



Citizenship &  
Teacher Education

## Induction Pack for Tutors Of Citizenship Education

### Global Conflict

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## Global Conflict

### Goals

It is hoped that tutors will further develop their awareness of how HEI-based ITT sessions can be structured to assist the preparation of trainees to meet the standards for teaching.

More specifically, the intended learning outcomes of this unit are for tutors to help trainees to:

- understand the nature of global conflict
- understand how issues of global conflict relate to citizenship
- use issues of global conflict in their teaching in secondary schools.

There are four main sections to this pack.

Firstly, I draw attention to three key questions that will help trainees to clarify their understanding of fundamental issues to do with globalisation, peace education, and the connections between global education and citizenship education.

Secondly, in recognition of the fact that history classrooms are normally the places where issues of conflict are most frequently discussed with school students, I discuss ways in which history trainees can be involved in preparing activities that relate to citizenship education. This is followed by a series of activities that could be used with trainees who are either history specialists who would like to infuse citizenship through their work, or citizenship specialists who wish to work effectively with their colleagues in the history department. A broad view of history is taken so that contemporary events (such as the continuing debates about the Iraq war and the nuclear capability of North Korea) are used as resource material.

Thirdly, I give details and some activities that could take place with trainees in relation to key 4 key institutions (World Trade Organisation, European Union, G8, United Nations) and one significant international initiative (Agenda 21).

Finally, as 'peace' can mean something that is intimately connected with personal perspectives, I give some brief details about the significance of social psychology and refer to several activities for promoting positive understanding.

### **Issues and Activities**

Below I will discuss four questions that need to be considered by trainees as they prepare to teach about global conflict:

- What is globalisation?
- What is global citizenship?
- What is peace education?
- What are the differences between global education and citizenship education?

#### What is globalisation?

Trainees could be invited to consider the following questions when reading the following brief piece about globalisation and global citizenship:

What is the meaning of 'globalisation'?

Is globalisation new?

Is globalisation a 'good thing'?

What connections (if any) exist between globalisation and global conflict?

What three key points would trainees want school students to know about globalisation?

Why?

Although it is relatively straightforward to demonstrate the amount of attention being given to globalisation it is less easy to suggest its meaning. Cogan (1998) has outlined several themes which emerge from the literature of globalisation. These themes he asserts are to be seen as interwoven rather than being mutually exclusive. They are:

- **The global economy** in which nothing is overseas and a mesh of interlocking transnational ties focussing more on services and less on goods supplants more traditional activity

- **Technology and communication** in which more people have access principally to computers but also to other systems.
- **Population and environment** in which pollution, genetic engineering and disparities between the 'haves' and 'have-nots' become the focal points for discussions about sustainability

There are a number of debates around these issues. Cogan (1998) makes it clear that not all these developments may be positive. Although some argue that, generally, "globalisation is not the prime source of new inequalities" and offers more benefit than harm (Giddens 1999), not all agree. There are also disagreements about the nature of globalisation in terms of, for example, the speed in which it is occurring. But, there are also more fundamental disagreements. Green (1997) questions the whole basis of the globalisation debate. He refers to the large number of new national states. He also argues that "economic globalization is a highly contested phenomenon" (p. 161) by showing that internationalization of trade and investment has a long history and that population movements are possibly slowing down. The degree of uniqueness and innovation that is suggested by the term 'globalisation' is felt by some to be merely the most recent version of internationalisation which may depend heavily upon the actions of governments and individuals operating from the perspective of nation states.

### **What is Global Citizenship?**

Trainees could be invited to consider the following questions when reading the following piece about global citizenship:

- What are the differences between 'concrete' and 'vague' expressions of global citizenship?
- What is meant by universalist and relativist perceptions of global citizenship? Is one preferable to the other and if so why?
- If global citizenship (or a specific version of it) was widely understood and accepted would it make global conflict less likely?

A number of models exist in order better to understand the nature of global citizenship. Heater has usefully made clear, as shown in the table below, the way in which citizenship can be discussed alongside that which is sanctioned within a state:

Forms of citizenship held in conjunction with state citizenship.

Legally defined	Dual – citizenship of two states held simultaneously
	Layered – in federal constitutions; and in a few multinational communities
Mainly attitude: limited legal definition	Below state level – municipal, local allegiance/sense of identity
	Above state level – world citizenship

Heater goes on to explain (1997, pp.36-38) that there is a range of meanings that can be applied to global citizenship. He has outlined four main meanings that can be placed on a spectrum of which the opposite ends are ‘vague’ and ‘precise’.

The meanings of world citizenship

VAGUE ..... PRECISE

Member of the human race	Responsible for the condition of the planet	Individual subject to moral law	Promotion of world government
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Heater explains that the first category would include those people who feel themselves to be linked to others and who often take it upon themselves to act in the interests of the world community. The second category is slightly less vague than the first as the range and nature of the resulting thinking and actions is more closely defined (in for example working for conservation in an organisation such as Greenpeace). Wringe (1999), for example, puts himself towards this ‘vague’ end of Heater’s spectrum by being keen to dispel “a prime misconception” (p. 6) that a global polity is necessary before global citizenship can exist. Wringe dismisses the notion that global citizenship is simply “international do-goodery”. He emphasises the importance of affective considerations and

argues for citizenship as “the establishment of acceptable collective arrangements, which if not properly attended to may ultimately result in a worse life for everyone” (p. 6). In the third category a number of different forms of law that are relevant: natural law; international law (e.g. European Convention on Human Rights); and international criminal law (e.g. the trials at Nuremberg). This formulation is used by staff, for example, at the Centre for the Study of Global Governance at the London School of Economics who claim at their web site (<http://www/lse.ac.uk/Depts/global/About-CsGG.htm>) that:

Global governance was understood not as government but as a minimum framework of rules necessary to tackle global problems guaranteed by a diverse set of institutions including both international organisations and national governments.

Finally, in Heater’s spectrum it is important to note that some aspire to a world government. David Held is probably the most well known current advocate of this position. Held (1995) argues for cosmopolitan democracy which would involve complementary regional, national and international assemblies all with opportunities for popular participation.

In the same way as there are debates about the nature and degree of globalisation, there are difficult issues concerning global citizenship. These debates have been explored by various authors including Lynch (1992), Heater (2004), Oliver and Heater (1994) and Kymlicka (1995). Almost inevitably some of these authors regard others as writing on very different topics. Heater, for example, sees some of Lynch’s work as useful but essentially related to multiculturalism and not citizenship. Other strands of the debates are revealed by those who occupy different positions within the universalist or relativist spectrum. The former would (in simple terms) claim that some form of global approach can be embraced through something like the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The universalists would not argue that such a declaration offered a complete moral theory or that it provided a guide for action in specific circumstances but rather that it offers a guideline which may help decision making and allow for the improved possibility of justice. The relativists, putting the matter in simple terms, would be suspicious of solutions arrived at by reference to statements which are largely ‘Western’ inspired and which may fail to recognise the ‘local’ needs where cultural values are expressed differently from debates in the United

Nations buildings in New York and Geneva. Related to the universalist-relativist debate are the intellectual challenges associated with post-modern perspectives. Although postmodernism is a highly diverse field it is reasonable to refer to its supporters' willingness to rely less heavily than others on claims deriving from objectivity and to depend instead on the construction of 'texts' that explore subjectivities in a world characterised by diversity. I feel, generally, much more persuaded by universalist perspectives in which common humanity and the significance of rights for all are stressed.

### What is Peace Education?

Trainees could be invited to consider the following questions when reading the following brief piece about peace education:

- Is peace education a coherent field (or is it too broadly concerned with issues ranging from nuclear disarmament to personal harmony)?
- Have peace educators become too readily identified with party political objectives?
- Would the widespread acceptance and practice of peace education make global conflict less likely?

Peace Education has been regarded as one of the so-called 'new educations' that achieved its most recent form of prominence from the 1980s. However, peace education has a very long respectable history. It has existed from the period immediately following World War One (Heater 1984). In recent times, four issues were always seen as being more important than others for the new educators: the bomb; gender; development; and 'race' (the latter in inverted commas as the very existence of 'race' can be challenged). All four areas were concerned with social justice and had a number of strengths. The issues were undeniably important. A number of local education authorities (e.g. Newcastle) gave a lead at a time when many perceived there to be grave dangers for world safety. Those active in these movements were reflecting wider debates and actions and were very much a part of the context of the early 1980s. The 1978-9 winter of discontent; the 1981 riots in Liverpool, Bristol and London; reactions against the excesses of monetarist government policy and the controversies of Howe's 1981 budget; the teachers' strikes of the mid 1980s, together with actions by women who were developing far more developed versions of what was needed for a just society than had been allowed for by the 1975 Sex Discrimination Act.

The teachers who became involved with such work were not (or at least not as obviously as those associated with previous initiatives) academics moving from high status disciplines, making comments about teachers and schools (although there are some good academic perspectives on peace education, e.g. Salomon and Nevo (2002) and Samaddar (2004). The new groups included many intelligent and creative teachers and the relative lack of emphasis (with some exceptions e.g. see Crick and Porter 1978) by the advocates of political literacy to produce a teaching and learning programme (Stradling 1987) was now seen even more starkly as packs, books, guides and schemes of work were developed. Hicks' 1988 book on Peace Education has a subtitle which stresses action in the classroom; the work on world studies and later on global education by Pike and Selby (e.g. 1988) while always being academically respectable is largely concerned with what teachers can do in their day-to-day work with children.

However, some of these strengths could also be seen as weaknesses and would mean that although much of this work continues in the 1990s in the form of, for example, education for the future (e.g. Hicks and Holden 1995; Hicks 2002) there were serious problems with the overarching coherence of the ideas and the likelihood of these movements being accepted. Intellectually, the 'new' educations were fragmented. Conflict resolution, for example, can be seen as needing investigations into international crises and/or an exploration of the inner self (e.g. Kragh 1995). For some of those who were driven by the need to educate about international crises (e.g. Cortright 1993) it seemed logical to develop attachments with organisations such as the Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament. Intellectual fragmentation and commitment to particular objectives which are perceived as being radical does not lead to widespread acceptance. Rather, certain local education authorities became associated with what seemed to be party political aims. Peace education guidelines produced separately by Avon and Manchester were in some ways open to easy attack (Lister 1984). As Scruton attacked Pike and Selby (1985), and Mary Warnock in her Dimpleby lecture talked of the "educational horror stories" that all parents tell, sections 44 and 45 of the 1986 education act (number 2) were forbidding political activity in schools and requiring teachers in secondary schools to ensure that there was always a balanced presentation of opposing views. The 'new' educations, however unfairly, were perceived now as edging young people towards the margins of politics rather than being the way to save them from that fate. As such despite all their



strengths (particularly their acceptance by teachers with a continued use of the teaching materials in many schools and the ongoing development of theoretical and practical approaches e.g. Steiner 1996) the radical agenda has simply faded from view.

What is the difference between global education and citizenship education?

Trainees could be asked to consider the following questions as they read the following about global education and citizenship education:

- What are the similarities and differences between citizenship and global education?
- Is it possible to bring these two fields together and encourage valid teaching and learning activities?
- Does education make global conflict less likely? If so, what forms of education would be most desirable for achieving this objective?

The following is drawn from Davies, Evans and Reid (2005). These authors outline what they believe to be the differences between global education and citizenship education. Ask trainees to read the material and then ask them for their views. Do they think that there are any differences between global education and citizenship education? What, if anything, do they want to do about that?

Citizenship education and global education are not, currently, the same thing. While there are clear overlaps (and although the picture is changing very rapidly) there seems to be 6 key areas that can be mentioned in order to highlight these differences.

Although national citizenship itself is so old to be almost outdated, citizenship education is a new area. As such it does not yet have a tradition or pedagogy of its own. Global education, on the other hand, has a very well developed style and there are very many practical guides available.

Citizenship education seems to emphasise either community based involvement or classroom based cognitive reflection. Global education tends (not exclusively) towards the affective.

Citizenship seems to have emerged from a social science context in which communitarianism has recently become significant. This is partly a personal matter that relates to Crick as a Professor of political science but also is connected with the way in which Blair when Prime Minister and David Blunkett when he was Secretary of State for Education established priorities.

Global education emphasises rather more noticeably political activity as opposed to the emphasis by citizenship educators on political science or community involvement. Global education searches more obviously for issues that require immediate and perhaps radical attention.

It is possible that due to the, more academic, background to citizenship education that it has a narrower but more coherent base than global education? The combination of the affective orientation and a political outlook may mean that global educators will be accused at times of more fragmentation than other forms of education.

The context for citizenship education is often the nation state. This does not mean that international or global matters are avoided. It is, however, a way of contrasting the more obviously post national perspective of those associated with global educators. The latter will at the very least search more determinedly for ways in which the nation can become involved globally or, more likely, will see issues in terms of global interconnectedness in which the nation state is no longer the prime focus of analysis.

The level of legitimisation for citizenship education is far higher than that for global education. DfID (Department for International Development) may support global education and the DfES (Department for Education and Skills) may refer to it positively but it is clear that citizenship and not global education has found a place in the National Curriculum. However, teachers have in the past reacted very positively to global education by attending courses, buying materials and developing relevant classroom work. It is very possible that in the near future the citizenship education agenda will in practice become more close to that of global education. It is possible that teachers searching for ways to implement citizenship education will not draw from the perspectives promoted by those who have worked on the Crick committee, but instead, turn to the ideas and teaching materials of the global educators. Indeed, Crick himself has stated repeatedly that the citizenship education framework provides only “strong bare bones” and that its precise formulation will depend on what teachers and others decide to do. The declining power of the welfare state and the rise of globalisation mean that there is a need for greater integration between the two areas.

What are the possibilities of developing citizenship education through history?

Trainees could be asked to consider these questions as they read the following about the possible connections between history and citizenship:

- In what ways are history and citizenship education similar?
- In what ways are history and citizenship education different?
- Should there be a separate subject called citizenship education or is it best left to others?
- Are history educators likely to help school students realise the need to avoid global conflict?

The meanings and purposes ascribed to the teaching and learning of citizenship and history are very similar. Dewey (1966:93) in his key work of *Democracy and Education* believed that education utilises “the past for a resource in a developing future.” Many relate citizenship particularly to politics and there are some commentators who have stressed the importance of seeing, consequently, a particular link with history. Oakshott (1956: 16) defined political education as “knowledge as profound as we can make it of our tradition of political behaviour.” Seeley (quoted by Heater 1974: 1) argued that “Politics are vulgar when they are not liberalised by history and history fades into mere literature when it loses sight of its relation to practical politics”. Heater (1974:1) himself even went so far as to say that History and Politics are "virtually identical subjects".

There are, at least, five similarities between the fields of teaching and learning history and citizenship education. Firstly, there has been in both a shift in knowledge from institutions and Politics with a capital 'P' to a concern with issue based politics in everyday life and a wider lens approach through a focus on political economic social and cultural matters in history. Secondly, there are ongoing debates in both areas concerning appropriate contexts which see work taking place on local, regional, national, global citizenships and histories. Thirdly, the debate on skills in both areas shifts from a narrow concentration on remembering information to recognition of the importance of critical thinking. Fourthly, preferred dispositions of pupils who have studied in history and citizenship are discussed in terms of the promotion of a commitment to a tolerant pluralistic democratic society and so there are the same debates about the limits to that pluralism within a more or less relativist or universalist context. Finally, there is the resonance of the ‘real world’ as debates occur over the extent to which pupils can be involved in practical activities either in the classroom or in the wider community. The fear of the bias of teachers and even of the potential threat of indoctrination has had an impact on how citizenship education was discussed. For history teachers, the debate was made explicit when Kenneth Clarke's was Secretary of State for Education. He developed the '20 year rule' which warned teachers not to discuss recent historical events. In citizenship education it is not hard to find evidence-free (and rather ridiculous) allegations concerning young people who are said to be exploited by teachers who are attempting to indoctrinate them (Scruton 1985). In these circumstances the lack of evidence is less important than the significance of the accusations that could be brought against teachers.

However, since the introduction of the National Curriculum for Citizenship there have been a number of reports that have thrown doubt on the connections with citizenship. Recent Ofsted reports (Ofsted 2005) are sceptical:

With regard to history, for example, citizenship may draw on the past for illustration, but it is essentially about now and the future. Sometimes the two are very closely interwoven. For example, if the study of the holocaust is to have meaning, pupils must reflect on its implications for today, and 'what they can do' when confronted with cruelty in any form, whether commonplace abuses of human rights such as inequality or new manifestations of genocide. The holocaust is also studied in RE and English, but each addresses the subject matter with its own objectives, as should citizenship. A more straightforward example, already used in Ofsted guidance, relates to the suffragettes.<sup>1</sup> If one is planning to teach about the importance of voting, clearly this topic provides a good example of the sacrifice made by women to get the vote. This is useful, as is the terminology that historians use in dealing with this and other political movements and events, such as Chartism or the English Civil War. However, while such examples develop understanding and inform, they are not National Curriculum citizenship.

I think the above can be interpreted positively. I see Ofsted as insisting, rightly, that work that is genuinely related to citizenship is taking place in citizenship lessons. It would be very easy for history teachers, in good faith, to use the rhetoric of teaching about world war 2, for example, without really ever getting to the heart of citizenship education. What then is central? What must history teachers do in order to achieve work that is valid? I outline below a number of activities that are related to history that can provide some useful work in citizenship teacher education sessions.

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## Activities

### 1. Do history teachers teach citizenship education?

Much of the work that takes place in secondary classrooms about global conflict will take place in history departments. It is vitally important, therefore, to consider if valid citizenship work is taking place or if the rhetoric does not quite live up to reality. An excellent activity for encouraging debate about whether or not citizenship is taking place in history lessons can be seen on the citized web site. Go to the link about conferences at [http://www.citized.info/index.php?l\\_menu=conf](http://www.citized.info/index.php?l_menu=conf) and then follow the link to the conference on history and citizenship that took place in November 2004. There are some very useful presentations at that web address but in particular I would like to emphasise the workshop activity devised by Lee Jerome. He presents a snapshot of classroom activities (to do with the Holocaust, slavery, suffragettes) together with a justification given by a teacher for why that work could be regarded as valid citizenship education. Participants in the workshop are then asked to decide whether each activity is definitely or possibly an example of citizenship education or not related to citizenship education. This is an excellent way of asking trainees to explore the key issues about possible links and disjunctions between history and citizenship. If done thoroughly I estimate that the activity would last between one hour and ninety minutes although it could be completed in much less time if the number of examples are reduced.

## Causes and consequences of war

Rummel (1992) estimates the following (democide is a term that he uses to identify killing undertaken by officials following government orders) – see table on next page.

Rummel (1999) has a wide range of papers that explore the numbers of people killed by government action. He makes some striking arguments, asserting, for example, that democracies have not gone to war against each other and that when power is not subject to a series of checks and balances war is far more likely than it would otherwise be.

Those used to preparing trainees to teach history will find it relatively straightforward to undertake a number of causation exercises in relation to understanding war.

20TH CENTURY DEMOCIDE		
Regimes	Years	Murdered <sup>[1]</sup>
MEGAMURDERS		
U.S.S.R.	1917-87	61,911,000
China (PRC)	1949-87	35,236,000
Germany	1934-45	20,946,000
China (KMT)	1928-49	10,075,000
Japan	1936-45	5,890,000
Cambodia <sup>1</sup>	975-78	2,035,000
Poland	1945-47	1,583,000
Pakistan	1971	1,500,000
Vietnam	1945-87	<sup>[2]</sup> 1,340,000
Yugoslavia	1944-87	1,067,000
Turkey	1915-18	<sup>[2]</sup> 1,000,000
	Subtotal:	142,583,000
KILOMURDERS		
	Partial Subtotal:	<sup>[3]</sup> 8,361,000
	Partial World Total:	<sup>[3]</sup> 150,944,000

1. Includes genocide, politicide, and mass murder; excludes war-dead. These are conservative mid-estimates in low to high ranges. From R.J. Rummel, "Lethal Politics: Soviet Genocide and Mass Murder Since 1917," Rutgers: Transaction Publications, 1990; "China's Bloody Century: Genocide and Mass Murder Since 1900," Rutgers: Transaction Publications, 1991; "Democide: Nazi Genocide and Mass Murder," Rutgers: Transaction Publications, 1991; "Murder by Government: Genocide and Mass Murder Since 1900," forthcoming.

2. Preliminary estimate.
3. Additional cases are in the process of being counted.

Ask trainees to review the above, considering the assertions that are made by Rummel. Then ask them to consider if war can ever be justified. Ask them to reflect on whether war (or methods of warfare) would be justified if a specific example met one or more of the following criteria:

War was declared legally

War was obviously the only way to deal with injustice (e.g. a minority was being persecuted)

War was necessary to defend the rights of a sovereign people (e.g. after a country has been invaded)

Specific forms of warfare (e.g. use of nuclear weapons) helps bring the conflict to an early end.

War would allow preventative action that would deal with an obvious threat to one's own country.

A majority of people in the country that declared war are in favour of war being declared.

War is undertaken to reverse the impact of an unjust treaty (e.g. groups of people who have been forced to live in another's territory would be reunited with their fellow citizens).

War is undertaken to gain access to natural resources that are essential for the survival of one's own country.

War is undertaken to ensure that the practice of religion is safeguarded

War is undertaken to ensure that democracy is practised in another country.

### Who should be allowed to have nuclear weapons?

Ask trainees to undertake some research in advance of the session. This could include:

- reviewing the amount of Britain's nuclear resources (see [www.tridentploughshares.org](http://www.tridentploughshares.org))
- investigating the possible impact of a nuclear attack (see [www.nuclearterror.org](http://www.nuclearterror.org))
- reviewing arguments against nuclear weapons (see [www.cnduk.org](http://www.cnduk.org))
- discover the nuclear capabilities of various countries (see [www.ocf.berkeley.edu/~nuclear/map.php](http://www.ocf.berkeley.edu/~nuclear/map.php))



Focus on sources specifically about North Korea

- In 2003 North Korea admitted having nuclear weapons. (see <http://www.cnn.com/2003/WORLD/asiapcf/east/04/24/nkorea.us/>)
- In March 2005 a survey declared that most Americans feel that no country should have nuclear weapons (see [http://www.usatoday.com/news/nation/2005-03-31-nuclear-fears\\_x.htm](http://www.usatoday.com/news/nation/2005-03-31-nuclear-fears_x.htm))
- Debates are occurring about whether a range of states should be allowed to have nuclear weapons (details about Iran are given at [http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/talking\\_point/4041629.stm](http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/talking_point/4041629.stm))

Ask trainees to plan a series of three lessons around the question 'who should be allowed to have nuclear weapons?' They should share their plans with the peers and review them in light of comments received.

### Should the UK have been involved in the invasion of Iraq?

Useful sources include:

- Extracts from the novel *Saturday* written by Ian McEwan (2005) (the whole book is relevant but especially the section in which a discussion occurs between the central character and his daughter about the justness and wisdom of a war).
- Most of the major news agencies carry valuable reports about contemporary developments and include in-depth features about recent history. See the BBC's input at:  
[http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/in\\_depth/middle\\_east/2002/conflict\\_with\\_iraq/default.stm](http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/in_depth/middle_east/2002/conflict_with_iraq/default.stm)
- extensive amounts of material have been compiled by individual universities. An interesting site is based at the University of Michigan. See:  
<http://www.lib.umich.edu/govdocs/iraqwar.html>

Ask trainees to write a role play in which the involvement of the UK in the war against Iraq can be explored. The trainees should write an introduction for school students. The trainees should produce role cards for school students to ensure that all members of a class are involved. They should devise a means whereby school students' contributions to

the debate can be assessed. They should devise a conclusion in which key points are highlighted for school students (both about the war and about debating).

What institutions are involved in attempts to avoid conflict and to create peaceful solutions to problems?

It is important, of course, to resist the tendency that some trainees have of wanting to become experts in international law or in the constitutions of national or international organisations that might become relevant to global conflict. Civics is still civics even if it is dressed up in the clothes of ‘exciting’ global dramas. It would be unwise, however, not to expect some sort of understanding, even if only rather basic, about the most obvious of the international organisations that are involved in a variety of conflicts. The purpose of allowing trainees to develop this sort of understanding must always focus on their work to develop young people’s understanding of the knowledge skills and attitudes that are central to citizenship education and not to begin a watered down political science programme.

Brief summaries of some of the organisations and initiatives that are most obviously relevant to global conflict are given below (together with some suggested activities to undertake with trainees) but many more could be included (e.g. Council of Europe). More detailed treatment of these matters can be seen in Davies (2005).

The United Nations

The basic facts about the United Nations are described very clearly at the following:

<http://www.un.org/aboutun/basicfacts/unorg.htm>

The UN was set up in 1945 and began with membership of 50 countries. Its purpose is “to maintain international peace and security; to develop friendly relations among nations; to cooperate in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; and to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these ends”. There are a number of key structures including the General Assembly, the International Court of Justice and the Security Council. The UN is not a world government and relies on support from members,

especially those who belong to the security council. There is a United Association for the UK and its web site includes information about study tours and other activities (see <http://www.una-uk.org/citizenship/teachingtheun.html>). Trainees could be invited to review Model United Nations activities (see <http://www.munga-una.org.uk/>).

### **The World Trade Organisation**

The World Trade Organisation (WTO) was established in 1995 and is based in Geneva, Switzerland. It makes rules about international trade aiming to increase incomes and promote peace through trade. There are 147 member-countries (on 23 April 2004), who discuss and agree on such things as tariffs. There is a budget (in 2004) of 162 million Swiss francs and a staff of 600 people. The WTO has a number of functions:

- Administering WTO trade agreements
- Forum for trade negotiations
- Handling trade disputes
- Monitoring national trade policies
- Technical assistance and training for developing countries
- Cooperation with other international organizations .

Detailed reporting on disputes can be seen on the World Trade Organisation web site (<http://www.wto.org/index.htm>). Some good activities can be based around issues of world trade. For example a statement about sugar is made at:

[http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/citizenx/internat/global/lowdown/trade\\_info\\_1.shtml](http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/citizenx/internat/global/lowdown/trade_info_1.shtml)

- Sugar prices are protected by tariffs and quotas in the EU, Japan and US. Producers in these countries receive about double the world market price for the sugar they grow.

- Producers in the richer countries are subsidised at \$6.4billion per year, an amount nearly equal to ALL developing country exports.
- These subsidies encourage people to grow sugar beet in cold countries and for sugar processors to reduce the amount of sugar they import from cane-producing countries such as the West Indies.

It would be possible to ask trainees what they could do to use this material in a lesson. Or, an idea for a lesson could be given for them to review. The group could be given the above information and then asked to comment on whether they thought justice was being done to all involved in the operation. Then divide the group into producers, traders and consumers and ask each group to make a statement about what sort of changes they would like to see in trading arrangements. It would be important for each group to justify their response. Ask the students to compare their responses in each of these 2 contexts (i.e. before they were given a role and once they knew what role they had). A discussion about the differences could draw on Rawls' notion of justice (he suggested that people would argue for a just society only when they do not know their place in the hierarchy). This could be developed into a discussion about whether there is a realistic possibility of achieving global economic justice

### The G8

The G8 is described at: [http://www.g7.utoronto.ca/what\\_is\\_g8.html](http://www.g7.utoronto.ca/what_is_g8.html). Since 1975, the heads of state or government of the major industrial democracies have been meeting annually to deal with the major economic and political issues facing their domestic societies and the international community as a whole. The current members are France, the United States, Britain, Germany, Japan, Italy, Canada, the European and Russia. The Summit deals with macroeconomic management, international trade, and relations with developing countries as well as many other matters including energy, terrorism, crime etc. In addition to the main summit there are supporting ministerial meetings. The summit sets priorities, defines new issues and provides guidance to established international organizations. The annual meeting has been an opportunity for anti-globalization demonstrations since the Birmingham Summit in 1998; the protests turned violent in 2001 at the Genoa Summit, resulting in the death of a protestor.

There is detailed information about the workings of the G8 at various web sites. The following is a site based at the University of Toronto and gives links to many other agencies: <http://www.g7.utoronto.ca/>

There are issues about the extent to which national governments comply with the decisions of the G8. An interesting report about compliance can be seen at: [http://www.g7.utoronto.ca/evaluations/2003evian\\_comp\\_final/01-2003\\_final\\_intro.pdf](http://www.g7.utoronto.ca/evaluations/2003evian_comp_final/01-2003_final_intro.pdf)

The G8 provides an opportunity for experts from high income countries to meet. Recently there have been protests made at the times when a summit is taking place. It would be useful to ask trainees to develop a class exercise around the notion of the role of experts in a democratic society. Press reports perhaps especially from the Genoa summit in which a protester died could be used as source material for the lesson to be created by trainees. The BBC site offers some useful material (see <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/europe/1448751.stm>). The trainees could be encouraged to ask school students to write a newspaper report about the events at Genoa. Students could be told that they should make clear what the G8 does, why people were protesting and what should happen as a result of the tragic death of the protester. The school students could be encouraged to opt for a particular conclusion that highlights who should be a member of the organisation, where it should meet and what it should be allowed to decide.

### The European Union

Full information about the European Union can be seen at:

[http://europa.eu.int/index\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu.int/index_en.htm)

There are five EU institutions, each playing a specific role:

- European Parliament (elected by the peoples of the Member States);
- Council of the European Union (representing the governments of the Member States);
- European Commission (driving force and executive body);

- Court of Justice (ensuring compliance with the law);
- Court of Auditors (controlling sound and lawful management of the EU budget).

These are flanked by other important bodies including the European Economic and Social Committee (expresses the opinions of organised civil society on economic and social issues); and the European Central Bank (responsible for monetary policy and managing the euro).

Initially, the EU consisted of six countries: Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom joined in 1973, Greece in 1981, Spain and Portugal in 1986, Austria, Finland and Sweden in 1995. In 2004 the biggest ever enlargement took place with 10 new countries joining. An interesting class debate could involve discussing benefits/weaknesses of enlarging the EU.

Various resources about European citizenship suitable for both teachers and students can be seen at: [http://europa.eu.int/youth/active\\_citizenship/index\\_eu\\_en.html](http://europa.eu.int/youth/active_citizenship/index_eu_en.html)

Three possible activities for trainees are:

How can trainees become involved in long term school and university based citizenship projects that promote European co-operation (e.g. school foreign language exchanges; Comenius projects etc). Ask them to consider examples of projects (either a small scale local school's foreign language exchange programme or, following a review of we based material (see [http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/programmes/socrates/comenius/index\\_en.html](http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/programmes/socrates/comenius/index_en.html)) ask them to suggest what would need to be done to ensure that work was achieved relevant to citizenship (as opposed to 'mere' collaborative exchange).

Ask trainees to consider how they could set up debates about economic issues within Europe? An obvious way forward in this context is to ask the trainees to plan a mini scheme of work about the euro. Trainees could help school students to carry out some research (The Observer newspaper carried a very full outline of the debates about the euro on 18 February 2001) to be followed by them setting guidelines for trainees to produce a piece of persuasive writing in favour or against Britain joining the euro.

How can political issues be considered? Trainees could work with the history department in a school to review the end of the Cold war and the establishment of the new Europe. They could consider possible EU enlargement through the inclusion of a country that might not seem immediately to be acceptable to all. Turkey is currently considering making an application for EU membership. Ask trainees to develop work to take place in a school in which students consider religious, economic and political (human rights) factors for a case for or against allowing Turkey to join. School students could directly address the issue of whether the EU assists in the prevention of conflict or whether it is a somewhat exclusive group that breeds resentment and competition.

### Agenda 21

In 1992 the United Nations (UN) held an Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. One outcome of this was the adoption of Agenda 21 by 178 governments. The UK government in 1999 produced its own plan for how it would help achieve the goals of agenda 21 ([http://www.sustainable-development.gov.uk/uk\\_strategy/content.htm](http://www.sustainable-development.gov.uk/uk_strategy/content.htm)). There is a Department for Education and Skills scheme of work that relates to agenda 21 (<http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes2/ks4citizenship/cit12/12q3?view=get>) and there are many other official and unofficial sites (e.g. <http://www.sustainable-development.gov.uk/index.htm>; <http://www.scream.co.uk/la21/>). Many local education authorities publicise their own work on their web sites, the Geographical Association and the Royal Geographical Society produce their own material and individual schools have reported on what they have done (e.g. <http://www.la21.org.uk/>).

Trainees could be asked to help school students a local controversial issue. For example the City of York has recently introduced new parking charges. This has led to a strong and diverse range of reactions. The students could ask why it was done, what is the nature of the reactions, who is objecting, who is supportive, what alternatives are there and what might happen in the future. This could be achieved through several channels by

- inviting different speakers into the classroom
- reviewing newspapers reports
- interviewing residents (or class members) about their views.

Trainees would need to consider how each of the activities mentioned above could be organised so that logistical difficulties were overcome and that school students worked in a focused way on citizenship.

### What are the psychological perspectives on peace and conflict?

I will make only a few remarks about the psychological perspectives on peace and conflict. My principal way of understanding citizenship is through politics, history, economics and sociology and as Kragh (1995) notes this sometimes means that there is a failure to understand all the important psychological perspectives about citizenship. I recognise that there is some value in exploring – even if only superficially – some of the key issues about psychology. Notions of the conscious and subconscious can explain our feelings that may lead to conflict. Greater understanding of the nature of the ego may help us understand issues of identity, the social construction of reality and the relationship between the cognitive and the affective. Reading classic work by key figures such as Freud and Jung allow for a more thorough understanding of these matters. Many introductory texts exist that give insights into these matters. I would recommend Hogg and Vaughan (2002) as it includes clearly written chapters on such important matters as self and identity, social influence, people in groups, prejudice and discrimination, aggression, culture etc. Perhaps the key message to bear in mind in relation to the link I am developing with social psychology is to refer to the work of Curle:

I am certain that small scale unpeacefulness within the family, school, factory, office or community, in some way contributes to or reflects and in reflecting exacerbates the larger discords. To work usefully for peace does not necessitate some dramatic international assignment. There is a role for everyone. (Curle 1984)



I do not mean by this that we should engage in inappropriately simple analogies (the playground fight is not the same as international conflict) but the role of individual action and perception should not be underestimated.

### Activities drawn from social psychology

#### Hate Crimes

An examination of the nature of hate crimes could be used as a way of beginning to explore issues to do with security, identity and aggression. A well known case of homophobia is seen in the case of Matthew Shepard who was murdered in 1998. A foundation has been established. The relevant web site can be seen at <http://www.matthewshepard.org>

#### Is aggression taught through modelling?

A well known experiment undertaken by Bandura and summarised by Hogg and Vaughan (2002, p. 447-8) sought to investigate the impact that an adult's aggressive behaviour would have upon a child. In the experiment an adult in the presence of a child attacked a doll. The children who witnessed this behaviour behaved more aggressively later. It is possible to discuss this case with reflections on the establishment of particular types of classroom climate. It is also possible to raise issues associated with media violence and its likely impact on young people. In the experiment by Bandura the behaviour of young people also became more aggressive even when the violence was shown on video. The ways in which images can be used when exploring global conflict with young people could be raised for discussion.

#### Language and dehumanisation

A brief survey of newspapers and TV news could be undertaken by trainees to identify and reflect upon the use of dehumanising language. Perhaps the exercise could be tackled through investigating history textbooks. A more limited piece of work could take place without any research but simply through a discussion about the sorts of terminology used in war reporting. It is likely that common phrases will be referred to such as 'ethnic cleansing', 'targets', 'friendly fire', 'terrorists' and offensive nicknames for the enemy (Huns, gooks etc). A challenging in-depth discussion of the need for a sentimental education can be seen in Rorty (1998).

## Co-operation and dilemmas

A good way to explore the nature of conflict is to focus on co-operation. Three widely known examples (as cited in Hogg and Vaughan 2002) are:

a) the prisoner's dilemma

this can be used to discuss the strength of the motivation to co-operate or compete. Two obviously guilty suspects are caught by the police. But the police only have enough evidence to convict them of a fairly minor offence. They are questioned separately. Each knows that if neither confess they will both be found guilty of the lesser offence; if one then the confessor will be rewarded with a lesser sentence and the person who kept quiet will be punished more severely; if they both confess then both will receive a moderate punishment. It is obvious that the best outcome (in terms of avoiding punishment) for the individuals involved is for both to keep quiet. In hundreds of experiments mutual suspicion and lack of trust almost always means that both confess.

b) the trucking game

Each transport company has its own rather slow route. There is a faster route but it has a one lane section. The best solution would be for them to agree to take it in turns to use that route. Instead both enter and meet head on and argue until one backs down. Mistrust has led to time being wasted.

c) the commons dilemma

Imagine 100 farmers each with one cow. The common land will support 100 cows. If each farmer allows one cow to graze then all will benefit. But if one farmer adds a second cow then he will double his productivity while the cost of minor over grazing will be shared by the remaining 99. If all farmers decide to own 2 cows then the land will be ruined. If a group has a strong collective identity then agreement can be reached. If instead there is a lack of collective identity there will be destructive competition.

## What can we learn about global conflict through an examination of gun control?

Debates and issues surrounding gun control are very relevant to notions of peace and security. There is a wealth of material (especially US based) that deals with self protection, political rights that are enshrined in the constitution and the protection of arms industry. The assertion that there is a need to focus on people who cause crime not guns is an argument that is often put forward by the proponents of this version of citizens' rights. It is

very instructive to look at the web site of the National Rifle Association (<http://www.nra.org/>). Their advice for running a campaign seems to me to be rather impressive. I should, however, declare my own view of opposition to the NRA and all that they stand for. It would be very useful to set up a media watch in which data were gathered about gun crime in the UK and elsewhere and to organise a debate by students.

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The following trainee briefing papers will be of use (see

[http://www.citized.info/index.php?strand=4&r\\_menu=brief\\_type&type=8#195](http://www.citized.info/index.php?strand=4&r_menu=brief_type&type=8#195)):

Global Citizenship; United Nations; Human Rights; Managing conflict between individuals; Resolving conflict between countries; Commonwealth.