareness of the increasing global interdependence between peoples and nations; (d) abilities to communicate with others; (e) awareness not only of the rights, but also of the duties incumbent upon individuals, social groups and nations towards each other; (f) understanding of the necessity for international solidarity and co-operation; and (g) readiness on the part of the individual to participate in solving the problems of his/her community, country and the world at large.

The Recommendation suggests ten objectives which the Member States should target in their curricula:

1. to develop attitudes and behaviours based on the recognition of equality and necessary interdependence of nations and peoples;
2. to ensure that the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and of the International Conventions on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination become an integral part of the developing personality of each child, adolescent, young person and adult;
3. to prepare pupils to exercise their rights and freedoms, while recognising and respecting the rights of others, and to perform their soeial duties;
4. to enable pupils to gain a knowledge of the method of operation and the work of public institutions, whether local, national or international;
5. to teach pupils the procedures for solving fundamental problems;
6. to encourage pupils to participate in the cultural life of the community and in public affairs;
7. to enable pupils to analyse critically the factors underlying the contradictions and tensions between countries and to deliberate on ways of overcoming these contradictions;
8. to help pupils to understand the true interests of peoples and their incompatibility with the interest of monopolistic groups holding economic and political power, which practise exploitation and foment war;
9. to enable pupils to acquire understanding of different cultures, their reciprocal influences and their perspectives and ways of life, in order to encourage mutual appreciation of the differences between them; and
10. to encourage pupils to study major problems such as inequality, injustice, wars (their causes and effects), disarmament, racialism, discrimination in its various forms, colonialism and decolonisation, illiteracy, famine and diseases, population growth, environmental pollution and management and conservation of natural resources.

The content of international education must be derived from the objectives of the curriculum outlined above. Obviously, it has to be of an interdisciplinary nature. Instead of treating international education as a separate curricular area, it will usually be more expedient, particularly at the school stage, to identify specific areas in history, languages, political sciences, economy, geography, sociology, religious education, arts, etc. and integrate international education concepts into the teaching-learning processes.

Thus international education today is a very complex concept integrating different components and taking into consideration the political, economic, scientific, technological and environmental developments and current challenges as well as the ethical, cultural, humanistic and ecological values which are or are becoming of universal character. Consequently, international education is education for international understanding, co-operation and peace, education for human rights and fundamental freedoms, education for disarmament and development, environmental education, intercultural education and, to a considerable extent, values education. This integrated approach to international education is a necessary response to the growing links connecting peace, development, protection of the environment, human rights and fundamental freedoms and to the urgent need of a global ethic to counter planetary threats and ehallengen.

International education is the responsibility of schools, political parties, voluntary organisations for

the protection of civil liberties and human rights, and the media. The role of schools of course is crucial. The school can, however, perform its functions effectively only when different elements connected with the school system play their mutually supportive role with vision and imagination. Ultimately, teachers impart education relating to these issues, but they depend on technical support, co-operation and assistance from the educational administrators.

The grass-roots level worker, that is the classroom teacher, is responsible for organizing teaching-learning situations on various aspects of international education. There are a number of ways of doing this. They may include talks, lectures and discussions as components of the regular transaction of the curriculum. Various other ways include the celebration of anniversaries such as the United Nations Day, Human Rights Day and Anti-Apartheid Day, arranging inter-class or inter-school essay-writing competitions, quiz programmes, debates and declamation contests, assigning individual and group projects to

students with suggestions for appropriate reference material, utilizing current events as springboards for initiating classroom discussions and organizing activities such as panel discussions and symposia. The teacher, to begin with, will have to develop a belief in the desirability of imparting international education, through studying available literature, and observing current events involving international relations, human rights and fundamental freedoms, and will thereby be equipped to prepare the activities.

In international education, the student should be considered not only as an object of teaching to reach the recommended objectives and goals, but also as a subject, able to participate in and to take charge of the teaching-learning process. It is up to the teacher to develop and to create conditions in which students can search, work, visit, observe, find solutions, debate, develop their personalities, and raise their knowledge and skills as humanistic and internationally oriented individuals.

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Implementation of the 1974 Recommendation: general strategies

B. Reich

International education is expected to become an integral part of all educational efforts in various sectors and stages of the education system from pre-school activities to teacher-training institutions as well as in out-of-school activities. The main task deriving from this demand is to identify appropriate ways to introduce the guiding principles, particular aspects, contents and methods of international education into the process of learning and teaching.

The most common way of proceeding is to develop or to revise curricula; to emphasise the specific contributions of each school subject to international education; to support various activities such as celebrating international days, starting exchange programmes, initiating interdisciplinary school project days and planning exhibitions; to elaborate new and/ or initiate the revision of schoolbooks (national or bilateraVinternational schoolbook revisions); to further the Associated Schools Project; to implement and evaluate new teaching materials and audio-visual media; to introduce specific courses on international education into teacher-training curricula; and to stimulate educational research into the process of learning and teaching concerning international education.

This overall approach needs an integrated strategy of influencing national education policy, education planning and administration; financial resources must be sought; and a well developed support structure provided by National Commissions for UNESCO, which can act as a promoter; national and regional communication infrastructures between educational politics and administration and schools must be set up, as well as a reporting system on achievements and failures, and research institutions, curriculum centres, etc. But, this comprehensive approach does not necessarily mean attempting to do everything at once.

National and/or regional circumstances influence the main points of emphasis in, for instance, curriculum reform initiatives, elaborating and disseminating administrative recommendations, conferences with schoolbook authors and financing research in improving pedagogical methods. These initiatives will serve the same purposes and reiJnfiorce each other.

Curriculum reform initiatives

Curricula in general are important guiding elements for the process of teaching In more centralised systems they list the main goals, the specific contents and methods of teaching; they prescribe the contents of schoolbooks and structure the classroom activities for all schools in the whole country. In other countries, they constitute the scope of topics to be dealt with in a certain time and leave the responsibility for coping with it to the teachers. Curricula mirror the range of legitimate topics and values, normative aims and guiding principles, which must be taken into account by all teachers.

Foreign language teaching is considered to contribute to international understanding, but a number of constraints must be overcome if foreign language teaching is really to contribute to improving further communication skills, to increasing students' knowledge of other cultures and their ways of living, to appreciating individual and cultural differences as well as similarities and to breaking down national stereotypes and prejudices.

Some constraints stem from the teaching method chosen, others from the fact that teaching the major world languages continues to be heavily concentrated on the traditional 'core countries' (United States, United Kingdom, France, Spain, the Russian Federation, etc.). This leads to a situation in which non-European, non-'core' states of the world are not reflected at all in foreign language teaching, despite

the importance of their languages. To improve the potential of foreign language teaching for a truly world-wide perspective, we suggest the following curriculum project:[1]

Step 1. Establishment of a working group for the elaboration of new curriculum units, stressing the international context of world languages, to collect appropriate texts and audio-visual media.

Step 2. Identification of the main topics and states/regions of the world that can provide the context of learning a foreign world language.

Possible topics:
- the cultural heritage of a nation/region (arts, music, literature, religion, etc.)
- history and geography
- daily life of children and young people (education, work, food, dress, leisure time, etc.)
- social and political problems (discrimination, race problems, conflicts, unemployment, minorities, etc.)
Possible nations/regions:
- African countries using French or English as official language
- Asian/European countries with a widespread use of English or Russian
- Latin-American countries using Spanish or Portuguese

Step 3. Selection of authentic texts, songs, poems, pictures, diagrams, reports, fairy tales, audio-visual materials, etc.

Step 4. Implementation and evaluation of such a curriculum unit in selected schools.

Step 5. Publication and dissemination of this material to be widely used.

Celebrating international days

In more and more countries Children as well as adults have become more exposed to foreign culture in their daily lives through personal contact and various mass media, but often this foreign culture remains a matter of curiosity at best or a perceived threat at worst. It is therefore an important task for schools to teach children the meanings of foreign cultures by helping them discover cultural diversities, leading reflective thinking and alterations in their personal behaviour. The

1. For additional examples, see I. Classen-Bauer (ed.), International Understanding Through Foreign Language Teaching, Bonn, German Commission for UNESCO, 1989.

most common practice is to have children meet foreigners in a systematic way or to let them discover the meaning of foreign cultures, their ways of living and thinking, their problems and their political and social problems.

This process of learning should be directed towards cognitive as well as emotional dimensions in order to have a real impact on attitudes and values. It is not enough to emphasize information and facts about other regions of the world or to show their exotic side; efforts should aim at letting children understand and emotionally accept unfamiliar appearances and attitudes as an enrichment of their own life.

Besides constant efforts for opening the curricula to world problems and other cultures, the celebration of an international day or week could raise the sensitivity of children and help them appreciate other cultural experiences. International days, prepared by pupils and teachers together, can stimulate motivation and creativity, facilitate individual and collective learning, cross over the traditional subject-matter frontiers and open the school to the local community.

Step 1: *Planning*. The organization of an international day demands commitment and extra activities from both teachers and pupils over a certain period of time. It starts with discussions in the staff meetings and in the classes to be involved in the preparatory work. The respective day and - if desired - a motto and a provisional schedule should be fixed.

Step 2: *Preparatory group*. A preparatory group, consisting of some teachers, as many pupils as feasible and, if possible, some parents should be set up and should meet regularly to co-ordinate and manage organizational aspects.

In most countries the head of the school must submit a request to the school authorities to grant one day on which the normal class hours and teaching lessons can be abandoned.

Step 3: Topics, aims and methods. Discussions in the individual classes should eventually specify the activities, the topics and the methods to be envisaged in the preparation of the international day. Some successful examples are listed below.
- Invite foreigners living in the neighbouring communities - students, researchers, business people, parents, housewives, people asking for asylum, foreign workers, migrants, etc.;
- make a study of the country, people and culture of forthcoming visitors, preparing charts, a rnap, pictures, a selection of newspaper articles, statistics, posters, etc.;
- Prepare songs and music of a foreign culture;
- Present performances and role-playing showing traditional or current cultural events, for instance daily life, the preparation of food and cooking,

children's games, a school-day, a wedding, looking for work, the rights and duties of children;
- read and discuss foreign literature, poetry, fairy tales, etc.;
- interview pupils, parents and 'normal' people inside the school on how they see, and what they know about, the chosen foreign culture in order to identify prejudices and widely spread images.

Step 4: Schedule of the day. The schedule of the day should be fixed and wall notices prepared, indicating the different activities, the classes responsible for them, the timetable, etc; if possible, invitations or leaflets should be written or printed to invite parents and other interested persons to attend International Day.

Step 5: Follow-up. The actual celebration of the day should be followed by an evaluation.

Interdisciplinary projects

A major guiding principle for international education is to further a global perspective in education and the awareness of the increasing global interdependence between peoples and nations. Major problems should be studied to which each school subject can contribute. In most cases one subject alone cannot provide the necessary base for analysing and reasoning a world problem - interdisciplinarity is needed. However, the most usual teaching structure is disciplineoriented rather than problem-oriented, and school hours are divided into specific subjects taught by different teachers, especially in secondary schools. Interdisciplinary projects demand a certain degree of co-operation and co-ordination among teachers as well as an initiation and planning phase before starting. Some constraints arising from overcrowded curricula, the necessity of spending more spare time than usual for the preparation of interdisciplinary projects, the demand of a high commitment of teachers and students, conflicts between individual teachers which hinder successful co-operation have to be faced.

The following example is intended for students of senior classes and requires the co-operation of history, geography, social sciences or civics, foreign language teaching and others, if possible.

ORGANIZATION OF A MOCK SESSION OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The organisation of a mock or model session of the United Nations General Assembly enables students to understand and appreciate the role of the United Nations system in the promotion of international understanding, peace and co-operation. It may reflect the

different roles of the member states in world politics, as well as their internal social, economic, cultural and political backgrounds. It shows the increasing interdependence of states and the challenges of a peaceful settlement of conflicts and of sometimes contradictory positions. If such a session is organised for November or later, the teacher will be able to collect proceedings of the General Assembly which starts in September every year. This material may be procured from different sources including the United Nations Information Centre.

The subject of discussion should normally be a review of current international situations.

Ten to fifteen students are selected to represent different member states or regions of the United Nations. Each student should be supported by some others who serve as counselors or advisors, able to give advice referring to the internal economie, social, cultural or political interests and problems of the member state represented. Those who act as official 'delegates' should prepare and be trained for short speeches and the formulation of resolutions and recommendations, so as to create the climate of an animated discussion.

Some of the delegates may wear the national dress of the country concerned. For example, Indian delegates may wear trousers and button-up-coats, chooridars and Achkan/Sari (in case of a girl student), and delegates from African countries may wear colourful gowns. Most of the delegates, however, will wear their usual dress.

The speeches will be in the language that is the medium of instruction in the school. However, in order to arouse enthusiasm and to create dramatic effects a few delegates may be able to deliver short speeches in other languages.

Before starting preparations for the session, the organisers should prepare a list of activities required for a successful execution of the project. A suggested list with regard to the mock session is given below.
1. Fixing a date for conducting the Mock Session of the United Nations General Assembly;
2. Deciding a theme for the session, gathering relevant materials (United Nations Charter, background materials on the United Nations system on the different countries represented, and on the causes and consequences of the problem to be discussed and voted; different teachers should co operate to this end);
3. Selection of the students to act as delegates, advisors, President of the Assembly, Secretary General of the United Nations, etc.;
4. Preparing speeches in different national languages;
5. Some rehearsals to take place before the actual sessions;
6. Preparation of a suitable stage for the session chairs and tables to be arranged in a semi-circle,

cards indicating names of the countries;
7. Arranging for national dresses of some countries (co-operation with arts teachers).

The session itself should follow some 'official rules' and, in a way, play out the symbolic importance of the delegates and of each participant, i.e. an 'official' may announce, one by one, the arrival of different delegates (for example, 'His Excellency the delegate of Japan'). The Japanese delegate will then walk in from the ante-room and take his or her seat. Seats may be arranged in a semi-circle in two rows, with delegates will deliver speeches in the front row and the rest in the second row. Cards indicating the names of the countries concerned and the President and the Secretary-General may be placed on the tables of the delegates concerned.

The President may invite, one by one, various delegates to speak.

One session should not take more than two hours, but it can be continued the next day. The session may end by official votes.

Similar projects can be organized such as a 'mock session' of the Security Council of the United Nations.

Development and dissemination of materials and media

Educational materials play a crucial role in international education. They can provide the teachers as well as the children with the necessary information and messages to create a deep impact on them and reinforce in them attitudes, values and knowledge of and motivation for international and global concerns. Materials can serve as initiators and instructors, as well as resources for inquiry, analysis, debates, developing the students' own judgement, planning activities, etc.

Educators have to face the fact that many children and students receive most of their knowledge about international affairs through the mass media outside school. Because of this, international education should also aim at helping pupils to select and to analyse information from the mass media in an appropriate and critical way. Materials and media should be integrated into the process of learning with a defined, adequate function and place; they may act as resources for relevant current facts or they may serve as subjects for critically analysing propaganda, enemy images, prejudices, one-sided information, etc. In the case of international education (as in other areas of education) efforts have to be directed towards a responsible selection and reappraisal of materials and media.

For a more systematic use and dissemination of materials and media, three strategies are suggested as examples. The first calls for establishing 'Documenta-tion Centres for International Education' (at a national and/or regional level), the second for pooling a number of relevant materials and media, and making them available to individual schools; by rotation, and the third for supplying each school with educational materials and media, and setting up a permanent school library on international education.

Many types of reference materials and media are suitable to be available and to be stocked:
*   information, facts, figures and accounts concerning the major world problems, such as listed in the respective UNESCO Recommendation;
*   documentary materials, such as the Chartet of the United Nations, the Constitution of UNESCOr human rights declarations;
*   facts and figures about violations of human rights and fundamental freedoms and the struggle for human rights
*   films, photographs} slides and pictorial magazines on ways of life of different people, their culture, art and sciences, etc.;
*   posters and charts on the population explosion, malnutrition, destruction of the environment and natural resources, discrimination, world trade, etc.;
*   literature, childrens' books, poetry, stories, etc.;
*   world maps, models of the globe and maps of other regions, countries of the world, etc.;
*   newspapers, magazines, The UNESCO Courier, publications of United Nations agencies, non-governmental organisations, news bulletins, etc.;
*   source books, handbooks, bibliographies, teacher guides, etc.

According to the possibilities and financial means of each country/region/school, a start can be made with only one pool, letting it rotate, or even one documentation centre under the auspices of the National UNESCO Commission or national/regional education authorities or research centres.

Schoolbook revisions and consultations [1]

UNESCO's interest in the improvement of textbooks for the promotion of international education dates to the early days of the Organization, with historical forerunners going back to the time after the First World War. These efforts mirror the realization of the impact of history textbooks on the perception of other countries and nations through education. Schoolbook analyses often provided evidence of the existence of a nationalistic bias, imbalances in the treatment of topics, prejudices and texts glorifying war rather than arguing for peaceful international co-operation and solidarity. Since UNESCO's Constitution states that

1. This section includes contributions by V. Pivovarov.

'it is in the mind of men that the defences of peace must be constructed', continued efforts to improve textbooks were deemed an appropriate way of furthering international education.

After the Second World War, there was a strong awareness of the need for closer international relations and for intensified contacts between teachers in different countries for the purpose of considering educational problems of general interest. As a result of the international conferences organized in the following years, schoolbooks became a prominent subject of interest and consideration. The practice of bilateral consultations and exchanges aimed at contributing to mutual revisions of history textbooks became more and more frequent, sometimes organized at the request of a Ministry of Education or National Commission for UNESCO, sometimes at the request of teachers with their foreign counterparts organized in professional unions or various educational institutions. UNESCO launched several projects on the multilateral study of textbooks and the development of teaching materials.

The issue of 'objectivity' in portraying another country or countries in textbooks is obviously relevant to education for international understanding and peace. Indeed, as mentioned, a hero in country A is often a villain in country B and a neutral figure in country C, unless A and C were allies against B. in which case A is treated sympathetically in country C as well. The division of history makers into 'good' or 'bad' in history textbooks, and indeed in popular thinking, was chiefly based on nationalism, often chauvinism.

An ideological division of the world into (I) the 'free world' or 'democracies', (II) The 'communist bloc', and (III) 'The Third World' emerged after the Second World War. Its uneven record with respect to 'democracy versus communism' inevitably affected the Western textbook image of Russia, formerly an ally to several major European powers and supporter of the United States in its anti-colonial struggles, as well as the presentation of Eastern European nations following their postwar integration into the Soviet geopolitical zone. 'Communist' states were frequently portrayed in Western histories as an efficient dehumanizing machine poised to 'bury capitalism'. For their part, history textbooks in the former 'socialist community of nations' referred to the evils of 'imperialism', 'capitalism' and their 'aggressive policies' as the major obstacles on the road to social justice and happiness for 'progressive mankind.

The simplistic division and its encouragement by education systems on both sides of the Iron Curtain, an asset at the height of the Cold War, became a liability with the advent of Detente in the early 1970s. Realization gradually dawned on the international community that peace cannot be achieved without removing the wedges of animosity driven deep over the

years. Internationally it brought about the 1974 Recommendation; nationally it resulted in initiatives to analyse, compare and, possibly, revise textbooks which promoted animosity and hostility.

A series of bilateral textbook revision projects started, originally in Europe, involving most notably the Federal Republic of Germany, Eastern European countries, the former USSR and Finland, to be joined by the United States and most recently the United Kingdom. A considerable effort over the years has been mounted by the Georg-Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research (Braunschweig, Germany). Comparative education scholars have also played their part although not without constraints imposed by the prevailing political thinking of a particular period of time.

While many of the earlier efforts have been described in various UNESCO publications, the British/ Soviet Curriculum Project completed in 1990 may be of interest as it covers the period of Perestroika and some serious reappraisal of history on both sides of the English Channel. The project, 'Handling Ethnocentrism in the Classroom', had teaching Soviet history as the subject of inquiry (Fry, 1990). The project was originally spurred by the realisation that national textbooks of world history and histories of individual foreign countries all too often provide a narrow ethnocentric view, which is not conducive to proper international education. Ethnocentrism was defined as:

the attitude of a group which consists of attributing to itself a central position compared to other groups, valuing positively its achievements and particular characteristics, adopting a projective type behaviour towards outgroups and interpreting the outgroups' behaviour through the ingroups' mode of thinking (Preiswerk and Perrot, 1978, p.14).

Naturally, this type of attitude is at best tolerant of others, particularly if outgroups happen to follow the ingroup's patterns of thinking, but falls far short of accepting outgroups as legitimate players (Reich, 1989). The implications were discussed at seminars by participating researchers who expressed concern. The British research concentrated on teaching about the other in history, using a qualitative approach. Practionners were involved, and the non-judgemental project was based on in-depth interviews of teachers before and after teaching a course of USSR history, on classroom observation and on analysis of teaching materials. Patterns and congruences were identified and analysed.

Nine schools participated in the project, offering fairly different optional courses of Soviet history lasting about one term and eonfined mainly to the 19051939 period. Questionnaires were used to determine how teachers organised their courses, as well as

observation and interviews. The idea was to study how teachers use evidence and empathy. Although teachers were clearer about racial than cultural ethnocentrism, they frequently referred to stereotypes and biases which may be countered through empathy and evidence. It was admitted that pupils knew very little about the USSR prior to the course and their misconceptions tended to be those of their parents. Most interest in the USSR was in evidence after 1985.

Interestingly, ethnocentrism expressed itself in fairly subtle ways. The pupils know well that stereotyped and overly prejudiced opinions would not take them too far these days - an indication of the current climate in history teaching and evidence of observance of the 'rules of the game'. There was also the problem of response. Should teachers agree with the pupils' views? Should they argue their own case if they disagree?

Several seminars were organized for teachers by the research team, and teachers were encouraged to consider ethnocentrism and ways to offset it. Some of the ideas developed were: pupils already 'have' history before 'getting' it at school (i.e. they understand conflict, sharing and fairness); pupils need to be encouraged to use their understanding and experience critically, to develop skills to enable them to test evidence and beliefs; teachers need to identify their own ethos in promoting certain values (for instance ambivalence on nationalism); non-ethnocentric positions can be discounted because we are inescapably 'in' a culture; while pupils should be encouraged to experience and express their own values and opinions, the question for teachers was whether they should share their values too; stereotypes in children's thinking should be challenged by divergent data and the devil's advocate role played by the teacher; and teachers need peer observation or a critical friend to complement self-reflection. Some teachers expected to be told how ethnocentric their classroom practice was and most thought the transcripts of their lessons were highly useful in promoting their own self-appraisal.

Teachers were unsure whether their teaching changed pupil ethnocentrism but hoped it did. Some were concerned that challenging stereotypes and biases may, in fact, have a reverse effect. Yet, the overall conclusion was that to address the issue one needs to rely on evidence and empathy as valid and valuable approaches. The project has found that ethnocentrism is at the heart of many of our assumptions about how we order, value and understand things, and how we categorize them. Ethnocentrism manifests itself in some school texts through errors, simplification, selective omissions, valorizations, value-loaded terminology and stereotyping. Yet, in the actual classroom practices observed by researchers there were few such examples.

This British study possesses a wealth of methodology and data which cannot be adequately described here. One thing is clear, however: teachers should be encouraged to reflect on their strategies and whether or not they, in fact, promote their own society's cultural stereotypes when dealing with far different realities of the past. Evidence and empathy were found to be effective means of combating bias, and this has a special meaning for international education.

The implications of the British study should not be lost on all concerned at this new historic junction. Now that the cold war is officially over and the USSR and 'world wide community of socialist nations' have become subjects in history textbooks, we are witnessing a painful and bloody process of disintegration. Formerly integrated states are breaking up 'at ethnic seams' in the face of attempts to create new statehoods built along ethnic lines. Long years of integrated co-existence and strong economic, cultural and other links are all but forgotten. The process is accompanied by heavy loss of human lives, disarray in the economies and the breakup of vital human communication built over many decades. The war of heroes in history textbooks has assumed new dimensions against the backdrop of the war of monuments in the streets and squares, which is accompanied by often noisy and zealous efforts to revise 'socialist' textbooks in the usually quiet curriculum development centres. The process occurs at several levels. Public and political figures formerly held in high or low esteem undergo bewildering role reversals, both in formerly dominant states and newly independent nations. It is premature to attempt an assessment of the content and scale of such revision. However, what little material is available indicates that ethnocentrism and intolerant nationalism are only too apparent in the emerging generation of history textbooks accompanied by the drums of xenophobia and intolerance in the streets. Predictably, it will take a long time before new states are prepared to exercise more tolerance and take a more enlightened view of their history, their neighbours and, indeed, them-selves. While in Western Europe the emergence of multiethnicity is recognized and attempts are being made to accommodate societies and their schools to traditional or newly-acquired ethnic diversity, elsewhere we are dealing with the opposite. Until then the fine British study described above will be seen as too subtle for countries painfully searching for a new identity.

Part Two
Specific areas of concern

3

Peace studies and global education

V. Pivovarov

General aims

For our purposes, the studies discussed below will embrace not only courses bearing specific titles but any course with international education content. These days, they are often called 'global studies', 'world studies' or 'conflict studies'. Indeed, the 1974 Recommendation features, amongst its guiding principles, '(a) an international dimension and a global perspective in education at all levels and in all forms'.

Global education emerged as an attempt by secondary education to accommodate global concerns spurred by the growing awareness of the commonality of problems and interdependence of all inhabitants of our planet vis-a-vis environment, resources, energy, population, development and other aspects related to human survival. Prevention of war, particularly nuclear war, has often been included in the list of global issues. Global issues were originally reserved for senior students but gradually made way into elementary curricula. Again, the pattern has been to either add a new subject (course) or enrich existing subject disciplines with new subject matter. There have been some exciting pioneering efforts and appropriate criteria have been developed in the final report of the international consultation with a view to improving the study of major problems of mankind and their presentation in school curricula and textbooks (GeorgEckert Institute, 1988).

The natural ally of global education is Social Studies. Often followed from the post-elementary level through the graduating grade, Social Studies provides ample time and flexibility to arrange the global material in a pedagogically sound manner. Although Global Studies may be offered as a separate course (as in the New York State Social Studies course for Grades 9-10 described below), skills appropriate to global thinking and education for peace are defined as goals for the entire Social Studies curriculum. They include knowledge of the historic, economic, social and political roots of major cultures of the world, and the increasing international connections of nations and cultures that make them interdependent within the various global systems; ability to explain the fundamental similarities and differences among major economic, social and political systems, and how these systems operate in an interdependent world; ability to empathize with the values that guide the behaviour of people from different cultures, etc. Significantly, Social Studies skills include those for interpersonal and group relations: the ability to work with others in the planning and implementation of plans; the ability to empathize and to evaluate the characteristics of others before making judgements that might be influenced by stereotypes.

Social Studies is primarily intended for citizenship education. Today good citizens need an international education that stresses such concepts as perspective consciousness (recognition that world outlooks are not universally shared), cross-cultural awareness (knowledge of the diversity of ideas, values and traditions that shape the lives and decisions of other peoples), awareness of global dynamics (comprehension of key mechanisms which drive the major interactions among nations and which lead to the formation of worldwide systems that are economic, technological, political, or social in nature) and awareness of choice (understanding that international and domestic problems frequently present choices, the results of which increasingly are global in scope).

Global studies as a separate Social Studies course

Acourse offered to 14-15-year-olds (Grades 9-10) by the New York State Department of Education is representative of what can be done in school systems having a tradition of Social Studies as a separate integrative discipline. The following table cites its objectives. We have provided a detailed description of this course in the belief that practitioners, curriculum developers and administrators may glean some useful clues from this serious attempt to address global issues within the framework of a Social Studies course. Each of the units lists content outline, major ideas and model activities with clearly identified goals, objectives, and desired outcomes. The highlights of the course may also be recommended - with appropriate modifications -to those desirous of enriching other established school subjects.

In decentralized systems with their absence of standard and universally (nationally) used source books or textbooks, practitioners often rely on bibliographies and periodic als listing various teaching activities and experiences in global education to make their own teaching materials. Some materials indeed are seldom used by more than a handful of schools that may have links to a particular university. For an example of what is available, we will confine ourselves to a brief description from an extension to global education, 'education for world citizenship', designed to promote planetary thinking (Bergstrom, 1985).

This is an attempt to use the ideas and work of R. Buckminster Fuller (1895-1983) for encouraging a holistic approach to the one world we live in. Designed as a package containing a short student resource book and a rich teacher resource guide, the materials provides students with a concise reading and reference booklet intended as an introduction to the concept of world citizenship and provides teachers with a collection of forty activities, related handouts, and various reference and resource materials.

OBJECTIVES OF A GRADES 9 AND 10 GLOBAL STUDIES COURSE IN NEW YORK

Knowledge	Skills	Attitudes
1. the major historical, geographical, societal, political and economic forces and events that have shaped the global community and individual nations	1. the ability to use research and analytical skills to secure data from various disciplines and to use relevant information to draw inferences, conclusions and generalisations about other cultures	1. positive attitudes toward objective analysis and inquiry
2. the causes and effects of cultural diversity and cultural diffusion		2. positive attitudes toward intercultural empathy and comprehension
3. the political and economic interdependence of major nations and cultures in relation to other nations and cultures	2. the ability to use speaking and writing skills to articulate a persuasive point of view	3. negative attitudes toward stereotyping, prejudice and injustice
4. the means used by various nations and cultures te deal with human needs and human rights	3. the ability to utilize knowledge and insights gained to participate in democratic decision-making and to work effectively with other differing views and cultures	4. the perception that historical change, societal difference, and social conflict can be marshalled towards constructive ends
5. the economic significance of various nations and cultures studied		5. the capacity to perceive one's society and that of others as both cultural borrowers and contributors
6. the development of Western civilization in its intellectual, artistic, political and economic aspects	4. the ability to perceive and identify the transnational consequences of personal and group decisions within and among nations	6. the capacity to perceive humanity as a single species to be protected and valued
7. the development of religious beliefs and value systems in the cultures and nations studied		7. the capacity to accept and defend democratic beliefs and procedures in decision-making in government and interpersonal relations
8. the influence of technology at various stages in history and in the various nations and cultures studied		
9. the influence of decisions and conditions in the past upon present international issues and problems		

Typically, the manual allows for maximum flexibility; schools can offer a one- or two-semester course in 'world citizenship', or teachers can select activities or units from the package to supplement their present courses or, indeed, traditional subjects and disciplines. The materials have been in use in several countries, including the Russian Federation where traditions of school centralisation are still very strong. Teachers can use certain units for courses in history, geography, social studies, etc. The topics around which the activities are organized are: Interdependence, Cultural Diversity, Whole System, Communication, Information Management, Alternative Futures, Creativity, Design and Planning, Policy Involvement and Problem-solving Experience: World Game, Community Game and Your Game.

Fuller's optimism permeates the manual. 'The most important fact about spaceship Earth: an instruction book didn't come with it', and 'There is no energy crisis, food crisis, or environment crisis. There is a crisis of ignorance' are typical approaches. Similar ideas are expressed in The Art of Living in Peace. Towards a new peace consciousness, Weil, 1990). Alvin Toffler's ideas stressing the need for a synthesis are also important for the approach adopted by Bergstrom:

Lacking a systematic framework for understanding the clash of forces in today's world, we are all a ship's crew, trapped in a storm and trying to navigate between dangerous reefs without compass or chart. In a culture of warring specialists, drowned in fragmented data and fine-toothed analysis, synthesis is not merely useful - it is crucial (Toffler,1981).

Education for World Citizenship is a multi-disciplinary, experience-based curriculum designed to assist students in developing the competencies, initiative and commitment necessary to become effective citizens in all levels e)f society. Competence to understand one's relationship to the whole world system requires the capacity to:

1. recognize whole systems, whether natural, social or technological, and understand the relationship between a system and the environment into which it fits;
2. perceive oneself and all others as members of a single species, sharing the same biological origin, common individual needs and similar community problems;
3. respect, protect and foster the diversity of people, their cultures, values and ways of life, including domestic ethnic cultures and the cultures of other nations; and
4. respect and protect the living systems which make up the Earth's biosphere; recognising that there is no inherent contradiction in the possibility of humans, their technology and nature living together harmoniously.

Methodological considerations

The instructional tools recommended in global education include brainstorming, group consensus and data acquisition game. Brainstorming is intended to be creative rather than analytical and any discussion of the suggestions made during the brainstorming sessions is usually avoided. The suggestions are recorded on the chalk-board. Group concensus is a method commonly used to reduce many views to a minimum number of agreed-upon statements. Data acquisition game is a method by which students inquire into the sources of various data. A series of questions is asked (Where do the palm trees grow? How many bicycles are there in Australia?) and brainstorming with respect to possible information sources for answers takes place. Students test the different sources and determine which lead most readily to the answer. After playing the game several times, it is possible to develop a list of the best sources of information for use in research and problem-solving tasks. Significantly, conflict resolution is featured as part of the required global citizenship skills.

4

Human rights teaching

B. Reich

General aims

According to Article 1 of its Constitution, UNESCO should

contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion, by the Charter of the United Nations.

The United Nations Charter, and especially the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1948 by the General Assembly of the United Nations, proclaimed that - for the first time in history - individual rights and the relationship between governments and individuals and groups of individuals are a legitimate concern of humankind. This proclamation was based on the concept of the existence of universal rights which should be recognised and defended by the world community.

As mentioned earlier, the 1974 Recommendation laid emphasis on the significance of an education

directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms (para. III.3).

'Human rights' and 'fundamental freedoms are those defined in the United Nations Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenants on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and on Civil and Political Rights (parade (c)).

Any concept of human rights teaching has to embrace objectives and content and educative methodology, and take into account the political, social and cultural

settings that determine the childrens' and the students' experiences and aspirations. Teaching human rights is not simply aimed at raising the level of knowledge concerning the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other relevant documents; it must encompass problems in the respective national society, right down to daily life in the school: the world, the society, the community, the family in its entirety these constitue the appropriate centre of such teaching. Human rights teaching includes cognitive as well as affective and social learning, the development of the capacity to be an actor promoting 'understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups' (para. III.3), confronting political, ethical or social conflicts and dilemmas, and learning to solve them in a non-violent way.

Teaching human rights requires a multidisciplinary approach. Most of the cognitive objectives relating to human rights demand the study of history and geography - the study of the evolutionary process of defining, formulating and implementing human rights and human rights conventions, and the study of the cultural differences and conditions of life. Literature helps to reflect the different notions of life, expresses the yearnings and desires of humankind, shows the struggle of individuals for human rights, their strivings, their quest for happiness and the ideas that have impelled them. Biology contributes to clarify the nature of men and women, of equality and differences of races, of basic processes of human behaviour and learning, of a balance between humanity and nature, and further, it should strengthen the respect for the dignity of every creature. Art and music contribute to the appreciation of different cultural experiences and concepts of life, of emotional perceptions of the world, QL different perspectives to deal with human desires, aspirations, sufferings. Religious education imparts knowledge of

different religious notions, furthers tolerance and respect, leads to an appreciation of the dignity of men and women, and of all life on earth. Political or civic education deals with the struggle of men and women, of political parties, and of other political and social groups for emancipation and participation, including the efforts to constitutionalize human rights, to institutionalize procedures for their defence, and to monitor the violation and the implementation of human rights at the local, the national and the international level.

Human rights teaching is a challenge for each school subject, for the whole process of learning and for school life itself. It should not be limited to a few items of knowledge presented in a few school-week hours. As we have already affirmed, the truest teaching of human rights happens through daily life events. This leads to the realisation that teaching should be seen as social practice or, alternatively, as the concretization of a pedagogy of responsibility.

Teaching human rights, understood as social practice, will not achieve its final goals if the societal structures have not yet become democratic, and do not yet show the proper conditions and cultural features. But even in such situations, human rights teaching should not be limited exclusively to the life of the academic institution, but rather encompass wider societal issues as well as efforts to raise general intellectual and social aptitudes such as: (1) the ability to discuss, to listen to and to defend (dissenting) opinions; (2) gathering, understanding and analysing material from different sources, in order to draw objective and balanced conclusions; (3) recognising prejudices, stereotypes and discriminations; (4) recognizing and accepting differences; (5) establishing constructive and non-oppressive relationships with

others; (6) resolving conflicts in a non-violent way; (7) assuming responsibilities; (8) participating in decisions; and (9) understanding the working of, and access to, protective mechanisms of human rights on the local, national, regional and global level.

Human rights teaching in the curriculum

Most of the time, the transmission of values, attitudes and behaviour through education is unconscious and not explicitly promoted. It happens through the family, neighbours, media and instructions given by teachers, through every daily life experience. This implicit, sometimes contradictory, transmission often fails to make children and young people aware of their personal freedom and the ethical choices open to them. To promote the notion of human rights and the validity of their universality, these values have to be explicitly expounded through formal education. Education systems should insist that it is their task to acquaint children with the values and principles contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other relevant documents. Consequently, during the period of formal schooling there should be lessons in human rights teaching and/or in moral and ethical education which should incorporate discussions on moral dilemmas, reading texts including the articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, theConvention of the Rights of the Child, etc. This teaching should not only stress information and knowledge; it should also initiate personal inquiry on the part of every pupil, extending to educational practices and the school itself. This implies the combination of (theoretical) knowledge and practice as illustrated (see Fig. 1).

KNOWLEDGE		PRACTICE
Concepts: freedom law equality sovereignty	Fundamental texts International instruments Quest for universality	In school • How the class operates • Election of class delegates • School councils • Internal regulations • Guidance and information
Ethical bases and problems	H.R.E.	In-school and school-related activities • Projects of an educational nature • Clubs • Surveys, interviews • Exhibitions
Legal dimension	Everyone's knowledge of this or her own rights Knowledge of legal principles Knowledge of justice	Contact b,etweell the school and society Out-of-school activities • Critical approach to media • Current affairs

As mentioned earlier, efforts should be strengthened to incorporate concepts and ideas of human rights teaching and moral education into different school subjects and their respective curricula.

The curriculum must be designed in such a way that it concretely and effectively elucidates and contributes to the cultural, historical and social situation of the learners; it must permit the learner to know as much as possible about features that give cohesion and continuity to society- ideas, values, feelings, customs and beliefs.

The curriculum must encourage the students' active participation and, consequently be guided by operative principles of those of the so-called 'active school', so that an individual, by taking her or his own experiences as the starting point, may embark upon courses of action which contribute towards defining his or her society.

The curriculum must foresee that having 'participation' as both a learning goal and a strategy implies creating a critical consciousness of the need for change and a strengthening of personal commitment to effective and responsible action. This in turn implies the knowledge, abilities and values required to contribute to a tolerant and open society, respectful towards human rights.

The curriculum must, therefore, overcome traditional concepts of school and education, and provide the students with methodological principles for lifelong learning which allows them to respond to social and political change, and to scientific and technical development.

The curriculum must educate politically, that is, teach students to debate ideas about the powers and forces that act in and through institutions, so that as citizens they will be able to participate consciously and responsibly in the functioning, development and innovation of national and international social, economic and political structures.

Methodological considerations

Human rights education is aimed at producing actors in the social construction of a human community that lives in peace, understanding and respecting human rights and thereby affimming self-dignity. The teaching methods chosen should organize the factors that intervene in the learning process in a way that allows students to integrate into their daily experiences values, attitudes, behavioural-modes and knowledge that permit them to analyse critically threats to human rights existing in their political, economic, social and cultural relationships. An education programme for human rights teaching will establish its objectives and content around certain situations that are threatening the living conditions of the species, of human groups or of individuals, in order to search out and explore alternative social arrangements. Violence or authoritarianism (in the family, in national or international relations) can be seen as concrete manifestations of threats to human rights.

All the factors that intervene in the educative process play important specific roles: the relationship among the learners and among the teachers, and the learning activities and materials used. To enhance learner participation, the activities proposed and materials used should be conducive to generating the learners' capacities to find transforming answers to the problems in which they are involved. For this, the traditional authoritarian role of a teacher is insufficient. The animation and orientation function of teachers is vital; they must be facilitators, their actions directed towards generating good questions and a sensitivity for problems rather than stressing flat answers and solutions. Such a pedagogical orientation requires much effort and care within the school system - traditional administrative practices and modes of teaching very often stifle attempts to create dignified, open environments for mastery learning. The following three categories of participation are aimed at stimulating participation

1. active participation, which implies that the learners participate in carrying out an (assigned) activity (this is the most widespread category and implies the least personal commitment);
2. consultative participation, in which individual learners affected by the eventually adopted decisions have some prior say and can exert some visible influence in the consultation process;
3. decisive participation, in which the individuals involved make decisions as people committed to assuming the consequences of putting their reso- 0 0 lution into practice.

It is this last category which should be aimed at, in spite of the demanding and difficult preconditions involved.

The teaching-learning process of human rights refers to an intricate stage process of the formation and development of values and attitudes, and we know that these have cognitive, affective and behavioural components. The emphasis of each one of the components will vary, of course, according to the developmental stages of the subjects and the specific content being treated, but it is important that all three be present.

Example of a project: 'Rights of the Child'

A project could be assigned to students on issues related to the rights of the child. Teachers and students together could design a survey aimed at ascertaining the status of the rights of the child in a local community. The issues to be explored could be carefully identified by going through the Declaration of the

Rights of the Child. Only issues with local relevance should be selected. Some guidelines aimed at helping the teachers to undertake and execute this project are given below.

GENERAL GUIDELINES

1. The teachers and students should go through the Declaration of the Rights of the Child and select issues relevant to local conditions. For example, poverty, ill health, malnutrition, inability to be educated, exploitation, cruelty and neglect, etc. could be made topics of the survey.
2. A locality where there are families of varying socio-economic backgrounds should be selected for the survey.
3. A questionnaire could be carefully prepared in cluding such items as:
   (a) N ame of the village/town/(slum)area;
   (b) Number of members in the families;
   (c) Number of children under age fifteen in the families;
   (d) Size of home (one room/two rooms/three or more rooms);
   (e) State of the surroundings (clean/partially clean/unclean);
   (f) Number of children going to school;
   (g) Number of children not enjoying good health;
   (h) Number of children who are wage-earners;
   (i) The kind of jobs the children are engaged in;
   (j) The normal diet of children;
   (k) The kind of medical treatment children get when they are ill;
   (l) The position regarding children's clothing;
   (m) Whether children are beaten by parents/ teachers.
4. Every student should be asked to gather data from two or three families of different socio-economic backgrounds.
5. Students should be involved in processing and analysing the data.
6. The teacher should help students in inter pretating the data.
7. The findings should be discussed in the class and their implications should be explained in the context of human rights, the rights of the child and fundamental freedoms.

GUIDELINES FOR UNIVERSAL CHILDREN'S DAY

The guidelines are designed for use in foreign language lessons (English, French, Russian, Spanish) for students aged 13-14 and 15-16 years.
   The guidelines feature various aspects of the situation of children in different socio-political systems as well as background topics. The structure of the guidelines is as follows:.

1. General statement
2. How did the Universal Children's Day come about?
3. Why a Universal Children's Day?
4. Who is expected to promote the idea?
5. What are the objectives?

SUGGESTED CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES/TOPICS [1]

1. The family and the basic needs of children
2. How racism takes root
3. Malnutrition of children
   Children are born to be happy
   Pros and cons of children's labour
6. Games and toys in antiquity
7. History of ancient culture
8. World concerns of children
9. Art and peace maintenance
10. Atoms for peaceful purposes
11. Solidarity and friendship among children
12. The United Nations and peace concerns.

SUGGESTED EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES [1]

1. Festival 'we share one world'
2. History and culture in India
3. Socializing through integrated activities
4. The banner of the peace movement
5. Childhood - a technology for peace
7. Children and their surroundings.

The guidelines for foreign language teachers are formulated in operational terms, recommending various instructional and informal strategies to set up a Universal Children's Day. International materials are widely used, above all those of UNESCO. The mix of national, foreign and international contributions and materials will hopefully facilitate the acceptance and productive use of the guidelines. Indeed, the guidelines contain important basic documents (The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, The Rights of the Child, excerpts from United Nations resolutions and UNESCO documents, etc.) which make them a necessary and useful sourcebook for a variety of forms of education for international understanding, co-operation and peace, and education for human rights.

1. The classroom topics and the extra-curricular activities below are based on actual experiences of ASP schools in the Russian Federation. The guidelines recommend that suggestions 1-7 be used in English classes, 8-9 in French classes and 10-12 in Spanish classes.

5

Intercultural education

B. Reich

General aims

The concept of universally valid human rights postulates the equality of all human beings without distinction of race, sex, language or religion. But, referring to cultural phenomena, we are facing a diversity of features specific to nations or regions of the world which constitute the richness of humankind. This cultural diversity does not threaten the idea of equality, but it calls for an appreciation of different notions of ways of life, customs, beliefs, languages, religions, arts, etc. Today, even more than in the past, no nation or region is 'an island entire of itself'. Increasingly, the world is becoming interdependent through political, economic and cultural relations, through trade, mass media and tourism, and through the massive flow of refugees and people leaving their home country to look for work and a better life in other countries, regions or even other continents.

This growing internationalization and the fact that, in more and more countries, people of different origin and different cultures live and work together demand a new orientation in education: the appreciation of the cultural identity of others, living in the same society, as well as the recognition of the world as comprising a multitude of different cultures determined by specific histories, artistic particularities, customs, values and beliefs. Emphasizing such perspectives is known as intercultural education and aims at raising the knowledge about both the distinctiveness of cultures and their historic and current permeability, mteraction and evolution.

To facilitate a discussion of the aims, methods and problems of intercultural education, it is helpful to explain the concept of culture and consequently to what the term intercultural refers.

Culture evokes connotations of 'human products, of pieces of art, books, religions and philosophical

systems of meaning expressing the particularity of a people' (Elias, (year), pp. 3-4), but also commonly shared emotions and reminiscences, a shared history. In that sense, culture is the collective identity of groups of humans, of people, a concept which implicitly draws boundaries and defines differences vis-avis other groups. 'The notion of "culture" establishes differences' (Ibid.). This implies the danger of conceptualizing hierarchies of different cultures, with the 'own one' at the top. Remnants of 'cultural colonialism' are very much alive in such terms as 'high' and 'primitive' cultures, 'backwardness', 'underdevelopment' and 'egotism'. Overemphasis on the ethnic grounding of culture as an explanation of cultural differences enhances racist reasoning. Ethnocentric premises direct the analytic views towards stable patterns and the past, rather than historic change and evolution and an open future, subject to at least s gme human intervention and modification. Ethnocentrism thus hinders cognitive openness towards other cultures and reinforces prejudice and fear of foreign cultural infiltration and alienation.

Explanation and acceptance of the openness, dynamics and reflexiveness of the concept of culture constitutes a precondition for 'intercultural learning'.

The UNESCO World Conference on Culture (Mexico-City, 1982) declared that

Culture enables the human being to reflect about himself and others. It is only through culture that we are made mto human beings, that we acquire the capacity to act as rational, critical and morally committed beings. It is only through culture that a human being can express himself, becomes self-conscious and aware of his limitations.

This dimension of the eritieal reflection of one's own culture is the precondition for the ability to perceive cultural diversity as a source for enrichment and

evolution, a window through which to observe the mutual complementarity of one's own and other cultural heritages (Essinger, 1987).

It is against this background that the aims and methods of intercultural education emerge. Intercultural education means the process of learning to compare different notions of culture. It stimulates appreciation of other cultural identities and the integration of some elements of foreign orientations into one's own cultural system. It furthers intercultural encounters and Communication, looking for common actions to create new cultural notions to identify with. Finally, intercultural education responds to the challenges of multicultural societies by promoting pedagogical efforts to overcome prejudices, stereotypes and ethnocentric OF particularistic perceptions of the world.

From the beginning, intercultural education runs up against reality - children and young people view their culture of origin as the unique reference system for their individual identity. This is therefore intercultural education's starting point and implies a prolonged learning process, passing through several stages and to produce eventually individuals who interact and communicate in multicultural surroundings.

First stage. The child is born and raised in a cultural setting with which he/she identifies: the cultural traditions of the family, the neighbourhood and the peer group. The perception of reality is heavily influenced by the process of informal and emotional learning from the immediate social surrounding, leading to appreciation of one's own culture and to differentiating between the collective identity of 'we' and 'the others I

Second stage. Awareness of the existence of other cultures, without fear and rejection, is achieved as children learn to accept the existence of other cultures without viewing them as a danger for, or an assault on, their own dignity and identity.

Third stage. Children will come to accept cultural differences as notions of a variety of cultural settings, not judge them as better or worse.

Fourth stage. This is the most important step, engendering a critical perspective on the failures and achievements of different cultures, including one's own culture. Children are integrated into a new and open system of cultural orientation, accepting other cultural notions as enriching their own.

Intercultural education in formal and hidden curricula

As already stated, all nations or regions of the world are interdependent. Ideas and concepts of life, progress, development, technological inventions and cultural trends transcend national frontiers. People all over the world are confronted more and more with issues and problems of a transnational character; despite this, school curricula often do not reflect the reality. Thus, the concept of intercultural education should permeate many subjects and their respective curricula, as well as the hidden curriculum of school life and extra-curricular activities The school doors should be opened to community life, to discover ongoing intercultural interactions as a pedagogical challenge turning the school into an intercultural meeting point by inviting parents, neighbours and foreign guests, or by exhibiting pictures, maps, symbols, newspaper articles, works of art, etc.

Curricula should be constantly scrutinised, both internationally and comparatively, to find out whether they accommodate sufficiently the diversity and interaction of cultures in order to forestall the continuation or re-emergence of ethnocentric and nationalistic perspectives.

Examples of successful activities improving intercultural education beyond formal curricula are international school correspondence, school twinning, inter-school travel exchanges, international holiday camps and exchanges of (foreign) teachers. The latter are not only important for teaching a foreign language - mostly the language of origin in the case of foreign teachers - but also serve as communication partners representing the heritage of their country of origin, cultural traditions and values, and political, economic and social developments.

Immigrant children or children belonging to ethnic minorities are often forced to learn, to read and to write in the language of the host nation or the official language (which is foreign to them), the majority without sufficient and appropriate pedagogical support. All efforts should be made to give such children additional support so that they become literate in their mother tongue, to reduce the dangers of the traumatic experiences associated with switching from their mother tongue to a second language when they move into a formal learning context.

Methodological considerations

Intercultural education means a long-term process it cannot be taught successfully in a few lessons. It involves both increasing knowledge and developing attitudes and emotions; it teaches children to perceive themselves as individuals and to develop reflective capacities and a more complex value orientation.

Intercultural education aims to further the ability of more sensitive perceptions and of empathy, the development of social action competency and the elaboration of verbal communication capacity.

SENSITIVITY OF PERCEPTIONS AND EMPATHY

Although in their day-to-day life children are often confronted with people of other cultural origin via the mass media or simply by living with them in the same city or sitting next to them in the classroom, unfortunately children of different cultural background do not, in the natural course of events, accept each other as friends or partners. Quite often, they are afraid of each other because of what they have unconsciously learned to perceive as strange in the outlook or behaviour of the other; prejudices and stereotypes often prevent them from appreciating cultural differences as a potential enrichment of their own experiences.

Educational efforts should try to overcome such prejudices, which are often the result of a lack of knowledge and empathy, and may correspond to a psychological need to feel superior to the others and to belong to the stronger group. Eventually, such a combination of factors may lead to discrimination, racism and intolerance. For a long time it was generally assumed that intercultural contacts would more or less automatically help to overcome prejudices and biases. But often individual contacts do not alleviate prejudices and fears, and even confirm and strengthen them. Educational research work has shown that improving the knowledge basis often does not suffice to reduce prejudices.

Consequently, intercultural education should also aim at strengthening the sensitivity to differences of individual attitudes and emotions, not to exploit diffidence, anxiety and fears, but to develop a sense of curiosity and open-mindedness. Methods such as roleplaying, questionnaires for visiting pupils or students on their perceptions of host cultures, classroom assignments to describe and characterise foreigners, and meetings and conversations with foreigners may help to create the capacity to question what appears self-evident and to enhance the emergence of empathy. Based on such learning experiences, the acquisition of knowledge - facts and background information about foreign cultures - may prove easier because of lowered psychological barriers.

SOCIAL ACTION COMPETENCE

Intercultural education aims at developing pupils' thinking as well as their practical competence in intercultural encounters and, more generally, for life in a multicultural society. The goal is a reflective: capacity vis-a-vis their own cultural tradition and an openness towards, and an integration of, elements of foreign cultural traditions, as a precondition for the creation of a common future. First steps in that direction should consist in conscious encounters with other cultural traditions, ways of life and everyday living conditions of normal people, their eating habits, clothing, music, dance, games, and work. In multicultural societies and schools, foreign pupils and their families should be integrated into school life. Intercultural days or lessons may provide the opportunity to cook, paint, sing, play, dance, make pottery and tell tales. If that cannot be done, films or slides Could be shown, or stories read. What appears to be important, however, is to emphasise the normal rather than the exotic, to describe and present scenes from everyday life, showing the same type of conflicts, needs and joys against the background of differences and distinctions in the political, social, economic and cultural conditions.

To acquire social action competence also implies accepting the distictiveness of the other and learning to cope with conflicts. The encounter with other Caltures normally produces conflicts, sentiments of superiority or inferiority, insecurity or fear: these must be brought to the surface and resolved, their continued existence accepted in a civilized way. Such conflicts would be worked through in dialogues and theatre presentations, simulated in games, elaborated and worked on in content analyses of different texts, etc.

Such conscious coping with conflictual sentiments, attitudes, behaviour and values in a multicultural context does not aim at a complete adaptation to, or acceptation of, the respective foreign culture, nor does respect for culture-specific characteristic s imply blind tolerance. The concepts of human rights, of the dignity of every woman and man, of equality and of non-violence provide the limits of, and criteria for, discourse

COMMUNICATION CAPACITY

Successful intercultural dialogue depends upon the ability to communicate, to express feelings and emotions, to argue, to cope verbally with situations, and to explain causes and consequences. Communication's most important means is language. Advanced language communication facilitates co-operation, exchanges and co-ordination; foreign language teaching assists intercultural education and is a necessary prerequisite for international understanding and exchanges. Foreign language competence enables children and students to understand others, and improves access to and knowledge of other cultures and other ways of thinking and behaving.

Improved proficiency in communication skills is instrumental in resolving possible causes of conflict and misun-

derstanding. In all languages it is important to understand the inherent cultural idiom expressed in the language in order for communication to become optimal" (Classen-Bauer,1989, pi. 5).

Although there exists a variety of approaches to foreign language teaching, the 'communicative approach' appears to be the most appropriate to motivate learners, to stimulate active participation in classroom activities and to develop the ability to cope with daily life situations. This approach does not deny the need to teach the grammar of a foreign language, but it starts with emphasising fluency rather than accuracy and complexity.

Every foreign language teacher must remember that feelings, values and attitudes are communicated along with facts and neutral descriptions of events. The presentation of foreign culture via foreign language teaching can help to develop feelings of respect and empathy, but it can also confirm and reinforce prejudices and stereotypes. The positive effects of foreign language learning can be reinforced by three main orientations: objective knowledge of sociopolitical reality in the country of study as well as one's own country; interiorization of humanistic and democratic values; and understanding of and commitment to collective and individual action with a capacity for empathy, solidarity, love and non-violent conflict resolution (Classen-Bauer, 1989, p. 24).

Some examples

INTERNATIONAL OR BILATERAL YOUTH CAMPS

The main idea of such camps is to bring together children of different countries and offer a variety of activities aimed at improving foreign language proficiency and discovering the host country, its history and cultural traditions. The children enjoy different kinds of sports and holiday activities in international or bilateral groups conducive to establishing friendships and personal contacts among children of various countries.

Experiences show that most participants of such camps enjoy them considerably and that often lasting friendships are established, in many cases leading to close relations between individuals and families, and mutual visits in later years.

Such camps can be organized and prepared under the auspices of the UNESCO Associated Schools Project, supported by National Commissions for UNESCO (for example, the German/Polish language camps) and/or by school twinning arrangements where two or more schools decide to organize a camp and send teachers and pupils to stay together.

Some non-governmental organizations (for ex-

ample, Service Civil International) continue to sponsor such camps, aiming at furthering the idea of peace and co-operation.

SCHOOL EXCHANGE PROGRAMMES

In Western Europe, school exchange programmes have seen a tremendous growth over the last thirty years, mainly between Western European countries but to a considerable extent also between Western Europe and North America. School exchange programmes between Eastern European countries were less developed (youth camps were favoured), between Western European and Eastern European countries were - for political reasons - hardly more than a trickle, while school exchanges with countries of Southern Europe were - and are - virtually non-existent. Although the inner-European exchange programmes were and are important steps towards international understanding, the intercultural education approach today should aim at extending these exchanges to the non-European and non-Atlantic regions of the world.

Past experience as well as general methodological considerations suggest that international and intercultural exchanges should be well-prepared to avoid or minimize misunderstandings, failures and problems. It appears that guidelines for teachers and students can help them to better prepare their involvement in intercultural encounters.

One successful example is the handbook Guidelines for the intercultural exchange Ott pupils (Workmann, 1991). This presents the following theoretical considerations and practical suggestions for the preparation phase of an exchange.

The three following goals for visiting pupils should be kept in mind
(a) Training in language skills which will raise the competence of social action in the host country. This may include: intensification of all foreign language teaching; provision of a crash course; 'survival training' including the simulation of daily life situations (going shopping, using public transport systems, etc.); learning words to question, to express emotions, to reason, to express thanks! to respond to traditional customs; training in non-verbal modes of communication to handle unforeseen situations; training in conflict situations.
(b) Providing information on the host country: efforts to raise the knowledge about the host country should include geographical, political, historical and economic facts as well as information on values, religion and mentalities. Further, it is desirable that the participants study:
• the school system of the host country (the system at large, traditional and actual modes of

teacher-pupil interaction, organisational characteristics of normal shool life (half-day, full-day, etc.);

- the family (traditional and actual modes of educating, daily family life, Eluding eating, hygienic conditions, the housing situation, etc.);
- social groups (gender-specific behaviour, importance of youth organizations and clubs, : relationship between children and youth and adults and elderly people, role of minority groups and foreigners, taboos, etc.);
- public life (public transport system, youth culture, religious preferences, political trends, environmental issues, etc.).

(c) Training for perception: the preparation of a questionnaire to broaden and deepen the knowledge about the host country. The following example can be modified according to the respective country).

Let's Play Fifty Questions (Kohls, 1985)

Here are fifty basic questions about your host country and culture. They are not intended to be an inclusive list. Many more will be suggested as you attempt to answer these.

Go through the list now and write down the answers to as many as you can. Return to the list periodically both as a guide and as a check on the progress of your quest for information.

l. How many people can you name who are prominent in the affairs of your host country (politics, athletics, religion, the arts, etc.) ?

2. Who are the country's national heroes and heroines?

3. Can you recognize the national anthem?

4. Are other languages spoken besides the dominant language? What are the social and political implications of language usage?

5. What is the predominant religion? Is it a state religion? Have you read any of its sacred writings?

6. What are the most important religious observances and ceremonies? How regularly do people participate in them?

7. How do members of the predominant religion feel about other religions?

8. What are the most common forms of marriage ceremonies and celebrations?

9. What is the attitude toward divorce? extramarital relations? plural marriage?

10. What is the attitude toward gambling?

11. What is the attitude toward drinking?

12. Is the price asked for merchandise fixed or are customers expected to bargain? How is the bargaining conducted? :

13. If, as a customer, you touch or handle merchandise for sale, will the storekeeper think you are knowledgeable, inconsiderate, within your rights, completely outside your rights? Other?

14. How do people organize their daily activities? What is the normal meal schedule? Is there a daytime rest period? What is the customary time for visiting friends?

15. What foods are most popular and how are they prepared?

16. What things are taboo in this society?

17. What is the usual dress for women? for men? Are slacks or shorts worn? If so, on what occasion? Do teenagers wear jeans?

18. Do hairdressers use techniques similar to those used by hairdressers in [your own country]? How much time do you need to allow for an appointment at the hairdresser?

19. What are the special privileges of age and/or gender?

20. If you are invited to dinner, should you arrive early? on time? late? If late, how late?

21. On what occasions would you present (or accept) gifts from people in the country? What kind of gifts would you exchange?

22. Do some flowers have a particular significance?

23. How do people greet one another? shake hands? embrace or kiss? How do they leave one another? What does any variation from the usual greeting or leave-taking signify?

24. If you are invited to a cocktail party, would you expect to find among the guests: foreign business people? men only? men cmd women? local business people? local politicians? national politicians? politicians' spouses? teachers or professors? bankers? doctors? lawyers? intellectuals such as writers, composers, poets, clerics? members of the host's family? (including in-laws?) movie stars? ambassadors or consular officials from other countries?

25. What are the important holidays? How is each observed?

26. What are the favorite leisure and recreational activities for adults? for teenagers?

27. What sports are popular?

28. What kind of television programmes are shown? What social purposes do they serve?

29. What is the normal work schedule? How does it accommodate environmental or other conditions?

30. How will your financial position and living conditions compare with those of the majority of people living in this country?

31. What games do children play? Where do children congregate?

32. How are children disciplined at home?

33. Are children usually present at social occasions? at ceremonial occasions,? if they are not present, how are they cared for in the absence of their parents?

34. How does this society observe children's 'coming of age'?

35. What kind of local public transport is available? Do all classes of people use it?
36. Who has the right of way in traffic: vehicles, animals, pedestrians?
37. Is military training compulsory?
38. Are the largest circulation newspapers generally friendly in their attitude towards [your own country]?
39. What is the history of the relationship between this country and [your own country]?
40. How many people have emigrated from this country [your country]? Other countries? Are many doing so at present?
41. Are there many expatriates [from your own country] living in this country?
42. What options do foreigners have in choosing a place to live?
43. What kinds of health services are available? Where are they located?
44. What are the common home remedies for minor ailments? Where can medicines be purchased?
45. Is education free? compulsory?
46. In schools, are children segregated by race? by caste? by class? by gender?
47. What kinds of schools are considered best: public, private, parochial?
48. In schools, how important is learning by rote?
49. How are children disciplined in school?
50. Where are the important universities of the country? If university education is sought abroad, to what countries and universities do students go?

A NORTH-SOUTH SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP PROJECT (GERMAN-SENEGALESE)

Upon the initiative of a primary school teacher who had studied the educational problems of three villages in the peanut region around the city of Diourbel, Senegal, for her diploma thesis, the Berlin branch of the German United Nations Association started this partnership project in 1980. The overall aim is to increase the interest in, and improve the teaching of, development-related and 'one-world' issues in (primary) schools in Berlin and -- simultaneously - morally and financially support the Senegalese village schools and the local women and youth groups. Two weeks 'study trips' to the villages (during Easter vacations) offered to interested Berlin teachers (and entirely financed by the participants) has become the backbone of the project; the organisational principle is that - while direct postal and personal contacts between individual German schools (pupils and teachers) and individual village schools and groups are encouraged - money raised in support of the Senegalese partners is always chanelled through the (elected) management group of the project to ensure some stability in the distribution of the available funds among the participating five villages. These funds amount to about US$6,000 per year mainly raised in schools, plus additional funds from the city government varying between US$10,000 and US$20,000 per year.

For most of the participating German teachers the study trips provided the first opportunity ever to visit a Third World country (off the normal tourist track) and gave them useful insights into the problems of every day rural life in Africa. This experience brings the 'book-knowledge' of the participants to life and enables them to teach about development-related issues with higher motivation and competence.

The participating Senegalese villages in turn have profited both from the financial support and from the induced dynamics of the local groups to improve the functioning of the schools, the health posts, and various activities of women and youth groups (reforestation efforts, gardening, repairs of wells, building and repair of classrooms, etc.). In 1991, three of the Senegalese teachers could finally be invited to Berlin to visit some of the German schools with which they had been in contact for some years.

On a more abstract level, the German side lobbies for a change in the support of school authorities for school and youth contacts, which continue to be heavily biased towards industrialised countries.

Conflict resolution

V. Pivovarov

General aims

The 1974 Recommendation in its Guiding Principles (Chapter III) contains two which are crucial to this discussion of conflict resolution: '(d) abilities to communicate with others' and '(g) readiness on the part of the individual to participate in solving the problems of his community, his country and the world at large'. Those who participated in the preparation of the original text had in mind under (d) essentially linguistic skills, and under (g) the outcome of civic education, i.e. a socially active and aware citizen.

However, the same postulations can be viewed from a different angle. Arguably, linguistic skills or sheer readiness to be socially active often give rise to the all-too-common breed of smooth demagogues or uncompromising zealots, the former switching easily between several languages and the latter doing their worst not to be accused of being 'soft'. Communication is obviously more complicated than words, and readiness to solve problems is not enough to actually solve them. We will try to add new dimensions to the two principles from the perspective of conflict management.

The approaches toward international education tried out in the 1970s, particularly global studies and various formats of peace studies taught against the backdrop of confrontation-detente-confrontation, inevitably had to deal with international and regional conflict. Traditional school disciplines were no exception. The Cold War between the 'free world' and 'world communism' was often seen as the pivotal point of nuclear confrontation around which smaller-scale regional conflicts were kept up and, in fact, promoted directly by the protagonists and indirectly by their proxies. The Vietnam War and 'events around Afghanistan', as well as the superpower rivalry in the developing world, served as case studies for understanding the behaviour of superpowers, the nature of their ideological confrontation and its violent manifestations, and the limited or otherwise resources of the international community (epitomised by the United Nations) to control such developments. The issue and concept of conflict, the origins and causes of individual conflicts, their major and minor players and their behaviours, procedures for settlement and verification of compliance, international and regional security mechanisms - all these aspects had to be addressed by the international community. Indeed they were, with intellectual input from a new breed of scholars; their field, conflict studies, emerged as a legitimate area of academic inquiry and practical pursuits.

While such experts dealt mostly with political conflict and its sometimes violent manifestations, conflict was also approached from a much less ideological and political angle. It was seen as the sum total of incompatible differences between individuals and groups, not necessarily related to violent behaviour. Rather, it was seen by psychologists and other conflict specialists as something which is natural and occurs daily in the course of human interaction: something which is caused by the humans' inherent inability to properly control aggression while competing for personal or group agendas.

When two or more individuals interact and perceive incompatible differences between their resources, needs and goals or perceive a threat to their resources, needs or goals, their behaviour becomes a response to such interaction and the perception of such interaction (Deutsch, 1973).

Although quite applicable to international conflagrations, this essentially behaviourist definition is certainly much broader and includes all forms of

differences between or among humans. In fact, human civilization has amassed various procedures and mechanisms with a varying degree of institutionalization for purposes of mediating and negotiating disputes and monitoring compliance with agreements. Psychologists have their own views concerning aggression; those who are experts on aggression have a legitimate field of study and their own techniques and procedures for addressing aggression which call for specialised knowledge and a specific environment. On the other hand, every human being, psychologist or not, ought to be able to deal with conflict. What remains to be done is to devise an approach which laymen can use to tackle 'incompatible differences' in a situation of conflict.

Proponents of non-violence and peaceful change, peace groups and such reputable peacemakers and mediators as the Quakers have contributed greatly to the improvement of basic mediation and negotiation procedures and happily embraced the input and experience of diplomats, academics involved in conflict research, psychologists and educators, private mediation practitioners, etc. The concept of conflict resolution, not surprisingly, has become a popular school of thought and practice, primarily in the Anglo-Saxon world with its strong legalistic tradition and respect for 'due process'.

Conflict resolution comprises basically three aspects related to often overlapping areas of human activity: (1) mediation between parties in conflict when the mediator is seen as an important figure, (2) facilitation during negotiations with the facilitator creating a proper framework for the parties to negotiate their own agreement, and (3) facilitation to ensure collaborative action by the parties who plan to reshape their pattern of operation.

Consequently, conflict resolution specialists teach (and practise, commercially or otherwise) mediation, negotiation, facilitation and collaborative planning of ideas and processes.

A factor which contributed to the spread of conflict resolution in the form of appropriate agencies (family mediation, etc.) was the ever-rising cost of time-consuming ligitation between, for instance, spouses in a process of divorce, business partners, communities and government agencies, etc., who would otherwise have to put up with a court verdict or arbitration award served by an outside agency or person. Conflict resolution processes make it possible for the disputants to settle their differences by themselves through procedures facilitated by a conflict resolution person or learnt and utilized by the disputants.

Negotiations and acceptable settlements are a daily concern of diplomats, businessmen, executives of all levels and ordinary men and women. They were sharply brought into focus by the success of the Camp David accords between well-known antagonists who did reach an agreement that has stood a test of time. Camp David did much to promote the idea of a systematic approach to negotiations and mediations.

Collaborative planning facilities provided by conflict resolution experts ensure more efficient decision-making, a productive alternative to persistent infighting and tugs of war between departments or agencies undergoing organizational restructuring. Effeetive efforts in this field, whereby whole 'sick' companies have been turned around by so-called 'company doctors' to show profit within only a few months, have not been unnoticed by the business community and the public at large.

Methodological considerations

The basic premises of conflict resolution for whatever application, including educational settings, stress that conflict is essentially 'good for you' - it is potentially productive as it points to the existence of a problem which needs to be solved creatively. There are, of course, numerous unnecessary conflicts, mostly incidents caused by 'passions running high'} which are best avoided as they lead nowhere - and conflict resolution teaches how to avoid them. But conflict resolution is primarily about addressing a 'good' conflict which needs to be looked into seriously and with an open mind. Central to the concept of conflict resdlution is the idea that differences of opinion and approach over problems and issues are unavoidable and essential for advancement. Indeed, they should not be ignored but explored creatively through proper communication and systematic processes. Conflict resolution training workshops, now popular in quite a few countries, provide practical skills for avoiding or scaling down unnecessary conflicts and for developing strategies for addressing 'good' conflicts in a productive manner. In other words, conflict resolution provides important tools for a person to be constructive rather than just being knowledgeable about other nations and having peaceful and tolerant attitudes. Thus the knowledge-attitude-behavioural skills cycle is closed.

From the basic tenets of the 1974 Recommendation it is essential to observe that, according to conflict resolution ideology, no individual party wins in a dispute: it is a case of all parties concerned winning. The traditional win-lose notion ('Remember our strong stand which made them sign that agreement?') is thus replaced by a win-win idea ('I do believe both our groups have gained from this mutually beneficial agreement'). Any agreement is more lasting and readily complied with if the disputants share equally in its achievement - in contrast to a strong party imposing its position on the weak one.

Conflict resolution is undoubtedly a general cultural skill essential for any person and ought to be

taught at an early age, both informally in a family setting and within formal education. To avoid unproductive tantrums and address potentially rewarding conflicts properly, one needs to acquire specific communication skills, as it is lack of such skills that often frustrates our earnest attempts to reach agreement. Hence conflict resolution emphasizes such communication skills as active listening and effective speaking.

It is common knowledge that we are often unable to verbalize our thoughts adequately, particularly in a state of agitation. Nor do we adequately hear and interpret the other person's verbalized thoughts. The gap between the original thoughts of the speaker and the interpretation of the listener is often quite striking. Active listening helps to bridge the gap by encouraging the speaker clarifying, restating, reflecting, summarizing and validating what is said.

A series of exercises developed for a particular audience, young or adult, helps to hone these skills. Effective speaking at the conflict resolution level begins with so-called 'I-messages. Almost inevitably we state our grievances to the other person by 'You-mes-sages'. The response is often discouraging even though we may be absolutely right. Conflict resolution training ensures a more effective approach: the same substantive issue can be packaged into an I-message. I-messages have a simple structure: (1) I feel... (state the feeling: bewildered, concerned, frustrated, etc.); (2) When you... (state the behaviour: come home late without any prior notification, etc.); (3) Because . . . (state the consequence: I wanted to check your homework, etc.).

Essential for conflict resolution is the ability to analyse the other person's feelings and interests, i.e. empathy, which may not be obvious and yet cause particular behaviour. Special techniques help to lay the foundation for mastering creative approaches to mediation, negotiations and collaborative planning processes.

Some examples

Today, many schools in the United States, United Kingdom, Canada and Australia offer conflict resolution courses in various formats. conflict resolution efforts have been launched in Eastern Europe (especially in Poland) and in the Russian Federation, where a pilot project is under way to introduce conflict resolution into secondary schools.

The following course has been piloted in School 320 in Moscow and is being copied to other schools.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT : AN OPTIONAL SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL COURSE OUTLINE

Classes are conducted twice a week for a total of forty hours in twenty weeks.

Lesson 1
1. Introduction. Goals and objectives of the course.
2. Informal procedure for participants to introduce themselves.
3. Definition of conflict (by brainstorming).
4. Perception of conflict (through a questionnaire).
5. Types of conflict.
6. Sources of conflict.
7. Factors that escalate and de-escalate conflicts.

Lesson 2
1. 'Good' and 'bad' listening skills (a role play).
2. Rules of active listening.
3. Active listening techniques.
4. Rules of observation and assessment in small groups

Lesson 3
1. Feelings about received information.
2. Role of feelings in conflict generation and resolution (discussion).
3. Non-verbal communication.
4. 'I-messages'. ::
5. Accuracy of message delivery and reception.

Lesson 4
1. 'I-messages' (continued).
2. Clarification and reflection of the other person's fee lings.
3. Summarizing the other person's thoughts. Efficient communication.

Lesson 5
1. Conflict resolution process.
2. Steps to resolve a conflict.
3. Role plays to build conflict resolution skills.

Lesson 6
1. Role plays to build conflict resolution skills (conti nued).
2. Conflict manager's actions and their stages.
3. Role play to master the 'preparation' stage.

Lesson 7
1. Role play to master the 'preparation' stage (continued)
2. Presentation and discussion of Stage I.
3. Observation.

Lesson 8
1. Presentation and discussion of Stage II.
2. Role play.

Lesson 9
1. Presentation and discussion of Stage III.
2. Role play.

Lessons 10, 11, 12
Strengthening conflict rnanagement skills (role plays).

Lesson 13
Strengthening observation skills through observing conflict manager's work.

Lesson 14
How to behave and work with any angry disputant (role plays).

Lesson 15
Creative and non-violent problem-solving.
(a) 'Feeelings map'.
(b) Accuracy of delivered and received information (repeat).
(c) A study of a problem to be solved (identified by the class).
(d) An analysis of the problem using the 'cobweb' technique.
(e) An assessment of proactive and counteractive forces involved in the problem.

Lesson 16
1. 'Cobweb' technique (continued).
2. An expert assessment of the various aspects of the problem (with experts and witnesses from outside).

Lesson 17
1. Identification of the interests, needs and fears of the parties to the eonfliet.
2. The 'lattice' of the conflict.
3. Role play on the 'lattice'.

Lesson 18
1. 'Lattice' (continued).
2. An analysis of the identified interests, needs and fears of the parties.

Lesson 19
Summary and repetition of salient points.

Lesson 20
1. Final questionnaire.
2. Discussion of conflict resolution practice to be undertaken among elementary grade pupils.

The course outlined above is a 'pure' conflict resolu tion course during which substantive international is sues may not necessarily be raised. In fact, the first students chose to take up school reform for their in depth creative problem-solving exercise. But teachers at School 320 who have been through conflict resolu-

tion training increasingly use some of the techniques in their subjects, notably teachers of history, geography and literature. Both teachers and students feel that the whole classroom atmosphere has changed following their exposure to conflict resolution training. Conflict is being increasingly recognised as a legitimate point of departure, indeed the pivotal point for peace studies and other forms of international education. Just as human rights issues may effectively serve as the core of fully fledged courses in peace and other international studies, various forms of conflicts, their origins and suggestions for solutions, may form the central line of curriculum development in cases where the course is built around the issue of conflict.

PEACE AND WAR: A TEXTBOOK BASED ON CONFLICT RESOLUTION

An example of such a course is served by Peace and *War*, a British textbook written by Chris Leeds for the 14-16 year age group (Leeds, 1987).
The book's table of contents is self-explanatory:

Part I
1. Conflict at the personal level and in small groups
    1.1 Basic conflicts
    1.2 Personal, domestic and generation conflicts
    1.3 Violence, aggression and crime
2. Conflict at work or in business life
3. Law-making, intolerance and nationalism
    3.1 Making laws and decisions
    3.2 Blind spots, the closed mind and propaganda
    3.3 States, nationalism and patriotism
4. North-South relations and environmental issues
    4.1 North-South divisions
    4.2 The global environment
5. War
    5.1 The causes of war and the justification of violence
    5.2 Why people are willing to fight and the role of the armed forces
    5.3 The changing nature and types of warfare
6. The Cold War, arms race and nuclear war
    6.1 General causes
    6.2 Western nuclear strategy
    6.3 Arms and disarmament

Part II
7. Conflict solving - invidivuals and small groups
    7.1 Peace skills
    7.2 Working for peace
    7.3 Crime prevention and alternatives to aggression
8. Religions sncl culture
    8.1 Peace and forms of conflict in religions
    8.2 Appreciating other cultures and lifestyles

9. Revisionist views on the Cold War and unilateralism.
    9.1 Revisionist views on the Cold War
    9.2 The ease for unilateral disarmament
    9 3 Civil defence versus social defence
10. Peacekeeping, peacemaking and solving large-scale conflicts
    10.1 Avoiding eonfliets and maintaining peace
    10.2 Role playing and simulation exercises
11. Human rights and East-West conflict
    11.1 Human rights and responsibilities
    11.2 Human rights, ideology and the Cold War

12. World problems and preparation for the future
    12.1 The need for greater world co-operation
    12.2 Possible futures .

This textbook is an example of a traditional world studies source book - with a very important difference in its Clear emphasis on 'how to' in addition to 'what'. A World Studies Course of this type, if taught in combination with an activity-based conflict resolution course along the lines described in the Russian example, would indeed be our most serious recommendation.

7

Innovative methods in teacher training and further education

B. Reich

School reform initiatives as well as the implementation of new contents and methods primarily depend upon the teacher's individual capacity and competency to face and to support new developments. Research in this field proved that the teachers themselves are the most important factor for innovation and should be taken seriously. Concepts to change objectives, aims and methods in teaching fail if they do not imply a process of (re-)orientation and training of teachers. Initial teacher training and in-service training are both means to develop such a capacity which should cover the learning of relevant subject matters and methods, social competency and the capability to take part in reform initiatives.

In most countries of the world, traditional teacher training is concentrated on the learning of subjects and much less on the development of social competency to face new challenges arising from the change of social conditions influencing the socialization process of children; these changes include technological trends, the overall influence of the mass media, the devaluation of traditional values and the search for new orientations and human values, and the emergence of global concerns and problems. If they are not trained to meet these changes and to reflect upon new conditions and needs, teachers will not support and may even hinder the success of reform initiatives. If teachers do not learn to cope with and to adapt their methods and attitudes to new situations, they will soon feel 'burned out' and overstressed. To avoid these consequences, international education should be based upon supportive courses in initial teacher training as well as in in-service training, where students and teachers learn to cope with new demands, to find solutions, to look for better methods and to develop new perspectives. Consequently, teacher training should not only concentrate on the cognitive learning of subjects, but also help to overcome the

psychological and emotional barriers to productive reflection and to innovative projects and initiatives, thereby facilitating the process of lifelong learning. It is quite obvious that initial teacher training in today's conditions cannot equip teachers with all the necessary knowledge and information for the rest of their 'professional life'. It should be continued from time to time by in-service training, giving fresh impulses and new orientations.

This holds especially true for international education which is not a final concept of invariable aims, objectives and contents, but must be open to integrating new problems and challenges. During their initial training, teachers should acquire a basic competency which will be refreshed and updated in further education. The main task of the initial programmes is to impart basic categories and main objectives as well as some fundamental knowledge of content and of methods for international education, whereas further education programmes should concentrate on special issues and approaches; further education can take into account specific problems of implementing international education, focus on some practical conflicts and hindrances and help to develop materials and plan teaching units, etc.

Obviously, different countries have different organizational structures of further education courses. Often, the organisation of the school system and the degree of autonomy of schools and regional structures will affect the contents of the courses. Centralized systems will probably have centrally planned curricula, whereas countries with regional education structures and autonomous schools will often have a wider variety of further education courses. Furthermore, a number of different concepts and emphases can be identified: some stress the idea that teachers need to update their knowledge of their subjects areas and should get acquainted with new teaching meth

ods and political orientations, and with new contents and syllabuses; others focus on the development of social competency, the (re-)establishment of the teachers' professional and personal ethos and the prevention of burnout by strengthening their motivation and energy for their teaching. The first-mentioned concepts rely on 'experts' who train the teachers (the top-down concept), whereas the latter stress the importance of social learning processes initiated by the participating teachers who themselves decide upon the expertise they need. Both are valuable, for different aims.

Innovation in teacher training programmes

The integration of content and methods relating to peace, international understanding, co-operation and human rights into the school curriculum requires that teachers possess the relevant knowledge, awareness, attitudes and skills to identify curricular action in their domain. All school teachers must be oriented to this curricular demand. Provision for such competence must be made in the initial teacher training curriculum in order to develop the necessary competencies right from the beginning.

Since a sizeable number of children drop out of school and/or join the world of work after primary education in a large number of developing countries, international education has to start right from the primary level, so student teachers for all levels of education should be trained. The orientation of teachers should provide the essential knowledge of content relating to various components of international education, and of teaching methods specific to the curriculum in this area. Both have to be integrated into the subjects to be taught, as well as into courses on teaching theory (philosophical, sociological and pedagogical-didactical) and into practice teaching courses.

OBJECTIVES FOR TRAINING / ORIENTATION OF TEACHERS

1. Explain the concept of education for peace, international understanding, co-operation, human rights and fundamental freedoms.
2. Specify the content relating to (1) above for the relevant grade level.
3. Identify plug points in the subject being taught by the teachers at a particular grade-level.
4. Select teaching methods that use a multi-disciplinary approach and are appropriate for the objectives, content and development level of the child
5. Plan for collecting systematic feedback on the effectiveness of their teaching with a view to influencing curriculum decision-making and improving transaction in the context of specific

needs

CONTENT OF TRAINING / ORIENTATION OF TEACHERS

1. Essential knowledge
- content of the 1974 lJNESCO Recommendation human rights conventions, conventions on the rights of the child
- sources of international tension and threats to peace, international understanding and human rights
- national and international organizations committed to the promotion of various components of international education
- constructive citizenship actions for peace, international understanding, co-operation and education for human rights and fundamental freedoms
- implications of international education for curriculum planning for pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher secondary school levels in different curriculum areas: language teaching, mathematics, arts, science, social science, work education, etc.

2. Teaching methods
- experimental methods
- role playing with simulation in cognitive and non-cognitive areas
- clarifying strategies
- non-violent conflict resolutions
- inquiry-training and problem-solving
- establishing centres of interests
- out-of-school experience through field studies
- using newspaper clippings and relevant examples from literature.

In most teacher training programmes you will find a place to translate theory into practice in both simulated and actual teaching situations. Each teacher could be requested to choose a material for realizing objectives relating to essential knowledge and awareness about international understanding, for example a video tape, newspaper clippings, a text from literature, slides, figures, charts, etc., and to start a discussion in the classroom.

EXAMPLE OF A PROJECT: DEVELOPMENT OF EMPATHY

Nature in Anger. Bittano (Philippines), November 28 (Reuter). Giant waves triggered by typhoon Nina killed at least 581 people in the central Philippines. Five hundred of the dead were from Sorsogon province, were tidal waves smashed into coastal villages on Wednesday night. When tidal waves hit, the villagers scampered out of their houses. Some Were drowned, others were pinned down among the debris. Nina, the worst hit the country in three years, rendered more than 100.000 people homeless and

caused property and crop damage estimated at $12.3 million. Three days after the storm struck, villagers were still searching for bodies of missing relatives. Rescuers said some bodies were found floating in the sea while others were scattered on beaches.

- How will you use this news item in the classroom to develop empathy in children for their peers in other countries?
- How will you convert this empathy into citizenship action?
- What activities can you as a teacher organize to achieve both objectives?
- Describe how you would go about organising this activity.

Further education courses

The following two innovative methods of further teacher training are based on the idea of strengthening the capabilities of teachers to find their own way to develop social competency, to raise motivation and creativity and to mobilize efforts to initiate reform projects; the latter may involve the outer and inner structures of schools, the changing of 'school life and school climate', the changing of curricula or the initiation of project days, etc. These two methods are called 'Futures-workshops' and 'School internal further education' respectively. Referring to international education, the starting point for further training courses could be to find answers to questions such as:

- Our school wants to become a UNESCO Associated Sehool. How to proceed?
- How to convince my colleagues to co-operate in an interdisciplinary project on International Education?
- How to change school life so that it better fits the needs of children of foreign origin?
- How to initiate and organize school Winnings?
- How to integrate human rights teaching, intercultural education, peace studies, etc. into existing curricula?
- How to start of a Documentation Centre for International Education?
- How to cope with conflicts between pupils (aggressive behaviour, prejudices or violent struggles)?
- How to prepare an international day in our school?

These examples show the possible range of questions which can serve as the starting point for the organization of Futures workshops or school internal further education courses. In the following, we describe the general steps and aims of these two methods.

THE FUTURES WORKSHOP METHOD

This method was invented by Robert Jungk, a creative and influential critic of technological civilisation. It is an instrument to mobilise social fantasy and creativity, starting from the idea that human beings usually imagine the future by learning from history in a peculiarly restricted way, usually by prolonging actual trends and developments. This is why humankind is caught up in and limited by existing structures, is bound too closely to linear thinking and is therefore unable to develop enough social fantasy to create or at least to imagine a better world of tomorrow. That is why we should learn to mobilize our creativity by developing utopian thinking. The general idea is first to imagine a better tomorrow and then go back to the present to identify possible steps leading to the preferred future.

Traditional way of thinking about the future:

PAST $\longrightarrow$ PRESENT $\longrightarrow$ FUTURE

New way of thinking about the future:
PREFERRED FUTURE $\longrightarrow$ INTERMEDIATE STEPS
OF CHANGE $\longrightarrow$ PRESENT (PAST)

This method is designed to unleash the social creativity of all participants. It is directed against a naive belief in or reliance on the knowledge of experts, and towards taking seriously the suggestions of participants, who are considered as experts in mobilizing their own efforts to find solutions to their own problems. This method helps to construct a social discourse among the participants, to set free their energies and to focus them. A Futures workshop can provide a forum for all interested and committed colleagues and students to invent possible futures and to find ways to approach preferred solutions. The basic idea is to trust that everybody participates in the discussions, to rely on all personal and professional experiences and competencies and to take into account the emotions of all participants. Futures-Workshops further democratic elements and co-operative efforts, because they are based upon self-determination and self-reliance.

To organize a Futures workshop for either initial or further training of teachers, one should start with the identification of a problem to be solved. Preferably, the problem should be described in the form of a question (see questions listed above). Sufficient time should be available: a few days or at least one weekend. The number of participants can be quite large; the minimum is about ten people. They can be all colleagues from one school, from different schools. The following is a brief summary of the different phases of a futures workshop.

Phase 1: Warming-up and identification of expectations of participants. Presentation of the participants (with some 'social games'). Each participant gets a sheet of paper on which to fill out statements such as:

• In this workshop, I expect to

• This workshop will be successful, if

• The workshop participant should not

• I will contribute to this workshop by

Based on the answers the group is able to clarify the expectations of the participants and to discuss the programme.

Phase 2: Problem-oriented phase. The group should be divided into working sub-groups which identify and discuss the critical points of and the hindrances to solving the focal problem (for instance: we have no information on . . ., lack of money to. . ., we do not know why . . ., we have no concept of . . ., we are not sure about..., most of our colleagues will not.... there is no place for . . ., etc.). Then the group agrees on the hierarchy of critical points. The next step is to reformulate the central negative points of criticism into positive aims and goals (for instance: all our colleagues will participate in..., we will have some money to . . ., we know that . . ., etc.).

Phase 3: Fantasy phase. Based on these positive aims, each participant is expected to develop a utopian image of the future solution of the problem the workshop is focussing on. If at all possible, the surroundings should be relaxing, perhaps enhanced by some soothing music. Participants should be encouraged to let their minds wander freely; it is most important to encourage the participants to forget all about their daily troubles, hindrances and realistic limitations.

The utopian images can be described in symbols, in a picture, in a collage, etc., and then translated into concrete terms, for instance: I imagine our school to be like a garden with flowers and trees and full of laughter and joy. . . I imagine our school to be liked by pupils of all nationalities, be they German, Turkish or of any other country of origin . . .). The images are then presented and discussed in a plenary session.

Phase 4: Realization phase. Starting from the utopian images, the participants then work their way back by clarifying the necessary steps and strategies to link the future to the present state of affairs. These should include the identification of the next practical steps to come closer to the imagined future, for instance: Next week I will organize a meeting in our school to . . ., I will send some letters to ask . . ., I will look at the curricula to find out . . ., I will ask the school administrator . . ., I will plan to . . ., I will start to read

the newspapers and to collect all articles about.... etc. As a result, the group will have a list of possible next steps to be envisaged and general strategies to follow.

Phase 5: Evaluation phase. Experiences show that most of the participants are very enthusiastic and full of energy during the workshop. But in order to cope with coming back to reality, they need the support of the group, to be assured that they are not alone in starting something new and having to overcome various problems. Therefore, it is necessary to plan an evaluation meeting, where the participants can report their initiatives, successes and failures and can possibly change or modify their next steps.

SCHOOL INTERNAL FURTHER EDUCATION COURSES

In contrast to centrally or regionally offered further education courses, which normally take place anywhere in the city, region or country and are usually attended by only a few colleagues of any particular school, school internal further education embraces all colleagues of a particular school (Miller, 1991).
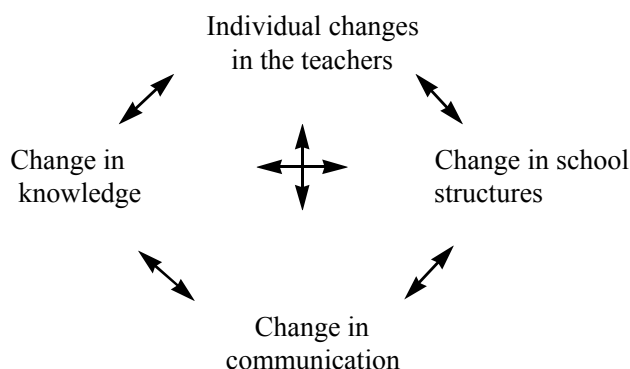
School internal further education aims at:
• strengthening the democratisation and humanization of the school
• the promotion and improvement of pedagogical competencies and qualifications
• the reflection and improvement of working conditions and teaching/learning processes
• changing the school climate and improving co-operation between the teachers
• the development of a pedagogical profile and concepts
• coping with problems and conflicts
• shaping a richer st hoot life.

School reforms need to initiate the following changes:
1. Change in the individual teacher. Changes start with and depend upon the individual teacher by asking: What can I do if I am not content with the actual situation at school, with my colleagues, etc.?
2. Change in the communication structures. The improvement of communication structures demands a better understanding and acceptance of the perspectives and individual experiences of each colleague, and teachers u ho are able to take into account other point of views.
3. Improvement of knowledge. As mentioned before, the initial teacher training cannot once and for all equip teachers sufficiently; teachers need an updating of their professional knowledge.
4. Change in school structures. The school systems and any individual school need a permanent adaptation to new challenges and developments

which take into account new demands.

Individual changes
in the teachers

Change in
knowledge

Change in school
structures

Change in
communication

Some different ways of establishing school interI further education are listed below.

1. A series of pedagogical conferences. A group of teachers decides upon a general issue or a relevant pedagogical question to be discussed in a conference. This conference can be prepared by inviting an expert, by preparing excerpts of relevant literature, etc. and discussion should be continued afterwards.

2. A 'day of study'. The general idea is to organize one day (bi-annually, annually, etc.) for further education of all colleagues (a 'day of study' or a 'further education day'). The colleagues themselves decide upon the general theme and issue of this day, plan the schedule, invite some 'experts', prepare some excerpts of relevant scientific research work, organize workshops and discussions. As a prerequisite, the individual school must ask for the permission of the school administration, inform the pupils to stay at home and to look for the external expertise it needs.

3. *Interval training seminars.* A series of seminars at regular intervals is planned to consider the next steps necessary, to implement them and to evaluate the results.

4. *External professional help with regard to neces - sary organisational changes.* A team of teachers from any school and some experts work together to find solutions for internal problems of the school concerned. They should start with a detailed analysis of the given situation and then

define the preferred future and identify the next steps necessary for change.

5. *Exchange of teaching experiences.* A few colleagues arrange mutual observations of teaching practices, discuss and evaluate pedagogical methods and help the individual teacher to find solutions for his/her problems.

6. *Research work* and excursions to other schools. The idea is to collect and summarize other experiences and to look for possibilities to transfer the concepts and strategies.

7. *Supervision groups.* A team of teachers regularly meet to initiate changes in their behavior. They would be trained to observe, analyze and evaluate their own communication skills, their reactions toward conflicts, their sensitivity and their activities to improve their capabilities of co-operation (role playing, interaction training, etc.).

Summarizing the different methods of school internal further education and its concrete implementation, these fundamental steps and principles should be followed:

1. *Starting point*

   Experiences of the participating teachers, individual theories, actual problems, individual sufferings and complaints, individual demands with regard to further education

2. *Preparation*

   Forming a team or including all participating teachers, possibly asking for external expertise

3. *Implementation*

   Taking the minutes, listing the results, agreeing on arrangements and procedures, discussing the consequences

4. *Evaluation*

   Discussion of the results obtained, summarizing, looking for successes and failures, planning the necessary next steps

The Associated Schools Project

W. Koehler, B. Reich

General strategies: multiplier effect and extended geographical basis

Launched in 1953, the Associated Schools Project (ASP) has developed into one of the most important instruments for the promotion of international education at school. It is a network of schools in different countries which developed special emphasis on international education. The main principles, aims and goals of these schools are to promote international understanding, co-operation, peace and human rights and to further international exchanges. Associated schools are just 'normal' schools from the primary level up lo the upper secondary level and to teacher training institutions. Since the adoption of the 1974 Recommendation, they have paid special attention to its guiding principles and the particular aspects of learning, training and action formulated in this Recommendation.

Today, the ASP plays a key role in the full and comprehensive implementation of the 1974 Recommendation. The ever-growing number of schools participating in this project reflects the great importance attached to international education by many Member States of UNESCO, and incorporates, along with new international developments and changes, new dimensions in this field and consequently new requirements in content, forms and methods in international education.

The pilot character of the ASP is reflected by the wide range of innovations conducted within this framework, reaching from the pre-school to the teacher-training level, particularly in the improvement of educational content, in the development and testing of effective teaching materials and methods, and in a great variety of out-of-school activities and manifold exchanges at the national, regional and international level. The results obtained very often give a fresh impetus to educational reform efforts.

Since all ASP activities and their results depend to a great extent upon the personal involvement and commitment of teachers, pupils and parents and the assistance of the educational administrators, ASP in-. stitutions should be provided with appropriate financial, administrative, material and moral support to continue to function effectively as an element of the international network, i.e. as a pilot centre for experimentation, consultation and methodology (including practice-related training of student teachers and teacher in-service training) with regard to the implementation of the 1974 Recommendation. Consequently, future action needs to be directed, first, to ensure an increased multiplier effect and to extend the geographical basis of ASP. At the same time, provision should be made or further improved for adequate national co-ordination of the project and for the dissemination of information on ASP innovations and their incorporation in the mainstream of the educational systems. Important means for the broad distribution of relevant information from participating countries are UNESCO's International understanding at School, published twice a year in English, French, Arabic and Spanish, and Glimpse, an information bulletin.

To increase the multiplier effect as well as extending the geographical basis of the project at the national and regional level, the following steps are suggested:

to appoint a National Co-ordinator of ASP institutions, guided by and responsible to the National' Commission for UNESCO;

to hold annual meetings of representatives of all associated schools to exchange information on appropriate materials, on teaching experiences and on innovative methods, and to discuss relevant sub-

jects, to elaborate appropriate materials, and to evaluate implemented projects;

to strengthen the co-operation between ASP and UNESCO Clubs, Centres and NGOs;

to publish ASP Bulletins to provide all participating schools with documents, literature and other relevant materials;

to strengthen the participation of ASP institutions and National Co-ordinators in the implementation of UNESCO's bienniel programmes;

to increase efforts to give continous information to the public and to mass media;

to organize workshops of further education for ASP teachers;

to diffuse the text of the 1974 Recommendation, which should be brought to the attention of educational administrators, teachers' unions, parents' associations, youth organisations, etc.;

to formulate educational circulars or directives, and to include references to the Recommendation in school laws and curricula; :

to adopt administrative regulations which facilitate the implementation of international education into the normal school life;

to allow special arrangements for teachers to depart somewhat from the official curricula or to reduce their teaching hours in order to be free to develop teaching materials or projects, etc.;

to establish a reporting system which regularly asks for reports from administrative experts, from individuals and groups of teachers who participated in special projects, from academic researchers and educational research institutes concerning actions taken by them;

to establish a standing Documentation and Service Centre for ASP institutions, possibly affiliated with the National Commission for UNESCO, which collects all relevant information, administrative regulations and provisions, and teaching aids and materials aimed at furthering ASPwork.

The following steps have been carried out by UNESCO and participating countries, providing some successful examples:

UNESCO has launched an Interregional Project to ensure an improved multiplier effect of the results obtained (Bangkok Consultation, December 1988). It Rincludes ten participating countries, and an intermediate consultation (N' Djamena, Chad, November 1990) took stock of the results obtained so far and determined the future approach in view of the latest international developments. (At a later stage, the Interregional Project could possibly be further developed with the aim of establishing regional ASP communication networks);

Argentina did some research into local and national

history and culture as a means of intercultural contacts;

Australia developed special programmes for discovering their own cultural variety in some of the 150 ethnic groups living in the country; their origin and identity, as well as their actual place in the multicultural Australian society were studied. This went along with the development of twinnings with schools in the different; countries of origin of the Australian population;

Bulgaria supported an interdisciplinary pilot project for analysing the adequacy and correct interpretation of environmental subject matter in textbooks of physics, chemistry, biology, geography, history and language/literature with a special view to eliminating the persistence of prejudices, cliches, obsolete views, unjustified exclusion of significant facts or uncritical presentation of shortages, apparent examples of the destruction of environment, etc. Special attention was also focused on the LINGUAPAX project;

The Federal Republic of Germany took an active part in the promotion of the pilot project on the Baltic Sea in co-operation with the bordering countries as well as the Blue Danube project; furthermore, great attention was paid to the promotion of international education in foreign language teaching and in the exchange of schools; experiences gathered have been presented for international use in two handbooks/ guides;

Finland tried to integrate the 1974 Recommendation into the skeleton directions for curricula and developed relevant teaching materials for all schools; the training of advisors for international education at the school level was initiated (25 persons in 1990);

The Republic of Korea elaborated special curricula for international education in a co-operative effort between three schools of different educational levels and a teacher training institution;

Thailand initiated partnerships between schools in the central part of the country and those located in remote mountain regions, dealing with questions of cultural origin and identity, including religious and private movements and forces;

Chad organized ASP activities in schools catering to children who fled from insurmountable environmental problems to other parts of the country, and UNESCO Clubs established assisted literacy programmes at associated schools, and managed to be successful in reaching circles with strong religious and other prejudices against literacy courses at the 'normal' schools;

Tunisia promoted educational policies to strengthen the nationwide co-ordination of the ASP.

Cultural/intercultural education

As part of the World Decade for Cultural Development (1988-1997), UNESCO's Interregional Project and the national programmes connected with it pursued a great variety of cultural themes and topics in its activities. The following are of special interest to ASP institutions: humanistic, ethical and cultural values, international education and cultural heritage, cultures of other countries and intercultural exchange, multicultural societies, equality and harmony between the various cultures and ethnic-cultural minoritiesS overcoming of hostility, prejudices, discrimination and racism based on ethnic, cultural, national and other differences, international understanding and the teaching of foreign languages and literature (LINGUAPAX), schools and their cultural environment.

The great majority of associated schools focus attention on at least one of these issues, taking into consideration the close linkage to others at the same time. For this purpose, they make use of various sources available in this field.

Very valuable and appropriate material on cultures, civilisations, ways of life in different regions and countries of the world is provided by the popular science journal UNESCO Courier, published monthly in thirty-five languages.

The schools also collect illustrative informational material on the application of the UNESCO Convention for safeguarding the world cultural and natural heritage (1972), especially by the presentation of sites selected from the UNESCO World Heritage List with its 337 recognized cultural monuments and natural sites and the description of measures to preserve and recover them. UNESCO will continue, in co-operation with other cultural agencies, to supply additional material on these sites, such as folders providing an annotated survey of the sites, including the 'red list' of those particularly endangered, a poster series with explanatory information on selected sites, etc. In an increasing number of countries, young people get involved in projects concerned with the protection and restoration of World Heritage Sites. Among other activities are national and subregional summer camps for ASP students and members of other youth organizations at selected sites, guided by competent scientists, contribute to this end. Such camps, as well as visits, study tours, etc. offer the occasion to study the historical background and intercultural values of the sites concerned.

Many associated schools promote different forms of individual exchanges between teachers and pupils with partners in other countries (exchange of letters,

photographs, videos, teaching materials, drawings, movements like 'penfriend for peace', and individual travel). This goes hand in hand with the exchange of groups: school classes, cultural and sport teams, etc. Joint celebrations of cultural festivals, sports events and international days and weeks are often connected with friendship meetings and round tables, as are exhibitions of children's drawings, poems, etc. Competitions among school choirs are dedicated to the preservation of the heritage of folk music or famous composers. The exchange of textbooks or excerpts reflecting relevant topics related to international education, and especially focused on the presentation of relations between two or more countries; is worth mentioning. National ASP co-ordinators have initiated invitations to twin schools abroad for sharing children's drawing competitions on topics of mutual interest, such as the basic idea of the International Years and their follow-up (Youth, Peace, Literacy), environmental problems and solidarity for children suffering from war, hungers suppression or natural disasters. School names of honour are used by many associated schools to enhance international and cultural education and exchange.

The expanding movement of International Olympiads, permanently organized in certain teaching subjects and effectively promoted by UNESCO is another field of intercultural exchange. At many associated schools, commissions and boards for the promotion of the various ways and means of exchange have been established, such as UNESCO Clubs, International Clubs, Clubs for Friendship and Exchange and Penfriends Club. Member States' authorities assist the launching of bilateral and multilateral exchanges of schools by providing the necessary legal agreements and programmes of co-operation. A growing number of school twinnings, especially those established for a long period, are based upon bilateral agreements, aiming at the step-by-step creation of a framework of new traditions.

UNESCO encourages; all Member States to develop and further improve this great variety of exchanges. The great mobilizing project 'Youth Shaping the Future', adopted at the twenty-fifth session of the General Conference, will continue to promote the Intercultural Youth Exchange Programme. Special emphasis is laid on exchanges between the different geo-cultural areas, study programmes on cultures and civilizations of other countries and regions (EastWest, North-South, South-South) and twinning arrangements of towns and schools, youth and students, NGOs, etc. In the future, UNESCO plans to organize information seminars for representatives of youth organizations, associated schools and UNESCO Clubs at UNESCO Headquarters (Paris); further, UNESCO will continue to assist workshops for ASP teachers

Functional literacy and the new vision: basic education for all

In various Member States associated schools belong to the most active and advanced institutions in the field of literacy and the spreading of basic education for all, which is inseparably linked to the humanistic aims and principles of international education. They contribute to the implementation of the international strategy laid down in UNESCO's Plan of Action to Eradicate Illiteracy by the Year 2000 (launched at the twenty-fifth session of the General Conference, 1989) and the World Declaration on Education for All as well as the Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs (adopted at the World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand, March 1990). Because of the fundamental importance of these documents, it appears advisable to incorporate their essence into initial and in-service teacher training programmes, social studies lessons, and optional courses in upper secondary schools within the context of ASP and beyond.

Depending upon the national and local needs and conditions, there are various possibilities for ASP institutions to take an active part. One main line of action is concerned with the direct participation of teachers and school students in literacy training activities, such as evening classes, out-of-school courses, camps, weekend schools, family-based teaching, etc. Another main line of action is aimed at strengthening the awareness of problems and tasks related to literacy (and functional literacy) and basic education for all in connection with social and cultural mobilization efforts. Among many activities, there are local and national seminars, workshops and round tables of ASP teachers and students organized for this concern; wherever possible these include foreign guests, e.g. students from other countries attending courses abroad. The collection and dissemination of significant results of such activities by National Commissions for UNESCO and other NGOs could promote the exchange of information and views. In multi-ethnic gatherings at schools, youth centres, etc., literacy problems of other countries are discussed, often resulting in launching of solidarity actions whereby 'suitcases' of learning materials are collected and sent to ASP schools in developing countries to assist them in their outdoor literacy activities.

Also interesting to ASP institutions are projects simultaneously promoting literacy and cultural values, such as UNESCO's 'Reading is Fun', launched by national agencies and organisations active in this field, in co-operation with libraries, mass media, parents' organisations, etc.

Environmental education

In many countries, ASP institutions have been encouraged and guided to demonstrate ways and means of integrating environmental education into all teaching subjects and various extra-curricular and nonfommal education activities, taking into account the close interrelationship between peace, human rights, development and the environment. Manyfold contributions are made to assist the implementation of the international strategy for action in the field of environmental educations at all levels, in co-operation with national 'Man and the Biosphere' (MABj committees, research institutions, pedagogical centres, etc.

For promoting relevant activities, UNESCO continues to provide materials and infommation by the publication Connect and other sources, for example, a survey of the 283 Biosphere Reserves, the presentation of selected MAB projects as models for the improvement of human environment, and examples of the participating schools. By means of sourcebooks and guidebooks for teachers and educators, guidelines and advanced experiences are provided: for example, by publications prepared under Norwegian supervision on the basis of regional meetings in the Lillehammer project (National Commission of Norway, 1991).

The continuation of current subregional pilot projects and the launching of new ones, by co-operation between ASP, the International Network for Information in Science and Technology Education (INISTE) and other agencies dealing with environmental education, deserves attention. For instance the 'Baltic Sea Project' is primarily an attempt to focus attention on the need for improved environmental education in the Baltic coastal states. The aim is to create a new kind of co-operative practice between educators from countries having similar environmental problems, who are prepared to educate students to contribute to solving environmental problems. The project aims at developing school-specific, national and international models for action by the following means:

•   building a network of ASP schools, educational institutions and INISTE teachers and schools located in the Baltic Catchment Area
•   collecting and developing common programmes for environmental education
•   organizing joint activities and events
•   publishing the BSP newsletter and other relevant information[2]

1. Cf. UNESCO International Environmental Education Programme in co-operation with the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP).
2. Cf. *Baltic Sea Project Newsletter*, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1990.

Similar projects are the 'Sahel' pilot project, the 'Blue Danube', 'The Mediterranean', 'The Black Sea' and the 'Pacific' projects.

UNESCO will assist the coordinating host countries in organizing meetings of teachers and students of the participating countries in the subregions con-cerned and in preparing ecological summer camps for students. Furthermore, the current evaluation of the projects, the distribution of relevant information between them, as well as a joint meeting of the coordinators will be promoted by UNESCO.

Towards a culture of peace

V. Pivovarov

Our efforts so far

All the approaches to the implementation of the 1974 Recommendation cited above have been tested in different places at different times -and with a varying degree of commitment and success. The prominence of a particular approach, or indeed the very presence of any aspect of international education in classroom practices, has been due to a number of factors including: traditional preferences of practitioners and administrators, an early introduction of some particular concept by enthusiastic proponents equipped with an abundance of handout materials, the prevailing political climate which in some countries militated against 'education for peace' as being 'too political' or stressed some of its aspects to the exclusion of others that did not follow 'the line.

Practising teachers complain that the existing theoretical and practical frameworks tend, on the one hand, to emphasize some specific subject matter at the expense of others - although claiming in the very first paragraph that all global problems are inextricably linked with each other and can only be addressed in a comprehensive, holistic fashion - while on the other hand, a lion's share of the curricular material and fundamental thinking behind it is, in any approach, basically the same or full of overlaps. Hence a longing for some integrative approach, a sort of umbrella covering the entire field.

Indeed, there is little international about 'loving thy neighbour' if he or she is of the same ethnic roots and lives down the road, yet a great deal of violent behaviour and strife originates there. There is a feeling shared by many who were interviewed at the stage of the Regional Projects to prepare this International Practical Guide that the emphasis should really shift from 'international' towards everyday interpersonal and intergroup formats and practical skills, and that

the Recommendation itself, while fully relevant and indeed visionary in its international education goals and thus useful anywhere in the world, could only benefit from a more down-to-earth orientation towards education for peaceful behaviour which is only rarely international. Human rights education, multicultural education and conflict resolution, as discussed above, attempt to respond to such needs.

The quest for peace is 'an exhilarating adventure', according to the Statement of Yamoussoukro on Peace in the Minds of Men (UNESCO, July 26, 1989), and, indeed, an exhilarating adventure it proves to be, we may add, only three short years later - years which have been marked by an unprecedented spread of armed conflicts (unprecedented in 'peace time', that is). Is there something to human nature that positively compels humans to take up arms and start killing each other from time to time? Our offhand answer would be 'Of course not'. Psychologists who study aggression would not find such an answer sufficient. Aggression is inherent to humans, they would say; without aggression fellow humans would not be what they are today. Indeed, some political scientists claim that the proliferation of limited-scale (regional, local, etc.) wars, on the one hand, and the overall growth of violence, intolerance, xenophobia, the rebirth of extreme nationalism and not-too-mild neo-fascism, on the other, are all due to the fact that we have 'missed' a major war at some point in the 1970s. If aggression had been 'constructively' spent on a 'regular' war, it is claimed, the young skinheads and such would now be wise and experienced citizens, much like the post-war generation in Europe. Whether humans as bio-social beings can or cannot do without the show of muscle to each other is, indeed, an open question. Do we really need surrogate violence and war in the form of 'action movies' to quench our appetite for blood?

One thing is clear, however. With the general

passing into history of the generation that won or lost World War Two, the critical mass of first-hand emotional experience of war as inadmissible tragedy is rapidly diminishing. To twenty-five-year-olds today World War Two is history from often dull and often biased history textbooks. Shall we never learn?

The need for a new approach

The longing for all-embracing concepts to educate a peaceful person is answered these days by references to a culture of peace or civilisation of peace which indicates, arguably, that human civilisation thus far has been that of war. Pierre Weil provides his brilliant answer to the problem in The Art of Living in Peace (Weil, 1990) based on the concepts developed by the international Holistic University of Brasilia and described by the author as a new peace education vision. Weil agrees with those who are unhappy with the fragmentation of human knowledge brought about by the advancement of science and the use of scientific methods in social sciences. As a result, peace is seen as a fragmentary and dual phenomenon that is (a) external to men, and (b) inner, or the peace of the mind. External peace, to which most of international education has been geared over the years, has reflected the dependence of education on international politics. Such politics have been directed by the international community to the prevention of major war, mostly through the United Nations - and not without success. On the other hand, it is peace in the minds of men (inner peace) that has been UNESCO's goal and raison d'etre. A new vision of peace, according to Weil and a few others, will be a holistic, nonfragmentary one, whereby personal, social and planetary harmony will complement each other.

Fragmentation of knowledge is reflected in the undue fragmentation of education, which calls for a holistic vision of education, Weil argues. (Indeed, how many 'educations' with various adjectives does it take to produce a peaceful person, to say nothing of an educated person? Aren't we all overdoing it a bit? Isn't it high time we had some new paradigm?) Peace education should also be holistic, Weil maintains, and its goal is to teach us to address conflict in a non-violent manner and generally to transform the energy of conflict at the cultural, social, political and economic levels into constructive forms. The art of living in peace must be taught and developed at three levels:

1. Humans: inner ecology, or the art of living in peace with oneself (peace of the body, heart and mind);
2. Society: social ecology, or the art of living in peace with others (peace in economy, social and political life and culture); and
3. Environment: planet-wide ecology, or the art of living in peace with nature (peace with matter, all

forms of life and information at the atomic, genetic and intelligence levels). The three-dimensional approach calls for the development of one's consciousness in three directions: personal egocentric consciousness, social anthropocentric consciousness and planetary geocentric consciousness.

A Pedagogy of Peace

The suggested integral approach echoes and advances what has for some time been known as Pedagogy of Peace. This concept has come forward in the last ten to fifteen years in an attempt to supersede international education by adding to it rather than subtracting from it. Its goals represent a desire to address a broad range of 'new' problems arising from the gradual change in popular perceptions of global issues and international attitudes towards them in the context of present-day realities - with nuclear weapons still menacingly there but already somewhat counterbalanced by more reasonable attitudes and hopes associated at first with 'new political thinking' and later given support by important changes in what is geopolitically known as 'postsocialism'. The 'noninternational' aspects of Pedagogy of Peace have acquired particular importance in view of the recent proliferation of local conflicts.

The concept of Pedagogy of Peace is gaining recognition both in the West and in the East as an attempt to go beyond the natural confines, to integrate such fairly balanced traditional approaches as international education. It is supported by such new groups as the international movement 'Educators for Peace and Mutual Understanding'. This movement is a loose and informal entity, with a following mostly in Europe, which meets every two years for international congresses (four have been held so far - in Copenhagen, Bonn, Budapest and Paris (the latter in 1992).

According to proponents in the former Soviet Union, to cite just one group of activists (and there are many, particularly in Latin America). Pedagogy of Peace aims at creating conditions for self-actualization and self-realization of an individual, and for the formation of personal responsibility of every individual for his or her deeds and their consequences in the context of considerably increased opportunities for human beings to make an impact on their environment, on the people around them and on themselves. The proponents of Pedagogy of Peace argue that ideology of peace is seen as a system of political, legal, moral, religious, aesthetic and philosophical views and norms, which must become everyday practices if the peoples' aspirations for peawce-ful and creative lives

are to be met. The ideology of peace (or the culture, or civilisation of peace) cannot survive without Pedagogy of Peace.

The integration of ideas

Pedagogy of Peace claims to have embraced several interconnected approaches:

1. Education for peace internationally recognized at the eighteenth session of the UNESCO General Conference in 1974 when the Recommendation was adopted;
2. Education for disarmament spurred by the 1980 International Congress in Paris;
3. Human rights education advanced by the International Congress held in Vienna and Strasbourg;
4. Internationalistic education as practised in the former 'socialist community of nations' which, despite its ideological commitments to class struggle, had a lot to say about all-human values and for decades did help nations, albeit in limited fashion, to learn more about each other;
5. Environmental education which has gone beyond the confines of 'green' movements to become part of the agenda for many peace groups.

Pedagogy of Peace aspires to integrate all these theoretical frameworks and practical approaches to teaching about peace, since in actual practice they are indeed inseparable. Indeed, how can one clearly draw a line between various facets of the same picture? Only as between parts of the whole. The argument is that long-established lifestyles, patterns of thinking and social attitudes are rapidly becoming obsolete. In the not-so-distant past, the ancient dictum, si vis pacem para bellum, despite its sword-rattling overtones, was nevertheless deemed acceptable because those who were better prepared for war did have a chance to win - and to survive. Not any more. The new dictum is: 'If you want peace, prepare for peace'. Preparation for peace is no easier - in fact, is more difficult than preparation for war. Even a seemingly straightforward issue of defining peace is a subject of hot debate. The negative definition of peace (as an absence of war) falls far short of current expectations. A positive definition is thus called for, and there are many, which is only natural for any such complicated and many-faceted phenomenon.

For speakers of the Russian language, Pedagogy of Peace has a special connotation. In Russia activists of 'Educators for Peace' use the following working definition of peace based on the combined meaning of two formerly distinct Russian words; mup (peace) and mip (society-community-people-world), which were spelt differently until the letter 'i' was dropped from the Russian alphabet during the 1918 reform and one spelling for both meanings was to be used

(Leo Tolstoy's War and Peace is actually a case of inadequate translation. It is War and mip, i.e. War and Society-community-people-world). Their definition is:

Peace is the unity of the natural, social and spiritual environment of human beings which needs to be preserved, protected and enriched;

Peace is the absence of animosity, existence of good relations and fruitful co-operation among peoples and states;

Peace is the harmony of interpersonal relations at all levels (in the family, at work, in the community, etc.) based on respect for each person's rights and dignity;

Peace is the ability and skill to handle conflict realistically as potentially constructive and with full recognition of everyone's interests;

Peace is the harmony within a person's inner self.

In short, peace is all about being at peace with oneself, with others and with the immediate and distant environment.

Clearly this definition, which is very similar to Weil's, calls for a broader and more person-centered concept of peace than has been traditionally addressed by education for peace with its more pronounced emphasis on promoting attitudes conducive towards a vital but still limited goal of war prevention. A broader understanding of peace needs therefore to be instilled in both young and adult citizens if they want human civilization to gradually advance toward what the Russian scholar Vladimir Vernadsky called 'noosphere', i.e. the integrated sphere of reason which overcomes and supersedes the fragmented, mechanistic and compartmentalized view of our world. Pedagogy of Peace embraces holistic approaches to environment and its human aspects and their problems as one indivisible whole, a component of the earth's noosphere complex. Such perception of the world cannot but affect the fundamental philosophy of education and curricular content, the latter still far too specialized and departmentalised.

The essential attitude

The concept of Pedagogy of Peace differs from other attempts at integrated and even holistic approaches to education in at least one important aspect: it stresses attitudes of peace and harmony within and outside oneself, and relevant skills as priority outcomes - rather than knowledge, the latter serving as a natural and essential background. It emphasizes not merely a removal of any prejudice and bias but readiness to act, and in this respect it is consonant with 'Think globally - act locally' approaches.

For many reasons these fairly self-evident ideas are being prevented from becoming daily practices. Such reasons include lack of information and awareness about the scope of global problems, fragmented knowledge about nature and society, confrontational

psychology, isolationism and national parochialism, extreme nationalism and chauvinism. Both formal schooling and traditional education often serve to exacerbate these factors which militate against more enlightened attitudes.

Pedagogy of Peace, in an attempt to act as an integrating framework, carries forward the idea of preventing national and ethnic narrow-mindedness, of instilling the idea about commonalty of destiny of all human beings and interdependence of nations. According to the proponents of Pedagogy of Peace, the fundamental goals of international community have already been stated and developed by the United Nations family and by such outstanding individuals as Albert Einstein and Bertrand Russell, to recall their famous Manifesto. Now is the time for making them clear and understandable to one and all through a cohesive person-oriented approach so that they are translated into attitudes and skills. One can hardly disagree with the practice-oriented approach, particularly against the backdrop of regional conflicts, inter-ethnic violence and social strife in many parts of the world, notably in formerly unitary multi-ethnic states. Pedagogy of Peace has a long way to go before it becomes equal, in practical terms, to its declarations. Yet the art of living in peace, the essential prerequisite of the civilization of peace, can only be taught through a Pedagogy of Peace

10
National documentation centres and similar facilities

W. Koehler

According to its needs and possibilities, each Member State should establish or help to establish one- or more documentation centres offering written and audio-visual material devised according to the objectives of this recommendation and adapted to the different forms and stages of education. These centres should be designed to foster the reform of international education, especially by developing and disseminating innovative ideas and materials, and should also organise and facilitate exchanges of information with other countries (UNESCO Recommendation, para. 40).

Various approaches applied and experiences gathered by Member States can be referred to concerning the establishment and strenthening of centres or similar facilities and frameworks for this purpose. (Although their function is usually broader than 'documentation' in its true meaning, the term 'documentation centre' is synonymously used in the following text).

Reviewing relevant strategies and experiences in a more generalized way, the following aspects can be noted:

Documentation centres and facilities have been developed through co-operation between National Commissions for UNESCO and other institutions and bodies active in this field, using appropriate mechanisms already available.

Member States have incorporated various settings existing at different administrative levels into relevant action schemes, e.g. resource centres of visual aids and reference materials for groups of schools as well as district centres and institutes for education and training (India), teacher training institutions and centres for teacher in-service training (Algeria), ASP institutions and their national co-ordinators (Colombia, Bulgaria), adult education institutions with material resource centres including video renting (Colombia), educational libraries and school museums for stocking and displaying certain types of material (India), and duplicating and printing facilities.

In this connection, the following task appears to be particularly significant: 'Starting from the realization of the fact that there are many teaching materials and media available dealing with international topics, special attention should be given to a procedure of selection of those especially suited to international education', e.g. by setting up a commission of experts by members of the Education Subcommmittee of the National Commissions for UNESCO and ASP teachers (Germany).

Depending on the needs and conditions of the individual countries, these documentation centres at the national and the local levels are acting as focal points in initiating and coordinating measures to facilitate the schools' access to educational materials effective in international education.

The first task is certainly directed to overcome the lack of relevant materials at schools. 'For the effective management of . . . international education, it would be imperative that the necessary material is promptly made available to the schools and other educational centres' (India). For this purpose, efforts are made and should be further increased in collecting, translating (if necessary), refining, duplicating and distributing appropriate materials already made available by UNESCO, by associated schools or other institutions in the country and by other Member States of the region concerned.

The gradual extension of this work presupposes the development of new materials, the collection and documentation of innovations and research findings, the continuous exchange of experiences, ideas and substantial information, possibly coinciding with the establishment of a new unit, incorporating the lead position and integrating tasks as actually assigned to a documentation centre.

These activities are often complemented and connected with courses, seminars, round-tables as well as individual consultations designed for the information and qualification of teachers of certain subjects or levels, with the display of reference material, permanent exhibitions of relevant teaching aids, publications, methodical guides, illustrative materials, etc. (as to the specification of relevant suitable materials cf. to the preceeding sections of this chapter).

An important aspect is the development of regional cooperation and exchange in this field. This applies, on the one hand, to the use of relevant facilities existing in the regions concerned, e.g. specialised institutions and centres for human rights, peace, etc. The activities of such documentation centres should be closely co-ordinated with the UN Information Centres - where they exist - as most of them have a valuable collection of films, documents, books etc.... very useful for the dissemination of ideas and suggestions in the field of international education' (Brazil).

On the other hand, regional eo-operation and exchange between Member States and their documentation centres or similar facilities play an outstanding role. This is especially relevant for developing countries, which are emphasizing the urgent need of an improved, effective regional Cooperation in this field with a view to co-operative projects and even joint documentation facilities.

'Given that the resources for materials are scarce, it is essential to use them in the most rational and productive manner possible, avoiding the dispersion of efforts, promoting joint publications, and maximizing that which already exists' (Colombia).

Encouraging steps in this direction were, for instance, a Regional Seminar in Costa Rica organized by the Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Carribean, designed to further the development and evaluation of educational techniques and texts on peaee education (with the participation of eleven countries); the founding of an Institute of Education for Peace in Peru with integrated research activities in the region; the implementation of several research and experimental projects, co-ordinated by the National Commission for UNESCO of Brazil, on innovative approaches and methods in international education in the country and the region; the initiation of the preparation of 'guides for the various levels of teaching undertaken as a Re-

gional Project to unite efforts and optimize investment' (Bolivia, Brazil).

Endeavours are being made by Algeria in co-operation with Morocco, Tunisia, Mauritania and Libya towards establishing a 'Maghreb Subregional Clearing Centre' for early and first level education designed for the development of programmes and materialsj including teacher training schemes, for international education and their exchange among the participating countries in co-operation with UNESCO, ALECSSO, UNICEF and other agencies involved. Existing national bodies and facilities, such as the National Institute of Pedagogics (NIP) in Algeria, could effectively promote these endeavours.

In the African Region (Sub-Sahara), some promising activities in the development of innovative teaching methods and materials with an international education dimension, for instance those by the Education Research Council of Nigeria, could serve as a point of departure for future co-operative approaches in this field. The same applies to relevant materials for classroom lessons, occasional symposia, etc., initiated by the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and regional organizations like the Economic Comrnunity of West African States (ECOWACS). At the same time, the need appears 'for incorporating into future plans to select one or more Member States to act as motivators in their subregions, organizing regional workshops, symposia and programme coordination' (Algeria). In this connection, the ASP is expected to provide a framework of experimentation,

A survey of the documentation centres and similar facilities, undertaken and distributed with the assistance of regional UNESCO Offices or other appropriate agencies, could promote regional cooperation between these centres, possibly forming elements of future regional information systems and networks in international education.

UNESCO will continue to promote information and documentation services at the international, national and regional levels in the interest of furthering the multiplier effects of these activities and enhancing its clearing house function in this field. This also applies to ways of facilitating joint development and production of relevant teaching materials by Member States within bilateral, multilateral and regional projects.

Appendix I

Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding,
Co-operation and Peace and Education relating
to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms

The General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization,
meeting in Paris from 17 October to 23 November 1974, at its eighteenth session,

Mindful of the responsibility incumbent on States to achieve through education the aims set forth in
the Charter of the United Nations, the Constitution of Unesco, the Universal Declaration of
Human Rights and the Geneva Conventions for the Protection of Victims of War of 12 August
1949, in order to promote international understanding, co-operation and peace and respect for
human rights and fundamental freedoms,

Reaffirming the responsibility which is incumbent on Unesco to encourage and support in Member
States any activity designed to ensure the education of all for the advancement of justice, free-
dom, human rights and peace,

Noting nevertheless that the activity of Unesco and of its Member States sometimes has an impact
only on a small minority of the steadily growing numbers of schoolchildren, students, young
people and adults continuing their education, and educators, and that the curricula and methods
of international education are not always attuned to the needs and aspirations of the participating
young people and adults,

Noting moreover that in a number of cases there is still a wide disparity between proclaimed ideals,
declared intentions and the actual situation,

Having decided, at its seventeenth session, that this education should be the subject of a recommen-
dation to Member States,

Adopts this nineteenth day of November 1974, the present recommendation.

The General Conference recommends that Member States should apply the following provisions by
taking whatever legislative or other steps may be required in conformity with the constitutional
practice of each State to give effect within their respective territories to the principles set forth in
this recommendation.

The General Conference recommends that Member States bring this recommendation to the atten-
tion of the authorities, departments or bodies responsible for school education, higher education
and out-of-school education, of the various organizations carrying out educational work among
young people and adults such as student and youth movements, associations of pupils' parents,
teachers' unions and other interested parties.

The General Conference recommends that Member States submit to it, by dates and in the form to
be decided upon by the Conference, reports concerning the action taken by them in pursuance of
this recommendation.

I. Significance of terms

1. For the purposes of this recommendation:
 (a) The word 'education' implies the entire process of social life by means of which individuals and social groups learn to develop consciously within, and for the benefit of, the national and international communities, the whole of their personal capacities, attitudes, aptitudes and knowledge. This process is not limited to any specific activities.
 (b) The terms 'international understanding', 'co-operation' and 'peace' are to be considered as an indivisible whole based on the principle of friendly relations between peoples and States having different social and political systems and on the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. In the text of this recommendation, the different connotations of these terms are sometimes gathered together in a concise expression, 'international education'.
 (c) 'Human rights' and 'fundamental freedoms' are those defined in the United Nations Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenants on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and on Civil and Political Rights.

II. Scope

2. This recommendation applies to all stages and forms of education.

III. Guiding principles

3. Education should be infused with the aims and purposes set forth in the Charter of the United Nations, the Constitution of Unesco and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, particularly Article 26, paragraph 2, of the last-named, which states: 'Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.'
4. In order to enable every person to contribute actively to the fulfilment of the aims referred to in paragraph 3, and promote international solidarity and co-operation, which are necessary in solving the world problems affecting the individuals' and communities' life and exercise of fundamental rights and freedoms, the following objectives should be regarded as major guiding principles of educational policy:
 (a) an international dimension and a global perspective in education at all levels and in all its forms;
 (b) understanding and respect for all peoples, their cultures civilizations~ values and ways of life, including domestic ethnic cultures and cultures of other nations;
 (c) awareness of the increasing global interdependence between peoples and nations;
 (d) abilities to communicate with others;
 (e) awareness not only of the rights but also of the duties incumbent upon individuals, social groups and nations towards each other;
 (f) understanding of the necessity for international solidarity and co-operation;
 (g) readiness on the part of the individual to participate in solving the problems of his community, his country and the world at large.
5. Combining learning, training, information and action, international education should further the appropriate intellectual and emotional development of the individual. It should develop a sense of social responsibility and of solidarity with less privileged groups and should lead to observance of the principles of equality in everyday conduct. It should also help to develop qualities, aptitudes and abilities which enable the individual to acquire a critical understanding of problems at the national and the international level; to understand and explain facts, opinions and ideas; to work in a group; to accept and participate in free discussions; to observe the elementary rules of procedure applicable to any discussion; and to base valuejudgements and decisions on a rational analysis of relevant facts and factors.
6. Education should stress the inadmissibility of recourse to war for purposes of expansion,

aggression and domination, or to the use of force and violence for purposes of repression, and should bring every person to understand and assume his or her responsibilities for the maintenance of peace. It should contribute to international understanding and strengthening of world peace and to the activities in the struggle against colonialism and neo-colonialism in all their forms and manifestations, and against all forms and varieties of racialism, fascism, and apartheid as well as other ideologies which breed national and racial hatred and which are contrary to the purposes of this recommendation.

IV. National policy, planning and administration

7. Each Member State should formulate and apply national policies aimed at increasing the efficacy of education in all its forms and strengthening its contribution to international understanding and co-operation, to the maintenance and development of a just peace, to the establishment of social justice, to respect for and application of human rights and fundamental freedoms, and to the eradication of the prejudices, misconceptions, inequalities and all forms of injustice which hinder the achievement of these aims.
8. Member States should in collaboration with the National Commissions take steps to ensure co-operation between ministries and departments and co-ordination of their efforts to plan and carry out concerted programmes of action in international education.
9. Member States should provide, consistent with their constitutional provisions, the financial, administrative, material and moral support necessary to implement this recommendation.

V. Particular aspects of learning, training and action

Ethical and civic aspects

10. Member States should take appropriate steps to strengthen and develop in the processes of learning and training, attitudes and behaviour based on recognition of the equality and necessary interdependence of nations and peoples.
11. Member States should take steps to ensure that the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination become an integral part of the developing personality of eat h child, adolescent, young person or adult by applying these principles in the daily conduct of education at each level and in all its forms, thus enabling each individual to contribute personally to the regeneration and extension of education in the direction indicated.
12. Member States should urge educators, in collaboration with pupils, parents, the organisations concerned and the community, to use methods which appeal to the creative imagination of children and adolescents and to their social activities and thereby to prepare them to exercise their rights and freedoms while recognising and respecting the rights of others and to perform their social duties.
13. Member States should promote, at every stage of education, an active civic training which will enable every person to gain a knowledge of the method of operation and the work of public institutions, whether local, national or international, to become acquainted with the procedures for solving fundamental problems; and to participate in the cultural life of the community and in public affairs. Wherever possible, this participation should increasingly link education and action to solve problems at the local, national and international levels.
14. Education should include critical analysis of the historical and contemporary factors of an economic and political nature underlying the contradictions and tensions between countries, together with study of ways of overcoming these contradictions, which are the real impediments to understanding, true international co-operation and the development of world peace.
15. Education should emphasize the true interests of peoples and their incompatibility with the interests of monopolistic groups holding economic and political power, which practise exploitation and foment war.
16. Student participation in the organization of studies and of the educational establishment they are attending should itself be considered a factor in civic education and an important element in international education.

Cultural aspects

17. Member States should promote, at various stages and in various types of education, study of different cultures, their reciprocal influences, their perspectives and ways of life, in order to encourage mutual appreciation of the differences between them. Such study should, among other things, give due importance to the teaching of foreign languages, civilisations and cultural heritage as a means of promoting international and inter-cultural understanding.

Study of the major problems of mankind

18. Education should be directed both towards the eradication of conditions which perpetuate and aggravate major problems affecting human survival and well-being—inequality, injustice, international relations based on the use of force—and towards measures of international co-operation likely to help solve them. Education which in this respect must necessarily be of an interdisciplinary nature should relate to such problems as:
(a) equality of rights of peoples, and the right of peoples to self-determination;
(b) the maintenance of peace; different types of war and their causes and effects; disarmament; the inadmissibility of using science and technology for warlike purposes and their use for the purposes of peace and progress; the nature and effect of economic, cultural and political relations between countries and the importance of international law for these relations, particularly for the maintenance of peace;
(c) action to ensure the exercise and observance of human rights, including those of refugees; racialism and its eradication; the fight against discrimination in its various forms;
(d) economic growth and social development and their relation to social justice; colonialism and decolonisation; ways and means of assisting developing countries; the struggle against illiteracy; the campaign against disease and famine; the fight for a better quality of life and the highest attainable standard of health; population growth and related questions;
(e) the use, management and conservation of natural resources, pollution of the environment;
(f) preservation of the cultural heritage of mankind;
(g) the role and methods of action of the United Nations system in efforts to solve such problems and possibilities for strengthening and furthering its action.
19. Steps should be taken to develop the study of those sciences and disciplines which are directly r elated to the exercise of the increasingly varied duties and responsibilities involved in international relations.

Other aspects

20 Member States should encourage educational authorities and educators to give education planned in accordance with this recommendation an interdisciplinary, problem-oriented content adapted to the complexity of the issues involved in the application of human rights and in international co-operation, and in itself illustrating the ideas of reciprocal influence, mutual support and solidarity. Such programmes should be based on adequate research, experimentation and the identification of specific educational objectives.
21. Member States should endeavour to ensure that international educational activity is granted special attention and resources when it is carried out in situations involving particularly delicate or explosive social problems in relations, for example, where there are obvious inequalities in opportunities for access to education.

VI. Action in various sectors of education

22. Increased efforts should be made to develop and infuse an international and inter-cultural dimension at all stages and in all forms of education.
23. Member States should take advantage of the experience of the Associated Schools which carry out, with Unesco's help, programmes of international education. Those concerned with Associated Schools in Member States should strengthen and renew their efforts to extend

the programme to other educational institutions and work towards the general application of its results. In other Member States, similar action should be undertaken as soon as possible. The experience of other educational institutions which have carried out successful programmes of international education should also be studied and disseminated.

24. As pre-school education develops, Member States should encourage in it activities which correspond to the purposes of the recommendation because fundamental attitudes, such as, for example, attitudes on race, are often formed in the pre-school years. In this respect, the attitude of parents should be deemed to be an essential factor for the education of children, and the adult education referred to in paragraph 30 should pay special attention to the preparation of parents for their role in pre-school education. The first school should be designed and organized as a social environment having its own character and value, in which various situations, including games, will enable children to become aware of their rights, to assert themselves freely while accepting their responsibilities, and to improve and extend through direct experience their sense of belonging to larger and larger comnaunities—the family, the school, then the local, national and world communities.

25. Member States should urge the authorities concerned, as well as teachers and students, to re-examine periodically how post-secondary and university education should be improved so that it may contribute more fully to the attainment of the objectives of this recommendation.

26. Higher education should comprise civic training and learning activities for all students that will sharpen their knowledge of the major problems which they should help to solve, provide them with possibilities for direct and continuous action aimed at the solution of those problems, and improve their sense of international co-operation.

27. As post-secondary educational establishments, particularly universities, serve growing numbers of people, they should carry out programmes of international education as part of their broadened function in lifelong education and should in all teaching adopt a global approach. Using all means of communication available to them, they should provide opportunities, facilities for learning and activities adapted to people's real interests, problems and aspirations.

28. In order to develop the study and practice of international co-operation, post-secondary educational establishments should systematically take advantage of the forms of international action inherent in their role, such as visits from foreign professors and students and professional co-operation between professors and research teams in different countries. In particular, studies and experimental work should be carried out on the linguistic, social, emotional and cultural obstacles, tensions, attitudes and actions which affect both foreign students and host establishments .

29. Every stage of specialized vocational training should include training to enable students to understand their role and the role of their professions in developing their society, furthering international co-operation, maintaining and developing peace, and to assume their role actively as early as possible.

30. Whatever the aims and forms of out-of-school education, including adult education, they should be based on the following considerations:

(a) as far as possible a global approach should be applied in all out-of-school education programmes, which should comprise the appropriate moral, civic, cultural, scientific and technical elements of international education;

(b) all the parties concerned should combine efforts to adapt and use the mass media of communication, self-education, and inter-active learning, and such institutions as museums and public libraries to convey relevant knowledge to the individual, to foster in him or her favourable attitudes and a willingness to take positive action, and to spread knowledge and understanding of the educational campaigns and programmes planned in accordance with the objectives of this recommendation;

(c) the parties concerned, whether public or private, should endeavour to take advantage of favourable situations and opportunities, such as the social and cultural activities of youth centres and clubs, cultural centres, community centres or trade unions, youth gatherings and festivals, sporting events, contacts with foreign visitors, students or immigrants and exchanges of persons in general.

31. Steps should be taken to assist the establishment and development of such organisations as

student and teacher associations for the United Nations, international relations clubs and Unesco Clubs, which should be associated with the preparation and implementation of co-ordinated programmes of international education.

32. Member States should endeavour to ensure that, at each stage of school and out-of-school education, activities directed towards the objectives of this recommendation be co-ordinated and form a coherent whole within the curricula for the different levels and types of education, learning and training. The principles of co-operation and association which are inherent in this recommendation should be applied in all educational activities.

VII. Teacher preparation

33. Member States should constantly improve the ways and means of preparing and certifying teachers and other educational personnel for their role in pursuing the objectives of this recommendation and should, to this end:

(a) provide teachers with motivations for their subsequent work: commitment to the ethics of human rights and to the aim of changing society, so that human rights are applied in practice; a grasp of the fundamental unity of mankind; ability to instil appreciation of the riches which the diversity of cultures can bestow on every individual, group or nation;

(b) provide basic interdisciplinary knowledge of world problems and the problems of international co-operation, through, among other means, work to solve these problems;

(c) prepare teachers themselves to take an active part in devising programmes of international education and educational equipment and materials, taking into account the aspirations of pupils and working in close collaboration with them;

(d) comprise experiments in the use of active methods of education and training in at least elementary techniques of evaluation, particularly those applicable to the social behaviour and attitudes of children, adolescents and adults;

(e) develop aptitudes and skills such as a desire and ability to make educational innovations and to continue his or her training; experience in teamwork and in interdisciplinary studies; knowledge of group dynamics; and the ability to create favourable opportunities and take advantage of them;

(f) include the study of experiments in international education, especially innovative experiments carried out in other countries, and provide those concerned, to the fullest possible extent, with opportunities for making direct contact with foreign teachers.

34. Member States should provide those concerned with direction, supervision or guidance—for instance, inspectors, educational advisers, principals of teacher-training colleges and organizers of educational activities for young people and adults—with training, information and advice enabling them to help teachers work towards the objectives of this recommendation, taking into account the aspirations of young people with regard to international problems and new educational methods that are likely to improve prospects for fulfilling these aspirations. For these purposes, seminars or refresher courses relating to international and inter-cultural education should be organized to bring together authorities and teachers; other seminars or courses might permit supervisory personnel and teachers to meet with other groups concerned such as parents, students, and teachers' associations. Since there must be a gradual but profound change in the role of education, the results of experiments for the remodelling of structures and hierarchical relations in educational establishments should be reflected in training, information and advice.

35. Member States should endeavour to ensure that any programme of further training for teachers in service or for personnel responsible for direction includes components of international education and opportunities to compare the results of their experiences in international education.

36. Member States should encourage and facilitate educational study and refresher courses abroad, particularly by awarding fellowships, and should encourage recognition of such courses as part of the regular process of initial training, appointment, refresher training and promotion of teachers.

37. Member States should organize or assist bilateral exchanges of teachers at all levels of education.

VIII. Educational equipment and materials

38. Member States should increase their efforts to facilitate the renewal, production, dissemination and exchange of equipment and materials for international education, giving special consideration to the fact that in many countries pupils and students receive most of their knowledge about international affairs through the mass media outside the school. To meet the needs expressed by those concerned with international education, efforts should be concentrated on overcoming the lack of teaching aids and on improving their quality. Action should be on the following lines:

(a) appropriate and constructive use should be made of the entire range of equipment and aids available, from textbooks to television, and of the new educational technology;

(b) there should be a component of special mass media education in teaching to help the pupils to select and analyse the information conveyed by mass media;

(c) a global approach, comprising the introduction of international components, serving as a framework for presenting local and national aspects of different subjects and illustrating the scientific and cultural history of mankind, should be employed in textbooks and all other aids to learning, with due regard to the value of the visual arts and music as factors conducive to understanding between different cultures;

(d) written and audiovisual materials of an interdisciplinary nature illustrating the major problems confronting mankind and showing in each case the need for international co-operation and its practical form should be prepared in the language or languages of instruction of the country with the aid of information supplied by the United Nations, Unesco and other Specialized Agencies;

(e) documents and other materials illustrating the culture and the way of life of each country, the chief problems with which it is faced, and its participation in activities of world-wide concern should be prepared and communicated to other countries.

Member States should promote appropriate measures to ensure that educational aids, especially textbooks, are free from elements liable to give rise to misunderstanding, mistrust, racialist reactions, contempt or hatred with regard to other groups or peoples. Materials should provide a broad background of knowledge which will help learners to evaluate information and ideas disseminated through the mass media that seem to run counter to the aims of this recommendation.

40. According to its needs and possibilities, each Member State should establish or help to establish one or more documentation centres offering written and audio-visual material devised according to the objectives of this recommendation and adapted to the different forms and stages of education. These centres should be designed to foster the reform of international education, especially by developing and disseminating innovative ideas and materials, and should also organize and facilitate exchanges of information with other countries.

IX. Research and experimentation

41. Member States should stimulate and support research on the foundations, guiding principles, means of implementation and effects of international education and on innovations and experimental activities in this field, such as those taking place in the Associated Schools. This action calls for collaboration by universities, research bodies and centres, teacher-training institutions, adult education training centres and appropriate non-governmental organisations.

42. Member States should take appropriate steps to ensure that teachers and the various authorities concerned build international education on a sound psychological and sociological basis by applying the results of research carried out in each country on the formation and development of favourable or unfavourable attitudes and behaviour, on attitude change, on the interaction of personality development and education and on the positive or negative effects of educational activity. A substantial part of this research should be devoted to the aspirations of young people concerning international problems and relations.

X. International cooperation

43. Member States should consider international co-operation a responsibility in developing inter national education. In the implementation of this recommendation they should refrain from intervening in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any State in accordance with the United Nations Charter. By their own actions, they should demonstrate that implementing this recommendation is itself an exercise in international understanding and co-operation. They should, for example, organize, or help the appropriate authorities and non-governmental organizations to organize, an increasing number of international meetings and study sessions on international education; strengthen their programmes for the reception of foreign students, research workers, teachers and educators belonging to workers' associations and adult education associations; promote reciprocal visits by schoolchildren, and student and teacher exchanges; extend and intensify exchanges of information on cultures and ways of life; arrange for the translation or adaptation and dissemination of information and suggestions coming from other countries.

44. Member States should encourage the co-operation between their Associated Schools and those of other countries with the help of Unesco in order to promote mutual benefits by expanding their experiences in a wider international perspective.

45. Member States should encourage wider exchanges of textbooks, especially history and geography textbooks, and should, where appropriate, take measures, by concluding, if possible, bilateral and multilateral agreements, for the reciprocal study and revision of textbooks and other educational materials in order to ensure that they are accurate, balanced, up to date and unprejudiced and will enhance mutual knowledge and understanding between different peoples.

Appendix II
Basic reference materials on international education

W. Koehler, B. Reich

Declarations, Conventions, etc.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights, United Nations (1948)

Convention and Recommendation Against Discrimination in Education, UNESCO (1960)

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Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, UNESCO (1974)

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