DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 266 995 SO 016 964

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TITLE International Law in a Global Age. A Teacher Handbook.
INSTITUTION Constitutional Rights Foundation, Los Angeles, Calif.
SPONS AGENCY Department of Education, Washington, DC.
PUB DATE Jan 82
GRANT G008004817
NOTE 179p.; For student edition, see SO 016 965.
AVAILABLE FROM Constitutional Rights Foundation, 601 S. Kingsley Dr., Los Angeles, CA 90005 (Starter set--1 teacher, 1 student edition, $17.50; class set, 35 students, $175.00).
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Arbitration; Citizenship; *Civil Liberties; Comparative Analysis; *Conflict Resolution; Cultural Awareness; *Cultural Differences; Decision Making; Family (Sociological Unit); *Global Approach; Government (Administrative Body); High Schools; Interdisciplinary Approach; *International Cooperation; *International Law; International Organizations; Laws; Learning Activities; Lesson Plans; Migration; Negotiation Agreements; Units of Study; War; World Affairs
IDENTIFIERS North Atlantic Treaty Organization; World Order

ABSTRACT

This global approach to teaching high school students about international law uses existing curriculum materials from a variety of social studies disciplines to present five major perspectives. Perspective I, "Global Links," focuses on the meaning of citizenship in a global age and the interconnectedness between individuals and the international system. Perspective II, "Cultural Contrasts," examines custom and law, including cultural perspectives on family law, decision making in another culture, and international human rights. Perspective III, "Actors and Relationships," examines actors on the international stage including nation-states, multi-national corporations, regional organizations, and non-governmental organizations. Focusing on "International Order," perspective IV presents an historic view of various models of world order, law, and government. The final perspective provides an introduction to international conflict; lessons on negotiation, arbitration, adjudication; and other approaches to resolving international conflict. In this teacher's handbook, each perspective contains an introduction, content overview, and lesson plans. In most cases, lesson plans contain (1) an introduction, providing students with concepts-building activities; (2) a development section, expanding the focus through the use of case study and discussion; and (3) an application section, in which students participate in individual writing assignments, group work, role-playing, or simulations. A list of source materials concludes the handbook. (LH)

International Law in a Global Age

Teacher's Handbook

CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS FOUNDATION

INTERNATIONAL LAW IN A GLOBAL AGE

A Teacher Handbook

Developed By

Marshall Croddy and Phyllis Maxey
Constitutional Rights Foundation

January, 1982

The preparation of these materials were financially assisted through a federal grant from the Department of Education, Citizen Education for Cultural Understanding Program, authorized under Section 603 of Title IV of the National Defense Act as amended. #G008004817.

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Design: Robert Shaw Design
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Printing: Navigator Press

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INTERNATIONAL LAW IN A GLOBAL AGE

Anyone approaching a systematic study of international law for the first time is bound to be struck with a feeling that there is precious little coherence or concreteness in the subject. This reaction is reinforced by the popular and not totally unreasonable attitude that the failures of international law far outweigh its successes and that the experiences of two major wars and a myriad of smaller ones have shown the bankruptcy of the notion for all time.

Another cause of this reaction may come from the expectation that international law should somehow mirror the logic of national/domestic legal systems. When one finds a lack of consensus or ultimate authority in the international context, it is tempting to dismiss the whole field as chimera.

Neither of these bases, however, should discourage or demean the study of international law. Although international law has often failed in preventing wars or acts of international terrorism, neither do domestic laws prevent murders or kidnapping. In addition, international law and its processes have been very effective over the years in the resolution of countless disputes among nations, regional entities, organizations, businesses, and individuals. True, most of these successes have been in areas not infected by virulent and conflicting national policies, but they are significant nonetheless and have added a measure of stability and predictability to a very complex and strife-torn world.

A comparison of international law to national/domestic law must be made in an even-handed and not overly inclusive manner. International law never has and perhaps never will achieve the cohesiveness of national systems because it is extremely difficult to achieve the same level of consensus and consent which characterizes domestic law in the international arena. However, it is true that domestic legal systems and law reflect the society in which they evolved, the same may be said about international law. When one considers the numbing array of conflicting values, interests, and experiences which shaped the perspectives of the many human actors on this globe, it is not surprising that there is so little agreement and so much suspicion in regard to the establishment of a world order with ultimate judicial and executive perogative.

That international law reflects the international system raises another fundamental point. Since the international arena is constantly in transition and flux, politically and economically, the same can be said of international law. The dynamic nature of law in this context has been demonstrated many times in world history. For example, with the break-up of the Roman Empire much of the practical application of jus gentium (a sort of private international law practiced throughout the Empire) came to an end even though it continued to have impact on the legal writers of the Middle Ages. When Europe's dominance decayed after the two world wars, the traditionally Western nature and presumptions of international law were challenged by members of the emerging Third World. This dynamism has by no means ended and if anything has accelerated.

Admittedly, these factors and forces made international law seem extremely amorphous. It becomes more so when one tries to arrive at a consensus definition of international law. While Western minds tend to agree (even here there are several schools of thought) on a definition, scholars in other countries would have serious disagreements. For example, the Chinese maintain that there are in reality two distinct systems of international law -- one which has reference to Socialist States in their inter-relationships and one which applies to interactions with Capitalist States.

The working definition we have chosen for the purposes of this Teacher Handbook is of Western origin:

> International law is a body of generally accepted principles and rules regulating or controlling the conduct of nation-states, individuals, and international organizations.[1]

The reasons this definition was selected are two-fold:

First, the definition contains the notion that international law is inextricably bound with international relations and politics. Only by exploring the connections between and the influences of politics on international law is it possible to come to any real understanding of the scope and limits of international law as it exists today.

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[1]Carlton Rodee, Totton Anderson, Carl Christol, Thomas Green, Introduction to Political Science, (McGraw-Hill, Third Edition).

Secondly, the definition is not restrictive as to the actors and prime movers in the realm of international law and includes international organizations and citizens. Given the number and diversity of international actors in the global age, it is important to recognize the impact and contributions of world bodies, regional entities, trans-national corporations, special interest groups as well as traditional nation-states.

This Handbook is an attempt to provide teachers with a tool that reflects current thinking about international relations. Each Perspective presents an important idea and offers a variety of existing curriculum materials that expand upon that idea. Perspective I presents the idea that we are now living in an age in which there are a myriad of links between people, places, organizations, products and ideas. Our interconnectedness creates the environment in which the international legal system must operate. Perspective II presents the idea that even though the world's people are interdependent, we are also diverse. Conflicting beliefs, customs and laws are also a part of the environmental context of international law. Perspective III introduces the many actors in the international system, not just the familiar officials representing nation-states, but also international organizations, non-governmental organizations, subnational groups and individuals, all of which have an impact on international law. Perspective IV presents the idea that throughout human history there have been attempts to order human affairs on an international or regional basis. International law reflects these varying political arrangements. Perspective V presents the idea that conflict is a constant in human history and managing international conflict is an important role for the international legal system.

THE PERSPECTIVES

I. GLOBAL LINKS: Focus on the meaning of citizenship in a global age, an exploration of the relationship between the individual and the international system. Included in this Perspective is a focus on economic, political, ethnic, and religious ties. Also included is an examination of some of the pressing global problems and the potential of international law as a force binding it together.

II. CULTURAL CONTRASTS: Focus on historical and contemporary cases of contrasting customs and laws. Included in this Perspective is a wide range of cultural viewpoints on the nature of international human rights.

III. ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS: An examination of the actors on the international stage, including nation-states, multi-national corporations, regional organizations, such as OAS, and non-governmental organizations. Relationships will be explored in terms of treaty making, negotiations and policy making.

IV. INTERNATIONAL ORDER: An historical view of various models of world order, law and government, and the problems inherent in such attempts in a world characterized by sovereign nation-states and varying cultural perspectives.

V. CONFLICT: A conceptual approach focusing on law and other strategies for conflict management in the international arena. Case studies will include failures and successes of such strategies as negotiation, arbitration, adjudication and minimizing the use of force.

USING THE MATERIALS

The purpose of these materials is two-fold. First, it contains a framework for teaching about international law in a global age. The main ideas are presented in Five Perspectives and these ideas become more detailed in each of the Lesson Plans included within a Perspective. Secondly, the handbook uses existing curriculum materials from a variety of social studies disciplines to demonstrate ways in which these ideas can be taught to high school students.

Thus, the handbook is not targeted for one particular grade level or one particular course. Teachers of United States History, World History, Cultural Geography, Economics, Contemporary Problems, and International Relations will all find useful ideas and activities in the handbook. The Federal grant which supported the development of these materials specified the use of existing curriculum materials, thus the reading levels will vary depending on the source from which the reading or activity was drawn. Very few student materials are available with a relatively easy reading level when the subject matter is international law or international relations. But there are many ways to communicate the major ideas presented in this handbook, and our selection of student materials is designed to provide examples of how this might be done, not to offer the single best way of teaching a particular course or a particular group of students.

Neither should this handbook or the accompanying student materials be considered an end in themselves. They are merely intended to provide a sound organizational framework for approaching issues of law and politics from a global perspective.

DESCRIPTION OF MATERIALS

This curriculum consists of two components:

1.) A teacher's handbook

2.) A class set of student materials (thirty-five copies) containing readings and activities.

Both are organized according to the Five Perspectives. In the teacher's handbook each perspective has:

1.) An Introduction

2.) An Overview section, which provides a content overview of and

suggestions for teaching the perspective

3.) Lesson Plans including a statement of purpose, teacher operations, and necessary teacher background materials which serve as a basis for lectures, discussions, and/or activities. In addition, references are made to relevant readings in the student book.

The Overview section is designed to give teachers a working knowledge of the content necessary for teaching a given Perspective. There, you will find definitions of necessary terms and concepts, descriptions of each of the Lesson Plans presented in sequence, and suggestions concerning the use of the various Lesson Plans in traditional social studies courses.

A typical Lesson Plan is divided into three sections:

1.) An Introduction which usually provides students with relevant concept-building activities

2.) A Development section which expands the focus through the use of case study and discussion

3.) An Application section in which students participate in individual writing assignments, group work, role-playing, or simulations.

The time frame for teaching a Lesson Plan varies depending on how many of the various activities the teacher wishes to employ.

The Student Book is also organized by Perspective and the readings are in order called for in the Lesson Plans. Each piece follows the relevant teaching operation and is clearly designated in the teacher's instructions. As such, before using a Lesson Plan or activity, it is important to review the teacher's instructions.

The materials presented in both the Student Book and the Teacher's Handbook are not intended to be exhaustive. In some cases they will have to be modified or added to according to student level and sophistication. Additional or supplementary material can be identified from course texts, newspapers, library resourses, and news magazines. The teacher may wish to keep a clipping file organized by Perspective as a ready resource when using the handbook. As with all educational materials, it is the imagination and resourcefulness of individual teachers that contributes most to student learning.

GUIDELINES FOR GLOBAL RESOURCE EXPERTS IN THE CLASSROOM

Resource experts should not be considered "an extra", but rather an intrinsic part of International Law in a Global Age. They provide living experiences for students and substantive information to complement course content. In the past, CRF staff and participating project teachers have found representatives from the community to be enthusiastic and their participation has enhanced the educational program.

UTILIZATION OF RESOURCE EXPERTS IN THE CLASSROOM

To make a resource presentation as meaningful and as valuable as possible, the process requires planning, follow-up and the skillful use of certain teaching techniques.

Planning:

1. To the extent possible, involve students in planning for a resource presentation.

2. Clearly identify the goals and objectives for the speaker. Only then can the guest presentation extend upon and complement the planned course of study.

3. Use resource speakers to arouse student interest. The presentation can serve as a springboard for collecting information during use of the Perspective, culminate the Perspective's activities, and participate in or debrief.

Making Arrangements:

1. Contact the resource person.

2. When speaking with the resource expert, be sure to include the following information:

    - Explain the project: Briefly indicate goals, objectives, and the extent of the guest's presentation and any additional information which would be helpful for the resource person to best meet the needs of the class (the unit of study in which the class is engaged, the work already done, planned follow-up activity, etc.).

    - Describe the students: Indicate the approximate number of students who will be present for the presentation. Include information such as the age and achievement level of the students.

- Request specific dates: When selecting dates, allot sufficient time (two or three weeks in advance). Suggest two or three alternative dates from which the resource person can choose. If a resource is not available, the class should search out other resource experts who can make the most worthwhile contribution to that particular curriculum unit.

  Since a guest speaker sets aside time from his or her work schedule, the speaker's program should not be postponed unless absolutely necessary. Before you contact the speaker, make sure the dates and times selected do not conflict with other school programs (check with the principal or other persons responsible for the activities calendar) and that the required facilities and equipment for the resource program will be available.

  It is suggested that teachers make carbon copies of their request to help them in future planning and sharing with other teachers.

- Additional information for resource experts: After agreeing upon a specific time and date, be sure the resource expert has the correct address, directions or transportation information, and is aware of the parking facilities available. The resource expert should also know the exact length of time for the presentation.

3. Confirm the visit. When arrangements have been finalized, the confirmation should be sent to the principal, the resource guest, and any other appropriate personnel.

PREPARING FOR A RESOURCE EXPERT'S VISIT

1. Prepare the class for the guest presentation by discussing the purpose of the visit and by giving the class some basic information aoout the speaker. Also, link the visit with what they have been studying. Post the name of the speaker on the board a day or two prior to the presentation.

2. Have the class prepare thoughtful questions to ask the resource expert.

3. Review with the students any methods (other than lecture or question and answer) that will be employed when the resource visits the classroom. The following are more specific suggestions for the use of the resource experts:

   Class Activities:

   - To introduce or debrief a simulation game.
   - To lead a socratic discussion.
   - To serve as moderator in a debate or panel discussion.
   - To share expertise on issues surrounding a case study.

4. Establish a system for maintaining records of classroom speakers, i.e., a speaker record with name, agency, date of presentation, telephone number, and type of session.

Arrival of Resource Expert and Presentation

1. Arrival: Resource guests should be instructed to go to the office when arriving in the building. Make arrangements for a student to greet the guest in the office and escort him/her to the place of the presentation. If the guest reports directly to your room, immediately inform the office that he/she has arrived.

2. Introduction: A proper introduction of the guest to the audience is extremely important. A brief statement concerning the guest's background and expertise helps to prepare the students for the experience and makes the guest aware of the importance placed on his/her visit. (The teacher may obtain this information from the guest in a short conversation before the start of the program.)

3. Time Limits: Frequently, the guest has another commitment to keep. It is best to end the program within the time scheduled unless the resource expert clearly indicates otherwise. Some speakers will say to the teacher, "How much time do we have?" Taken by surprise, and meaning to be polite, teachers often say, "It doesn't matter. Take all the time you need." Instead, the answer should be specific, reflecting the grade level, maturity and attention span of the class.

4. Teacher Responsibilities: The teacher should be in attendance during the entire presentation. The resource expert is not responsible for class management. It is equally important that the teacher not attend to other matters during the presentation unless there is an emergency.

   Most resource experts are not trained teachers. It is necessary, at times, for the teacher to give direction to the speaker by using appropriate questions or other clues so the speaker can more effectively communicate in the area the class desires.

5. Closing: Leave sufficient time for summary and to thank the guest.

FOLLOW-UP

1. Have the students report on the experience.

2. Thank you letters from students and/or teachers provide guest speakers with a particular satisfaction and offer an excellent language-arts experience for students.

3. Discussions of Activities:

   - Invite speakers on differing points of view.
   - Conduct research and/or develop learning packets based upon information gained from resource experts.
   - Field experience -- Visit the resource expert on-the-job.
   - Try to apply information received by one resource person in debriefing the presentation of another.

COMPILE A TEACHER RESOURCE DIRECTORY

In order to facilitate the use of resource experts in the classroom, it is recommended that you compile a resource directory. The following form can be duplicated and each resource person who visits your class can complete the form.

As the semester progresses, it is important that you update your files on the resources available to your program. It is strongly recommended that the teachers periodically meet to discuss the resource experts used in the classrooms, as well as to share any new guest speakers who are willing to participate in your Global Education Program.

RESOURCE EXPERT INFORMATION FORM

Name of Organization _____

Address _____

Liaison or Contact Person _____

Position _____ Telphone Number _____

Convenient Times to Call _____

RESOURCE ORGANIZATION CAN PROVIDE:

_____ Speakers (please list subjects): _____

_____

Demonstrations (please check):

_____ Customs Procedure
_____ Immigration Procedure
_____ Environmental Impact Charts & Graphs
_____ Policy Discussion
_____ Mock Hearing
_____ Case Studies
_____ Other (please list) _____

_____ Brochures and/or handouts available (please list) _____

_____

_____ Displays (please list) _____

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS FORM AND RETURN TO:

The following is a partial list of community resources which can be used in the program:

World Affairs Councils
Red Cross
Foreign Consulates
World Council of Churches
Labor Organizations
International Translation Services
Bureau of International Commerce
Peace Corps
U.S. Military & Soldiers
Banking & Financial Institutions
Port & Harbor Authorities
International Science & Research
Multinational Corporations
Stock Exchanges
Transnational Corporations
Environmental Organizations
Rotary International
Universities & Colleges
International Chamber of Commerce
Federal Courts
Museums & Libraries
Law Firms
Amnesty International
Immigration Authorities
Foreign Food Restaurants
Immigrants & Refugees
UNICEF
Importers
Foreign Student Bureaus
Travel Bureaus & Agents
Catholic Archdiocese
The Jewish Federation
Foreign Relief Organizations
Protestant Church Organizations (e.g., Presbytery)

Additional organizations are listed in Perspective I, Lesson Plan #1, pp. 9-10.

PERSPECTIVE I: GLOBAL LINKS

INTRODUCTION

One of the painful reminders of our global interdependence arises when there are product shortages such as gasoline or coffee. As American consumers, we have a dazzling array of products to choose from, created by a world-wide labor force and financed by institutions with extensive global networks. We take many global services for granted - the mail, the airlines, international telephone calls and television. But in addition to these links of goods and services, there are also human links that connect the peoples of the world. Most of us can trace the origins of our family members to other times and places. Legal and illegal immigration to the United States are frequently subjects of concern for government, schools, ethnic groups, labor organizations and communities.

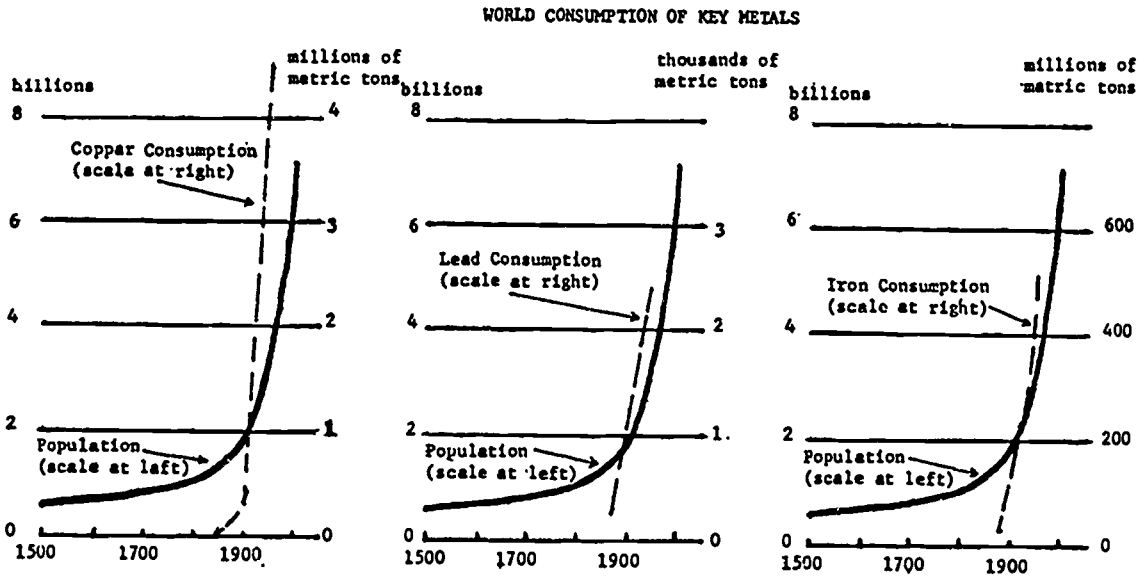
This perspective offers students a glimpse of the interdependence that characterized the modern world, its benefits, conflicts and problems. They will examine the impact of global trade on the life of a Japanese businessman, particularly the links with American industry. They will study modernization problems of the Saudis who now have a work force that is composed of sixty percent foreign labor. Students will examine the historic migrations of people to America and investigate both the human and economic links between their own community and the world.

One of the important global links is international law, the treaties, contracts, customs and U. N. resolutions that bring order to international affairs. This Perspective introduces students to international law and, in particular, to the U. N. Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Are there universal human rights? What can be done to protect such rights? What happens when a sovereign nation-state violates human rights? It is hoped that in raising these questions, students will begin to understand both the limitations and the potential of international law as a link in the international system.

PERSPECTIVE I: GLOBAL LINKS

OVERVIEW

Statisticians and record keepers are busy gathering abundant evidence of the many links that tie one part of the planet to another. Lee Anderson has called our era the century of the J curve, characterized by exponential growth. The rate of growth and change is geometrical, it doubles slowly in the beginning and later at a rapid rate so that when graphically portrayed, it resembles the letter J.



If we look at transportation, communication, energy consumption, life expectancy and many other measures, we find J curves indicating that we are now in a period of rapid change. If we study international contacts over time, we also find J curves indicating increased global connections. This is a new era in human history, a global age. Buckminster Fuller has called our planet "Spaceship Earth" to communicate the idea of the shared fate of the world's peoples, replacing the old picture of separate, autonomous nation-states deciding their own destinies. Nuclear weapons, pollution, poverty and terrorism are forces that transcend national boundaries.

W.A. Nesbitt, "Data on the Human Crisis: Teachers' Guide", (New York: The University of the State of New York, 1972), p. 25.

"Interdependence" has become a catchword to describe this condition. Some use the term to describe a global condition that will lead to the formation of a world state. Others see interdependence as "good", as a goal toward which we should be striving. In this Perspective, we have used interdependence to mean interconnectedness; we do not predict the outcome of our increasing interdependence, nor do we present it in only a positive light. The term interdependence can be used to mask what is really dependence; links between nations may not be symmetrical. There may be a very unequal basis for the exchange of goods and services, as in the case of many Fourth World countries who export raw material, import the more expensive manufactured products, and thus are very dependent on their trading partners. One of the global conflicts raised in this Perspective is the North-South division in which the "less developed" countries of the world - Africa, Asia, South America - want a greater share of resources from the "more developed" nations of the North- Europe, the United States, Japan.

This Perspective offers students a view of the interconnectedness of life at present, not only in terms of economics, but also global links of people, ideas and institutions. In order for students to understand the role of international law in our modern world, they must first understand the kind of world in which the international legal system operates. International law represents both ideas and institutions that have been created over time to bring order to international affairs. The international legal system must operate in a world in which nations differ greatly in wealth and power, in values and in history. But in spite of vast differences, there are shared values and shared problems that serve as a basis for the further development of the international legal system.

PERSPECTIVE I

Teaching the Perspective

1 Using the lessons in sequence: This approach utilizes all four lessons, introducing the students first to the economic links, then human links that tie one part of the planet to another. Following this picture of our interconnectedness, students identify several shared global problems, examining the problem of global poverty in particular. The final lesson introduces students to the concept of international law and uses the preceding lessons as a basis for understanding the context in which international law must operate.

2. Infusion method: This approach offers teachers an opportunity to choose lessons and activities within the lessons based on their curriculum and class. One teacher may select only Lesson Plan #4 out of Perspective I as part of a Contemporary Problems course focusing on the issue of human rights. An American History teacher might select activities and readings from Lesson Plan #2 on the history of U.S. Immigration Law, using the other parts of Perspective I as they fit in with subjects covered by course material.

Lesson Plan Description and Infusion Key

Lesson Plan #1: Global Connections: Goods and Services
Through newspaper analysis, community research and case studies of economic conditions in industrialized and underdeveloped countries, students are presented with a picture of the modern world characterized by many links of goods and services.
(International Relations, World Cultures, Economics, Cultural Geography), pp. 5-13

Lesson Plan #2: Human Links: The Migration of People
This lesson begins with the problems facing Saudi Arabia as many nationalities have migrated to that country to fill jobs created by the Saudi's efforts to modernize. The major focus of the lesson is on the groups of people - both historically and currently - who have migrated to the United States.
(U.S. History, World History, Contemporary Problems), pp. 14-18

Lesson Plan #3 Shared Global Problems
In this lesson, students examine problems that cross national boundaries, learning that interdependence brings both opportunities and conflicts. The problem of global poverty is highlighted, with an exercise in which students, explore the daily lives of people living in underdeveloped countries.
(Government, Economics, Contemporary Problems), pp. 19-25

Lesson Plan #4: International Law: A Global Connection
Students examine various types of international law and study one law in particular, the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights. Activities of various non-governmental organizations are studied as they work on behalf of protection of human rights all over the world. (Government, International Relations, Contemporary Problems), pp. 26-29

PERSPECTIVE I

LESSON PLAN # 1

TEACHER BACKGROUND

DIMENSIONS OF A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

1. Perspective Consciousness

   The recognition or awareness on the part of the individual that he or she has a view of the world that is not universally shared, that this view of the world has been and continues to be shaped by influences that often escape conscious detection, and that others have views of the world that are profoundly different from one's own.

2. "State of the Planet" Awareness

   Awareness of prevailing world conditions and developments, including emergent conditions and trends, e.g. population growth, migrations, economic conditions, resources and physical environment, political developments, science and technology, law, health, inter-nation and intra-nation conflicts, etc.

3. Cross-cultural Awareness

   Awareness of the diversity of ideas and practice to be found in human societies around the world, of how such ideas and practices compare, and including some limited recognition of how the ideas and ways of one's own society might be viewed from other vantage points.

4. Knowledge of Global Dynamics

   Some modest comprehension of key traits and mechanisms of the world system, with emphasis on theories and concepts that may increase intelligent consciousness of global change.

5. Awareness of Human Choices

   Some awareness of the problems of choice confronting individuals, nations, and the human species as consciousness and knowledge of the global system expands.

R. G. Hanvey, An Attainable Global Perspective, (Denver: Center For Teaching International Relations), pp. 4, 6, 8, 13, and 22.

PERSPECTIVE I

LESSON PLAN #1

TEACHER BACKGROUND INFORMATION

From a geographical perspective the political life of humankind has been globalized as a result of the disappearance of a plurality of separate and unrelated international systems and the historical emergence of one single world wide international system. Diagrammatically, this change might be represented in the following way.

The International Structure of the World in the 1400's

The International Structure of the World in the Late 1700's

F. L. Anderson, Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age, (Bloomington, Indiana: Social Studies Development Center, 1979), pp. 240-241.

PERPSECTIVE I

LESSON PLAN #1

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The State-Centric View of the World

The state-centric view looks at the world primarily in terms of sovereign nation-states pursuing their national interests through the conduct of foreign policy. The state-centric image of the world is the image of statesmen and diplomats, as well as many university scholars. In a sense, this framework for looking at the world is also an identifiable "culture" in which national policymakers have tended to operate. Foreign policy, so defined, is to protect against the dangerous and hostile forces at loose in a world where there are no international police and no courts with binding authority. To remain secure in such a world, nations must be prepared and willing to use force when necessary.

The Global System View of the World

One method of viewing the complexity of international affairs not encompassed in the state-centric framework is to see global politics as a vast system of social interaction analogous to any "primitive" social system without well-developed institutions, a central government or laws. Many who write about the international system use the phrase "spaceship earth" to depict this image of an increasingly interrelated complex world.

The "spaceship earth" view of the world is an essentially ecological image of international affairs. Ecology's "way of seeing" has shown us how the chain of life is interrelated and interdependent: neither the ocean, the air, the land nor the animal life which inhabit all of them can be "independent."[8] An ecological metaphor unites the seemingly distinct domains of biological activity—the ocean, the air, the soil and the life which inhabit them—into interrelated concepts. The global system metaphor highlights transnational behavior or that behavior which is beyond or breaks out of the definition and boundaries of "security policy" or "foreign policy."

What types of behavior and what kinds of international actors does this image refer to? Some of the chief actors are multinational corporations which have changed the character of international economic life so that it has become separated from national control. Today great corporations nominally based in Delaware, London or Zurich may have operations in one hundred countries. No one national headquarters will contain more than a fraction of their activities. Only a few such corporations, by shifting their reserves out of one currency and into another, can cause the value of national currencies to plummet or ascend. All of a nation's fiscal policies, balanced budgets, and tax policies can be invalidated by the power of major corporations which exist largely beyond the nation's control. By making "nonpolitical" investment decisions, international corporations can importantly affect national governments. The case of Chile in September 1973 provides a dramatic example. The world international banks and financial institutions took an increasingly dim view of Chilean President Allende's socialist-oriented domestic economic policy. Hence, they refused to extend credit to Chile. The result fueled ferocious inflation which contributed to the socialist regime's brutal removal by the Chilean military. Thus, multinational firms, which do not owe allegiance to any particular nation, can exert enormous pressure by their attitude toward Third World countries.

Similarly, the intellectual, cultural and scientific basis of national power is fast slipping from national control as technology, communication and multinational corporate resources expand. Where once a nation's greatness came from its ability to pour money into research, now research is international and capital is international. The dollar market in Europe has been more liquid than the market in New York for years; and computer and electronic technology is no longer found predominantly in America, but is diffused through the industrialized world. Not many years ago, the economic elements of greatness were concentrated and localized by the boundaries of the nation-states. Common stereotypes developed with some factual basis. Germans were hard-working and frugal. The British were great traders. Americans were inventive. Years ago, there was American physics or Italian design. But the compression of technological interactions has stripped these national labels of much of their significance. It is much more useful to speak of modern physics or contemporary design without national labels.

The global system view of the world, then, sees a number of factors leading to a growing interdependence or unity in the modern world. These are:

1. An expanding volume of worldwide trade and a dominance of the multinational corporation.

2. An expanding network of cross-national organizations and associations—fraternal, scientific and educational—that have developed a worldwide system of human interaction.

3. The inability to insulate domestic politics from foreign politics either within countries or between countries. Thus, the domestic politics of Arab nations or the Soviet Union can very much affect American relations with Russians.

4. The internationalization of social problems. The problems of survival, ecology, disease, scarce resources and the like are not manageable by nations. International cooperation is also necessary to combat the universal problems of urbanization, population control and crime.

5. An expanding homogeneity in humankind's culture and social institutions. Mass society, its artifacts, management and appeal now seem global in scope. International norms of individual conduct and State conduct are also becoming more uniform.

6. The appearance of alliances and economic unions which have formed the infrastructure for unifying wider portions of the globe. The European Economic Community now negotiates with the OPEC or Arab States as if each were sovereign. Moreover, the Common Market has been seen by many as the prototype for a politically united Europe. Many see the same pattern for the Soviet bloc and Latin America. The world's regional and transregional groupings are diminishing the role of individual nation-states in many of its historic functions.

Yet surely, one may say, security policy—wars and those who threaten them—dominates our attention and the attention of the media. If we concentrate on the global system do we not miss the critical questions of national life and death? Those who maintain that a global system perspective is useful would not deny the urgent questions of foreign policy—the politics of war and peace. But the ecological or systems view of the globe helps to move our attention to some of the interactions which are no longer contained or controlled by national policy. Of course, this view has limits. It is best used to illustrate economic, social and political "transnational behavior." Thus, the global system view helps us to visualize such forms of international interaction as the growth of regional organizations (the European Economic Community, NATO, the Warsaw Pact), the behavior of multinational corporations (ITT or Shell Oil), the relationships among international nongovernmental organizations (international labor unions and professional organizations), the globalization of questions of poverty (the Third World vs. the Industrialized World) and justice (what forms should an international law of the sea take?). The global system view does not help us understand the kind of politics Henry Kissinger engaged in when he suddenly went to Peking or when the Israelis moved against the Arabs in 1967. Or the kind of international politics President Nixon was referring to when he stated:

> We must remember that the only time in the history of the world that we have had any extended periods of peace is when there has been a balance of power. It is when one nation becomes infinitely more powerful in relation to its potential competitor that the danger of war arises. So I believe in a world in which the United States is powerful. I think it would be a safer world and a better world if we have a strong, healthy United States, Europe, Soviet Union, China and Japan, each balancing the other, an even balance.[9]

The politics of power, balance and strategy are much better illuminated by the classic state-centric world-view. But the cause and effects of urban disturbances from Lisbon to Tokyo and back through Columbia University; or the transfer of technology from America to Japan to Mexico are not highlighted by this vision of colliding nations which have no permanent friends or enemies, just interest. And the vision of an increasingly complex societal organization much like a national society, except on a global scale, does help capture some of the rapidly changing complexities of the last third of this century.

R. G. Remy, J. A. Nathan, J. M. Becker, and J. V. Torney, International Learning and International Education in a Global Age, Bulletin #47 National Council for the Social Studies, (Washington, D. C. : National Council for the Social Studies, 1975), pp. 46, 50-53.

PERSPECTIVE I: GLOBAL LINKS

LESSON PLAN #1

TITLE: Global Connections: Goods and Services

PURPOSE

In this lesson, students will gain an awareness of the economic interdependence that exists in our world. The lesson begins with a lecture on the global system and a concept building activity in which students analyze local newspapers for global content. The second segment of the lesson introduces students to a case of interdependence showing the economic impact of foreign trade on the life of a Japanese person. The lesson concludes with a research project identifying global links in the students' own community.

MATERIALS

1.) "Worksheet: Global Links in Local Newspapers".
2.) "The World in a Japanese Home". Source: A. Backler and S. Lazarus, World Geography, (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1980), pp. 354-356.
3.) "Your City and the World". Source: A. Backler and S. Lazarus, World Geography, (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1980), p. 336.
4.) "International Roles". Source: C. Alger and D. Hoovler, You and Your Community in the World, (Columbus, Ohio: Consortium for International Studies Education, 1978), pp. 60-61.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Lecture (pp. 5-8)
   Using the material provided in the Background Information section, present a lecture which:
   a. Helps students understand the meaning of a "global system" and familiarizes them with historical evidence indicating the emergence of the global system.

   b. Introduces students to various ways of looking at the world from the perspective of the nation-states.

2. Small Group Work: "Global Links in Local Newspapers", p. 8.
   A few days before this activity, ask students to bring local newspapers to class.

   Divide the class into small groups and have each group cut or tear out anything in the paper that is "global" in content. This would include articles, ads and photos about other parts of the world, other nations and events that create links or cause conflict between different parts of the world.

   You may wish to give each small group a different newspaper and compare the global coverage of one paper with that of another. A large city newspaper may need to be divided into sections so that each group can accomplish its task in a reasonable amount of time.

   Each group should complete the worksheet (or put the worksheet questions on the chalkboard). Review the answers to the worksheet items by asking for contributions from each small group.

DEVELOPMENT

1. Reading and Discussion: "The World in a Japanese Home"
   Ask the students to read the selections silently, or take turns having students read them aloud. Focus the discussion on the type of economic links between Japan and the rest of the world. *(See pp. 8-9)*

   Discussion Questions:

   - How do you think Mr. Suzuki's life would be changed if Japan stopped trading with other countries?

   - Do you use Japanese manufactured products? Give some examples.
     (Students might name Yamaha, Toyota, Datsun, and other companies who manufacture bikes, cars, watches, musical instruments, food products, etc...)

OPTIONAL RESEARCH:

- Ask several students to find out what percentage of American imports are from Japan. Other students might try to find out what percentage of American imports are manufactured goods versus food and raw materials. Students should report their findings to the class.

APPLICATION

1. Individual or Team Activity: "Your City and the World", p. 9

Step #1: *On the date before this activity, divide the class into pairs and have each pair bring a copy of the yellow pages to class.*

Step #2: *Now give students time to break into their assigned pairs to examine the yellow pages.* Each group of two students should have one copy of the yellow pages for their community.

Step #3: One example of global linkages: local restaurants. *First, ask students how they think local restaurants can indicate links with other countries.* (e.g. Types of foods, foreign names, immigrant ownership, names, etc.) Can they think of other clues?

Step #4: *Ask students to turn to the section labeled "Restaurants" in their telephone directories.* Students should skim the section to discover clues about global linkages. Using these clues, students should make a complete list of the places in the world that their city is linked to through its restaurants. Some of the places might be cities (such as: Rome's Excellent, Expensive Italian Cuisine), or other geographical locations.

Step #5: *Find out which pair identifies the most "restaurant links".*

2. Community Research: "Your City and the World", p. 9
"International Roles", pp. 9-10

a. *This is a long term, out-of-class assignment (we recommend a week).* Students will work in pairs, exploring the evidence of interdependence around their local community. *Have students read "Your City and the World."* Students will keep a record of all community links. If they wish to do a photo essay, have students take slides to graphically illustrate the links they have recorded in their charts. One class day should then be set aside for each pair of students to make five-minute slide presentations to the class.

b. Students may prefer to interview one of the individuals in their community listed in "International Roles". (See Guidelines for Global Resource Experts in the Classroom, pp. xi-xv.)

PERSPECTIVE I: GLOBAL LINKS

Lesson Plan #2

TITLE: Human Links: The Migration of People

PURPOSE

In this lesson, students will come to understand that the movement of people from one area of the globe to another forms one of the links between peoples and nations. The first portion of the lesson introduces students to the current situation in Saudi Arabia in which 60% of the work force is foreign labor. The remainder of the lesson focuses on the American immigration experience, beginning with the 1890's, and tracing immigration throughout American history to the present situation of the illegal immigration from Mexico. The lesson concludes with a role play on the laws governing illegal aliens coming to the U.S.

MATERIALS

1.) "Frightened Saudis Look for Ways to Cut Foreign Labor". Source: Los Angeles Times, December 28, 1980, Part 5, p.3.

2.) Immigration Materials (*):

a.) "Major U.S. Immigration Laws"
b.) "The Illegals"
c.) "The President's Commission"
d.) "What Should Be Done?"

*Source: T.Clark and M. Croddy, Bill of Rights in Action, (Los Angeles: Constitutional Rights Foundation, March, 1981).

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Reading (or Lecture) and Discussion: "Frightened Saudis Look for Way to Cut Foreign Labor", pp. 11-12.

The newspaper article has a high reading level and may be too difficult for some students, although they will most likely find the subject matter new and interesting. If you decide that it is too difficult, you may give the same information to the students in a lecture. The purpose of introducing students to this article is to expand their perspectives of the multi-ethnic nature of another country. The Saudis today and historically have many people as migrant workers, as well as managers and skilled craftsmen -- more than 60% of the work force. Students can see what a non-Western country has done with such a situation before studying immigration to the U.S.

Discussion Questions:

- How many nations were mentioned in the article as contributing foreign workers to Saudi Arabia?
- MAP WORK: Who can locate these nations on the map? Where is Saudi Arabia?
- Why would the Saudis want to cut back on the number of foreign workers?
- Where do the foreign workers live? How long to they stay?
- Do you agree with the Saudis change in policy from one in which foreign "know-how" was brought in to help the country modernize to a policy in which those jobs and the required training will go to Saudis?

DEVELOPMENT

Discussion and Reading: "Major U. S. Immigration Laws" (p. 12-13)
Lead a discussion in which you try to assess the existing state of knowledge of U. S. immigration history among the students. For example, you might ask if students are aware of any restrictions on who can come to the U. S. from other countries. Explain to the students that they will be spending the next few days looking at U. S. immigration at different times in our history. *Ask the students if any of them or any of their relatives came from another country. Make a list of all of the countries on the chalkboard, indicating the human links between your class and the rest of the world.*

Have students read: "Major U. S. Immigration Laws". After students have had an opportunity to complete the reading, ask them what changes they can see in the law over time. Are there any laws they consider unfair? Why? Are there any American laws that surprised them? How does the current American immigration law (1965) differ from the Saudis' system?

Reading and Discussion

Have students read "The Illegals" on pages 14-15. Then ask:

- What is the difference between a refugee and an illegal immigrant?
- How do illegal immigrants reach the United States from Mexico?
- What effect do the illegal immigrants have on the U. S. economy?

APPLICATION

Role-Play: "The President's Commission"
In this role play, students will attempt to develop a solution to the illegal alien problem.

Step 1: Have students read: "What Should Be Done?", page 16 *, and the "Simulation: The President's Commission",* page 16. *Review with the students some of the solutions that have been proposed. Then divide the class into five groups:*

1.) The Presidential Commission
2.) Employers of Illegal Aliens
3.) Labor Unions
4.) Border Patrol
5.) Illegal Aliens

Then assign one student the role of the President's advisor.

Step 2: Assign each group their tasks:

a.) Review the proposals and role description
b.) Prepare a proposal of your solution
c.) Choose a spokesperson to present your proposal to the Presidential Commission

The Presidential Commission group should use the proposal preparation time to discuss the illegal alien problem and develop questions that they want to ask the different groups.

Step 3: *Commission will hear the proposals.* The President's Advisor acts as chairperson for the hearing. After each person has presented the group's proposal, the Commissioners may ask any questions that they have.

Step 4: *President's Advisor conducts a vote by the Commissioners to recommend a proposal for action to the President.*

Step 5: *Commission's decision is announced. You should then conduct a class discussion on the merits and the disadvantages of the proposal selected as well as others that were presented.*

PERSPECTIVE I

LESSON PLAN # 3

TEACHER BACKGROUND INFORMATION

THE THIRD WORLD: READY TO BLOW UP?

by R. A. Manning
Los Angeles Times
Tuesday, September 09, 1980,
Part II, p. 5.

UNITED NATIONS - For the past two weeks, well-heeled diplomats in pin-striped suits have been parading across the U.N. General Assemply floor making an endless stream of speeches on the causes of and cures for the global economic crisis. Still, the rich industralized nations of the world and the poor under-developed nations do not appear any closer to resolving the issues that divide them.

If present trends are not reversed, many analysts fear, there may be political upheavals throughout the Third World that could make Iran look tame. But if the U.N. special session, that ends today, is any indication, no major reforms in the global economic system can be expected until after the Third World is noticeably aflame.

As the gap between the "haves" and the "have-nots" has grown, the bloc of under-developed Third World countries known as the "Group of 77" (actually 119 nations) has clamored louder for a "new international economic order" to change the rules of the game and narrow the gap. The goal of the special session was to formulate a development strategy for the 1980's and to create a framework for next January's new global round of negotiations on energy, trade, finance and the monetary system.

Secretary of State Edmund S. Muskie's speech here made it clear that the United States and most of its industrialized allies, faced with deepening recession, are hardly in the mood to go along with "a massive redistribution of global wealth" envisioned by the Third World.

Recession in the West, combined with oil price increases, has meant devastation for the economies of poorer nations. The Third World's debt to the West is now estimated at $350 billion; oil price increases alone will cost the Third World an additional $60 billion this year; food production has dwindled in much of the world, and Third World exports face increasingly stiff trade barriers. A recent World Bank report observes that 800 million people now live in "absolute poverty". The list of grim statistics is a long one, but the point is clear: Urgent action is needed to prevent a calamity.

As Muskie's speech emphasized, the United States places the blame for the present malaise on the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries. Washington wants them and the socialist nations to do more for the Third World. The socialist nations remain on the sidelines, blaming the crisis on the "imperialists and neocolonialist nations," while cheering on the Third World.

Clearly, the West is, with the exception of the Scandinavian nations, talking a different language than the militant Group of 77. The United States, has made a few concessions--for example, a new energy fund to develop alternative energy for the Third World, food stockpiles to prevent famine, and vague pledges against the rising tide of protectionism.

But the few concessions offered by the West have not been cause for much optimism. Hardly had Muskie finished his promise to fight protectionism when the Carter Administration announced increased tariffs on exports from India. This was viewed as an act of political intimidation because India leads the Group of 77.

U.S. strategy to divide the poorest nations from OPEC seems to have backfired. The failure of industrialized nations to make any substantial economic reforms is forging more solidarity among the disparate Third World nations of Asia, Africa and Latin America.

While the Third World does not blame OPEC for its economic woes, it does agree that OPEC should do more for the oil-importing nations. After heated behind-the-scenes pressure, OPEC has begun to respond. Oil importers such as India and Jamaica admire OPEC's ability to get more from the West for its raw material, but are critical of OPEC for funneling its surplus petrodollars into Western banks instead of directly into the Third World, which sorely needs such investment.

In response, OPEC has begun to act. There is increasing talk of special concessions to underdeveloped oil-importers to funnel back a portion, up to 30%, of oil-price rises in the form of soft term loans. And OPEC is expected to expand its $4.5 billion special fund into a $20 billion development bank at its November summit.

The efforts by the developed nations to keep economic dialogue within Western-dominated agencies such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund have been a prime source of bitterness in their world capitals. The World Bank's announcement of a new $25 billion energy affiliate on the eve of the confernece here was seen partly as a political move, and was resented.

The upshot is that the poor nations' demands--mechanisms to raise and stabilize the price of raw materials, doubling Western aid, easing conditions of IMF loans, lowering trade barriers, easier access to technology--remain a distant dream.

Less resistance was felt from the industrialized nations on the development strategy because, as one Western diplomat put it, "It doesn't really mean anything." The strategy is a list of goals such as a 7% economic growth rate for the Third World, 0.7% of industrialized nations' gross national product as aid to improverished nations, increased industrialization, and so on.

In practical terms, the World Bank and the IMF will be expanded to bail out the poorest nations. As for aid, the United States ranks a dismal 13th out of the 17 developed nations, giving out only 0.19% of its gross national product. One U.S. official here said, "We just can't get any more aid through Congress."

Some U.S. officials note that one-third of U.S. exports go to the Third World, that we depend on poorer nations for increasingly larger shares of strategic raw materials, and that U.S. firms have invested more than $40 billion in the Third World.

Thus, there is an argument for a "Marshall Plan" for the Third World to stimulate the global economy. After two weeks of nonproductive rhetoric here, such an enlightened gamble, called for by the prestigious "Brandt Commission," a World Bank-inspired study led by former West German Chancellor Willy Brandt, now appears almost utopian.

PERSPECTIVE I

Lesson Plan #3

TITLE: SHARED GLOBAL PROBLEMS

PURPOSE

In this lesson, students will focus on one global problem -- the economic imbalance between the industrialized countries and the Third and Fourth World. The lesson begins with an examination of several global problems and asks students to identify their priorities for each of the issues. The remainder of the lesson addresses one of the problems -- the growing insistence of the Third World countries for greater influence on global economics. Students understand that in addition to links between peoples, there are also drastic differences in living conditions. The application exercise poses the problem of living conditions in under developed countries and their impact on the rest of the globe.

MATERIALS

1.) "Global Deadlines"

2.) "Survey Questionnaire on Global Development", Interdependence Curriculum Aid, (Philadelphia: The World Affairs Council of Philadelphia, 1976) p. 37

3.) "Living on Less Than $200", The Great Ascent: The Struggle for Economic Development, (New York: Harper & Row, Inc., 1973) pp. 33-37.

4.) "Comparing Nations", Global Issues, (Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1979) Handout #4B.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1.) Survey and Discussion: "Global Deadlines" page 17. *Distribute copies of "Global Deadlines". Have each student rank the seven global problems from one to seven in terms of which has the most immediate deadline.* Rank the most urgent problem #1. The least urgent #7. To give a sense of the priorities of the class, have all of those who ranked the same problem as most urgent stand in a certain part of the classroom. *Discuss the reasons why students felt some problems were not as pressing as others.*

2.) Survey: "Survey Questionnaire on World Poverty" page 18. Explain to the class that you will be looking at one particular global problem for the next few days - the problem facing the developing countries as they attempt to industrialize and modernize, and the role of the industrialized nations in providing assistance. *On a separate piece of paper have students complete "Survey Questionnaire" on page 18 , but do not have them sign their names. Assign two students the task of compiling the results for the class and reporting back to the class the following day.*

3. Survey Results and Discussion:
After the results of the World Poverty survey have been reported, focus the discussion on the concept of poverty and the meaning of that term to the students. Do the students feel they can do anything about global poverty?

DEVELOPMENT

1. Reading: "Living on Less than $200 a Year" page 19.
Have students read this selection. This reading is Heilbroner's attempt to translate the living conditions of some of the world's poorest people into terms that will have meaning for Americans.

2. Small Group Discussion: "Comparing Nations" page 20.
Refer to: "Comparing Nations". Divide the class into small groups and ask each group to examine the chart in the handout and answer any questions. After each group has had an opportunity to complete their discussion ask the groups to report their answers. Try to clarify the definition of "modernization" that the students are using. The identities of the five nations are:

1.) The United States
2.) Costa Rica
3.) Sweden
4.) Kenya
5.) India

Concept Building:

Explain to the students that countries are ranked based on the degree of modernization indicated by such things as per capita income, number of physicians, automobiles and other indicators. One of the terms used today is "North-South" to describe the developed and developing countries. The NORTH is generally used to designate the more industrialized richer countries of North America, Western Europe, and such Asian countries as Japan, Australia and New Zealand. SOUTH is a term that includes a wide variety of countries ranging from the oil rich nations of OPEC to the Fourth World, the poorest countries of South Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean.

PERSPECTIVE I: GLOBAL LINKS

Lesson Plan #4

TITLE: International Law: A Global Connection

PURPOSE

In this lesson, students will be introduced to the concept of international law and will understand how law can function in the management of world affairs. The lesson begins with an explanation of the term, international law, and raises questions about the role of an international system of law. In the next segment, students examine one example of international law, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the U.N. General Assembly in 1948. The concluding lesson provides students with several examples of international groups who take action on behalf of human rights all over the globe.

MATERIALS

1.) "Did Law Keep the Skipper From Shooting?", D. W. Oliver and F. M. Newmann, Diplomacy and International Law, in series Public Issues Series/ Harvard Social Studies Project, (Middletown, Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1970), pp. 4-5.

2.) "What Are Human Rights?", T. Clark and M. Croddy, Bill of Rights in Action, (Los Angeles: Constitutional Rights Foundation, February 1980), pp. 4-5.

3.) "What Can Be Done To Protect Human Rights?", J. R. Fraenkel, M. Carter, and B. Reardon, The Struggle For Human Rights, in series Perspectives in World Order, (New York: Random House, Inc., 1975), pp. 37-46. Printed with permission of: Institute of World Order, Inc. - New York

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Reading and Discussion: "Did Law Keep the Skipper from Shooting?" (see page 21) *After students have had an opportunity to read the article, review the information with them by asking the following discussion questions:*

- What are the major sources of international law? (Treaties, custom, decisions of the international Court of Justice, and United Nations Pronouncements)

- What is the purpose of international law? (To put all nations on an equal basis in the settling of disputes; disputes would be settled impartially according to agreed-upon, established rules.)

- What is the difference between law applied within nations and law applied between nations? (Within a nation state, law reflects a common history and perhaps shared values. National governments use force when necessary to enforce the law; violators are punished. International law is not supported by police power, and may not reflect shared values.)

- To what extent should basic human rights be protected by international law and legal institutions?

- Should international courts be strengthened to deal with disputes between nations?

- What can the individual do about international problems in a world where nations seem to be such important instruments of change?
  (The individual, through membership in special interest groups and by voting for public officials, can influence world affairs.)

DEVELOPMENT

Document Analysis: "What are Human Rights?", pp. 21-22. Explain to the students that they will be examining a summary of international law found in the U.N. Universal Declaration of Human Rights. *Divide the students into small groups or have them work individually to complete the activity listed next to the 28 rights.* You should note that there are several choices of activities. You may wish students to complete all of them or select several:

- Students categorize the rights into four groups: political and civil rights, economic rights, social rights, fundamental rights.

- Students rank the rights in order of importance.

- Students write a paragraph explaining why one of the rights they consider most important was ranked #1.

APPLICATION

1. Reading and Discussion: "What Can be Done to Protect Human Rights?", pp. 23-25.

Have students read above. The reading describes actions taken by individuals and groups to fight for human rights. The first case describes Rosa Parks' arrest for resisting American Jim Crow laws. The second case describes the actions of the National Council of Churches in regard to human rights violations, and the last case describes the methods used by Amnesty International. *Lead a discussion based on the questions included after each case in the reading.*

2. Individual Work: Community Research

You may wish to have students investigate what groups in their community are actively working to protect international human rights. Religious groups, ethnic organizations, business groups, and special interest groups are possible international actors working in the students' own community.

PERSPECTIVE II: CULTURAL CONTRASTS

INTRODUCTION

One of the characteristics of Human history is the diversity in the ways of life that have been developed by different societies. We read the accounts of other cultures written by historians, anthropologists, and other social scientists with curiosity and any number of emotions - horror, delight, envy, and disgust. It is sometimes difficult for us to understand diversity when another's ways threaten or reject values that we hold dear.

One of the consequences of studying other cultures, is that students often compare "us and them", leading to a view of others as quaint, strange, or barbaric. As educators, we can take students beyond such a superficial reaction and show the common functions that all Human societies must perform - production of food, distribution of goods and services, raising children, providing shelter, regulating interactions between people through some kind of government or legal system. Societies have developed many different ways of carrying out these important functions, and students will find that they disapprove of some of those ways.

This Perspective provides activities in which students can practice working with Human differences. Different viewpoints play a vital role in international affairs, in debates at international conferences, in policy decisions by private and government organizations. The international system has found peaceful ways to manage conflict over differences through mediation, negotiation, and arbitration by regional and international bodies. These ways of conflict management will be studied in depth in Perspective Five. The main objective of this Perspective is to make students aware that there are real differences among the world's people, and that these differences make international understanding and cooperation a challenging and sometimes difficult proposition.

PERSPECTIVE II: CULTURAL CONTRASTS

OVERVIEW

All human societies have developed ways of ordering life among their peoples. Custom and law are two important mechanisms of social organization. The types of customs and laws that evolve in a society are influenced by a people's history, geographical setting, and survival needs. Historians have sometimes faced the task of working from the fragmented remains of a society - such as a list of rules - and inferring what the culture and values might have been like. In this Perspective, students will have an opportunity to make inferences about the Babylonian and Hebrew societies based on their legal codes. It is hoped that they will learn that law is closely connected with the beliefs and way of life of a people. Through examination of another culture's laws students will also gain a better understanding of the function of law in their own society.

Social scientists have accumulated much knowledge of the different family structures that have existed over space and time. This Perspective presents students with Indian approaches, both traditional and modern, to finding a marriage partner. The role of the family is explained in two articles written by people from India to help students understand a radically different approach to marriage and family as compared with American values. Another contrast with American culture is provided by a look at Japanese decision making in which head-on confrontations are avoided and consensus is the goal. In encountering this culture difference, students have the opportunity to "try on" the different custom in a role play. Robert Hanvey has argued that in developing a global perspective, we need practice in seeing how our own society's views would look to another, and practice trying to see things from another's point of view. Hanvey identifies four levels of cross-cultural awareness:

Levels of Cross-cultural Awareness

We might discriminate between four levels of cross-cultural awareness as follows:

Level	Information	Mode	Interpretation
I.	awareness of superficial or very visible cultural traits: stereotypes	tourism, textbooks, National Geographic	unbelievable, i.e. exotic, bizarre
II.	awareness of significant and subtle cultural traits that contrast markedly with one's own	culture conflict situations	unbelievable, i.e. frustrating, irrational
III.	awareness of significant and subtle cultural traits that contrast markedly with one's own	intellectual analysis	believable, cognitively
IV.	awareness of how another culture feels from the standpoint of the insider	cultural immersion: living the culture	believable because of subjective familiarity

R.G. Hanvey, An Attainable Global Perspective, (Denver: Center For Teaching International Relations), p. 11.

Respect and empathy for the ideas and practices of a different society need not result in cultural relativism in which we devalue or abandon our own beliefs. But such a capacity for understanding diversity is essential to a world characterized by ever-increasing contacts between cultures. The successful functioning of an international legal system depends on people who can create institutions and laws that many people view as just. Some of our students will have jobs with business or government that include such contacts; all of us will encounter ways of life that differ from our own because of the multi-culture nature of our own society.

An example of an issue in which there are extreme differences in point of view is the "free flow" of information among countries. Many Americans view freedom of the press as one of our most important rights and find it hard to understand the censorship that occurs in other countries. But if we take the point of view of a country that is trying to modernize without rejecting all of that society's traditional values, it may be somewhat easier to understand. Allowing satellites to beam in American television programs which show a consumer society with a lifestyle unavailable to the underdeveloped country and values that oppose the traditional beliefs, we can see that there may be an interest in stopping the "free flow" of television programs. We may not agree that such censorship will succeed or that it is fair, but we can respect the reasons for resisting the intrusion of Western ideas.

In this Perspective, students participate in a role play of an international human rights conference. Different viewpoints are established and students are afforded an opportunity to try to apply the viewpoint of their assigned group to four cases of alleged civil rights violations. Debate at an international conference is directed at establishing a common statement regarding the human rights violations. This is a complex activity in that students must first understand a point of view that differs from the familiar. In the case of the socialist countries for example, the emphasis is not so much on political rights as social and economic rights. The Islamic countries are concerned with rights but also with social obligations. The developing countries are concerned with freedom from outside oppression by the more powerful nations; they advocate a New International Economic Order to provide a fairer distribution of global wealth. Once students understand their countries' point of view, they must apply it to the three cases and argue in favor of that viewpoint in the international conference simulation.

Teaching the Perspective

1. Using the lessons in sequence: In this approach, teachers will use all four lesson plans as they are presented. The first lesson introduces the concepts of custom and law and uses two historical examples of legal codes. The next two lessons present differing custom and laws of India and Japan. The concluding lesson gives the students practice in working with diversity, focusing on the issue of human rights.

2. Infusion method: Some teachers may prefer to choose particular lessons or activities out of the given sequence and fit them into existing course material and outlines. For example, a teacher of Contemporary American Problems may wish to teach a unit of international human rights and use only Lesson Plan #4 of this Perspective. A World History teacher could take the activities relating to the legal codes of the Babylonians and Hebrews as part of a chronological study of World History.

Lesson Plan Description and Infusion Key

Lesson Plan #1: Custom and Law
An examination of how a society's laws are linked to the culture. Students are introduced to laws and customs in terms of their historical, religious, geographical and economic contexts rather than just by comparing them with Western practices. (World History or World Cultures, Cultural Geography) pp. 34-36.

Lesson Plan # 2: Cultural Perspectives on Family Law
Indian family law and custom differs greatly from American practices. Students will learn of some of these differences and read an explanation of them from the point of view of two Indians. (Cultural Geography, World Cultures, Sociology) pp. 37-39.

Lesson Plan #3: Decision-Making in Another Culture
This lesson introduces students to Japanese law and custom as it affects decision-making. They will have an opportunity to use the Japanese rule of group decision-making as well as American rules. (World Cultures, Law and Government, Sociology, Psychology) pp. 40-43.

Lesson Plan #4: Human Rights Around the Globe
In this lesson, students confront the various political and cultural views on the topic of human rights. They will be asked to grapple with the problem of enforcing international human rights in a world of differing values, viewpoints and priorities. (International Relations, Contemporary Problems, Government) pp. 44-49.

PERSPECTIVE II: CULTURAL CONTRASTS

LESSON PLAN #1

TITLE: CUSTOM AND LAW

PURPOSE

In this lesson plan, students will be introduced to two important concepts, custom and law. They will gain an awareness of the ways custom and law help different societies establish frameworks for social organization. They will learn that they disagree with some societies' customs and laws. People, both past and present, have developed different social frameworks reflecting different values and historical experiences.

MATERIALS

1.) Lecture from: "A Discussion of Custom and Law" Source: A. A. Cleaveland, J. Craven, and M. Danfelser, Intercom, Vol. #92/93, (New York: Center For Global Perspectives, May 1979), p. 37.

2.) "Law and Life in Two Ancient Societies". Source: E. Fenton, 32 Problems in World History, (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1964), pp. 22-26.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Discussion:

Introduce the concepts of custom and law by asking questions that draw on the students' own experiences:

- Why do we stand during the playing of the National Anthem and why do we avoid wearing bathing suits to religious services?

  (Because it is our custom... Discuss the concept of custom.)

- Is an adult punished for not standing up during the playing of the National Anthem or for wearing a bathing suit to religious services?

  (The discussion of kinds of punishment mentioned should lead to a discussion of ridicule, public pressure and feelings of discomfort when everyone looks disapprovingly at you.)

- Are there laws dealing with these behaviors?

  (This should lead to a discussion of the range of disapproved behaviors, some of which are better controlled by laws and some through social pressures.)

- Ask students to suggest rules which are enforced by custom, habit or social pressure, but which are not against the law. Write their suggestions on the chalkboard. Remind the students that safety practices, food preferences, social taboos, expected role behavior for boys and for girls, expected behavior in school, church, and other public places could be included. Beside each custom on the list, write a word or phrase suggested by the students which expresses how they would feel and act toward someone who broke the pattern. Would they feel shame, embarassment, hatred, rejection...?

- Ask the class if they can give any examples of custom and laws from other cultures. List these examples on the chalkboard.

- Can the examples be grouped in some way? (e.g.: custom, formal laws, economic rules, religious rules, traffic regulations)

- How are these examples similar to American customs and law? How are they different?

Intercom #92/93, (New York: Center for Global Perspectives, Global Perspectives in Education, May 1979), p. 37.

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION

Small Group Work and Discussion: "Law and Life in Two Ancient Societies"

Divide the class into small groups. Assign each group one of the two selections: "The Code of Hammurabi" OR "The Old Testament". Have the group read the laws one at a time, taking turns. Dictionaries should be available for reference. The readings are found on pages 28-29.

While the groups are meeting, write the following questions on the chalkboard. After they have finished the reading, ask the students to answer these questions:

1. How did these ancient people make a living?
2. Do you think they believed in a government with a great deal of power or a small government?
3. Who were the most important people in the society? Who were the least important?
4. Are there any similarities between these laws and American laws today?

Remind students that they should be able to explain their inferences.

After each small group has completed their work, distribute the other handout to those who have not yet received it so that each student has both sets of laws for a reference. Review the discussion questions with the entire class, asking each small group for their answers.

PERSPECTIVE II: CULTURAL CONTRASTS

Lesson Plan #2

TITLE: CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES ON FAMILY LAW

PURPOSE

In this lesson, students will confront a set of customs and laws that greatly differ from American practices. They will view these Indian traditions through explanations provided by two people from India. The lesson concludes with a look at many different marriage customs and laws. Students investigate the family life cycle of another culture.

MATERIALS

1.) M. A. Farah, et. al., Global Insights: People and Cultures, (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1980), pp. 26-27.

2.) D. J. Johnson and J. E. Johnson, "Selling the Bride", in series The Wheel of Life Volume #1, Through Indian Eyes, (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975), pp. 64-67.

3.) D. J. Johnson and J. E. Johnson, "Families Are Diffrent in India", in series The Wheel of Life Volume #1 Through Indian Eyes, (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975), pp. 19-22.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Discussion: "Case Study in Marriage", page 30.
Have the students read the "Case Study in Marriage" and read it together as a class. After students have had an opportunity to react to the marriage advertisements, ask the discussion questions that follow the ads.

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION

1. Reading and Discussion: "Selling the Bride", pp. 30-31. After students have completed the reading, ask the following discussion questions:

   - What is the purpose of the dowry? Why has it become important in the Indian system of marriage and family life?

   - Why do you think that the dowry system has been outlawed? Why do the practices persist?

   - Do we have customs that serve the same purpose as the Indian Dowry system? Would the dowry system work in America? Why?

   Ask the students to list differences in marriage customs between India and the United States of America. Put these differences in a chart on the chalkboard.

2. Reading and Discussion: "Families Are Different in India" (pp. 31-32) After students have completed the reading by novelist Santha Rama Rau, ask the following:

   - How is life different for a young Hindu woman in a traditional home and a young American woman in her own home or apartment?

   - What role does the Hindu "family" play in the lives of its members? Why is the family valued?

   - What role does the mother-in-law play in a traditional Indian family? How does getting old differ for members of Indian and American families?

3. Project

Have each student select a culture other than the United States and find out more about the marriage laws and customs of that culture. Students may want to choose a country from which family members have originated, or the teacher can help students make a selection using a world map. Source materials may include encyclopedias, anthropology books, area studies, film strips, consulates, and members of the community. Reports can be written and/or oral. Ask students to try to draw family life cycle based on the information they have collected about a culture.

PERSPECTIVE II: CULTURAL CONTRASTS

Lesson Plan #3

TITLE: Decision Making in Another Culture

PURPOSE

The purpose of this lesson plan is to explore the process of decision making and the underlying cultural values and approaches to it in Japan. By examining different methods and assumptions of a process that has a similar function in their own society, it is hoped students will develop a greater awareness of the problems that face international understanding. In the first segment, students read about and discuss one view of the customs and beliefs that affect Japanese decision making. With this background students then take on the roles of Japanese decision makers in dealing with some common issues they might face in their own lives.

MATERIALS

1.) "The Individual and the Law". Source: J. I. Clark, ed., Japan in the Peoples and Cultures Series, (Evanston: McDougal, Littell and Company, 1976), pp. 126-127.

2.) "Decision Making: Who Decides and How". Source: B. Bullard, Intercom, Vol. #89, (New York: Global Perspectives in Education, 1978), pp. 29-32.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Reading and Discussion: Background for Role Play
   Explain to students that they are about to read a piece about "one person's" view of Japanese values and beliefs. Although, it has been written to describe general aspects of the Japanese character, other writers might draw different conclusions. *Before they themselves form any definite opinions about Japanese customs, they should do further readings on*

the subject. Then have students read, "The Individual and the Law" on page 34.

As students read the piece, ask them to decide what additional information is provided about how some Japanese react to confrontation.

Discussion Questions:

- What does the Japanese legal system have in common with Western legal procedures?
  (Indictment, trial and presentation of evidence.)
- Why do rural people in Japan tend to avoid the civil courts?
  (They don't trust, nor can they afford attorneys. They favor settling disputes by themselves or through mediation - third party participation.)
- What community values seem to support mediation (use of a third party referee) for resolving disputes?
  (A desire for harmony and avoiding undue attention to conflicts which could bring shame to the village or family.)
- What two things are demanded of parties to a dispute?
  (Avoidance of open hostility; mediation.)

2. Writing Activity: We Americans

Explain to students that in this activity they will be taking on the role of sociologists to observe and describe attitudes and behaviors in their own community. *Their assignment is to write a brief essay describing how an American community: 1.) solves disputes among its members; and 2.) makes decisions.* Encourage students to support their conclusions with examples and anecdotes. *When the essays are due have the students read, compare, and contrast their observations and conclusions.*

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION

Group Decision-making Activity

Step 1. *Refer students to the student piece entitled "Decision-Making: Who Decides and How", pp. 34-36.* Have students read the materials. Make sure they understand the concepts of harmony and consensus.

Step 2. *Divide the students into five groups.* Each group will represent one of the following institutions:

1.) A Religious Institution
2.) A High School
3.) A Social Club
4.) A Business Board of Directors
5.) A County Planning Commission

Assign the problems to be discussed and roles to the respective groups. Before beginning the role play, it may be helpful for each group to research how its particular institution and role players would ordinarily decide the issue - by power of authority, majority rule, or consensus?

Step 3. *Begin the role play, using American decision-making approaches. Allow fifteen minutes.*

Step 4. *After fifteen minutes, stop the discussion and refer to the Japanese rules.* Read aloud the four points and be sure that everyone understands the concepts included here. Announce that each group will continue the decision-making process, only this time they will observe the Japanese rules for decision-making. (page 36)

Step 5. *The chairperson of each group will report their decisions to the class. After all reports are given, lead a discussion on achieving consensus.*

Debriefing questions:

- What differences do you notice in your behavior before and after the shift to Japanese rules?
- What are the similarities between the American and Japanese decision-making processes? What are the differences?

Decision Making: Who Decides and How

by Betty Bullard

Areas of Study

Law	Career Education
Civics	World Cultures,
Sociology	Geography, History

Purpose

Ask students what democracy means, and many would answer decision making by voting and majority rule. Japan is also a democracy, but they have a different understanding of democracy and the ways decisions are made. Reaching decisions through a consensus rather than by a majority vote or authoritarian fiat is the pattern there. The following activities and readings are designed to help students experience different decision-making processes. Students may also begin to grapple, at a comprehensible level, with such related issues as power, authority, and legitimacy.

Objectives

Students will be able to

1. make a decision in a role-playing situation, based on a consensus;
2. identify differences in decision-making processes;
3. write a paper analyzing how a current American issue might be resolved by Japanese methods.

Suggested Time

2–3 class periods

Suggestions for the Teacher

Learning Activity 1

After students have read the materials on harmony and consensus, have them experience the differences between American and Japanese decision-making processes by trying this activity. Given an issue that might arise in an American setting, the students are to try to settle the matter by both American and Japanese methods.

Divide the students into five groups. Each group will decide a question that has come before one of the following institutions: (1) a church, (2) a high school, (3) a social club, (4) a business board of directors, (5) a county planning commission. You may decide to allow groups to select the same institution, or you may insist that each group select a different one. The Student Materials describe the problems which must be decided and suggest roles for each group member. If there are more students in a group than roles, the group can add other roles.

Before beginning the actual role play, it may be helpful for each group to learn something further about how its particular institution would ordinarily decide the issue. Does one individual decide–the principal or the pastor, for example? Or does a board make the decision–a school board or board of elders? You may want to discuss this in advance or make it the subject of an overnight research assignment.

Once students are familiar with how their particular institutional model operates, let them begin the activity. Halfway through the exercise, announce that students should now observe Japanese rules and assume some managerial role in order to participate in the decision-making process. Japanese-style rules are explained in the Student Materials.

Evaluation

The chairperson of each group will report to the class the decision that was made. After all reports are given, lead a discussion on achieving consensus, to determine the extent of the students' grasp of the Japanese decision-making process and their understanding of the stages, implicit and explicit, involved in reaching the decision.

Possible Questions: What differences do students notice in their behavior before and after the shift to Japanese rules? What are the similarities in the various American and Japanese decision-making processes?

Learning Activity 2

Following the discussion, ask students to locate in magazines or newspapers two reports of decisions made in connection with contemporary American events (sports, politics, religion, education, business, etc.). Then ask students to write individual papers summarizing the magazine-newspaper reports and indicating how they think the Japanese would have reached decisions on the same issues. The essays will contain two parts: (1) a summary of the magazine-newspaper reports on decisions; (2) speculations on how the Japanese might have reached the decisions described in the reports.

Evaluation

Read the papers and make written comments on the students' grasp of consensus as a Japanese decision-making process.

Extending the Lesson

After trying the exercises in this unit, the class might invite persons from the community, especially people in business, to describe the ways they go about the decision-making process in their areas of concern. If possible, arrange a screening of one of the following films during the visit, so that the guest can comment on the similarities and differences between Japanese and American decision-making processes.

Decision-making in Japan. Japan Trade Center, free loan film, distributed by Association Sterling (600 Grand Ave., Ridgefield, NJ 07657; 5797 New Peachtree Road, Atlanta, GA 30340; 511 Burlington Ave., LaGrange, IL 60525; 8615 Directors Row, Dallas, TX 75247; or 7838 San Fernando Road, Sun Valley, CA 91352); 15 minutes, color, junior high up. Exploration of the roots of the Japanese decision-making process and its contemporary applications.

Doing Business in Japan: Negotiating a Contract. Vision Associates (665 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10022), 1977, 35 minutes, color, high school. Sale, $350; rental for school groups, $75. The film documents a breakdown in communications between two sales teams from the United States and Japan. A good illustration of different cultural assumptions about group interaction.

Dr. Betty Bullard is Director of Education of The Asia Society and team leader for the U.S. in the CULCON education project.

PERSPECITVE II: CULTURAL CONTRACTS

Lesson Plan #4

TITLE: HUMAN RIGHTS AROUND THE GLOBE

PURPOSE

In this lesson, students will confront various political and cultural views on the topic of Human Rights. They will be asked to grapple with the problem of enforcing international Human Rights laws in a world of differing values, viewpoints, and priorities. In the first segment, students generate a list of "universal rights" and are introduced to the simulation activity. In the second segment, students prepare for the simulation by taking the roles of three regional groups developing positions for an International Human Rights Conference. In the third segment, students role-play and debrief the conference.

MATERIALS

1.) "Differing Views on Human Rights"
2.) "Alleged Violations of Human Rights" Source: T. Clark and M. Croddy, "Human Rights", Volume XIV, of Bill of Rights in Action, (Los Angeles, California: Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1980), pages 8-20.
3.) "Instructions for Delegates"

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Group Activity: What Rights Are Universal?

Begin this activity with a discussion centered around the question: Are there any Universal Human Rights? (That is, are there any rights that people in all nations and cultures should be able to agree upon? You may want to extend this to include Human Rights throughout history.)

As students generate ideas of Universal Human Rights, write them on the chalkboard. After a representative number are listed, ask students to think of exceptions to, or violations of, these rights.

EXAMPLES:

Human Rights	Exceptions/Violations
Right to life	War (International, civil, revolutionary, etc.) Genocide (Nazis)
Right to eat	Third World poverty (Biafra, Bangladesh, etc.)
Right to marry and have children	Involuntary sterilization (U. S. and other countries)
Right to die	Laws against euthanasia (a terminally ill person's choice to die)
Freedom of Speech	Soviet Union and political prisoners

Discussion Questions:

- Why do you think there are so many Human Rights violations?
- Are there Human Rights that some people in the world value while others do not? What are some examples?
- Why do you think people disagree on Human Rights?

2. Introduction to the Simulation

Step 1: Explain to the class that they will now prepare to stage a simulation of an "International Human Rights Conference" in the classroom. They will be representing groups of nations from all over the world, meeting to make recommendations on alleged Human Rights violations.

Step 2: Have students read, "Differing Views on Human Rights", pages 37-39 . The peice briefly describes varying perspectives about Human Rights from four points of view: the Soviet Block, the United States, post-colonial African nations, and Islamic States. Explain that later the students will be asked to represent the viewpoints of these various nations at an International Human Rights Conference activity.

Step 3: Lead a class discussion focusing on the differences in viewpoints among the various groups presented. Ask:

- What countries are represented in the communistic group? (Soviet Union, East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Cuba)
- What form of government do these countries have? (If students have difficulty in answering explain it is a system called "democratic centralism" in which the Communist Party controls the government from top to bottom based on the principles of Marxist ideology.)
- What "Human Rights" are emphasized by the communistic countries? (Social and economic rights such as the right to work, education, and an adequate standard of living.)
- Why do you think these rights are so important to these countries? (If students have difficulty answering, explain that Communist ideology holds that there is a worldwide class struggle between classes: Capitalists and workers. As such, the workers are always exploited and need protection.)
- What Human Rights are the first priority of the United States? (Political and Civil Rights are the United States' first priority.)

- Where do ideas about these rights come from?
  (They are embodied in the U. S. Constitution and Bill of Rights and evolved from Western political thought.)
- What Human Rights are emphasized by the African nations?
  (Dignity, worth, and basic needs of the Human Being; fairer distribution of global wealth.)
- What rights are mentioned in the list?
  (The right to life, freedom from torture, the condemnation of apartheid.)
- Why are these nations "particularly" sensitive to imperialism?
  (If students have trouble answering, explain that all were recent colonies of western nations and are anxious to remove any vestages of western economic and political domination.)
- Why is individual freedom not emphasized in Islamic Societies?
  (They believe that the state is subject to the dictates of the Supreme Being. Therefore, individual freedom cannot threaten the interests of the community.)
- Why might Islamic nations have quarrels with western views about Human Rights?
  (Western nations are secular states rather than religious states. Therefore, they do not link rights with religious behavior. Islamic culture believes that people acquire rights and freedoms only if they meet their obligations to God. For example, in the United States freedom of speech is a fundamental right of individuals. As such a person would have the right even to blaspheme against God. Islamic states would recognize no such right.)
- Why might it be difficult for these four groups to agree on definitions of Human Rights? Why might it be difficult for them to agree on violations of Human Rights?
  (Students might mention differing cultural assumptions and priorities and political realities as hinderances.)

DEVELOPMENT

Step 1: Divide the class into four groups (A, B, C, D). Assign each of the groups one of the four viewpoints they just discussed. Explain that each group will now review cases of alleged Human Rights violations from the point of view of their assigned roles. Refer students to the "Instructions for Delegates" on page 40 of the student materials.

Step 2: Have each group read and discuss "Alleged Human Rights Violations" using the deglegate instruction sheet. (see pp.39-40)

Step 3: Circulate throughout the classroom while the groups are meeting. Make sure each group understands the text, discusses the questions and begins preparation of its presentation in a timely manner.

APPLICATION

1. A Human Rights Conference:

Step 1: Arrange the classroom so that the various groups are sitting together. The teacher will take the role of Conference Moderator.

Step 2: Call the spokesperson from each of the groups (A, B, C, D) one at a time to make their presentations to the class. Allow each a maximum of no more than five minutes.

Step 3: Open debate on the various presentations and recommendations by calling on Group A to react to and ask questions of the other three groups. Repeat process for Groups B, C, and D (approximately twenty minutes).

Step 4: Adjourn the Conference and thank the delegates.

2. Debriefing Discussion:

- What problems were encountered in getting the various representatives to agree to a course of action for dealing with violations? Why did they arise?

- What role could the United Nations play in enforcing Human Rights throughout the world? Would it encounter the same kinds of problems? Why or why not?
- What other international methods have been tried for enforcing Human Rights?

  (Students might mention public pressure on the Soviet Union to permit Jewish immigration, Amnesty International, embargo or economic sanctions, etc....)
- What other international methods might be workable?

PERSPECTIVE III: ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS

INTRODUCTION

All the world's a stage and all the men and women only players . . .
W. Shakespeare

Beneath the screaming headlines and clipped tones of newscasters describing the going and comings of presidents, diplomats and nation states lies a world made up of people. As individuals and members of groups we live our lives seemingly protected from global strife by bubbles of daily routine. Neither can we reach outside those bubbles to control or affect the happenings in far distant places. That is the domain of the expert and the powerful. In the bargain, we trade anxiety for the comforting thought that there is precious little we can do about it all anyway.

This Perspective offers students an alternative point of view. Through its use, they will learn to recognize the wide variety of international actors in addition to states and their representatives. They will examine the roles of multinational business, special interest groups, international organizations, and even terrorists. Further, they will observe actors defining interests, developing policies and interacting politically and legally to shape the ever dynamic global environment.

However, implicit in this perspective is an even more important area of inquiry for students. Beyond the case studies and tools for analysis of actors and their relationships lies a question: How can I as an individual affect the world in which I live? The first answers come in an awareness of what others are doing, in their jobs, in their commitment to ideals, in their bonding with others, and sometimes with their courage. It is hoped that these materials might help some young people take that first step.

OVERVIEW

There are literally hundreds of ways of looking at the complex international system. This perspective is designed to expand students' awareness of the many types of entities that affect the international system and how through their activities and relationships it is shaped.

Political scientists call the participants in the international system Actors and have devised various classifications of the various types. For example, Richard Mansbach has a typology that includes five different categories of non-state actors in international affairs.*

1. Interstate Governmental Actors, such as the United Nations, Organization of American States, European Common Market.

2. Interstate Nongovernmental Actors, such as the International Red Cross, multi-national corporations, terrorists.

3. Governmental Noncentral Actors, such as cities, provinces, separatist groups.

4. Intrastate Nongovernmental Actors, such as the Ford Foundation, Irish Republican Army, Presbyterian Church.

5. Individuals, such as Che Guevara, Andrew Carnegie, and Mahatma Gandhi.

*Richard Mansbach, et.al., quoted in Lee F. Anderson, Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age: An Exploration of the Meaning and Significance of Global Education, Bloomington, Indiana: Social Studies Development Center, 1979, pp. 194-225.

In general, in these materials we will group the actors in a slightly simpler fashion than Mansbach's typology. Our categories are: national governments and their official representatives, private individuals, international governmental organizations, nongovernmental international organizations and sub-national organizations and intrastate actors. (See Mansbach's description for Intrastate.)

INTERNATIONAL GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

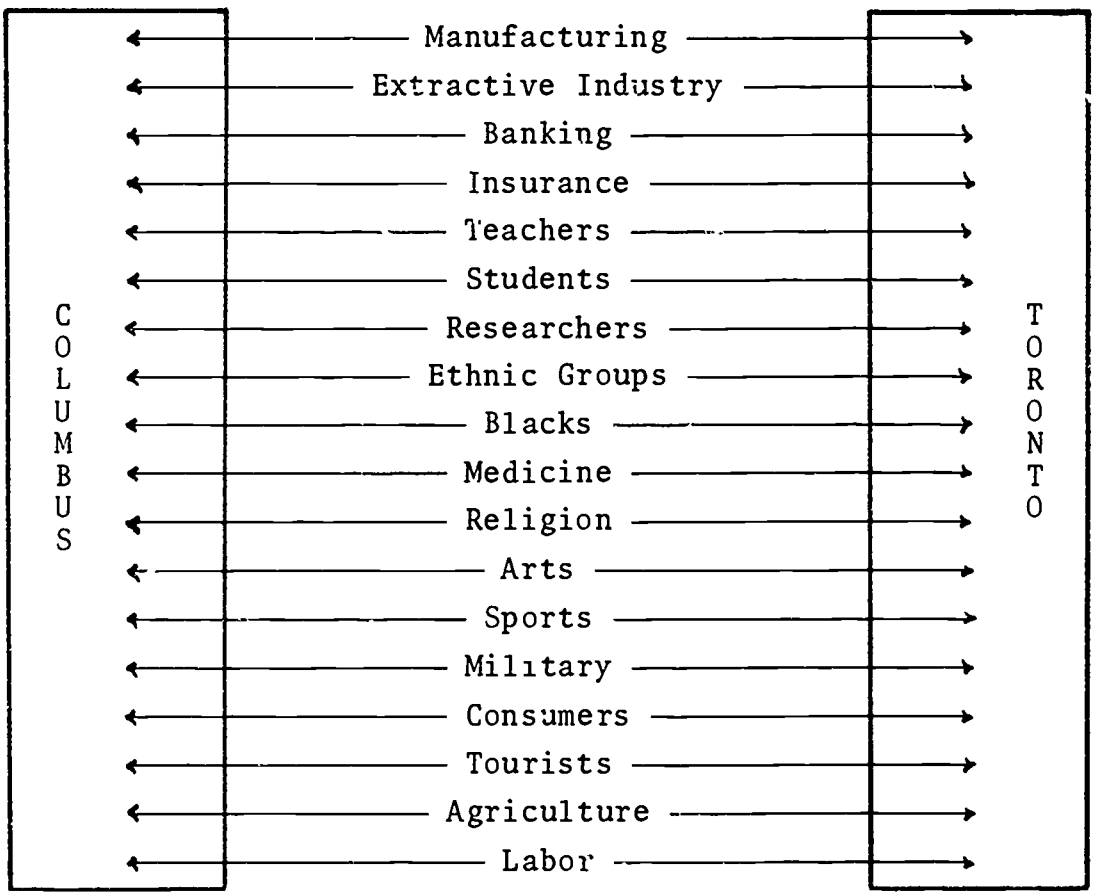
IGO's are international organizations in which two or more nation-states are members. They range in size from regional groups such as the Organization of American States (OAS) and the European Common Market to multinational organizations such as the United Nations. In a study by Butterworth (1976) and Haas, Butterworth and Nye (1972) five IGO's were identified as having a significant impact on the international system, the UN, OAS, OAU, Arab League, and the Council of Europe. In three hundred and ten (310) cases of interstate conflicts between 1945 and 1975, 70% of all conflict management efforts were carried out by these five organizations, and half were managed successfully.

NONGOVERNMENTAL INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Nongovernmental actors, NGO's have greatly expanded in recent years. These groups include individuals who share interests that transcend national boundries, including religious, environmental, political, ethnic, and economic ties. Examples of NGO's are the Roman Catholic Church, the Olympic Committee, multinational corporations, labor organizations, the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, the International Red Cross, Amnesty International, and Kiwanis International. Many of these groups have policies, goals, and economic resources for operating in the international system. Not all NGO's are peaceful actors. We might include the international terrorist groups in this category of nongovernmental actors; their methods include sabbotage, assassination, hijacking, invasion of consulates, and the taking of hostages.

SUBNATIONAL ACTORS

There are other governmental actors in international relations that represent levels below the nation-state or the international organization. These include the cities, counties, and provincial governments, who have often received most attention for their actions as part of separatist movements in Canada, Nigeria, and the Congo. Many cities and states maintain an active relationship with other nations in attempting to encourage trade or investment. The following chart illustrates some of the connections that might be found between two cities in different nations, in this case Columbus and Toronto.



C. F. Alger and D. G. Hoovler, You and Your Community in the World, (Columbus, Ohio: Consortium for International Studies Education, 1978) The Ohio State University, p. 10.

INDIVIDUALS

By individual international actors we mean people who through their actions or influence have an effect across national boundaries. Examples might include philosophers, writers, musicians, artists, philanthropists, spiritual leaders, scholars and political activists.

In addition to the various actors, this Perspective also focuses on some of the means by which they order their relations. Treaties, resolutions, contracts, and covenants are written forms of agreement between two parties. Informal agreements are also common, as in the recent memorandum signed by the U.S. and Canada, concerning each countries' intent in dealing with the problem of transboundary air pollution, especially the problem of acid rain. As such, throughout these materials, students examine international relationships i terms of national policy making, international treaty making, and the workings of mutual defense pacts.

There are two major reasons for giving students this more complex view of the international arena. The first is that it represents a more accurate picture of reality: our world has changed a great deal in the last thirty years as transnational contacts increased at a rapid rate. The second reason is related to the goals of citizenship education. If we want students to be prepared to responsibly participate in society, they need to understand their own role in affecting international events. As members of ethnic groups, special interest groups, employees, stockholders, consumers, and as voters in the American political system, individuals can act along with others to influence world events.

Teaching the Perspective

1. In Sequence: This method offers a concept-building approach in which students begin by learning to identify and group the various types of international actors and

progress to analyzing, through case study and activities, some of the relationships which exist between and among actors. If this method is chosen the teacher can use the lesson plans in order (approximately 15 days worth of material) or use Lesson Plan #1 and select from remainder lesson plans and activities as interest and time permit.

2. Infusion Method: This approach offers teachers strategies and materials for use within the context of their existing courses to provide students with applications or supplemental presentations concerning topics currently being studied. For example, a teacher of U.S. government might be interested in using the hostage negotiation manuscript from Lesson Plan #5 when discussing the function of the U.S. State Department and the Presidency.

Lesson Plan Description and Infusion Key

Lesson Plan #1: An Introduction to International Actors

This lesson plan introduces students to the concept of international actors other than traditional nation-states. Included are nongovernmental organizations and individuals who take part in transnational activities and influence world politics, pp. 57-61.

Lesson Plan #2: Nongovernmental International Organizations

In this lesson plan, students focus more in-depth on the role of nongovernmental organizations in the global system. These studies focus on multinational business, terrorists, and the International Red Cross. (International Relations, U.S. Government, Current Events.), pp. 63-69.

Lesson Plan #3: International Governmental Organizations

An introduction to the range of international governmental organizations which affect the global scene. Included are

case studies of and activities relating to NATO and the Warsaw Pact. (World History, Contemporary American Problems, U. S. History, Current Events.) pp. 70-73.

Lesson Plan #4: Americans Held Hostage - The Secret Negotiations

In this lesson plan, students will recreate an abbreviated version of an ABC News Special Report on the Iranian hostage crisis. The activity illustrates the diverse actors-individuals, nation-states and international organizations which participated in the effort to gain the release of the American hostages. (U. S. Government, International Realtions, Contemporary American Problems.) pp. 74-83.

PERSPECTIVE III: ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS

Lesson Plan #1

TITLE: AN INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL ACTORS

PURPOSE

In this lesson plan, students are introduced to the wide range of entities and individuals which act across natural boundaries to affect world politics. We call them international actors. The first segment introduces students to the concept of actors beyond the traditional nation-state through the use of brainstorming, reading and discussion activity. In the second segment, the concept of international actors is enlarged to include individuals. The third segment gives students an opportunity to review what they have learned and begin grouping actors into recognized categories.

MATERIALS

1.) "The Big Time". Source: Kenneth A. Switzer and Charlotte Redder, Teaching about Diversity: Latin America, (Denver: Center for Teaching International Relations, 1978), p. 141.

2.) "Sweden's Mystery Hero". Source: World Press Review, November, 1980, pp. 32-34.

3.) "Strawberry Fields Forever". Source: Newsweek Magazine, December 22, 1980.

4.) "International News Briefs". Source: Los Angeles Times and Business Week.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Reading and Discussion

Write the term, "International Actors" on the chalkboard. Explain to students that one definition of an international actor is any entity, group or individual taking part in a transnational activity (activities between or among various nations) to influence world politics.

For example, a person working for a local charity to help the unemployed would not be an international actor. But, if that charity began planning relief operations in Southeast Asia with Taiwanese officials, then the charity would be functioning as an international actor. Have students read "Big Time", p. 44.

- Why are General Motors and IBM international actors?
  (Students should recognize that both sell their products internationally and are affected by international affairs, i.e. the Japanese import quotas in the case of General Motors.)

- What different types of international actors are listed in this handout?
  (Nation-state governments, multinational corporations, the governments of individual states within the United States, cities within the United States.)

- How many of each type are listed?
  (Eleven national governments, eleven multinational corporations, two state (U.S.) governments, one city government.)
  (As each type is identified, write it on the board.)

- What was the criterion used to select these twenty-five organizations as the "largest" in the world?
  (Yearly revenues.)

2. Brainstorming Activity

Lead a brainstorming activity in which students generate additional examples of international actors. Ask:

- Other than countries (nation-states) what other examples of international actors can you think of? Why is it an international actor? (Students should suggest and support additional examples. For example, the United Nations, NATO, OAS, multinational businesses and special interest groups such as the Roman Catholic Church, the Red Cross, trade associations.)

DEVELOPMENT: Individuals as Actors

1. Reading and Discussion

Refer your students to, "A Symbol for Humanity", pp. 44-45. Explain that in addition to groups and organizations, individuals too can be international actors if they take part in a transnational activity to influence world affairs. *As they read the piece, ask students to decide whether Raoul Wallenberg should be considered an international actor in his own right or as a representative of the Swedish government. Then ask:*

- Who was Raoul Wallenberg?
  (A Swedish citizen of a wealthy family who went to Hungary in 1944 to help save Jews from Nazi extermination camps.)

- What was Wallenberg's method for saving Jewish victims?
  (He would distribute temporary Swedish citizenship papers and hide Jews in "safe houses".)

- How many Jews is Wallenberg credited in saving?
  (Between 25,000 and 50,000 or more.)

- What happened to Raoul Wallenberg?
  (He was arrested by the Soviets at the end of the war and disappeared.)

- Thinking about our definition of international actor, do you think Raoul Wallenberg qualifies? Why?

(Given that he was involved in international activities and did influence world affairs, he is an international actor. A question could arise about whether he should be considered a representative of a nation-state, i.e. a national actor, or an individual actor. Since his diplomatic status was incidental to his work, we have considered him an individual actor.)

2. Reading and Activity

Have students read "Strawberry Fields Forever", pp. 45-46. As they read, ask students to decide if John Lennon was an international actor. Then ask:

- Thinking about the definition we have been using for international actor, who thinks John Lennon qualified as an international actor? Who does not?

Ask representatives of each point of view to support their positions. Students might argue that through his music, words and politics, Lennon does meet the criteria as demonstrated by the reaction to his death. Others might argue that his influence was only indirect and too limited to be considered as such. Conclude the debate by explaining that there is no right answer, the complexities of international connections, and politics often makes the definition difficult to apply.

Discussion Question:

- Can you think of other individuals (not government officials) who are or have been international actors? Who are they?

  (Students should be encouraged to identify examples and support their opinions. Examples might include, Eleanor Roosevelt, Kurt Waldheim, Simon Weisenthal, Ralph Nadar, Pope John Paul II).

APPLICATION

Reading and Activity: Grouping International Actors

Refer your students to "International News Briefs", and the "Student Worksheet", page 47. Ask them to carefully read the material, especially the description of the types of actors, before completing the activity. As students work copy the blank chart on the chalkboard. (Leave plenty of space beneath each heading.) *Then lead a class discussion in which the class fills in the chart. When the chart on the board is completed, compare it with the following:*

International Organizations	National Governments	Intrastate Organizations	Private Individuals
Formosa Plastics	U.S. (Haig)	Texas	Reischauer
Amnesty International	Taiwan	Anglican Church (British)	
NATO	Britain (Thatcher)	Basque Separatists	
	Iran		
	Spain		
	Diplomats of: Austria, Uraguay, El Salvador, and Japan		

Then have students come to the board and circle all of the non-governmental actors.

If time permits, select items from the cumulative list the class has been keeping and place them in the appropriate category on the chart. (You may wish to have students copy down the chart and add to it whenever a new actor is encountered. In addition, it can serve as a basis of a homework assignment. Have students survey newspaper articles and identify additional examples of actors for inclusion on the chart.)

PERSPECTIVE III: ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS

LESSON PLAN #2

TEACHER BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Salvador Allende

On September 4, 1970, Salvador Allende was elected President of Chile by a narrow margin. On October 24 of that year the Chilean Congress affirmed Allende's election. Although Allende called himself a Socialist and was elected through the democratic process, many people felt that Allende's election represented the spread of Communism to South America. The Nixon Administration held this view.

One of Allende's first projects upon gaining office was to "nationalize" foreign industry. This meant that the Chilean government would take over ownership of all corporations and factories on Chilean land. The multinational corporations would be paid for what was confiscated, but they usually were not satisfied.

ITT was not alone in its attitude toward Allende. "In September 1973...international banks and financial institutions took an increasingly dim view of Allende's domestic economic policy and refused to extend credit to Chile."[1] This action caused an extreme inflation in the Chilean economy. This economic instability contributed to the Chilean military's ability to stage a coup d'etat (the violent overthrow or alteration of an existing government by a small group).

UNCTAD: The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development was established in 1964. The program consists of conferences held every four years for the purpose of increasing trade of developing countries in order to speed up their economic development.

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[1]James A. Nathan, James K. Oliver, United States Foreign Policy and World Order, (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1976), p. 14.

PERSPECTIVE III: ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS

Lesson Plan #2

TITLE: NON-GOVERNMENTAL INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION

PURPOSE

In this lesson plan, students focus on the role of non-governmental organizations (NGO's) in the global system. These groups, though not officially connected with any national government, have a substantial and growing affect on the lives of people across national boundaries. The first segment introduces the range of non-governmental international organizations including multinational business. In the second segment, students consider one of the most controversial types of NGO's, terrorists. In the final segment, students examine the International Red Cross and analyze its traditional role in the context of modern political realities.

MATERIALS

1.) "ITT in Chile". Source: Lee Anderson, Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age, (Bloomington: Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 1979), pp. 216-217.

2.) "Terrorism". Source: Senior Scholastic, February 8, 1979, pp. 7-12.

3.) "The International Red Cross". Source: Los Angeles Chapter, American National Red Cross, November, 1973.

4.) "Red Cross Goal: New Rules For Victims of War". Source: Los Angeles Times.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Lecture and Discussion

   Review teacher background material on p. 52 of Teachers Guide. *Present a brief lecture based on these materials which helps students develop an understanding of NGO's, including the following definition:*

Non-governmental organizations are "associations of individuals or private groups in different nations who share common interests that transcend national boundaries." These groups are also called transnational organizations[1].

At the conclusion of the lecture, lead a class discussion in which students recall the essential points and generate additional examples of NGO's. To stimulate student response you may wish to refer to the final activity in the previous lesson, "International News Briefs" and have students circle each item representing a non-governmental organization. This list can then be added to as students generate additional examples.

2. Reading and Discussion: The Influence of International Business and the I.T.T.

Refer your students to "ITT in Chile", pp. 48-49. As a class, read through the handout. Be sure that students understand the background, the terminology involved, the possible effects each tactic would have on the Allende government and the reasons ITT might have for taking such actions. *(See Teacher Background p. 63) Then lead a class discussion focusing on the following questions:*

- What is ITT trying to do, according to this strategy? Why?
  (ITT was trying to remove Salvador Allende from the Presidency of Chile because they felt threatened by his socialist economic policies.)

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[1]Lee Anderson, Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age: An Exploration of the Meaning and Significance of Global Education, (Bloomington, Indiana: Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 1979), p. 202.

- What other international actors did ITT plan to involve in its maneuvers?
  (Banks, the CIA, newspapers, other governments.)

- What was ITT's main weapon in its fight with the Allende government?
  (Economic pressure...)

- Judging from this list of strategy points, did ITT have an advantage over the Allende government? If so, what?
  (Yes. The Chilean economy had problems when Allende took over and his new socialist programs were expensive and made him financially vulnerable.)

- Can you think of any other ways in which multinational corporations might influence the actions or interactions of official governments? What does this say about their role in global politics?
  (i.e. Foreign investment - as in the case of South Africa, opening plants and factories in foreign countries and hiring cheaper foreign labor, lobbying national governments for changes in trade laws, etc. Thereby multinational corporations can have a tremendous influence on global politics.)

DEVELOPMENT

Reading and Discussion: Terrorists and International Actors. *Refer your students to, "Terrorism" pp. 49-51 and direct students to decide whether the terrorist organizations' descriptions fit into their own definition of non-governmental organizations (NGO's). Lead a class discussion focusing on the following questions:*

- Thinking about our definition of NGO's, do you think the international terrorist organizations fit the definition? Why or why not?

- What nations have been affected by terrorism? (Italy, Spain, the Middle East, Israel.)

- Which world area has had the most terrorist incidents? (See chart)
  (Western Europe.)

- What terrorist groups are described? Where do they come from?
  (Baader-Meinhof Gang - West Germany, the Japanese Red Army - Japan, the Irish Republican Army - North Ireland, the PLO - Palestine, the Red Brigade - Italy.)

- What could terrorist groups gain by working together against a particular government?
  (Greater coverage of the globe, specialization of tasks, better chances of avoiding arrest, etc.)

- What are some examples of the ways in which these groups have tried to affect the policies of nations? For what purpose?
  (To gain individual attention for their causes through kidnappings, bombings, murders and hijack.)

2. Reading and Discussion

Refer your students to and have read, "Red Cross Goal: New Rules for Victims of War", pp. 51-52. Then lead a short focusing discussion. Ask:

- What criticisms have been made against the International Committee of the Red Cross?
  (That its performance in recent conflicts - Nigeria, Pakistan and Vietnam - has not been effective; that the ICRC is too inbred and Swiss controlled; that the organization should take a more direct, active role.)

- What is the main function of the ICRC?
  (To aid wounded and prisoners of war of all countries in an international conflict.)

- Why did the ICRC experience problems in Vietnam?
  (Because the North Vietnamese claimed it was an "internal conflict" and not subject to ICRC intervention.)

- Why did ICRC experience problems in the Nigerian conflict?
  (Because the Nigerians viewed the relief efforts as aiding the rebels.)

- Why do ICRC officials believe that strict neutrality is so important?
  (In general, if the ICRC become involved in partisan politics, obstacles might arrive making it impossible to perform necessary tasks.)

Writing Activities

Explain to students that in this activity they should imagine themselves as representatives of the ICRC in the field. Familiarize students - with the following facts:

> You are a ICRC representative assigned to aid wounded or captured rebels being held by government troops in the backlands of Lufaria. The country has been experiencing a bloody civil war and the rebels are receiving weapons and supplies from an unnamed superpower. In your preliminary investigation, you notice that some of the persons show signs of torture, are undernourished, and have not received medical attention for their wounds. When you ask for permission to lead a convoy of supplies and a medical team into the area to provide to the persons, the local government refuses permission.

Have students write a petition to the central government asking for the right to aid the persons. They should support their petition with the philosophy, past acts and policies of the Red Cross as expressed in the reading. Additionally, petitioners should suggest methods of providing aid which will allay the possible fears of the government (i.e. inspection of trucks, review of communiques, etc.)

Have students read their petitions and compare approaches. Complete the activity having students discuss the following question:

- Should the ICRC take a more direct role in pointing out human rights violations of the countries involved in conflicts? Why or why not?

PERSPECTIVE III: ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS

LESSON PLAN #3

TITLE: INTERNATIONAL GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

PURPOSE

In this lesson plan, students will gain an awareness about International Governmental Organizations (IGO's) those organizations working across national boundaries whose membership is comprised of officially designated representatives from state governments. In the first segment, students will be introduced to the notion and examples of IGO's. In the second segment, students will examine case studies of two IGO's, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the United Nations.

MATERIALS

1.) "Regional Security Organizations". Source: J. A. Gillespie and J. J. Patrick, Comparing Political Experiences, Political Systems, (Indiana: Department of Political Science, Indiana University, 1975), pp. 141-152.

2.) "The Warsaw Treaty Organization". Source J. A. Gillespie and J. J. Patrick, Comparing Political Experiences, Political Systems, (Indiana: Department of Political Science, Indiana University, 1975), pp. 154-157.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Lecture and Chart Reading

Review Teacher Overview material for this lesson plan on page 52 and present a lecture which:

1. Helps students distinguish between Non-governmental

Organizations (NGO's) and International Governmental Organizations (IGO's).

2. Provides students with examples and brief descriptions of some IGO's. *Conclude the lecture by putting the following chart on the board. Explain that international organizations can be grouped according to the extent of their membership and their purpose or area of concern. Explain the different categories and describe a couple of examples of each.*

BREADTH OF FUNCTIONS OR CONCERNS OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Extent of Membership -- Number of States Belonging	Universal or Very Broad	Limited
Virtually Universal or open to Most States	United Nations	Specialized Agencies such as: World Health Organization UNESCO Universal Postal Union Food and Agriculture Organization International Civil Aviation Organization etc.
Limited to Certain States	Organization of American States Organization of African United Arab League etc.	Regional Security Organization as: NATO and Warsaw Treaty Organization Specific Economic, Social, Scientific Organizations such as: Int'l Whaling Commission Int'l Sugar Council Danube Commission Inter-American Music Committee Int'l Bureau of Weights and Measures Pan American Health Organization etc. Bilateral Organizations such as: Int'l Halibut Commission Joint Brazil-U.S. Defense Commission

Conclude the activity by having students generate additional historical or contemporary examples of IGO's. Depending on the examples, they too can be grouped on the chart. Examples might include: SEATO, The League of Nations, the EEC, the Common Market, etc.

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION

1. Reading and Discussion: NATO

Have students read "Regional Security Organizations: NATO and The Warsaw Treaty Organization" pp. 53-55. As they read, ask the students to make a list of all the international actors they come across. Then ask:

- Is NATO a broad range or limited international organization? Why?
  (Limited because it deals only with issues of security and is limited to a particular region.)

- What national actors are represented on NATO? How many are there?
  (12 — Belgium, West Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Iceland, Norway, The Netherlands, Luxemburg, Canada, Denmark, France and the United States.)

- What is a treaty?
  (An agreement between or among nations.)

- Why was NATO formed?
  (To counter aggression by The Soviet Union.)

- As an actor in the global system, how is NATO like The United Nations?
  e.g. members are national/state governments; states

retain their sovereignty; it was created following World War II.)

- How is NATO different from The United Nations? (e.g. limited membership, restricted to a specific region, deals only with security issues.)

2. Reading and Discussion: The Warsaw Pact

Have students read, "The Warsaw Treaty Organization", pp. 56-57. Again ask students to identify the actors involved. Then, lead a discussion focusing on the following questions:

- In what ways is the Warsaw Treaty Organization like NATO? How does it differ from NATO? (Like NATO it is regional IGO and limited to security matters; unlike NATO it is more one power dominated and is more centralized.)

- What countries are included in The Warsaw Pact? (The Soviet Union, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria.)

- Look at the map of the Soviet Bloc. What does this tell you about the relative size and power of the state actors in this region?

- Now look back at the map from the NATO Handout. How is this map distorted? (The relative size of The United States is not shown.)

- Where are the European NATO countries in relation to the Warsaw Pact countries? When was the Warsaw Pact signed? In what ways might The North Atlantic Treaty have influenced the creation of the Warsaw Treaty?

PERSPECTIVE III: ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS

LESSON PLAN # 4

TEACHER BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1979 January 16th: The Shah flees Iran as revolutionary forces take control of his country.
October: The Shah comes to America for medical treatment.
November 4th: Student militants seize the U.S. Embassy in Iran.

1980 April 25th: American rescue mission fails; 8 crewmen die.
July 7th: The Shah dies in Egypt.
November: The Algerians begin the final negotiations.

1981 January 20th: The Carter administration ends; Reagan becomes President; the hostages are freed.

For 444 days, fifty-two American hostages are held in Iran by a group of Iranian militant students. Many people participated in the legal, diplomatic, economic and military efforts to free those hostages. But for fourteen months, there was one failure after another. This unfortunate incident in American history can teach us some lessons about the complex international system in which we live.

> The hostage crisis offers a vivid illustration of the violation of international law and the resulting impact on the international system. The American government brought its case before the International Court of Justice, charging that Iran had broken international laws that protect diplomats, embassy personnel and property. Such protections were set out in the Vienna Conventions of 1961 and 1963, the Treaty of Amity between the U.S. and Iran, and 1973 Convention of the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes Against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents.

> The Court ruled in favor of the U.S., finding Iran in violation of its international obligations, and requiring the immediate release of the hostages and restoration of the Embassy to American authorities. International opinion supported the international law giving diplomats immunity and protection, and many nations encouraged the release of the hostages.

The Iranian response to the Court was to deny its jurisdiction in the matter and ignore its rulings. Iran claimed that the dispute was a domestic issue to be resolved within Iran; it was not subject to international arbitration. The Embassy seizure was regarded as "a marginal and secondary aspect of an overall problem of United States interference in Iran". This charge referred to the Iranian claim that American Embassy personnel had assisted in the training of the SAVAK, the Shah's police who had tortured and terrorized the Iranian people. The revolutionary Iranian government also charged that the C.I.A. had interfered in the affairs of a sovereign nation by staging a coup in 1953 that put the Shah back in power.

The Ayatollah Khomeini, the Iranian religious leader, viewed Western law as a creation of the Americans and Europeans in order to protect their interests at the expense of weaker countries. Khomeini asked an Egyptian journalist:

> What's this international law? Is there anything in international law which says anything about...conducting a coup d'etat against a nationally and free-elected government?
>
> What kind of law is this? It permits the U.S. government to exploit and colonize peoples all over the world for decades. But it does not allow the extradition of an individual who has staged great massacres. Can you call it law?

There is much in Islamic law as well as general international law that provides for diplomatic immunity; the only sanction against diplomats is expulsion. This is the issue that was the focus of the Court's reply. The Iranians were interested in other issues. International law is vague on the subject of one state intervening into the affairs of another. Extradition in America is not available against someone like the Shah who is accused of "political crimes", and there was no extradition treaty between the U.S. and Iran.[4]

In addition to the clash over international law, there was another clash of values occurring within Iran. Some have expressed it as the "neckties versus the turbans". The "neckties" in this case are Iranians who are more secular, liberal, and Western in their views. The "turbans" are those Iranians with strong ties to traditional Islamic values, led by the militant clergymen. For much of the negotiations, American officials were talking to the liberal government officials who were in a power struggle with the students and clergy. Carter kept depending on the promises of leaders such as Bani-Sadr and his foreign minister, Ghotbzadeh, but it was really the clergy that had the power.

The hatred directed at America, and flashed on television screens nightly with pictures of demonstrators and slogans, was shocking to many Americans. Iranians perceived America as a country that supported the corrupt Shah and exploited Iran. America also personified modernization, science, and secularism, all of which threatened traditional Islamic values. As one student put it:

> We are not against modernization, but rather Westernization. Even the Western people themselves accept the idea that the West is corrupt. Everything is there, even prostitution, even drinking. We do not have these things in Islam. The Shah brought everything like that. It should have been divided between the good things of modernization, brought without the corruption.[5]

The clash of values is dramatically illustrated in the following transcript from an ABC News Special by Pierre Salinger, "Americans Held Hostage: The Secret Negotiations". The scenario presented by Salinger demonstrates what many political scientists have been arguing. The international arena is becoming more and more complex, and the number of international actors is increasing. It is not only a political elite that impacts world events, but private individuals, international organizations, groups within a nation-state, and of course, the media and public opinion. In the Iranian crisis for example, negotiations were conducted by a French lawyer and an Argentine businessman who were serving as intermediaries, by the Secretary General of the United Nations, by Yasir Arafat of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), David Rockefeller of Chase Manhattan Bank of New York, and by Islamic clergymen and university students.

Richard Falk, writing in a recent issue of the American Journal of International Law sees an important task of government as well as private individuals and non-governmental organizations. He expresses the hope that international law and its institutions can be refashioned in such a way that the Third World countries look to law as a means of effective conflict management on the international level. If international law is perceived as a Western invention to protect the strong, it loses its power.

Perhaps we can look forward to a redrafting of the Vienna Conventions on Diplomatic and Consular Relations as to more nearly balance the rights of the host country to political independence with the rights of the foreign country to diplomatic security.

The events in Iran show us that some clear rules of international law have been broken, but they also suggest that the content and impact of this law are arbitrary and one-sided. This may be the moment for individuals, churches, voluntary associations of various kinds to assert a human concern - that the future of international law is not only a matter for governments.[6]

References

[1]Alexander Papachriston, "International Adjunication: Embassy Seizure". United States v. Iran (1980) I.C.J. 3 Harvard International Law Journal, Volume 21, Fall 1980, pp. 748-756.

[2]Khomeini speaking to Mohammed Keikal, ABC News, "Americans Held Hostage: The Secret Negotiations", January 28, 1981.

[3]Interview with the Ayatollah Khomeini, Time, January 7, 1980, p. 27.

[4]Richard Falk, "The Iran Hostage Crisis: Easy Answers and Hard Questions", American Journal of International Law, Volume 74, Number 2, April 1980, pp. 411-417.

[5]Student militant quoted by John Kifner, "How a Sit-In Turned Into a Seige", New York Times Magazine, Special Issue: America in Captivity, May 1981, p. 63.

[6]Richard Falk, p. 416.

PERSPECTIVE III: ACTORS AND RELATIONSHIPS

LESSON PLAN #4

TITLE: "AMERICA HELD HOSTAGE: THE SECRET NEGOTIATIONS"

PURPOSE

In this lesson, students will recreate an abbreviated version of a journalist's report of the crisis in Iran. The report illustrates the diverse actors — individuals, nation-states, international organizations — who participated in the effort to gain the release of the American hostages. In the first segment, students will be introduced to the activity and assigned roles. In the second segment, students will recreate a newsbroadcast about the hostage negotiations. In the third segment, students debrief the activity and will group the actors encountered according to the typology previously introduced.

MATERIALS

"America Held Hostage: The Secret Negotiations". Source: Transcript of ABC News Special Report by Pierre Salinger, ABC-TV, January 28, 1981. (ABC News, 7 West 66th Street, New York, New York, 10023.)

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Preparing for a Simulated Broadcast

Explain that students will participate in a simulated TV news special, based on the ABC News Special Report by Pierre Salinger. The report highlights the role of the many international actors who participated in an effort to release the American hostages. The most difficult role is that of Salinger who will be telling the story, with brief cuts to the various characters who have an important part in the story. Before beginning the simulation, the teacher may wish to introduce the Iranian situation using information provided in Teacher Background, pp. 74-78.

Choose one of your most effective speakers fcr Salinger's role. Assign the roles for 10 students and have them face the class with name cards on their desks.

1. Pierre Salinger
2. Announcer
3. Habib Chatty
4. Bruno Kreisky
5. Christian Bourguet
6. Reporter
7. Hamilton Jordan
8. Jimmy Carter
9. Mike Connor
10. Robert Carswell

Visual Aids:
In addition, assign 2 or 5 students to be in charge of props for the broadcast. Salinger and the other role players should each have a name card with their names in large letters so the class can easily identify the speakers. Maps of the world, the Persian Gulf, Iran, United States, Europe and South America should be visible or could be flashed on a large screen during the broadcast. Pictures of the various participants in the crisis could be shown (perhaps with an opaque projector or using segments of a filmstrip on the hostages) as the story unfolds.

Observers

Divide the remainder of the class into four groups of observers who are studying different actors in the crisis

1. International Governmental Organizations (IGO's)
2. National governments and their officials
3. Intrastate organizations
4. Private individuals

Each group will note any actor mentioned during the broadcast that falls into their assigned category. *These lists will be put on the board after the broadcast, and each group will report its findings.*

Sample List

International Organizations

U.N. (Waldheim), U.N. Commission, Islamic Conference (composed of government officials representing 41 Islamic countries), and the PLO (Yasir Arafat).

National Governments and Their Officials

U.S. (Carter, Brzezinski, Jordan, Carswell, Marines, American embassy personnel), Iran (Bani-Sadr, Ghotbzadeh, Iranian Parliament Revolutionary Council), Tunisia, Panama, West Germany (Schmidt), Austria (Kreisky), Algerian delegation.

Intrastate Organizations, Groups

Iranian students, Islamic clergymen, Chase Manhattan Bank, Federal Reserve Bank of New York

Private Individuals

Kissinger, Rockefeller, Shah, Bourguet, Tabatabai

2. Conduct the Simulated Broadcast (pp. 58-61)

Refer your students to the transcript. Have students mark their parts and conduct the broadcast.*

3. Teacher-Directed Discussion

After the role play, lead a discussion of the various actors who participated in this international crisis, and the methods used to achieve their goals. The following questions might be included in such a discussion:

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*Complete 71 page transcript, "America Held Hostage: The Secret Negotiations", (January 28, 1981) is available from ABC News, 7 West 66th Street, New York, New York, 10023.

1. *Have the observer write their lists of actors on the chalkboard.* Ask the observers to explain the role that each international actor played in the hostage crisis. Ask the rest of the students if they have any additions to make to the lists or any disagreement with the categories in which certain actors have been placed.
   a. Who were the most important actors? Why?
   b. Was there any difference in the role played by national governments and such international organizations as the U.N. and the PLO?
   c. What roles can private individuals play that are difficult for government representatives to play?
   d. Why was Tabatabai important to the negotiations?

2. Why did the militant students seize the embassy?
   What did Iran want from the United States?
   (The return of the Shah)

3. Is it illegal to take over a foreign embassy?
   (Explain to the students the information about international law included in the Teacher Background.)

4. Why do you think there is a long-standing legal code that protects diplomatic personnel?
   (You might point out that communication between nations with different languages and cultures is greatly facilitated by embassy staff familiar with both countries. Embassies are also used to provide information on any charges occurring in a foreign country.)

5. Explain to the students that the International Court of Justice ruled that Iran violated an international legal code that protects diplomats, embassy personnel and property. Why didn't this high court's ruling put an end to the conflict?
   (Because Iran did not recognize the court's authority.)

6. What, if anything, can be done to prevent violations of international law such as the taking of hostages and embassy seizures?

7. What means were used to free the hostages in addition to an appeal to the International Court of Justice?

8 Read Falk's quotation in the Teacher Background Section to the class. What role does he see for church groups, individual and other private groups in affecting international law? Can these groups make an impact?

9. What did Pierre Salinger mean by his closing comment: (The hostages) "return home was a victory of the human spirit, but not a victory for America"?

10. One journalist has asked, "57,000,000 lives were lost in Vietnam. Why was there so much concern about the lives of the 52 American hostages in Iran?" How would the students answer his question?

PERSPECTIVE FOUR: WORLD ORDER

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history humanity has dreamed about the possibility of order and predictability in its affairs. Beginning with the earliest social units -- the family, the tribe, the village -- and moving to more sophisticated social and political structures such as cities and states, attempts have been made to assure peace and cooperation among people. They have not always been successful. War, social disruption, and strife also have cruelly marked the human experience. In our international experience, we hover somewhere between these dreams and nightmares -- searching for alternatives to chaos, but never quite realizing them.

In this perspective, we introduce students to several different models of world order -- both actual, historical examples and theoretical models. Students will examine how, in various periods of history, law and government brought order to the international domain. In the case of the Concert of Europe, for example, the "balance of power" model functioned for a hundred years, due in large part to the fact that the nations of Europe were fairly evenly matched in technological and military strength. Through such examples, students will learn that economic and political factors play a vital role in both the evolution and disintegration of any system of order.

Students will also examine international order in today's world and in the world of the future. Will there ever be effective world government? Would it be desirable? What form could it take? What is international law? Do nations abide by this law? What happens to international law when the political reality is that there are a few very strong nations and many weaker nations? How does the system we have today compare to past models of international order?

OVERVIEW

"World Order" often conjures up a vision of a world government, highly centralized and regimented, supported by an international police force and military. The novel 1984 offered visions of such a world. But when historians, political scientists and legal scholars use the term, they are usually referring to different models for ordering the relationships of human groups on an international scale. World order models may be regional in nature, such as the great Chinese dynasties or the organization of the Holy Roman Empire. There are models of world order, such as the view of our world as being bi-polar, in which the only important actors are major powers (U.S. and the U.S.S.R.). There also have been attempts at bringing order to human affairs by extending a significant role to all nations great and small. The League of Nations and the United Nations exemplify such experiments.

Historians have provided us with a glimpse of attempts at bringing order among states over time. In this perspective we will look at five such attempts: Early Empires, the Chinese and Roman; the Church and the Middle Ages; the Early Modern Era; the Concert of Europe; and the Collective Security organizations -- the League of Nations and the United Nations.

Another of the lessons to be learned from such a study is that the type of order created reflects the underlying political realities and concepts of that time be it one power hegemony, feudalism, sovereignty, nationalism, balance of power or bipolarity.

Throughout human history there have been many examples of efforts to establish order over a vast area of our globe. Rulers have used various means to control empires made up of diverse races, religions, and traditions. Some have tried

to extend their own legal system to include conquered peoples of other cultures. Yet, very few empire-builders respected the culture of the societies they controlled. Exploitation of people and natural resources was common. Obtaining the "consent of the governed" was not a cherished value: but bringing "civilization" as defined by the Chinese, Romans, Turks, Crusaders, Europeans, and many others, was an important goal.

In our survey, we look at two such attempts; the Chinese and the Roman. Both institutionalized their political influence over a wide array of peoples and large geographic regions. Through a centralized and creative administration, both controlled and ordered the world as they knew it. Law played a significant role, especially in the case of the Roman Empire. "Universal" Roman law as created in the Capitol and applied to the provinces, became a model for generations to come and had a significant impact on later western legal systems and philosophies.

The Middle Ages

With the breakup of Pax Romana, Roman Europe succumbed to a period of upheaval and political diffusion. Threatened by external foes from the north and east, people looked for protection by forming allegiances on the local level. These unstable political conditions gave rise to the early vestiges of feudalism with kings and nobles exercising control over relatively small areas. The local population swore fealty in exchange for a modicum of security. Still, mankind sought a stabilizing force for bringing order to what, in comparison to Pax Romana, must have seemed a brutal and chaotic time. Of all the institutions of the Middle Ages, the Church offered the best chance of fulfilling the role once held by Rome. It could provide a moral voice, even if it were unable in any ongoing way to provide the military and political muscle to impose order.

To shore up the defunct "universal" Roman law, the notion of a "Natural Law" complemented by the Church's ecclesiastical law developed. Drawing on Greek and Roman ideas, medieval philosophers contended that there existed a body of legal principles and a sense of right that applied to all people everywhere. Moreover, its precepts could be discovered through the processes of apriori reasoning. In effect, natural law existed "in the air" merely waiting for the embrace of right-thinking men, no matter what their position in life might be. In addition, since the Church's law applied to all Christians, it too functioned in what is now the international domain. The sanctity of treaties, the right to make war, and arbitration all came under the auspices of the Pope.

The Early Modern Era

The Thirty Years War ushered in a new era. What began as a religious feud among medieval societies, ended with the birth of modern states and the secularization of Europe. Gone forever was the preeminent role of the Roman Catholic Church and its Holy Roman Empire in political affairs. To meet the new realities the doctrine of Sovereignty developed. It held that the highest authority possible rested in the hands of the heads of theoretically equal states. To each monarch within his or her domain passed the mantle which once cloaked Popes and Roman Emperors. Although the notion of Sovereignty did address the new political reality in Europe, it also raised some thorny questions. If there was no higher authority than the individual states, what authority could regulate them domestically or internationally? If quarrels arose among them, who would arbitrate? Would a cycle of endless war with nothing to determine who was right and who was wrong be mankind's fate? Certainly, each monarch was answerable to his own god, through the divine right of kings, but what if the same god gave different messages.

The first hint of an answer, philosophically at least, came from the work of Hugo Grotius and other scholars.

Grotius approached the problem in terms of war. He posited that wars were "just" or "unjust" using factors such as the motivation of the states and the cause involved. More importantly, the principle was advanced that the actions of states were not above law, but instead, just as individuals were bound by a natural law, so were states. From this early "law of nations" evolved our modern ideas about international law.

The Concert of Europe

Essential to the political system between 1818 and 1914 was the concept of the "balance of power". Through shifting alliances, the Europeans aligned themselves in such a way that no one side was clearly militarily stronger than another. Hence, a certain stability was reached and all-out wars were avoided for nearly one hundred years. Because of this system which promoted a certain stability on the Continent, Europe was able to dictate policy to the rest of the world. International politics, and for that matter law, became Europeanized in a way never before possible. Colonial nations often learned to their detriment the reality of this new state of affairs.

At the same time, the rise of nationalism fostered the emergence of the concept of consent. The European nations held fast to the belief that no state, at least no powerful state, could be forced to accede to a higher will than its own. The applicability of international law was thus held to be limited to situations in which a state assented through treaty, accord or international agreement.

Ultimately, the Concert of Europe, relatively stable for so long, was doomed when the European powers were dragged into the First World War by their entangling alliances.

Collective Security

This century has seen two attempts to bring world order through the use of international organizations, the League of Nations and the United Nations. In both cases, membership was extended to nations all over the world. Both were designed to be a forum for settling international conflict, a source for international law and to provide a peacekeeping function through collective security. Under collective security, nations foreswear the use of force in international disputes and pledge to come to the aid of nations who are attacked by aggressors. With both examples, problems arise in defining "aggression" and in getting signatory nations to agree to act.

Further complicating the work of these international organizations has been the century's complex and difficult political and economic realities. For example, how can collective security be effective in the face of a Great Depression or bipolarity when two super powers have the power to annihilate the globe?

DESCRIPTION AND INFUSION KEY

Lesson Plan 1: Building An Empire
This lesson Plan begins the exploration of historical and future models for world order. Students will explore the scope and impact of the Chinese and Roman Empire in ancient history, pages 91-95.

Lesson Plan 2: The Rise of the Nation-State
This Lesson Plan examines the rise of the nation-state, the concept of national sovereignty, and the development of international law to meet the new political realities which resulted, pages 96-102.

Lesson Plan 3: The Concert of Europe
This Lesson Plan focuses on the balance of power system as it functioned among the nations of 19th Century Europe. In a case study, students will examine the impact of this system on a non-European area of the world, through the division of Africa by the European powers, pages 103-109.

Lesson Plan 4: Collective Security - The League of Nations
This Lesson Plan introduces the theory of collective security and the evolution of the League of Nations. The limitations of this collective security system are then examined in terms of the Ethiopian crisis of 1934-36, pages 110-116.

Lesson Plan 5: A New World Order
In this Lesson Plan, students consider the future. In so doing, students will be asked to analyze and discuss a number of hypothetical models of world order and develop one of their own for use by future generations, pages 117-118.

PERSPECTIVE IV: WORLD ORDER

Lesson Plan #1

TITLE: BUILDING AN EMPIRE

PURPOSE

In this lesson students will encounter two empires, one built by the Han Dynasty in China and the other empire built by the Romans in Europe and the Mediterranean. The introductory lessons focus on the geographical scope of these two empires. The next lessons show the various means used to bring order to a vast empire, filled with diverse peoples and cultures.

MATERIALS

1.) The Roman Peace. Source: Donald R. Dudley, The Civilization of Rome, (New York: New American Library, 1962), pp. 179-180.

2.) The Early Imperial Age. Source: H. Kublin, China, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972), pp. 51-55.

3.) Roman Law. Source: R. R. Palmer, J. Colton, A History of The Modern World, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Incorporated, 1971), pp. 11-12.

4.) How Scholars Reigned. Source: H. Kublin, China: Selected Readings, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972), pp. 71-76.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Individual Work: "The Roman Peace", page 64.
Have students read "The Roman Peace" and locate the area described on a map. You may wish to have them draw maps of the Roman Empire. Review the reading with the following discussion questions:

- How much of the world was covered by the Roman Peace?
  (Use the map to help students visualize the extent of the Roman Empire in Europe, Asia and Africa.)

- Why do you think the term Roman Peace was used to describe the System imposed by Rome?
  (Students should understand that the Romans imposed peace and order in the regions under their control.)

- What helped hold the Roman Empire together?
  (Use of military force, roads, the use of a single currency, law, religious toleration.)

2. Reading and Discussion: "The Early Imperial Age", pages 64-65. *Refer students to the reading selection. Following these readings, focus the discussion on the geographical location of the Chinese Empire.* Use a timeline to orient the students to what was happening in both the East and the West during these times.

   Discussion Questions:

   - When was the Chinese Empire founded?
     (246 B.C., Ch'in Dynasty)

   - How did the Emperor protect his empire?
     (Using his armies, he crushed all resistance. He drafted one million men to build the Great Wall.)

   - How much of the world was covered by the Chinese Empire in 750 A.D.?

(Note on the map that the T'ang Dynasty ruled over much of what is now China, Tibet, Nepal and Korea as well as portions of Vietnam, India, Afghanistan and the Soviet Union.)

- What kind of contact was there between the Roman Empire and China?
  (During the Han Dynasty, silks from China were traded for Roman glass, horses, precious stones, ivory and cloth by means of the Silk Road trade route. Ideas and cultural influences were also exchanged during this period.)

2. Reading and Discussion: "Roman Law", page 66.
After the students have read the selection, lead a discussion focusing on the means used by the Romans to administer their great empire.

Discussion Questions:

- What were the advantages of the political unification of a large part of the Western world under the Romans? What were the disadvantages?
  (Advantages: Generations of peace, trade of goods and ideas. Disadvantages: Loss of self-governing and republican institutions as conquests expanded.)

- Did the Romans use the principles of self-government with the conquered peoples?
  (No, these principles were largely restricted to the city of Rome and to their early history.)

- What was the Roman view of law?
  (There is a higher, universal law, the law of Nature, by which fair decisions can be made. Law derives its association with official power. These two ideas combined to make it possible for the Romans to apply a kind of "international law" to the many peoples in the Empire.)

- Why was Roman law and administrative ability important to the administration of the Empire?
  (The Romans had to maintain the peace over a large territory which included peoples of differing religions and local customs. This necessitated talents in management and coordination as well as a flexible and "universal" system of laws that are acceptable to all peoples.)

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION

Reading and Small Group Discussion: "How Scholars Reigned" page 66.

After students have read the selection, divide them into groups and focus the discussion on the following questions:

- What does the Chinese proverb quoted in the reading mean?

  "An empire can be conquered, but it cannot be ruled from horseback."

  (Students should understand that military force can be used to defeat other rulers and their people, but other means must be found to successfully administer an empire.)

- What is a civil service system?
  (In this system, government jobs are obtained by those who qualify after taking an examination. This is different from systems in which a successful military general, a relative of the ruler, or a political supporter receives a government appointment.)

- Why was the Chinese civil service system important to the administration of the Chinese empire?
  (Scholar-bureaucrats were placed in government positions. These men valued social harmony, stability, tradition and custom. They were able to keep complex records and knew the laws of the land.)

- Who was Confucius? What was Confucian philosophy?
  (This might be a research project for interested students, or the class can use resources at hand to find an answer to the question.)

LESSON PLAN #2

TEACHER BACKGROUND INFORMATION

FEUDALISM

The notable feature of feudalism was its mutual or reciprocal character. In this it differed from the old Roman imperial principle, by which the emperor had been a majestic and all-powerful sovereign. Under feudalism no one was sovereign. King and people, lord and vassal, were joined in a kind of contract. Each owed something to the other. If one defaulted, the obligation ceased. If a vassal refused his due services, the king had the right to enforce compliance. If the king violated the rights of the vassal, the vassals could join together against him. The king was supposed to act with the advice of the vassals, who formed his council or court. If the vassals believed the king to be exceeding his lawful powers, they could impose terms upon him. It was out of this mutual or contractual character of feudalism that ideas of constitutional government later developed.

Feudalism applied in the strict sense only to the military or noble class. Below the feudal world lay the vast mass of the peasantry. Here, in the village, the lowliest vassal of a higher noble was lord over his own subjects. The village, with its people and surrounding farmlands, constituted a "manor", the estate of a lord. In the eleventh century most people of the manor were serfs. They were "bound to the soil" in that they could not leave the manor without the lord's permission. Few wanted to leave anyway, at a time when the world beyond the village was unknown and dangerous, and filled at best only with other similar manors in which opportunities were no different.

The lord, for his part, could not expropriate the villagers or drive them away. He owed them protection and the administration of justice. They in turn worked his fields, and gave him part of the produce of their own. No money changed hands, because there was virtually no money in circulation. The manorial system was the agricultural base on which a ruling class was supported.

Source: R. R. Palmer, Joel Colton, A History of the Modern World, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1971), p. 26.

PERSPECTIVE IV: WORLD ORDER

Lesson Plan #2

TITLE: THE RISE OF THE NATION-STATE

PURPOSE

This lesson will help students understand the changing political climate in Europe which gave rise to a new entity - the nation or state. National sovereignty also gave rise to new developments in international law, as philosophers and statesmen tried to find ways to maintain peace among the new powerful nation-states. The introductory reading shows the building of nations in Europe, using Henry II in England as an example. This is followed by an activity in which students are introduced to the idea of natural law. A case study concludes the lesson, illustrating how the famous Dutch lawyer, Hugo Grotius, developed the doctrine of freedom of the seas.

MATERIALS

1.) "The Development of Nations". Source: T. Walter Wallbank, History and Life, (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1980), pp. 331-332, 334.

2.) "Sovereignty".

3.) "Hugo Grotius and the Search For International Laws".

4.) "Analyzing A Historical Document: Freedom of the Seas". Source: Helen Garvey, National Catholic Education Association, and Eric Scott, San Gabriel High School, Who Owns the Seas, (Berkeley: NCEA Peace Studies Program, 1975.)

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Lecture: There are four important concepts introduced in this lesson: feudalism, the nation-state, sovereignty, and natural law. Present a lecture highlighting these concepts, using the following background material.

NATION AND NATION-STATE: The introductory reading lists three characteristics of the nation-state: 1.) its central government is strong enough to defend itself against enemies; 2.) a nation's people are set off from neighboring groups by language, religion, traditions, and way of life; 3.) the people are loyal and proud of the group; this feeling is called nationalism or patriotism. The concept of a "nation-state" is a relatively new idea.

> For us, "nation" and "state" seem interchangeable. But this is, in fact, quite a new concept. If we had been discussing the matter in the sixteenth century, we should not have mentioned the word "nation-state". Certainly, we should have talked about "the state", but we should have been referring only to the center of political authority...the power itself might be exercised by a dynasty, or by a conqueror, or a free city, or the Pope himself.*

Although these two terms - nation and state - are thus used interchangeably in most textbooks, you may wish to call the students' attention to the fact that "state" refers to a political unit into which people have coalesced and "nation" refers to a group of people who feel a sense of common identity. During the past century, peoples sharing a sense of national identity or "nationalism" have often attempted to become self-governing, sovereign political units. The term "nation-state" is often used to refer to sovereign political units comprised of citizens sharing a common sense of national identity.

SOVEREIGNTY: This concept is defined in the reading by Jean Bodin (1530-1596). "Each state is legally equal to all others and there is no higher authority than the state." Whether that state is a dictatorship or a democracy, its government exercises the final power - it can impose policies and achieve its will. Citizens owe total loyalty to their state, not some higher power.

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*Barbara Ward, Five Ideas That Change the World, New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1959, p. 18.

NATURAL LAW: The notion of "laws of nature" was a Roman idea. It held that what ties all people together is their minds, their ability to reason. Using reason, an ability given by nature, people could comprehend universal laws that would be valid for all people and for all times. Also see Teacher Overview pages 86-88, 98.

Reading and Discussion: "The Development of Nations", page 67. *Refer students to: "The Development of Nations". After students have completed the reading, lead a class discussion focusing on the rise of nationalism.*

Discussion Questions:

- What was the feudal system in Europe?
- Why did the feudal system grow weaker?
  (The many separate governments of the lords and vassals did not help trade or travel. Larger units of government could provide common laws, money and offer protection of people and property.)
- What kind of political organization replaced the feudal system?
  (Bigger, stronger units called nations or states.)
- What are the characteristics of a nation? How is it different from an empire?
  (See Concept Building for the definition of natior. Nations differ from empires in that the people share a common culture and have a sense of loyalty to the nation. Empires encompassed vast areas made up of many conquered people who varied in religion, race, lifestyle, etc.)

- How did Henry II use the law to help him unify England into one nation?
  (The royal or national law was fairer and better run than the other kinds of law. Custom and court decisions accumulated into a body of common law. Traveling judges helped to create this common law by combining legal opinions from the royal court with local legal customs.)

- How has the American legal system been influenced by the reign of Henry II?
  (Colonialists brought common law ideas with them to America; circuit courts, in which a judge has an assigned territory in which he tours, also became a part of the American legal system.)

DEVELOPMENT

1. Small Group Work (See page 67)

Divide the class into small groups or into pairs of students. Refer each small group to the selection entitled "SOVEREIGNTY" and have them quietly read this short piece. Then ask each group to brainstorm together advantages and disadvantages of a system of national sovereignty. They should think about the empire and the feudal system when they think of the benefits as well as the problems national sovereignty would cause. Each group should make a list of the strengths and weaknesses of such a system. Have them write their ideas in chart form:

NATIONAL SOVEREIGNTY

Strengths of the System	Weaknesses of the System

2. Reading and Discussion

Begin a chart on the chalkboard, using contributions from each small group. Encourage the students to speculate on what could happen with this system of world order. Would there be more or less warfare than would exist under an empire?

Refer students to the selection "Hugo Grotius and the Search for International Law", on page 68, explain to the students that philosophers struggled with the various problems that they have identified in their charts. One of those thinkers was Grotius, known as the father of international law. *Allow time in class for this reading, or assign it for homework.* The next day's lesson will be based on the ideas of Grotius.

APPLICATION

1. Individual Work: "Analyzing An Historical Document", p. 68.
   Refer students to Grotius' doctrine of "Freedom of the Seas". Ask each student to rewrite this legal doctrine in his or her own words and explain how Grotius has tried to solve one of the problems caused by national sovereignty.

2. Discussion
   Ask several students to read their explanation of Grotius. Review the idea of "natural law" and why it became important at this time in history.

PERSPECTIVE IV
Lesson Plan # 3
Background Information

STATES AND NATIONS

Before 1860 there were two prominent nation-states -- Great Britain and France . . . The characteristic political organizations were small states comprising fragments of a nation, such as were strewn across the middle of Europe -- Hanover, Baden, Sardinia, Tuscany, or the Two Sicilies -- and large sprawling empires made up of all sorts of peoples, distantly ruled from above by dynasties and bureaucracies, such as the Romanov, Habsburg and Ottoman domains.

Since 1860 or 1870, a nation-state system has prevailed . . . A nation-state may be thought of as one in which supreme political authority somehow rests upon and represents the will and feeling of its inhabitants. The people must basically will and feel something in common. They must sense that they belong -- that they are members of a community, participating somehow in a common life; that the government is their government, and that outsiders are "foreign". A nation may also possess a belief in common descent or racial origin (however mistaken), or a sense of a common external menace.

In the nineteenth century, governments found that they could not effectively rule, or develop the full powers of state, except by enlisting this sense of membership and support among their subjects. The consolidation of large nation-states had two distinguishable phases. Territorially, it meant the union of preexisting smaller states. Morally and psychologically it meant the creation of new ties between government and governed, the admission of new segments of the population to political life . . . National consolidation favored constitutional progress.[1]

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[1]R.R. Palmer and J. Colton, "Nation-States", from A History of the Modern World, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1971), pp. 557-559.

PERSPECTIVE IV: WORLD ORDER

Lesson Plan #3

TITLE: THE CONCERT OF EUROPE

PURPOSE

This lesson will help students understand the idea of balance of power as it functioned in Europe during the 19th century The lesson begins with a reading on the Concert of Europe in which European powers tried to organize peaceful relations among themselves. Then students work in small groups to analyze an international conference in which the African continent was divided among the major European powers.

The second reading, "Exploiting a Continent by Gentleman's Agreement", raises the problem of international law as the law of the strong, in this case, Western Europe, and its impact on the weak, the many cultures of the 19th century Africa. The cooperation at Bismarck's conference in Berlin among the Europeans brought peace in Europe and established some important principles of international law.

The lesson concludes with an individual assignment in which students write an essay from the point of view of international lawyers representing the interests of African peoples.

MATERIALS

1.) "The Concert that Brought a Century of Peace". Source: D. W. Oliver and F. M. Newmann, Organizations Among Nations, Public Issues Series/Harvard Social Studies Project, (Middleton, Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1970), pp. 7-9.

2.) "Exploiting a Continent By Gentleman's Agreement". Source: D. W. Oliver and F. M. Newmann, Diplomacy and International Law, Public Issues Series/ Harvard Social Studies Project, (Middletown, Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1970), pp. 7-10.

3.) Worksheet: "Exploiting a Continent..."

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

In this lesson, students will be introduced to a model of international order, balance of power. In this model, there is no central peacekeeping institution, but a series of fluid alliances. If one alliance becomes too strong, a nation might join another alliance system to balance the division of power.

Student reading: "The Concert that Brought a Century of Peace" introduces the concept of the following paragraph:

> Britain played a key role by switching its power from one alliance to another, or from one place to another, as soon as one or more nations became too powerful. This system of discouraging large-scale war was called the balance of power. It differed from the empire system, in which a single conqueror tried to keep the peace. It also differed from the anarchical situation where no country went out of its way to try to keep peace.

Reading and Discussion: "The Concert that Brought a Century of Peace"
Have students read "The Concert that Brought a Century of Peace", on pages 69-70. After students have read the article, lead a class discussion focusing on the nature of the Concert of Europe and the concept of the balance of power. (See pages 88-103)

Discussion Questions:

- Who were the major European powers in 1815? (Look at the map of Europe during this period. Point out France, Britain, Russia, Austria and Prussia.)

- Why did the leaders of Europe decide to form a Concert after the Napoleonic Wars? (Students should recall that it was designed to try to avoid costly wars.)

- How were the members of the Concert going to make decisions and enforce them?
  (By calling conferences and contributing military forces.)

- Why did the Concert succeed in keeping peace for nearly a century?
  (Students should understand that the system worked because the strengths of the major nations were evenly balanced, and no one nation or group could conquer the rest.)

- Why was this political situation called a balance of power?
  (Because if one nation or group of nations got too powerful, other nations could form an effective counter alliance.)

- How does "a balance of power system" differ from an Empire System?
  (Students should understand that with a balance of power system no one conquerer or nation kept the peace, but instead it was accomplished by all the countries together.)

- What international organizations were formed during this time? Were these organizations successful? Why?
  (Functional organizations such as the Telegraphic Union, the International Bureau of Weights and Measures, and the International Postal Union were designed to deal with specific problems on an ongoing basis.)

- What are some examples of international law created by the Concert?
  (Students might identify: 1.) the Hague conventions on the conduct of war; 2.) the development of the Court of Arbitration to help settle disputes.)

DEVELOPMENT

1. Reading and Small Group Work: "Exploiting a Continent By Gentleman's Agreement", pages 70-71.

Have students read "Exploiting a Continent By Gentleman's Agreement". After students have read the article, divide them into small groups of five to seven students. Distribute the worksheet. Each student should complete the worksheet with the help of the small group. (See page 72)

2. Large Group Discussion

After the students have finished the worksheets, collect them and review the answers. (For the worksheet answers see pp. 108-9.) Begin the large group discussion by reading again this paragraph from the article:

> "Simultaneously", said one diplomat, "we have served the cause of religion, of peace, of humanity, and enlarged the domain of public international law."

Ask the class if they agree with this statement made by one of the European diplomats at the conclusion of the conference. Encourage students to express their viewpoints, and to clarify the reasons and values underlying their views.

APPLICATION

Individual Work: Writing an Essay

Explain to the students that they will now explore what might have happened at Bismarck's Berlin Conference if there had been some international legal mechanism by which the African tribes could present their side of the case.

Have students imagine that they are "international lawyers" representing the interests of the African people at the European/African conference. Have them develop a memo in which they state their position concerning the division of Africa by the European powers.

EXPLOITING A CONTINENT BY GENTLEMEN'S AGREEMENT

WORKSHEET ANSWERS

- Who did Henry Stanley represent in Africa?
  (Students should recall that it was the King of Belgium)

- What was the purpose of Stanley's third operation?
  (Students should recall that he went into areas previously unexplored by Europeans to establish trading area, negotiate with African chiefs and claim land.)

- How did Stanley proceed when his expedition reached a favorable location?
  (Students should recall that he carved out a trading post, used trade goods for bargaining, and negotiated a final treaty.)

- Do you think the African chiefs understood the significance of the treaties they signed? Why?
  (Students will probably conclude that given the cultural differences between Stanley and the chiefs in terms of ideas about land and agreements the chiefs did not understand.)

- Do you think the methods Stanley used were fair? Why?
  (Students should state and support their opinions.)

- How did the other European powers react to Stanley's expedition? Which countries were involved?
  (Britain, France, Germany, Spain and Portugal all began scrambling and competing for land and trading rights in Africa.)

- How did the Europeans resolve their differences? (Students should recall that representatives of the various nations attended a conference in Berlin at the invitation of Bismarck to consider the question of Africa.)

- What agreements and rules came out of the conference? 1.) Free navigation of African waterways; 2.) the division of African territories among the Europeans.)

- What complaints did the other representatives have to Stanley's treaties?
  (That the treaties were made merely to explore the areas, and the authority of the chiefs who signed were taken for granted.)

- How did Stanley defend the validity of the treaties?

- Do you think the African chiefs understood the Western legal ideas of "free will", "without coercion", "substantial consideration", "conditions", "sovereignty", and "ownership"? Why or why not?

PERSPECTIVE IV: WORLD ORDER

Lesson Plan #4

TITLE: COLLECTIVE SECURITY: THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

PURPOSE

This lesson will help students understand how collective security functioned as a system to maintain international order. After a teacher-directed lesson in which the concept is explained in the context of the League of Nations, students will read a case study of the Ethiopia Crisis (1934-1936). The Ethiopian case illustrates the interplay between the ideal of collective action against an aggressor, in this case Italy, and the reality of the political climate in which Hitler is growing in power.

MATERIALS

"The Ethiopia Crisis, 1934-36". Source: Jack R. Fraenkel, Margaret Carter and Betty Rearden, Peacekeeping in series Perspectives in World Order, (New York: Random House, Inc., 1973), pp. 29-34.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

This lesson introduces students to the concept of collective security. This model of world order seeks to bring peace among nations by confronting any aggressor with the power of all of the others. Thus, anyone can be a potential enemy against which the others will unite. This is different from balance of power system because it is based on a rather stable, fixed system in which territorial change is not allowed.

Collective security as it functioned in the League of Nations allowed only a few of the nations of the world to belong to the Council, and provided no armed forces that could be used by the organization. The League could recommend individual or collective actions to settle disputes, but had no direct means to settle conflicts.

1. Reading and Small Group Work: The Ethiopia Crisis, pages 73-75.

Have students read "The Ethiopia Crisis, 1934-36". Introduce the case by explaining that the Ethiopians brought before the Council of the League of Nations a charge of aggression against the Italians.

Divide the class into small groups. Working in small groups the students will have an opportunity to examine the evidence against Italy and the early actions of the Council. The reading ends with an Italian victory and a declaration that Italy intended to annex Ethiopia.

The problem each small group faces is what the League should do next. Remind the groups of the political realities of the moment. Hitler is rearming Germany and Mussolini pledges that he will not fight Hitler unless the Ethiopian dispute is settled to his satisfaction.

Each small group should read the selection and answer the following questions before deciding on the proper course of action for the League. You may wish to write these questions on the chalkboard while students meet in their groups to read the piece.

Small Group Discussion Questions:

1. What were the first actions taken by the Council of the League of Nations against Italy?
   (An embargo against Italy. Members of the League should not send arms, make loans, or export certain war related products to Italy, nor should they import any Italian goods.)

2. What is an "embargo"? Why was an oil embargo considered to be important?
   (An embargo is a ban on trade, in this case, trade with Italy. Italy imported almost all its oil and oil was needed to keep up the war against Ethiopia. However, the United States, Italy's major oil supplier, was not a member of the League and refused to stop selling oil to Italy.)

3. What international laws were broken by Italy?
   (Territorial aggression, use of poison gas.)

4. Why was Hitler important to the members of the League?
   (He was threatening European territorial security.)

5. After Italy declared that it was annexing Ethiopia, what options did the League have?

6. What do you think the League should have done next? For what reasons?

2. Teacher-Directed Class Discussion

After the small groups have met and reached a decision, ask a representative of each group to report their decision and reasons to the class.

Then report to the class the actions that the League actually took and the options that were considered. (See below.) Ask the students for their reactions to the League's decision that all sanctions should be dropped.

* * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Information for Teacher-Directed Discussion

THREE CHOICES of action were considered by the League:

- To recognize the annexation as an accomplished fact and lift its sanctions against Italy.
- To continue to enforce sanctions until Italy, humbled, agreed to a settlement within the framework of the League Covenant.
- To take some drastic measure, such as closing the Suez Canal, in order to bring Italy to terms.

During the month between Council meetings, the nations pondered these alternatives. None was enthusiastic about the third. Some objected to continuing the sanctions, which had neither prevented war nor succeeded in stopping it.

All seemed in awe of Mussolini. To antagonize the Italian leader would be, in the words of Neville Chamberlain of England, "the very midsummer of madness". If Mussolini could be pacified, all the nations of the League would be able to concern themselves with that greater danger, Hitler.

The League looked to Britain for leadership. Britain decided on June 18, to recommend that sanctions be dropped. The Council reconvened on June 30.

Italy sent not a representative but a note. This message was the report of progress in "civilizing Ethiopia". Haile Selassie was present to hear it.

SELASSIE took the floor and described the horrors that Ethiopia had endured and then went on to warn:

> "It is not merely a question of the settlement of Italian aggression [that is at stake in the League's decision]. It is collective security; it is the very existence of the League of Nations."
>
> "It is the confidence that each State is to place in...treaties. It is the value of promises made to small States that their integrity [boundaries] and their independence shall be respected...In a word it is international morality that is at stake..."

His warning went unheeded. Four days later the Assembly of the League of Nations voted to end all measures it had taken to defend Ethiopia.

* * * * * * * * * * * * * *

You may also wish to raise the following questions during your discussion.

- What actions did the League of Nations finally take in response to Ethiopia's request for help? Were these actions strong enough to affect the situation significantly? Should the League have mobilized a police force and sent it to the aid of Ethiopia?

(The League's only actor was the 4-point embargo. Without an oil embargo the action was not enough to stop Mussolini.)

- One of Italy's arguments for going into Ethiopia was the charge that Ethiopia was still an uncivilized nation - for example, it still practiced slavery. Was Italy or Ethiopia the more decent nation? How relevant is a nation's "level of civilization" in deciding whether its public policies are justified?

- Would you subscribe to the general principle that if powerful nations ensure their own citizens healthful and humane treatment, they have an obligation to spread this treatment to people in other nations? If you agree with the principle, would you place any limitations on the ways you would use to carry it out? (For example, would you allow the more humane nation to use military force for any purpose than self-defense?)

- After World War II, the United States occupied Japan for ten years. During this period of time, many Japanese institutions including those for government and education were seriously transformed. To what extent was the United States justified in attempting to make Japan into a more egalitarian, more just or fair, and more peaceful nation through outright occupation? How is this similar to or different from Italy's goals and actions in Ethiopia?

- During the Ethiopian crisis, English leaders feared that Hitler would try to conquer Europe. They recalled that World War I had killed hundreds of their young men. They feared that another world war would leave them under the control of Nazis or else would drain their resources so that they would lose their leading role in world affairs. Hitler, not Mussolini, they reasoned, was the major danger.

  The strategy of the English was to encourage Mussolini's opposition to Hitler by not taking strong measures against Italy in Ethiopia. Suppose this strategy had worked. Suppose that World War II had been avoided by English, French, Russian and Italian troops stopping Hitler's first military moves. Suppose Hitler had been assassinated, the Nazis had eventually lost power, and Britain had remained a highly powerful nation.

  In other words, what was more important - saving Ethiopia and risking a major war or sacrificing her in the hope of preventing war? In view of these circumstances, was England justified in not leading the League into taking strong measures against Italy?

PERSPECTIVE IV: WORLD ORDER

Lesson Plan #5

TITLE: A NEW WORLD ORDER

PURPOSE

This lesson focuses on the future and the possible systems of world order that may govern our world. Five hypothetical models are introduced in the first activity, followed by a discussion of one of the models, a centralized world government. The lesson concludes with an essay assignment in which students describe a world order system that they favor and the goals that they think such a system could achieve.

MATERIALS

1.) "Analyzing Five World Political Organizations", Source: Byron G. Massialas and Jack Zevin, World Order in series World History Through Inquiry, (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1971), p. 53.

2.) "Resolving Crises", Massialas and Zevin, p. 54.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Reading in Small Groups: "Analyzing Five World Political Organizations" In this activity, students will examine possible models for organizing the world in the near and more distant future.

Have students read the selection "Analyzing Five World Political Organizations". It may be beneficial to read the characteristics of each model aloud and before breaking into small groups. Explain to students that what they see are five hypothetical models for organizing law, government, and economics. (See page 76)

Refer to "Resolving Crises", page 77. Divide the class into six groups and make the following assignments:

Group 1 Resolve crisis #1
Group 2 Resolve crisis #2
Group 3 Resolve crisis #3
Group 4 Resolve crisis #4
Group 5 Answer general questions 1-3
Group 6 Answer general questions 4-6

After the groups have had sufficient time to record their answers, ask one student from each group to explain that group's assignment and conclusions to the class.

APPLICATION

Individual Work: Writing an Essay on a Model of World Order
Review some of the models of world order - historical and hypothetical that they have been studying. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each system.

Ask each student to write an essay in which they explain a system that they favor, and which would provide for the resolution of international conflict. Consider as a class some of the goals that might be important to such a system:

Economic Justice
Peace
Political Justice
Political Stability
Protection of human life
Protection of the global system
Territorial integrity
Use of the law to resolve disputes

PERSPECTIVE V: CONFLICT

INTRODUCTION

Nothing is more inevitable than conflict. Life is filled with it-in homes, in communities, and in national politics. Just as conflict arises among individuals with different interests and beliefs, conflicts also arise between and among actors in the international scene. Some disputes are minor and arise out of the day-to-day business of international affairs: Who is violating an international contract? What damages are owed for the accidental destruction of a cargo vessel? Who controls the fishing rights in a particular area of the sea? Many such conflicts are settled peacefully with the normal give and take of all human and business relations. Yet, when conflicts are not resolved and when they involve nation-states, they can lead to blood and destructive wars.

Even before the advent of nuclear weapons, war had become so terrible as to counsel the search for almost any alternative in settling disputes. With the development of the hydrogen bomb and effective delivery systems, the avoidance of total war took on an added significance; we were no longer merely trying to avoid destruction, we were trying to avoid annihilation. As a result, the search for effective methods for managing international conflict has become the most critical human priority.

In spite of the logic of this new reality, there seems to exist in the fiber of humanity a countertendency. We have relied on warriors too long to completely forswear their methods. We bridle at world conditions beyond our normal power to control and seek solutions through greater defense expenditures, more sophisticated arms, and more effective military strategies. The madness of the debate over 'first strike capability' and launch on warning somehow gets lost in a barrage of technical terms and dispassionate statistics. Unthinkable questions such as, "can a nuclear war be won?"are thought about.

On a local level these issues are mirrored in debates over the draft, government defense contracts, and television commericials calling for "A Few Good Men". Given the pctential danger, can our or any other country afford what amounts to national machismo in international affairs?

In this perspective, we ask students to examine alternatives to international coercion and war and to consider ways in which international law might be used to minimize the destructiveness they bring. Although alternatives have not always been successful and new ones are needed, without them there is little hope for the future.

PERSPECTIVE V: CONFLICT

OVERVIEW

In this perspective, we will explore some of the kinds of conflict that arise between and among actors in the international arena and some of the common methods employed in resolving or minimizing conflict. In structuring these materials, we have selected issues which have special application to the world today and which presumably humanity will face in the years to come. As such, this perspective should appeal to teachers dealing with contemporary problems, recent United States History, Civics and Government. On completing this perspective, we hope students will have a better understanding of the options available for dealing with international conflict, the strengths and weaknesses of current methods, and the problems which face those who must attempt to resolve the thorny disputes that often arise. Specifically, students will come to understand that:

- Conflict can arise from many sources - ecological, territorial, economic, ideological and political.

- Conflict management strategies include negotiation, mediation, arbitration, adjudication and coercion.

INITIAL CONSIDERATIONS

As a preliminary operation, students are asked to identify some basic elements of an international conflict solution: 1.) the parties involved, what international actors are involved in the conflict?; 2.) the source, what is the source of the international conflict?

Parties could include nation-states or countries; international governmental organizations, such as the U.N. or the O.A.S.; international non-governmental organizations, such as the Red Cross or Amnesty International; multi-national businesses, such as United Trust; and individuals. Sources could include political, economic, religious, territorial, ideological or a combination of tension.

For example, in Gullivers Travels, Lilliput and Blefescu went to war over how to crack an egg. The parties involved were the countries of Lilliput and Blefescu. The source of the conflict was ideological.

Naturally, not all international conflicts are so simple to characterize. Multiple parties and multiple sources are common. When students are analyzing such conflicts, the teacher should point out the complexities and the difference of opinion that arise over the true parties in interest and the true source of the conflict. The most important aspect of the exercise is to begin asking questions and not to find pat answers.

In situations where the source of a conflict is difficult to isolate, it is often helpful to have students identify the underlying values and interests of the parties involved. These often take the form of contentions or beliefs about the wrongdoing of the other party; are found in stated goals; or are crowded in economic, political, religious, and/or ideological terms.

INTERNATIONAL CONFLICT RESOLUTION TECHNIQUES

Processes for the management of conflict include both what might be called judicial and non-judicial means. Examples of the latter include negotiation, the participation of third parties, the use of commissions and investigative bodies and the intervention of international organizations.

Judicial examples include arbitration (i.e. settlement by a third person group or body whose decisions are binding) and actual adjudication (i.e. placing the matter before a recognized, formal international court).

In these materials, students will concentrate on the techniques of negotiations between countries, arbitration, intervention of international organizations and adjudication.

INTERVENTION OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

International Organizations such as the United Nations and the Organization of American States have within their charters, provisions for the peaceful resolution of conflicts. Typically, these provisions empower the organization to save a fact finding function concerning the dispute and mediation role between the parties. In addition, international organizations can make binding decisions and enforce them by use of the armed forces provided by member states. This latter option has not been consistently or widely used because of the difficulty in getting political agreement among powerful signatories. International organizations do have other enforcement options including economic and political sanctions which can be used against offending states. In addition, once an international body has made a negative determination about an offending action of a state, the force of world opinion may persuade compliance. Questions remain under international law about whether international organizations have the authority to intervene against non-members. Although, provisions exist in the U.N. charter giving it the authority to act against non-members if peace is threatened, their legal validity has never been satisfactorily determined.

COERCION

Coercion (the use or threatened use of armed force) remains an often used method for resolving international conflicts. Wars, "police actions", border skirmishes, and saber rattling have plagued this and previous centuries. Attempts to "outlaw war as an instrument of national policy" have fallen on deaf ears or have bogged down in definitional disputes about who is an aggressor and who is merely acting in legitimate self defense.

In these materials, we focus on international attempts through law to limit the destructiveness of war. Provisions in numerous international agreements define war crimes and crimes against humanity; put limits on the kinds of weapons used in war; seek to protect civilian populations during armed conflict, proscribe genocide, and establish standards for the treatment of persons of war. Perhaps, the most notable application of international law is this area came after World War II with the Nuremberg Tribunal. Similar trials were held by the Supreme Allied command in Japan. In spite of criticism that such actors represented little more than prosecution of the vanquished by the victors, they did establish the principle of individual accountability for acts committed during war.

The law created as a result has been cited in subsequent cases and serves as a potent warning that a persons' conduct during war is not protected merely because he or she was following state policy. Whether the sanctions of a higher authority, the laws of a corporate humanity, will deter conduct in future wars is open to question.

LESSON PLAN DESCRIPTION AND INFUSION KEY

Lesson Plan 1: An Introduction to International Conflict

This lesson plan introduces the perspective by examining the diverse nature of international conflict. In so doing, students will learn to identify some of the sources and opposing sides of international conflict. (Latin American studies, Geography, and current events) pp. 126-130

Lesson Plan 2: Negotiation and Arbitration

In this lesson plan, students explore the role of negotiation and arbitration in a simulation based on the peaceful resolution of a hypothetical, territorial dispute between the United States and Canada. (U.S. government, Geography and International Relations) pp. 131-140

Lesson Plan 3: Resolving International Conflicts - Adjudication

With this lesson plan, students are introduced to adjudication as another method for resolving international conflict. In so doing, the students will explore the limits and potential of courts operating in the international domain. (International Relations, World History and Geography) pp. 141-149

Lesson Plan 4: When Conflict Turns to War

In this lesson plan, students explore the consequences of the failure of international attempts to peacefully resolve conflict, and the role of international law in limiting the impact of war once it has erupted. In so doing, students explore both historical and modern attempts to eliminate and establish limits for war, including the U.S. military trial of Captain William Calley for war crimes. (U.S. History, U.S. Government and International Relations) pp. 150-154

PERSPECTIVE V: CONFLICT

LESSON PLAN # 1

TITLE: AN INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL CONFLICTS

PURPOSE:

This lesson plan introduces the perspective by examining the diverse nature of international conflict. In so doing, students will learn to identify some of the sources and opposing sides of international conflict. In the first segment, through an activity and discussion, students will learn to view conflict in terms of opposing interests in regards to a particular issue or situation. In the second segment, through the use of a case study, students will practice identifying the source and opposing values and interests of South American political conflict.

MATERIALS

1. "Headlines", Source: Kenneth A. Switzer and Charlotte A. Zedden, Teaching About Diversity: Latin America (Denver: Center for Teaching International Relations, 1978) p. 143.
2. "A Soccer War Is Appealed to the OAS.", Source: Donald W. Oliver, Fred M. Newman, Organization Among Nations, in series Harvard Social Studies Project, ed. Richard W. Fogg (Middletown, Conn: Xerox Corporation, 1970) pp. 46-51.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

ACTIVITY AND DISCUSSION: Recognizing Conflict

Begin the activity with a brief introduction that covers the following points:

> Conflict is a universal human experience. It often occurs in interactions between individuals, between individuals and groups, between groups and society, and between nations. Conflict can have both positive and negative outcomes. It can lead to a lessening of tension and permanent resolution or to violence and even war. Conflict arises when people, groups, or nations strongly oppose one another over issues relating to such matters as economics, territory, politics, religion and ideas.

Refer students to "Headlines", page 80 . As students study the piece, put the following diagram (Fig. A) and list (Fig B) on the chalkboard.

SIDES TO A CONFLICT (Fig. A)

_____ vs. _____

_____

COMMON SOURCES OF CONFLICT (Fig. B)

POLITICAL
ECONOMIC
RELIGIOUS
TERRITORIAL
IDEOLOGICAL

Conduct an activity in which students identify 1) conflict situations, 2) the sides to the conflict, and 3) the source using the list on the chalkboard (opinions may vary as to the source and there can be more than one).

Begin by asking:

- Which of these headlines describe or imply a conflict situation?
  (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8)

For each conflict situation identified ask:

- What are the opposing sides to this conflict?
- Using our list, what is the apparent source (or sources) of the conflict?

For each item, fill in the diagram on the chalkboard. Use the following answers as a guide.

1. U.S. v. Panama
   (territorial, political)
2. People favoring dictatorship v. People favoring democracy
   (political)
3. Government of Uruguay v. individuals
   (political, ideological)
4. poor classes v. wealthy classes
   (economic, political)
5. poor classes v. wealthy classes
   (economic, political)
6. poor classes v. wealthy classes
   (economic, political)
7. People favoring dictatorship v. People favoring democracy
   (political)
8. OPEC Ministers v. OPEC Ministers
   (economic)

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION

READING AND DISCUSSION

As students read "A Soccer War is Appealed to the OAS", pp. 81-82, ask them to try and decide the source of the conflict described. Lead a class discussion in which students identify and consider the underlying interests and values of the opposing sides of the conflict presented. Ask:

- What are the opposing sides to the conflict?
  (Honduras and El Savador.)

- What was the apparent source(s) of the conflict?
  (Students might suggest the soccer match, but should be lead through questioning to a description of the deeper rooted political, economic and territorial sources.)

- What El Salvadoran interests were involved in the conflict?
  (El Savador was densely populated. As a result, many of its citizens immigrated to Honduras and were discriminated against and displaced by Honduras' land laws.)

- What Honduran interests were involved in the conflict?
  (Honduras was fearful of overcrowding. It wanted to discourage immigration and preserve new lands for its own citizens.)

- What is OAS?
  (A regional international organization made up of natives of the Western Hemisphere designed to promote stability, economic development, and prevent possible foreign aggression.)

- How did the OAS act to bring an end to the fighting? (It formed a "peace team", inspected both sides of the border, consulted with Hondoran and El Salvadoran officials and issued a call for an end to hostilities.)

- Why did the two countries agree to a cease-fire? (Neither wanted to be labelled as aggressors which would be subject to economic, travel and communications sanctions.)

- Did the cease-fire permanently resolve the conflict? Why or why not?
  (Probably not. The underlying sources of conflict remained.)

- How could the conflict be permanently resolved? (Students should be encouraged to suggest methods including, for example, a negotiated settlement between the countries on the immigration and political issues, arbitration by OAS or other methods.)

PERSPECTIVE #V

Lesson Plan #2

Background Information

NEGOTIATION AND ARBITRATION

Diplomatic negotiation and arbitration are among the most time-honored of international conflict resolution techniques. Both have served the function of preventing armed hostilities from erupting or of limiting or ending hostilities once they have begun. Both have been used to settle disputes ranging from territorial to economic to political long before the threat of violence was imminent.

Negotiation: There has always been a legal obligation to attempt negotiation (international bargaining) before going to war. In recent times, negotiations have been legally and morally regarded as a necessary requirement before the use of force. This is true even if the chance for success is minimal. On a more practical side, negotiation also offers nations an inexpensive means for avoiding a destructive war.

As such, diplomatic negotiations are invariably the first method of conflict resolution tried and always precede arbitration or other binding methods (see next section). Traditionally, negotiations are carried out by the diplomatic representatives of the nations and follow established international protocol. However, with the advent of instantaneous international communications, some observers have pointed to decline in the importance o. the representative nature of the process. Still, even if the head of state is more directly involved the basic methods remain the same. Compromise, world opinion, presentation and carefully chosen language continue as important factors in the process.

If negotiations are successful, a treaty or international agreement often results. These serve not only to resolve the matter at hand, but also regulate future relations between the nations involved.

Negotiations, of course, are not reserved for nation states. Other actors, including multinational corporations, regional governmental organizations, and subnational groups negotiate thousands of agreements each year. In fact, negotiation is a basic ingredient of almost every human interaction. Imagine the domestic impact of negotiation was not practiced by business people, politicians, lawyers and individuals.

Arbitration: Arbitration is sometimes called a judicial method of conflict resolution. This is because it involves settlement of disputes through a legal and formal process. For arbitration to take place both parties have to agree that: 1) a third-party will hear the dispute and 2) the decision of the third-party will be binding on the parties. Third-parties can be neutral nations, commissions made up of representatives of various disinterested nations, or technical experts, especially if the dispute is of a technical nature.

Although arbitration is more formal than negotiation, it is more flexible than an international court hearing (adjudication). This is because the parties determine the choice of the third-party makeup and parties agree in advance on the framework to be employed in the decision. For example, in a fishing dispute, the parties can agree that the decision is based on customs between them rather than on established international legal principles. These arguments are made in advance and called treaties of arbitration.

Unfortunately, the full potential of arbitration as a conflict resolution technique has never been realized in the international arena. Although, there are many notable successes, the major problem of wider use seems to the reluctance of parties to a conflict to submit to the binding nature of arbitration.

Sources: Leo Gross, ed. International Law in the Twentieth Century, (New York: The American Society of International Law, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969).

Ahmed Sheikh, International Law and National Behavior, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1976).

PERSPECTIVE #V: CONFLICT

Lesson Plan #2

TITLE: RESOLVING INTERNATIONAL CONFLICT: NEGOTIATION AND ARBITRATION

PURPOSE

In this lesson students explore negotiation and arbitration as mechanisms for peacefully resolving international crisis. To accomplish this, the class will participate in a simulation based on a hypothetical, territorial dispute between the United States and Canada. In the first segment of a 3-day format, students will be introduced to the concepts of negotiation and arbitration and the hypothetical situation. In the second segment, they will be assigned their roles and begin preparations. In the final segment, students will present their proposals and enter into direct negotiations.

MATERIALS

1.) "Point Roberts". Source: High School Geography Project, Association of American Geographers, Geography in an Urban Age: Political Geography, (New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1979), pp. 49-51.

2.) The Point Roberts Gazette: Point Roberts Update, B. Salzman, (Los Angeles, California: Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1981).

3.) Canadian and U. S. Groups (list). B. Salzman, (Los Angeles, California: Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1981).

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

1. Lecture and Discussion: Negotiation and Arbitration

Present a lecture based on materials in the Teacher Background piece on p. 131. Through questioning make sure students understand the function of negotiation and arbitration and the differences between them. Then ask:

- Thinking of examples from newspapers, magazines or television, what international negotiations have been recently conducted? (Examples might include S.A.L.T., Egyptian-Israeli, Common Market, U.S.-Mexico, etc.)

- What examples of negotiation can you think of in your school or in the community? (Examples might include discussions between student government and the school administration, business negotiations and collective bargaining)

- What examples of the arbitration process can you think of at school or in the community? (Examples might include a referee at a sports event, labor arbitration, and civil arbitration as an alternative to a court trial)

2. Reading and Discussion:

Refer students to: "Point Roberts" page 83 and then to the "Point Roberts Update", pages 83-84. Explain that while Point Roberts is a real U.S. town the dispute is fictitious. Have the class read "Point Roberts" first, then the "Update". Lead a class discussion reviewing: the major facts, the parties (U.S. and Canada) and the source of conflict (territorial). In addition ask:

- What transpired at Point Roberts between the time of the first and second articles? (The crisis worsened; Canadian troops occupied the area)

- What reasons might the U.S. (Canadian) government have for and against ownership of Point Roberts? (For: expansion of tax base, defense purpose, natural resources. Against: increased demands for public services and welfare base and threats to good relations between the countries)

- What reasons might the citizens of each country have for wanting their country to own Point Roberts? (Preference for type of government, tax rates, and national identity)

- What impact might the dispute have on international affairs? (It might damage the relationship of the two courts, interfere with alliances such as NATO, and provide propaganda for the Soviet Union and others)

- What will happen if the two sides cannot come to a negotiated settlement? (The International Border Commission will arbitrate the matter)

DEVELOPMENT

Preparation for Simulation

Step 1: Divide the class into the following six groups:

United States	Canada
Diplomats	Diplomats
Diplomatic Advisors	Diplomatic Advisors
Point Roberts' Residents	Point Roberts' Residents

A list of suggested roles for 30 students (15 U.S., 15 Canadian) appears in "Canadian and U.S. Groups" p.84 . *Refer students to the list.* The spokesperson will moderate the discussion groups and represent their groups in class discussion. The recorder will take notes during group meetings so that the groups' opinion will be accurately presented at different meetings. You may also want to assign students to serve as moderator and a recorder for the entire class activity. (These students cannot serve as moderator or recorder in their discussion groups.)

Step 2: Explain that each group must decide on a position concerning the dispute based on the viewpoint of the roles assigned.

Remind the students that while all groups have their own objectives in determining a solution, maintaining good relations between the two countries is very important.

Step 3: Place the following negotiation schedule on the board and review it with the class.

A. Group meetings and development of group's position statement
B. National meetings to develop one national position
C. Diplomatic negotiations (talks between negotiating team)
D. National meetings to develop proposal for settlement
E. Final round of negotiations

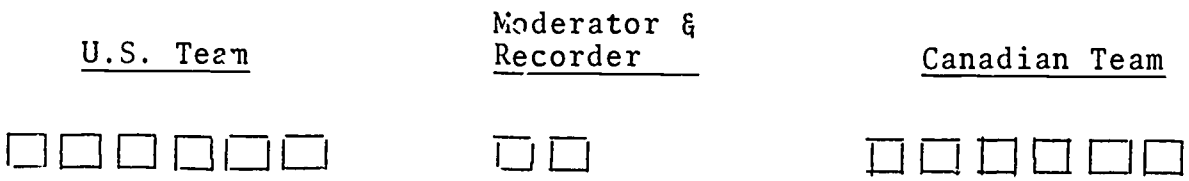
Step 4: (A) *Hold group meetings.* You may wish to circulate among groups to monitor and stimulate discussion and progress. (20 minutes)

Step 5: (B) *Hold national meetings.* (15 minutes)

APPLICATION

Negotiation Simulation

Step 1: *Before the class convenes, arrange the furniture so that 12 desks face the rest of the class as in the following diagram:*



Step 2: *Organize the class for negotiation. Ask the negotiating team, moderator and recorder to sit at the front of the room. Tell the recorder to write the negotiating terms conclusion on the chalkboard.* The moderator will serve as parliamentarian and will also time the various presentations.

Step 3: *(C) Conduct Diplomatic Negotiations in which the two national teams present and discuss their position.* The moderator should make sure that each side has an uninterrupted chance to state its position. After each position has been stated, the moderator should allow each side to react to the others position. (10 minutes)

Step 4: *(D) Hold National Meetings for groups to develop a proposal for settlement.* In discussing solutions the groups should decide which of their goals are vital and which can be expended by their negotiating team in the interest of a peaceful settlement. If either country mentions the possibility of a popular vote or plebiscite to resolve the dispute, the following points must be considered:

a) How to phrase the question on the ballot?
b) Who will be allowed to vote (U.S. citizens only, Point Roberts' citizens only, property owners only, etc.)
c) When and where will the plebiscite take place?
d) Who will supervise the election and count the ballots?

Step 5: (E) *Conduct Final Negotiations.* The moderator should give each team 3 minutes to present the proposal. Then allow the teams 5 minutes to negotiate a final solution, if possible. If no agreement is reached, announce that the matter will be referred to the International Border Commission for arbitration.

Step 6: *Debriefing. Lead a class discussion using the following questions:*

If a solution was reached:

- Do you agree with the negotiated settlement? Why or why not?

If no solution was reached:

- Why do you think no solution was reached?
- Do you think arbitration would be effective in solving this dispute? Why or why not?

PERSPECTIVE V: CONFLICT

Lesson Plan #3

TEACHER BACKGROUND: Adjudication

Domestically, throughout the world, adjudication is a common form of dispute resolution. One might expect that courts and judges would play an equally significant role in the international sphere. Indeed international courts and tribunals have been in existence since the end of the nineteenth century, but their full potential as arbitrators of conflicts among nations have never been fully realized.

International courts tend to be of three, or a combination of, three major types. First, there is the special jurisdiction type such as the International Military Tribunal established by the victorious allies after World War II. This court was established to deal with a specific issue: war crimes. Then there are regional courts founded by nations within a particular area of interest. The Central American Court of Justice was an early example established by a ten-year agreement among Central American states. The present Court of Justice of the European Communities (ECSC) is another example. Finally, there are the truly global courts, an idea initiated by the formation of the Permanent Court of International Justice after World War I. Though established at roughly the same time as the League of Nations, its organization and authority were quite separate from the

League. Nevertheless, World War II also sealed its fate. Replacing it was the present International Court of Justice, which is the official judicial branch of the United Nations. It can try cases only between nations.

There is one major difference between adjudication and arbitration. Adjudication refers to litigation before permanently established courts of law. Justices are normally chosen for long terms from among internationally recognized jurists. As such, unlike arbitration, parties have a smaller say about who will hear the case once jurisdiction to the court has been granted.

The problems of the present mode of international jurisdiction are two-fold: getting the case before the court in the first place and enforcing a decision. Since the decisions of international courts are often theoretically binding, nations often avoid its jurisdiction. This is a fact of life even for those courts such as the International Court of Justice, which have "compulsory" jurisdiction in some cases. Compulsory jurisdiction still rests on the prior agreement and restrictions of the nations participating. The United States, for example, due to the Connally Amendment, excludes domestic disputes from the Court's domain. Even if an international court gets binding jurisdiction, through previous agreement, its decisions are not always followed. The recent example of the International

Court of Justice opinion in the Iranian embassy seizing is a case in point. As of yet, no reliable or on-going enforcement mechanism exists for international courts.

Considering the political realities of the present global system made up of sovereign states, a lack of consistency in enforcement should not be too surprising. At present those arguing for an expanded role for international courts must rely on the cooperation of sovereign states to make use of and abide to the decisions of world courts.

Gerald J. Mangone, The Elements of International Law, The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1967.

PERSPECTIVE V: CONFLICT

Lesson Plan #3

TITLE: Resolving International Conflicts: Adjudication

PURPOSE

With this lesson plan students are introduced to adjudication as another method for resolving international conflict. In so doing, the students will explore the limits and potential of courts operating in the international domain. In the first segment, through lecture and discussion students will be introduced to the notion of international adjudication. In the second segment, they will analyze a case study involving the European Court of Justice's handling of a trade dispute. In the third segment, students will read a description of a conflict involving apartheid in South West Africa and write an opinion on the case.

MATERIALS

1.) "Breaking International Trade Barriers". Source: D. W. Oliver and F. M. Newmann, Diplomacy and International Law, Public Issues Series/Harvard Social Studies Project, (Middleton, Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1970), pp. 21-24.

2.) "South Africa Faces the World Court". Source: D. W. Oliver and F. M. Newmann, Diplomacy and International Law, Public Issues Series/Harvard Social Studies Project, (Middletown, Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1970), pp. 13-15.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Present a lecture on the materials contained in Teacher Background pp. 141-143. Through questioning make sure students: understand the difference between adjudication and arbitration;

can describe some of the current limits of international adjudication; and can recall and describe two examples of international courts (e.g. the International Court of Justice and the International Military Tribunal). Then ask:

- What are some examples of adjudicatory bodies in the United States?
  (The U.S. and State Supreme Courts, federal and state supreme courts, superior and municipal courts and small claims courts).

- What problems do international courts face that U.S. domestic courts do not?
  (Domestic courts can rely on the executive branch of government to enforce their decisions; citizens are required to submit to the authority of domestic courts if they are sued or served with a criminal complaint).

- Given the current limitations on international courts, do you think they serve a useful role? Why?

- What could be done to make international courts more effective? How practical are these suggestions?
  (Students might suggest the establishment of a "true world government", or work to establish greater commitment to their use by sovereign states).

DEVELOPMENT

Reading and Discussion: The European Court of Justice. Have students read "Breaking International Trade Barriers" on pp. 85-86. Tell students to pay particular attention to the role of the Court of Justice in the European Communities. Then ask:

- What is the role of the European Court of Justice?
  (To interpret the Treaty of Rome and adjust disputes over its interpretation).

- How are its decisions enforced?
  (Individual governments and their national police forces were bound by Treaty to carry out the decisions of the Court).

- What was the nature of the dispute between Costen and UNEF?
  (A trade dispute about the right to sell West German tape recorders in France).

- What did Costen claim? What did UNEF claim?
  (Costen claimed UNEF was interfering with its rights under a contract with the West German company. UNEF claimed the contract was illegal under the Common Market Treaty which prohibited restriction of competition).

- How did the Court of Justice get the case?
  (From appeal from the decision of the Common Market Commission).

- What did the Court decide?
  (It upheld the decision of the commission giving the UNEF the right to sell tape recorders).

- Why do you think the European Court of Justice has been effective in resolving disputes among Common Market countries and their citizens?
  (Students might point to the unique character of the makeup of the Common Market in terms of common interests, economic benefits and common history as factors which help its Court overcome some of the problems relating to sovereignty).

APPLICATION

1. Reading and Discussion: The International Court of Justice
Have students read "South Africa Faces the World Court" on pp. 86-88. Then lead a class discussion focusing on the role of the world court in handling the dispute described. Ask:

- What is apartheid? Where is it practiced?
(A system where races are strictly situated; in South Africa and Southwest Africa which was ruled by South Africa.)
- How did South Africa come to rule Southwest Africa?
(It was granted rule under the Mandate System which gave control of the previous German territory to South Africa to prepare the area for independence.)
- What court made the 1962 and 1966 decisions?
Who were the parties to the dispute?
(The International Court of Justice; Liberia and Ethiopia versus South Africa.)
- What claims did Liberia and Ethiopia make in the second phase of the case?
(That South Africa had failed to promote the well-being and progress of the Southwest African population and that apartheid deprived the people of freedom and human dignity.)
- What was the Court's final decision? What reasons were given?
(That Liberia and Ethiopia had no right to bring the case in the first place because neither party was affected by South Africa's mandate.)
- Do you think the case should have been decided "on the merits"? Why?
- What affect could the Court's decision have on it's credibility and effectiveness?
(Nations might consider the court to be ineffective and decide not to bring disputes for its consideration.)

2. Individual Writing Activity

Have students imagine that they are members of the International Court of Justice charged with writing an opinion on the previous case. Students should consider the following questions as they prepare their opinions.

- Do Liberia and Ethopia have a right to bring the case to the court? Why or why not?

- If so, should South Africa's mandate over South-West Africa be ended? Why or why not?

- If so, how should South-West Africa be governed?

- What effects might your decision have? On Africa? On the world? On the reputation of the Court?

- How will you make sure your decision is obeyed?

PERSPECTIVE V: CONFLICT

LESSON PLAN #4

TITLE: When Conflict Turns to War...

PURPOSE

With the activities in this lesson plan, students explore the consequences of the failure of international attempts to peacefully resolve conflict and the role of international law in limiting the impact of war once it has erupted. In this lesson plan, students read about and discuss historical attempts to eliminate and establish limits for war. Then, in a two day format, they reenact the trial of William Calley and consider national efforts to assess responsibility for war crimes.

MATERIALS

1.) "Establishing the Limits of War". Source: D. W. Oliver and F. M. Newmann, The Limits of War, Public Issues Series/ Harvard Social Studies Project, (Middletown, Connecticut: Xerox Corporation, 1970), pp. 7-11.

2.) "My Lai". Source: B. Reardon, War Criminals, War Victims, Crises in World Order Series (New York: Random House, Inc., 1974) pp. 39-50. Printed with the permission of: The Institute For World Order, Inc., New York.

INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT BUILDING

Reading and Discussion: "The Problem of War"
Explain to students that, in addition to peaceful methods for the management of conflict, there exists another which political scientists call coercion. Coercion refers to the threat of and/or use of force. Internationally, coercion often takes the form of, or leads to, armed conflict and war. Then ask:

- What wars (or international conflicts) have taken place in your lifetime?
  (Included might be Vietnam, Israeli-Arab, India-Pakistan, Cambodia, Iraq and Iran, Afghanistan.)

- What wars (or international conflicts) have taken place in the 20th Century?
  (Additional examples might be the First and Second World War, Korea, the Spanish Civil War, the Boxer Rebellion, the Russo-Japanese War, the Boer War, Chinese Civil War, Sino-Japanese War, Russo-Finnish War, and the Italian invasion of Ethiopia.)

Have students read "Establishing the Limits of War". pp. 90-92, and lead class discussion using the following questions:

Discussion Questions:

- What was the source of history's "earliest and greatest wars"?
  (Religion)

- What did scholars during the Middle Ages think about war?
  (That it could not be eliminated, but that it could be restrained by "moral principles", that there were moral reasons for war and justified ways of fighting.)

- What changes in the nature of warfare took place after the Thirty Years War?
  (Nationalism replaced religion as the major source of war.)

- What were the total human casualties during World War I?
  (Twenty million killed, twenty million wounded.)

- What are some other consequences of modern warfare?
  (Massive destruction of property, displacement of peoples, destruction of entire nations.)

- What was the Kellogg-Briand Pact? Was it successful? Why not?
  (A pact was signed by 63 nations in 1928 renouncing war as an instrument of policy in their relations with one another. Since other major wars followed it was clearly not successful.)

- What were the Hague Conventions?
  (A series of agreements dealing with the declaration of war, its conduct, and the treatment of prisoners and civilians.)

- What is the importance of the idea of "a war of aggression"? What problems have arisen concerning it?
  (The victorious allies of World War II declared wars of aggression to be "a supreme international crime". Unfortunately, it has been a difficult concept to define.

- The Kellogg-Briand Pact, the Hague Conventions, and the notion of "wars of aggression" are attempts to end or control war through the use of international law. What other examples are cited in the article?
  (The medieval notion of just/unjust wars, the United Nations Charter, the Treaty of Versailles, the trial of Nazi leaders at Nuremburg.)

DEVELOPMENT

1. Background Reading for Simulation: The U.S. Tries Its Own

Explain that conflict management does not end when violence and war begin. As they have seen, the body of international law contains many treaties and agreements outlining what are essentially rules for minimizing the brutality and the extent of damage once a conflict has turned into war. The job of monitoring global actors involved in armed conflicts often falls to national governments either individually or in groups. By treaties, such as the Hague Convention, they have the responsibility to regulate the actions of their military personnel who do the actual fighting.

Refer students to "My Lai" pages 92-94, and lead a class discussion using the following questions:

Discussion Questions:

- Where is My Lai?
  (Vietnam)

- What is a "turkey shoot"?

- Who was Ronald L. Ridenhour and why did he care about My Lai?
  (He had suspicions that the stories of a massacre might be correct.)

- What was "Charlie" Company?
  (The army unit that had attacked My Lai.)

- Why did Ridenhour wait until he returned to the United States before writing a letter about My Lai?
  (He feared for his security while still in Vietnam.)

- Who was First Lieutenant William L. Calley, Jr.? What was he charged with? Under what code of law?
  (An officer of Charlie Company; murder of civilians under the Uniform Code of Military Justice.)

- How did the U.S. population find out about the My Lai case?
  (Newspapers and T.V. news broke the story.)

2. Preparation for Simulation

Step #1: *Explain to the class that they are going to examine the trial of William F. Calley, by the U.S. military, by reenacting a portion of it.*

Step #2: *Select four to seven students from the class to play the roles of Calley (1-2), his defense counsel (1-2), the prosecutor (1-2), and the narrator (1). Divide the rest of the class in half.* Explain that these two groups will each represent the military court of officers which heard and ruled upon Calley's case.

Step #3: *Refer students to "The Rules" and "The Trial", pages 94-96 except for "The Verdict" page 96.*

Step #4: *Have students prepare for the simulation.* Students involved in the trial demonstration should discuss the case, practice their lines and presentation (although all should prepare, only four students will actually reenact the trial excerpts). Students taking the role of military tribunal members should read and discuss "The Rules". In addition, they should think about questions to ask the prosecution and defense teams at the conclusion of the reenactment.

APPLICATION

1. A Simulated Military Tribunal

Step #1: *Narrator, Calley, his defense counsel, and the prosecutor should reenact the excerpts from the Calley trial in the front of the classroom.* Have the two military court groups sit on opposite sides of the classroom. When the reenactment is completed, permit members of the two courts to ask questions of the participant teams.

Step #2: *Adjourn the two court panels to decide upon a verdict in the Calley case.* (Note that in the real trial there would have been several days of testimony and months of preparation.) They should base their verdict upon the specific points outlined in the U.S. Army Field Manual (The Rules).

Step #3: *Each of the two groups should select a spokesperson who will present the group's verdict and discuss the points in the military codes upon which they based their decision.*

2. Debriefing

Have students read and discuss "The Verdict, p. 96. Use the questions included to debrief the activity.

SOURCES OF MATERIALS USED

We gratefully acknowledge all the aid and contributions made to our Handbook by the following individuals, organizations and publishers.

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Boston, Massachusetts 02210

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New York, New York 10023

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