THE IMPLEMENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF A MODEL UNITED NATIONS PROGRAM IN A GRADE 9 SETTING

BY

RICHARD J. BISSET

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

Department of Curriculum and Humanities
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba

(c) October, 1997

National Library of Canada
Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Acquisitions and Bibliographic Services
Acquisitions et services bibliographiques

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-23225-5

Canada

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

COPYRIGHT PERMISSION

THE IMPLEMENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF A MODEL UNITED NATIONS PROGRAM IN A GRADE 9 SETTING

BY

RICHARD J. BISSET

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

Richard J. Bisset © 1997

Permission has been granted to the LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA to lend or sell copies of this thesis, to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film, and to UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS to publish an abstract of this thesis.

This reproduction or copy of this thesis has been made available by authority of the copyright owner solely for the purpose of private study and research, and may only be reproduced and copied as permitted by copyright laws or with express written authorization from the copyright owner.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT 1

1. CHAPTER I: NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE THESIS 3

   A. Introduction 3

   B. Purpose of the Research 3

   C. The Research Methodology 5

   D. Review of Action Research 8

   E. The Model United Nations Movement 18

   F. Confusion Between International and Global Education Definitions 20

2. CHAPTER II: GLOBAL EDUCATION IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE 41

3. CHAPTER III: GLOBAL EDUCATION: A PEDAGOGICAL RATIONALE 79

4. CHAPTER IV: PLANNING AND TEACHING THE MODEL U.N. COURSE 103

5. CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS 142

6. APPENDICES 159

7. BIBLIOGRAPHY 184

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the three members of my thesis committee, Dr. Fred Drewe, Dr. Sheldon Rosenstock, and Prof. Ken Osborne.

In addition, I would like to extend my thanks to Sheldon Rosenstock for his ideas and encouragement during the two year process of writing this thesis.

Special thanks are given to Ken Osborne, my advisor, for his rigourous analysis, his perceptive comments, and his tireless efforts in helping me to write the best thesis I possibly could.

Heartfelt thanks are given to my family and my wife, Mary, who encouraged and supported me every step of the way.

ABSTRACT

A program emphasizing "global mindedness" through the teaching of a "Model United Nations" course of studies was taught to Grade 9 students in an urban junior high school. A central theme of the practicum was to encourage the students, as a function of their course work and simulation, to reflect on the dynamics of their experiences in order to encourage global mindedness. Qualitative data collected from these reflections was used to generate characterizations of the students development with the stated purpose of looking for examples of "global mindedness".

There were two questions investigated in this thesis. My first major area of investigation was whether or not a Model United Nations course was in fact viable with Grade 9 students since usually the M.U.N. is carried out with Grade 11 and 12 students. Secondly, I wished to discover whether students did indeed exhibit global mindedness. Stated succinctly, if students demonstrated global mindedness they would appreciate other cultures, recognize that people from other countries view problems differently than we do in Canada, and understand the ways in which the world is interconnected.

To this end, action research techniques were used to gather information concerning the growth of global mindedness in the students. This methodology was employed because action research allows for the verification of results using triangulation techniques. This technique allowed me to gather responses from the students and my colleagues, as well as data from my own observations. This data was then used to answer the thesis questions.

The findings of this study show that a Model United Nations course and simulation are viable with Grade 9 students. Also, the findings show that students do exhibit global mindedness.

The findings of this study will have implications for other educators who are interested in preparing their students for a future where the world will be even more interconnected than it is today. And also preparing their students for a future where they will need to be able to interact with cultures whose point of view will probably be different from their own.

CHAPTER I: Nature and Purpose of this Thesis

A. Introduction:

The audience for this thesis would be those interested in global education and/or U.N. activities in the public school system, and in teacher-originated action research.

This study investigated the effectiveness of a Model United Nations program as a practical vehicle for global education in an urban School Division, at the Grade 9 level.

Of central concern in this thesis was the hope that it will advance understanding and practical knowledge in the area of global education by describing a Model United Nations course at the Grade 9 level. This hope stems from a belief that educators have a responsibility to prepare students for the future by teaching them to think globally today.

The two questions of the thesis are:

1) What are some practical implications in planning, organizing, and teaching a Model United Nations course to Grade 9 students as a vehicle for global education?
2) Using action research methodology, what evidence will appear that global mindedness is present?

B. Purpose of this Research:

This research was intended to make a practical contribution to the following general bodies of knowledge:

1) applied curriculum development; in particular, a model for other grade 9 teachers to follow;
2) action research; and
3) global education.

The research was intended to test the feasibility of:

(1) designing and teaching a Model United Nations course at the Grade 9 level;
(2) developing a "how-to" guide for implementing the above;
(3) and examining the effectiveness of the M.U.N. as a vehicle for global education with Grade 9 students.

While it is true that, world-wide, M.U.N.'s are usually taught at the high school and university levels, this thesis attempts to demonstrate the practicability of delivering a M.U.N. course to 14 and 15 year old students. This has rarely been done at this level. Therefore, this thesis attempted to answer the following specific questions:

1) How practical is it to teach a M.U.N. course in Grade 9?
2) What obstacles will arise during the course and what solutions will be found?
3) What are the practical, everyday issues that will need to be addressed in this course? For example, how will the following considerations affect the teaching of the course: time-tabling, student readiness, skill level, assessment, lesson planning, communication with the home, high school credits, etc.?
4) What changes will there be in students' attitudes and beliefs towards global education as a result of experiencing a Model U.N. course and Conference?

The thesis examines whether a Model United Nations course gives students knowledge of and a good grounding in global education ideas in both the affective and cognitive domains. The term global education refers to efforts to cultivate in young people a perspective of the world which emphasizes the interconnectedness among cultures, species, and the planet (or "global mindedness"). The primary goal of global education is to help students develop a global perspective by encouraging them to:

1) develop cross-cultural awareness;
2) realize that one's perspective is not universally shared;
3) understand contemporary world conditions and developments;
4) and have a concept of interdependence whereby they will recognize how their decisions affect the planet and other peoples and that they can assist in finding solutions to global problems.

Specifically, the students are exposed to global concepts because they are asked to:

1) learn about the culture and customs of other countries;
2) address selected global problems;
3) compare the similarities and differences the world's people share;
4) analyze selected international organizations; and
5) focus on the interrelatedness of human beings.

C. The Research Methodology:

The thesis was planned as an application of the action research approach and for this reason it will be helpful to review the relevant literature, which is the main task of this section.

First, however, it is necessary to show that the Model United Nations course draws on the action research approach. The main elements of this approach are all related to the application of a Model United Nations course. The conception, development, and delivery of the M.U.N. course used action research techniques because it was: teacher-based, anchored-in-practice, focused on a "real" problem, used participant-observation and ethnographic techniques, and involved reflection.

In particular, this thesis:

1) builds on the traditions of teacher action research, as elaborated by Elliott, Walker, Kemmis, and McTaggart.

2) presents a descriptive/explanatory account of the planning conceptualization, and implementation of the Model U.N.;
3) examines the extent to which the experience of a Model U.N. makes Grade 9 students more aware of and interested in global issues and concerns; and
4) is written in such a way that it will be of use to other teachers - i.e. it will make a contribution to the pedagogical literature in the area of global education and social studies.

In organizing a research project of this type, I drew on the tradition of recent teacher-based action research. The following pages describe the action research ideas of authors such as Stephen Kemmis, Rob Walker, and J. Elliott and others, in order to show how their ideas may be translated to this work. In addition, it is hoped that the conclusions drawn from the study will make an addition to action research literature from a global education perspective.

This action research proposal for Valley Gardens Junior High School will investigate Grade 9 students' actions and my experiences while participating in a Model U.N. course. The aim of the action research is to conceptualize what problems occur in presenting the course at this age and how they might be best addressed. The discussion of what occurs was the "case study" of the events. The interpretation of the events was from the points of view of both participants - i.e. students and teacher (myself). An additional outcome of this action research investigation was to improve:

1) my own educational practices;
2) my understanding of these practices;
3) the situation(s) in which these practices are carried out;
4) and my future plans of action with the M.U.N.

Hopefully, this research may provide other educators working in Senior I/Grade 9 with some practical insights into one method of

encouraging students to think globally and thereby, help to prepare their students for the future.

This action research project gathered data from a semester course which can be expanded to a full year. The course asked students to participate in and conduct research on the United Nations. The research, preparation, and participation in the simulation exposed the students to selected principles and concepts related to world order, diplomacy, international law, modern world history, citizenship, and conflict resolution. Students were exposed to "real-life" problems (such as child labour, by using articles, doing readings, and participating in discussions).

The students took on the role of an ambassador from a country they researched and studied. Then, as at the real United Nations, the students debated and tried to develop resolutions on current topics. Students gained knowledge about the evolution of world order through their study of the United Nations. Then, students were exposed to selected, current world problems using a Model United Nations simulation.

This action research project gathered information from the students using various data collection methods. For example, data was gathered using classroom observations of the students, journals, audio-tapes, surveys, questionnaires, and pre- and post-tests, and journal writings. In particular, I hoped to interview individually most of the students at the end of the semester to determine what conceptions they now had regarding global mindedness. By using observations and an exit-interview, both my views and those of the students are presented. In addition, I kept a daily journal of my thoughts, feelings, and observations of the progress of the course.

However, the main purposes of the collection of the action research data were for me to improve my teaching through:

1) better planning;

2) better teaching;

3) collecting of observations; and

4) reflecting.

At this point, it will be beneficial to review action research literature as a whole.

D. Review of Action Research:

> It is teachers who, in the end, will change the world of the school by understanding it (Lawrence Stenhouse; quote chosen by some of the teachers who worked with him as an inscription for the memorial plaque at the university of East Anglia, from Rudduck & Hopkins, 1985, Forward).

Teachers often feel threatened by 'theory'. They frequently argue that conventional quantitative research has had relatively little to say directly to them about the work they do in classrooms. Instead, they feel this type of educational research has tended to focus on large-scale samples, quasi-experimental design, and broad questions of policy, difficult to apply at the classroom level. They see it as having limited, practical value.

> The absurdity of the language and the high level of generality implied in much research has often resulted in teachers perceiving this work as being remote and divorced from their needs and situations (Hitchcock, 1995, p. 8).

In fact, many teachers feel quantitative educational research has often served to disempower them because it may have forced them to adopt practices which they did not understand and for which they were badly prepared to teach. From a classroom teachers' point of view, most quantitative theory involves something they cannot apply or use in relation to their practice. These feelings are a revisitation of the theory-practice issue.

> The 'theory' construct has two major components for teachers. First, it implies 'remoteness' from their professional knowledge/experience. Second, it implies a threat to their professional knowledge and status from the academic community (Elliott, 1991, p. 47).

In recent years, therefore, an alternate model of educational research has emerged. This "new" qualitative method, called action research, stresses Stenhouse's concept of 'the teacher as researcher'. In a 1975 review of Stenhouse's book, he was described as a 'chess player in the world of draughts'. "Certainly his thinking went beyond the prevailing conventions" (Elliott, 1991, p. 17).

It should be noted that "action research" first appeared in name in the journal literature of the late 1940s. The first recognized titled book on "action research" in education was published by Corey (1953), Action Research to Improve School Practices. And even earlier there were a number of noteworthy theorists of the 1920s and 1930s (John Collier, Kurt Lewin, and some work of the 'progressive" educators) who were its fore-runners through their research practices. These social scientists recognized that social problems could only be adequately resolved if practice and theory (action and research) were developed together, (Carr, 1994). And so, action research concepts have a long tradition in the field of qualitative research.

In action research, theory is derived from practice and constitutes a set of abstractions from it.

> This view of the theory-practice relationship was quite contrary to the rationalist assumptions built into teacher training at the time; namely, that good practise consists of the application of theoretical knowledge and principles which are consciously understood prior to it (Elliott, 1991, p. 6).

In action research, theories are not validated independently and then applied to practice. They are validated through practice.

> The case for action research may be stated briefly. By investigating and reflecting upon their own practice teachers may increase their understanding of the classroom (Nixon, 1981, p. 6).

When using action research concepts, teachers themselves conduct the research, using problems which they find personally meaningful and important. Action research is viewed as an enabling activity.

Characteristically, this research is qualitative rather than quantitative, small-scale rather than large-scale, and experiential rather than social-scientific.

> Action research is simply a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understandings of these practices, and the situations in which the practices are carried out (Carr & Kemmis, 1986, p. 162).

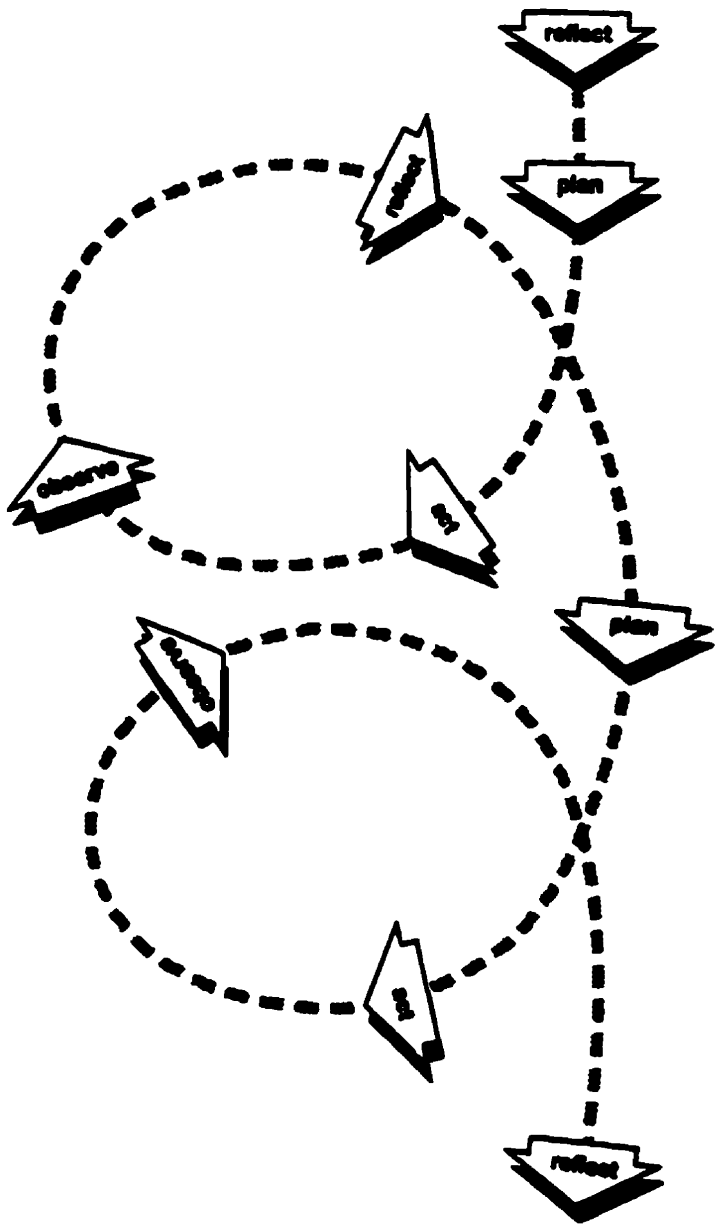
Or, stated more simply by Elliott, action research might be defined as "the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of the action within it" (1991, p. 69).

In the literature, action research is described as proceeding in a deliberate and controlled spiral of steps, or 'spiral of cycles', each of which is composed of planning, action, observing, reflecting, and evaluating. These dynamic aspects of the "process" are linked in a cycle. (See two examples of the Action Research Spiral on the following pages.) The first was presented by Lewin, frequently described as "the father of action research." And the second figure was proposed by Kemmis & McTaggart.) Stated briefly, action research is a cyclic process of planning, action, observation, and reflection. "These steps are (of course) far too mechanical and procedural to be more than a starting point: they are best thought of as tips for beginners" (Kemmis, 1991, pp. 42-43.).

> It is of course a mistake to think that slavishly following the 'action research spiral' constitutes 'doing action research'. Action research is not a 'method' or a 'procedure' but a series of commitments to observe and problematise through practice the principles for conducting social enquiry... (McTaggart, 1994, p. 315).

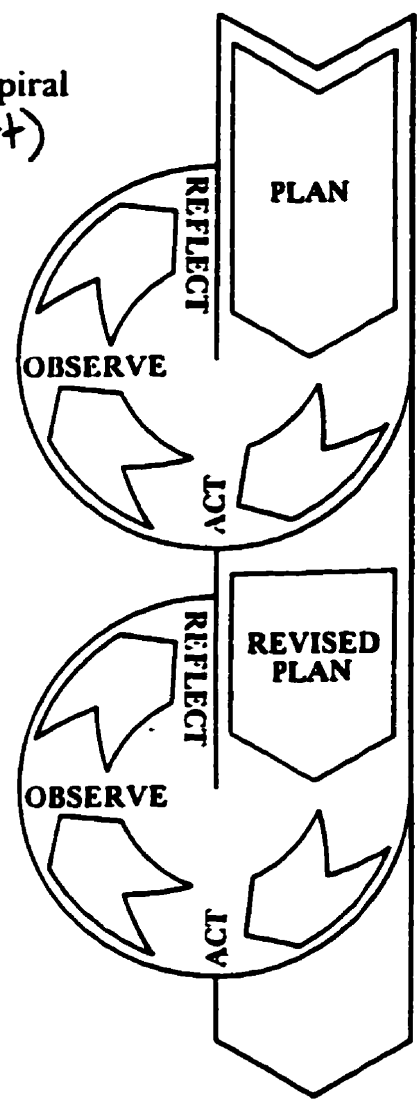
In addition, action research proponents say that it provides a platform for a more democratic approach to curriculum reform because it places students, teachers, and administration at the center of both development and implementation stages of this process.

THE ACTION RESEARCH SPIRAL



This cycle, represented in the figure above, is probably Lewin's most significant and best remembered contribution to action research, at least as it is practised in education.

The Action Research Spiral
(Kemmis & McTaggart)



> The main benefits of action research are the improvement of practice, the improvement of the understanding of practice by its practitioners, and the improvement of the situation in which the practice takes place (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992, p. 15).

As well, action research proponents state that it encompasses many important realities of an innovative and empowering learning process. Along these lines, action research has two historical aspects:

1) it was an effort to develop pedagogical and curricular reforms in order to bring students' involvement in their own learning to the centre of education, and
2) it involved educators working in the midst of social change. It was felt that action research would promote teacher growth through reflection which would lead to social reconstruction.

Some of the more notable advocates of these approaches are: Stenhouse (1975), Kemmis & McTaggart (1982), Carr (1986), Erickson (1986), and Elliott (1987). These authors make the point that action research is concerned with improvement. It is public and collaborative. It stresses process with content. It allows for a focus on teaching, in addition to student outcomes, and on the interplay between the two.

The fundamental aim of action research is to improve practice. "Above all, the essential ingredient of action research is that it combines action with theorizing" (Hitchcock, 1995, p. 28). Action research advocates would say that pedagogy is a reflective process.

> In the collection of data, or evidence, related to practice, action research emphasizes the educator's own, often intuitive, judgement of teaching and helps to locate one's vision of good teaching within those of others involved in the educative process (parents, children, teacher educators, the community, the state, etc.). In so doing it helps to make the educational process continually problematic. This continual revisiting of issues and practices builds a new kind of theory-practice relationship, one in which

> our understanding of education is always partially correct and partially in need of revision (Noffke, 1995, p. 5).

Furthermore, as proposed by Kemmis & McTaggart (1982), action research means trying out ideas in practice as a means of improvement and as a means of increasing knowledge about the curriculum, teaching, and learning. The result is improvement in what happens in the classroom and school, and better articulation and justification of the educational rationale for what goes on. Action research provides a way of working which links theory and practice into the one whole: ideas-in-action.

> Action research aims at improvement in three areas: firstly, the improvement of a 'practice'; secondly, the improvement of the 'understanding' of the practice by its practitioners; and thirdly, the improvement of the 'situation' in which the practice takes place (Carr & Kemmis, 1986, p. 165).

The main difference between teaching <u>per se</u> and action research on teaching is that the researcher uses a much more systematic approach to making observations and keeping records. One example of this systematic approach is the triangulation of observations and interpretations - eliciting interpretive accounts of observational data from the points of view of the teachers, peers, and pupils - which plays a central role in action research projects (Elliott, 1993).

To "do" action research is to plan, act, observe, and reflect more carefully, more systematically, and more rigorously than one usually does in everyday life. Action research involves the improvement of practice, of the understanding of practice, and of the situations in which practice occurs, (Kemmis & McTaggart). Or, stated differently, it is aimed at facilitating the development of reflective teachers. Action research involves the self-reflexive monitoring of self-initiated change.

The following definition by Carr & Kemmis (1986) on action research is widely accepted in the literature.

> It can be argued that three conditions are individually necessary and jointly sufficient for action research to be said to exist: firstly, a project takes as its subject-matter a social practice, regarding it as a form of strategic action susceptible of improvement; secondly, the project proceeds through a spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting, with each of these activities being systematically and self-critically implemented and interrelated; thirdly, the project involves those responsible for the practice in each of the moments of activity, widening participation in the project gradually to include others affected by the practice, and maintaining collaborative control of the process (pp. 165-166).

Since it addresses practical issues in the classroom, the action research process was used in this thesis. In this case, it was used to investigate the development of global mindedness. An action research model was followed in order to more fully investigate the effectiveness of a Model United Nations program as a practical vehicle for global education. This thesis investigated the adaptation of a Model U.N. course in a Grade 9 classroom and the subsequent modifications to teaching techniques that will/may occur.

As there is no single, correct way of conducting research in the classroom, the action research process contains a whole family of methodologies, such as: ethnographic, phenomenological, symbolic interactionist, qualitative, constructivist, case study, interpretive, or participant observational. In addition, the term action research itself has recently evolved into 'participatory action research' (McTaggart, 1994). These approaches are all slightly different but each bears a strong family resemblance to the others.

The methodology used in the action research in this thesis relies heavily on the work of Erickson. Erickson uses the term 'interpretive' to refer to the whole system of approaches to participatory observational research. From Erickson's point of view, "the primary significance of interpretive approaches to research on teaching concerns issues of content rather than issues of procedure."

> What professional interpretive researchers do is to make use of the ordinary skills of observation and reflection in especially systematic and deliberate ways. Classroom teachers can do this as well, by reflecting on their own practice (Erickson, 1986, p. 157).

The interpretive perspective involves:

a) intensive long-term participation in a field setting;
b) careful recording of what happens in the setting by writing field notes and collecting other documentary evidence (e.g., memos, records, examples of student work, audiotapes, videotapes, teacher and student diary-keeping, teacher-student discussions about classroom practices, closed and open questionnaires, triangulation); and
c) subsequent analytic reflection on the documentary record obtained in the field and reporting by means of detailed descriptions, using narrative vignettes and direct quotes from interviews as well as by more general descriptions in the form of analytic charts, summary tables, and descriptive statistics (Erickson, 1986).

This methodology seeks to replace the scientific notions of explanation, prediction, and control, with the interpretive notions of understanding, meaning, and action (Carr & Kemmis, 1986).

> A central task for interpretive, participant-observational research on teaching is to enable researchers and practitioners to become much more specific in their understanding of the inherent variation from classroom to classroom. This means building better theory about the social and cognitive organization of particular forms of classroom life as immediate environments for student learning (Erickson, 1986, p. 133).

Using the interpretive method, information is collected in the usual naturalistic research ways, for example, participant observational, interview, the compilation of field notes, logs, document analysis, etc. Validation is accomplished by a variety of methods including triangulation, co-authorship, participant confirmation, and by testing the coherence of arguments being presented (McTaggart, 1994).

The literature on action research gives several methods of collecting interpretive data. In particular, Erickson (1986) states the following,

> The narrative vignette is a vivid portrayal of the conduct of an event of everyday life, in which the sights and sounds of what was said and done are described in the natural sequence of their occurrences in real time. The movement-to-movement style of description in a narrative vignette gives the reader a sense of being there in the scene (pp. 149-150).
>
> Direct quotes: These quotes may come from formal interviews, from more informal talks...from field notes...or from transcriptions of audiotapes or videotapes made in the classrooms (pp. 150-151).
>
> The conduct of interpersonal research on teaching involves intense and ideally long-term participant observation in an educational setting, followed by deliberate and long-term reflection on what was seen there. That reflection entails the observer's deliberate scrutiny of his or her own interpretive point of view, and of its source in formal theory, culturally learned ways of seeing, and personal value commitments. As the participant observer learns more about the world out there he or she learns more about himself or herself (p. 156).

Action research concepts were used in this thesis because they constituted an approach to improve education by changing it and learning from the consequences of those changes. In particular, action research concepts were used to investigate the practical issue of teaching global mindedness to Grade 9 students. And the data was collected using interpretive, participant-observational research methodology - particularly writings from journals and interviews. "In the context of classroom action research, a sample of pupils should be interviewed frequently" (Elliott, 1991, p. 80).

In this sense, Chapter IV will present a 'case study' of "Planning and Teaching the Model U.N. Course." Chapter IV will explain:

1) how my 'general idea' evolved over time;
2) how my understanding of the problem evolved over time;
3) how ethical problems were resolved;
4) what action steps were undertaken in the light of my changing understanding of the situation;

5) the extent to which proposed actions were implemented and how I coped with the implementation problems;
6) intended and unintended effects of my actions and explanations of why they occurred;
7) techniques I selected to gather information about:
    a. the problem situation and its causes,
    b. actions undertaken and their effects; and
8) problems I encountered in using certain techniques and how they were resolved.

> It is process rather than product data which forms the basis of evaluations of teaching. And a major source of that data will be the students themselves: their accounts of the respects in which teaching enables or constrains the development of their powers in relation to the things which matter (Elliott, 1991, p. 10).

Since the manifestation of "global mindedness" can be described and judged but not standardized and measured, Chapter V will describe and judge the "success" of the program using the students' own words and reflections.

In conclusion, action research is directly linked to this thesis because the purpose was to 'teach global education at the Grade 9 level by means of a Model United Nations Project'. A very effective method to ascertain whether this goal was accomplished is through teacher-directed activities, reflection, and action research techniques.

E. The Model United Nations Movement:

The idea of teaching about the United Nations is far from new or novel. When the United Nations was established in 1945, the original 51 Member States recognized the important role education would play in fostering public support of the UN's purposes and principles. Many believed that a lasting and secure peace could not be based on political and economic relations among governments alone, but must also include the energetic support of the peoples of the world.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was formed in 1946 to be a framework to promote collaboration among nations through education, science, culture, and communication. In the early years of the post-World War II period, many educators around the world enthusiastically embraced this exciting mission.

However, the onset of the Cold War made it difficult to continue the enthusiasm. As a result, North American schools have done relatively little to instruct students about the United Nations. The omission of the United Nations from most curriculum and teaching guides has created a generation of citizens who have only a slight understanding of what the UN is and how it works.

With the United Nations in the news almost daily as the world struggles to construct a "new world order," students are increasingly conscious of the new, more active role of the UN in international affairs. But this consciousness is only slowly being put into context through school instruction. Fortunately, since the recent end of the Cold War, two United Nations Organizations, UNA-USA and UNA-Canada, have taken the lead in producing instructional materials and providing guidance about the UN within the education profession. This thesis will hopefully be added to the list of materials to be used by educators. It is hoped that this thesis will provide guidance and support to educators who want to bring the United Nations into their classroom and school.

The education profession now faces a particular challenge in these years leading up to the millennium. The United Nations will only realize its promise "to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war" when educators succeed in teaching their students about what the UN is, how it works, and also about global mindedness.

This thesis is another effort to meet the original challenge posed in the preamble of UNESCO's Constitution - "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed."

F. Confusion between International and Global Education Definitions:

One of the most challenging aspects of writing the thesis was the difficulty in finding a succinct definition for "global education." It was difficult because historically the terminology has changed and evolved with the times. Up until the late 1970s, the phrase 'international education' was used to include a variety of objectives. For example, according to UNESCO (1974), international education was regarded as comprising:

1) Cultural Education (international understanding and cooperation, empathy, and the ability to understand and appreciate another's viewpoint);
2) Development Education (awareness of world problems and a stance of active cooperation with developing countries);
3) Human Rights Education (respect of human rights and values);
4) Environment Education (looking at environmental problems and protection); and
5) Equality Education (develop equality between the sexes, age groups, social classes, different religious groups, and different nations).

In a broad sense, it was an education of values. However, these were not the only categories. There was also Education for International Understanding, Global Issues Education, Multicultural Education, and Multicultural Studies. And this list is not exhaustive.

There are also other problems when attempting to present one all-encompassing definition. For example, how does international

education relate to peace education? Some scholars have described international education either as a sub-area of peace education or as a concept parallel to it with overlapping content.

Nevertheless, an attempt at consistency will be presented. Historically (pre-1970s), the term international education will be used to discuss the various movements and ideas as they arose throughout the world.

After the 1970s, the term global education came into widespread use. During the 1970s, a movement to globalize secondary and elementary curricula began in response to increasing intercultural awareness and contact among the world's people. This movement was called global education. Its goal was to promote the development of a "global perspective" in children throughout their twelve years of formal instruction. The term global education refers to efforts to cultivate in young people a perspective of the world which emphasizes the interconnectedness among cultures, species, and the planet (or "global mindedness").

To summarize, the following pages will explain the development of the term "international education" from a general, all-encompassing definition into its recent, more specific definition of "global education."

> In professional books and papers, international education is a term of several meanings and indefinite scope (Good, 1963, p. 554).
>
> Global education is probably one of the more ambiguous innovations of the 20th century (Merryfield, 1991, p. 12).

Trying to find a concise, practical, and agreed upon definition of international or global education in the current literature is just about as difficult as finding a cure for the common cold. Nevertheless, a working definition of global education is essential in order to understand the object of such teaching, to know how to reach these goals, and to understand its implications for curriculum.

Since this thesis investigates the effectiveness of a Model U.N. course as a practical vehicle for global education, it is of paramount importance to agree on the terms used. In that way, a meaningful discussion can ensue regarding the merits of using a Model United Nations simulation to increase students' global mindedness.

Good's statement, quoted at the beginning of this section, was written in 1963 and since then the problem of finding an appropriate definition for the term(s) international/global education has become even more difficult (as echoed by Merryfield). Reasons for the difficulty are two-fold.

a) The first problem is that during the 20th century the term "international education" has been used by different groups/ writers to promote their own particular aims.
b) The second problem is one of confusion. There is confusion because of the closeness and similarity between the terms <u>international</u> education and <u>global</u> education.

The latter problem is compounded because the definition and terminology of both "types" of education have been used interchangeably. (During a brief period in the 1980s there was even an additional term: global perspectives education. But it has since passed out of favour.)

> The issue of definition continues to baffle both the proponents of the field and the uninitiated alike, surfacing over and over again in surveys of the related literature. Even the designation of the field is disputed. Some continue to use the traditionally and generally more limited term of 'international education' with or without recognizing the discrepancy with what others call 'global education' and still others refer to it as education for a 'global perspective' (Kobus, 1983, p. 21).

This problem of confusing terminology will be dealt with in greater depth later on. First, though, an investigation of the various aims of international education advocates will be undertaken.

In this century, different groups have used the term 'international education' to describe and promote their own particular interests. Basically, these interests can be subdivided among three categories:

a) political aims - further subdivided between:
   i) pro-nationalist and
   ii) anti-nationalist;
b) private aims; and
c) public aims.

Historically, political definitions of international education have been based on an ideology expressed through an "-ism." Examples would be: Communism, Socialism, unionism, imperialism, Catholicism, Capitalism, and internationalism. These ideologies preached their international ideas as a doctrine; the ideas were something prescribed. They were a stated political aim. These groups tried to educate peoples by spreading their ideas internationally. They also believed that their ideas were of universal interest and should be acted on universally. Hence, they called themselves international educators.

International education for political aims was directed by the agent (or teacher) and was imposed upon the learners (or students). They did not seek it; it sought them. This contrasts with the newer ideas of global education, which requires students to become participants in their own education. Using the newer ideas, the students are the seekers and they are free to choose. But more on this later.

Still another group of advocates promoted international education for private, monetary reasons. These were the supporters and users of the International School System. This group of international educators used the term in their advertising literature for purposes of profit. Although it is true that private universities and schools have been around for centuries, it has only been with the recent rapid growth of international

companies and the advent of mass transportation since World War II, that this sector has grown to its present size. Today, there are approximately 400 International Schools (K-12) around the world and many hundreds of colleges catering to mobile families. Their purpose is to provide an American/British education for expatriates living around the globe. In addition, there are uncountable language institutes advertising themselves as giving an "international" (read: English language) outlook and education.

These two international education aims, political and private, will not be discussed further in this paper. Instead the definitions of international/global education with regard to the public school system will be investigated. Historically, however, the political and private definitions of international education are relevant since they have influenced how we look at the term(s) today. And it is useful to study how those ideas have developed. However, the following pages will be specifically concerned with how ideas of international education have evolved into the concept of global education and their relevance for the North American public school system today.

The difficulty of trying to come to a consensus regarding what the aims of global education in the North American public school systems should be, is compounded by the fact that different states, provinces, and countries vary widely in their definitions of curriculum. For example, areas with large immigrant populations tend to pay more attention to international education concepts whereas areas with small immigrant populations may not have developed the same level of awareness. These variations, coupled with the local autonomy of many school districts to set curriculum standards, makes it difficult to generalize across regions about international education. A second difficulty is that...

> Although some European countries have made strong beginnings in it, global education, unfortunately, has been generally slow to develop in Canada, even

> though...global education can be especially beneficial in a multicultural society like Canada. In the United States, ...most educators support global education, but they disagree on its content and purposes (de Luna, 1989, p. 4).

Given this confusing state of affairs, it is possible to make some generalizations concerning the development of an international education definition. These stem from the growing realization in this century that the world was interconnected in ways not thought possible before. World events contributed to this change. To begin, we have World War I and World War II, which were called "world" wars. In addition, there were the attempts at making international governing bodies such as the League of Nations and the United Nations. Also, after 1918 and especially after 1945, it was difficult to deny that the world was one interconnected system. In this regard, the A-bomb, the H-bomb, and the ICBM were crucial. We now had the technology to make the world uninhabitable - and no one was safe. These realizations added to the growing awareness that the world only made sense globally.

In addition, continuing with this theme of interconnectedness, by the 1960s it was increasingly obvious that environmental and other problems could only be conceptualized globally. Understandably, then, people began to think of education in global terms - especially after the problems of the "3rd"/developing world became obvious.

Lastly, the idea of interconnectedness gained credence because of:

(1) the combination of the Cold War (US - USSR rivalry to dominate the globe; even local disputes assumed a global significance),
(2) multi-national corporations, and
(3) the media, which had a lot to do with the rise of global thinking (TV especially brought the world right into our living room).

Over the years, the above ideas led groups of educators (Anderson, 1968; Hanvey, 1979; and Becker, 1982, naming just a few) to the realization that the world only made sense globally. And so, educators attempted to translate this relatively new concept of interconnectedness into the curriculum. Discussions of global issues became prominent when changes in human culture began to have effects that were transcending national and regional boundaries. "The challenge of educating for a global perspective became a mainstream concern in the '60s and '70s, when visionary thinkers, best-selling books, and unexpected events alerted the American public to the implications of global interdependence" (Tucker & Cistone, 1991, p. 3).

To this end, in the public school system up to the mid-1970s, there were five broadly recognized sub-divisions or fields of international education teaching/pedagogy. They all shared the goal of helping to shape the development of young people; albeit with a somewhat different emphasis.

1) World Studies & Foreign Language(s) Study;
2) Multicultural & Intercultural Education;
3) International Relations;
4) International Development Studies; and
5) Global Issues Education.

Each of these in their turn, will be more fully described.

1) Traditionally, most schools have defined international education as the study of foreign nations or regions. Especially in junior high and secondary schools, courses such as the following were found: "World Cultures," "Japan Today," or "Africa." In these world study courses, there was a hodge-podge of content. The courses resembled a Chinese menu. Take one selection from geography, one from history, another from customs and culture, economics or religion, choose something from politics, and perhaps add the study of a foreign language(s). Presto - international education!

Another limitation with world history courses was that they tended to give students a particular outlook - their country's own. This outlook led to an interpretation of events and situations in other parts of the world that centered primarily on how those parts of the world influenced the position of one's own country. Rarely was the reverse true. This narrow outlook tended to overvalue one's own culture and interests as it simultaneously undervalued the cultures and interests of other peoples. (It also is one of the basic obstacles to world peace.)

2) At the same time, multicultural and intercultural education were both deemed to also cover the stated aim of giving students an international education. Specifically, it was said that multicultural education provided the student with an appreciation of other cultures. Particularly in Canada, multicultural education grew from the ethnic diversity of our society and an appreciation of our various racial and ethnic communities.

Similarly, intercultural education focused on an appreciation of diversity and sought to:

a) eliminate prejudice and stereotyping,
b) build mutually beneficial understanding and interaction,
c) and resolve conflicts and tensions among ethic and racial groups.

Examples of this would be school units on: "appreciating differences" or "understanding racial diversity."

3) International relations studies were closely linked to the political science community, to the foreign policy structures of the nation, and to concerns regarding world order and conflict. There has been a great diversity of approach among scholars and teachers in this field.

a. Some have tried to develop citizen/student support for a country's particular foreign policies and attitudes towards the rest of the world.

b. Another view sought to develop discussion and reflection of what should be a country's foreign policy toward particular issues.

c. Still another stance was that the crisis of global conflict (war and peace, threat of nuclear war, and depletion of resources) were so pressing that students needed to be exposed to these problems so that "something" could be done.

4) International development education was a fourth approach to international education. Typically, this approach assumed an interdependence among the world's economies, politics, and societies. This approach believed that young people needed to better understand their global interdependence, with regard to such issues as food, energy, and population in the world of the late twentieth century.

5) On the other hand, global issues courses focused on the nature and characteristics of foreign cultures rather than the large supranational issues of population, energy, environment, war and peace, human rights, law of the sea, etc. For the most part, these global issues courses did not encourage political involvement advocated by development educators.

Rather, global issues courses defined international education as teaching and learning about world-wide topics. It was felt every nation and person should understand these international topics in order to act as intelligent citizens in the contemporary and future world. (This area was the closest to the modern-day definition of global education.)

Up to the mid-1970s, there was a general consensus in the public school systems of North America regarding what international education courses entailed. (It should be noted here that there was a vocal minority, especially in the USA, who viewed international/global education as far too liberal, even leftist, and as unpatriotic.) In the main though, supporters of

international education would have agreed with the following statement:

> International education has been used to refer variously to curriculum content that deals with other countries and societies, with international relations among countries, exchange of students between countries, assistance to other countries for educational development, training of specialists for diplomatic and other international work, cultural relations programs between nations, and the general informing of the public on world affairs (Griffen & Spence, 1970, p. 1).

This agreement was echoed in Europe. There the UNESCO term "education for international understanding" was used. This general orientation included courses in world studies but more usually encompassed initiatives in development education and multicultural education, and to a lesser extent in political education and environmental education (O'Connor, 1982). Traditionally, international education referred to courses or programs such as area studies, languages, and specific international topics (Bruce et. al., 1991).

But then beginning in the late 1970s, educators became concerned with this "5-pronged" or compartmentalized approach. Entire journal issues were devoted to stressing the need for educators to implement focussed global education ideas in the classrooms. For example, Theory into Practice (1982, v 21, n 3), Educational Research Quarterly (1983, v 8, n 1), The ATA Magazine (1989, v 69, n 4), and Education Forum (1991, v 17, n 3).

Prominent critics such as Becker (1980, 1982), Anderson (1982), Hanvey (1982), Tye (1983), and Kniep (1986), began to call for a new and more integrated approach in order to develop "global mindedness." They wanted a holistic approach to give students an understanding of themselves and their relationship to the world community. These proponents of global education believed that it should permeate the curriculum, not simply be added to it. They wanted the public schools to teach education with a global perspective. They wanted more than international education; they wanted global education leading to the development of a global

consciousness. Terms such as 'global village' (McLuhan 1964), 'spaceship earth' (Fuller, 1970) and 'think globally, act locally' (Ward & Dubois, 1972) were used. They called for a distinction between international and global education. They wanted a distinction such as this:

> International education is based on the study of various geographical and cultural areas of the world: global education incorporates this content but views world areas as parts of larger, interacting, interdependent systems expressed and studied through global issues (Kobus, 1983, p. 21).

Stated another way - international education dealt with single subjects. Global education asked for development in multidisciplinary ways.

What distinguishes global education is its emphasis on seeing the world as interdependent political, economic, environmental, and social systems. Or, stated another way, global education is not a subject but a concept - a way of looking at the world. Kobus (1983), in a review of literature pertinent to global perspectives in education, noted that the concept of interdependence was central to global education. And so, global education in the public school system, with its historical roots in international studies, began to grow and develop.

> In 1985, the then Rector of the United Nations University in Tokyo, Soedjatmoko, coined the expression 'global education'. In this term, 'global' has a double meaning, referring both to the world as a whole and to the learning strategy of a cross-disciplinary character by means of which problems are researched and studied (Rampaul, 1991, p. 2974).

The evolution in terminology from international education to global education was a slow process. "A number of factors led to the development and use of the term 'global education' instead of international affairs, studies, understanding, or exchange" (Otero, 1983, p. 96). First of all, beginning in the mid-1970s, there were numerous pronouncements made regarding the need for 'global' education. Among the more widely circulated and cited ones were the:

1) 1972 International Commission on the Development of Education;
2) 1974 UNESCO pronouncement on global education, entitled "Recommendations Concerning Education for International Understanding, Cooperation, and Peace and Education Relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms";
3) U.S. Commissioner of Education's Task Force on Global Education, Report with Recommendations;
4) 1979 Strength through Wisdom Report to the U.S. President from the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies;
5) 1980 Brandt Commission Report, "North-South," which stated there is a need for wealthy nations to move beyond self-interest and develop a sense of commitment to and solidarity with the less fortunate of the globe;
6) 1987 Brundtland Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development entitled: "Our Common Future", and recently
7) Ramphal's books on global governance, "Our Global Neighbourhood" and "The Report of the Commission on Global Governance" and "One World to Share" and "Our Country, the PLanet."

A second factor contributing to the acceptance of the term global education was its emphasis on change and adaptation. According to Kniep (1985), the growing demand for a global education grew out of the "critical need to prepare young people for citizenship in a world filled with pluralism, interdependence, and change" (p. 17). Stated another way - education mirrors society, and the society it mirrors in contemporary times is a transnationalized society. According to L. Anderson (1979), global education was a social movement within education in contrast to being a specific domain of education. Global education was becoming an educational reform movement. It was talking about the concepts of interdependence, interrelatedness, community, biocentrism, and systems thinking.

A third factor encouraging the growth of global education ideas throughout the 1980s was that there were various groups pressing schools to globalize. This pressure was articulated by at least five overlapping groups:

1) conservatives concerned that education meet the manpower needs of the nation's corporate and political elite;
2) liberals concerned about education for citizenship and individual self-development in a changing world;
3) radicals concerned about education for social change;
4) parents concerned about educating their children and grandchildren for self-survival; and
5) educators concerned about providing the successor generations with a high quality basic education, (Anderson, 1982, p. 160).

A last reason for the development of a difference between international education and global education concerned the debate: Who is it that should be studied. That is, who is assumed to make up the international system? The answer to this question represented one image or view of what the world is like. On the one hand, international education advanced the state-centric approach, (Koehane & Nye, 1971). Adherents held that the world could be treated as a collection of nation-states represented by national governments (similar to the pro-nationalist stance taken by political internationalists).

On the other hand, adherents to a newer approach, the global system or transnational approach, held that in order to understand how the world worked, it was necessary to look beyond the nation state, (Mansbach et. al., 1976). The global system should be seen as a diverse mixture of people, organizations, and governments, similar only in that each made independent decisions about international affairs and was engaged in activities whose impact was felt in more than one country.

As an example, the Club of Rome ignited a global controversy regarding the rapid depletion of the world's non-renewable resources. "The Club of Rome used the phrase 'the world problematique' to describe the sudden realization of a world as a global system with complex problems and no apparent solutions" (Botkin et. al., 1979, p. 8). "This realization marks a major turning point in human history" (Tucker, 1982, p. 213).

And so an accumulation of the above factors led to the movement toward global education in the public school system. As world events changed the public awareness, global education pedagogy began to take shape. By the mid-1980s, statements such as the following were being made:

> In an interrelated world wherein our survival and well-being is intimately related to our capacity to understand and deal responsibly and effectively with other peoples and nations and with a host of international issues, global studies can be viewed as a basic education (Becker, 1982, pp. 229-230).

This brings us back to the original problem of confusion between the two terms - international vs. global education. Two crucial factors which differentiate the new global approach from traditional piecemeal approaches to international education are that:

a) the global perspective integrates and unites efforts throughout the school. It is a blend of many things; and
b) the range of efforts to achieve that global perspective is broad, encompassing the entire curriculum and extracurricular and co-curricular activities as well.

Or, "What is unique about global education is its substantive focus, drawn from a world increasingly characterized by pluralism, interdependence, and change" (Kniep, 1985, p. 17).

Advocates say that global education teaches students knowledge of: citizenship, multiculturalism, democracy, human rights, and ecological/environmental awareness. They say that global

education helps prepare students to make informed choices in the future. Global education stresses the mutual interdependence of the above.

Furthermore, as stated earlier, global education is also a reform movement. It seeks to alter schools and universities in ways that provide students with the basic intellectual competencies needed to deal effectively and responsibly with the two realities of modern life:

1) we live in an increasingly globalized society, and
2) we live in a world that is becoming increasingly interconnected and interdependent as a consequence of the growth of worldwide ecological, economic, political, cultural, and technological systems.

Unfortunately, the evolution of a clear, concise global education definition has not been linear. The following quotation illustrates the difficulty of reviewing the literature in this area.

> International education is...interdisciplinary and multi-cultural, concerned to understand world affairs in their totality - political, economic, and social no less than educational. It is more than a cataloguing of differing systems: it is a reach for practical solutions of global problems (Melvin, 1970, p. 20).

The above quotation, written in 1970, highlights the similarities between the two terms. In order to separate this confusion of terminology, the historical perspective section of this thesis, Chapter II, will discuss the development of international education ideas up to 1970 since that roughly corresponds to the time period the term was used in the literature. Then, later chapters in this thesis will use the term global education. This will alleviate the problem of writing international/global education throughout the thesis.

However, this date of 1970 is artificial since there is still a problem with agreement between the two terms. As recently as 1993, it was possible to find a quotation such as the following:

> Although it appears that there is a growing awareness for the need to infuse a global approach into education, it also appears that there is some misunderstanding among practicing teachers as to the definition of exactly what global education means, where it can be infused into the curriculum, and how global concepts can be taught (Starr, 1993, p. 12).

Nonetheless, quotations such as the above were and are few and far between. Instead, there appears to be agreement that today's modern definition of global education is a broad synthesis of several historical movements:

1) Enlightenment ideas;
2) religious ideas;
3) socialism/trade union movement ideas;
4) comparative education: looking at different systems for ways to improve our own;
5) global issues education;
6) peace education: right of dissent, right to freedom of conscience, respect for the non-violent resolution of conflict, and a commitment to achieving racial and religious harmony, gender equality, and social and economic justice for all;
7) comparative education;
8) environmental education;
9) human rights education;
10) citizenship education; and
11) the "world order studies" approach of Richard Falk and his colleagues.

> Each initiative has tried to influence the education system by setting up teachers' networks, publicizing examples of noteworthy practice, and making available good classroom resources. In response to this proliferation of 'educations', there has also been important developments aimed at clustering them all under a more inclusive title such as...'global education' (Greig, Pike, & Selby, 1998, p.23).

In addition to agreement on using one term, within the past decade, advocates have achieved a wide degree of agreement on the pedagogical aims of a global education. Approaches to global education are rich and varied but share a common, consistent element; namely, all seek to promote what has come to be called "global mindedness." For the purposes of this thesis, global mindedness will be defined as: "The enhancement of students' understanding of peoples, places, and cultures throughout the world."

According to the leading conceptualizers in the field, Robert Hanvey (1979) and Lee Anderson (1979), both of whom built on the ideas of Becker (1974), this global mindedness has five dimensions:

1) An awareness that one's view of the world is not shared universally. Or, an awareness that others have views of the world that are profoundly different from one's own. Hanvey has called this "perspective consciousness."
2) An understanding of prevailing world conditions and development; e.g. population growth, migration, economic conditions, resources and physical environment, political development, science and technology, law, health, etc. A global education helps students see themselves within the global economy. Hanvey calls this "state of the planet" awareness.
3) A cross-cultural awareness that recognizes both the similarities and differences between cultures (a.k.a. the quality of 'humanness').
4) A knowledge of global dynamics and systems. We are all interconnected and what we do in one country affects others in another country - or, an emphasis on interdependence. A subsection here is a greater appreciation of our dependence on the world.
5) A broader definition of the word "citizenship." There is an urgent need today to extend the meaning of the word

> citizen to include not only the nation, but the whole world. Global educators want to develop in students a concept and sense of a global identity and interdependence with their national identity.

Here are some additional quotations to help clarify the post-1980s definition of global education.

> Students need to acquire the ability to be participating citizens within the global system, by: (1) becoming competent decision makers and (2) being able to identify and effectively pursue alternative routes of action (Lee Anderson, 1982, p. 172).

> To stress that world affairs are marked by growing interdependence is not to imply that heretofore individuals and groups were self-sufficient and independent. People have always been interdependent. The tendency to rely on others for basic services that sustain life is as old as human history itself. What is new about interdependence is the global scale on which it is presently unfolding (Rosenau, 1983, pp. 29-30).

Today, global educators are trying to provide a perspective on the entire world system. Global educators are aware that a student with a vision limited to just one nation or culture cannot hope to cope with the new economic and political realities of the interrelated global system. These constructs of interdependence and multiple perspectives of reality are consistently identified in the literature as central to global education. As an example of the growing popularity of global education concepts, in Canada,

> [s]ince 1987, eight provinces have initiated programs in global education. These projects have been organized by the teacher federations or unions and are overseen by advisory boards comprising representations of the ministries of education, non-government organizations, trustees, educational administers, CIDA, and the federations (Lyons, 1991, p. 206).

Because the new world system requires a sound background in fundamental skills of communication, computation, and analysis, global educators believe that such skills should be stressed in every part of the curriculum. The global educator knows, as H.G. Wells (1921) noted, that history is "more and more a race between education and catastrophe," and that today's school would be

ineffective and remiss unless at the heart of the curriculum there was a global perspective of reality.

> Global consciousness is growing inside educational institutions as well as outside schools and universities. Global studies or global education is now a respectable field of study (Thomas, 1985, p. 188).

Teaching from a perspective of global education recognizes the interdependence of world affairs and the need to be prepared to deal economically, politically, and socially with a variety of cultures, persons, and nations. Becker (1981) viewed the concept of global education as "an effort to help individuals to see the world as a single and global system and to see themselves as participants of that system" (p. 1).

> Furthermore, if the purpose of global education is to be realized, students must perceive the world as a global system and see themselves as participants in that system. However, before this will occur, schools must provide students with the opportunity to gain background information needed to understand issues throughout the world and help them to develop a values system that will promote an acceptance of ideas, beliefs, values, and customs different from their own (Evans, 1987, p. 547).

To summarize, then, this thesis includes the following characteristics in its definition of global education: a global education perspective in the public school system would involve:

1. seeing the world as interdependent political, economic, environmental, and social systems;
2. an awareness that there are other different (yet equally valid) views on important world problems from one's own; and
3. an emphasis on teaching the above in an integrated approach in the school system.

There are several methods of giving students this perspective. This thesis contends that a Model United Nations course is one way to accomplish this goal.

In conclusion, no one should make the claim of being educated until he or she has learned to live in harmony with people who are different. Global education attempts to give students this perspective.

Chapter II of the thesis begins with a literature review describing the historical development of international education in the public school system, in Canada, and elsewhere. Historically, public education has had a national focus, not an international or global one. This national focus will be explained, as well as the reasons for the gradual, historical transition towards more international education ideas and understanding.

In addition, Chapter II will demonstrate how, over the past 100 years, the world has been slowly moving towards a global concept of citizenship. More and more around the world today, problems are being addressed in terms of needing cooperation to solve them, whereas in the past, problems were viewed from a nationalistic point of view. These points are more fully developed by using the League of Nations and the United Nations as examples of this transition. Finally, this chapter will also have a section expanding on the development of the term "global education" since the 1970s.

Next, in Chapter III, the thesis will detail how a course using the United Nations as the principal content fits into the concept of preparing students to be global citizens for the future. In their preparation for the simulation, the students have opportunities to "take charge" of their own learning. Overwhelmingly, recent research has demonstrated that if content is seen as relevant, then students will actively participate and learn. This chapter details other aspects of a Model U.N. that makes it a perfect "fit" for helping students learn to become active learners.

For example, the Model U.N. has these aspects to it:

1) research component;
2) role-playing;
3) public speaking;
4) debating; and
5) current events.

Then, Chapter IV will describe the methods of data collection and analysis. It will also elaborate the course content and the lesson plans used. In addition, there will be some collection of data (for example, samples will be gathered using classroom observations, journals, surveys, student questionnaires, and pre- & post- tests). In particular, students will be interviewed at the end of the semester to determine what conclusions they now have regarding global mindedness. By using observations and an exit-interview, both my views and those of the students will be presented.

In this respect, the evaluation will be summative - that is, it will document the extent to which the project question been answered. However, it will also be formative because it will suggest possibilities for future improvement as well as questions for further research.

Finally, Chapter V will discuss the results of the findings.

CHAPTER II: Historical Review of International Education - 1880 to 1980 -

---

Chapter overview:

Today, global education is a phrase commonly used in Winnipeg schools. However, this was not always the case. As a matter of fact, the growth of international/global education ideas was a long, slow, and painful process.

When these ideas first appeared in the late nineteenth century, they were met with at the least apathy, and at the worst, derision. However, during the course of the twentieth century, global education ideas began to become more and more current and in the mainstream, until, they are quite accepted today as a natural addition to school curricula.

This chapter will detail the progression of international/global concepts from the periphery of educational pedagogy to the mainstream position it holds today.

> What experience and history teach is this - that people and governments never have learned anything from history, or acted on principles deduced from it.

This depressing quotation was written by Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel, the 'father' of modern philosophy of history, in the introduction to his book: Philosophy of History. Even though Hegel wrote this statement in 1832, it has implications for us today. After all, this century has witnessed the ravages of two major world wars, plus several large regional conflicts (Korea, Vietnam, the Middle East, and others), and untold minor military outbreaks.

How can we break the cycle as described by Hegel? It is one of the intentions of this chapter to present reasons why the cycle has persisted until quite recently and to also present some

possible ways to counter the cycle. Ideas will be presented on two major avenues; specifically, Hegel's cycle can be broken:

a) through international organizations such as the United Nations,
b) and through international/global education ideas, such as educating the world's children to become global minded.

If we were to take at face value what Hegel said and apply it to today, then two questions become obvious:

1) Why have many nations around the world not learned anything from history?
2) Why is it that nations have had difficulty acting on principles deduced from history?

What are the answers? It would seem that historically, governments have not been learning from their mistakes. Governments have, for the most part, ignored voices of reason speaking for tolerance, cooperation, vision, community, and international ideas. This begs the question: Why? In a review of the last hundred years, a common theme becomes apparent; namely that internationalist ideas, such as collaboration between nations, have been ignored while the ideas of nationalism have remained preponderant. Overall, a historical review shows that proponents of international ideas have argued unsuccessfully against the entrenched ideas of nationalism.

For much of this century, proponents of internationalism have unsuccessfully tried to find ways to break Hegel's cycle. For many years, advocates of internationalist concepts unsuccessfully tried to present one possible answer - through education.

Over the years, proponents of internationalism would eventually come to be termed "international educators" because they spoke about the need to move issues of international education from the periphery to the centre of the curriculum. However, they were

ineffective in trying to reform the entire educational enterprise so that it became a vehicle for change.

While it is readily apparent that education cannot solve all the world's problems, international education advocates have argued that it can create a climate of opinion, so that nations and peoples would work cooperatively to implement solutions to common concerns. Clearly, such goals, if they were to be achieved, would have to be part of a long-term, slow process that involved parents, teachers, and school board members on the local level and required also the political will to achieve such goals on the national level. Unfortunately, only recently have these values been expressed by a significant number of citizens in countries around the world.

In the past, the will to cooperate internationally was not present. Countries have largely attempted to meet international problems such as illiteracy, colonialism, aggressive nationalism, deforestation, global warming, depletion of the ozone layer, nuclear proliferation, and violations of human rights (to name just a few), within their own borders. Historically, nations operated by themselves. However, today it is readily apparent that isolationism will not work. International education reformers point out that today's problems are of too great a magnitude. What is needed at the very least, is international cooperation among governments if these global problems are going to be solved.

Instead, this litany of common global problems has continually been met by failures and mistakes by national governments. A survey of the past 100 years shows countries, for the most part, attempting to deal with the problems individually rather than cooperatively - with well-documented results. These recurring international problems have tended to support Hegel's view. We seem to have learned from our mistakes so well that we can repeat them exactly.

Apparently, people and governments have indeed repeated the same mistakes during the past 100 years. The early 20th century conception of international order held that the "nation-state was primary," and so other ideas fell on deaf ears. During this time-period, the first law in politics was survival, and the second, security. Other ideas, such as international education ones, took a back seat.

In addition to Hegel's statement, a second paradox for a reviewer is that, surpisingly, national governments have at times attempted to implement international education ideas to address the aforementioned problems (e.g.; the League of Nations, the United Nations, the European Community, and international organizations such as NATO, GATT, etc.).

As a case in point, there are the contradictions in U.S. government policy during the 1960s. One trend was toward more democratization and toward providing more citizenship rights to all Americans as in the case of the federal government legislation resulting from both the civil rights movement and the women's movement. On the other hand, there was the trend toward American intervention and dominance in other parts of the world. Perhaps the most telling indictment of U.S. hegemony is the statement made by the unnamed American major who said of the village of Bentre, Vietnam, "It became necessary to destroy the town to save it."

In a number of areas, the first advocates of international education apparently made progress. During the first few decades of the 20th century, these reformers believed that by making improvements in school curricula, they could improve society. They also believed in pursuing international collaboration as a means of building a "new world" based on equality and fairness. At the very least, international educators wanted to develop the concept of a global civic culture using cooperation among sovereign nation-states. They wanted to humanize education and make it a force for political and social change. They felt it was

important to try to lead people to rethink their educational values in terms of the characteristics of another's society. International education advocates wanted to reform education and thereby the global society.

Specifically, these reformers wanted to place emphasis on solving world problems by giving priority to the following curriculum areas: citizenship, multiculturalism, democracy, human rights, peace education, and ecological/environmental awareness.

To this end, during the first two decades of the twentieth century, advocates for international education attempted to organize themselves and therefore can be considered the first wave of international educators. In almost all societies, grassroot movements took shape. In particular, various lobby groups in Western societies attempted to break the cycle put forth by Hegel. Following are some results of their attempts to change the direction of societies:

1) The Hague Peace Conferences of 1899 and 1907 were called to address questions of disarmament and international law. These two conferences represented an initial effort by European nations to control war on ethical/moral grounds by using a permanent Court of Arbitration;
2) international arbitration became popular as a means of settling international disputes (194 treaties had been signed with provisions for arbitration by 1914);
3) the field of comparative education was recognized: it included the following - comparative study, observation, and evaluation of various national education systems;
4) the creation of both the International Bureau of Education in Geneva (1925) and the Institut International de Cooperation Intellectuelle in Paris (1925) with the League of Nations; and
5) the founding of numerous peace movements. Before 1914, peace movements tried to shape public opinion. "They

devoted considerable time, money, and effort to producing and distributing leaflets, organizing discussion groups and debates, establishing magazines - and working in the schools" (Osborne, 1985, p. 34). Specific examples of peace movements in North America would be:

a) the formation of the Canadian Peace & Arbitration Society (1905); the first national secular peace organization in Canada;
b) the Lake Mohonk Conferences on International Arbitration (1904-15) where arbitration was hailed as the sure-fire remedy for all international ills;
c) the Canadian League for Peace and Democracy;
d) the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom; and
e) the formation of the American School Peace League (1907).

These examples illustrate the first stirrings of international education ideas at the start of this century. Obviously, though, these early efforts were not totally successful in internationalizing society.

To be blunt, the efforts of groups of international education advocates during the first three decades of this century were scattered and disunited. Basically, international education ideas were very much minority movements. The cold facts are that the few, early successes did not lead to societal change. A minority in society wanted change but the majority were resistant or indifferent to the ideas of educational reformers.

Apparently, Hegel's statement is true. Western nations did not learn from their earlier mistakes. As proof, Western societies in this century chose to enter into the two most destructive wars the world has ever seen. Unfortunately, for reform-minded individuals, the nation-state remained the preferred form of political organization.

There are several possible explanations for this state of affairs. For example, answers can be given in terms of a set of sub-beliefs:

1) the class system;
2) the ethnocentrism of the West;
3) the theory of Social Darwinism and naturalism;
4) the justifications given for war;
5) the lack of coordinating international organizations; and
6) the lack of unity and focus on the part of international education reformers.

However, probably the strongest and most consistent reason for the resistance to international education ideas was and is nationalism. The other explanations are "spin-offs" of nationalism.

> In the matter of the world's governments, and in the dealings between nation and nation, the greatest fact, the greatest force to be considered, is the spirit of nationality, patriotism, and nationalism (Jones & Sherman, p. 61, 1929).

Nation-states believed that the only way to safeguard their legitimacy and sovereignty was by encouraging nationalistic sentiment. Without a strong nationalistic stance, nation-states believed they would be vulnerable. And given the nature of the world at the time, they were probably correct. It could even be said that this nationalistic stance may have been necessary in the face of expansionism and aggression from other nation-states.

As shown above, there were some very powerful competing forces marshalled against the ideas of international education. Some of these were the result of the industrial war complex and war in general. As an example there is the 19th-century military strategist General von Clausewitz (1780-1831) who said, "War is diplomacy carried on by other means." In other words, Clausewitz saw war as a technically controlled, limited, politically calculated action, designed to win a national objective. In his

time, war was a necessary instrument of government policy. "In the popular mind, as in the military mind, wars were seen not as terrible evils to be deterred, but as necessary struggles to be fought and won" (Howard, 1991, p. 125).

To illustrate the majority view at the time, professional soldiers in 1914 shared common assumptions. "The first was that war was inevitable. The now much-quoted statement made by General Helmuth von Moltke in December 1912, 'I hold war to be inevitable, and the sooner the better,' can be paralleled with comparable expressions by responsible figures in every army in Europe" (Howard, 1991, p. 120). While other quotes may differ over the second part of the sentence (whether it was better to get it over with quickly or wait for a more favourable moment), from 1911 onward, it is hard to find any military leader suggesting that war could or should be avoided.

A majority of people viewed education as a major instrument of this nationalistic policy. And education, contrary to what international education advocates hoped for, was indeed used for the process of nation-building and furthering nationalistic aims. "Nationalism had to be disseminated and instilled. Since the young were impressionable and since the future of the nation rested in their hands, they had to be taught. Thus, schools became one of the key elements of nationalist policy" (Osborne, 1991, p. 21).

Citizens were 'trained', not to support a cooperative international outlook, but rather a national one. And the schools were assigned the job of promoting this nationalistic outlook. "Children were expected to learn their social and civic duty, to acquire a patriotic spirit, to be prepared for the occupations of life: to learn their place in life and to keep their place" (Osborne, 1988b, p. 1). National governments wanted passive, obedient citizens who would ask no questions.

> National attitudes, myths, beliefs, and perceptions had to be inculcated in the minds of the young, and during the nineteenth century school teachers throughout Europe and the United States saw it as their function to do precisely that: to plant in the minds of their pupils, ideas, myths, and attitudes which were specifically English, German, French, or American (Howard, 1991, p. 146).

Thus, the majority view during the first two decades of the twentieth century supported nationalism and not <u>inter</u>nationalism. The most commonly held belief was "My country, right or wrong!" Advocates of international education reform had little success arguing against this firmly-rooted belief. And while nationalism was certainly the most widely held belief, as stated earlier, there were also other important 'sub-beliefs' used to argue against the reformers.

In addition, the class system that existed within many countries nourished a further resistance to an international outlook. And historically, schools tended to support the social classes of the established order.

> Indeed, historians of education have shown us that one of the driving forces behind compulsory schooling was the concern of the powerful for social control. The British used to call it 'gentling the masses'. In Canada it was called responsible citizenship. Attendance at school was intended to promote in children the belief that all was for the best in the best of all possible worlds, and to show them how to keep it. Schools would civilize the potential trouble-makers and rebels and help the rich and powerful sleep soundly in their beds (Osborne, 1991, p. 3).

An ancillary reason why international cooperation was not considered as an alternative to nationalism was because there was a commonly held belief that only governments (either democratic or hereditary) knew enough to deal with problems of international and intercultural conflict. Citizens were for the most part passive, especially where international affairs were concerned.

These powerful beliefs (of nationalism, war, and social control) made it difficult for international education proponents to be heard.

The natural question which arises is: Where did these assumptions of class, snobbery, and preeminence come from? One simple answer is that Europeans had the impression that the West was and always had been superior to all other civilizations. Some historians have called this the problem of 'European chauvinism'. The 19th-century European dominance over the rest of the world was seen as natural and its continuance into the future as indefinite. As an illustration, "It was generally assumed in Britain at the turn of the century that the white races were inherently superior to the brown and the black and so had the right, indeed the duty, to govern them" (Howard, 1991, p. 63).

Even today, this idea of European predominance, or ethnocentrism, persists. For example, some textbooks manage to imply that while civilization may have started in Mesopotamia, it failed to improve the human condition until the Israelites and Greeks took over; in turn, they passed it on to the Romans and Christians and eventually to the northern Europeans, who brought it to North America and achieved the ultimate world hegemony in the form of the United States.

Overall, then, European governments and societies were not ready for a more international view between 1880 and 1920. Societies believed they were superior and were therefore unwilling to entertain ideas of international cooperation. Take, for example, the general reaction in most of the British press to the American conquest of the Philippines during the Spanish-American War which was well summed up in Kipling's poem: The White Man's Burden. The general British reaction was - and about time too!

Reactions such as this were consistent with the views of the Social Darwinists, that people competed for survival and that superior individuals, social groups, and races naturally become powerful and wealthy (World Book Encyclopedia, 1990, vol. 18, p. 551). This theory proposed that life was a struggle. And this struggle was good. It was good for several reasons:

1) it ensured supremacy of the fittest;
2) it weeded out the unfit and inferior; and
3) the struggle was ennobling since it involved sacrifice, heroism, and endurance,

Social Darwinists applied the idea of natural selection to society, attempting to explain differences in achievement and wealth among people and nations. According to the theory, individuals or groups competed with one another to survive. The principles of natural selection favoured the survival of the fittest members of society. Such individuals or groups adapted successfully to the social environment, while those that were unfit failed to do so. This theory attempted to use scientific research to predict human behavior and give moral credence to the superiority of the West.

An outgrowth of this philosophy was 'naturalism', championed by Herbert Spencer. Spencer argued that social life among humans also followed the survival of the fittest, a principle that explained the unequal distribution of personal, national, and corporate wealth in society. At the turn of the century this philosophy appeared to be consistent with a free-market capitalism and rugged individualism often assumed to be characteristically American.

These social philosophies (ethnocentrism, Social Darwinism, naturalism, and manifest destiny) while indeed powerful, are not enough by themselves to account for the preeminence of nationalism. In fact, there were other reasons for the historic lack of cooperation among nation-states. Along with the assumption of dominance, the nationalists gave "justifications" for war. For example, they said:

1) there was a biological basis for human warfare, since aggression was instinctive; alternatively,

2) violence was a learned behavior, a result of cultural and social conditions, arising from environmental stress and/or frustrations.

While it is true that these ideas have been used in the past as justification for aggressive nation-state behavior, international education advocates have presented another way to solve problems between nations, namely, reason, negotiation, and cooperation. This position assumes that a stable world peace is a problem of education and not a problem of biology or overcrowding. This is similar to Rousseau's argument that people are basically good but are corrupted by their environment. Reformers believed that violence was largely determined by social factors which could be changed through properly organized education. After all, for centuries society accepted slavery as inevitable. But slavery has been abolished. So it ought to be possible to change society in terms of its views on warfare, too.

Unfortunately for the first advocates of international education, they had many more battles to wage before a significant number of the world's citizens would consider accepting the idea of a 'global village' and deny justifications for war. And while there were many small victories during the first half of the twentieth century, there were many more defeats.

Another major factor hamstringing the reformers was that, prior to the 1920's, there was no international body coordinating international education, and very few coordinating anything else for that matter. The reformers lacked unity and a common focus. Because they were fragmented and because they were disunited, their efforts to change the minds of people were unsuccessful. National governments promoted national, not international, education. It was only after 1920 that the League of Nations had a Commission on International Cooperation. (Later, in 1946, there was the formation of UNESCO. However, UNESCO has no legal power and little respect from unaccommodating governments.) On almost

all fronts, the concept of working cooperatively among nations for a common goal was kept in the background. There was no united push or common effort to present these views to the masses in the most efficient way - through the education system.

The time period, 1880 to 1920, offers many illustrations of the paradoxical struggle between the ideas of international education reformers and the ideas of nationalism. To illustrate a few of the paradoxes:

1) It was the "hey-day" of nationalism and European ethnocentrism,
   while at the same time, some Europeans began thinking and talking about eliminating war as an instrument of national policy and replacing it with diplomacy and arbitration.
2) Concurrently, Europeans were rapidly expanding their domains in Africa and Asia using "gun-boat diplomacy."
3) Still, the Hague Peace Conferences, intended to outlaw war (1899 and 1904-1907), were held. (And the Kellogg-Briand Pact outlawing war would be signed in 1927.)
4) And yet, countries such as Germany, France, and Russia had made elaborate plans to invade each other prior to World War I.
5) Nevertheless, in the final analysis, there was a "world culture" developing as shown, for example, in the world fairs in Paris, London, and Chicago. During this time (1900-1920), the world was slowly moving towards more human contact and there was an increase in the concept of internationalism.

It is true that during the first decades of the 20th century, the world was indeed slowly moving toward more human contact. In Europe, before 1914...

> there was developing such a network of supranational relationships and institutions as to give hope to many that traditional divisions between countries would in the course of the twentieth century sink into

> insignificance. Not even the most pessimistic predicted that Europe was entering an 'era of violence'. Developments in five salient fields supported the belief that international cooperation would in time replace national isolation and competition. These areas were economic cooperation, the international labor movement, scientific and cultural cooperation, social legislation and humanitarianism, and the international peace movement (Hale, 1971, p. 16).

A concrete manifestation of the trend toward cooperation was the impressive number of international organizations that came into existence in the decades immediately preceding World War I. As noted by Hale, between 1900 and 1914 there were established 304 non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and thirteen governmental bodies. "The number of international congresses, organizations, and commissions founded between 1900 and 1914 is both impressive and significant" (Hale, 1971, p. 314). As a period it is unmatched in this respect by any comparable era in our society. Examples of these international organizations are:

1) International Institute of Agriculture (1908 - Rome);
2) International Office of Public Health (1907 - Paris);
3) International Labor Organization (1919);
4) Interparliamentary Union;
5) Institute of International Law; and the
6) establishment of the Nobel Peace Prize (1905).

Other concrete manifestations of change were the creation of the World Federation of Educational Associations in California in 1923 and the International Bureau of Education in Geneva (IBE) in 1926. And, in terms of international pedagogy, "by the end of the nineteenth century the comparing and teaching of foreign educational philosophies and practices had become an accepted part of education courses and various teacher-training programs at prominent universities and teacher colleges in the U.S." (Fraser, 1968, p. 22). All these examples led international education advocates to believe they were making change, slow change, yet change nonetheless.

Reformers felt change was occurring because many groups were striving for meaningful improvement in society. For example, there were anti-imperialist groups and even some churches trying to 'change the system'. Another example is that labour/socialist movements wanted societal change. For instance, at every meeting of the 2nd International up to 1914, the assembled unions and socialist parties voted in favour of a general strike against war. Another example was the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada (TLC) which, like labour organizations in other countries, passed numerous resolutions in the early 1910s condemning war as a capitalist ploy.

> The shift in socialism to a near-pacifist position resulted from a growing concern that a major war could not be kept within bounds and that the working class would be the greatest sufferer. This conviction inspired the Second International to support the international peace movement and to use its power to check militarism and prevent war (Hale, 1971, p. 215).

Today, trade unions can be an important pressure group for societal change. Recently, the activities of Poland's Solidarity movement demonstrated the power of labour to change a country's government. Also, in South Africa, black trade unionists contributed greatly to the peaceful overthrow of the apartheid government and the subsequent change in government policy.

Yet, in the final analysis, resistance and indifference to the concept of peace education could not be overcome. Even though peace education provided a rallying point for the first international educators, and even though many organizations around the world took peace as a place to start, peace education could not overcome strong feelings of national sovereignty. Instead, as pointed out earlier, the majority of world citizens believed in national security through the pursuit of national self-interest.

This idea of a sovereign state had developed over centuries. In the final analysis, there was no higher authority than the sovereign state. Moreover, the duty of the state was to enhance or protect the national interest. Thus, the world was "by

definition" competitive. Defenders of this view of the world spoke of the "balance of power". Their opponents described it as "international anarchy". And, this state of affairs was kept in place through military efforts.

> Militarism evolved as an ideology during the nineteenth century. Prior to this time, armies and navies were comprised mainly of recruited seamen, mercenaries, and aristocrats. They were supported by monarchies to serve special interests. During the nineteenth century, nations developed a permanent officer corps dedicated to the management of violence, and military academies were created to develop the art, science, and philosophy of war (Thomas, 1985, p. 22).

Unfortunately, during the last decades of the nineteenth century, nation-states were pursuing national hegemony and girding for war rather than trying to work cooperatively together on international problems.

Basically then, the reason for the slowness in implementing the ideas of international education was that national governments did not want change. Instead, nation-states viewed the earlier cited NGOs as tools to further their own national goals. And public opinion generally remained locked within national and nationalist assumptions.

> Schools were for a long time primarily instruments for nation-building and therefore did not extend the horizon of students beyond national boundaries (Rampaul, 1991, p. 2972).

The 20th-century provides many examples of this major paradox: the pull of international education ideas vs. the resistance of national aims and assumptions. "Europe at the turn of the century was composed of a galaxy of proud, independent, and highly competitive nations led by men whose sense of collective Europe was at the lowest ebb in a century. The international elite was grossly outnumbered by the nationalist multitudes" (Hale, 1971, p. 21). Society was not yet ready to let go of national sovereignty in any meaningful way. And so, the events leading to World War I escalated out of control and millions died in the pursuit of what were seen as national interests.

> Thus did all the work and all the hopes of the pre-1914 years come to nothing. The patriotism and nationalism that the schools were designed to provide in the first place proved to be far stronger than any attempts to teach international goodwill (Osborne, 1988a, p. 16).

However, after the destructiveness and carnage of World War I, the social structure and social attitudes of nations slowly began to change. If anything good can be said to come out of war, perhaps the change in attitudes around the world toward the ideas of international advocates, may be termed a positive by-product.

A clear example of how societal attitudes slowly changed after World War I is illustrated with the Versailles Treaty.

> The Treaty, it could be said, enthroned the principle of the plebiscite, the very notion of which would have staggered many pre-war European governments. More than this, wherever plebiscites are to be held, it is clearly spelled out that women, equally with men, are to have the vote...As an international document the Treaty was unique in that an entire Part (XIII) was given over to the welfare of labour and the setting up of an International Labour Office. The preamble to this Part declared that 'universal peace' was dependent on 'social justice', and called among other things for a maximum working week, prevention of unemployment, a living wage, protection against sickness, protection of children, young people and women, and provision for old age and injury. In this key twentieth-century document, then, we have a fair index of the wartime changes in social attitudes and of the degree of recognition accorded to the claims of the working classes and of women (Marwick, 1974, pp. 88-89).

Unfortunately, the Treaty of Versailles was very much a victor's treaty. It divided the world into winners and losers and tried to freeze the status quo. True internationalism would have started with a clean slate. Nevertheless, there was growth in international education ideas. There were slow changes occurring.

These changing attitudes towards women, unions, and social legislation, reflected a profound movement in the way Europeans were beginning to view themselves and each other. Nevertheless, this process was slow and would take a long time to develop in other societies. International ideas of cooperation and collaboration among nation-states were still in the formative stage. Starting in the 1920s, the world would still have to go through the development of ideas in the League of Nations and one

more disastrous world war before international education ideas such as cooperation and democracy would be more widespread and better accepted.

The idea of a 'league of nations' developed as people began to understand the full meaning of war during the first two decades of the twentieth century. By 1915, League of Nations Societies existed in Britain, the United States, and France (and by 1921 throughout many parts of Canada). The idea was vigorously promoted by President Wilson. In 1918 the creation of a League of Nations became one of the main war aims of the United States, being the last and most important of the famous 'fourteen points' of the President.

The fourteenth point stated: "A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike" (World Book Encyclopedia, 1990, v 21, p. 328).

Written into the treaties at the Peace Conference in Paris in 1919 was a proposal for a world organization for fostering international cooperation in maintaining international order and security. A 'positive' result of the First World War, if that is possible, was the recognition that war itself could no longer be accepted or condoned as a method of settling disputes between nations.

> Up to 1914 wars had been regarded by all the powers as a legitimate, if extreme and exceptional, instrument of policy. Though it was not an enterprise to be undertaken lightly, no power felt bound to reject it because of its intrinsic evils if it offered a convenient and promising method of attaining some desired end... Now there was a strong feeling that war had become so evil in its earth-shaking violence that it could no longer be condoned for any purposes whatsoever. People sensed that something like a critical point had been reached: somehow civilized nations had to find a way to put an end to war altogether, before war put an end to civilization (Campsie, 1967, p. 69).

After the carnage and devastation of World War I, twenty-six participating nations at The Hague in 1919 became the founders of the League of Nations and attempted to 'put a chain on the dogs of war'.

> The framers of the Covenant of the League of Nations were optimistic about change in the international system leading to collective security and the pacific settlement of claims and disputes (Melvin, 1970, pp. 14-15).

And yet the paradoxes remain since at the first meeting of the League in January 1920, the USA was not present! Several other nations were also not represented at the conference; most notably, Russia, Turkey, and Germany were not there.

Regardless, the League was set up in 1920 to settle disputes among members. While it had a provision for the use of armed forces, the League relied mainly on economic sanctions. The League did have a number of successes, but in the 1930s it failed to stop Japan attacking China, Italy attacking Abyssinia, and the U.S.S.R. attacking Finland. By 1939 the Great Powers were virtually ignoring the League and it was dissolved in 1946.

Nevertheless, there were some interesting ideas proposed by the framers of the League of Nations. These ideas, expressed in the Covenant, presupposed mass education of whole peoples and nations into global responsibilities. These were similar to the ideas presented by advocates of international education. These advocates would have agreed with Shimoniak who believes that, "Education is not designed to keep a child in a status quo position, education is designed to change the human being" (1971, p. 15).

Besides their success with the Covenant, international educators continued to work and press for their ideas in other areas. After World War I, several organizations were established around the world to further comparative education and international educational cooperation.

Specific examples of work the League did in the area of education were:

1) textbook revision;
2) student exchanges;
3) the publication and distribution of internationalist materials;
4) and creation of the Commission on International Cooperation.

> In many countries, League of Nations groups did important educational work...For example, the French Ministry of Education issued an instruction urging teachers to emphasize the League of Nations in their teaching. A widely used handbook of moral and civic education in France devoted space to internationalism, stressing that the League of Nations aimed 'to create a new conscience in a new world and to proclaim the rights of peoples in a common humanity...' and that 'the peoples have henceforth a common law, a common authority' (Osborne, 1988a, pp. 16-17).

And yet, the paradoxes are here, too. Some critics saw the League of Nations as consisting of various forces, not as one movement. There were those (but only a few) who dreamed of some kind of world order. But in the final analysis, the League of Nations was seen by the majority as simply a vehicle for the enhancement of national interest.

There were numerous examples of this self-interest. France saw the League as a way to keep German ambitions in check. H.G. Wells, John Dewey, and others all thought the League was a sham, and they opposed it. They saw it as simply a group of governments. Rather, they proposed a "League of Peoples" not a "League of Nations." But, the largest obstacle for international education advocates remained nationalism.

> In reality...the League was unable to overcome the imperatives of national sovereignty. As some of its critics argued, it was a league of governments, not of peoples; and therein lay the problem, for governments for the most part saw the League as a means of advancing national interests, not compromising them (Osborne, 1988a, p. 19).

As pointed out earlier, a historical review of international education shows a struggle between the new ideas of

internationalism versus the entrenched ideas of nationalism. There is an obvious contradiction here in trying to reconcile these forces, hence the paradoxes. If a scorecard were kept, nationalism would be the clear winner. In this context, the proponents of international education with their emphasis on arbitration, goodwill, and education for international understanding simply failed to grasp the root of the problem: nationalism. This lack of focus coupled with the lack of a public forum, meant nationalistic aims remained the goal of most governments world-wide.

Overall, the League's venture into internationalism and towards greater world union failed to take adequately into account that national autonomy could not be surrendered by national leaders without a clear mandate from their peoples. Unfortunately, in the 1920s and 30s, neither leaders nor peoples were convinced that a new way of dealing with problems - cooperation - needed to be addressed.

Again, there is a major paradox. Namely, in a world where conditions were such that a League of Nations would work, we would not need a League. Everything would be worked out through consensus. But in a world where we did need a League of Nations, the conditions did not exist for it to work effectively. This is a very difficult paradox which is why many people began to think the answer lay in international education!

Notwithstanding the difficulties with the League, the reform ideas of international education advocates were making progress. They were making an impression. They were slowly creating a climate whereby international cooperation ideas were being discussed. These ideas and impressions would be translated into concrete examples with the development of the United Nations.

Some examples of international agencies created by the League of Nations which continued in the United Nations were: the International Labor Organization, the Food and Agriculture

Organization, and the World Health Organization. Another example was the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation whose mandate included revising the teaching of history and history textbooks. The Committee was liquidated after World War II, and UNESCO, with a broader mandate, took over.

During the 1930s and 40s, these questions concerning the spread of international education ideas remained to be answered:

1) Could nations start to act for the common self-interest of the world as a unit?
2) Could nations learn to cooperate toward the solution of those common problems which threatened all nations?
3) Could countries genuinely cooperate?
4) Would they subjugate their individual interests and goals to the common good?

Unfortunately, the world had to go through the most destructive war in history before nations were prepared to even begin to consider answering these questions. Yet, even here there is a paradox since it could be argued this was a "just" war - necessary to stop fascism. The world faced a disagreeable contradiction in 1939: "War might be necessary as an instrument of policy to ensure the survival of a society in which it was possible to renounce war as instrument of policy," (Howard, 1991, p. 10).

Nevertheless, the fact remains that after six terrible years of all-out world war (1939-45), a new international organization was set up: the United Nations. On June 26, 1945, fifty nations signed the charter of the new world organization. Their lofty vision was to eradicate war forever by having the five victorious powers combine their strength to establish and enforce world peace.

Instead, the deep and perennial disagreements of the permanent members hobbled the Security Council from the outset. And still another paradox was that six weeks after the UN founding - on

August 6 and 9th, 1945 - Hiroshima and Nagasaki were destroyed by nuclear weapons. The power of the UN to create and maintain peace had been overshadowed from the start. It soon became clear that its vision was far from reality.

Still, international educators felt that the signers of this covenant were showing that they no longer assumed that certain peoples and nations were destined to dominate and rule over other peoples and nations. And yet, the "Big Five" (U.S.A., France, U.S.S.R., Great Britain, and China) were given a veto in the Security Council which effectively meant they controlled the actions of the UN.

Optimistic critics felt the crumbling of empires after World War II and the emergence of large numbers of new nations through decolonization and the efforts of the UN Trusteeship Council in the post-war years testified to this change in perspectives. Now, they felt, the world was prepared to deal cooperatively with:

(1) solving the common mistakes of the past,
(2) dealing with the previously cited paradoxes, and
(3) attempting to implement many of the ideas of international educators.

> It was a time when history seemed to teach, in the shadow of the 'lessons' of the 1930's, that only with a steadfast commitment by states to an organization imbued with the responsibility for collectively securing the peace could a repetition of the carnage of total war be avoided (Tucker, 1981, p. 102).

To these ends, the United Nations continued a process of social learning first begun in the League of Nations. The League did a lot of groundwork in education: textbooks, teacher and student exchanges, curriculum, projects, and essay contests. The UN continued this process of learning the skills of negotiation in a multicultural setting.

The original framers of the Covenant of the League of Nations and the next generation of leaders who drew up the Charter of the

United Nations were optimistic about changes in the international system leading to collective security and the pacific settlement of claims and disputes. Both the Covenant and the Charter presupposed mass education of whole peoples and nations into global responsibilities. While it is true that the goals have not been met, many groups feel they are worth striving for; namely, the goals of trying to universalize and democratize education in order to initiate social change. These groups feel an education system independent of establishment values is vital to peaceful change.

To date, nations have been largely unsuccessful in attempting to achieve collective security under law. However, it has become clear that in order for the process to continue, it will need education.

The impetus for this new outlook was stated bluntly by Frankl, who said, "For the world is in a bad state, but everything will become still worse unless each of us does his best. So let us be alert - alert in a two-fold sense: Since Auschwitz we know what man is capable of. And since Hiroshima we know what is at stake" (1984, p. 179).

Since 1945, the vast majority of nations in the world have slowly begun to understand that common solutions to world problems can only be solved by global, international cooperation. They have been forced to understand this because societies are becoming very interconnected. Due mainly to the successes of capitalism, nations have realized that the world has become an interlocking system. As a result, the world is slowly breaking the recurring cycle described by Hegel. Instead of the nation-state view of building a national character in her citizens, it is recognized by many groups of people that what is now needed is an international character. This societal change has been slowly occurring since the foundation of the United Nations. Unfortunately, as history

also illustrates, the development of international education ideas is a slow process and takes time.

There are many reasons why change occurs slowly. For example, in the last 50 years the number of countries in the United Nations has increased from about 50 to nearly 200. This represents a new country every four months. And all states - new and old - have one thing in common: they still have an obsession with national sovereignty. As shown earlier, states have historically been unwilling to give up elements of sovereignty unless there are considerable advantages to be gained. The main problem is that when national and international interests clash, the former generally takes preference. National sovereignty is, therefore, a main obstacle to the solution of global problems. One way the UN has tried to deal with the difficulties of sovereign nations unwilling to cooperate is through education.

In 1945, the first big problems facing the United Nations were how to re-educate world citizens after the Second World War. Specifically, what did the concepts of world community and global citizenship demand of education? Proponents of international education had been addressing these types of questions for years. They presented several ideas on how to achieve these goals.

> If education is to be an important ingredient in any process designed to realize the possibility of an extended future for man, it must face the staggering task of helping members of a new generation give up outworn national and territorial perspectives and replace them with ways of thinking that will help them deal directly with the worldwide social problems which pervade their lives (Henderson, 1968, p. 31).

> If we define peace as a nonviolent system of conflict resolution, it seems clear that we must find means for increasing tolerance of differences, freedom from fear, and trust in mankind. Are these not some of the traits of a truly democratic society? (Henderson, 1973, p. 79).

This new type of 'worldwide thinking' was going to call for a new way of looking at the world. It called for a new international viewpoint. It called for a viewpoint not based on the traditional sovereignty of the nation-state. Or, as has been wisely quoted by

Albert Einstein, "If mankind is to survive, we shall need a substantially new manner of thinking."

The serious work of education reform and planning to control international conflict began at the end of World War II with the founding of the United Nations Organization. It is a sad comment on humanity, but also a reality, that many educational changes are at least accelerated if not caused by wars and the revelation of social conditions made in war. The new emerging world order required new approaches to resolving conflict. The governments of the UN hoped to break the recurring historical theme - turning to force as a means of settling disputes. The UN hoped to change the role of diplomacy as expressed by Otto von Bismarck (the skilled Prusso-German statesman of the 19th century) when he described war as "the final act of diplomacy."

In Bismarck's time, warfare was the business of the military and the politicians. When diplomatic talks failed, soldiers were sent to the battlefield. There the dispute was settled. However, the United Nations wanted to encourage social change, peaceful diplomacy, and conciliation rather than confrontation. The UN wanted to encourage a world view. It wanted to emphasize international cooperation. Concurrently, in schools, international education advocates asked for new methods and new goals.

The goals of international education advocates were very similar to the goals of the United Nations - international cooperation and understanding through peaceful diplomacy, education, and social change.

As stated earlier, after 1945 governments slowly began to realize the world was rapidly changing. To address the change, governments realized that schools are indeed well-equipped to perform the task of democratic citizenship in multi-ethnic societies. The schools were emphasized precisely because they were in contact with almost all of the country's youth and at a

time when the young people were at the most impressionable, reachable age in their lives.

> To socialize its youth for democratic adult citizenship is, of course, one of the educative tasks the state's schools are supposed to perform for all the pupils. That is, schools are expected to instruct them (overtly or not) in the principles on which democratic governance rests, and in the norms and behaviors these entail, and which should guide its citizens (Sigel, 1991, p. 4).

These are not the same sentiments expressed at the turn of the century. Then, the goal of education was primarily to promote the national interests of the state. However, the world was changing and certain states of the United Nations and proponents of international education felt the time was right for a societal change. They felt it was time to promote a new social order based on an international scale.

And there were examples that some governments were prepared to accept the rule of international law. For example, over the past 50 years, the acceptance of international law has multiplied hugely - via multilateral treaties, and conventions on trade, or the use of oceans, air space, and radio waves, on border disputes or methods of warfare - into a whole web of agreements regulating the world's activities.

And yet, this may be too sweeping. For example, many states in the UN were, and still are, very resistant to societal change. Moreover, while national laws are enforced and law-breakers fined or imprisoned, international law has few powers of enforcement. The International Court of Justice cannot compel states to answer charges or obey judgements. On the one hand, there were those who believed that international law was fundamental to world peace and the acceptance of international education ideas. But on the other side, international law needed to be enforceable, recognized and respected, and ultimately represent a consensus. The world is not yet at that point.

Nevertheless, it is important to remember that the concept of international education is still relatively new in the world political arena. And it was only recently that reformers realized:

1) their enemy was nationalism,
2) their plan of attack needed to involve education, and
3) they needed to be united.

> Not so long ago, every group involved in international development carried out its projects in isolation. Such an approach is now out of date. Today, international development activities come together under a partnership umbrella. Previously unthinkable alliances are now viewed as a guarantee of a project's viability of success (Feb. 1996, Maclean's Supplement).

This partnership approach is a recent development. This new approach is allowing international education ideas to grow and spread among world citizens. Also, it is important to remember that the process of societal change takes a long time. Therein lies the hope for the future of international education.

There are many reasons for this feeling of optimism. The most important reason being that the world has changed drastically since 1945. Now, there is ease of travel and communication and technology is changing the way we view the planet and ourselves. The growth of a network of two-way linkages connecting countries with each other (e.g.; areas of imports/exports) has caused a shift in view.

Change has now reached a point where knowledge in some areas is out of date in 10 years. This means the world has gone beyond the stage only recently arrived at where one generation lived in a community only slightly different from its fathers and mothers, to a rate of change where a single generation no longer can live on what it learned in its youth.

The central feature of the world today is its interdependence made possible by modern science and technology. Technological advancements in the modern era have brought the world from its

isolated units of the past to greater closeness and oneness. Basically, we live in a world of vastly accelerated transportation and communication opportunities. Before modern technology, the rate at which knowledge disseminated around the globe was measured in decades. Nowadays, knowledge can be transmitted at the speed of light, reducing the world to a vast classroom.

However, the same technology that has opened the world to international ideas has created the prospect of a world holocaust. Again, the paradox. Again the possibility that Hegel is correct.

Critics of the above viewpoint concerning technological advancements would argue that these same optimistic sentiments regarding developments in technology and science were expressed by writers such as N. Angell and H.G. Wells pre-1914. Critics will say that while it is true the future will accelerate the close contact with other peoples and other cultures, this has happened before.

Still another critical example would be what has come to be called "the historical paradox." Technology on the one hand has created great cities, beauty, wealth, and brought health and ease to many. But it casts a shadow of environmental destruction and savagery in war, which now threatens to overwhelm us. This is a paradox of history: Is our progress leading us to oblivion? On one side of the coin, technology has certainly bettered the human lot. But on the other it also seems to carry the seeds of destruction.

So the paradoxes remain. Is Hegel correct? Or does international education offer humanity an alternative? It appears that governments' need to control technology risks global destruction. On the other hand, international education proponents would say their ideas offer a way of control. They would say because society is slowly changing, the world may be able to deal with paradoxes and to reflect Hegel's dictum.

There are many examples which lend support to the belief that international education and the United Nations have the potential to deal with the common problems of the world. After all, the only organizations today approaching independent, supranational status and working for the world's improvement are those of the UN. For example, there have been many cited examples of UN attempts at increasing understanding and internationalization. The following list is intended to give a "flavour" to the various international institutions which have resulted from the activities of the United Nations:

1) the Hague International Court of Justice;
2) Peacekeeper/Observer Missions;
3) UNESCO and UNICEF; and
4) World Health Organization (WHO).

In addition, there have been various Declarations and Covenants of the UN which have been ratified by a vast majority of its members:

1) the Charter itself;
2) Universal Declaration of Human Rights;
3) Declaration of the Rights of the Child;
4) and others.

And yet there are many contradictions in these examples. For example, there have not been many successes with the Hague Court of Justice. Too many nation states choose not to use it or follow its non-binding judgements. Have the peacekeeper/observer missions in Somalia, Bosnia, or Rwanda worked? Where is the evidence of world disarmament from the UN Department of Disarmament Affairs? As a matter of fact, many critics would say these UN 'successes' are really only paper promises. For example, the points in the UN Charter are largely unfulfilled today. As well, the other declarations are largely not met either: child poverty, racial discrimination, and mutual respect between people is still lacking around the world.

> Peace and prosperity remain dependent upon sovereign decisions of national governments as yet unable to entrust their interests to the rule of the UN as an international or supra-national authority. Unable or unwilling, it is nationalism which dominates world affairs and declines subordinancy to world government (Melvin, 1970, pp. 2-3).

However, advocates would say these successes and charters have led to the preparation of internationally aware citizens. And this is the main point of international education reformers. For example, in the post-UN era, there has been a growth in global interdependence. The UN now has almost 200 independent countries and associated territories. There are 18000 international non-governmental organizations (in 1986). "Since a major NGO goal is international understanding, peace, and security for the whole world, not just for one bloc of nations, they work with more multidimensional concepts of security than do governments" (Boulding, 1988, p. 37). These NGOs can be thought of as pressure groups. They are advocating social and political change through the UN forum.

> The activities of non-governmental organizations are helping improve the lives of 250 million human beings in developing countries. By the year 2000, the work of NGOs is expected to touch the lives of 400 million people (Feb. 1996, Maclean's Supplement).

With the assistance of NGOs, there have been some extraordinary advances in the developing world. In just three decades, average life expectancy has increased by 17 years and the rate of infant mortality has fallen by half. The average real income of developing countries has more than doubled. Problems remain however. After all, four-fifths of the world's populations still only earns 17 per cent of the world's income. Nevertheless, reformers would say the most efficient way to address this unfair distribution is through an international partnership approach.

The following list of NGOs is included to illustrate a trend in what is occurring in this aspect of growing international awareness. Some examples of NGOs are:

1) Oxfam International;

2) Amnesty International; and

3) Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (CND).

In Canada, examples of NGOs include:

1) Canada World Youth;

2) Canadian Centre for International Studies and Cooperation; and

3) Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).

> The NGOs have achieved a minor break-through with their place at the United Nations Special Session on Disarmament (UNSSOD I) which was held in New York in 1978 (Overy, 1982, p. 6).

On the other hand, critics would say that the UN's weakness lies in the fact that it cannot transcend the sovereign power of states. It is unable to legislate laws that nations must abide by, and its 15-member Security Council is often paralyzed by the veto rights of superpowers. For example, decisions at the UN are de facto made by the 'Big Five' dominant powers. Consequently, no true international peace force has ever been established, and the UN's capability in the peaceful resolution of disputes is increasingly ignored and side-stepped. This does not even begin to address the crippling problems of its financial crisis.

Nevertheless, proponents argue that the UN is the only counter there is today to nationalism. In addition, UN advocates have said the best way to fight problems which disregard national boundaries (i.e.; aids, pollution, deforestation, land mines, etc.) is through international cooperation. It is difficult to argue with these points. And that is why, year after year, there have been signs of clear progress.

Canada provides a case in point of the progress of international education ideas in a specific country.

> Education for international understanding as a broad set of initiatives is extremely well suited for the Canadian reality. It focusses on helping people in Canada to know and respect other cultural, political, and economic

> realities, and attends to our internal realities as a multicultural and indigenous population, and to our need for intercultural understanding and tolerance (Seydegart, 1994, p. 53).

Canada has many examples in its history of a cooperative approach to deal with international problems. International education ideas have a long history in Canada. For example:

1) groups espousing pacifism: Mennonites, Hutterites;
2) Canada's efforts as an original members of the League of Nations and the United Nations;
3) peace-keeping missions (in Kampuchea, Cyprus, Bosnia, etc.);
4) multiculturalism;
5) long tradition of supporting arbitration to settle disputes: "By 1907 the principle of arbitration was endorsed by the Retail Merchants' Association of Canada, the Canadian Manufacturing Association, and the Winnipeg, Hamilton, Toronto, and Montreal boards of trade" (Socknat, 1987, p. 29);
6) international involvement: Prime Minister Mackenzie King was the Canadian representative in Paris in 1928 for the signing of the Kellogg-Briand Pact which condemned war;
7) one of the founding members of UNESCO;
8) programs such as the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the International Development Research Centre (IDRC);
8) and, Lester B. Pearson, liberal Prime Minister (1963 - 1968) received the Nobel Peace prize for his performance during the Suez crisis of 1956.

> Another important characteristic of Canadian society, which is reflected in all provincial curricula, is Canada's multicultural heritage. This heritage, together with the continuing influx of immigrants and refugees, requires a special educational emphasis on the value of various cultural, linguistic, racial, and religious organizations. The requirement of Canadian students to live harmoniously in a multicultural Canada, should, in principle, equip them well to be citizens of an increasingly interdependent world (Brouwer, 1987, p. 7).

In Canada, these historical examples have led to changes in the way Canadians view the tension between nationalism vs. internationalism. Since the enactment of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1982), there has been an increase of activity in the areas of civil and political rights, and social, economic, and cultural rights, equality, and Aboriginal rights.

Also, in 1988, the Canadian Multiculturalism Act was passed. It promotes the full and equitable participation of individuals and communities of all origins in the continuing evolution and shaping of every aspect of Canadian society.

> In many respects, initiatives in education for international understanding, multiculturalism, anti-racism, and global education are responses to the changing demography of Canada, and can be interpreted as attempts to assist Canadians in schools and in the larger communities, to manage economic and social change (Seydegart, 1994, p. 1).

The above are concrete examples of how Canada has a tradition of promoting international education ideas: (1) historically and (2) with the actions of the federal government.

Returning to the world scene, it has become quite apparent that, while international education reform alone cannot furnish the total answer to the building of a cooperative, peaceful world, it does have a central role to play.

To illustrate this point, in 1977 the National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS) struck a Committee for International and World Education. In its statement of purpose, the following statement was made:

> The Committee is established in the belief that it is a major responsibility of schools to do their part in creating a world beyond nationalism in all parts of the curriculum and program, and to provide the intellectual and practical conditions in which the tremendous challenges that confront students can be perceived, understood, and responsibly met. We are increasingly aware that the inhabitants of earth must rely on each other for the quality of the environment, for vital resources and economic development, and for security (Hall, 1977, p. 16).

The Committee felt its immediate task was to provide information which could readily assist schools in becoming more international in their approach and in the content of their curriculum.

To achieve this state, international educators need to be effective in the political arena. Politics is about power and government is about holding the monopoly of force within a given territory.

International education movements need to evolve into broad social movements with widening social and political goals and a vast range of methods and projects, all related in some way to their fundamental political aims - global awareness. The term 'international community' suggests a world of nations, cooperating together without giving up their sovereignty. International education proponents would say that as our world grows steadily smaller, the need for more international agreements and more international planning grows greater.

Proponents of international education feel increased planning on an international scale is the wave of the future. They would say we live in an interdependent world. They would say that with a new understanding of our interdependent world, governments and societies around the globe have come to appreciate that their own quality of life, economic development, environment, and security are all closely linked to what happens in the "global village." Quite simply, by working cooperatively, nations are helping themselves.

> Interdependence has been growing throughout much of world history. Only in the modern era (c. post-1400), however, has the scale of interdependence become worldwide. In the past five centuries, global interdependence has been a product of three interrelated events that have dominated and shaped so much of modern world history: (1) European expansion, (2) the emergence and growth of capitalism, and (3) the diffusion of modern science and technology (Tye, 1990, pp. 14-15).

In addition, international education theory attempts to answer this question: "If the use of force cannot be eliminated

altogether, how can it best be controlled?" Along this line, here is one historian's view- point from 1957, of the process the world is moving toward.

> This present age of invention which makes the world grow smaller and smaller is thereby blurring to some extent national differences in that it creates problems for solution that are becoming increasingly common to all nations. So is the way eased to a steady cross-fertilization of cultures and to a growing transnational outlook. If the League of Nations can be considered as a simple (if abortive) step in this direction, then Unesco and Uno (to mention only two obvious organizations) are an indication of the shape of things to come. Though it may be rash to prophesy, I have a feeling that future historians will see quite clearly our present muddles and discontents at both a national and international level as the 'growing pains' inseparable from transnationalism as an inescapable solution to present world problems (Mallinson, 1957, pp. 28-29).

The evolution of global peace and security, as well as of other international education ideas concerning diplomacy, and cooperation is a dynamic process. The process is slow but evolving. International education ideas begin simply. They begin by trying to understand where peoples' ideas come from - their history.

> So a truly global community still lies a very long way in the future. We are struck with the reality of international relations: not interstate relations but international relations. And international relations is about dealing with foreigners...Whether or not we possess the key which languages provide to the understanding of other peoples and their ideologies, there is another which lies within the grasp of all of us: the study of their history...History enables us to understand ourselves as well as other cultures. It teaches us what we may or may not expect in our mutual relations. It teaches us our own limitations, and thus a certain humility. In dealing with a multicultural, multi-ideological world, that in itself is not a bad beginning (Howard, 1957, pp. 150-151).

Unfortunately, Hegel's dictum is still uncomfortably relevant to our times. And we are left with the same questions. Why, during this century, did statesmen and military leaders continue on a course which led to such destruction? Why is it taking so long for international education ideas to be accepted? "The answer is of course that societies, and the patterns of international relationships, cannot be transformed overnight on the basis of a single prophetic insight, however persuasively it may be argued"

(Howard, 1991, p. 101). The gradual transformation of societies remains a long, slow process.

> For all this to occur, society will have to be organized according to different principles. Inequality will have to give way to equality; competitiveness to cooperation; individual gain and self-interest to a sense of community and the common good; profit to social use; private ownership of the means of production to democratic control; exploitation to stewardship; aggression to peace (Osborne, 1988b, p. 7).

Today, paradoxes still remain and Hegel's reservation still needs to be addressed. We live in a world of nation-states dedicated to the pursuit of their national interests. When it suits them, they will cooperate. When it doesn't, they won't. And history has shown the difficulty in finding any realistic alternative to this "international anarchy," (Dickinson, 1926). And there's the major paradox: if we lived in a world where the UN could work properly, we wouldn't need the UN. It would not be necessary. But we don't live in such a world and so we do need the UN. Yet it cannot work properly because of the strong forces of nationalism. Thus, international education is very much going against the current, (except perhaps for times when the world has a scare, as at the ends of World War I and World War II, or at the height of the Cold War).

"Civilization, like other human developments, bears in itself the possibilities of harmful as well as of useful products. Man has for some centuries been intermittently devising checks to the harmful results of civilization," (Jones & Sherman, 1929, p. 17). For example, slavery or witch-burning are now gone and similarly, war will be too when people find it to be intolerable. For the causes of war are in people's minds.

When we look at the development of international ideas over the past 100 years, they appear to be evolving slowly. However, when compared in the light of humanity's recorded 5000 year history, internationalism appears to be progressing rapidly. This is not much benefit to those of us in the middle of the change, but

perhaps solace can be taken in knowing we are eventually contributing to a better world.

Some critics see the developments of the past 100 years in a negative way. They view the glass as "half empty." However, another way to see this evolving process is that the glass of international education is "half full."

One way to increase the volume in the half-full glass will be described in the next chapter - namely, by using a Model United Nations simulation. The next chapter will discuss why a Model U.N. simulation is pedagogically sound.

Then, Chapters IV and V will illustrate how a Model U.N. course and Conference can encourage students to think globally rather than with a nationalistic viewpoint.

It is the stance of this thesis that the use of the good pedagogical techniques found in the M.U.N., along with the global concepts learned from a Model U.N. course, will indeed prepare students for the twenty-first century. Students will have the necessary skills and international outlooks to be citizens with a global outlook rather than a nationalistic one.

CHAPTER III: Pedagogical Rationale for Using a Model United Nations Course

Chapter overview:

This chapter discusses the justifications for using a Model United Nations course in the classroom. After all, it is one thing to state that a Model U.N. can enhance global thinking in students. It is quite another to demonstrate how it actually operates in the classroom. A detailed explanation of the operation of a Model U.N. will be explained in Chapter IV. This chapter details how the M.U.N. is pedagogically sound and why it is a potentially useful teaching tool for teachers of Grade 9 students.

The M.U.N. course is designed for students who want to experience what it would be like to be the delegate of a country in the United Nations. The course assists students to expand their knowledge of contemporary global issues by portraying nations in simulated UN meetings. Delegates are forced to work with a wide variety of people, to learn about different perspectives, and to learn about international relations and current affairs.

The Model U.N. course has several educational goals and objectives. For example, the goals of content, process, and product contribute to the important leaning process for each participating student. The Model U.N. experience exposes students to valuable content such as: increased vocabulary; knowledge of nation-states foreign policies and of the United Nations structure, functions, and aims; comprehension of national interests, geography, other cultures, and importance of process skills such as advance research skills; improvement in reading comprehension, public speaking, enhancement of cooperative learning skills; information analysis, synthesis, and evaluation; capabilities in critical thinking, problem solving, negotiation and compromise; integration of current events with history; and, development of leadership skills.

The course familiarizes students with major principles and concepts related to global education; concepts such as diplomacy, international law, modern world history, and conflict resolution. Students gain knowledge about the evolution of world order through a study of the United Nations. Then, students are exposed to current world problems using a Model United Nations simulation.

Finally, the end result of the Model U.N. experience is to hopefully produce young people who are more diplomatic, who are knowledgeable, conscientious and concerned citizens; who better

understand social change through democratic institutions and systems; and who appreciate the perspectives of others and are accountable for their own opinion.

A Model United Nations course intends to enhance critical thinking by helping students do the following:

- think reflectively
- form well-grounded opinions
- work with others to identify and solve problems
- take responsibility for their own actions
- synthesize ideas from alternative sources
- understand the logic of arguments
- listen attentively and debate confidently
- make decisions responsibly

By preparing and participating in the course and simulation, the goal is to have students develop and use critical, creative, and productive thinking skills to gain a global perspective on issues confronting the world community. Students further develop their leadership and communication abilities and learn to empathize with people of diverse countries, cultures, and view points.

The goal of this chapter is to attempt to illustrate how a Grade 9 Model United Nations simulation and course are a viable teaching tool to help create responsible citizens. This chapter contends that a Model U.N. is viable because it allows teachers to select from various content objectives in order to develop a workable paradigm for their students. It allows teachers to be facilitators of learning.

Overall then, the Model U.N. simulation and course give teachers direction in terms of skills and content. The Model U.N. is beneficial. As well, it is good pedagogy. Basically, the simulation is a good plan. It strikes a very workable balance between skills and content.

75% of teachers think that 'developing an understanding that the world is an interrelated, interdependent system of lands and peoples' is very important or crucial in the promotion of a global perspective in education (Greig, Pike, & Selby, 1987, p. 1).

88% of primary and secondary school teachers think that the children they teach are <u>not</u> too young to develop a global awareness or empathy with people from other lands and cultures (Greig, Pike, & Selby, 1987, p. 1; both quotes are from a survey of British teachers).

To begin, educators need direction regarding how to strike a balance between skills and content in the schools. Educators need a plan. And like any plan, it must be formed with references to the following two questions:

(1) What overall "vision" will we have?
(2) How is it to be done? What will be its methodology?
(3) and What content will be taught?

Current literature has much educational criticism in the area of planning an effective school curriculum. Unfortunately, there is little consensus. For example, here is one writer's analysis of what he feels should be occurring in schools.

> If one wishes to foretell the future of a society, one should visit the public school classrooms to see what is happening now...Education is both the mirror and maker of 'modernity', [quotes mine] reflecting the values of contemporary culture and instilling them in the succeeding generation...Schools perpetuate the social contract, exposing children to ethnicities, priorities, beliefs, and metaphysics not found at home. Ideally, this leads them to be tolerant and comprehending toward fellow citizens, so that they can join in common cause. Above all, schools take children at an impressionable age and teach them what to expect, or in some cases demand, from life (Henry III, 1994, p. 35).

This kind of statement is common in modern criticism of education. This particular quote is typical because it has few specifics and much inexact vocabulary. Henry feels schools should prepare students for 'modernity'.

However, in his book, Henry continues by saying that he feels schools should teach students skills and attitudes. Yet, these generalities give little help. For example, how do ill-defined words and abstract phrases (such as: exposure to beliefs, priorities, metaphysics, common cause, etc.) help an educator decide how to proceed? Unfortunately, many of these words and phrases have unclear and vague definitions. Rather, an educator needs a concrete model in order to teach students skills and attitudes.

Without a concrete model, if educators were to use Henry's quote, they would not be given much direction to help them prepare students for the future. Questions would still remain:

(1) What is the objective of the chosen model (in this case, the Model United Nations Simulation and course)?
(2) What skills do students need to have? and finally,
(3) What content do students need to know?

Perhaps a quote from a curriculum theorist will help narrow the discussion from the general to the more specific.

> Parents and other members of society throughout history have wondered how best to help their young grow and mature...As societies became more formal and its institutions developed within them to meet specialized needs, schools evolved to help students grow more efficiently, to introduce them to the ways of their society, and to help them acquire understanding of their cultural heritage...The assumption that society must be responsible for the development of its young has been addressed with great seriousness by perceptive members of humanity (Schubert, 1986, pp. 54-55).

Using this quotation, the objective of the model begins to come into focus. The words and phrases are now more specific. They are all dealing with developing responsible citizens for the future. Because, after all, democratic citizens are not born; they are made.

Here is another idea on this "preparation" theme from Joyce et. al. (1992),

> In fact, the most important long-term outcome of instruction may be the students' increased capabilities to learn more easily and effectively in the future, both because of the knowledge and skill they have acquired and because they have mastered learning processes (p. 1).

In other words, Joyce feels schools should help students become life-long learners. He feels teaching is a process of building communities of learners who use their skills to educate themselves. Joyce believes that successful learners know how to profit from a wide range of learning opportunities, from lectures and readings, from collecting and analyzing information, and building concepts and theories, and from working together

cooperatively. Again, here is a similar comment on the role of education,

> Education has two further postwar tasks: (1) to prepare the young for participation in the new industrial and political sphere and (2) to educate them for the preservation of the peace by building a world of order under law (Good, 1963, p. 533).

Put concisely, it is the job of educators to make students globally literate in order to participate fully in the coming century and overcome nationalistic sentiments. This means educators need to encourage students to accept the responsibilities of continuing to educate themselves about our world. Students need to be reminded that we are all living on the same planet and that we are all responsible for its outcome. These are international education ideas.

And, if, as H.G. Wells noted, history "is more and more a race between catastrophe and education," (1921), then it is imperative that the ideas of international education spread.

Another article written about how best to prepare today's students for the future states that "the most effective learning occurs when students are able to make the connection between skills taught in class and their application to the real world" (Rissler & Steinburg, 1991).

While there appears to be agreement among many writers with regard to preparing students for the future and helping students to think globally and make connections, there is still confusion for a teacher. There is still lack of direction.

1) Exactly how do educators prepare students for a future that can not be fathomed?
2) How will students be prepared for jobs which today do not exist?
3) How will students be given the necessary skills to deal with unknown situations?

4) What methodology and content should be used to encourage global thinkers?

These are all focal questions revolving around the topic: schools preparing responsible students for the future. However, while they are specific questions, there are still too many.

In order to develop a workable model, answers to the above questions need to be synthesized into answers for the two questions stated in the introductory paragraphs of this chapter. First: What is to be done? Or more specifically, what techniques or methods and what content should a teacher employ to assist students in developing skills necessary for becoming responsible citizens? Second: How is it to be done? (Later, it will be shown that using the content of a Model U.N. simulation is one way to answer the second question regarding how the model is to be developed.)

To summarize, it is the intent of this chapter to show that the content of the M.U.N. is one vehicle for achieving the objective of teaching students to become responsible citizens and global thinkers.

Perhaps a quotation from an educational philosopher will be helpful now that our focal questions have been reduced to two.

> Since the educated man is a person with breadth of understanding, incorporating specifically a grasp of logical distinctions and discriminatory power, one might reasonably say our clear goal of education is developing powers of critical thought...For what I mean by critical thinking is thinking that is concerned about and embodies good reasoning and coherent steps, conceptual clarity and discrimination in planning, discussion, explanation, and any other form of ratiocination (Barrow, 1981, pp. 44-45).

This quote addresses the first question: What is to be done? Answer: Schools should be teaching critical thinking skills. The concept of global mindedness that is envisioned in the M.U.N. approach puts a heavy emphasis on thinking critically. This is not to say that the reverse is necessarily true. We want students

to be critical thinkers. As shown above, there appears to be a great deal of consensus in the literature on this point. With this consensus, now we can discuss the methods educators should use to teach critical thinking skills in order to help students become responsible citizens and globally aware. This will be the focus for the next few pages. (However, the second question, regarding content, remains and will be answered later.)

If educators have learned anything in the past 50 years of educational research, it should be that no ONE strategy or method of teaching is necessarily better than another to teach critical thinking skills. Rather than focusing on the "mythical" best strategy, schools need to ensure that all students have opportunities to acquire the skills they need to function effectively both in school and in the world outside school. This can be...

> accomplished by establishing hospitable educational environments in which students feel supported and cared for, where failure is seen as just one step on the road to learning, and where the needs of the students govern decisions made, not just at the classroom level, but also at the school and district level (Duttweiler, 1995, p. 47).

The last half-century of educational research has produced overwhelming evidence that eclectic presentations are a viable alternative to achieving this goal. To this end, educators should be open-minded and open-ended when developing their curricula.

> Whereas debates about educational method have seemed to imply that schools and teachers should choose a single approach, students need growth in all areas. To attend to the personal but not the social, or the informational but not the personal, simply does not make sense in the life of the growing student (Joyce et. al., 1992, p. 13).

Perhaps a starting point is to analyze this question: What do successful teachers, administrators, and schools do exactly? And there are answers to that question from decades of educational research (Marzano, 1992). Recent educational research indicates that success results when educators:

1) create a classroom environment conducive to learning (ex. rich in print, manipulatives, materials, etc.);
2) have extensive knowledge of their subject (acquired through conferences, in-servicing, up-grading, collaboration, etc.);
3) are aware of developmental stages in their students;
4) use a grab-bag of "tricks" to increase 'teachable moments';
5) show enthusiasm (ex. the teacher is a fellow-learner and a positive role-model for learning);
6) use brainstorming techniques. Brainstorming is "an idea-generating technique whereby students call out or write down ideas as quickly as they come...The brainstormed ideas judged inappropriate are removed. the rearrangement can be repeated and even become an ongoing process" (Strickland, 1997, p. 20).
7) act curious (ex. use dictionaries to check spelling);
8) use modelling to give students strategies for solving problems;
9) display graphic organizers throughout the day (ex. Venn diagrams, charts, graphs, cross-classification charts, webs, free writing, nutshelling, semantic maps); see Strickland (1997), Chapter 2: Helping Students Generate Written Text;
10) use cooperative learning activities (for example, the Jigsaw);
11) develop a personal teaching style to suit the educator's temperament and strengths;
12) balance student-centered activities with teacher-directed activities;
13) use pre-test, test, post-test methods to discover problems;
14) use writing portfolios and the writing process consistently throughout the school year in <u>every</u> subject;
15) use mastery learning;

16) structure instruction as a series of intended learning outcomes and behavioral objectives (Johnson, 1981, pp. 69-85);

17) help students find meaning in their knowledge by linking old knowledge with new knowledge, making predictions, verifying them, and filling in a lot of unstated information;

18) use adaptable models so they can be adjusted to the learning styles of students and to the requirements of subject matter;

19) create a classroom of open inquiry that provides for and encourages meaningful student involvement;

20) ensure that learning in the classroom is directly linked to what is taking place outside the classroom - it is relevant;

21) expose students to various types of media: magazines, newspapers, video, television, etc.;

22) discuss "current events" from around the world to encourage students to understand their 'place' as a world citizen;

23) use debriefing or instructive feedback: Danielson (1996) characterizes high-quality feedback as timely, accurate, substantive, constructive, and specific. Silverman (1992) found that combinations of corrective, descriptive, prescriptive, encouraging, and outcome-focused feedback appears to increase achievements. These types of feedback all encourage and guide growth, as opposed to explaining past performance.

24) and, reflect on the above (#1-23) throughout the year.

The above points are taken by R.J. Marzano (1992). He has reviewed more than thirty years of educational research on how students learn best and has translated it into a model of classroom instruction he calls Dimensions of Learning.

> Classroom instruction must systemically promote and develop these dimensions if students are to become constructive learners with enhanced capacity to take increased responsibility for their own learning, and with the knowledge of how to assess their own growth. The ultimate goal is for students to become independent learners who have developed the ability to continue to learn throughout their lives (1992a, pp. vii - viii).

The research indicates that there is no single, right way to teach. Instead, there are ways that will be effective when used by some teachers with some students on some subject matter. Therefore, if students are going to be prepared for the future and going to become critical thinkers, then educators need to be eclectic in their presentation of material to students. This answers the question: What methods should teachers be using to teach critical thinking skills?

Now teachers have some direction because of research regarding what skills to teach. We now have a wealth of information on effective teaching behaviors, substantiated by practical research, which has emerged over the past few decades. The important point for teachers to remember is that skills are not context-free and that teaching is an integrated process and not just a function of stringing one skill after the next. Teacher decision-making about when to employ which skill is an important criterion of excellence in teaching skills.

As an example of how to develop some of these areas, we will examine more closely some detailed research in the areas of learning styles and multiple intelligences. Current research suggests there are many different types or styles of learning. "Learning styles have to do with how individuals acquire information, how they organize it in their minds to make sense of it, and how they use it in their daily lives" (Duttweiler, 1995, p. 55). An example of a learning styles inventory whereby teachers can accommodate learning style preferences would be:

1) Noise Level Preferences: some students need quiet, some need sound;

2) Light Preferences: some work best under bright light, others prefer dim light;
3) Temperature Preferences: many students can't think when they feel hot, and others can't think when they feel cold;
4) Environmental Design Preference: many students think best in a formal environment, others in an informal one;
5) Pursuit of Academic Goals: some students are motivated by this while others do not value academic achievement and are not motivated by grades or threats of suspension;
6) Conformity to Norms and Expectations: some students do not like to do something simply because someone asks them to;
7) Preference for Structure: some students need direction, others have a preference for doing an assignment their way;
8) Learning Modalities: could be auditory, tactile, or kinesthetic;
9) Time-of-Day Preference: best time for studying;
10) Preference for Intake: snacking or not;
11) Mobility Preference: sitting still or not; and
12) Sociological Preference: preference for groups or being alone.

In addition to learning styles, Howard Gardner at Harvard, "suggests that human beings are capable of developing strengths in at least seven different approaches to learning and interacting with the world" Duttweiler, 1995, p. 59. This theory of multiple intelligences focuses on the diversity in how students think and learn. Research indicates that students learn best when given an opportunity to explore ideas through their perceptual strengths. According to Gardner (1983, 1991, 1993), these strengths are in the areas of:

1) Verbal/Linguistic - sensitivity to language;
2) Logical/Mathematical - abstract thought and logical structure;
3) Musical - sensitivity to pitch, rhythm, timbre;

4) Spatial - visual thinking;

5) Bodily/Kinesthetic - control of one's body;

6) Interpersonal - sensitivity to others; and/or

7) Intrapersonal/Introspective - self-knowledge.

And after decades of research, we also know what <u>not</u> to do in the schools.

> School environments that are adult oriented, child-suppressive, and indifferent encourage children's feelings of failure and incapacity. These schools are guilty of such practices as failing the student at year's end; testing and failing instead of diagnosing and teaching; employing recitation procedure, wherein the student always knows less than the teacher and fails often - and sometimes constantly - *in front of his (sic) peers*; ignoring opportunities to allow the student to choose goals; denying him the right to share in evaluation; imposing physical punishment and exclusion; constantly pressuring him to preform cognitive tasks far beyond his developmental stages; and treating him differently because of his color, economic level, or ethnic origin (Henderson, 1968, p. 53).

Overall then, educators need to capitalize on the inherent diversity of teachers and students. After all, different students go through different processes. Educators need to emphasize enrichment on a broad canvas of different approaches to learning. They need to give students many enrichment opportunities *during* the school year(s) so students can reflect and make intelligent choices as they grow. To summarize, students need many opportunities to be exposed to different presentation styles and theories.

There is a long history of this type of 'eclectic' curriculum thinking in educational writing. For example, in a speech made in 1892, James stresses the need to make learning more activity-oriented: "No reception without reaction, no impression without expression" (p. 39).

This idea was repeated more than a half-century later by James Coleman. He contended that students need an opportunity to act on what they are being taught, to "take the role of the other," and to participate in intergroup situations (1960, pp. 306-308). He

caps his analysis with the exhortation: "Find ways to let adolescents act" (p. 309).

Another example would be from the writings of John Dewey.

> [H]e insisted that education had to be appropriate to children's levels of development, to their abilities and needs, and that pedagogy must provide children with the opportunity for experience and observation. In his view, learning arises from activity and problem-solving and pedagogy must provide children with both (Osborne, 1991, p. 33).

Then in 1965, this same theme was expanded by Kenworthy.

> It is also generally accepted that people learn best through concrete, realistic, and if possible, first-hand experiences...Where students can take part in model assemblies, role-playing situations, and dramatic presentations, they are likely to learn faster and retain longer the knowledge acquired...People also learn best when they are stimulated emotionally as well as intellectually...Another way people learn best is when they take at least some part in selecting the problems to be studied... Where students can work on special problems of interest to them, individually or in small groups, they are likely to be more interested and to retain longer the information they discover for themselves through research rather than that which they read in textbooks or are given by teachers. Similarly, people learn best when they have opportunities to take some concrete action based on new learning (1970, p. 57).

And, here again, is a relevant quote from Joyce, Weil, & Shower's:

> The essential task of this...4th edition...is to describe a rich variety of approaches to teaching - in sufficient detail and with sufficient illustration of their uses and purposes in real learning situations as to make each model an active, or at least, potentially active, part of a teacher's repertoire (1982, p. xiii).

And later in Joyce, Weil, and Shower, "The message is that the most effective teachers need to master a range of models and prepare for a career-long process of adding new tools and polishing and expanding their old ones" (p. 20).

Historically, our patterns of social organization, including formal education, were devised for cultures in which change was relatively slow. However, these old patterns are becoming out-dated in our rapidly changing world. In summary, effective teaching programs need to have relevance to students' lives!

Now, with this historical perspective, Tyler's first two curriculum concerns expressed in his classic book on curriculum, can be answered:

> 1) What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
> 2) What educational experiences (content) can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
> 3) How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
> 4) How can we determine (evaluate) whether these purposes are being attained? (Tyler, 1949, p.1.)

Question #1 has been answered. The educational purposes schools should seek to attain is to prepare students to become responsible world citizens and critical thinkers. Question #2 has also been answered. These educational experiences can best be provided through eclectic methods which require students to use knowledge and critical thinking skills as Marzano (1992) demonstrated in his review.

However, because knowledge alone is not enough, students need opportunities to express their newly acquired knowledge in meaningful activities. They need opportunities to participate in experiences that have meaning for them. This chapter proposes that one example of such an eclectic experience is a Model United Nations simulation.

There are two basic components to the Model U.N. experience. First, students go through an intensive preparation process where they research the countries they will represent, organize positions, prepare policy papers, draft resolutions, and practice the rules of procedure and public speaking techniques. Second, the students become "ambassadors" during a Model U.N. Conference. A typical Conference can last anywhere from one to five days. The role-playing during the Conference involves participants in the process of synthesizing and ultimately applying the information and skills acquired during their preparation. In the Model U.N., students demonstrate the importance of the skills of caucusing, negotiation, consensus-building, and compromise.

The Model United Nations experience equips students with valuable content including: increased vocabulary; knowledge of nation-states' foreign policies and of the United Nations' structure, functions, and aims; comprehension of national interests, geography, other cultures and values, and international legal and financial systems.

Proponents of the Model United Nations as a teaching technique such as the UNA-USA, UNA-Canada, and Muldoon (1992, 1993), believe the M.U.N. experience demonstrates to students:

a. the importance of process skills;
b. improvement in reading comprehension, public speaking, and enhancement of cooperative learning skills;
c. information analysis, synthesis, and evaluation;
d. capabilities in critical thinking, problem-solving, negotiation and compromise;
e. integration of current events with history; and,
f. development of leadership skills.

Finally, proponents believe the end result of the Model U.N. experience is young people who are more diplomatic; who are knowledgeable, conscientious and concerned citizens; who better understand social change through democratic institutions and systems; and who appreciate the perspectives of others and are accountable for their own opinion. Proponents believe the Model United Nations teaches a student the importance of tolerance and the pertinence of resolving differences through dialogue and compromise.

> To succeed in the Model U.N. environment takes the skills of a negotiator: to know how to listen, to persuade, and to sense when to step back and when to push for agreement. These skills are acquired more readily through life-like simulations than through traditional classroom learning, to which the Model U.N. is an excellent supplement. If young people are to meet the challenges of an even more complex and demanding world, then tomorrow's leaders will need these attributes in abundance (Muldoon, 1992, p. 1).

Therefore, the Model U.N. is another approach teachers can add to their repertoire since this program satisfies a great many of the eclectic methods described earlier. For example, a Model U.N. simulation is interdisciplinary (skills in geography, history, science, math, Language Arts, etc. are all needed by students). It also asks students to investigate the country they represent thoroughly, and most importantly is a very flexible, adjustable teaching model. There is room in the simulation for debating, writing, researching, and discussing.

> Through various stages of inquiry, study, negotiation, and debate, students develop skills and gain substantive knowledge about international issues and about national perspectives on those issues....As students simulate international organizations, they begin to find new answers to tough questions, to learn to reflect opposing points of view, and to utilize the tools of peaceful change. They also gain a better understanding of the role of the United Nations in the world community and often develop a life-long interest in international affairs (Reiss, 1984, p. 1).

By participating in the simulation, students have opportunities to develop a great many worthwhile skills. The Model U.N. simulation is a valuable experience for students. This paper then, contends that teachers can use the Model U.N. as a basic framework to teach students both skills and content. In addition, students will be exposed to concepts of moral development.

> Ultimately the task of education is to help individuals learn what it takes to shape a society which is sustainable, which creates the fullest possible condition for human growth...One way to seize the opportunity is to deal directly, through education, with the social, political, and moral problems which the reality of change has produced throughout the world. This means that schools can and should become the centers for inquiry into social and political structures and processes, bringing to bear the power of moral and social intelligence so that clearer understanding and improved management of institutions, social change, and policy formation can be assured within the world society (Henderson, 1968, pp. 14-15).

Therefore, we can now summarize the following points: (1) Students need knowledge to develop values to become responsible citizens. (2) Students need opportunities to develop global awareness.

However, before the paradigm is complete, the second question still needs to be answered: What content will be taught? After

all, teaching skills is not enough. Students need a balance between skills and content. The next few paragraphs provide direction on what content could be taught in schools.

Clearly, teachers need a content model to follow. An example is given below; namely, interdependency:

> Our democracy is based upon the belief that we, as citizens, need to be well-informed about our local community, our nation, and our world if decisions are to be thoughtful and intelligent. If we are to be effective citizens, we must have an understanding of the complexities of global interdependence, and we must have the basic skills necessary to communicate with people from diverse cultural backgrounds (forward in Teacher's Guide to Model United Nations, by F. Smith, President: Global Perspectives in Education, 1984).

Nevertheless, this is only one possible content paradigm. There are several other content themes a teacher could decide to highlight and use to encourage students to become responsible citizens. A great many writers have developed and discussed different content emphases. The M.U.N. can assist in all of them. For example, a Model U.N. Simulation:

a) presents students with a global view of our interdependent world. The Model U.N. is a framework for teaching about the world community. And students should be educated to have a deep sense of loyalty to the global community. International education strives to establish these concepts:

    1) adults are trying to make this a better world,
    2) nations share their skills, and
    3) the UN attempts to foster international cooperation;

b) promotes knowledge of the United Nations;

> Knowledge and understanding of the aims and activities of the United Nations and its related agencies contribute to the fostering among young people of the ideas of peace and international cooperation and should therefore be promoted as widely as possible (Kemmorthy, 1978, p. 13);

c) teaches diplomacy and consensus building;

> When trying to build consensus in a multilateral setting, diplomats have to constantly adjust to the ongoing process of negotiations. The process compels each country in the Model U.N. to find common ground amidst competing and conflicting national interests. through discussion, negotiation, and compromise, an international consensus does emerge...Consensus is the fundamental objective of the Model United Nations (Muldoon, 1993, p. 4);

d) teaches strong democratic values such as the ones Tyler described:

> (1) the recognition of the importance of every individual human being as a human regardless of his race, national, social, or economic status; (2) opportunity for wide participation in all phases of activities in the social groups in the society; (3) encouragement of variability rather than demanding a single type of personality; (4) faith in intelligence as a method of dealing with important problems rather than depending upon the authority of an autocratic or aristocratic group (1949, p. 34);

e) emphasizes the civic culture of the world. Boulding in her book Building a Global Civic Culture: Education for an Interdependent World (1988), discusses this in terms of helping students realize the commonality of our lives - common space, common resources, common opportunities;

f) promotes active learning on the part of the students. Active learning is defined as the creation of a classroom climate and organization in which students become decision-makers along with their teachers. In this type of classroom, the student's "voice" is heard and encouraged. Using this content, students would learn to become participatory in our democratic society;

g) utilizes and incorporates a variety of teaching techniques; namely, creative arts, drama, artistic expression, simulations, case studies, debates, role-playing, scenario-building, as well as audio-visual presentations. With this content, students recognize the interconnectedness of learning;

h) deals with current topics in the present which are relevant to students today while also giving skills to students to prepare them for the future;

i) teaches curriculum as an agenda for social reconstruction, (see Schubert, 1986, p. 32); and

j) teaches curriculum as experience, (Schubert, 1986, pp. 30-31).

As an indication of how flexible the Model United Nations simulation can be, content examples #i and #j will be expanded and explained more fully and in more detail.

First, using curriculum as an agenda for social reconstruction, the purpose of schooling is to improve the social order. Or as Tyler states it, but in the form of a question, "Should the school develop young people to fit into the present society as it is or does the school have a revolutionary mission to develop young people who will seek to improve the society?" (1949, p. 35).

This image of curriculum proposes the following content paradigm: a school's agenda should provide students with knowledge and values to guide them in improving society; including the cultural institutions, beliefs, and activities supporting it. This concept is taken from Dewey who felt that schools should promote growth in schools.

> And for Dewey, human growth, the achievement of potential, was the best training for citizenship, especially in a democracy. Growth, in Dewey's sense of the word, meant that men and women would be empowered to act in society in ways that would involve them cooperatively with others (Osborne, 1991, p. 34).

In an M.U.N. simulation, students design the assignment's purpose and then they develop and defend that design. Students identify and study national and international issues. This becomes activist participation. As well, students have the opportunity to determine utopian plans for a better world. There is no indoctrination or brainwashing - educators do not play the role of deity in the dictating of social change. The students are presented with alternatives to the future. They hear and read a

full repertoire of choices. In addition, students are in total charge of their learning. This learning is heavily individualized since pairs of students in the class are researching different countries. The students are attempting to find answers to 'real' problems that they read about using current materials. Improving social order becomes the purpose of schooling. As an example, a social reconstructionist position might be preparing students to enter the world with a desire to provide greater equity in an area such as child labour.

In addition, by using the Model U.N. simulation, students are given a major role in planning and implementing activities. This has major implications for helping students become responsible students. As Dewey stated, "There is, I think, no point in the philosophy of progressive education which is sounder than its emphasis upon the importance of the participation of the learner in the formation of the purposes which direct his activities in the learning process," (1986, p. 67).

The second expanded example concerns Schubert's image of curriculum as experience. Using this image of curriculum, the teacher becomes a facilitator of personal growth for the students. The curriculum becomes a process. The students continually reflect on what they've learned and on their own personal growth. The methodology ranges from:

1) teaching students desirable changes that should be made
2) and equipping them with critical thinking skills.

Equipping students with critical thinking skills allows them to view the world as possibilities for improvement. In other words, schools should change society rather than perpetuate the status quo. This parallels closely Dewey's ideas regarding education as a means-end continuum. Dewey's position was that educational means and ends are inseparable parts of a single process: experience.

Using this content paradigm, students attend to their experiences reflectively and they strive to anticipate and monitor the consequences of their actions and thoughts. Using international education as a teaching tool, the curriculum, as experienced by students, has meaning. It's not just facts to be memorized or behaviors to be demonstrated. After all, education is an active process. The teacher, as a collaborator with the student, facilitates the student's search for experiences that contribute to personal growth.

Interestingly enough, the teacher doesn't need to work out a curriculum for personal growth with each and every student, because students are doing that for themselves! This type of "discovery" learning does not free the teacher from responsibility, as some critics have argued. Instead, it makes the teacher responsible for ensuring that what is discovered is educationally valuable.

As a brief illustration, a simple introductory lesson plan could be developed by asking a simple question to a class of students: "What kind of world will you live in when you are adults?" The discussion would continue by saying we can reasonably predict what that world will look like based on some current generalizations:

1) in 30 years, population experts predict at least 5.3 billion inhabitants and at most 7.4 billion;
2) most of the world's people live in Asia;
3) most of the world's people are non-Caucasion;
4) most of the world's people are farmers and fishermen living in villages;
5) most of the world's people are abysmally poor;
6) most of the world's people are ill-fed, ill-housed, ill-clothed and ill;
7) most of the world's people are non-Christian;
8) most of the world's people live under some form of socialist economy and government;

9) most of the world's people are working together, despite difficulties, in the United Nations and its agencies; and
10) five out of seven of the largest nations are in Asia (China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Japan).

From these statistics, a very personal and relevant discussion would ensue. And students would be motivated to investigate further. Or another example could begin with this thought: Christianity is the largest single world religion. But most of the people of the world are adherents of other faiths or philosophies of life. Again, the point for the students is that we are going to have to learn to live with people of a variety of world faiths in a pluralistic world.

Also, the M.U.N. activities give students the necessary skills to be active participants in our society. It gives students the necessary skills that will help them change our society. Students begin to recognize international patterns in events reported in the newspaper and on the evening news. The world is changing and moving closer together. "It is important for school people and others interested in education to understand the change process 'in order to make it work for us.' As educators we need to be proactive (Tye, 1992, p. 7).

Hopefully, the above paragraphs have answered the content question: Exactly how do teachers prepare students to be responsible citizens? Tyler's fourth question regarding evaluation will be more fully explored in CHAPTER V: Planning and Operating a Model U.N. Course.

Nevertheless, there are critics of the Model U.N. Simulation. Several criticisms will be dealt with below.

Firstly, some critics say the Model U.N. is elitist because only certain students can participate. These critics say it is exclusionary. There are two possible answers to this accusation.

> The very essence of schools is elitism. Schools exist to teach, to test, to rank hierarchically, to promote the idea that knowing and understanding more is better than knowing and understanding less. Education is elitist. Civilization is elitist... (Henry III, 1994, p. 59).

While this comment makes logical sense, it does not make compassionate sense. A more inclusive answer to the problem of elitism would be to open the participation in the Model U.N. to all applicants. As long as prospective participants make the necessary commitment to the program, they should be allowed, and even required, to participate.

A second criticism relates to cost. If there was a cost to participants this means some students may be excluded. However, this point is almost always made regarding International Model U.N. Conferences; ones which take place overseas between countries. If the Model U.N. occurred in a school or a school division, costs would be negligible.

Third, critics have questioned the emphasis on competition and "winning" that takes place at some Model U.N. simulations. Again, the answer to this criticism would be to down-play such an emphasis. If diplomacy and cooperation is stressed, and if "good" speeches rather than "best" speeches are emphasized, this concern would be answered.

A fourth criticism goes like this: Are educational benefits attained through simulations? Do students view it simply as a game and so learning is lessened? Whether or not this is actually the case in a Model U.N. "depends in part upon the participants and how well prepared they are to assume their assigned roles, and in part upon the simulation directors and how well they can incorporate clearly articulated educational objectives into the simulation" (Hazelton, 1966, p. 149). Exactly. The success of a Model U.N. is directly proportional to the quality of the participants and the directors. If a good Model U.N. is to be achieved, good input from all must first occur.

Lastly, critics contend that Model U.N. achievements are overstated. Assessments have not been done because faculty observers, like the participants, tend to become so absorbed in the interaction and excitement of the simulation that any subsequent evaluation is made in terms of, "You just had to be there," to comprehend the educational worth of the Model U.N. experience. This criticism has much merit. Assessment in the affective and cognitive domains needs to be improved. More strenuous and exacting methodology must be applied to Model U.N.'s in the future. However, this criticism can be quickly addressed by doing the proper methodology.

Therefore, the first three criticisms can be dismissed or easily corrected. Nevertheless, the fourth criticism regarding poor assessment in the past is valid. This criticism needs to be addressed and corrected. Ideas in the area of assessment will be presented in Chapter IV and V.

CHAPTER IV: Planning and Operating the Model United Nations Course

---

Chapter overview:

This chapter describes how action research methods were used to collect data over the five months of the study. In addition, the course content and lesson plans that were used will be elaborated in the following pages. In particular, data from journals and interviews were used to document the growth of global mindedness in the Grade 9 students.

Students and colleagues were asked to respond to a variety of questions relating to how well the course ran, what they learned during the semester, and what improvements were needed. Overall, the responses from students and colleagues were extremely positive.

In addition, the responses, both oral and written, were used to ascertain whether or not global mindedness was present. Again, the results were very encouraging.

> I have learned a great deal from this course, which includes diplomacy, sovereignty, interdependence, and the basic format. This course has educated me to look beyond Canada and discover the whole world.
>
> I have learned a lot from this course. I've learned more about the United Nations and other cultures. Most importantly, I think this course has made many of us more open-minded towards other cultures and their beliefs and has taught us that, although our beliefs may be different from others, it is important to respect that others have the right to their own opinions and beliefs.

These are the voices of Grade 9 students, recorded after completing a five-month Model United Nations course. These voices illustrate a common theme of a change in their perception. Namely, these students have begun to demonstrate 'global mindedness.'

As was explained and expanded in Chapter I, global mindedness is defined in this thesis as: "The enhancement of students' understanding of peoples, places, and cultures throughout the world." During the collection of data in this study, the assumption is that students will have developed global mindedness when they can demonstrate either orally or in writing the following dimensions as expanded by Hanvey (1979) and Anderson (1979):

1. an awareness of different cultural viewpoints on similar issues;
2. an understanding of prevailing world conditions;
3. an appreciation of similarities & differences between cultures;
4. a knowledge of how the world is interconnected & interdependent;
5. a sense of their global identity, their world citizenship.

One way of acquiring this kind of practical knowledge is for students to see their personal problems as being related to world issues. This chapter will describe what else it will do, e.g. document the process of establishing a Model U.N. course. As covered in Chapter I, a Model United Nations course is intended to teach students about the United Nations, the international political system, selected global issues, and the forces which shape a nation's foreign policy.

This chapter will contain six sections, consisting of the following:

(1) a short, background synopsis of my interest and experience in teaching global education;
(2) a description of the development of the Model U.N. course at Valley Gardens Junior High School - the "proposal";
(3) a statement showing how the definition of global mindedness grew out of the Model U.N. project;

(4) a demonstration of how this thesis fits within the action research model;
(5) an explanation of how the action research for this paper was carried out - its methodology; and
(6) analysis of the data: including student interviews and discussion/ findings.

A. Background Synopsis:

To begin, I first learned about the Model United Nations "movement" while working at Seoul International School in South Korea from 1992 to 1995. Half way through my first year at SIS, there was an opening to become the Model U.N. co-ordinator. I was selected for the position and over the next 2 1/2 years I chaperoned high school students in Grades 11 and 12 to eight Model U.N. Conferences taking place in various cities throughout North-east Asia: Seoul, Taipei, and Beijing.

Fortunately for me, there was a wide selection of material available on the M.U.N. I was able to contact the United Nations Association of the United States of America and order materials to assist me in my job as coordinator. The UNA of the USA is very busy supplying materials to educators as each year there are about 150 major Model U.N. Conferences held around the world, involving 60 000 students each. These M.U.N. programs can range in size from 15 students in a single classroom, simulating the Security Council, to thousands in a convention hotel, covering the full range of UN activities.

UNA-USA has been the national coordinator of the Model United Nations programs in the United States for over 25 years. It is also the international center for information, materials, and services about the M.U.N. As the self-professed leading global expert on Model U.N. methods and practices, UNA-USA offers quality materials, publications, and guidance to both participants and organizers within the M.U.N. community.

In particular, UNA-USA was able to provide general information on initiatives taken by the United Nations in political, economic, and social fields. Some of these relevant materials were:

- Supplementary Guidance Paper for Participants in Model U.N. Sessions
- A Brief Guide to UN Document Symbols and Official Records
- Guide to Delegate Preparation

It is not the intent of this paper to detail every piece of information used in the preparation of SIS students for participation at the various M.U.N. Conferences. However, interested educators can easily call UNA-USA for assistance, and sources of further information are listed in the bibliography. In addition, a good Canadian reference is the Model United Nations Activities Sourcebook by Gordon Watson (1996) or the United Nations Association of Canada. My main purpose for including background information on the Model U.N. movement is to reassure educators who are contemplating attempting such a course in their school, that help is available even to a novice. And, such a course is not an over-whelming activity for the uninitiated.

I found that one of the greatest assets of the Model U.N. is its simplicity. Developing a Model U.N. course of studies and holding a Conference does not require advanced technologies, large budgets, or extravagant environs to be conducted successfully. As stated earlier, a Conference can be held in either a regular classroom or a large convention hotel.

During my time as M.U.N. co-ordinator at SIS, I came to appreciate the opportunities the program offered to students. Specifically, the purposes and goals of the Model United Nations program are to:

1. advance the interests of international education;
2. get students to focus on global affairs and the formulation of peaceful resolutions to world problems;
3. help develop communication skills in students;

4. promote interest and support for the work of the United Nations; and to
5. increase public awareness on issues of international concern.

I left SIS with a desire to continue my involvement in the "movement."

B. M.U.N. Course Development at Valley Gardens:

In 1995, after a three year leave of absence, I returned to Winnipeg and a position within my school division. As high school positions were difficult to come by, I was placed in Valley Gardens Junior High in the River East School Division in Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Valley Gardens is much like any other North American Junior High School. It is organized using a subject-based departmental structure. Timetabling is done on a six period day of fifty minutes each. And the school is of average size - approximately 500 students, from Grades 7 to 9.

However, after having successfully worked at SIS with senior high school students (16, 17, and 18 year olds), I was reluctant to attempt a similar Model U.N. program with 14 and 15 year old junior high students. The main point to make here is that the M.U.N. "literature" deals with high school and older students, so my project would equal a new departure. Therefore, my reluctance centred on several factors:

1. the students' (potential lack of) maturity. By definition, a Model U.N. program involves the study of adult material; for example, students need to study the organization of the UN, its history, and issues such as nuclear disarmament, etc. In addition, the Conference asks students to take the role of a delegate from a different culture. Can 14 year olds do this? For an entire day? I wasn't sure.

2. My lack of M.U.N. experience with this age group. My previous training had been with Grade 11 and 12 students. How much would I have to change my expectations for younger students?
3. The absence of other junior high M.U.N. programs in Winnipeg or elsewhere. At SIS, I had the opportunity to interact with advisors from 50 different Model U.N. schools. I was able to learn a great deal from them as well as receive their support. In Winnipeg, I would be alone.
4. The normal difficulties associated with all new endeavors. This Model U.N. course was being newly developed. Where would I get materials appropriate for this age? Would the SIS high school materials be adequate? etc.
5. Lack of continuity. At SIS, uninitiated students were paired with older, more experienced ones to "show them the ropes." In the Valley Gardens course, all the students were at the same entry level; namely, zero experience!

Nevertheless, at the end of my first year at Valley Gardens (1996) I approached the principal with a proposal to develop a Model U.N. "course" for the following school year ('96-'97). I had overcome my initial reluctance, changed my mind, and written a proposal. I decided to go ahead with the course proposal because I:

1. enjoyed so very much the potential benefits of working with students on a Model United Nations course and Conference.
2. Taught the Grade 8 students who would be taking the potential course the following year. I had the opportunity to work with these students and felt they had the abilities to successfully participate in a Model U.N. course while in Grade 9.
3. Learned I would not be transferred to a senior high school. And I did not want to wait another year before

implementing a Model U.N. program in the River East School Division.

4. Found out that Valley Gardens had recently became wired into the internet. With internet capabilities for every M.U.N. student, potential research problems suddenly lessened.
5. Discovered that UNA-Canada had an office in Winnipeg. They turned out to be extremely helpful with ideas and materials.
6. Received strong support from my principal, colleagues, and faculty advisor.

In my proposal to the principal, we discussed the format of the potential course. Traditionally, a Model U.N. course fits into three academic contexts:

1. Extra-curricular: the Model U.N. is most often established in an extra-curricular setting as a student club or an after school activity. For example, at SIS, the administration viewed M.U.N. as an extra-curricular activity and so "The MUNsters" met after school for a weekly 90 minute session.

2. Co-curricular: increasingly, the Model U.N. is developed as one of the electives in a school's curriculum; for example, a Social Studies teacher may elect to spend five weeks of class time studying the United Nations and one important issue.

3. Curricular: a Model U.N. program rarely becomes part of the curriculum, but there are schools that have done so. In such cases, a Conference is organized for a class or grade level and is conducted as part of the normal schedule of classes.

As can be readily seen, the Model U.N. process is very flexible, can be used with different student populations, and takes place in

a variety of settings. As an example of its flexibility, it can be easily expanded from a semester course to a full year one. It is also interdisciplinary and can be readily expanded into other subject areas.

At Valley Gardens, we were going to use a 'hybrid' approach of the three traditional academic contexts. We were going to make our Model U.N. a co-curricular, five-month course. Then we would invite outside schools to attend our Conference. This hybrid approach was popular with the students, as can be seen from the following comments early in the semester.

> I think the upcoming M.U.N. Conference will be great! I seriously cannot wait until our school hosts a big-time Conference. Also I can't wait to debate against other schools.
>
> I think the M.U.N. process is neat because you get to debate over different issues with different countries and now we're going against different schools. It really is like being part of the UN.
>
> The upcoming M.U.N. seems to sound quite fun. I actually am getting quite excited. It's great that we have other schools participating in our M.U.N. in this upcoming May. It will be a good experience to hear how they bring up their speech and is a very good way to improve on yours. I believe that it will be a lot of fun and it is a great experience to learn about these countries.
>
> I think the M.U.N. Conference is a great opportunity for us to learn about land mines. I also think that it's a good opportunity for other schools to practise this so they can hold their own M.U.N. The Conference also gives us a chance to act out as a country to abolish land mines. My final thought is maybe we should videotape this and send it to the real UN and show them if a bunch of kids can find the solution maybe they should use their heads more to find a solution themselves. That is my opinion of the M.U.N. Conference.

My discussion with the principal, over several hours, went along three lines. In essence, I felt we should initiate a Model U.N. course for these reasons:

1) to further global education opportunities for Valley Gardens;
2) because of the ease of implementing such a course;
3) to enhance future possibilities for the school; and

4) to teach the students global mindedness.

Valley Gardens was already involved with two global education activities. For example, Valley Gardens is twinned with Ujiie, a city in Japan. Every year, Ujiie sends students to visit our school and stay with host families for ten days in September. Then, every second year, our host students travel to Japan and are in turn hosted by Ujiie families.

In addition, the school had successfully hosted students from Bangkok, Thailand, for the first time in 1996. This hosting was facilitated through the Department of Education. For the month of October, seven Thai junior high students attended Valley Gardens and lived with families in our community.

Therefore, I presented the Model United Nations course as a natural extension to these global education activities already in place. In addition to the international exposure our community/school received from student representatives of Japan and Thailand, I proposed that forty receiving Grade 9 students from Valley Gardens would have the opportunity to learn about additional cultures from around the world using a Model United Nations course and simulation.

It seemed to me that this exposure to other cultures, Japanese, Thai, or otherwise, could lead the students into many of the dimensions of global mindedness; for example, an appreciation of similarities and differences between cultures. I viewed these activities as all working together towards a similar goal - increasing global mindedness in students.

Secondly, in terms of the ease of implementing a Model U.N. course, Valley Gardens School already had a Drama course in place at the Senior I (Grade 9) level. In the past, Drama teachers had presented productions to the school and community. However, over the past few years, this had not been done.

At the time of the proposal, I was not scheduled to teach Drama. Nevertheless, I proposed to cover many Drama elements - such as public speaking, debating, impromptu speaking, and role-playing - using a Model United Nations simulation. Our Conference would fill the role of our "Drama production."

My idea was to take the UNA-USA program and develop a curriculum "course" for Grade 9 students. This course would be taught three times in a six-day cycle, of fifty minutes each. It appeared, on paper at least, that the implementation of this course would be easy.

Thirdly, there was the possibility the Drama teachers in Grades 7 and 8 might want to participate in this program once they saw first-hand the benefits to the students. Then, perhaps, Valley Gardens would have a global education enrichment component encompassing all three grades, using the community, and involving students from two other countries.

Fortunately, my principal was an advocate of global education activities and programs; so, he readily endorsed the proposal. After a few meetings where technical details such as sample lesson plans, the Conference date, an overview of the course using several UNA-USA modules such as Understanding the United Nations, were discussed, he enthusiastically endorsed the idea of proceeding with a Model U.N. course with me as the Grade 9 Drama teacher starting in Sept. 1996.

At Valley Gardens, Drama is a semestered course, so I used the first two terms (September to January) to work out some of the "bugs" in my teaching. For example, I had assumed students were at least briefly familiar with the United Nations. That was a poor assumption. I found that I needed to spend at least eight classes going over background information on the UN. I put this knowledge to good use in the following term when I made sure to collect adequate preparation materials for a United Nations review.

This review was not difficult since there is an abundance of current information concerning the United Nations in the daily newspapers and magazines. We spent the first three weeks covering background information on the UN such as: how it operated, its history, and terminology/vocabulary associated with the UN. The worksheets and handouts that I used are included in the Appendix. This review was tedious for some students but was absolutely necessary in order to prepare them adequately for their role of an ambassador at the up-coming Conference.

> The Model United Nations project so far is not bad. We haven't done much of the real M.U.N. yet but that will be happening soon. I really hope that it will turn out well because I don't want to have spent all this time preparing for something that won't work. It really has taught me a lot already though especially about many countries and their viewpoint on things.
>
> This year's Drama class has been a lot of fun. Especially the whole M.U.N. project. At first I thought that it would be boring. I've been proven wrong. It's different from what we're used to but it is also a lot of fun. It seems a little difficult at times but there is a first for everything. So I'm enjoying this year and I hope to do this again sometime.

Another example of changes I needed to make in the course delivery concerned my expectations for the students. Specifically, how much work was reasonable? The amount of course work was a constantly evolving and negotiated quantity as the students began to comprehend and accept that the preparation was indeed necessary. At first some students felt there was too much work assigned. However, after the Conference, the vast majority of students appreciated how well prepared they were and how necessary the work load was to achieve that high level of preparedness. Again, there was some learning involved for me as the following student quotes illustrate..

> I find that learning about the UN in Drama is a new unique experience. I find most of the work different. Drama reminds me more of L.A. or S.S. I find I work harder for a half credit in Drama than I do for two credits in L.A. I also have more homework in Drama than I do in other subjects.
>
> We do get a lot of homework and classwork but sometimes it is not bad.

Before the Conference I thought we were getting too much work for Drama, but it was worth it to be prepared.

I believe the whole workload for the whole course is a bit too much. I feel that for a Drama class we should be doing more impromptu acts with little homework, than big researching projects during class time and after school. There was a lot of research required for the M.U.N. Conference and at times it seemed a little over-bearing.

At the Conference I knew my country inside-out, but I was still nervous. The workload was fairly big, but now I know why!

Another area needing "de-bugging" was that I had underestimated the need for "selling" the course to prospective Drama students before they signed up. Potential Drama students chose the M.U.N. course as an option from three areas: Music, Art, and Drama. I quickly learned that I needed to promote this new course with the Semester II students. To this end, I approached the Grade 9 Team Leader, and the Music and Art teachers. We decided to call a meeting with all the Grade 9 students in January to make a presentation regarding our course contents for Semester II. In this way, students signing up for Drama were well aware of the expectations. Therefore, the vast majority of Semester II students saw the drama elements in the M.U.N. course.

As a result of my "selling" the benefits of the course, I was able to encourage a group of students who wanted to do the work necessary for a successful M.U.N. Conference to register. Plus, many students told me that they had talked with students from Semester I Drama, and they thought it would be "a neat idea to learn about another country and argue interesting topics."

It's like a thinking man's Drama. It's like a play and you're a delegate and you put your research into that part.

The M.U.N. was even better than a play because you don't know what's going to happen next.

Some people were complaining that this wasn't Drama class, it was Social Studies, and that we weren't acting. Really though, when you think about it, we were acting and if you have to represent a country with different views than your own, your job as an actor is a lot tougher. You have to try

> and argue points that you don't believe in and you have to make it sound sincere and convincing, which in my opinion is the hardest acting job you will ever encounter in your life.

An additional "bug" that needed working on concerned the use of the internet. As a novice myself in terms of the internet's possibilities and applications, I had to work alongside the students as we "surfed" and found useful sites. But this was time-consuming, and sometimes frustrating. So, I kept a log of the best generic sites we had found to be used in the next semester. Interestingly, one off-shoot of this thesis was a paper detailing the most productive sites.

The sites we found most helpful were: http://www.un.org - the official United Nations home page in New York and http://www.unac.org - the Canadian United Nations web site from Ottawa. Plus, the students liked the UN Electronic Field Trip at: http://www.pbs.org/tal/un. All these sites contained excellent links for the students to research their countries and topics.

Or, if a teacher wished to have a name to put to a face, s/he could contact Fernando Flores, Model United Nations Coordinator for the United Nations Association of the USA. His address is:

Fernando Flores
UNA-USA
485 Fifth Avenue
New York NY 10017
Fax.: 212-682-9185
Email unany@igc.apc.org

The Canadian Information Officer for the United Nations Association in Canada is Joan Broughton.

130 Slater Suite 900
Ottawa Ontario K1P 6E2
Tel.: 613-232-5751 (#230)
Fax.: 613-563-2455
Email unac@web.apc.org

There is also a brand new Model U.N. Discussion Area, chaired by Christian Westbrook. His email address is: chair@unol.org. You can access this site on the Web at: http://www.unol.org.

Lastly, the students found the new Model U.N. Discussion Area to be a worthwhile site to visit. At this site, email: globalschoolbus@un.org, students had the chance to post messages, respond to fellow students, and see how delegates at other Conferences were progressing. The MUNDA offered ideas and help to students who were preparing to represent their chosen countries.

In the first semester, we used the issue of child labour as our topic of study. I chose child labour for several reasons. First, I wanted to select a topic the students could relate to since I was unsure how Grade 9 students would react to the material. Second, it was very topical. This was an issue on the fore-front of the UN agenda. Third, there were plenty of available materials. For example, Craig Keilburger was quite prominent at this time in newspapers and magazines.

Overall, the first semester was extremely useful to my own development. I learned what worked, what didn't, and how to tailor the assignments to a 14 and 15 year old level. In particular, I learned that in order for the M.U.N. course to be successful with Grade 9 students, I needed to:

1) advertise and sell the course as an option;
2) give them topical and interesting topics to research;
3) have plenty of varied materials (video, guest speakers, hand-outs, etc.) on hand to explain the topic under study;
4) learn more about using the Internet as a research tool;
5) and make sure I fully explained how the amount of homework was indeed necessary for a successful Conference.

Of course, this last point would be much easier next year when students who had already participated in the entire process could be invited to a class to relate their experiences. Overall, after

the first semester, I felt that the course was by no means perfect, but it did have a great deal of potential.

Then, in February, after this trial run, I was ready to work with two Drama classes with a total of forty Grade 9 students to prepare them for a Model United Nations Conference to be held at Valley Gardens in late May of 1997. This particular conference tackled the problem of land mines.

The topic of land mines, for our one-day Conference, was chosen because:

1) the problem of land mines was on this year's UN General Assembly agenda, and so there would be current information in the media;
2) Canada was playing an instrumental role through the efforts of the Foreign Affairs Minister, Llyod Axworthy, in organizing the Ottawa Process for December '97. Therefore, there was immediate relevance for the students;
3) there was immediacy for the students since the vast majority of land mine casualties were women and children;
4) for the Valley Gardens Conference, only one issue was chosen because there were so many details to teach the students during the semester: how to research properly, how to write and make effective speeches, and preparing resolutions. I felt that to prepare for more than one issue, as is usually done for M.U.N. Conferences, would be confusing for the students;
5) The Valley Gardens Conference would take place over just one day, not the traditional two or three days, because we only had one topic and because I was not certain how long Grade 9 students could stay focused in the simulation.

The Valley Gardens course was going to be a departure from "traditional" M.U.N. courses because this course would be part of the "regular" curriculum. As such, this course would come complete with assignments, homework, lesson plans, assessments,

and all the other components of a school's curriculum. In terms of credits, the Drama/M.U.N. course would be worth a half-credit for the Grade 9 students to use toward their Grade 10 year.

As stated earlier, a Model United Nations course and Conference is usually taught to university and/or high school students (Grades 11 and 12). Therefore, the Valley Gardens course was both a departure from the traditional M.U.N. courses and from traditional Drama courses. It was a departure from other M.U.N. programs because of the age group involved. It was a departure from other Drama courses because these students were primarily going to be asked to think about their own learning while conducting research on a topic and a country of interest to them.

The Valley Gardens M.U.N. course was in fact designed to create conditions which would be conducive for the development of the students' personal knowledge, control, and awareness of learning. Students were going to be asked to participate in personal reflection. For example, during the 5-month course, students were asked to reflect in journal assignments on what they had learned. For instance, was the course meeting their expectations, how was the world was interconnected, what could the future hold for their lives, the Conference, and what needed improving. The growth of this 'reflexivity' is best summarized by six of the students who wrote these comments in their journals after completing ten M.U.N. classes:

> I think the M.U.N. has been O.K. so far. I think this could be a fun way to learn about how other countries work. I think it will be good to know how other countries function and how they solve problems. It will be good to know how people in other countries are taught, so we know what we could be up against in the future. I think when we get to the Conference it will be a fun and exciting way to learn...I think the M.U.N. Conference will be a great way to learn about the world.
>
> I feel that learning about the UN in Drama is a new, unique experience. I feel the Conference is a good idea. We all get to meet new people who are just like us and studying what we are studying. The Conference is something

to look forward to. Getting to apply what we know to an almost real like setting of the UN is good. The Conference will be a good experience.

I'm kind of looking forward to our M.U.N. and I hope it turns out well. I also think that land mines is a good topic to discuss at the M.U.N. because the problem is worldwide. Every country has something to say on it because almost every country was involved in the two world wars. It is a terrible thing for people to live through and I hope that one day the real UN can do something about it. I also hope that we can come to some answers at our M.U.N.

I like the idea of doing a Model United Nations because you get a chance to learn about a new country you like or you get a chance to learn about a new country. When we first started doing the M.U.N. I thought it had nothing to do with Drama and now I see it does. You have to play the role of a delegate from another country.

I feel that the M.U.N. we are doing is very interesting and fun because we always get to voice our opinion. Drama this year is sort a like Language Arts and Social but still I enjoy it. The M.U.N. has given me a chance to learn about our world and how a group of countries try to fix and amend all.

I find the Model United Nations process very interesting...Although researching the countries is not as interesting as acting out the M.U.N., I still think it's interesting to see where countries stand on certain issues.

In educational literature, there are many definitions of reflection. Dewey's classic definition is probably the best. He described reflection as a mode of thought which is able to "transform a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious," (1933, p. 101). Having students research a country they might have never heard of and knew little about, study a topic (land mines) of which they had no previous knowledge, and then have to reach consensus with students from other schools, fits Dewey's scenario.

One of the purposes of this study was to demonstrate that the goal of attaining global mindedness for the students at Valley Gardens Junior High School can be achieved by having students develop the ability to reflect by participating in a Model United Nations course. Data on students' reflections would be collected every four weeks. Students would be asked to write self-evaluations on what they had been learning and any changes in their perceptions

as is described in the excerpts from their journals. Since they were also learning about other cultures, I anticipated growth in their 'global mindedness.'

C. Global Mindedness:

The intent of the Valley Gardens course that the reflective environment that was created for the students should lead them to think about the world and other cultures in ways they had not done before. The intent was to develop 'global mindedness' in the students.

And this was the link with the land mine issue. By doing research on the topic of land mines, the students would hopefully be able to understand: (1) how the world is interconnected, (2) that what happens in one place can affect people in other places, and (3) how people from different cultures have different viewpoints on similar issues.

As stated earlier, for the purposes of this research, global mindedness is defined as: "The enhancement of students' understanding of peoples, places, and cultures throughout the world."

A basic premise of this research is that the Model United Nations course can hopefully help to answer the question: What will students need to know when they're 25? This concept was more fully investigated in Chapter III. The anticipated answer to the question was that for our global village, students will need to know:

(a) that different cultures think differently, and
(b) how to reach consensus on difficult issues with these cultures.

D. Action Research:

This study fits within the action research model definition that was described in Chapter I. The action research plan, or general

idea, was to collect data on students as they developed 'global mindedness'. As stated by Elliott, (1991, p. 72) "the 'general idea' refers to the state of affairs or situation one wishes to change or improve on." The collection of the data was intended to help me to clarify the nature of the problem. It was hoped that the collection of this information would also provide me with a basis for classifying the relevant facts, while also leading to some fairly radical changes in my understanding of the original idea.

Basically, this was a microethnographic study, with the following characteristics:

(a) The events can be interpreted only within the context of the inquiry. That is, the researcher was a component of the setting and involved with the data collection.
(b) Nothing is taken for granted. Everything is reported.
(c) In this qualitative research, the students spoke for themselves, to provide their own unique, and sometimes contradictory, perspectives. Consequently, the data collection was an interactive process in which the students conveyed their experiences, attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs to the teacher/researcher voluntarily.

Action researchers are constantly comparing their data as they conduct their research. Thus, five of my initial questions that had an impact upon the students and the subsequent analysis were:

1. How can a Model U.N. course support reflexive thinking?
2. What practical problems occur in teaching the concept of global mindedness?
3. Is a Model United Nations course viable with Grade 9 students?
4. How do we know if 'global mindedness' is present?
5. How does becoming a teacher-researcher transform my practice, research, and pedagogy?

This study was one of naturalistic inquiry, using qualitative techniques that emphasized teacher/student attitudes, interests, and value systems. Since I was immersed in the setting of the study as the action researcher, it was a type of "microethnography" insofar as the setting was a small social unit (the classroom), and the identifiable activity (a Model United Nations course) is conducted within that social unit.

Overall, a qualitative researcher's major concern is to understand the phenomenon that is being studied. A qualitative methodology assumes that inquiry must focus on the interpretation of meaningful expressions: its two key concepts are human action and social action. My goals were:

(1) to interpret and portray the thoughts and feelings of my students,
(2) to better understand the development process of 'global mindedness' as they moved through the process of the M.U.N. course and Conference, and
(3) to reach a pragmatic goal - to see how and whether the course could "work" and what I might have to do to improve it where needed.

E. Methodology:

Important insights were gained from observing my own teaching practices, receiving comments from my colleagues, and recording anecdotes from informal interview sessions with many of the students. I will elaborate on these in the next chapter.

The intent in this section is to describe in detail exactly what I planned to do, with whom I planned to do it, and how I planned to do it. Thereby, anyone should be able to duplicate the methodology and replicate the results.

Basically, this project proceeded through an action research spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting. At each stage, I was intimately involved as I attempted to improve

my teaching practice. Much of the data in this chapter and the next, will be portrayed in narrative form and direct quotations.

First, I needed to address the procedures for the protection of human subjects, congruent with the University of Manitoba's policies regarding research involving the use of human subjects. The subjects for this study were forwarded a consent form which asked both them and their parents to sign an agreement to participate in the study. This form is included in the Appendix. All students participating in the Drama course were informed that their test results would be used to help evaluate the course and both the students and parents were asked to sign a consent form giving their permission to participate in an interview. Finally, the students were informed that the collected data would be used in a dissertation, with individuals remaining anonymous and only group data being reported.

The data reported in this study come from two classes of similar size, collected when the subjects were 14 and 15 years old. The study was longitudinal (five months: February to June '97) and qualitative in nature. Overall then, this was a mini-qualitative research study concerning the usefulness of a Model United Nations course to encourage global mindedness in forty Grade 9 students.

A qualitative approach was used to gather and interpret data in the Senior I Drama/M.U.N. class. Information was gathered using a variety of sources, several of which will be used as the basis for description, analysis, and interpretation of results in this study. The primary data came from transcriptions of tape-recorded sessions. Supporting data came from general classroom observations, questionnaires, brainstorming, surveys, hand-outs, reflective writings, and student work.

The research methods included: video-recordings of the Conference; audio-taping students' conversations; collecting work samples; and talking to students about their understandings and feelings. Historically, the use of questionnaires or surveys is one of the

most widely used techniques in educational research, (Isaac, 1971). I wanted to use these collection tools to obtain data deemed essential to the study, but not available from existing records.

The goal of the M.U.N. course was to help students make connections between what they were learning and what they already knew using self-reflection and a simulation. The M.U.N. process assumes that teachers can assist this connection through the use of structured exposure to a variety of events/materials/activities. The following techniques were used to help students connect with what they already knew:

- build background knowledge
- pre-teach key words/phrases/vocabulary
- give a purpose for activities
- model/practice the activities
- make predictions
- reflect/self-monitor
- evaluate
- apply knowledge to a situation

Appendix "A" presents examples of vocabulary words and quizzes, handouts, and research outlines that were used in the course. Also, Chapter III presents a more detailed explanation of the above activities.

In terms of the day-today teaching, this Model U.N. course would pursue a three-step instructional sequence - Preparation, Participation, and Evaluation.

The first step was Preparation. This is the most familiar educational element of the Model U.N. Students were to go through an intensive preparation process where they were to research the countries they would represent, organize positions, prepare policy papers, draft resolutions, and practice the rules of procedure and public speaking techniques.

Students were allowed to have input into which country they would represent as well as who their partner would be. At the beginning of the semester, I asked for a persuasive letter which would document one of three countries they were interested in researching and why. Plus, they were asked to select two partners they would like to work with over the next five months and tell me why. I promised the students they would be given either a country they asked for or a partner they had elected. Because of the large pool of countries and partners, I was able to deliver on this promise. In this way, students had some ownership in the process.

This five-month period of time devoted to preparation was necessary since students were being asked to role-play diplomats from other countries and they needed to discover what their assigned country's positions or policies were on the matter to be discussed during the simulation; in this case, land mines.

In addition, the preparation time was necessary so that when the students did reflect on what they had learned, they would be able to compare how their views of the world have changed.

> Well for the M.U.N. that we're doing on land mines I'd like to be a country that is seriously against them or seriously for them....The reason why I want to be Afghanistan is because I want a challenge. I find it neat to study a country that goes totally against my own beliefs.

Through the use of worksheets, homework assignments, speech writing, resolution writing, and journal entries, students were required to research and study three basic areas:

1. the United Nations and its work;
2. the government, policies, and interests of a UN member state (which they will represent at a Model U.N. Conference); and
3. the global issue(s) on the Conference agenda.

> I have enjoyed learning about how the M.U.N. runs and how it helps countries. The things I have learned are surprising...My opinion on the

> M.U.N. Conference is that it will be very interesting to hear other kids' opinions and ideas about land mines.

The research and study led the students to the development of "position papers" and a negotiating strategy of the assigned country for the Model U.N. Conference.

> I think the Model United Nations process is run very smoothly. We are first given information about the topic we will be talking about, so we have a better understanding of what it is we're talking about. After information is given we choose the country we will be representing and have time to research that country and how that country feels about the subject we will be discussing. Next we prepare our opening speeches and resolutions. The whole process is very authentic. Everything that happens at a real United Nations conference is taken into account and explained to us. There is enough time for us to research everything we need in order for us to do a thorough job representing that country.

The second step in the instructional process was Participation. This was the exciting and the part that made the students most nervous. All the learning and understanding gained from preparation suddenly came to life as the students became the "ambassadors" of the different UN member states. This is the "performance" where students put to the test their strategies and positions in a real-life situation.

> I felt confident because I was among my peers.

It is at this stage that students encounter and experience the social and life skills that are commonly associated with the Model U.N. - public speaking, negotiation and consultation, listening, civil behavior, and organization and management of time and resources. Taken as a whole, the skills acquired through the Model U.N. Conference manifest UN diplomacy.

The role-playing during the conference involved participants in the exciting process of synthesizing and ultimately applying the information and skills acquired during preparation. The Model U.N. experience demonstrates the importance of the precious skills of caucusing, negotiation, consensus-building, and compromise.

Well, at the beginning of the Conference, I was a little bit nervous. I thought this was going to totally bomb and I was going to suck really bad in my speech and stuff. But it turns out I was okay. After the middle of the thing I was fine.

I felt nervous at first, but once I got into it I felt well prepared that I could convince other countries to vote in my favour. I did that by bringing up points that land mines are dangerous. They kill innocent civilians and that they never sleep - they're always there.

At first I wasn't really into it, but then we got a lot of countries going, and it was really fun to just get into it. And then you don't even realize it. you're just talking away with everybody.

Okay, first of all, like when we started and I first walked in there, I was kinda nervous and there were all these kids around me. I figured that I'll just go with what I know. And after my first speech and stuff, I wasn't as nervous anymore. Like I knew what I was talking about and it turned out that some of those students weren't very bright. So I had a better chance of getting my ideas across.

I felt kind of nervous at the very beginning but it went okay as we went along. I felt comfortable after going up to talk and stuff and caucusing made it even better. I felt pretty good at the end. We got to meet people and talk about stuff that we don't really get to talk about normally.

The third (and most critical) step in the M.U.N. course was Evaluation. This was also the most difficult aspect of the course. If the Model U.N. experience is to yield all the wonderful learning suggested above, careful, instructive feedback (also known as "debriefing"), as well as assessment of the exercise for each student, must take place. The debriefing process, or the instructive feedback process, involves several classes of discussion along with journal writing to answer specific questions on the course and the simulation Conference.

"Ultimately, feedback serves as an indispensable step in the learning process by extending instruction beyond the initial questions or activity" (Latham, 1997, p. 86). This type of teaching provides a reciprocal learning experience for both the students giving the feedback and the teacher receiving it. It emphasizes a student-centred model for the classroom.

Therefore, in order to carefully debrief the students, the next class after the Conference, the students were asked to write answers to several questions. First though, we had a brainstorming discussion. Brainstorming is an idea-generating technique whereby students call-out or write-down ideas as quickly as they can. These recorded ideas are then sorted, categorized, and discussed.

I orally presented the questions to the students and then recorded all their answers on the blackboard. In this way, students' ideas were validated and others were able to immediately see how their peers felt. This exercise took the entire class as almost every student wanted to contribute an answer. Below are the questions:

1) Rate the Conference out of 10. Why did you give it that mark? What did you like best? What needs to be improved? Did the Conference turn out as you had imagined?
2) Did you feel well prepared for the Conference? Vs. the other schools? Give examples.
3) What have you learned about how the real United Nations works?
4) What have you learned about the world? Diplomacy? Other cultures?

Eliciting high quality feedback is an incredible challenge for a teacher. Students must be given training and practice to become self-reflective. Yet, the results are well worth the effort. Evaluating the results of steps #1 and #2, Preparation and Participation, was essential to bringing the M.U.N. course to closure. The brainstorming discussion provided the opportunity for the necessary reflection and thought to the simulation that young minds must do in order to appraise, in a balanced fashion, all the intellectual and emotional experiences created by the Model U.N. course and Conference.

> Evaluation should be built in from the outset. It is an integral part of development and implementation that includes both ongoing monitoring and attention to anticipated indicators of success. This process includes using data to assist in planning and decision-making. The people in the school are the owners and doers of evaluation. Reflection is built in as a regular activity. Learning from the experience of others supplements internal reflection (Kilcher, 1994, p. 5).

As stated above, this was probably the most critical step of the Model U.N. because the Model U.N. experience can generate misconceptions and reinforce undesirable or inaccurate attitudes and outlooks unintentionally. A debriefing between the students and the teacher advisor who observed the proceedings after the Model U.N. can avert negative outcomes and correct misconceptions.

Following is a representative sample of a student's Opinion/Reaction Response. In it, the student answers the four questions from the brainstorming class. It is very typical of the opinions expressed by the majority of the students in the two classes.

> I feel last week's M.U.N. Conference went really well. Personally, I enjoyed the caucusing the best, you really get to express your country's views. It turned out pretty much as I had imagined. If I had to rate the Conference out of 10, I would give it an 8. There were a few things that needed improvement, the library was a little crowded and I think it would have been neat to have real placards (sic).
>
> I felt we were really prepared compared to the other schools. All the hand-outs we were given really helped. I feel overall, our speeches were more detailed and more clear as to what our country wanted. During this course I felt that the work load wasn't too bad, it's not like we had Drama homework every night. I think we were as prepared as we possibly could have been.
>
> I learned a lot about how the real UN works. I learned that it's a long, hard process to make and pass a resolution. It's really hard to get all of or the majority of countries in agreement when debating a resolution. The UN does as much as they possibly can to help reduce our world-wide problems. I now know that being in the UN is not an easy job!
>
> During this course I learned research skills as well as many research resources (sic). If you think about it, the M.U.N. teaches students many useful skills. You learn public speaking, how to represent something you may not believe in, research skills and how to negotiate. I think this

> course is an excellent experience for anyone. It helped me have a better understanding of how the real UN works.
>
> Overall I think the Conference went really well. It was very well organized and well prepared. I enjoyed the guest speaker and his thoughts and opinions. I hope you continue to hold an annual M.U.N. Conference in the future. I found it an enjoyable experience.

In terms of the students' assessment for the course (i.e., their mark on the report card), preparation for participation at the M.U.N. Conference was a partial factor in grading; i.e., the research, resolutions on issues, policy statements, and speeches were all part of the expected course work. Model U.N. preparation counted for 30% of the mark. However, the actual M.U.N. Conference performances were NOT graded and served only to:

1. demonstrate proper modelling of diplomatic behavior, and
2. willingness to provide a public education service for the benefit of the community and each other.

Throughout the semester, quizzes occurred monthly. They were intended to evaluate the students' understanding of the different units of the course. Total = 30%. Finally, in terms of the assessment, students had daily worksheets and homework assignments almost every class. The students were also asked to demonstrate skills in public speaking, note-taking, and to apply knowledge of the M.U.N. rules. Total = 40%.

Lastly, in terms of the methodology, conclusions were then drawn to answer: 'What are some practical implications in planning, organizing, and teaching a Model United Nations course to Grade 9 students as a vehicle for global education?' In addition, once the data and conclusion were in hand, it should be possible to make clear just how this work advances knowledge and understanding.

F. Data Analysis

The data gathering began by collecting baseline information regarding students' attitudes to the Model U.N. course. This

identified some of the key factors or themes which I wished to further investigate. The students were asked to answer four questions in their journals:

1. What were their impressions after two weeks of classes?
2. Which student would they like to be partnered with and why?
3. Which country would they like to represent and why?
4. What were their impressions of the up-coming Conference?

I was particularly interested in their responses to questions #1 and 4. I anticipated that there were would be a cross-section of opinions ranging from "It's great!" to "It's boring!" However, after six classes, I was pleasantly surprised by the students' responses. Following are some excerpts from those initial reactions to the course.

These responses from students reflect some of their beginning attitudes about the United Nations, the difficulties of international relations, and they cover a rich array of perceptions.

> My overall impression of the M.U.N. is quite good. I feel the United Nations is something that is working to unite our world together. I feel the whole set up is really good. Not only does this help our world but it creates many bonds and friendships between countries. This Conference really pulls all the countries together and makes us try to get along and help each other through difficult times.
>
> The Model United Nations process is sometimes fun and sometimes boring. I don't really like doing a lot of research on different countries. Although, I do like listening to the different countries debate over different issues concerning our world today. All in all, working on a Model United Nations isn't too bad.
>
> The Model United Nations is a real neat idea. I find this is a better form of Drama than before. You learn a lot more also. I never even knew about the United Nations before. Now I am learning more every Drama class.
>
> My opinion of the M.U.N. process so far, is that I think it is a great way to learn about other countries.

As for the upcoming M.U.N. Conference, I'm actually looking forward to it. I'm really interested in hearing the arguments different people come up with for our topic. I'm also interested in seeing how well some of the other students can debate and represent their countries. I think that this whole M.U.N. thing is an overall good learning experience for researching and public speaking. So hopefully all our countries can agree on something. To me this whole "M.U.N. unit" has run rather smoothly for a first time around.

For the MUN Conference in May, the countries that I would want most are China, Canada, and Angola. I picked China and Angola because those countries have land mines, and there will probably be a lot of countries fighting against them. I love arguing. I picked Canada because they seem to be on top of trying to stop the laying of land mines.

I think that the Conference is going to be interesting. I would like to see what students from other schools have learned.

As can be seen, there appeared to be a general willingness to participate in the M.U.N. process. Overall, these were the types of reactions I had anticipated. After all, this was a totally new concept for these students. There was a definite sense of enthusiasm in the classes. What I was not sure of at this point was whether the enthusiasm was a result of their participating in a new and different class (as the students were self-selected volunteers, in a sense) or because of the global education content.

Here is a break-down of the classes by sex:

	Boys	Girls	Total
Drama class I	6	18	24
Drama class II	8	7	15
Total	14	25	39

And by age:

	Fourteen	Fifteen	Total
Boys	7	7	13
Girls	18	7	21
Total	25	14	39

These totals reflect participation and subsequent written reflections from students at the Conference. During the Conference, two students were absent. Also, two students performed the duties of pages. Lastly, one student attended but chose not to participate. She was overly shy and declined to perform the role of a delegate. Although she did attend for the entire day, she simply sat and watched. Unfortunately, I was never able to get her enthused about participating in the Model United Nations. During debriefing and follow-up assignments, she again chose not to participate.

Therefore, out of 39 possible students, 34 participated in this study. However, if we include the pages, since they were necessary in order to have a successful Conference, and they did actively participate in the debriefing and follow-up assignments, it is reasonable to state that 36 out of 39 students participated in this study. This translates to a 92% participation rate.

When it came time to understanding and presenting the different viewpoints of countries, I identified some definite ethnocentric feelings in the students' conversations. Comments were heard such as: "Blow them up!" and "Nuke them!" and "We're more powerful than them, let's start a war!" Many students had the perception that 'might was right'.

One of the goals of the course was to challenge their thinking. This was done by asking the students to develop reasons for those country's stances. "What reasons can there be for advocating/supporting land mines?" Or, "If it is such an easy issue to correct, why hasn't progress been made in this area earlier? Why are we at such an impasse today with the issue of land mines?"

After researching their country's stance on the land mine issue, the students came to realize that there are different ways to view this problem. They also came to understand that it is not the answer which is important, but rather that all parties in the

discussion know and understand the issue being discussed. It was more important that each country knew what the others were talking about, so they could reach a consensus. In the end, students' perceptions concerning other cultures were changing.

> I have learned a lot from this course. I have learned more about our world. Learning to negotiate with other countries was good. I found researching interesting and informative. Overall, it was a good experience.

> I have learned a lot from the course. The UN is really good to have around. The UN fights for fairness for countries around the world. I really don't know what diplomacy is. I learned how to negotiate and be negotiated with. It was really fun and I like it. I learned a lot about other cultures.

The classroom-based study showed that students developed understanding of other culture's perceptions. Students were enlightened when they put themselves in another person's shoes. These students no longer perceived their opinion in isolation. They now believed that other cultures also contributed their own meanings and viewpoints to a discussion and that this difference can contribute to, and is of value to them in, their own understanding of the problem.

For example, after conducting the student-interviews, the following answers to the questions, "Are you better able to understand another culture's point of view? How?" were recorded.

> I think I am because when you get to talk to other countries and hear their different viewpoints on land mines, you really can understand what they feel and why they think the way they do.

> Yeah, I think I can. I think I can just respect someone's point of view. you know, understand that you have to give everyone a chance. And you have to accept their sovereignty.

> I can understand why Russia wants land mines. It's because their economy is based on that. So I respect that - but not necessarily agree with that.

> Yeah, it's easy to understand what other people think now and not just what I think.

> Yeah, because you have to do a little research and work to it and you gotta think about not just your own culture but another country's culture.

This aspect of the data collection process consisted of a 10-minute informal interview with a number of students involved with the Model U.N. course. The complete list of questions is reproduced below. The intent was to solicit their opinions about the usefulness of the course, their reactions to the Conference, their feelings about the entire process, and their perceptions concerning global mindedness. Excerpts from these interviews are reproduced in this and the subsequent chapter. The seven questions were uniform, scripted, and recorded on tape. Below is one complete, sample interview with the delegate representing Angola.

1. What have you learned by taking on an ambassador's role?

> I've learned to respect other people's opinions because different countries have different rankings economically. You sort of learn to level with the people who are more powerful than you. It has more to do with research because you have to know how your country is supposed to be represented.

2. How did you feel during the Conference?

> I felt like it was a really good experience. Actually I found out how the real UN does it. It gave me a more open perspective on the type of things they do and how difficult it is to actually come to a resolution.

3. Are you now better able to understand another culture's point of view?

> Yeah, I think that I could respect another person's opinion. I might not agree with that person's opinion, but I could sort of respect it in a way. So I think that I'm more open-minded now to other people's opinions about different things that I don't believe in.

4. Has your point of view on the topic of land mines changed?

> I think from the start I was pretty much against it. I think now I'm more against it. It's like racism. If you learn about racism a lot, you're gonna come to hate it more. It's the same with land mines. Like the more I learn, the more I dislike it.

Does your country, Angola, hold a different point of view?

Well, Angola has basically the same view as me because they're a poor country and they're losing a lot of their economic value because people are just getting blown apart and stuff. So basically, we held the same views.

5. How did you feel having to work with an uncooperative ambassador?

At first, it was sort of hard because you were thinking, "Wait a minute! How can you be against banning land mines?" I mean, it's crazy. But then, once I learned that these people had different things like industries and manufacturing that made a big chunk of their economic value, then I sort of like, I started respecting it that way. But it was tough at first. But I guess I sort of learned to respect them.

Did you compromise with another country's point of view?

Yeah. I think after a while, we sort of said like okay, everybody can't get what they want. So everybody has to like give in a little. That's the only way we could get a resolution going. Some countries wanted a total ban and some countries had a big part of their industry to actually produce them. So I guess we sort of learned to compromise. It wasn't just about the Conference. In real life, we also learned to compromise - like in the future and stuff, it really helped.

6. What have you learned in this course?

Before I came into this course I always thought, like the countries, they had people who were really mature. They could just come to decisions at the snap of a finger. But after we went into the UN stuff, I learned that it was very tough to actually come to a decision because many countries had different situations. You can't relate to them all. The way we did research, I think we really found out that all countries are not on the same level. I think that really helped me recognize the fact that you have to respect people for the beliefs they hold on to.

7. How can the course be improved?

Well, since this was my first year in the course, I really enjoyed it. There weren't any glaring problems that I could really point out. Basically, I just think this course should be continued into high school because it not only teaches us to take part in the UN and what they do, but it also teaches us to respect people's opinions and beliefs. And it also puts yourself in their shoes and believe what they believe. It really teaches us to compromise. And I think that's very important for us in the future.

The above transcript was typical of the responses I received to the interview questions. The vast majority of students were able to articulate answers to almost every one of the questions. Overall, almost every single student interviewed displayed at least one of the dimensions, as expanded by Hanvey (1979) and Lee Anderson (1979), necessary for assuming students have developed global mindedness. But more on this in the concluding chapter.

One final component of the data analysis was using triangulation to verify the results. This is a qualitative method used to bring different kinds of evidence into some relationship with each other so they can be compared and contrasted. "Triangulation of evidence is an excellent preliminary to the production of an analytic conclusion," (Elliott, 1991, p. 83).

The final leg of the triangulation was an analysis from my peers. In particular I asked for written comments on a number of questions from the principal, Grade 9 teachers, and six teachers who attended the Conference. The other two legs, comments and observations from myself and the students, were overwhelmingly positive. Nevertheless, I still wanted objective comments from my fellow professionals.

Following is a representative sample of their comments, based on what they saw during the five-month course, what they watched during the one-day Conference, and what they heard from the students.

> When you consider that our students had never participated in an assembly of this type before, they did remarkably well. I really have nothing to compare it with, but I felt the students were very well behaved, focused, and very much 'into' the simulation.
>
> The areas of growth I noticed in the students were: public speaking, diplomacy, and the realization that the world is made up of countries with diverse opinions.

> I was impressed with the students' commitment to the day's purpose. They knew their stuff and as the process became familiar, they really entered into the spirit of the debate/caucusing segments.
>
> Realizing that other countries have reasons for taking the positions they do is an extremely valuable lesson. I believe our students learned that today. Secondly, they may better appreciate that negotiations and 'verbal arm-twisting' are the ways to resolve conflict.
>
> I heard only positive comments from the students regarding the Conference. True, some were skeptical at the beginning of the semester. But, they've definitely come around. They all commented on how exciting it was to realize the full potential of all their efforts during the course in the Model U.N. Conference.
>
> I thought it was excellent. I felt the kids came out of the course with a positive attitude and outlook on the world.
>
> To my way of thinking, from what I saw, it was a great way of learning about interaction with different cultures and people.

G. Discussion/Findings:

From a practical viewpoint, the results are very gratifying. The results of this research suggest that teachers working in standard classrooms can teach their students global mindedness by using a Model United Nations course. Teachers can indeed construct a situation using a Model United Nations course whereby students are encouraged to have:

1. an awareness of different cultural viewpoints on similar issues;
2. an understanding of prevailing world conditions;
3. an appreciation of similarities & differences between cultures;
4. a knowledge of how the world is interconnected & interdependent;
5. a sense of their global identity, their world citizenship.

Nevertheless, the students did have several suggestions in order to improve the Conference. One area for improvement mentioned by

sixteen of the students in their journals was to have a background sheet in preparation for the Conference. This 'backgrounder' would contain a "snapshot" of each country participating in the simulation. They also felt there should have been a greeting period/time where all the delegates should formally greet each other and be introduced to other countries. I felt these suggestions were very sensible and would encourage teachers to incorporate them into their Conference.

They also felt the facilities were too small. We held the Conference in the school library. For the size of our M.U.N. (60 people) the library was too small. Next year, we will investigate the possibility of using some facilities at one of our universities. This too was an idea from the students and does make a lot of sense since the University of Manitoba has a Model U.N. organization on campus.

In addition, many students felt there should have been more practice with the rules - in particular, points of order. Here is a case in point.

The Valley Gardens students were particularly unhappy that not all the schools conformed to the dress code. I had told them that a Model U.N. Conference is a semi-formal affair and they should dress appropriately, which they did. However, several delegates from other schools did not. In our debriefing, the students thought this was unfair. So I asked, "Why didn't you do something about it? You run the show. You decide on the direction the Conference goes. You could have either voted away a country's voting privileges, or even more drastically, you could have kicked them out of the Conference until they were dressed appropriately. All you needed to do was rise on a point of order and have a majority of the delegates voting positively."

When I reminded them that we had discussed points of order, they felt that it had not been made perfectly clear exactly how powerful they were. As an area for improvement, the students were correct. The course needs to spend more time clarifying points of order.

Lastly, in terms of how the Conference actually unfolds, the students felt there were some adjustments that needed to made with the caucusing. Before the Conference, we had discussed caucusing blocs - how countries would first meet with their bloc allies to decide how they should proceed on a particular resolution. However, because of the small space in the library and because this was the first time for all the students, the idea of caucusing never really jelled. This is an example where students need more direction. Again, the students were correct and this aspect of the Conference needs to be fully explained next year. I would recommend more simulations before the Conference with regard to caucusing.

In terms of the overall rating, <u>every</u> student in their Opinion/Response writing, said the Conference deserved an 8 out of 10.

> I felt that I was well prepared for this Conference. I feel that we were way more prepared than the other schools. Maybe this was because of the hand-outs and better researching.
>
> In my opinion I think the process of learning about the UN and different countries is a great learning experience. It gives students a chance to learn about a country that they may never have had the opportunity to learn about before.
>
> I really like the stuff we are doing on United Nations. I enjoy studying about important issues going on in the world around us. I don't think we will have a course like this in high school. I feel fortunate to have the opportunity to understand the roles the United Nations plays in the lives of people.

The findings of this study indicate that a Model United Nations Course and Simulation do contribute to a better understanding of the development of global mindedness as it relates to students in a Grade 9 setting. Specifically, the

1. Model United Nations can work at the Grade 9 level with appropriate organization;
2. Model United Nations can/does develop global mindedness in students; and
3. Model United Nations also enhances the appropriate skills (research, communication, writing, public speaking, and debating) in Grade 9 students.

These findings will be elaborated more fully in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V: Discussion of the Research Findings

Chapter overview:

The previous chapter documented my attempts during the academic year 1996-1997 to investigate the growth of global mindedness in Grade 9 students.

This chapter aims to show that the conclusions advanced at the end of the preceding chapter, namely that a Model United Nations is a successful tool for teaching Grade 9 students to demonstrate dimensions of global mindedness, are indeed, valid ones. Examination of students' written responses collected from activities, transcripts, and journals and after many hours spent reflecting, will be the validation for the preceding conclusions.

> The educational action research movement has largely been concerned with improving the quality of teaching in schools by focusing on classroom transactions, situations, and events. It has assumed that teachers operating in those physical spaces known as classrooms, with students organized into classes, have the power to effect significant changes in their practice (Elliott, 1993, p. 176).

Having now had time to reflect on the Valley Gardens Model United Nations course and Conference, I would like to answer the questions that were raised throughout the earlier chapters. Some of the questions posed were mechanical or practical in nature, and can therefore be replied to quite quickly. Others however, were more theoretical and will require more space to adequately answer. In addition, I will use comments from the students to clarify my answers to the questions.

Through the various types of reflection I attempted with the students, I found that in all cases the reflection was productive if they were given time to properly reflect, given reassurance to

share their thoughts without reproach, and given a focus - in this case, the focus was global mindedness.

As a result of my involvement with, and study of, action research principles, I have come to agree with Elliott. I have found that action research principles, such as reflection, are playing an increasing role in my professional life. In particular, this reflection has improved the quality of my teaching, has allowed me to significantly improve my classroom practice, and has stimulated the growth of global mindedness in the students.

As I had the opportunity to practice reflection over the semester, I saw the value of the process and so I encouraged the students in my class to practice these activities also. And, as the students became more involved with their journal writing, it became apparent to me how worthwhile reflecting was to them, too. Being involved in reflection is an important part in learning. "Taking time and energy to reflect and improve one's work are essential to the understanding process itself" (Simmons, 1994, p. 23).

As I spent time reflecting on the way the course unfolded over the five months of this study, I found the act of reflecting to be a similar activity as a 'mental playback' of the day. This playback was useful as a way to:

1) decide how to proceed based on past events,
2) think of solutions to problems,
3) spark new ideas, and
4) digest all the events that had occurred that day.

Another form of reflection occurred as I documented the events of the day, observed student behavior during various activities, and recorded anecdotal notes from the Drama classes. I encouraged the students to reflect, too. And now student reflection is a conscious part of my program and takes place in a variety of forms.

The students were introduced to several methods of conscious reflection (journal writing, group discussions, and brainstorming). I am certain it had a positive effect, as the students' reflections and work are evidence that they benefitted from the process. They benefitted by thinking globally and developing global mindedness.

The audiotapes, videotapes, transcripts, and student journals collected during my inquiries have provided me with a wealth of information. This type of reflection helped me to assess the students as well as the goals and outcomes of the Model United Nations course. Having concrete evidence to examine independently and with colleagues has objectified my teaching and allowed me to be more critical and provide supporting evidence for my goal of using a Model U.N. to enhance students' global mindedness.

A. Twelve questions on implementing a Model United Nations course:

1. Was having only one topic at the Conference a good idea?

   Since these Grade 9 students were participating in a Model U.N. Conference for the first time, I would definitely recommend using only one topic. There was so much information for these first-timers to digest, that an additional topic may have overwhelmed them. Rather, because only one topic was covered, the students were able to concentrate and focus on the land mine issue during the five months preceding the Conference. Their thorough knowledge of one topic enabled them to adequately represent their country's views during the day-long meeting.

   The majority of students felt this way, too. However, it is difficult to achieve unanimity on an issue. One student disagreed.

We should have had the simulation go on for a little bit longer. I felt some countries from the other schools weren't as well prepared as us. Those countries gave up way too easily.

2. Was having only a one-day Conference a good idea?

I have attended three-day M.U.N. Conferences, and that is the norm. But again, because this student population was relatively new to the experience, a one-day Conference, covering six hours, was perfect. Students retained their enthusiasm and interest right up to the end. They were focussed and attentive right from 8:30 AM to 3:00 PM. All the teachers who witnessed the Conference were pleasantly surprised to witness the students commitment.

3. Was land mines a good topic for Grade 9 students?

The topic of land mines was excellent. The students were motivated because they could easily relate to the destructiveness of these 'little beasts' (as the students called them). In addition, there was a wealth of information available to them since this issue was on the 1997 UN General Assembly Agenda. There was an abundance of facts and figures in newspapers, magazines, and on the Internet. Lastly, the Canadian government is in the forefront of advocating their total ban. So, students could actually see something being done about this issue which also increased its relevance.

Land mines was also a good topic because at first glance it appears such a 'black or white' issue. However, upon deeper reflection shades of gray begin to appear. Overall, it seemed that opinion was split 50-50 between those students who began to understand cases where they could be used and those who were adamantly against their use.

Following are student answers to the interview question, "Has your point of view on the topic of land mines changed?"

Yeah cause before I was absolutely, completely against it but now I kind of, not like I think they're good, but I think that some countries should still have them a bit.

Well, I didn't know that there were so many in the world. But I knew that they were planted in the ground. Now, I don't think they should be used as a weapon. So this has changed since the beginning of the course.

Yeah, but I understand how some countries might want to use them. Because some countries feel they don't have a strong enough military strength and they use the land mines to protect their country. Also, other countries need land mines to protect their country and to make money for their economy.

Well I don't think it really changed at all. I just never really understood land mines at first but after I found out what they were I never really liked them. I think they should get them cleaned up and taken out of there because it's hurting a lot of people.

No it hasn't. Like I had to fit into China's shoes like how they felt about land mines. And they agreed with it but I still don't agree with it but I tried my best to portray what I did.

4. Is a Model U.N. course and simulation viable with Grade 9 students?

Absolutely! The results of this study show how much the students learned, how much they enjoyed the course, and lastly, how impressive other teachers thought the delegates were during the Conference.

Unfortunately, a review of the educational literature has revealed a dearth of studies on using a Model United Course in a junior high classroom. Therefore, in organizing a Model U.N, at a Grade 9 level, I had to rely on my own devices and accumulated data as reference. Nevertheless, the answers to this question, based on the data collected in this study, is a resounding yes. To illustrate its viability, here are some student answers to the question, "What have you learned from the Model U.N. course?"

I've definitely learned a lot about other countries, diplomacy, public speaking I think I improved a bit, and writing speeches and stuff like that - I learned a lot.

I've learned how the UN works. In order to solve problems you have to work together with other people, making compromises. I haven't learned a lot because I was Canada, but I learned a little bit about other cultures and countries.

I think I learned that you have to think with what your country's opinion is and not your opinion. How you reflect off your country, what resources you have, and how you stand in the world. I think I did a pretty good job.

I learned that it's important to know what other people think around the world. I thought it was fun to take the part of an ambassador from another country. It's easy to understand what other people think now and not just what I think.

5. What practical problems occurred in teaching the concept of global mindedness in a junior high school?

The first concern emerged from the variety of student interests inevitably represented in the classroom. Frankly, not all students were genuinely motivated to pursue a Model U.N. activity. The ultimate value of this activity initially appeared too remote and did not relate to the particular interests of certain students. For example, students wishing to pursue a traditional Drama course were initially frustrated by a curriculum unit which appeared at first to neglect customary Drama topics and practices.

Second, I found that the contents of the M.U.N. course needed to be advertised better so that students could make intelligent choices about which options they were selecting. It was proven during the second semester that when motivated, interested students signed up for the Model U.N. course, they do very well and learn a great deal.

A third problem was the lack of a prescribed textbook which was both a hindrance and an asset. It was an asset because we ventured into class activities that did not confirm the idea of one source having all the correct answers. Traditionally, in school, students are often caught up in arriving at the "correct" result in their investigations. This can be a source of frustration, and at times encourages

deceit and false reporting among even the most able students. However in the M.U.N. course students were without a source book Students were "on their own" and had to develop their own answers to questions such as what was their country's position on land mines. They had to be able to answer the question: "And why did they have that position?"

The students' reflections on the lessons taught us that they learned best when using hands-on activities without a textbook. In the end, students became excellent researchers and very adept at discovering resources and references. But in order to successfully work through the course, a teacher will need to be familiar with using the Internet and will have to have access to UN materials.

Students suggested a number of practical suggestions for future M.U.N. courses and Conferences:

> Well, I think that if we we're given a little bit more time to research on countries as well as other countries that were gonna be at this Conference, it would be easier to catch them in their little lies and stuff. We'd look really good.
>
> Yeah, we should know the rules a little bit more. So that's the only part I think could be expanded.
>
> Just the part about learning about other countries. And I think maybe a bit more explanation about the rules of the UN. I think a bit more instruction about that.
>
> I think there should be a little bit more time doing research into the project. Some people were a little bit unsure about their country. We should have had a hand-out on other countries. And a little bit more direction on doing research.

6. The original purpose of this study was to demonstrate that attaining global mindedness for the students at Valley Gardens Junior High School could be facilitated by participating in a Model United Nations course and Conference. Was the purpose of the study accomplished?

The intent of the M.U.N. was to stimulate global mindedness in students. I believe that global mindedness can be taught using a Model United Nations course. In the end, other cultures will be appreciated by the students and this new perception will become part of their everyday thinking.

The Model U.N. helped students understand the major problems facing today's world and it helped them to realize the role the UN can play in resolving those problems. It is evident that today the UN is an important actor in international relations. Canadians need to have a grasp of the world body's role in the modern world if they wish to be able to make informed decisions.

The UN is often unknown, misunderstood, and often not given credit for its efforts to settle problems around the world. Through the Model United Nations course and simulation, students learned not only about specific countries and issues, but also about the complexities of politics.

This study showed that the Model U.N. course and Conference were very useful in aiding the process of developing global mindedness in these students. In addition to learning about the cultures, policies, and countries they represented, students also learned about the world as a whole - its interconnectedness. Students learned that what happens in one place can affect peoples in other places. They learned the details of important global issues, the policies of dozens of UN member states toward these issues, the activities and complexities of the UN system, and the current state of world affairs.

While it is certainly true that a single study involving 40 students should be replicated before the directions it suggests are adopted into the common educational practice, the results presented here are encouraging and warrant further investigation and application.

Well, I learned a lot about other countries and other viewpoints on things. As the USA it was very different for me because they didn't agree with what I would normally agree with. So I learned a lot about other viewpoints.

No, my country didn't agree with my viewpoints. So, you just had to put your own views behind you and represent your country properly. I'm better able to understand the USA's point. Once you argue their viewpoint and try to verify it and see what's right with it, you really have to think about it.

I think I could always understand another culture's point of view. But I think I understand it even better after this Conference. I understand just how their way of life is. Some cultures have to live with land mines every day. I didn't know how that felt. I still don't know exactly how that feels, but now I have an idea of how that feels. I still don't get why they're doing it. But I understand they do it to get money because without making and selling land mines they're losing out on a big profit.

Well the Conference was pretty neat because if the ambassador of Bangladesh didn't agree with what I felt, I had to do what the ambassador did. I had no choice. I had to do what the ambassador felt and represent that country properly. That was the whole point of the M.U.N. I felt.

7. The goal of the course was to help students make connections between what they were learning and what they already knew, using self-reflection and a Model U.N. simulation. Was the goal of the M.U.N. course achieved?

I believe this goal was accomplished. Students began to see how the world was interconnected - that what happens in one country can affect others.

Also, the students began to see the relevancy of the M.U.N. course. Students saw the connection between what we were studying in the classroom and what was going on out in the 'real' world.

I found that I can't just say wow, the UN isn't doing anything. Because it is really hard to get 184 countries to agree on the same thing you do. So I guess I can accept the fact that if they're not passing anything I can see why. I think it was the luck of the draw that we passed Resolution B-1 from our Conference.

It's really hard to solve one problem because you have to get everyone to agree on every little thing. It's hard to please everyone. I think the UN

is on the right track. They're making progress but I don't think they can solve every little thing.

I learned that the UN is a complicated organization. And I learned that I can be a better public speaker than I was before.

8. How do we know if 'global mindedness' is present?

Again, here's a good definition - "Global education stems from the premise that information and knowledge about the rest of the world must be used to better educate ourselves and our relationships to other peoples, cultures, and nations" (Tucker, 1982, p. 5).

I believe students did learn to appreciate that they are part of the solution. Many students left the Conference feeling that they were empowered. They felt they could make a change.

In answer to the question, have you learned how the world works, these students responded:

Sort of yeah, like the UN is a miniature version of the world. So, once you understand how the UN works it's easier to understand how the world works a bit.

It's very complicated. It takes a lot of time and effort to try and make the world a better place to live.

That really what happens to us is in the hands of our own people. Like the decisions that we make are made by humans not by some powerful source. Our lives are left in our hands.

9. What will students need to know when they're 25? The anticipated answer was that for our global village, students will need to know:

   a. that different cultures think differently, and
   b. how to reach consensus on difficult issues with these cultures.

The following excerpts from students' journals will highlight the fact that many of the students did indeed begin to understand the above points.

I can understand why Russia wants land mines. It's because their economy is based on that. So I respect that - but not necessarily agree with that.

I learned a lot about the different viewpoints of the countries and a lot more about the UN and how it works.

I think it's a lot of negotiating to work with other countries. It's kind of frustrating because you want them to agree with you and you have to think about what they say so that you don;t make them more against you because you want to make them agree with you.

I think I am better able now to understand another culture's point of view because when you get to talk to the other countries and their different viewpoints on land mines you really can understand what they feel and why they think the way they do.

I felt that it was very interesting and I learned a lot of new things about a different country that I didn't know a lot about before. And I used to think that China was just a powerful country that didn't compromise with other people. But I learned that they're actually smart and they're people.

I learned a lot about a topic that I didn't;t really know a lot about before. I'm not really good with government things or politics or anything like that. So I felt it was really interesting to learn something new that affects the world.

There was this country's ambassador I was talking to. He kept trying to tell me they needed land mines for war. And I brought up the point that they were killing their own soldiers at the same time. He had no response for that.

I learned more about the UN and how it works and why it moves so slowly. Cause it's a long slow process to come to agreement with so many countries.

10. I was interested in a number of questions about how an intervention program or simulation such as the Model U.N. might affect students' motivation and ability levels in becoming globally minded. For example, (a) Are students motivated to learn? (b) Did students engage frequently in discussion? (c) Did students' attitudes change? and (d) Did students learn a great deal of knowledge?"

Did the results of the study show that students:

a. are motivated to learn? In my opinion, the M.U.N. does actively involve students in learning. The experience demonstrates to them the value and

importance of learning. And they have fun in the process. Thus, the students are motivated to learn because they wish to do their best at the Conference in front of their peers. Overall, the M.U.N. stimulates intrinsic motivation by involving students in an unusual and challenging activity that involves a high level of peer interaction.

I personally liked having to work with people who disagreed with me. I liked that because you had to try to convince that country. That's the neat part I liked about the M.U.N.

At first I wasn't really into it but then after we got a lot of countries going it was really fun to just get into it. And then you don't even realize it. You're just talking away with everybody.

b. engaged frequently in discussion? At the Conference, the M.U.N. process of debate encouraged students to apply and evaluate the information and knowledge they acquired during their course of studies.

Well I said, 'You spend about $3 each putting land mines into the ground but then you spend a couple hundred million taking them out.' So that changed a lot of their points of view just by telling them that.

You gotta like talk with them and stuff instead of getting angry. You gotta like work with them. You can't just go with your own idea. You have to listen to others, too.

c. attitudes changed? Because the Model U.N. immerses students in the histories, cultures, and politics of other countries, students come to question former ways of thinking and often develop broader outlooks.

Oh yeah, cause when I first got the country, because India was against the resolution so I thought it was totally sickening that they wanted land mines and we had to defend it. But now that you actually learn more about the country you actually understand why they do what they do.

The first thing I learned was during negotiation - nobody wants to listen to somebody that just keeps yelling. You have to be persistent but you have to be calm. And you have to be willing to compromise with people.

d. learned a great deal of knowledge? Yes, students expanded their knowledge base and developed important

skills. By participating in a Model United Nations Conference, students learned that they are members of a global community, in addition to learning facts and figures on individual countries.

I've learned that it can be pretty hard, being the ambassador of a country. You have to know a lot of stuff. There's lots of people you have to know about. You have to know who your allies and your enemies are.

I learned about the UN. How it works. Why it was set up - the purpose of it. I also learned about the country that I studied. And the actual presentation of the UN.

I learned that this is actually a problem. I didn't;t even know that land mines existed before. And I learned a lot more about negotiating and diplomacy and how the UN works.

11. Is the Model United Nations worth the time and effort?

The interviews, informal discussions, and classroom observations conducted confirmed the usefulness of a Model United Nations course. Though the observation phase (some five months), was not long enough to generalize about overall technique, it appears that a Model U.N. has some very useful applications in the Grade 9 classroom.

While it is true that the spelling and grammar in students' comments and responses were not always correct, their meaning is unmistakable. The resolutions in the Appendix were all written by the students as well as the examples of opening speeches. They illustrate a high degree of knowledge and technique.

Plus, next year, the Drama course will be easier because 'the word got out'. This year's students were enthused with the course and Conference and they would talk to next year's students. Also, this was a high profile activity with students having a day off school to participate in the Conference, there was a picture in the local newspaper, and our Secretary-General (a student from the University of Manitoba) put information and student photographs on his web-site (http://home.cc.umanitoba.ca/~umnyznyK/frame.htm).

In addition, we were extremely fortunate to have as our keynote speaker, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Llyod Axworthy. He was very impressed with the maturity of the students and the quality of their questions during the 'question & answer' session. Overall, it is my opinion that it would be much easier to encourage interested students to sign up for this course next year.

Lastly, to answer the question, was the Model U.N. worth the time and effort. Yes, it definitely was for this one particular student. She wasn't the most diplomatic or the best at negotiating, but she certainly came a long way in this course.

> I was willing to listen to everybody but there was like some of those ambassadors that were starting to tick me off. I felt like telling them to shut up and sit down. 'You don;t know what you;re talking about!' Like the guy from Taiwan. or the girl from Singapore. It kind of worked out later. It's just that you have to get along with them. You kind of have to let them have their limelight - for a while. And then you take them down later with good arguments and stuff.

12. What motivates students to become globally literate?

The use of highly creative techniques such as debates, role-playing, simulations, and case studies should be given credit for the improved effectiveness in student learning.

The use of microethnographic qualitative strategies to assess aspects of teaching through a Model United Nations course provided for a rich and varied information base upon which to reflect on my own practice, and that of my colleagues. Teacher interests, attitudes, opinions, and use of techniques in actual daily practice provided a window on the prospects for change in global education.

> I found that if you just talked and tried to negotiate a little bit and accepted their ideas and then gave your own points of view, it wasn't actually that hard to communicate with them.

> I learned how to respect other country's cultures. I learned how to follow the views of that country [that I represented] instead of my own views.
>
> It was cool because I got to learn how to negotiate with other countries - how to make treaties and stuff with them.
>
> I thought it was really interesting because I wasn't just hearing my own viewpoints. I was listening to somebody else's. I think that was good to have to listen to something other than just what you believe.
>
> I think the reason we were more prepared than the other schools, is because of our research. All the time we spent in the library, on the internet, on the encyclopedia, paid off. It also paid off that we knew how to write resolutions and speeches.
>
> I have learned many things from this course. I felt it was a relatively easy course also. I have learned formats, how to write speeches and resolutions, and many other things. You have to give a little to get a little these days.
>
> Lastly, I learned about the other cultures. What I mean is, I learned how other countries felt and ran their countries. I also learned how hard it sometimes is to negotiate with other delegates and how hard it is to persuade people. Lastly, I really enjoyed the diplomacy I encountered.

To conclude the delegates' comments, here are two journal entries from students on opposite sides.

> I still hold to the fact I don't believe this is much like Drama class. I can see a resemblance but nothing that would be classified as a Drama class. I mean, our duo-tangs are too full of papers to be a Drama class. But that's okay. I had fun during the M.U.N. and learned a lot of valuable lessons that I will carry on throughout my years. I will walk away knowing more about this world, about the United Nations, and about Mozambique.
>
> I have learned a lot of valuable information from this course. I have learned about other countries, cultures, and points of view and I believe that will help me in the future. I learned about the United Nations and how it works and I also learned about diplomacy. The best thing I would say that I learned is the art of negotiating. It is the key to a successful M.U.N....This course was pretty fun. At the beginning of the year I thought that it would be totally different. But it turned out actually fun. I had a lot of fun for this term and hope to participate in the following Model United Nations.

B. Conclusion:

I will continue to focus my own and the students' attention on reflection. I believe this will better enable all of us to grow.

I will also continue my involvement in action research. Exploring a question about my own practice has been quite rewarding. I find that I am more reflective about the things that happen in my classroom. I also learn from my observations and carry out changes with greater confidence because I have been observing my students and my practice carefully.

In terms of my goal of operating a Model United Nations course, I believe the words of the students illustrate how successful the endeavor was in terms of developing the dimensions of global mindedness in them.

These students are now able to look at the world in a different way. They understand how the world is interconnected. They appreciate that different cultures see the same problem differently. They have knowledge of a major world issue - land mines. And these students have a sense of their global identity.

I believe that the M.U.N. activity of individually researching chosen countries is inherently compelling for students. Unlike the bulk of their studies which involve abstraction, generalization, and lecture-based teaching, the M.U.N. experience links theory and practice in relevant ways for the students. It becomes 'real' to them and so they are motivated to learn and so they become open to ideas of global mindedness.

Overall, at different times, either orally or through their writing, these students exhibited the dimensions of global mindedness. During the Model United Nations course and Conference, the students were able to demonstrate:

1. an awareness of different cultural viewpoints on similar issues;
2. an understanding of prevailing world conditions;
3. an appreciation of similarities & differences between cultures;

4. a knowledge of how the world is interconnected & interdependent;
5. a sense of their global identity, their world citizenship.

Here is one final student quote which I feel best sums up what the students gained from the course.

> Yeah, I guess I understand another country's culture. Like sometimes here in Canada, we don't really realize all the other problems that are going on. And when you do this simulation you learn there are still problems in Cambodia and Vietnam and sometimes they need to do things we don't feel are right.

APPENDICES

Appendix		Page
A.	Sample Quizzes, Worksheets, & Tests	160
B.	Letters to Parents, from Principal, and from Superintendent	168
C.	V.G. M.U.N. Conference Handouts	172
D.	Approval forms from U of M and the Ethics Committee	179
E.	Newspaper Article	182
F.	Student Interview Questions	183

GRADE 9 MUN/DRAMA
VOCABULARY QUIZ #1

Name _____ **Date** _____

Directions:

1. *Fill in the above information.*
2. This is a timed quiz. You'll only have 15 minutes to complete this quiz.
3. This quiz will cover work we have covered in the last few weeks.
4. You will NOT be allowed to use your textbook or a dictionary.
5. You will not be penalized for guessing; so, answer every question.
6. You may use either a pencil or a pen.
7. Good luck!

DIRECTIONS: Match the terms with the correct phrase or definition. Each of the terms may be used once, more than once, or not at all.

___ Country's right to manage its own affairs

___ Mutual dependence and reliance between countries

___ Any drug used to relieve pain and induce sleep

___ Use force/threats to intimidate

___ Top official representing his/her country in other countries

___ Group of people organized under one government.

___ Developing nations of the world

___ Person chosen to speak for group

___ Person representing his/her gov't in its business with other gov'ts

___ Type of gov't; nation governed by representatives elected by that country's people

A AMBASSADOR
B COMMONWEALTH
C DELEGATE
D DIPLOMAT
E INTERDEPENDENCE
F MILLENIUM
G NARCOTICS
H NATION
I RENAISSANCE
J REPUBLIC
K SOVEREIGNTY
L TERRORISM
M THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

GRADE 9 MUN/DRAMA
VOCABULARY QUIZ #2

Name _____ **Date** _____

Directions:

1. Fill in the above information.
2. This is a timed quiz. You'll only have 15 minutes to complete this quiz.
3. This quiz will cover work we have covered in the last few weeks.
4. You will NOT be allowed to use your textbook or a dictionary.
5. You will not be penalized for guessing; so, answer every question.
6. You may use either a pencil or a pen.
7. Good luck!

DIRECTIONS: Match the terms with the correct phrase or definition. Each of the terms may be used once, more than once, or not at all.

___ A fundamental truth

___ A written statement of basic laws or principles

___ An introduction to a charter

___ Independent of all other states

___ The administering of justice

___ Involving more than two nations

___ Germany, Italy, & Japan in WWII

___ Approved; gave official sanction

___ In complete agreement

___ authorized delay of any activity

A ALLIES
B AXIS
C CHARTER
D GENERAL ASSEMBLY
E JURISDICTION
F MORATORIUM
G MULTILATERAL
H PREAMBLE
I PRINCIPLE
J RATIFIED
K SOVEREIGN
L UNANIMOUS
M UNITED NATIONS

COUNTRY FACT SHEET

Student's name: _____

Student's country: _____

Directions: Before you can play the role of a diplomat from your country, you need to have background knowledge. Therefore, using reference sources fill in as much USEFUL information as possible on the following headings. DO NOT COPY! Write your notes in point form. Also, keep a list of your reference sources in a bibliography for further investigation. Use a minimum of 4 sources. Good luck!

I. Basic background information on the country:

1. Type of government: (define it) -

2. Culture: (this includes major religion(s), official language(s), race(s), and any recent internal problems) -

3. Recent history: (go back 5 years to the present time - <u>be brief</u>) and list geographical neighbours -

4. World affairs: a. Military strength(s)

b. Alliances & Enemies -

c. Treaties -

d. Any <u>external</u> problems -

5. Industry: a. Gross National Product (GNP) -

b. World economic ranking -

c. Major imports (rank them #1 to 5) -

d. Major exports (rank them #1 to 5) -

e. Unit of currency

6. Status within the United Nations -

7. Bibliography:

II. Country's foreign policy and position on the resolution:

III. Where can we find the answers? Where will we do our research? Where will we find resource/reference material?

1. Textbooks:

2. Internet:

3. Others:

The United Nations - True or False ?

This is called an "Opener". We will use it to see how much we already know about the United Nations.
✎ Circle T if the statement is True and F if the statement is false.

1.	T	F	The UN was created at the end of World War II.
2.	T	F	It costs less to run the UN than to run the city of Winnipeg and the province of Manitoba combined.
3.	T	F	Fifty years ago there were only 50 member countries in the UN.
4.	T	F	Today, there are 185 member nations in the UN.
5.	T	F	The successes of the United Nations are limited by the will of its member nations.
6.	T	F	The World Health Organization, an agency of the UN, has succeeded in eradicating smallpox around the globe.
7.	T	F	Many groups who have been ignored in their own countries by their own governments have appealed to the UN for help.
8	T	F	When a group of people want to be recognized as an independent country, they appeal to the UN for recognition.
9.	T	F	In their quest for justice, aboriginal groups in Canada have appealed to the UN for help.
10.	T	F	Canada is known as a peacekeeper on the international scene.
11.	T	F	The UN has been able to assist in many international disputes because of Canada's help as a peacekeeper.
12.	T	F	No other international organization has as many member nations as the UN.
13.	T	F	The Universal Declaration of Human Rights produced by the UN in 1948 was the first document to set out rights for all human beings in the world.
14.	T	F	The UN Declaration on the Rights of the Child was the first list of rights for all the world's children.
15.	T	F	The UN is leading a worldwide effort to clear land mines from battlefields that kill and injure thousands of innocent men, women, and children each year.
16.	T	F	Through WHO and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 80% of the world's children are immunized against polio, tetanus, measles, whooping cough, diphtheria, and tuberculosis.
17.	T	F	The long-term work of the UN has been a major factor in ending apartheid in South Africa.
18.	T	F	The UN has set hundreds of international treaties, including ones on outer space and the oceans.

You might be surprised to find out that all of the statements are indeed correct. But this is just the beginning of the initiatives, complexities, and successes of the United Nations. Read on.

Test Your United Nations Knowledge – A Pre/Post-Test

1. What is the founding date of the United Nations?
   (a) January 1, 1963
   (b) November 11, 1945
   (c) October 24, 1945

2. How many nations have membership in the UN?
   (a) 184
   (b) 18
   (c) 365

3. In what city is the UN headquarters located?
   (a) New York, New York
   (b) Geneva, Switzerland
   (c) Toronto, Ontario

4. Who are the permanent members of the Security Council?
   (a) Canada, Russia, the United States, Germany, France
   (b) Russia, China, France, the United Kingdom, the United States
   (c) Japan, China, Canada, the United States, Germany

5. The veto is used in only one UN organ. Which one is it used in?
   (a) General Assembly
   (b) Trusteeship Council
   (c) Security Council

6. Who is the present Secretary General of the UN?
   (a) Stephen Lewis
   (b) Boutros Boutros-Ghali
   (c) Jimmy Carter

7. In what city is the International Court of Justice located?
   (a) Quebec City, Quebec
   (b) Paris, France
   (c) The Hague, Netherlands

8. For which part of the UN does the abbreviation UNHCR stand?
   (a) United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
   (b) United Nations Human Conditions for Refugees
   (c) United Nations High Council for Rights

9. Which Canadian Prime Minister was given the Nobel Peace Prize for his peacekeeping efforts in the UN?
   (a) Brian Mulroney
   (b) Pierre Trudeau
   (c) Lester B. Pearson

10. Which UN agency has responsibility for leadership in controlling locusts?
   (a) World Meteorological Organization (WMO)
   (b) Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)
   (c) International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

11. Since 1964, Canada has had a peacekeeping force in which country?
   (a) Haiti
   (b) Cyprus
   (c) Iran

12. Who is the President of South Africa?
   (a) Nelson Mandela
   (b) Jan de Klerk
   (c) P. W. Botha

13. Who was the first Secretary General? From which country did he come?
   (a) U Thant of Burma
   (b) Javier Pérez de Cuellar of Peru
   (c) Trygve Lie of Norway

14. Which are the six official languages of the main UN organs?
   (a) English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, Russian
   (b) English, French, German, Spanish, Arabic, Chinese
   (c) English, French, German, Japanese, Arabic, Russian

15. Which UN body names official days, weeks, and years?
   (a) International Court of Justice
   (b) General Assembly
   (c) Security Council

16. When did the World Summit for Children take place?
(a) October 1980
(b) June 1993
(c) September 1990

17. Which UN agency did Audrey Hepburn serve as a Goodwill Ambassador?
(a) United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
(b) United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)
(c) United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

18. What is Head-Smashed-In, Buffalo Jump?
(a) a World Heritage Site
(b) a small town in Northern Alberta
(c) a monument to mark a battle

19. Who chaired the committee which drew up the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?
(a) John F. Kennedy
(b) Margaret Thatcher
(c) Eleanor Roosevelt

20. Who was the Canadian doctor who served as the first Director General of the World Health Organization?
(a) Dr. Fred Tisdale
(b) Dr. Brock Chisholm
(c) Dr. Frederick Banting

21. Who was the Canadian social democrat who served as Canada's Permanent Representative and Ambassador to the UN?
(a) Stephen Lewis
(b) Bob Rae
(c) Jean Suavé

22. Where was the 1992 Earth Summit held?
(a) London, England
(b) Perth, Australia
(c) Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

23. Identify the large, worldwide environmental group which started in British Columbia.
(a) Amnesty International
(b) Greenpeace
(c) The Green Party

24. What post did Angie Brooks occupy?
(a) President, General Assembly
(b) Permanent Member, Security Council
(c) Judge, International Court of Justice

25. The ICAO, which has a set of bird wings in its logo, has its head office in Montreal, Quebec. What is the full name of this organization?
(a) International Civil Aviation Organization
(b) International Civilians' Aviation Organization
(c) Internal Commission on the Civil Aviators' Organization

Dear Parents:

This letter is to ask for your permission to use information collected from the Drama course your son/daughter is presently taking for my university thesis. Presently, I am a Master's student in the faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba.

As you know, in the Drama elective your son/daughter has chosen for this term, s/he will be learning public speaking, debating, impromptu speaking, and role-playing. The major project they will be working on in class will be a Model United Nations Conference for May 23rd.

In this project, the students will pretend to be from a foreign country. They will be expected to act the part of a delegate from that country. They will have to argue and debate issues of world concern just like at the real United Nations. Because each student will serve as an ambassador for the country which s/he will represent, she/he will need to research background information on his/her country.

Evaluation in the course will be based on test results, how well the students research, and how well they perform the role of their country. The results will be used on report cards.

With your permission, I also would like to use the results from the evaluation for my university thesis. The results would be used anonymously. Of course, your permission to use the results is entirely optional, and student marks will not be affected by participation or non -participation in the study.

This project will require me to collect data. This data will be collected by asking the students to keep journals, write tests, answer questionnaires, and respond to surveys regarding their knowledge of world affairs. In addition, I will be interviewing volunteer students over the term. A copy of the notes/transcript from the interview will be provided to the students for approval. By confirming the accuracy of the notes and report, error will be kept to a minimum. Also, students will have a chance to correct direct quotes and give their approval/permission to use a particular quote. Otherwise, respondents will remain anonymous or the quote will not be used at all.

No student names will be used, and confidentiality will be respected. Your son/daughter is free to refuse to participate in the research or to discontinue participating at any time without penalty.

At the beginning of the '97 fall term, when the research is completed, a written summary of the research results will be made available to students and parents upon request. Once the research is completed the taped interviews will be erased.

Also, on may 23rd, we will have a Model United Nations Conference at Valley Gardens. I would like to take photographs and also video tape the proceedings. Below, I would like to ask our permission to use the photos and information from the video tape in the reporting of the research. Once the reseach is completed, I will dispose of the photos and video tape.

If you have any question regarding this university research, you may contact either of my thesis advisors:

Professor Ken Osborne Tel.: 474-9079
Dr. Sheldon Rosenstock Tel.: 474-9038

Department of Curriculum: Humanities & Social Sciences
Faculty of Education
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg Manitoba R3T 2N2

If you are willing for your son/daughter to be included in this research project, would you kindly sign below as evidence of your consent and return it to me. Additionally, would you please have your son/duaghter signify his/her willingness to participate by also signing the form.

Sincerely,

R Bisset

Rick Bisset

Willing to participate in the interview

Willing to have my son/daughter participate in the interview

_____ Student's signature

_____ Parent's signature

____ (Yes) Check if you would like a summary of the results in the fall of '97.

____ (Yes) Check if phototgraphs and videos of your son/daughter at the Conference can be used in the reporting of the master's thesis

River East School Division No. 9
589 Roch Street, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada R2K 2P7 Telephone: (204) 667-7130 - Fax.: (204) 661-5618

January 7, 1997

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

The River East School Division endorses the Model United Nations initiative undertaken by Mr. R. Bisset. I am in full agreement with him of the need to provide a global orientation to the teaching of social studies. The Model United Nations Simulation does this. If possible, I would like to have M.U.N. extended to and established within the S2-S4 level.

I am confident that the research undertaken by Mr. Bisset for his Master's Degree will be of benefit to and strengthen his existing program.

H.M. Kojima
Superintendent/CEO
River East School Division

HMK:li

valley gardens
Junior High School

Ron Hildebrand, Principal
Don Reed, Vice-Principal

December 13, 1996

To whom it may concern:

Please accept this letter as acknowledgement of my understanding and approval of Mr. Rick Bisset's Grade 9 course at Valley Gardens Junior High School.

I am aware and also approve of the Model United Nations course he is teaching three times a cycle. It should also be understood that this course is part of his regular assigned teaching duties.

He has kept me apprised of aspects of the course content, as well as materials he uses, and activities the class does. As part of his assigned duties Mr. Bisset has taken it upon himself to implement this new program at our school. We are pleased with the results to date and look forward to seeing the final results of this project.

If you have any questions or concerns, please call me at the school (668-6249).

Sincerely,

Ron Hildebrand
Principal

valley gardens junior high school

Ron Hildebrand, Principal
Don Reed, Vice-Principal

MESSAGE FROM THE SECRETARY-GENERAL

Dear Delegates:

Welcome to the Valley Gardens Model United Nations Conference. Inside this information package, you will find everything you need to ensure you have a successful Conference.

However, if you have a question not covered in this package, please ask for assistance and my office will be pleased to help.

The world today faces a serious problem with land mines. Governments around the world have been trying to resolve this issue - without success. Your task today, will be to try to find consensus on three controversial resolutions. However, more importantly, first try to understand the different viewpoints being expressed. It has been my experience that when delegations listen closely to each other and attempt to understand another's culture, then cooperation is possible.

A Model U.N. Conference gives back to the delegates as much as they put in. Since you have obviously worked hard in research and preparation, the Secretary-General's office is certain you will leave this Conference with many new friendships, with new confidence, and a desire to continue these types of experiences.

Best wishes with today's resolutions.

Sincerely,

R Bisset

Rick Bisset
Secretary-General

VALLEY GARDENS

MODEL UNITED NATIONS

CONFERENCE TIMES

Held between 9:00 - 4:30 PM: semi-formal attire

8:15 - 8:45 AM	Juice/coffee/bagels
8:45 - 9:00	Official welcome
9:00 - 10:00	Opening speeches/Policy statements (3 min. maximum - Alphabetical order)
10:00 - 10:30	Guest speaker with questions
10:30 - 11:00	Break & Bloc caucusing
11:00 - 12:30	Substantive debate with speaker's list Reolution #1
12:30 - 1:00	Lunch: pizza
1:00 - 4:00	Substantive debate with speaker's list Resolution #2 Resolution #3
4:00 - 4:15	Closing ceremonies

Committee: 1st Political
Question of: Moratorium on the manufacture, export, and use of Land Mines
Resolution: #A - 1
Submitted by: Somalia, Angola, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Laos, United Kingdom

The General Assembly

Noting that the number of active land mines around the world and their constant threat to mankind is an urgent public health matter that needs to be addressed,

Further noting there are as many as 110 million uncleared land mines throughout 64 countries, particularly in rural areas, according to the International Committee of the Red Cross,

Disturbed by the fact that many Less Developed Countries are affected by the millions of land mines without anyone doing much about it,

Deeply distrubed that such mines kill or maim hundreds of people each week, mostly unarmed civilians, obstruct economic development, and have other severe consequences,

Recalling the 1907 Hague Convention which states that populations are protected under international law based on international custom, humanity, and public conscience,

Recalling with satisfaction earlier resolutions passed by this General Assembly; for example, the 1980 Convention on *Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May be Deemed To Be Excessively Injurious Or To Have Indiscriminate Effects* and the 1993 Resolution 48/75K which calls on individual States to ban the export of land mines,

Deeply disturbed with the countries who signed the 1980 UN Weapons Convention resolution, but who refuse to abide by the content,

Reaffirming the 1995 *Protocol II of the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons* which prohibits the use of land mines against civilians directly or in a way that does not or cannot be directed at a military objective,

Fully aware that land mines are very expensive to remove, but this problem can be eliminated by passing this resolution,

Noting with satisfaction that several States have already declared moratoriums on the manufacture, export, and use of antipersonnel land mines and related devices,

Convinced that a moratorium by States manufacturing, exporting, and/or using anti-personnel land mines would reduce substantially the human and economic costs resulting from the use of such devices,

Applauds the General Assembly's *Disarmament and International Security Committee* which called for (13 Nov 96) a legally binding international agreemen to ban the use, stockpiling, production, and transfer of anti-personnel mines,

1. **Calls upon** all UN member States to agree to a moratorium on the manufacture, export, and use of anti-personnel land mines;

2. **Urges** all UN member States to implement such a moratorium;

3. **Requests** the Secretary-General to prepare a report regarding progress on the initiative, including recommendations regarding further appropriate measures to limit the manufacture, export, and use of anti-personnel land mines and submit it to the General Assembly at its next meeting;

4. **Further requests** the set-up of a demining program in all mine-infected countries before 1998 and funding will come from a "Trust Fund for Mine Clearance" and all countries will be expected to make a donation;

5. **Calls** on all governments to publicly commit to the objective of signing an international treaty banning all anti-personnel land mines by December 1997;

6. **Urges** all existing stockpiles of land mines to be destroyed within 6 months.

Committee: 1st Political
Question of: Limited Use of Land Mines
Resolution: #B - 1
Submitted by: United States of America, Afghanistan, India, People's Republic of China, Pakistan, Russia, Vietnam, Indonesia

The General Assembly

Alarmed by the amount of time and money it took to prepare this Conference on the question of land mines,

Recognizing that land mines are used mainly for defensive purposes,

Keeping in mind that countries will need land mines to train their soldiers to have better knowledge of their capabilities and to be better prepared,

Noting further that with land mines being used for training purposes there will be fewer soldiers who are maimed or killed,

Emphasizes land mines only be used in training of soldiers and defensive purposes,

Guided by the leading principle of the United Nations - the sovereignty of all member States,

1. Requests that other countries respect the sovereignty of all nations;

2. Supports the limited use of land mines for military purposes;

3. Encourages an improved mine database to aid in identification, classification, and disposal assessments;

4. Requests that mines used in military actions be self-destructing within 30 days.

Committee: 1st Political
Question of: Land Mine Clean-up
Resolution: #C - 1
Submitted by: Japan, Mozambique, the Philippines, Canada

The General Assembly

Remembering the tens of thousands of innocent civilians killed and maimed by land mines each year,

Seeking a solution to the world's land mine problem,

Keeping in mind that it will cost billions of dollars to have all known land mines removed,

Deeply disturbed that countries who manufacture, export, and use land mines do not clean them up,

Taking into account that land mines cost a great deal of money to clean up and many countries with land mines from a previous war do not have the money to clean them up,

Recognizing that with land mines in use around the world, other countries need training in the field of land mine removal and clearance,

Alarmed by the fact that at the present rate of mine clearance, it is estimated that it will take 1 100 years to clear existing land mines, assuming no more are laid,

Having studies that show mine detection and clearance technology are at least 20 years behind mine design,

Fully aware countries have not followed the *Humanitarian Rights Declaration* which states that after a country has been involved with war, the country must assist in demining procedures of mines they have placed in that country,

Expecting that all countries will take responsibility for their actions and assist in the anti-personnel mine clearance,

Taking into account that at the *1980 Convention on the Global Ban of Landmines*, some who participated in it did not carry through with their promises,

1. Strongly suggests all countries work together in the clearance of land mines and land mine detection;

2. Requests that countries who manufacture, export, and/or use land mines accept their responsibility and assist with clearance and victim assistance programs;

3. Recommends the standard production of a "smart mine" that will self-destruct within 3o days after being activated;

4. Further recommends the production of a mine that is made with more metal so that if used, it can be more easily detected and removed;

5. Declares accordingly a world-wide fundraising operation for the removal of landmines;

6. Endorses that this operation be funded and advertised as a project of the United Nations;

7. Further requests an increase in resources form the UN for mine clearance of all mine contaminated countries, and particularly in those nations and regions that have banned the weapon in order to encourage other countries to do the same.

University of Manitoba
Faculty of Education

THESIS/PRACTICUM PROPOSAL APPROVAL

Section I *(to be completed by the Examining Committee)*

This is to certify that

(Mr., ~~Mrs.~~, ~~Miss~~, ~~Ms.~~) RICK BISSET

has successfully completed the oral examination of his/her thesis/practicum proposal and that the undersigned give their approval for the candidate to proceed with the thesis research or practicum project (without reservation/with the attached reservation(s)).

The working title of the thesis/practicum is: TEACHING GLOBAL EDUCATION AT THE GRADE 9 LEVEL BY MEANS OF A MODEL UNITED NATIONS PROJECT.

Dated 14 November 19 96 Advisor

Examiner

Examiner

Section II *(to be completed by the Department Head)*

I, Dr. Joan Welters Head of the Department of CHSS acknowledge that the thesis/practicum proposal of the above-named student has been approved (without reservation/~~with the attached reservation(s)~~) and that, where appropriate, the proposal has received approval from the Faculty of Education Ethics Review Committee. *(Department Head to attach copy of ethics approval notification.)*

Faculty of Educati
ETHICS APPROVAL FORM

To be completed by the applicant:

Title of Study:

Implementation and analysis of a Model United Nations simulation in an urban, public school in Grade 9, as a vehicle for creating an increased sense of global awareness in students.

Name of Principal Investigator(s) (please print):

Rick Bisset

Name of Thesis/Dissertation Advisor or Course Instructor (if Principal Investigator is a student) (please print):

Ken Osborne.

I/We, the undersigned, agree to abide by the University of Manitoba's ethical standards and guidelines for research involving human subjects, and agree to carry out the study named above as described in the Ethics Review Application.

R. Bisset

Signature(s) of Principal Investigator(s)

Osborne

Signature of Thesis/Dissertation Advisor or Course Instructor (if required)



THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

Faculty of Education
Research and Ethics Committee

Winnipeg, Manitoba
CANADA R3T 2N2
Telephone: (204) 474-9017
Fax: (204) 275-5962

Zana Lutfiyya, Ph.D., Chair

May 15, 1997

Mr. Rick Bissett
4 Melanie Cove
Winnipeg, MB
R2G 2Z4

Dear Mr. Bissett:

On behalf of the Research & Ethics Committee, I am pleased to inform you that your Ethics Review Application for the research proposal, "Implementation and Analysis of a Model United Nations Simulation" has been approved.

A copy of the approval is attached. Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Z.M. Lutfiyya
Chair, Research & Ethics Committee

cc: Ken Osborne
Sheldon Rosenstock

Encl.

ZML/vt

Model United Nations a learning ground for students

THE HERALD — TUESDAY, JUNE 10, 1997 — PAGE 9



Wanda McConnell/Herald

Craig Loney addresses the General Assembly during a Model United Nations.

By Wanda McConnell
Herald Editor

Land mines kill or maim someone every 20 minutes, says the Red Cross.

Should there be a moratorium on their manufacture, export and use? Should there be limited use of land mines? Should all countries work together to clean up land mines?

These were some of the questions Senior 1 students from Valley Gardens, Kelvin, Pierre Radisson, Churchill and John Pritchard schools debated and negotiated about during a Model United Nations held recently at Valley Gardens Junior High School.

The final resolutions of this "General Assembly" aren't as important as the process the young members go through to arrive at a resolution, says teacher Rick Bissett, who organized the event.

"The main point is to learn how to deal with someone who doesn't see the problem in the same way you do," he says. The day-long event involved 50 students who represented some of the 183 member nations of the United Nations. It was, says Bissett, an exercise in diplomacy and understanding different cultures and political climates.

"Hopefully they will have learned how to work towards consensus, which is what the United Nations is all about," he says, adding the event helped foster the sense of "global-mindedness" that's going to be a required mind-set of future generations.

For Bissett's students, it was also a lesson in role-playing. It was his drama class that participated in the Model United Nations.

"It's like a thinking man's drama," explained Kristin Wakeman. "It's like a play and you're a delegate and you put your research into that part."

Classmate Craig Loney, who was representing Bangladesh, said he thought it was even better than a play "because you don't know what's going to happen next."

Loney says you participants could have a prepared script, "but then the whole entire conversation could change in an instant. There's a lot of adrenaline running through you when a person says one thing and you've got to find a way around that."

Like all of the participants, Bissett's students researched the countries they were to represent in the library and on the Internet. They had to know their countries inside out and know their position on land mines. They also had to know a little about the other countries' positions on the issue and why they take that position. They also had to learn how the United Nations works, and they had to develop strong public speaking and role-playing skills.

"APPENDIX F"
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interviews will be used to determine the students' perceptions, opinions, and reactions to the course. These are examples of the questions the students will be asked at various times during the 5-month course. Students will be chosen randomly for a twenty minute conversation. The intent is to interview every student at least once. Later, follow-up interviews may be necessary since more questions may arise.

The first series of questions will be asked using an unstructured interview. The questions are designed to give information regarding the "sense" students are making of global education concepts. Hopefully, the answers will give information on whether or not the students are developing 'global mindedness'.

Afterwards, the results will be triangulated with data from diaries, video tape, and questionnaires. In that way, some definitive conclusions will be able to be made regarding what sense Grade 9 students are making of global education.

Finally, a copy of the notes/transcript from the interview will be provided to the respondents for approval. By confirming the accuracy of the notes and report, error will be kept to a minimum. Also, respondents will have a chance to correct direct quotes and give their approval/permission to use a particular quote. Otherwise, respondents will remain anonymous.

1. What have you learned by taking on an ambassador's role?
2. What did you feel during the role-playing simulation?
3. Are you better able to understand another's point of view? How?
4. Has your point of view on the topic changed?
5. How did you feel having to work with an antagonistic ambasssador? How did you compromise with another point of view?
6. What have you learned in this course?
7. How can the course be improved? Any suggestions?
8. Is there anything further that you feel is important?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abraham, H. (1973). World Problems in the Classroom: A teacher's guide to some United Nations tasks. France: U.N. Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Alger, C. (Nov 1968). "Some Problems in Improving International Education," in Social Education, v 32, n 7, 657-660.

Alladin, I. (May/June 1990). "Teaching for Global Awareness," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 6-11.

Anderson, C. C. (1982). "Global Education in the Classroom," in Theory into Practice, v 21, n 3, 168-176.

Anderson, Lee (Nov 1968). "An Examination of the Structure and Objective of International Education," in Social Education, v 32, n 7, 639-647.

Anderson, Lee (1979a). Schooling for Citizenship in a Global Age: An exploration of the meaning and significance of global education. Bloomington, Indiana: Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives on Education, Indiana University.

Anderson, Lee (1979b). Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age. Bloomington, Ind.: Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University.

Anderson, Lee (1982). "Why Should American Education be Globalized? It's a Nonsensical Question," in Theory into Practice, v 21, n 3, 155-161.

Anyon, J. (1981). "Social Class and the Hidden Curriculum of Work," in H. Giroux, A. Penna, and W. Pinar (eds.), Curriculum and Instruction. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 317-341.

Aronowitz, S. (1981). "Politics and Higher Education in the 1980s," in H. Giroux, A. Penna, and W. Pinar (eds.), Curriculum and Instruction. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 455-465.

Asimov, I. (1974). Earth: Our Crowded Spaceship. New York: John Day Company. (Available in paperback from the U.S. Committee for UNICEF.)

Bacchus, K. (May/June 1989). "The Concept of Global Education," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 19-22.

Baird, J. (1986). "Improving Learning through Enhanced Metacognition: A classroom study," in European Journal of Science Education, v 8 n 3, 263-282.

Barnaby, F. (ed.). (1988). The GAIA Peace Atlas: Survival into the third millennium. Great Britain: Pan Books Ltd.

Barrow, R. (1981). The Philosophy of Schooling. Great Britain: Wheatsheaf Books.

Barton, W. (1994). Canadian Reference Guide to the United Nations. Canada: Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade. (Additional copies can be ordered: 1-800-267-8376.)

Becker, J. & East, M. (1972). Global Dimensions in U.S. Education: The secondary school. U.S.: Center for War/Peace Publications.

Becker, J. (1973). Education for a Global Society. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Education Foundation.

Becker, J. (Nov/Dec 1974). "Perspectives on Global Education," in Social Education, v 38, 678-682.

Becker, J. (Ed.) (1979). Schooling for a Global Age. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Becker, J., & Anderson, L. (Winter 1980). "Global Perspectives in the Social Studies," in Journal of Research and Development in Education, v 13, n 2, 82-92.

Becker, J. (1981). "Needed: A global context for the study of nations and people," in Georgia Social Science Journal, 12, 1-2.

Becker, J. (1982). "Goals for Global Education," in Theory into Practice, v 21, n 3, 228-233.

Bellanca, J. & Fogarty, R. (1993). Catch Them Thinking: A handbook of classroom strategies. 2nd ed. Skylight Publishing, IL.

Bisset, R., et. al. (1993). An Instructional Guide to Teaching about the United Nations. New York: United Nations Association of the United States of America.

Block, J. (1981). "Promoting Excellence Through Mastery Learning," in H. Giroux, A. Penna, and W. Pinar (eds.), Curriculum and Instruction. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 161-176.

Botkin, J., Elmandjra, M., & Malitza, M. (1979). No Limits to Learning: Bridging the human gap. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Boulding, E. (Nov 1968). "Education for the Spaceship Earth," in Social Education, v 32, n 7, 648-652.

Boulding, E. (1988). Building a Global Civic Culture: Education for an interdependent world. USA: Teacher's College Press.

Boutros-Ghali, B. (1996). The 50th Anniversary Annual Report of the Work of the Organization. United Nations: Department of Public Information.

Brackenbury, J. (May/June 1989). "Global Education and the Alberta Curriculum," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 29-30.

Brameld, T. (1974). The Teacher as World Citizen. U.S.: Kappa Delta Pi.

Brickman, W. (1973). Comparative Education: Concept, research, and application. U.S.: Norwood Editions.

_____ (1975). Biographical Essays on Comparative and International Education. U.S.: Norwood Editions.

_____ (Nov 30 1946). "International Educational Cooperation," in School and Society, v 64, 386-392.

_____ (April 30 1949). "International Educational Relations," in School and Society, v 69, 318-325.

_____ (Sept 27 1952). "International Aspects of Education," in School and Society, v 76, 198-203.

_____ (Sept 24 1949). "UNESCO," in School and Society, v 70, 196-202.

_____ (Nov 29 1952). "UNESCO Developments and Achievements," in School and Society, v 76.

Brouwer, W. (1987). A Survey of Peace Education in Canada. Ottawa: Canadian Institute for International Peace and Security.

Bruce, M., Podemski, R., & Anderson, C. (Jan/Feb 1991). "Developing a Global Perspective: Strategies for Teacher Education Programs," in Journal of Teacher Education, v 42, n 1, 21-27.

Campsie, J.S. (1967). Conflict and Co-operation: An Introduction to Some Problems of International Relations in the Twentieth Century. Canada: J.M. Dent & Sons Limited.

Carr, W. (1986). Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge, and Action Research. U.S.: Falmer Press.

Carr, W. & Kemmis, S. (1986). Becoming critical: education, knowledge, and action research. Australia: Deakin University Press.

Carr, W. (1994). "Whatever happened to action research?" in Educational Action Research, v 2, n 3, 427-436.

Carson, T. & Gideonse, H. (1987). Peace Education and the Task for Peace Educators. World Council for Curriculum and Instruction.

Chartock, R. (April 1991). "Identifying Local Links to the World," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 7, 50-52.

Choldin, E. (May/June 1989). "Alberta Global Education Project: An Experiment in Professional Development," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 26-28.

Christopher, J., & Vickers, B. (1987). The American Challenge. Canada: Oxford University Press.

CIDA (1993). International Development Film and Video Catalogue. Canada: National Film Board of Canada.

Clausewitz, Carl von. (1984). On War. U.S.: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

Coleman, S. In Patterson, F. (ed.) (1960). The Adolescent Citizen. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc.

Coombs, J. (1988). "Toward a Defensible Conception of a Global Perspective." CIDA: Explorations in Development/Global Education.

Corey, Stephen M. (1953). Action Research to Improve School Practices. N.Y.: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Cushner, K. (July/August 1990). "Adding an International Dimension to the Curriculum," in The Social Studies, v 81, n 4, 166-170.

Danielson, C. (1996). Enhancing Professional Practice: A framework for teaching. Alexandria, Va.: ASCD.

de Luna, P. (May/June 1989). "A Key Role for Teachers," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 4-5.

DeKock, A. (Sept 1989). "One District's Commitment to Global Education," in Educational Leadership, v 47, n 1, 46-49.

Dembo, David ed. (1984). Global Education at the Grass Roots: Profiles of school-based programs. U.S.: Council of International and Public Affairs.

Dewey, J. (1933). How We Think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process. Chicago: D.C. Heath.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and Education. New York: Macmillan.

Diakiw, J. (Jan 1990). "Children's Literature and Global Education: Understanding the developing world," in Reading Teacher, v 43, 296-300.

Dickinson, G. (1926). The International Anarchy, 1904-1914. London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd.

Duttweiler, P. (1995). Effective Strategies for Educating Students in At-Risk Situations. U.S.: National Dropout Prevention Center.

Eisner, E. (1979). "The Curriculum Field Today: Where we are, where we were, and where we are going," in The Educational Imagination. New York: MacMillan, 1 -20.

Elliott, J. (1976). "Developing Hypotheses about Classroom Teachers' Practical Constructs: An account of the work of the Ford teaching project," in Interchange, v 7, n 2, pp. 2-22.

Elliott, J. (1978). "What Is Action Research in Schools?" in Journal of Curriculum Studies, v 10, 355-57.

Elliott, J. (1991). Action Research for Educational Change. U.K.: Open University Press.

Elliott, J. (1993). "What Have We Learned from Action Research in School-Based Evaluation?" in Educational Action Research, v 1, n 1, 175-186.

Erickson, F. (1986). "Qualitative Methods in Research on Teaching," in Wittrock, M. (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teaching. New York: Macmillan Publishing, Co.

Evans, C. (1987). "Teaching a Global Perspective in Elementary Classrooms," in The Elementary School Journal, v 87, n 5, 545-555.

Fairhall, D. (Mar 30 1996). "Europe's Armies March into the Future," in The Globe and Mail, p. D4.

Falk, R. (1971). This Endangered Planet. N.Y.: Random House.

Falk, R. (1975). A Global Approach to National Policy. U.S.: Harvard University Press.

Falk, R., & Kim, S. (1982). An Approach to World Order Studies and the World System. N.Y.: Institute for World Order.

Falk, R. (1983). The End of World Order: Essays on normative international relations. N.Y.: Holmes & Meier.

Fensen, L., Sackela, R., & Harris, L. (1995). Where to go from Here? The UN at 50. UNA in Canada.

Fetterman, D. (1988). "Ethnographic educational evaluation," in Fetterman, D. (ed.), Qualitative Approaches to Evaluation in Education. New York: Praeger.

Fonte, M.J. (1983). "Past as Prologue: A current issues rationale for a global perspective," in Educational Research Quarterly, v 8, n 1, 108-111.

Frankl, V. (1984). Man's Search for Meaning. U.S.: Pocket Books.

Fraser, S. & Brickman, W. (1968). A History of International and Comparative Education: Nineteenth-Century Documents. U.S.: Scott, Foresman and Company.

Fuller, R. (1970). Operating Manual for Spaceship Earth. New York: Pocket Books.

Gardner, H. (1983). Frames of Mind: The theory of multiple intelligences. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1991). The Unschooled Mind: How children think and how schools should teach. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1993). Multiple Intelligences: The theory in practice. New York: Basic Books.

Gibbons, S.R. & Morican, P. (1970). The League of Nations and UNO. London: Longmen Group Limited.

Goldstine, L., & Shefrin, A. (Apr 1995). "A Model United Nations," in The Manitoba Social Science Teacher, v 21, n 4, 22-23.

Good, H.G. (1963). A History of Western Education. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Gould, J. (Apr 1995). "United Nations Information Via Internet," in The Manitoba Social Science Teacher, v 21, n 4, 11.

Greenstein, F. (1969). Children and Politics. U.S.: Yale University.

Greig, S., Pike, G., & Selby, D. (1989). Greenprints: for changing schools. University of York: The Centre for Global Education.

Greig, S., Pike, G., & Selby, D. (1990). Earthrights: education as if the planet really mattered. University of York: The Centre for Global Education.

Griffen, W. & Spence, R. (1970). Cooperative Education. U.S.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA.

Guetzkow, H. et. al. (1963). Simulation in International Relations: Developments for Research and Teaching. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Hale, O. (1971). The Great Illusion: 1900-1914. U.S.: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Hall, R. et. al. (1977). Internationalize Your School: A handbook. U.S.: National Association of Independent Schools.

Hanvey, R. (1979). An Attainable Global Perspective. N.Y.: Global Perspectives in Education, Inc.

Hanvey, R. (1982). "An Attainable Global Perspective," in Theory into Practice, v 21, n 3, 162-167.

Hassard, J., & Weisburg, J. (Apr 1992). "The Global Thinking Project," in The Science Teacher, v 59, n 4, 43-47.

Hazelton, W.A. (June 1966). "External Simulations as Teaching Devices: The Model United Nations," in Simulation and Games, v 17, 149-171.

Heater, D. (1991). "International Education," in Arieh & Levy (eds.) The International Encyclopedia of Curriculum. New York: Pergamon Press, 775-777.

Henderson, J. (1968). Education for World Understanding. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Henderson, G. (1973). Education for Peace: Focus on Mankind. U.S.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Henry III, W. (1994). In Defense of Elitism. New York: Anchor Books.

Hitchcock, G. & Hughes, D. (1995). Research and the Teacher: A qualitative introduction to school-based research. Canada: Routledge.

Hoffman, D., & Sorenson, M. (1991). The United Nations: A right to rights. U.S.: United Nations Association of Minnesota.

Hoffman, D., & Sorenson, M. (1991). The United Nations: A right to education and literacy. U.S.: United Nations Association of Minnesota.

Hoskin, M. (1991). "The Challenge of the Multiethnic Society," in Education for Democratic Citizenship: A Challenge for Multi-Ethnic Societies. U.S.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., 9-19.

Howard, M. (1991). The Lessons of History. U.S.: Yale University.

Hughes-Wiener, G. (Feb 1988). "An Overview of International Education in Schools," in Education and Urban Society, v 20, n 2, 139-158.

Isaac, S. & Michael, W. (1971). Handbook in Research and Evaluation. San Diego: Edits Publishers.

James, W. (1908). Talks to Teachers on Psychology: And to students on some of life's problems. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Johnson, M. (1981). "Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory," in H. Giroux, A. Penna, and W. Pinar (eds.), Curriculum and Instruction. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 69-85.

Johnson, P. (Jan/Feb 1988). "The Model United Nations: Motivator and instructional technique in geographic education," in Journal of Geography, v 87, n 1, 13-16.

Jones, R. & Sherman S. (1929). The League of Nations: from idea to reality. London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd.

Jorgensen, D. (1989). Participant Observation: A methodology for human studies. N.Y.: Sage Publications.

Joyce, B., Weil, M., & Showers, B. (1992). Models of Teaching. U.S.: Allyn and Bacon.

Juyal, S. (1996). International Organizations: A Model United Nations Reader. Canada: Strathmor Publications.

Keeves, J.P. (1988). Educational Research, Methodology and Measurement. N.Y.: Pergamon Press.

Kelman, H. (Nov. 1968). "Education for the Concept of a Global Society," in Social Education, v 32, n 7, 661-666.

Kember, D. & Kelly, M. (1993). "Improving Teaching through Action Research," in Green Guide #14. Australia: Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia Inc.

Kemmis, S. & McTaggart, R. (1982). The Action Research Planner. Australia: Deakin University.

Kemmis, S. (1991). "Action Research," in Arieh & Levy (eds.) The International Encyclopedia of Curriculum. New York: Pergamon Press, 42-48.

Kenworthy, L. (1963). Telling the UN Story: New approaches to teaching about the United Nations and its related agencies. New York: UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Kenworthy, L. (1970). The International Dimension of Education. U.S.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA.

Kilcher, C.A. (1994). School Improvement in Canada: An overview. Toronto: Walter and Duncan Gordon Charitable Foundation.

Killion, J., & Todnem, G. (Mar 1991). "A Process for Personal Theory Building," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 6, 14-16.

Kniep, W. (1985). "Global education in the eighties." Curriculum Review, v 25, n 2, 16-18.

Kniep, W. (Oct 1986). "Defining a global education by its content," in Social Education, v 50, n 6, 437-446.

Kniep, W. (May/June 1990). "Essentials for a global education," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 12-15.

Kniep, W.M. (Sept 1989). "Global Education as School Reform," in Educational Leadership, 43-45.

Kobus, D.K. (1983). "The Developing Field of Global Education: A review of the literature," in Educational Research Quarterly, v 8, n 1, 21-28.

Kobus, D.K. (April/May 1992). "Multicultural/Global Education: An educational agenda for the rights of the child," in Social Education, v 56, n 4, 224-227.

Koch, R., & Cooper, A. (Nov/Dec 1994). "Celebrating the United Nations: Global Education at Morristown-Beard School," in Social Education, v 58, n 7, 432.

Koehane, R. & Nye, J. (Eds.) (1971). Transnational Relations and World Politics. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Kraus-Thompson, D. (1971). Teaching about the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies: A selected bibliography. Germany: Educational Studies and Documents, No. XXIX.

Lamy, S. (Winter 1983). "Defining Global Education," in Educational Research Quarterly, v 8, n 1, 9-20.

Lamy, S. (May/June 1989). "The National Interest or Global Interests?" in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 40-46.

Latham, A.S. (May 1997). "Learning through Feedback," in Educational Leadership, v 54, n 8, 86-87.

Laurenti, J. (1996). Inalienable Rights, Fundamental Freedoms: A U.N. agenda for advancing human rights in the world community. U.S.: A Report of the UNA-USA Global Policy Project.

Laurenti, J. (1997). Crisis and Reform in United Nations Financing. U.S.: A Report of the UNA-USA Global Policy Project.

LeBaron, J., & Warshawsky, R. (Apr 1991). "Satellite Teleconferencing Between Massachusetts and Germany," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 7, 61-64.

Lister, I. (1991). "Civic Education for Positive Pluralism in Great Britain," in Sigel, R., Education for Democratic Citizenship: A Challenge for Multi-Ethnic Societies." U.S.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Lyons, T. (1991). "Decoding Global Education," in Education Forum, v 17, n 3, 20c-20d.

Mackay, R. (ed.) (1971). Canadian Foreign Policy 1945-1954: Selected speeches and documents. Toronto: Macmillan.

Maclean's Advertising Supplement. (Feb 1996). "Their future is also our future," in Maclean's insert.

Mallinson, V. (1957). An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education. London: Heinemann.

Mansbach, R., Ferguson, Y., & Lampert, D. (1976). The Web of World Politics: Nonstate actors in the global system. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Marwick, Arthur. (1974). War and Social Change in the Twentieth Century: A comparative study of Britain, Germany, Russia, and the United States. Great Britain: Macmillan.

Marzano, R.J. (1992a). A Different Kind of Classroom: Teaching with dimensions of learning. U.S.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Marzano, R. J. et. al. (1992b). Dimensions of Learning: Teacher's manual. U.S.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

McLane, J. (Apr 1991). "From Seattle to Novosibirsk: A 1st grade exchange," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 7, 58-60.

McLuhan, M. (1964). Understanding Media: The extensions of man. New York: McGraw-Hill.

McRae, H. (1994). The World in 2020 - Power, Culture and Prosperity: A vision of the future. Great Britain: Harper Collins Publishers.

McTaggart, R. (1994). "Participatory Action research: Issues in theory and practice," in Educational Action Research, v 2, n 3, 313-337.

Melvin, Kenneth. (1970). Education in World Affairs: A realistic approach to international education. U.S.: D.C. Heath and Company.

Merryfield, M. (Jan/Feb 1991). "Preparing American Secondary Social Studies Teachers to Teach with a Global Perspective: A status report," in Journal of Teacher Education, v 42, n 1, 11-20.

Mistry, R. (1995). A Fine Balance. McClelland & Stewart.

Montgomery, M. (Sept 1983). "Model United Nations," in Simulation and Games, v 14, 363-366.

Mooney, R. (1975). "The Researcher Himself," in William F. Pinar (ed.), Curriculum Theorizing: The Reconceptualists. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 173-207.

Morris, D. (Nov/Dec 1974). "Teaching Global Interdependence in Elementary Social Studies: Old concept - new crisis," in Social Education, v 38, 672-677.

Morton, D. (1995). United Nations: Its history and the Canadians who shaped it. Toronto: Kids Can Press.

Muldoon, J., & Farrell, H. (1992). Understanding the United Nations: Module for educators. U.S.: United Nations Association of Minnesota. (Price - $10.00)

Muldoon, J. (1992). The Model United Nations in Brief. New York: United Nations Association of the United States of America.

Muldoon, J. (1993). 1993-1994: A guide to delegate preparation. New York: United Nations Association of the United States of America.

Muldoon, J., & Myrick, C. (Oct 1995). "The Model United Nations: 50+ and growing strong," in Educational Leadership, v 53, n 2, 98-99.

Nabholz, B., Smith, D, & Zeglen, T. (Apr 1995). "A Study of the Interdependence in the Global Environment: A United Nations General Assembly Unit," in The Manitoba Social Science Teacher, v 21, n 4, 7-10.

Nixon, J. (1981). A Teacher's Guide to Action Research. G.B.: Grant McIntyre Ltd.

Noffke, S. (1995). "Action Research and Democratic Schooling," in Noffke, S., & Stevenson, R. (eds.), Educational Action Research. U.S.: Teachers College Press, 1-30.

O'Connor, E. (1982). "Global Education: A report on developments in Western Europe," in Theory into Practice, v 21, n 3, 224-227.

Oliver, Hugh. (1987). Sharing the World - a Prospect for Global Learning. Canada: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Osborne, K. (Spring 1985). "Peace Education and the Schools: What can we learn from history?" in The History and Social Science Teacher, v 20, n 3, 33-41.

Osborne, K. (1988a). Monographs in Education: XX - Peace education in the schools. Canada: University of Manitoba.

Osborne, K. (1988b). Educating Citizens: A democratic socialist agenda for Canadian education. Canada: Our Schools/Our Selves Education Foundation.

Osborne, K. (1991). Teaching for Democratic Citizenship. Canada: Our Schools/Our Selves.

Osborne, K. (Apr 1995). "Teaching about the United Nations K-12," in The Manitoba Social Science Teacher, v 21, n 4, 3-6.

Otero, G.G. (1983). "Global Education and School Improvement," in Educational Research Quarterly, v 8, n 1, 96-99.

O'Toole, James. (1995). Leading Change: Overcoming the ideology of comfort and the tyranny of custom. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Overly, N. & Kimpston, R. eds. (1976). Global Studies: Problems and promises for elementary teachers. U.S.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Overy, Bob. (1982). How Effective are Peace Movements? Montreal: Harvest House.

Parks, S. & Howard B. (1990). Book II - Organizing Thinking Using Graphic Organizers. Critical Thinking Press and Software: California.

Phyllis, Cash. (1988). How to Develop and Write a Research Paper. New York: Arco.

Phillips, M., & Muldoon, J. (Jan/Feb 1996). "The Model United Nations: A strategy for enhancing global business education," in Journal of Education for Business, v 71, n 3, 142-146.

Pinar, William F. (1975). "Currere: Toward reconceptualization," in W. Pinar (ed.), Curriculum Theorizing: The Reconceptualists. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 357-358, 396-414.

Pletsch, Robert W. (1995). The United Nations Family Activity Book. Canada: Pembroke Publishers.

Powers, P.J. (Sept/Oct 1979). "Will the Delegates Please Take Their Seats?...A Model United Nations in The Hague," in Today's Education, v 68, n 3, 78-80.

Ramler, S. (Apr 1991). "Global Education for the 21st Century," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 7, 44-46.

Rampaul, W.E. (1991). "International Education," in Arieh & Levy (eds.) The International Encyclopedia of Curriculum. New York: Pergamon Press, 2972-2978.

Ramphal, S. (1979). One World to Share: Selected speeches of the Commonwealth Secretary-General, 1975-79. London: Hutchinson Benham.

Ramphal, S. (1992). Our Country, the Planet: Forging a partnership for survival. Washington, D.C.: Island Press.

Reiss, Gail ed. (1984). A Teacher's Guide to Model United Nations. New York: United Nations Association of the United States of America.

Rissler, J. & Steinburg, C. (Oct 1991). "In practice," in Training and Development, 11-12.

Roche, D. (May/June 1989). "A Passion for the Planet," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 16-18.

Rosenau, J.N. (1983). "Teaching and Learning in a Transnational World," in Educational Research Quarterly, v 8, n 1, 29-35.

Rosengren, F. et. al. (1983). Internationalizing Your School: A handbook and resource guide for teachers, administrators, parents, and school board members. New York: National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies.

Rudduck, J., & Hopkins, D. (1985). Research as a Basis for Teaching: Readings from the work of Lawrence Stenhouse. U.S.: Heinemann Educational Books.

Rugg, H. & Withers, W. (1955). Social Foundations of Education. U.S.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Schon, P.A. (1987). Educating the Reflective Practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the profession. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schubert, William H. (1986). Curriculum: Perspective, paradigm, and possibility. New York: Macmillan.

Schwab, J. (Nov 1969). "The Practical: A language for curriculum," in The School Review, v 78, 1-23.

Scott, R. (1993). Spelling: Sharing the secrets. Gage Educational Publishing Company: Canada.

Seydegart, M. (1994). The Global Classroom: Appraisal and perspectives on education for international understanding - Canadian report. Canada: Council of Ministers of Education.

Shere, W. ed. (1980). In Search of Peace. U.S.: Exposition Press.

Shimoniak, W. (1971). School & Society: Race, religion, and politics. New York: Vantage Press.

Sigel, R. (1991). "Democracy in the Multi-Ethnic Society," in Education for Democratic Citizenship: A challenge for multi-ethnic societies. U.S.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Simmons, R. (Feb 1994). "The Horse Before the Cart: Assessing for understanding," in Educational Leadership, v 51, n 5, 22-23.

Smith, F. (1984). Forward in Teacher's Guide to Model United Nations. New York: United Nations Association of the United States of America.

Smith, H. (1995). Rethinking America. Random House: New York.

Smith, J. (1985). "Ser: An organization committed to global peace," in Global Images of Peace and Education: Transforming the war system. U.S.: Pakistan Publications, Inc., 274-276.

Sobol, T. (Nov 1990). "Understanding Diversity," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 3, 27-30.

Socknat, T. (1987). Witness Against War: Pacifism in Canada 1900-1945. Canada: University of Toronto Press.

Sparks-Langer, G., & Colton, A. (Mar 1991). "Synthesis of Research on Teachers' Reflective Thinking," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 6, 37-44.

Spradley, J.P. (ed.) (1980). Participant observation. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Starr, E. & Nelson, J. (Fall 1993). "Teacher Perspectives on Global Education," in Canadian Social Studies, v 28, n 1, 12-14.

Stein, I. (1990). The Hague International Model United Nations Instructional Guide. The Netherlands: THIMUN Publishing.

Stein, I. (1995). Beijing Model United Nations Conference Program Book. China: The International School of Beijing.

Stenhouse, L. (1975). "Defining the Curriculum Problem," in An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development. London, England: Heineman, 1-5.

Stenhouse, L. (1975). An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development. London: Heinemann.

Strong, C.F. (1961). How to Plan and Conduct Model United Nations Meetings. New York: Oceana Publications.

Surbeck, E., Han, E., & Moyer, J. (Mar 1991). "Assessing Reflective Responses in Journals," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 6, 25-27.

Taylor, A.J.P. (Apr 23 1978). "No More War," in The Observer.

Teitelbaum, H. (1989). How to Write a Thesis: A guide to the research paper. New York: Arco.

Tessitore, J., & Woolfson, S. (eds.) (1996). A Global Agenda: Issues before the 51st General Assembly of the United Nations. U.S.: Rowman & LIttlefield Publishers, Inc.

Thomas, T.M. (ed.). (1985). Global Images of Peace and Education: Transforming the war system. U.S.: Pakistan Publications, Inc.

Tonkin, H. & Edwards, J. (1981). The World in the Curriculum: Curricular strategies for the 21st century. U.S.: Change Magazine Press.

Torney-Purta, J. (1982). "The Global Awareness Survey: Implications for teacher education," in Theory into Practice, v 21, n 3, 200-205.

Travis, S. (Nov/Dec 1994). "Experiencing a Model United Nations," in Social Education, v 58, n 7, 434.

Tucker, M. (Winter 1981). "Internationalism revisited. Canada at the United Nations," in The History and Social Science Teacher, v 16, n 2, 101-108.

Tucker, J. (1982). "Developing a Global Dimension in Teacher Education: The Florida international university experiment," in Theory into practice, v 21, n 3, 212-217.

Tucker, J. (Jan 1991). "Global Education is Essential to Secondary School Social Studies," in NASSP Bulletin, v 75, n 531, 43-51.

Tucker, J., & Cistone, P. (Jan/Feb 1991). "Global Perspectives for Teachers: An urgent priority," in Journal of Teacher Education, v 42, n 1, 3-10.

Tye, B., & Tye, K. (1983). "Global Education Research," in Educational Research Quarterly, v 8, n 1, 48-63.

Tye, K. (1990). Global Education - From Thought to Action. U.S.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Tucker, J., & Cistone, P. (Jan/Feb 1991). "Global Perspectives for Teachers: An urgent priority," in Journal of Teacher Education, v 42, n 1, 3-10.

Tye, K., & Kniep, W. (Apr 1991). "Global Education Around the World," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 7, 47-49.

Tye, B. & Tye, K. (1992). Global Education: A study of school change. U.S.: State University of New York.

Tyler, Ralph W. (1949). Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press.

UNESCO. (1985). Canada & UNESCO - a working partnership. Canada: Canadian Commission for UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1985). A Look at Unesco's Institutions in Education. Canada: Canadian Commission for Unesco.

Ungerleider, C. (1991). "Socialization for Democratic Citizenship: the development of the Canadian infrastructure," in Education for Democratic Citizenship: A Challenge for Multi-Ethnic Societies. U.S.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., 149-165.

UNA-USA. United Nations Association of the United States of America, 485 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017; ph. 212-697-3232; fax. 212-682-9185.

UNA-USA (1993). Creating a Sustainable World: Environment, development, and the United Nations. Produced by the United Nations Association-USA, Seattle Chapter.

UNA-USA (1993). Curriculum Module I - The United Nations Plan for a World Community: A dramatization to explain the origin and organization of the United Nations. U.S.: Education Task Force of the UNA-USA Council of Chapter and Division Presidents.

UNA-USA (1993). Curriculum Module II - Conflict Resolution to SAve Succeeding Generations from the Scourge of War. U.S.: Education Task Force of the UNA-USA Council of Chapter and Division Presidents.

UNA-USA (1993). Curriculum Module III - To Reaffirm Faith in Fundamental Human Rights. U.S.: Education Task Force of the UNA-USA Council of Chapter and Division Presidents.

UNA-USA (1993). Curriculum Module IV - To Establish Justice and the Rule of Law among Nations. U.S.: Education Task Force of the UNA-USA Council of Chapter and Division Presidents.

UNA-USA (1993). Curriculum Module IV - To Establish Justice and the Rule of Law among Nations. U.S.: Education Task Force of the UNA-USA Council of Chapter and Division Presidents.

UNA-USA (1993). Curriculum Module V - To Promote Social Progress and Better Standards of Living in Larger Freedom. U.S.: Education Task Force of the UNA-USA Council of Chapter and Division Presidents.

United Nations (1995). Basic Facts about the United Nations. U.S.: Department of Public Information.

United Nations Association. Winnipeg Branch, 375 Jefferson Avenue, Winnipeg, Manitoba, R2V 0N4; ph. 204-586-0173; fax. 204-582-6272.

United Nations Association. In Canada, 130 Slater, Suite 900, Ottawa, K1P 6E2.

United Nations Publications. Two UN Plaza DC2-853 Dept. D024
New York NY 10017
Tel.: 800-253-9646
Fax.: 212-963-3489
Email: publications@un.org
Internet
http://un.org/Pubs/sales.htm

Urso, I. (1985). "Worldmindedness: The path to peace and justice," in Global Images of Peace and Education: Transforming the war system. U.S.: Pakistan Publications, Inc., 196-205.

Vianello-Chiodo, M. (Mar 1993). UN Chronicles. New York: United Nations Department of Public Information; v XXX, n 1.

Video. (1992). The Model United Nations. New York: United Nations Association of the United States of America.

Wager, W. (Aug 1983). "H.G. Wells and the Genesis of Future Studies," in The Futurist, v 17, n 4, 24-31.

Walker, R. (1985). Doing Research: A handbook for teachers. London: Methuen.

Ward, B., & Dubois, R. (1972). Only One Earth: The care and maintenance of a small planet. New York: Norton.

Warren, M. (Apr 1991). "Educating for Global Citizenship through Children's Art," in Educational Leadership, v 48, n 7, 53-57.

Watson, K. & Wilson, R. (eds.) (1985). Contemporary Issues in Comparative Education. Great Britain: Croom Helm.

Watson, Gordon (1996). Model United Nations Sourcebook. Ottawa: United Nations Association in Canada.

Weatherby, J.N. (Jan 1979). "The Realistic Simulation: A case study of the Cal poly Model United Nations," in Teaching Political Science, v 6, n 2, 248-256.

Wells, H.G. (1921). The Salvaging of Civilization. New York: Macmillan.

Werner, W. (Spring 1993). "What's Worth Reading?" in Canadian Social Studies, v 27, n 3, 121-122.

Werts, M.G., Wolery, M., Holcombe, A., & Gust, D.L. (1995). "Instructive Feedback: Review of parameters and effects," in Journal of Behavioral Education, 5, 55-75.

Whitehead, J. (1994). International Economic Diplomacy: A guide to the global economy - the issues, institutions, and influences. UNA-USA.

Whitehead, J. (1995). The United Nations at 50: A teaching and learning guide. UNA-USA.

Wien, B. (ed.) (1985). Peace and World Order Studies: A curriculum guide. N.Y.: World Policy Institute.

Wood, J. (Nov/Dec 1974). "Adding a Global Outlook to Our Secondary Curriculum: Classroom teaching strategies," in Social Education, v 38, 664-671.

Woyach, R.B., & Remy, R.C. (1982). "A Community-Based Approach to Global Education," in Theory into Practice, v 21, n 3, 177-183.

Woyach, R.B. (1983). "Citizenship and World Affairs: The impact of a community-based approach to global education," in Educational Research Quarterly, v 8, n 1, 36-42.

Wulf, C. (1991). "Peace Education," in Arieh & Levy (eds.) The International Encyclopedia of Curriculum. New York: Pergamon Press, 774-775.

Zachariah, M. (May/June 1989). "Linking Global Education with Multicultural Education," in The ATA Magazine, v 69, n 4, 48-51.

Zais, R. (1976). "Conceptions of Curriculum and the Curriculum Field," in Curriculum: Principles and Foundations. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 3-21.

Zelinski, V. (1983). Cold War: Experiencing history. Canada: Academic Press.

Zuber-Skerritt, O. (1992). Action Research in Higher Education. G.B.: Biddles, Ltd.