Editorial

by Carlos H. Lepiz

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The Spanish philosopher, Ortega y Gasset (cited in Sanguinetti, 1989) pointed out that in the vast scenario of history there are meeting times; there are moments for encounter; there are instances in which the ages meet, as if they purposefully had set a time for an appointment. I would add to his insightful words that there are also trying times in the history of humanity when that seeming coincidence is brought about, rather, by a common imperative need for survival.

As apparent in the articles featured in this international issue of Thresholds, our society in general, and our schools in particular are indeed facing difficult challenges, among which, violence stands out as the most threatening one. It is our moral responsibility not to remain indifferent to this human tragedy that is no less than the product of a society in crisis.

Unfortunately, we are living in a global society where economists and policy makers talk about "consumer rights" as *the rights*. They do not talk anymore of human rights. They generally have cold mathematical answers when asked about the social factors that should be considered when it comes to making decisions about the allocation of funds for education and other social programs. This approach to policy making is used around the world, as noted in the 1995 Copenhague Summit,

> almost one fourth of the world population (1300 millions of people) live in extreme poverty out of which 1000 million are illiterate. Women make up 70 percent of the indigent population and two thirds of the illiterate people in the world. There are about 800 million unemployed people—officially 120 million—and there is a world active population of 2700 million. At the same time military budgets of the developed countries are the same as the income of 2000 million poor people. (p. 26)

These data may be a useful reference point, as we try to find the explanation to the violence taking place in society at large and in the schools around the world. As the 1987 Nobel Peace Prize Laureate, Oscar Arias (1988) noted, "Arms do not fire on their own. Only those who have lost hope fire them" (p. 2).

This reality is happening at a time when, unfortunately, teachers are vilified, the teaching profession is belittled, and schools are blamed for society's problems. Despite this, we ought to renew our inner strength as we give the best of ourselves to try to address these issues with the best weapon of all: the sound education of our children. They may be just a small percentage of our countries' population, but they are 100% of our society's future. Our objective should be to see that our students do not go about in their lives carrying the arms of despair, but rather the books of hope. These, coupled with good role modeling on our part, should be the fountains of wisdom to learn about the significance of dialoguing, consensus-building, helpfulness, friend liness, trustworthiness, loyalty, courage, and the rejection of violence in problem solving.

The inspiration and wisdom that our professor, mentor, friend, and colleague Dr. Byron F. Rade-

baugh retires and concludes his duties as executive editor of *Thresholds*, with this international issue of the journal he helped establish twenty years ago, we pay tribute to his visionary academic leadership and his outstanding contribution to the professional development of thousands of students, teachers, and educational leaders including myself, his former and devoted student.

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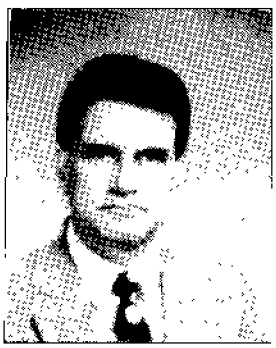
Editor's Note



by Miguel A. Gutierrez

Miguel A. Gutierrez is Associate Professor of Educational Leadership at the College of Education of the Universidad Nacional de Costa Rica (UNA). He was director of the Board of Grants for Faculty and Staff Development of UNA. He is currently a doctorate candidate in Educational Leadership at the School of Education, East Carolina University, Greenville, North Carolina.

As society approaches the twenty-first century, school systems nationwide are facing an awesome and unprecedented challenge: disruption and violence. Never before have the schools been more overwhelmed by a problem that is draining so much energy from teachers, educational leaders, students and parents. In fact, this problem is leading schools to divert their attention from the accomplishment of the main goals and objectives of the educational process. Teachers, parents, school administrators and policy makers, at the federal, state, and local levels are looking for effective solutions to this problem, because its detrimental effects are effecting the quality education children are entitled to and deserve.

Many of those in search for approaches to cope with this issue, unfortunately, are addressing the symptoms, rather than the structural causes underlying it. In so doing, school systems are neither capitalizing on the scarce resources available, nor making much progress toward effective solutions. The need for a coordinated effort has never been so evident; school systems and policy makers must go beyond simplistic answers to this complex issue, recently categorized by the media as being at an epidemic stage.

The purpose of this issue of *Thresholds* is to provide some research based knowledge and insight from different countries around the world to help teachers, administrators and parents understand the complex sources of this unprecedented violence. By offering an international perspective of the structural causes underlying school violence and some of the innovative, and effective strategies being used successfully in schools around the globe to deal with it, it is hoped that schools in the United States and abroad will find more comprehensive and positive ways of addressing this challenge effectively. It is also hoped that this issue serves as the catalyst of an international cooperative academic encounter in the search for answers to these and other challenging educational problems.

Like the air around us, such problems do not have borders because they are global problems, and as such require everybody's talent and insight to be able to cope with them successfully. As noted by Fisher Fishkin (1995), "As scholars and as teachers, we must formulate new ways of understanding the ways that all cultures influence and borrow from one another." (p. A48). This issue is a stepping stone toward the accomplishment of this goal. The children of the world are watching and waiting, the responsibility to find effective solutions is ours, because as the Nobel poet from Chile, Gabriela Mistral (cited in Howell, 1994) clearly stated,

> We are guilty of many errors . . . but our worst crime is abandoning the children. Many things we need can wait. The child cannot. Right now is the time bones are being formed, blood is being made and senses are being developed. To this child we cannot answer, 'tomorrow.' The child's name is 'today.' (p. 1)

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The Role of Peace Education and the Media in the Prevention of Violence

by Tapio Varis

Tapio Varis is Senior Research Fellow, Research Institute, University of Art and Design, Helsinki, Finland, and a former Director of Media Studies, University of Lapand, Finland. He is also a former President of the United Nations, University for Peace in San Jose, Costa Rica.

As the representative of the University for Peace in Costa Rica, this author was among the Presidents of universities from all regions and many cultures of the world who convened at Talloires, France, in September 1988. It was a shared belief at that meeting that the universities of the world bear profound moral responsibilities to increase understanding of the risks of the nuclear age and the need to reduce those risks. In a world plagued by war, hunger, injustice, and suffering, the international community represented there stressed its belief that universities nurture life through the creation and transmission of knowledge. There are sixty million university students and two million teachers engaged in higher education throughout the world to join these endeavors.

One concrete proposal was a "global classroom." If universities design and set up an international information center and communications consortium, these facilities will support the exchange of information and provide communications based on low cost technologies. They will also offer access to computer networks, and afford one and two way television linkages among university classrooms in various parts of the world. Since then, there have been both global and regional, multilateral and bilateral projects carrying out and promoting the idea. With the new communications technology and the new avenues of information, colleges and universities may be closer than they can even imagine to those ideals and the global learning ideas developed in the early programs of the United Nations University.

. . . the universities of the world bear profound moral responsibilities to increase understanding of the risks of the nuclear age and the need to reduce those risks.

Several projects started in Central America to analyze the role of the region in the global transformation. Studies and training included programs on natural resources and sustainable development, refugees, Central American peace process and the Zone of Peace, international communication, etc. Several of these projects need to be continued and complemented by studies from other regions of poor countries.

Not only the rapid changes of technology, but also the fundamental social, political and economic transformations are challenging our traditional concept of universities and communication. The late President of the United Nations University, Soedjatmoko (1985), observed that the problems educators face in the industrial world are vastly different from those in the developing areas. In the North, institutions of higher learning have not responded adequately to the new educational needs and opportunities of their rapidly changing economies and societies. As a result, many institutions and centers other than universities have entered the field of education and research. One may look for the new communications media as a partner in global university activities and as means in the dissemination of research findings.

Furthermore, the rapid technical change has led to the need of specialization that results in a process of fragmentation, growing alienation, and crisis in values. The fragmentation of the world is reflected and reinforced by the fragmentation of the knowledge system produced by the modern conception

of science. The reality is broken up in bits and pieces according to the logic of technocrats rather than according to the logic of the reality itself. Due to the fragmented character of human knowledge, it is becoming increasingly divorced from the reality it seeks to comprehend. In order to understand global development, one needs new integrated and interdisciplinary approaches to study reality.

In the poor South, the basic issue is still both quantity and quality of universities and communication systems. There are simply too few institutions to accommodate the relentless growth of population. Very often the educational institutions in the South follow the European model in their curriculum despite that it is not relevant in Europe anymore.

As Soedjatmoko (1985) observed, society is witnessing a widening of the gap between those with ready access to information, and those lacking such access. The North-South gap has become the information gap, proving conclusively that information means power. One needs to look anew at the development process—which is essentially a learning process. Development succeeds when a society as a whole learns to make optimal use of its resources through the application of science and technology. Specially if it uses them to improve the daily lives of its citizens in ways that are consonant with their basic values and aspirations.

New Learning Environment

Universities and research institutes around the world should carry out research on the regional application and global promotion of the new learning and dissemination technologies. These research projects should also address issues such as the pedagogical effectiveness of technology-based learning, its cost efficiency and effectiveness, and the identification of ways in which society can more easily overcome cultural and language barriers. In addition, other research projects need to focus on the exploitation and reuse of learning materials as well as their adaptation to divergent cultures, and the identification of appropriate management and organizational structures, particularly those that support the extensive, diversified, complex and multifaceted infrastructure. Such research should also include new global satellite systems that are able to deliver almost as many services as the new fiber optic networks being built by many telephone companies. In doing so, it will be possible to reach underdeveloped and rural areas that are typically cut off from advanced communications.

The fragmentation of the world is reflected and reinforced by the fragmentation of the knowledge system produced by the modern conception of science.

Due to technological and political development new regions of the world are entering the global market. In the Circumpolar North, for example, which has been outside the concern of major economies and widely inhabited by indigenous people, new opportunities emerge. Tremendous finds of oil and natural gas in the Russian Arctic and in Greenland identify the Circumpolar North as one of the most promising locations for future energy developments. The new political order in major countries involved, together with a significant demand for economic progress require substantial capital investment with an expected high return rate. The need for resources and the demand for consumer goods create new markets. Sea lines and traffic from Asia to Europe will have new opportunities.

Along with these developments, a number of problems exist. These include environmental conditions and fragility in the Arctic, lack of adequate infrastructures, and ill-defined legal and political regimes. Some of these problems have a technological solution, but some must be solved by political and economic means. Mutually agreed-to rules and regulations for business operations, which all sides are willing to lastingly abide to, should be studied.

An unstable and unpredictable world cannot favor harmonious world development. Therefore, the roots of insecurity must be studied and connected to the world economic development. The preparatory work of the United Nations 1995 World Social Summit has identified the sources of insecurity that emerge from unemployment, poverty, violence, discrimination, drugs, etc.

The world is developing toward regional trade blocks whose impact on the global development must be carefully evaluated. Technology is bringing the world together, but many cultural factors divide people. The existing tension between the technologically strong and the technologically weak is such that it is already creating much political unrest in the world. Obviously, this situation is not conducive to the peaceful world order one wished to have in the twenty-first century.

When it comes to strengthening people's security, one should encourage research studies that focus

on the comprehensive and comparative approaches of various cross-cultural features, institutions, and their languages, especially those pursuing the goals of international understanding and harmony. This is particularly meaningful in a world where the nation-state concept is decreasing in significance. The globalization of finance, the economy, the media, the transfer of sovereignty to supranational institutions, and the increasing quest for local identity, culture, and self-determination are elements that work together in that direction.

The Role of The Media

In the media field, discussion on the information super-highways or Infobahn and global information infrastructure is beginning. Technology has changed, but many arguments are the same as before when new technologies were introduced. Critical academic literature has always pointed out that in the analysis of communication between people one deals with cultural differences. Most recently, Samuel P. Huntington (1993) supported these views. He claims that the fundamental source of conflict in the new world will be neither primarily ideological nor primarily economic. According to him, "The great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict will be cultural. For the relevant future, there will be no universal civilization, but instead a world of different civilizations, each of which will have to learn to coexist with the others" (pp. 22-49).

Other scholars may disagree with this approach. Kennedy (1993), for example, in his approach to the contemporary changes in the world structure, stresses such factors as demographic explosion, the communications and financial revolution, the rise of the multinational corporation, and biotechnology. The German novelist Hans Magnus Enzensberger (1993) observes that the post Cold War world is entering a new civil war where cultural differences become emphasized. According to him, the mass media, especially television, contributes strongly to this moral corruption.

Global Learning

There have been efforts to use the modern communication and information technology to create a new type of global awareness. In the modern world the intellectual problems are very much conceptual and refer not only to the fragmentation of knowledge, but also to the growing amount of obsolete knowledge. Society faces the old problem of the two cultures: the sciences on the one hand, and the humanities on the other. The dominant Western culture is very strongly influenced by natural science and materialistic streams of philosophy. The humanities have served to define the sense of cultural identity and to integrate new knowledge into the existing value system.

Society must also deal with new methods of learning which include such approaches as distant learning, multimedia, virtual technology, etc. As the world faces new pedagogical challenges, the art of lecturing will change. A crucial issue is one's capacity to learn, especially from each other individually and collectively. Humankind's survival may definitely depend on the capacity of societies around the globe to learn to live together.

The Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was approved in 1945 after the horrible experiences of the Second World War. It says, among other things, that peace must be founded, if it is not to fail, upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of humanity. The means of communication between peoples should be developed and increased and these means should be employed to mutually understand each other, and become more knowledgeable of each other's lives.

Conventional education can neither respond to the demands for equitable, timely and widespread access to knowledge and information, nor to the learning needs caused by the rapid outdating knowledge.

The Chairman of the Committee that drafted the Preamble, the American poet and librarian Archibald MacLeish (1985) was once asked if it is possible to educate for world peace. His answer was:

> Of course we can educate for world peace. I'd be willing, for my own part, to say that there is no possible way of getting world peace except through education. Which means education of the peoples of the world. All you can do by arrangements between governments is to remove the causes of disagreement that may become, in time, causes of war. Peace is positive and not negative. Peace is a way of living together which excludes war, rather than a period without war in

which peoples try to live together. (p. 27)

Later history has demonstrated the difficulties of building truly international educational and communication systems. The late vice-president of the United Nations University, Edward Ploman (1985), stressed that the conventional systems of education can no longer absorb the range of knowledge now being generated nor can they disseminate it in the usual educational time-span. Conventional education can neither respond to the demands for equitable, timely and widespread access to knowledge and information, nor to the learning needs caused by the rapid outdating knowledge. His view was that new modes for learning and knowledge sharing are required at all levels of society and using all available services and techniques. This, in essence, was the idea of global learning as a response to global change.

Changing Journalism

In global news gathering, transportable satellite uplinking is the fastest growing segment of the international television business. The prime application for transportable service is satellite news gathering (SNG). For example, according to the Intelsat Report (1990-91), during the Persian Gulf war, "the number of operating transportable stations using Intelsat-services exceeded 90" (p. 10). As noted in Communication Research Trends (1992), the war was a costly "laboratory case" for students of the media, and it undoubtedly affected the way television and the other media reported it.

Zelizer (1992) was one of those who analyzed how journalists had turned stories about the Gulf War into a forum for discussing satellite-fed technology, real-time reportage, and other issues of concern to the professional community. Zelizer asked if journalism has changed and found that the journalistic community has adapted to altered boundaries of journalistic practice in two ways: *imitation and surrender*. According to Zelizer, "Certain journalists and news organizations have chosen to imitate the news as it is produced by satellite-fed technology" (pp. 66-81).

One could add to Zelizer's analysis of imitation and surrender, the phenomenon of **adaptation**. Often, the traditional media, including national broadcasters and the written press, have been quick to find their place of giving background information and explanation to complement the real time reportage.

Belongingness is as important as existence.

The audience worldwide is reacting to those changes. During major international crises people turn to the round-the-clock news service of the global medium. But this is only for the raw material, first information. They then turn to the conventional national or local media for interpretation. Global news remains meaningless if it is not connected to one's own culture and one's own identity (Varis 1992). At the time when the nation-state decreases sharply in significance, both the globalization of finance, economy, and media, and the transfer of sovereignty to supranational institutions, increase the importance of local identity, culture, and self-determination.

Katz's (1992) criticism is not directed against the deployment of the new media technology. According to him, the trouble is that it eliminates the *editor*. Rather than collecting information and trying to make sense of it in time for the evening news broadcast, the CNN ideal was to do on-the-spot editing, or better yet, no editing at all. Katz does not fully accept the argument that CNN-type journalism empowers the viewer to be his or her own editor because according to him, by being global, CNN has lost its constituency, and has nobody special in mind.

One need not necessarily agree with Katz's pessimism. News journalism at times of war and conflict has fundamentally changed and all international actors know this. While major international events are broadcast live with original voice or simultaneous interpretations viewers are able to pick up their own news.

One of the serious skeptics of the new development is Katz (1992). He speaks of the end of journalism and claims that less was known about the Gulf war than about the previous wars because television, and the other media, insisted unsuccessfully in trying to tell us about the war that was supposed to be.

The slogan "global village" which was brought forward by McLuhan is somehow misleading. McLuhan was a student of Harold Innis who studied the relationship between empires and communication structures. Innis (cited in Varis, 1993) found, among other things, that the trends toward monopolies favored the emergence of nationalism and restricted the freedom of the press: The press and radio broadcast speak to the world, they do not address the individual or facilitate dialogue.

Society, however, is not moving toward a "global village"as it is so often claimed. As Fortner (1993) pointed out, village life dependent on oral-aural communication occurs in an atmosphere of intimacy. People of villages know one another; they do not merely know about one another. What has actually been created, to alter the metaphor of

"global village," is a "global metropolis" (pp. 23-24).

The Palestinian novelist, Anton Shammas (1990) argues that language lay at the heart of the Persian Gulf war and may hold the key to peace in the Middle East. He said that "Desert Storm, contrary to what the allied West might have thought, marked the victory of the spoken word over literacy, on both sides." (p. 34). In his view the real dispute has always been over speech, over the language of discourse, and not over the identity of the speakers. With the new audiovisual media, humankind is coming back to the ideals of the ancient art of public speaking, designed for great lawyers, politicians, and ceremonial spokespersons.

Nature of The Conflicts

The post Cold War world is still in the process of formation. However, it is already clear that the old block division of the world is being replaced by new regional trade groupings, nationalism, and cultural conflicts and threats. The concept of a "New World Order" is associated with the new coalitions during the Persian Gulf War. Beyond that, it is not yet clear which could be that new order. Many commentators observe that though the United Nations has come to play an enormously improved role in mediating and defusing disputes, there is new disorder, not new order.

New concepts and approaches are needed to deal with the post-nation-state world where people are directly interconnected with modern telecommunications and the media. New types of institutional arrangements and learning processes have to be created to deal with the new world civic order. Nation-based concepts like "international, transnational, or multinational" could be reserved to governmental activities, and other concepts like "global, planetary, universal, or intercultural" should be used to refer to nongovernmental activities.

... the actualization of the"global classroom" concept in colleges and universities around the world, whose main objective should be not only the transmission of knowledge, but also the pursuit of international understanding and harmony, remains a promising and viable educational alternative.

Boulding (1988) introduced the term *global civic culture*. Society is moving toward a world where national governmental and business structures are being complemented by direct people's level networks, organizations, and contacts. Also modern technology is working toward that direction.

In fact, our global interaction through telecommunication networks, mediated by hugely increased capability of parallel processing in the next generation of computers, is seemingly reaching a level of complexity and interconnectedness in which people and countries can no longer perceive themselves as isolated individuals or cultures. Still, globalism remains meaningless if the new emerging telematic culture is not connected to the people's own cultural identity and own heritage.

Our "global metropolis" is composed of different cultures. Culture is something that is continuously created and reshaped. This telematization of culture not only leads to the convergence of institutions, but also to the revision of the assumptions of learning, work, journalism, etc. Already the development of cable, the use of telecommunication satellites for television, the direct broadcast satellites, and the possibilities of encryption, represent a degree of technical development that is changing the shape of television, creating an entirely new television landscape. With the introduction of interactive television, one should start talking of multimedia television.

As noted by Sitaram (1995) human beings and societies organize meaning and interpretation of life through their culture. Belongingness is as important as existence. In this context, the print media remains an important source for identification and interpretation. When the big media and communication structures are global, there is also a danger of a global setback if these structures are perceived more as a threat than as a promise. To avoid such a threat more attention and research should be given to intercultural communication and problems of conflict in a world that is in the process of building a new world order. In Fukuyama's (1992) words:

> The decline of community life suggests that in the future, we risk becoming secure and self-absorbed last men, devoid of thymotic striving for higher goals in our pursuit of private comforts. But the opposite danger exists as well, namely, that we will return to being first men engaged in bloody and pointless prestige battles, only this time

with modern weapons. Indeed, the two problems are related to one another, for the absence of regular and constructive outlets for megalothymia may simply lead to its later resurgence in an extreme and pathological form. (p. 328)

In short, there is a great temptation to agree with the visionary author that the twentieth century, it is safe to say, has caused people to become deep historical pessimists. However, this pessimism can be reversed through the constructive use of communication technology and the media. Herein the actualization of the"global classroom" concept in colleges and universities around the world, whose main objective should be not only the transmission of knowledge, but also the pursuit of international understanding and harmony, remains a promising and viable educational alternative.

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Violence in Schools in Brazil

by Angel Pino

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Violence in the schools cannot be considered as an isolated phenomenon. Although this concept does encompass certain commonalities, it cannot be considered without reference to the wider context of the society as a whole. Not only because of its institutional nature, but also because of the population configuration, the school is representative of the overall population, and must be seen as reproducing the structures and dynamics of the global society on another, more limited, scale. As with society, the school institution is not only the location of violence; i.e., the place where violent acts occur, produced by various agents who may be either internal or external to the institution itself. But it is also the source of violence; since by reconstituting the structures of the society, it procreates the violence that these structures tend to generate. Even though the physical violence of actual people is more palpable, institutional violence is much more pernicious because it vitiates the reason for non-violence itself; the respect for social institutions.

Before analyzing the problem of violence in the school environment, it is necessary to discuss certain preliminary questions of a conceptual nature. These are important because they affect the actual construction of the object of analysis.

Conceptual Questions

According to Webster's *Third New International Dictionary* (1976), the term "violence" can be understood in various ways. One meaning is that violence is an "exertion of any physical force as to injure or abuse" (p. 2554). In this case, that which defines the violence is the purpose of the action, not the intensity of it. The use of physical force is a means of attaining a specific end more "efficiently." A second meaning defines violence as an "action, force or feeling" which is "intense, turbulent or furious"; in this case, no explicit reference is made to purpose. According to the same dictionary, "violent" is everything that is "characterized by extreme force," that which is "furious or vehement," "extremely or intensely vivid or loud" or that which is "unusually intense" or "unnaturally strong" (p. 2554). In this case, the character of violence is defined by the intensity of the phenomenon. There are thus two possible conceptions of violence. The first perceives violence as a peculiar characteristic of an action (intensity), without reference to the purpose of that action, thus reducing it to a quantitative and measurable phenomenon. Within this interpretation, violence can be understood as the realization of a powerful energetic potential which logically can be easily identified with instinctive forces over which one may lose control under certain conditions. The second interpretation consists of seeing violence as the use which an individual makes of unusual means to affect another individual (to injure, hurt, destroy, etc.). Within this interpretation, the intensity of the action is no more than a means of achieving the goal more effectively.

According to Arendt (1969), violence can be classified as a "means-end" phenomenon, characteristic of those situations where the means can dominate the end, either by becoming the end in itself, or by being more important than the intended purpose. Violence is a phenomenon which involves two separate aspects, one ethical and the other pragmatic. In such a perspective, it is irrelevant to talk about instinctive forces. Indubitably the driving strength or energy of the activity has its source and origin in the biological constitution of man, but its activation in a specific situation is not of a biological nature; it is a species-specific capacity of the human being, nonexistent in other species, which has emerged during the process of enculturation. This interpretation of violence emphasizes the ideas of **excess** and **inequality** in relation to the use of means to achieve specific ends. Excess is seen

in relation to limits, whereas inequality is related to standards and measures. Thus, the question of violence is related to the question of the existence of norms which define the limits for human actions in social organizations. The excess or disproportionate usage of means while conducting an action thus reveals an excess in the ends envisioned. In the logic of civilized ethics, legitimacy of an end does not automatically make the means legitimate, as this also depends on other factors; illegitimacy of end, however, automatically makes any means illegitimate. Thus violence is more concerned with the freedom of actors to overstep the limits imposed by social norms rather than with the actions themselves. It is impossible to forget that the attribute which qualifies a human action is not its physical nature, but rather the **signification** which people attribute to it.

Violence in the school environment is manifested in three different ways: violence against the school, violence in the school, and violence of the school (institutional violence).

Such a conceptual analysis does not account for the semantic density that so-called violent phenomena can acquire in the social imagination. As is the case with many other words and expressions in a language (i.e., *criminal, mad passion, holocaust, terrorism*), the effect is more powerful than the literal meaning of the word. The fact is that the meaning which violent facts have for people is more closely related to their emotional impact and the difficulty involved in finding rational motives to explain them than to their denotative value. This is related to the actual experience of each individual, as well as the social representations circulating in the society. Our history is replete with violent events such as wars, genocides, slavery, death, and exploitation; and it is these experiences and these representations which provide the powerful evocative potential for the word *violence* that makes it capable of provoking such exceedingly intense reactions.

Another source of ambiguity is the failure of the specialized literature to distinguish between terms such as *violence, aggression,* and *crime.* As d'Entrèves (quoted by Arendt 1969) said, the correct use of such terms is not so much a question of grammatical logic, but rather of historical perspective. Such terms as *crime, aggression,* and *violence,* despite their semantic connections, are conceptually distinct and refer to quite different phenomena. The concept of *violence* refers to a specific means of aggression which exists only in the world of humans, whereas the concept of *aggression* refers to a natural disposition to defend and attack, which is common to many animal species, including humans. The concept of *crime,* on the other hand, has a legal connotation; breaking the law. It is obvious that there are acts of aggression conducted with violence, but there are others where no violence is involved. Moreover, there are many crimes which imply aggression, either physical or moral, but there are others where no such aggression is involved (the so-called "victimless crimes"). There are also crimes conducted with extreme violence; whereas, others do not imply any. On the other hand, it is also obvious that certain acts of aggression so grim as homicide are not always legally a crime, as is the case of war and legitimate defense. Moreover, they may be conducted either violently or non-violently. There are also acts which are not considered to be violent, but which may be the expression of pure, yet symbolic, violence.

Violence, Instinct and Rationality

In the social imagination, the term *violence* evokes the image of turbulence, telluric movements, and uncontrolled natural forces threatening to reduce everything to chaos. This is a confused image of unorganized, impetuous, and uncontrolled forces. According to Morin (1977) human beings have inherited thought patterns in which the Logos involves order and rules. This makes logical opposition a question of the exclusion of contrary elements so that they face constitutive difficulties in dealing with issues of reason and order. This outlook leads to the position that, given the difficulty in finding a rational explanation for violent acts, such acts are considered to be irrational phenomena that may be explained only by the disclosure of instincts which are normally concealed in the innermost depths of consciousness or by deviations from reason. The idea of the instinctive nature of violence is deeply rooted in modern thought, with a basis in the dualist tradition which conceives of the individual as a dual entity, divided between the disorder of nature and the order of reason. This is the meaning of the quotation "Homo homini lupus," which is the basis of Hobbes's moral and political philosophy that he so well presented in 1651 in his book, *The Leviathan.* Freud (1968) considered it irrefutable in the light of experiences in life and history. According to him, upon the failure of

antagonistic psychic forces to inhibit violence, this can manifest itself spontaneously, "causing man to become like a wild animal which has no respect for other members of his own species" (pp. 37-38).

This thesis of a dualistic person has been reinforced by a series of scientific studies in biology and ethology conducted in the 1960s (Dart, 1959; Lorenz, 1969,1970; Tinbergen, 1968; Andrey, 1961, 1966; Morris, 1967, 1969; Storr, 1968, 1972). As pointed out by Johnson (1972), this research, in addition to maintaining the belief that aggression or violence is of an instinctive nature, tries to show its adaptive value for the survival of the species—with survival of the species generally obtained at the expense of the individual. The major objection to this research, which contributed so much to our knowledge of the mechanisms underlying the social organization of animals, is that they attempt to use mechanisms of the functioning of social organization of animals, where they are highly relevant, to account for that of the social life of humans. Such is the case of processes of *ritualization* (concept attributed to Huxley), which according to Lorenz (1969), is an evolutionary phenomenon designed to avoid aggression between congeners which could result in mutual destruction. Lorenz recognizes the cultural characteristics of people, but does not hesitate to use such phylogenetic mechanisms to explain the conformity of civilized peoples to sacred customs and traditions as ritualistic conformity. In the new instinctive mechanisms arising from evolutionary adaptation to new cultural conditions, Lorenz sees the principles controlling the traditions and customs, which become the rituals of civilized peoples and permit the reorientation of instincts for violence. This provides a biological view of the origins of culture which is highly problematic. It is one thing for people to have a biologically inherited capacity for attack and self-defense, and another to say that violence is a spontaneous and inevitable action when cultural inhibitions fail to function. To say that violence is the result of the releasing of instinctive tendencies when people lose rational control is the same as saying that violence is not a human attribute, but this is patently false. On the other hand, suggesting that the use of reason makes humans a more dangerous animal than others, because they have access to even more powerful technological means jeopardizes the status of reason itself. The affirmation of the irrationality of violence thus leads to an impasse: the same idea of reason and rationality used to comprehend it is excluded from its explanation. The question of Lorenz (1970) as to "why rational beings behave in such a non-rational fashion" can most rationally be answered by affirming that it is precisely because of their rationality. A rational being has the capacity to find reasons for actions, even when these reasons are not socially acceptable due to social norms. Only a rational being can act irrationally. The key to the enigma of the so-called irrationality of violence thus lies in reason itself. If violence is "irrational," it is not because it arises from non-rational reasoning, nor because it comes from instinctive forces having gotten out of control, but rather because it is the product of dangerous rational reasoning. This is what occurs when certain mechanisms such as simplification, which reduces everything to a single explicative principle, and polarization, which is the incapacity of accepting the legitimacy of divergent or antagonistic positions (Hacker, 1972) leave people with no alternatives. The problem is not the lack of reason, but rather the presence of a reason judged to be sufficiently strong to justify breaking the socially established limits and rules. What is most frightening about the phenomenon of violence, when fear is involved, is the dramatic appearance—the exposure of cruelty in its pure state—rather than the conceptual meaning in itself. It is possible to say that it is the apparently absurd character of this dramatic composition which makes violence seem irrational. As the analyses of Foucault (1972) have shown, the experience of mad Reason and a reasonable Madness were familiar during the Renaissance. It was with Cartesian rationalism that Madness ceased to be a dramatic experience of criticism of Reason to become the manifestation of error. Later in the nineteenth century, the introduction of the terms "moral insanity" (Prichard, 1835) and "folie morale" (Esquirol, 1838) (concepts from psychiatry which recognized the existence of madness without any alteration of mental functioning) led to the consideration of violence as an irrational and pathological "social instinct" and then to the consideration of violence as irrational, not resulting from the lack of reason, but from twisted or perverted reasoning.

The above arguments lead to the following conclusions: 1) acting

These factors tend to leave the student in the position of "a stranger in the nest" at school, breeding hostile reactions towards the school, or rather towards the administrative personnel and teachers.

violently is an exclusively human characteristic and is, thus, the result of reason, not instinct; 2) violence is not only restricted to the means utilized, but also to its relationship with the desired ends, thus situating it in the area of ethics and human rights; 3) once ethical principles and human rights are violated by individuals or social institutions without punishment, one paves the way for a multiplicity of violent actions and their legitimacy.

Violence in the School Environment

It is impossible to sketch an objective panorama of the occurrence of violence in the school environment in a country the size of Brazil. Tremendous geographical, social and economic differences exist between the regions and between urban and rural dwellers. Also, a large number of schools display immense disparity in material and pedagogic conditions; moreover, there is a dearth of statistical data available. Any estimate of the extension and gravity of the problem will certainly not correspond to the reality. The difficulties are also multiplied because of the concentration of the mass media on occurrences of a violent nature, which may lead to their overestimation, although the objective dimensions of reality, avoided by the mass media, may lead to underestimation.

Given these difficulties, one possible path for analysis would be to emphasize the relationship between the facts and their possible explanation. Violence in the school environment is manifested in three different ways: violence *against* the school, violence *in* the school, and violence *of* the school (institutional violence).

Violence *against* the school may be manifested in different forms, including predatory vandalism of the facilities, such as breaking doors, windows, and permanent material, as well as defacing the walls with graffiti; invasion of the grounds for various illegal activities, such as the consumption of drugs; and plundering and the theft of material, such as hydraulic fittings and electrical components.

Such acts usually occur on weekends and holidays or at night when the schools are closed. The perpetrators of these acts are generally adolescents of the communities where the schools are located, and generally do not attend the school (although occasionally older adolescents who have failed to complete the elementary grades may be involved). Almost all the perpetrators of these acts of violence are educational outsiders; i.e. they are part of that enormous contingent of individuals excluded by the school. This issue will be discussed in further detail later in the text.

The causes of violence in the school, as in the society at large, are multiple and complex, but the root of all of them can be traced to the intolerable economic and social conditions created by the type of development model that has been implemented throughout the years in Brazil.

The scarce and limited research published in this area (Guimarães, 1985) suggests various reasons for violence against the school; especially a generalized lack of security, a lack of integration of the school into the community, and the disciplinary practices of the school. A total lack of physical conditions for the protection of the school (inadequate walls, gates, doors and windows, and of security services (inadequate policing, especially during the periods when the school is closed) leave the school in the position of a "no-man's land," at the mercy of gangs of socially ostracized adolescents. There is also a lack of integration between school and community, with this being more pronounced when there is a greater lack of services in the community. The result is that the school is not felt to be the object of collective ownership, something to be preserved. Moreover, even when the physical installations of the school are precarious, they often stand in direct contrast with the even greater insecurity of housing in the surrounding neighborhood and the pressing need for services in the community, especially where play and recreation for children and adolescents are concerned; this makes the school seem to be some sort of "strange entity" within the social reality of the community. The relation of school and community is aggravated by the fact that these installations lie idle for long periods of the year, constituting, without doubt, a constant provocation in the eyes of the residents of the community. How can one believe that such public entity as the school has nothing to do with the almost miserable reality of so many communities? Furthermore, there are numerous other factors involved in the deterioration of the relationships between teachers, students, and school administration. These include the disciplinary mechanisms of the school, especially those directly linked to the poor and the socially ostracized; the expectations of educational failure

for children from these areas, catered to by many teachers; the deterioration of the physical conditions of the school from either lack or misuse of financial resources; the lack of professional incentives for teachers, at least partially due to low salaries; and a plethora of shifts for different groups of students, resulting in various "schools" within a single school building, with children spending only three or four hours a day at school. These factors tend to leave the student in the position of "a stranger in the nest" at school, breeding hostile reactions towards the school, or rather towards the administrative personnel and teachers.

The violence *in* the school almost always comes from outside the school and parallels the urban violence which is daily becoming more and more of a menace. For the past few years, schools have become the target of gangs of adolescents who prey on the population of the school, even the poorest, submitting them to armed robberies, beatings, and rape. The most prevalent locations for such violence are found in the vicinity of the entrance of the school, but more and more frequently, such violations occur inside the school itself. In general, such occurrences are more common in the schools in the "periphery" (the poorer areas on the outskirts of towns), where there is a total lack of security, more so than in the center of town. But no school is immune from this type of violence. Such violence can occur at any hour of the day, but is more frequent during the time when students are entering and leaving the school and at night. Although the problem of violence in the school is quite serious because it involves children, it is part of the general climate of violence and insecurity which has invaded the large urban centers of the country. In any location and at any time, there is a relatively high risk of becoming the victim of robbery, assault, rape, or even homicide.

The causes of violence in the school, as in the society at large, are multiple and complex, but the root of all of them can be traced to the intolerable economic and social conditions created by the type of development model that has been implemented throughout the years in Brazil. As noted by Chahad and Cervini (1988), this model has been characterized by the following:

If one associates this school structure with the process of exclusion which occurs throughout the educational process, it is possible to claim that the whole educational system, represented by the school, is institutionally violent.

1) Unequal distribution of wealth (in 1989, the poorest 40 percent of the population accounted for only 7.5 percent of the national wealth, with the richest 10 percent holding 51.5 percent);

2) Presence of a large contingent of people who live below or near the poverty level (nearly 75 percent of the population earn three minimum monthly salaries or less, which would be equivalent to approximately US $210 today, in a society where the cost of living is similar to that in United States).

3) An exclusive society, which excludes the majority of the population from access to material goods and culture.

Although it may be incorrect to establish causal relationships between poverty and violence, since the latter does recognize economic, ethnic, or sexual barriers, conditions of misery and human degradation constitute an extremely fertile territory for all types of corruption, such as drug trafficking, arms sales, and the trading of influence, as these seem to provide an easy way out of economic difficulties. The use of violence (physical, moral or psychological) is generally nothing more than a tool for achieving this objective. It is an approach that is becoming more and more frequent, due to the general climate of fear and insecurity which has invaded the society, even in the delinquent sectors.

Violence *of* the school reproduces on another, somewhat smaller scale, the violence of the entire social system. It is indubitably the most serious of all the types of violence committed due to its social consequences. Violence of the school is understood to include not only the numerous arbitrary acts of disciplinary power practiced by the teachers and administration of the school, but also the violence of the school system as a whole, which makes the school an agent either by commission or by omission. This is much more a violence of ends than of means. It is a silent and pernicious violence which is normally not considered to be violence at all because it is so intertwined with the exclusion and social ostracism inherent in school practices. This violence is evidenced in many forms, but only two will be considered here: the selective exclusion of students as a function of the social conditions of their origin and the perpetuation of these same conditions in the form of educational projects.

According to a report of the Ministry of Education and Culture-MEC (1988), in the 1985 enrollment (29,153 million) in the three levels of

education (eight years of obligatory primary education, three years of secondary education, plus university instruction) were distributed in the form of an irregular pyramid, with 84.9 percent of the students in primary education, 10.34 percent in secondary, and 4.69 percent at the university. This distribution constitutes a profile of the educational system of the country as a whole which has remained relatively stable for several decades. However, it may give a false impression if one does not consider that the makeup of the 84.9 percent in primary school also reflects a similar distribution for the 8-year period. Thus of the total enrollments in the first year of mandatory instruction in 1978, only 46.2 percent completed the second grade, 38.5 percent completed the fourth, and a mere 18.13 percent graduated from eighth grade. As stated in UNICEF's report, "The Progress of Nations" published in the newspaper "Folha de São Paulo" on July 31, 1994, given the economic potentials of Brazil and considering the limit of functional illiteracy, one should expect that 88 percent of those who initiate the elementary school should complete the fourth grade.

According to data from (IBGE, PNAD-1986, apud (sic) IPEA 1990:40), the relation between level of education and job reveals that, of the total pool of active workers who earned the equivalent of two minimum monthly salaries (equivalent today to US $144), 42.34 percent had attended four or less years of school, 22.4 percent had attended from 5 to 8, and 8.53 percent had completed from 9 to 11 years. On the other extreme, of those who earned more than 10 minimum monthly salaries (equivalent to approximately US $700), 15.39 percent had 4 or less years of school, 14.57 percent had from 5 to 8, 20.25 percent had from 9 to 11, and 48 percent had continued their education beyond high school. It thus becomes clear that there is a direct relation between educational level and career status. The failure to get a good education condemns an individual to a menial position in the occupational system and to earning a lower salary. As Pino and Pino (1992) concluded sub-education, sub-employment, and low pay constitute a vicious cycle for the maintenance of poverty and misery.

Despite the fact that school repetition and failure lead to an accelerated abandonment of the school, they do not explain the so-called "failure of the schools." This leads one to ponder the question: Is there truly a "failure of the schools"? From the point of view of the student, it is certainly possible to speak of failure in that students fail to achieve the levels of education which they deserve and would like to reach. But it is totally unjust to attribute this, at least exclusively, to their own personal responsibility. However, from the point of view of the educational system, it is more difficult to speak of "failure" considering the fact that everything within the system conspires to bring this about. The educational system has not only lived with this situation for decades, but it has done nothing to change it. Doubts are thus justified as to the true objectives of a system which penalizes almost exclusively, students coming from neighborhoods where sub-education, sub-employment, and poverty prevail and where the majority of the population, both active and inactive, is concentrated. Everything leads one to conclude that there is no political desire to change the situation because it satisfies the interests of the minority who benefit from it, thus guaranteeing the concentration of income which has made the entire country so poor and ashamed of its poverty. If this hypothesis is correct, the school is an accomplice in the educational system, violating the right to education of the weakest members of society, a right which is more and more crucial in obtaining other fundamental rights, which among other things, guarantee a decent quality of life.

Another form of violence, linked with the previous one, is the role of the educational system in the maintenance of the conditions of poverty and ostracism of the student population coming from poor neighborhoods. Despite the endorsement of the principles of universality and equality of public education, as noted by Machado (1989), the educational system is in reality, based on the liberal model of the "common school," which is founded on the principles of *universality* of elementary instruction—the minimum necessary required by the productive system—and the *lack of equality* in qualifications for the jobs offered by the occupational system. This lack of equality is accepted by the educational system through a duplicity of training: the *propaedeutic*, which aims to prepare college graduates to be professionals, and *vocational education*, which trains technicians for jobs of a secondary nature. The true conditions of the educational system grant it the right to select who will go in one direction and who will go in the other. If one associates this school structure with the process of exclusion which occurs throughout the educational process, it is possible to claim that the whole educational system, represented by the school, is institutionally violent. As a matter of fact, the educational system is basically responsible for the social process of exclusion and the continued discrimination and isolation of the poorer segments of society.

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Coping With Violence in the Schools: The Challenge of Limited Possibilities

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In the summer of 1994 an article appeared in the Dutch paper, NRC Handelsblad about violence in Dutch schools. It described the following incident:

> During the last two weeks two teachers and two collaborators of a secondary school in Amsterdam have been threatened by pupils. Last week a sixteen year old boy was arrested and brought before the public prosecutor. The boy is a pupil of the Mondriaan Lyceum in Amsterdam-West. He fell out with a teacher, an assistant and a volunteer of the Educational Means Fund because of a book he had borrowed. The quarrel was probably caused by the fact that he had to pay money when the book was brought back in a bad condition. He left but soon he came back with six friends. They hit and kicked the three members of the staff and spouted tear gas. The teacher injured his head, the assistant had bruises and the volunteer got tear gas in his eyes. (p. 3)

Violence in schools is not a brand new problem. At all times there has been violence in schools, as well as in society. Aggression and violence are part of human history and probably it will always be a challenge how to manage these phenomena. Schools are mirrors of society so they will reflect its problems and sometimes be part of them. But as it becomes apparent on the daily news reports, the current problem with violence and aggression in schools seems to be more widely spread, and more intense than in the past, not to mention its greater societal impact. The example described above shows a new problem in our country: direct aggression against teachers. For this reason, it is critical to carry out an in depth analysis of this issue to determine the underlying causes of this antisocial behavior. The violence against the teacher and his assistants seems to be not just mere aggression against some persons, but rather a clear rejection on part of the pupils of the standards of the school and its pedagogical intentions. Here it is timely to ponder the following question: How do such youngsters behave with regard to their peers? Some school counsellors are speaking of a climate of violence in which pupils and teachers are terrorized by criminal pupils who refuse all positive influence not only from school, but also from their parents. The problems are more complex because of the fact that many of these schools are situated in the slums of big cities. In these slums, parents are the losers of society and have no positive influence on their children even if they wanted to have it. Schools are the representatives of outside standards which obviously are not accepted by these pupils.

Schools have the responsibility and the task to help children and youngsters as much as possible not only to become good people and good citizens, but also to have a good and humane life at school.

Nevertheless, problems are meant to be addressed and to the extent possible solved, even if they are complex. Aggression and violence have their origin in the social circumstances and the biological disposition of the human race, but this should not be an excuse to do nothing about it. Schools have the responsibility and the task to help children and youngsters as much as possible not only to become good

people and good citizens, but also to have a good and humane life at school. This means that they must lend a hand to the children who become the victims of violence. In addition, the school has the moral task to help the offenders become better people capable of leading a nonviolent social life. This is currently a tough job for the school, and it will not be easier in the future. The school might not be able to fulfill the expectations of the citizens in this respect, but this should only be a reason to try harder.

This article will explore the problem of violence in schools, not only as it has manifested itself in the past ten years, but also in a historical context. First, several different types of violence will be analyzed and described in connection to what they mean to the persons concerned. Then some cultural developments and three connected pedagogical paradoxes will be presented and analyzed. There will also be an outline of their relationship with the various types of violence. In addition, some ideas and recommendations regarding ways to cope with the different kinds of problems associated with this issue will be also presented.

Types of Violence

There are different types of violence in society. Therefore, one cannot automatically reduce them to the same social and psychological processes. Consequently, each type of violence requires its own analysis and its own strategy to deal with it. The following three types of violence in schools will be addressed and identified in this article:

The first type is *violence between pupils, in and off-school grounds*. Bullying in different forms and intensity is a very common phenomenon in education. In Norway, Roland (1989) concluded that "at least 5 percent of the children in primary and secondary education schools (7-16) are victims of bullying and that, it is estimated that about the same number of pupils are involved in school violence as bullies" (p. 22). In other countries the figures may be more or less different, but it is hard to deny the fact that the bullying problem is a very serious one. For the Netherlands Mooij (1992) offers us the following data:

When teachers notice that children bully, they can help the class to look for alternative behavior patterns by making them understand the problem and its underlying consequences.

- 4 percent of the children in primary schools are subject to bullying several times a week.
- For secondary education the number is 2 percent.
- 8 percent of the children in primary schools is bullied once or twice a week. In secondary schools the percentage is 2.
- 23 percent of the primary school children say that they are the victim of bullying regularly, which is sometimes a year or more often. In secondary education 6 percent of the school population are at risk to become victims (p. 103).

Mooij's also found that "teachers hardly ever help the victims, and that children don't tell their parents that they are the victims of bullying activities" (p. 104). It is evident that bullying is a serious problem which touches almost every pupil either as a victim, as an offender or as a spectator. In spite of the fact that researchers such as Mooij (1992) provide us with a lot of data about bullying, they are rather limited in their ideas as to how to attack the problem effectively. According to Mooij some researchers including himself have found that there is no relationship between the number of bullies and victims and the number of pupils in a class group. Also, they have concluded that a more intensive supervision results in a smaller number of bullies and victims and that in big secondary schools there is less bullying. These findings of social psychological research may be important, but some critical remarks are pertinent at this point.

First of all their relevance to practitioners is limited. To find that bullying is a worldwide spread problem does not tell us how to solve the problem. It is evident that these findings fail to explain the essence of the bullying problem as a communication problem and are not able to help the teacher in the actual situation.

Another point of critique is that this research tells us nothing about the motives of the children, their feelings, their perspectives and the extent to which these factors are interrelated. The researchers only describe the problem in terms of causes of the bullying behavior and steps to prevent or intervene in this behavior. The measures recommended to take care of the consequences are mostly concentrated on helping the victims, and seem hardly connected to the research findings.

And last but not least, the social psychological approach does not interpret the experiences of the different parties in the situation. Mostly there is a basic solidarity with the victims, but it would also be valuable to distinguish and research the life-world experiences of the other

parties in the situation: the bullies, the neutrals and the teachers. They all have their own interpretations of the concrete situation, and real solutions cannot be found without taking these perspectives into account. This can be illustrated with some remarks on the role of the teacher. Generally people and researchers agree that teachers are not very good helpers in bullying situations. However, the teacher's position is a very delicate one. At the Department of Education of Utrecht University, the role of the teacher has been explored in some small research projects from a phenomenological point of view in which students participated (Vriens, 1992). Children in different situations and teachers were interviewed to analyze the role of the teacher. The following conclusions were reached: (1) Sometimes teachers are part of the problem when they put themselves on the side of the bullies. For the victims, this is an awful experience in which their self-concept is seriously damaged. (2) From the victims' point of view teachers are always failing because they either do not see or are not aware of the problem, and when they learn about its existence, they do not take it seriously. Not to mention the unfortunate fact that often teachers do not know how to cope with bullying effectively. Also, there is no doubt that the problem of the victims has more sides to it. On the one hand, victims need support from a responsible educator when they are in trouble; on the other hand, help from the educator carries the risk that the situation might get worse. The teachers' responsibility in a bullying situation cannot be limited to helping the victim. Teachers are responsible for the whole class. This automatically implies a tendency to value the position of the other parties as well. If they do not do so, their influence in the class will diminish, and they will not be looked at as fair educators in the eyes of the class members. Finally, one has to understand that teachers may have their own feelings and perspectives that might bias their view of the concrete situation. They may have their own preferences of children, their own difficulties with the behavior of the bullies and the victims, and often, there is a kind of ambiguity toward the children who disturb their idea of being the leader of a positive group interaction.

In short, it is very difficult for teachers to take the right position in the mixture of feelings of the parties with their different arguments and strategies and their own ambiguous feelings and options. Nevertheless, teachers must do something. They should not remain mere spectators in this struggle. They are responsible professionals and as such, they should cope with this pedagogical problem that is threatening and disturbing the developmental and learning conditions of their pupils.

The second type of violence in schools is the *aggression between teachers and pupils*. This violence may be one-sided or reciprocal. The most classic type is the violence of the teacher against the students which was the typical scenario in the old authoritarian classical school. In the authoritarian school, the teacher was the absolute ruler of his class. The pupils were disciplined to the norms and values of the school and were supposed to learn about and listen to what the teacher was telling. If they did not obey, the teacher had the option of severe punishment, including the use of corporal punishment. The main goal of the authoritarian school was not the development of the capacities of the pupils, but rather the transfer of knowledge, skills and virtues which were wanted by society. In this conception, there was no need to link up to the interests and needs of the children and youngsters unless this proved to be more effective. Discipline was one of the main problems. Education became a continuous fight between teachers who had to defend their power and the pupils who rebelled against an inhumane system. Mostly the school won and sometimes this victory ruined the lives of the more sensitive children. Adorno (1971) and Buelens and Wijnen (1971) provide many examples of this phenomenon which defined our conception of school and education for a long time.

Although the authoritarian school is no longer dominant in Dutch culture, this does not imply that there is no violent 'education' anymore. In the Dutch educational system corporal punishment is not allowed, and it hardly exists anymore. But because of the fact that teachers still are largely 'kings in their own classroom' there still is the opportunity of the non-corporal hidden violence. Especially frustrated and cynical teachers can do a lot of harm to the dependent children.

Violence always disturbs the working and living climate in the school and interferes with its pedagogical aims.

On the other hand, one may conclude that the retreat of the authoritarian school gave space to more violence of pupils against the teachers. Since the sixties education changed from the transfer of knowledge, skills and virtues to a process of negotiation about values and selling knowledge and skills. The problem with this approach is that what the school has to offer can hardly compete with what children get from the media and the youth cul-

ture. For even the more humane school still stands for:

1. *Effort.* Most of the pupils have to work hard to master what the school teaches.

2. *Dullness and devotion to duty.* Practice bears art, but it also demands persistence and time and is not always pleasant. Much is obligatory and all this need not be interesting.

3. *Solidity and regularity.* This is, by and large, the contrary to a swinging existence. Learning tables, words, or analytical mathematics demand task consciousness and repetition. (Incidentally, if one sees the importance of rhythm in young life one should ask the question, why did schools do away with the method of singsong instead of modernizing it?)

4. *Ordinary confrontation with unexciting matters.* The school has only little to do with 'real' life. If there are connections at all, they are rather concentrated on the dull aspects of real life. One may doubt if these can motivate children and youngsters.

Of course, one never sees this image of the school in the media. There the concept of school is not that of an institute in which children are supposed to study, but rather a society of youngsters in which relationships and problems with relationships are in focus. Teachers are hardly associated with the transfer of culture, and as educators they are a little bit ridiculous. The youngsters are able to manage their own problems.

In such a situation, pupils are bored stiff and are prepared to challenge teachers who have a weak natural authority. Teachers can no longer rely on the authority of the institution school or the family, and therefore, fall sometimes victims to aggression. Teachers have a hard job to do just watching out for their own safety, especially in city schools where the student body comes from many different cultures.

Recently this problem has reached considerable proportions. Youngsters seem to be more willing to use physical violence, particularly in situations where teachers lose control and authority. There is also a tendency on their part to terrorize other children. Violence seems to be the normal way of communication and weapons like knives, catapults and fire arms come on the scene. A school which has reached this critical stage has a serious problem. If it receives the reputation of an unsafe school parents will move their children to a better school, and the existence of the school will be in jeopardy.

... no matter how much imbedded in our culture violence may be, children must be prepared for a better future.

In spite of the fact that violence has become a part of everyday school life, especially in the older city schools, the problem is mostly denied. Problems with violent students are a new taboo in the field of education. However, this threatening reality cannot be hidden in a society where schools are not isolated pedagogical islands. In fact, schools receive their share of societal problems. It is here where the source of the third type of school violence may be found because as it has become apparent, *the criminal network tries to recruit youngsters and even young children for their activities in the schools.* Often this is only a silent activity, but because these youngsters earn considerable amounts of money in the process, and because of the fact that they are introduced into a world of necessary violence and use of arms, the school climate can be negatively influenced in a dramatic way. In this context, it is difficult for teachers to stress the importance of social values and norms to their pupils, especially if they cannot count on the support of the parents.

Even without this kind of criminal infiltration schools have to reckon with criminal activities of children and youngsters, although they are less alarming. Almost every secondary school is familiar with drug abuse and theft on school grounds, and in the neighborhood stores. Especially in large scale schools, pupils are anonymous pawns in a climate which offers the opportunities to be derailed without being noticed. It may not create a threatening situation, but it certainly deprives these children from a positive climate which would help them develop in a positive way.

A special criminal expression of violence is the growing racism and nationalism among students. This is a common trend in many schools, although fortunately, schools have put in place many activities to warn these youngsters of the damaging consequences of these phenomena. A very good point in most programs against racism, fascism and neo-Nazism is that they are carried out by young people as well as by adults. Despite this effort in the right direction, this issue is yet to be resolved, especially in the poverty stricken sections of the cities where many foreigners live.

Pedagogical Paradoxes

From the previous analysis, one can easily arrive at the conclusion that violence in the schools is not an isolated problem. Our culture is 'blessed' with a huge potential for aggression at almost every level of society. This aggression is an important characteristic of our culture which penetrates into almost every-

one's everyday life. Children are constantly confronted with it from an early age. However, no matter how much imbedded in our culture violence may be, children must be prepared for a better future. Somehow education and schooling have the obligation to draw alternative lines or avenues for the development and education of children. For although in our culture, violence is present everywhere, it does not mean that there are not other alternatives and effective ways to address the problem effectively.

In this context, a pedagogical theory should offer alternatives to understand violence and strategies to cope with it effectively. It is unfortunate that there are no such theories in pedagogy. Pedagogy is as uncertain about its basic values and strategies as society and culture in general. This is a real limitation when one tries to attack the problems of violence in the schools. In an effort to help understand and clarify this issue, a short description of this pedagogical dilemma is offered in three paradoxes.

First paradox: Pedagogy between optimism and doubt

Pedagogy defines education as helping children and youngsters to become adults. This means that they will be able to manage themselves in the society of tomorrow. In essence, this is an optimistic definition because it implies a trust in the future.

The optimism of pedagogy goes farther than this everyday meaning: education and school do not only contribute to a better future of the child, they are also oriented towards a better world. This optimism is based on the ideology of the Enlightenment, which provides a modern world view with its ideas of progress, scientific development, and democracy. The so-called project of progress of the Enlightenment focused on the betterment of the world by means of the spread of knowledge, the development of science, the propagation of democracy and the creation of a better human being. The German philosopher Immanuel Kant (1917) even defined the ultimate goal as eternal peace. This world view of the Enlightenment was dominant during the Nineteenth Century and was at the birth of national education. With the motto "For every school we open we can close a prison" the idea that knowledge is both power and virtue was worked out in a practical project of education for all. In the Twentieth Century this world view is still the dominant one, but its optimism was attacked seriously due to the influence of such psychological theories as psychoanalysis and two world wars. Freud (1941) showed that people's acts are more often the result of unconscious drives than of knowledge. Especially the Second World War with its absolute inhumane ideologies made clear that people are not naturally good but are instead able to strive for the absolute inhumane. It is now impossible to hold the idea of the Enlightenment that knowledge implies automatically virtue. The same can be said about history as a story of moral progress. In spite of this critique the concept of progress as a scientific furnishing of the world with the help of technology, economics and education is still alive. Most educational measures are justified as adjustments to the demands of our modern, fast developing economical technological society.

One may conclude that for the humanity of the future our society does not have a committing concept of values anymore.

Second paradox: Pedagogy between future orientation and nihilism

Besides the decline of the project of progress of the Enlightenment there is another more fundamental critique of the optimism of pedagogy. For the definition of education as help for children and youngsters to manage in the world of tomorrow implies at least two presuppositions. The first is that there will be a future, and the second is that this future will be as good or even better than the present.

In reality the future is not so sure and the same can be said about the quality of the future. This can become a real threat to humankind and the humanity of the future. The future of the world is seriously threatened by an ongoing ailment of our environment and by a systematic exhaustion of basic raw materials. Furthermore, it is too early to say that nuclear threat and the risks of other military destroying potential has already been conquered. Our future is especially at stake because of an economic system which is not only unjust at a global level but also, is more and more dominated by an absurd strive for profit maximizing. This brings about an enormous rivalry which leads more and more to egotism and alienation.

One may conclude that for the humanity of the future our society does not have a committing concept of values anymore. Tradition can be no orientation in a development toward a pluralistic society, and the decline of the idea of progress makes it difficult to believe in moral progress.

The question is now if cultural pluralism can be embodied in such a way that it contains a common

basis for a shared humanity. What orientations does one need and what are the consequences for the pedagogical tasks of the school?

Third paradox: pedagogy between power and powerlessness

Every educational situation includes authority and structures of power. Actually educators have power over young people, but this power is justified by the responsibility for the growing-up youngster. This responsibility does not only concern the transfer of knowledge and skills, but also the introduction into the values and norms which are identified as important. Our society expects that educators take this responsibility for the introduction of our children to such essential values and norms as democracy, respect for life, the prohibition of violence, tolerance, solidarity, and the sharing of the world with co-citizens, and the maintenance of society.

On the other hand, the same society also works against the educator who takes this responsibility seriously. Of course, democracy is an important good, but much too often young people are confronted with authoritarian structures, even in education. To contribute to society sounds as a good idea, but how to realize this in a situation in which unemployment is a real prospect for too many? And what is the meaning of respect for life when economic and bureaucratic structures remind you constantly that you are no more than a replaceable pawn in the game of an anonymous organization? The same conclusion can be made concerning values such as tolerance and solidarity. What is their impact in an economy which since the Reagan-Thatcher period became an overall accepted system of organized egoism?

But the biggest problem for education starts when one has to teach the norm that violence is not permitted. In our modern culture the influence of education and school has been diminished enormously. Youngsters receive their lessons from others, like television, computer games, comics and toys. Television is an almost continuous 'bombing' of violence, cruelty and other non-positive values reaching nearly every child. The same can be noticed about computer games, which tend to make violence a totally normal anonymous technical action. These games are especially successful because they take advantage of the need of adventure, action and technique. The success of comics is based on the fact that they have formulated their message after the communication patterns of television. Many children read them and only few of them will be aware how much glorification of violence, racism, ethnocentrism and enemy thinking is offered to them. And it is enough to take a short trip through a toy shop to get an idea of the amount of violent toys available to the generation of the future. Certainly one can admit that children do not become aggressive because of a toy gun. There is hardly evidence that there is a straight connection between aggression and the other influences. But that is not the pedagogical point. These negative influences offer children the idea that violence is a normal fact of life which is beyond discussion. And one may question if this is a meaningful orientation in a world with a hardening society?

What Schools Can Do: Possibilities and Limitations

Schools confronted with violence definitely face a challenge to its pedagogical tasks. Violence always disturbs the working and living climate in the school and interferes with its pedagogical aims. In a climate of violence and aggression children cannot grow up in a humane way. They cannot develop a basic trust in other people and society because they lack protection against the aggressors. There is a serious danger that children in such circumstances will accept violence as a normal way of life to protect themselves where the responsible adults fail.

... democracy is an important good, but much too often young people are confronted with authoritarian structures, even in education.

In spite of this educational challenge, the school has only limited possibilities to attack the problem of violence and to protect its children against the consequences of aggression. Since violence is a social problem that goes beyond the borders of the school, one cannot expect the school to be the solution for such a societal ill. It may be true that the school has a responsibility for the development of children and for the transfer of social values and norms, but it is also an empirical fact that education cannot fully compensate for society's ills and problems such as for example, those derived from the risks of its military destroying potential. This reality contrasts with the perception of society contained in the Dutch term, "maakbaarheid" which means "possibility to construct or create." The idea of society as merely the product of human construction is implicit in it. According to this view, changes in society are rather easy to carry out. In this optimistic context, the school is seen

as one of the most important agents of social change. However, it is evident that in this struggle, the school has enough to do to defend its own image and survival, and therefore, has available limited possibilities to contribute to society's "maakbaarheid."

A consequence of this position is that one should analyze violence in its concrete expressions. What causes violence? What are the societal and socio-economic incentives, and what is their influence on concrete education? What is the task of teachers when they are confronted with direct aggression in their schools? Without having clear-cut solutions, it is still possible to give some direction as to what teachers can look for regarding specific strategies to deal with this problem accordingly, depending upon the type of violence they may be confronted with.

With the first type of violence—*children against children*—one can certainly speak of a pedagogical responsibility of the teacher and the school team. The school will never be able to prevent all bullying in schools, but a careful strategy can reduce the problems to a large extent. Such a strategy will be a combination of organizational and pedagogical measures. In the organizational realm, schools can strive for a good and friendly school climate in which teachers know the children and show interest in them. If supervisors know what is going on in the school they are able to help as well. To reach this, schools must be small enough to prevent children from becoming anonymous individuals without any solidarity within the school community. When teachers notice that children bully, they can help the class to look for alternative behavior patterns by making them understand the problem and its underlying consequences. This is very important because often children have no idea about the consequences of their behavior, and they cannot find a way out of the situation without help. Since the bullying problem came into sight about ten years ago, one has seen an increment in the development of strategies and approaches to cope with it more effectively, but unfortunately these instruments are only of limited use in practice.

The school can compensate only to a very limited degree for bad influences from society; but even these limited possibilities are a huge challenge.

When one talks about the second type of violence—*teachers against pupils*—only the aggressive climate of the old authoritarian school can be seen as a pedagogical problem. This problem was not only a consequence of an authoritarian society, but also of an underdeveloped child and youth psychology. Teachers did not understand the children and were not expected to do so. They only expected to manage their class and keep order in the school. Since the rise of post World War II pedagogy, the authoritarian school disappeared and teachers learned that a friendly school and class climate stimulates the pupils and solves a lot of problems with order and authority. The old concept of education was replaced by a climate of negotiation. Under more 'democratic' circumstances, teachers as well as pupils, if they felt uneasy, sometimes fell back into violent behavior to maintain themselves. In this situation, the teacher is responsible to look for alternatives, such as acquiring new competencies if necessary. When it comes to the case of open-corporal violence by youngsters against other pupils and their teachers, one can hardly speak about a pedagogical situation anymore. The school has to take disciplinary measures and if these measures are not successful, help from outside must be sought.

In the case of criminal violence, the same principle applies. The school has only limited possibilities to attack this problem, and it is not the only responsible institution. Despite the fact that the school can help to prevent its youngsters from getting involved in criminal behavior, criminal activity is mainly the responsibility of the police. The school can certainly take measures to protect its children from criminal activities in its own domain by supervision of the school grounds and the immediate surroundings.

In the case of racism, fascism and xenophobia, the school can organize programs to teach children about the ultimate consequences of this behavior. Also, active supervision can be used to prevent organized or ongoing discriminating behavior by its pupils.

Conclusion

This article described and analyzed the problem of violence and aggression in the schools. It showed the complexity of the problem by analyzing three different types of violence which were confronted with three pedagogical paradoxes present in our culture. As it pertains to education and the school, a distinction must be made between the pedagogical and societal problems of violence. The school can compensate only to a very limited degree for bad influences from society; but even these limited possibilities are a huge challenge.

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An Essay on School Violence and Safety Education in Japan

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School violence is a serious problem in the schools in Japan as well as in the United States. There have been various efforts aimed at preventing or resolving this problem. In this article, the actual condition of school violence in Japan will be presented. Although the types to school violence vary among countries, in Japan there are three prevalent forms: violence among students, violence toward teachers, and vandalism.

According to the reports of the Monbusho (Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1989, 1992), all three types of school violence peaked in 1982 and then decreased. However, recently they are increasing again as shown in the following table.

Violence, among students in particular, is very serious in Japan. As a result of violence from schoolmates, the student may suffer physically, be absent from school for a long period, or even commit suicide. What makes it worse is that the extreme results are becoming more and more prevalent. These problems mainly occur at junior high school level.

In Japan, as noted by Suzuki, Takahashi and Nishimura (1983), school violence is defined as "the behavior that results in physical and psychological pain to one or more students through physical aggression, repeated psychological abuse or harassment." (pp. 15-29). As described by the definition, there can be various kinds of violence in the actual school situation. Several typical behaviors that stand out more frequently are the following: ridicule, expulsion from the group, malicious mischief against one's possessions, forcing unwilling behavior, threat, and physical aggression. It is important to note, however, that guns are not a component of the school-violence problem in Japan. This is mainly due to the fact that the law strictly prohibits having guns. However, instead of guns, weapons such as knives are sometimes used with deadly results.

Although types of school violence among students vary from

Table 1

Year	Junior High		High School	
	No. of schools reporting violence	Percent of schools reporting violence	No. of schools reporting violence	Percent of schools reporting violence
1982	1388	13.5	415	10.5
1983	1373	13.3	349	8.6
1984	1203	11.6	281	6.8
1985	1173	11.2	283	6.8
1986	979	9.3	314	7.5
1987	988	9.4	309	7.4
1988	1010	9.5	392	9.3
1989	1136	10.7	452	10.8
1990	1187	11.2	498	11.9

case to case, one can identify some common characteristics. Usually, one or a small group of students is abused physically or psychologically by another specific group. As violence usually occurs outside of class time, it is very difficult for teachers to detect it. Many times the abuse begins as normal horseplay then escalates into violence. The victims of violence usually have the following characteristics: timid, obedient (meek), introverted, and learning disabled. Likewise, the characteristics of the assailants are diverse. There have been several cases in which the offenders have been identified as students with good grades and coming from happy home environments.

In this context, the causes of school violence must take into account various psychological aspects. One explanation is that the mental pressures of daily school life that emphasize academic success cause stress and frustration and, consequently, this stress stimulates aggressive behavior and emotions. Another explanation cites social immaturity and lack of self control. Several explanations have been proposed, but none of them are satisfactory in explaining the increasing incidence of violence in schools. What has become apparent is the fact that violence prevents the school from being a safe and effective learning environment inhibiting the healthy individual and social development of each child. Therefore, strategies have been developed to counteract violence and the effects it has on Japanese schools. These efforts may be classified into the following three levels: individual teacher's efforts; school-wide strategies; and family-school partnerships.

Individual Teacher's Efforts:

The first level is associated with the individual teacher's efforts to deal with the problem of violence. In this regard, it must be noted that in Japan the teacher is expected to assume the primary role in preventing school violence and discipline problems. Teachers are expected to detect violence and intervene before it degenerates into more serious and damaging consequences.

... guns are not a component of the school-violence problem in Japan. This is mainly due to the fact that the law strictly prohibits having guns.

Teachers are expected to be knowledgeable of different intervention strategies to deal with this difficult problem. However, it is important to point out that teachers rarely scold or punish the troublemakers. In many cases, teachers try to talk the problem out with the students in an effort to understand their state of mind and the psychological problems underlying their aggressive behavior. As mentioned before, teachers in Japan are expected to have basic knowledge and skills as counselors. Teachers are also expected to prevent school violence. In other words, teachers are expected to keep a positive atmosphere in the classroom. To accomplish this, teachers set aside enough time for group activities and periodically talk with their students individually to advise and guide them. This is an effort aimed to help them to cope with their school-related anxieties and pressures.

School-wide Strategies and Efforts:

Due to the fact that individual teacher's efforts have proven to be insufficient in keeping schools free of violence, the second level was created to address the issue from a school-level perspective. On this level, three types of strategies are implemented. The first has to do with strengthening of the moral education curriculum as a means of reinforcing and further developing in the students positive social norms. In recent years, students from elementary school to junior high school receive moral education in order to help them appreciate and understand the importance of human rights and the dignity of life. In addition, peace education has been an important part of the school curriculum. In this way, students learn that violence only brings misery to all human beings.

Another strategy is tailored to deal with the problem by organizing a special team of teachers in each school. This team plays a leading role in the development and implementation of guidance and counseling activities aimed at the prevention of violent behavior in schools. The team is organized at the beginning of the school year. Teachers who are part of the team are responsible for the development and implementation of a yearly school-wide plan to cope with violence and discipline effectively. When a violent incident takes place on the school grounds, the team works in cooperation with the student's homeroom teacher to search for an effective solution to the problem. It is important to mention that the teachers who are part of the team also have their own homeroom classes and teach a full load.

Finally, there is a third strategy that is aimed at strengthening the schools' extracurricular activities such as sports, music, art and a vari-

ety of other clubs. By and large, it can be found in Japan that violent students have a history of low academic achievement and a low adaptation rate to the learning activities provided by the school. In this regard, the extracurricular activities have proven to be very helpful in developing these students' positive attitude and interest in school life.

The Family-school Partnership

It is a fact that schools are not the source and cause of all school-violence problems. Socio-economic conditions, parent-child relations, and family problems account for many of the frustrations that cause students to become involved in disruptive and violent behaviors. In this respect, it is imperative that schools maintain a close relationship with the students' parents. Japanese homeroom teachers maintain close communication with the students' parents during the school year as they try to promote better understanding and communication between parents, students and teachers. For instance, when a violent incident takes place in the school, the teacher immediately calls the offender's parents in an effort to work the problem out cooperatively. In addition, school administrators usually exchange information with the police and other crime-preventing organizations or agencies in order to prevent delinquency and crime outside of the school grounds. One must point out that the efforts of individual teachers have proven to be the most successful. Herein, it is worth noting that these results are not the product of chance, but rather a combination of the teachers' caring attitude, and their classroom-management knowledge and counseling skills acquired throughout their teacher-education training in colleges and universities. In Japan, in addition to the knowledge of their respective subject areas, these skills are regarded as critical for teachers to master.

... in Japan the teacher is expected to assume the primary role in preventing school violence and discipline problems.

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Safe Schools Require the Contributions of Everybody: The Picture in Turkey

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It has been a great debate to identify the antecedents, sources of disruption and violence in the classrooms. Teachers, students and the general public have proposed ideas and arguments on who is to blame. The lack of discipline at home has been proposed as a primary reason by teachers and public. However, the relative importance of the teachers, the students and their socialization process should not be undermined. Therefore, to shed a little bit more light on this issue, we aim to contribute to this debate with our frame of reference.

School is the place where children spend the largest portion of their time outside the home. In relation with this, it makes great sense to observe carefully what takes place and how children behave in school in an effort to identify the effective and positive variables for safe and effective schools.

On the other hand, various home experiences have an influence on children's behavior. The time that parents spend at home, the quality of the time spent together, and how they respond to their children's behaviors, rejection, and parental attitudes may have significant influences on children's behavior.

School and home are two major settings that shape children's behavior. As well as these two important settings, society at large may play a significant role (i.e., peer pressure, modeling, the effects of mass media). Family and social influences on discipline problems are usually interrelated (Edwards, 1993).

Although we mention three broad settings that shape students' behaviors, teachers play a vital role in creating an appropriate learning environment. The teachers' role in providing positive discipline and effective schools is critical. They need a well-planned, individual approach to discipline. An improper, ineffective learning environment strikes at the very heart of the schools' and societies' purpose. Teachers are expected to decide which discipline approach to use based on their educational philosophy and personal values. In other words, in creating effective schools, the orientation of teachers on how they perceive discipline and whether to use an existing model of discipline, synthesize one from components of two or more models, or create their own seems to be a vital step to be taken (Charles, 1989).

Glasser (1984) indicated that a good preventive discipline program should provide for students' needs (i.e., love, control, fun) in the instructional program, encourage students to communicate what they would like to learn and how they would like to learn it, involve students in establishing explicit rules and expectations and foster the establishment of good relationships between students and teachers.

Effective schools require maintaining not only good discipline, but also good classroom management procedures. Using teaching activities that provide an appropriate level of autonomy for students and capitalizing on students' interests seem to be a significant dimension of effective learning. Discipline problems are fewer when students were focused in class.

The point that has been made up to this moment seems to be a universal perspective. The purpose in this article is twofold. Firstly, to share the research-based information on discipline and classroom, specifically, at the elementary and

junior high school level, in Turkey. Secondly, to propose some procedures based on the effective strategies in our system. Also, how teachers and administrators perceive discipline and management were explored on a small scale study to provide a base for the approaches and procedures presented in this article.

In Turkey, research on classroom management and discipline has focused on several dimensions. One dimension was to describe the discipline problems observed and perceived by the teachers and administrators. In a study (Eripek, 1982) investigating the discipline problems in the secondary schools, inattentiveness to school and classes, disrespectful behavior to teachers and administrators, disrupting classes by being loud, not paying attention to what was going on in class were rated as the most frequent problems in schools. Türkeç (1986) reported the discipline problems in junior high schools. They were rated as disrespectful behavior to teachers, cheating, inattentiveness to school and classes, smoking at school, and vandalism. Uysal (1991) concluded the disruptive behavior in class (32 percent), fighting with a friend (14 percent), truancy (10 percent), cheating (6.5 percent), disrespectful behavior to teachers (5.0 percent), stealing (1.0 percent), and vandalism (1.0 percent) as the observed problems in secondary schools.

A study investigating the level and the type of school in relation to the frequency of discipline problems indicated that there was an increase in disciplinary actions taken by the school administrator as the socio-economic status (SES) decreased. Furthermore, the same study reported that the prevalence of disciplinary problems in junior high schools were twice the ones reported in senior high schools and the public schools seemed to have more disciplinary actions taken in comparison to private schools (Gözütok, 1992).

The other dimension was related to the type of the disciplinary measures taken to deal with the behavior problems at schools. Türkeç (1986) reported that warning and advising the student was the most frequent measure taken (45.86 percent). Referral to the counseling service (8.27 percent), talking to the parents (6.76 percent), referral to the disciplinary committee(5.3 percent) were some other measures used. Another study investigated the management techniques and strategies used by the senior high school teachers. The teachers used positive discipline as a main strategy (35 percent); warning the students, physical aggression like spanking, verbal aggression, taking the student to the principal (30 percent), using physical and verbal signals (27 percent), ignoring the misbehavior (8 percent) were some other strategies (Gözütok,1992). Fndkç (1991) reported that 68.5 percent of the teachers used democratic strategies and attitudes, 22.2 percent preferred democratic and tolerating attitudes and 9.2 percent favored authoritarian actions toward discipline problems. Uysal (1991) concluded that warning the student was the initial strategy used by the teachers and administrators, followed by short-term leave from school and lastly long-term leave from school.

When we concentrate on elementary schools, the picture has some similarities and differences. In two independent studies, the percentage of referrals to clinics was found to range from 64.5 percent to 35.5 percent; and from 61.5 percent to 38.5 percent, for elementary school boys and girls respectively (Epir, 1974; Sonuvar, Öktem, Yörükolu, & Akyldz,1982). The authors have carried on adaptation and standardization studies of the teacher version of the child behavior profile for girls and boys aged 7-12. The child behavior checklist (CBCL), which has been developed by Achenbach(1978) is an assessment instrument designed to obtain the parents' reports of their children and to provide a standardized frame of a child's behavior related to behavioral and adaptive competencies. The Teachers' Report Form (TRF) was aimed at obtaining the reports of the teachers in connection with their students' problems and adaptive functioning in a standard format. TRF was developed by Edelbrock and Achenbach (1984) to make use of the teachers' perception of children's performances and behaviors at school. In Turkish standardization of TRF, there are 118 Behavior Problem items categorized into 8 scales. These scales are Anxious, Social Withdrawal, Depressed, Unpopular, Self-destructive, Inattentive, Nervous-overactive and Aggressive. The Turkish norms for boys and girls seemed to be higher in comparison to American scores. For girls, mainly the norms for Social Withdrawal, Anxious, Depressed and Aggressive Scales seemed higher. For boys, mainly the norms for Aggressive, Inattentive and Anxious were higher (Akkok, Akar, & Sucuolu, 1989). In aggressive subscale, the cut off score for boys in American norms was 41-42 whereas the Turkish score cut off score was 47.

Teachers had a great desire to cooperate with parents.

When elementary school teachers were asked to report the disciplinary problems within the classroom and outside the classroom, the picture was as follows. Within the classroom and during the courses,

some behaviors were frequently observed by teachers where the others were rarely observed. The most frequent behavior problems noted were speaking without taking turns, being extremely noisy, complaining friends to teachers unnecessarily. Moreover, mocking friends, not obeying the school rules, disturbing others and others' goods were some other reported behaviors. Interestingly, speaking without taking turns, talking too loud, lack of self-responsibility, inattentiveness, being messy, getting involved with other things in class, and insensitivity to the responsibilities were a group of disruptive behaviors that might be directly related to the lack of a meaningful learning environment. The least observed behaviors were self-aggression, cheating, stealing, extreme interest in sexual issues and lack of respect of adults. When teachers were asked to report the most observed behaviors that block the effectiveness of the schools outside the classroom, swearing (physical aggression), making fun of friends, talking too loud, being messy, lack of self-responsibility, and not obeying the rules were listed. The least observed behaviors out of the classroom were self-aggression, damaging one's own goods, stealing, lack of respect for adults and extreme interest in sexual issues. When the same teachers were asked to report the disciplinary and management measures and techniques used effectively, they foremost concentrated on the management of the classroom climate and creating an effective learning environment. They agreed on the consistency of the teachers' responses, rules and procedures as a determining factor. Secondly, specifying expected and forbidden actions (dos and don'ts of the classroom life) or defining limits and giving academic responsibilities seemed to be vital for effective classroom management. Teachers also perceived showing love and affection to children as an important and necessary dimension for effective classroom climates. However, the teachers also reported punishment (verbal and physical) and positive reinforcement as important means for management. Keeping a close eye on students, 'witness' was provided as an effective strategy as well. Cooperation with parents, encouraging self-management, self-responsibility, having one to one conversation, discussion with the child and developing meaningful learning activities were reported as 'working ' strategies. Elementary school teachers responded by reporting verbal and physical punishment as the most widely used strategy. Discussing the problem situation with the child and using signals (calling on by name, eye to eye contact, physical contact) were used as effective tools. However, advising and warning the child were some other penalties imposed.

In Turkey, the child-rearing practices and the teachers' and administrators' attitudes toward children are mostly authoritarian.

Since we believe that safe schools require the contributions of everybody, teachers were also asked their expectations from parents for effective learning environments. Teachers had a great desire to cooperate with parents. They perceived the cooperation of parents and the home-school cooperation and consistency of the responses, rules and procedures as basic for safe and effective schools. Furthermore, the teachers expected the parents to have 'witness' at home as well. In other words, parents were expected to be aware of everything happening to their child and show love and affection to their child. The relationship-building experiences for the teachers, students and parents and the commitment on the part of all parties that feelings that arise between members of the school community and parents are to be confronted, discussed and resolved insofar as that is possible look like two important ingredients in this respect (Diamond, 1992). An interesting study revealed data on both students' and teachers' opinions regarding the primary sources of problem behavior at school (Baron, 1990). Teachers attributed much more blame than the students to the parent-related sources of problem behavior. 'Good behavior not stressed by parents at home' and 'lack of parental concern' were rated as the most important reasons for misbehavior. In Turkey, teachers' desires were on this line, too; they had a great desire to cooperate with parents and parents' 'witness' at home was perceived as a vital point.

When teachers were asked the administrators' contributions about safe schools, the administrators were suggested to have consistent and definite penalties and to impose these when necessary. Moreover, the administrators were expected to stand firm in enforcing arrangements and have a leading position in this regard and in imposing penalties and enforcing them.

General Discussion

The differences in the socialization process of different cultures, different value systems, and child-rearing practices as well as parental attitudes seem to play a very significant role in shaping the school environment. In Turkey, the child-rearing practices and the teachers' and administrators' attitudes toward

children are mostly authoritarian. As will be discussed later, the development of the communication, speaking and listening skills among the teachers, students, parents and administrators is vital. Furthermore, to develop a better understanding of the child and his/her needs, parents, teachers and administrators should be informed about the age-level characteristics and the developmental needs of the children.

Safe schools require the contributions of everybody.

Furthermore, many of the problems are the result of social and family problems and school policies and procedures. Teachers' attitudes and behaviors also contribute to them. Teachers must have their own tools or approach to deal with classroom management and discipline problems. In an effective classroom, applying good classroom management procedures should go together with making good discipline. When students are provided with meaningful classroom activities and motivated to express themselves through these activities, a very basic step for effective classroom environment is accomplished. When students are actively involved in the organization of the classroom activity and management, self-initiation and self-responsibility become positive contributors for safe schools. On this line, social skill development (e.g., care for the environment, respecting others, greeting others, helping others, positive attitude toward others, accepting consequences, expressing feelings, positive attitude toward self, responsible behavior, attending behavior) incorporated into school and home experiences can contribute to schools with less disruption and violence. In Turkey, we have almost no specific attention and emphasis paid to social skill development within the school settings. Of course, parents have a very significant role in helping the children to acquire the social behaviors, however, they should be guided as well. In addition to this, it is suggested that social skill development should be integrated into the curriculum. In this dynamic and rapidly changing world, the schools and students should be dynamic, therefore, as long as students actively and dynamically express their needs and potentials, we may predict effective schools. In other words, if we are able to create meaningful learning environments in schools, the most frequent behaviors listed by the elementary school teachers like speaking without taking turns, lack of self-responsibility, inattentiveness and getting involved with other things in class, will be replaced by meaningful responses.

Moreover, interactions between teachers and students are the very core of effective, safe schools and the quality of these interactions involves communication skills of speaking and listening. The more effective teachers, teachers who treat students with greater respect and criticize less, attend carefully to what they say, accept their statements of feeling, praise their successes and involve the students in decision making, contribute significantly to the effectiveness of the school environment. In addition to this, as the communication skills between parents and their children develop, we will have a good starting point for respectful and positive school settings.

Safe schools require the contributions of everybody. As the relationship-building experiences between the students, teachers, parents, administrators and all other related parties develop and the school settings become more meaningful learning environments, we may expect to have more effectively and productively functioning students.

To sum it all up, having more manageable and harmonious systems and improving school safety and discipline may involve at least two ingredients. Firstly, increased student responsibility to help them develop a greater sense of ownership and feeling of control over their environment looks vital. Students should be encouraged to work toward satisfying social and self-esteem needs through constructive interaction with classmates and making positive contributions to the class as a whole. To get into meaningful learning experiences in and out of the classroom will be a contributor to this aim. The establishment of two-way communication between students and teachers is an important aspect of this interaction. Secondly, the communication between parents, children and teachers should be promoted. In addition to these, the consistency of expectations and standards at home and school is considered as a significant ingredient in improving the school safety and discipline.

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Table 2

Frequency of Raw Scores and Percentage of the Subjects' Mental Development and NCR										
	A < & = 9 Very Developed		B < & = 6 Developed		C < & = 3 Less Developed		D < & = 0 Not Developed		Mean	SD
Variables / Frequencies	Raw	%	Raw	%	Raw	%	Raw	%	—	—
1. Nonviolence (NCR) Average of S&O-NCR	20	48%	22	52%	0	0%	0	0%	7.43	1.52
a. Subjective-NCR	22	52%	18	43%	2	5%	0	0%	7.43	1.78
b. Objective-NCR	15	36%	27	64%	0	0%	0	0%	7.07	1.45
2. Mental Development (Goldschmid and Bentler Test)	26	62%	16	38%	0	0%	0	0%	7.86	1.47
	(6 & 5)		(4 & 3)							

derstanding the concept of NCR as: A) Very Developed, B) Developed, C) Less Developed, and D) Not Developed. The four developmental degrees, from higher to lower, relatively correspond with the ranked scores of A = 9, B = 6, C = 3, and D=0. The final score for each question was determined from the mean of the interviewer and the judge's scores. Table 2 shows the frequency of raw scores and percentages of subjects' four developmental levels of NCR.

Mental Development

Referring to Table 2, the result of the Goldschmid and Bentler (1968) test revealed that the majority of the subjects demonstrated a mastery of Piagetian conservation task. The results indicated that subjects were either at the concrete operational stage or at the entry level of this stage.

The results of subjects' mental development indicates that they had attained the prerequisite of cognitive development for being able to function, at least at the level of Kohlberg's "preconventional" stage of moral development (De Vries and Kohlberg, 1987). At the lower level of this stage "egocentricity" governs the moral judgment, and morality could be developed through punishment and reward. At the higher level of the preconventional stage, "reciprocity" controls the moral judgment, and morality should be practiced through equity and fairness.

Subjective and Objective Viewpoints in NCR

Table 2 shows that there were no considerable differences be-

Table 3

Subjects' Concepts of Five Perspectives in Sharing	
Perspectives	**Situations**
1. Taking-in-sharing (TS)	When subject wants to play with the tricycle used by the playmate
2. Giving-in-sharing (GS)	When the playmate wants to play with the tricycle used by the subject
3. Rejected in Taking-in-sharing (R-TS)	When playmate rejects sharing the tricycle with the subject
4. Forced in giving-in-sharing (F-GS)	When playmate forces subject to give up the tricycle
5. Taking-and-Giving-in-sharing (TG-S)	When subject and other playmates all want to play with the same tricycle

Table 4

Raw and Percentage Frequency, Mean, and SD of Subject's Answers to Five Perspectives of Sharing in Nonviolent Conflict Resolution

Five Perspective /Category	A = < 9 Very Developed		B = < 6 Developed		C = < 3 Less Developed		D = < 0 Not Developed		Mean	SD
Situations / Score	**Raw**	**%**	**Raw**	**%**	**Raw**	**%**	**Raw**	**%**	**Raw**	**Raw**
1. TS	41	98%	1	2%	0	0%	0	0%	8.71	.89
2. GS	15	36%	19	45%	8	19%	0	0%	6.50	2.56
3. R-TS	7	17%	29	69%	5	12%	1	2%	5.85	1.93
4. F-GS	0	0%	39	97%	3	7%	0	0%	5.50	1.68
5. TG-S	39	93%	2	5%	1	2%	0	0%	8.75	1.11

Note:
TS=Taking-in-sharing
GS=Giving-in-sharing
RTS=Rejected in Taking-in-sharing
F-GS=Forced in giving-in-sharing
TG-S=Taking-and-Giving-in-sharing

tween the means of Subjective and Objective NCR (S-NCR and O-NCR). Therefore, the average of the means of these two viewpoints were calculated and used as "NCR" in the entire process of data analysis of the study.

Analysis of NCR From Five Different Perspectives in Sharing

Although subjects obtained high scores for a "developed" concept in NCR, this result was in contrast with the reality of daily conflicts existing in a pre-school setting. This question calls for further investigation about the subjects' answers in NCR from five viewpoints of sharing. Table 3 shows the five perspectives of sharing in NCR and examples of related situations in a play context.

Table 4 shows the Subjects' scores regarding the five different perspectives of NCR. Data indicate that although the majority of the subjects obtained "A" and "B" scores in NCR, they demonstrated different depths in concept and the

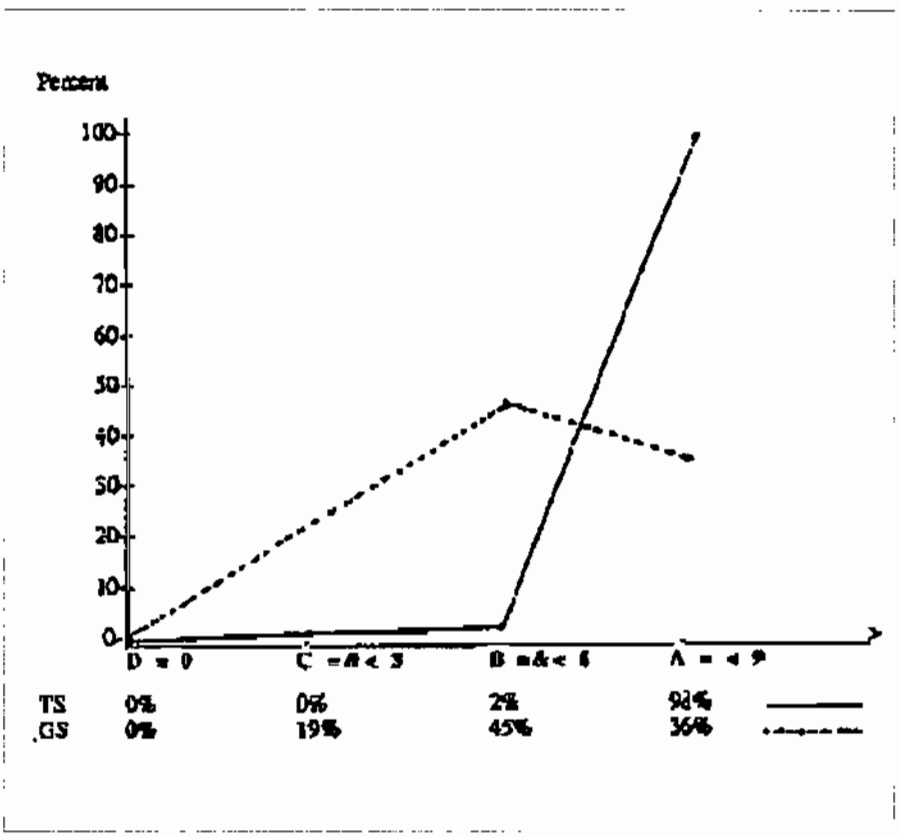

Figure 1.

Frequency of Subjects' Scores in Concepts of Taking-in-Sharing (TS) and Giving-in-Sharing (GS)

understanding of the five perspectives of sharing in NCR.

Analyses of Five Perspectives in Sharing

Comparison of Taking-in-Sharing (TS) With Giving-in-Sharing (GS)

Figure 1 shows that the majority (98 percent) of subjects obtained "A" in Taking-in-Sharing, demonstrating a "very developed" concept in NCR. This figure shows that only 36 percent of the subjects obtained "A" and 45 percent of them obtained "B" in Giving-in-Sharing. As a result, the majority of the subjects demonstrated a lower level concept in "giving" than "taking" in sharing.

Comparison of Taking-in-Sharing (TS) With Taking-and-Giving-in-Sharing (TGS):

Figure 2 shows that the majority of subjects' scores for TS (98 percent) and TGS (93 percent) were concentrated in the high level of "A = very developed" concepts.

Comparison of Rejected in Taking-in-Sharing (R-TS) With Forced in Giving-in-Sharing (F-GS)

R-TS and F-GS are two different perspectives in which the subject's right is violated by a playmate. Figure 4 shows that the majority of subjects obtained scores of "B = developed" concepts in these two aspects.

Part II

The ANOVA and F tests revealed no significance, indicating the existence of no correlations between variables. The results of Chi-squares were also highly above significance which indicated the failure of Chi-square tests for normalizing the NCR data.

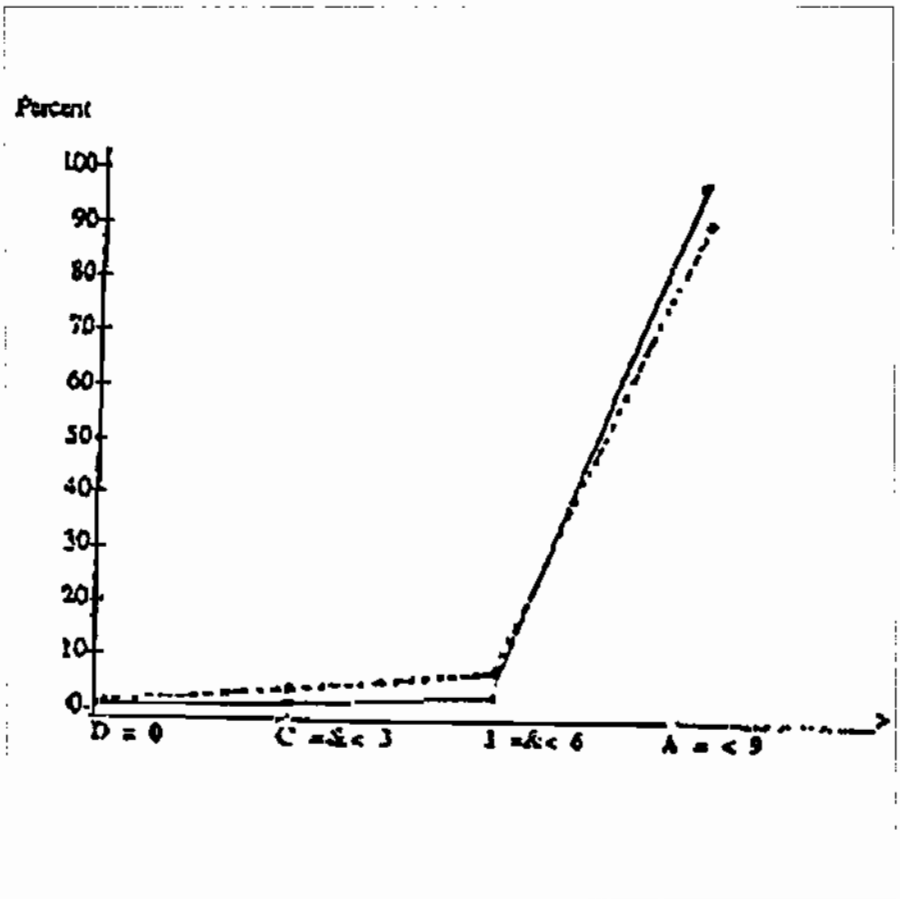

Figure 2.

Frequency of Subjects' Scores in Concepts of Taking-in-Sharing (TS), and Taking-and-Giving-in-Sharing

Discussion: Interpretations, and Recommendations

Part I

Domination of Egocentricity in Sharing

Comparison of Taking-in-Sharing and Giving-in-Sharing

Subjects obtaining a lower score for "giving-in-sharing" than "taking-in-sharing" explained the domination of the child's egocentric mind in the situation of "taking" in sharing. It could be postulated that a child's egocentric characteristic could have been boosted and formed by a typical family environment where a child's ego is nurtured, mostly unconditionally. The individual and special attention devoted by "mature" family members to the "child of the family" could contribute to the promotion of the child's egocentricity.

In contrast, in a pre-school environment a child is surrounded by the majority of the members (other children) who are at a similar level of immaturity with her or him. In such an environment a child's ego could usually be satisfied conditionally and its needs are limited to other children's demands, needs, and freedoms.

Therefore, reaction of the children's egocentricity in a pre-school,

as a new social environment, should be analyzed differently from a child in a family environment. The ultimate result should lead educators to develop more reasonable viewpoints, measurements, and logic for reevaluation of the child's egocentricity.

Child's Capability in Controlling Her or His Egocentricity

Giving-in-Sharing

The moderate (36 percent A and 45 percent B) scores of subjects in giving-in-sharing revealed children's capabilities of modifying their egocentric minds in the preschool setting. This children's capability should encourage us to adapt further planning and instructions in NCR toward the development of children's capabilities for considering the others' viewpoint.

In conclusion, on the one hand, due to the sensitive needs and boundary of the love of self and ego, we should be very cautious with the process of examining the flexibility of the child's egocentric mind. On the other hand, we should keep in mind that development of love of others for the child does not interfere with the development of love of self which is an initial pattern for love of others.

Reciprocity, the First Step for Modification of the Egocentricity and Establishment of Justice and Nonviolence in Pre-school

Comparison of Taking-in-Sharing (TS) and Taking and Giving-in-Sharing (TGS)

The majority of subjects obtaining the same high scores for "Taking-in-Sharing" (98 percent A) and "Taking and Giving-in-Sharing" (93 percent A) could indicate the children's ability to monitor their egocentric mind. This result indicates that the child's mental adaptation for reciprocity in "taking and giving-in- sharing" is less desirable than "only taking," but it is more acceptable than "only giving." Therefore, reciprocity could be accepted as a sensible and judicious procedure for the modification of the egocentric mind and the adaptation of young children to their social environment.

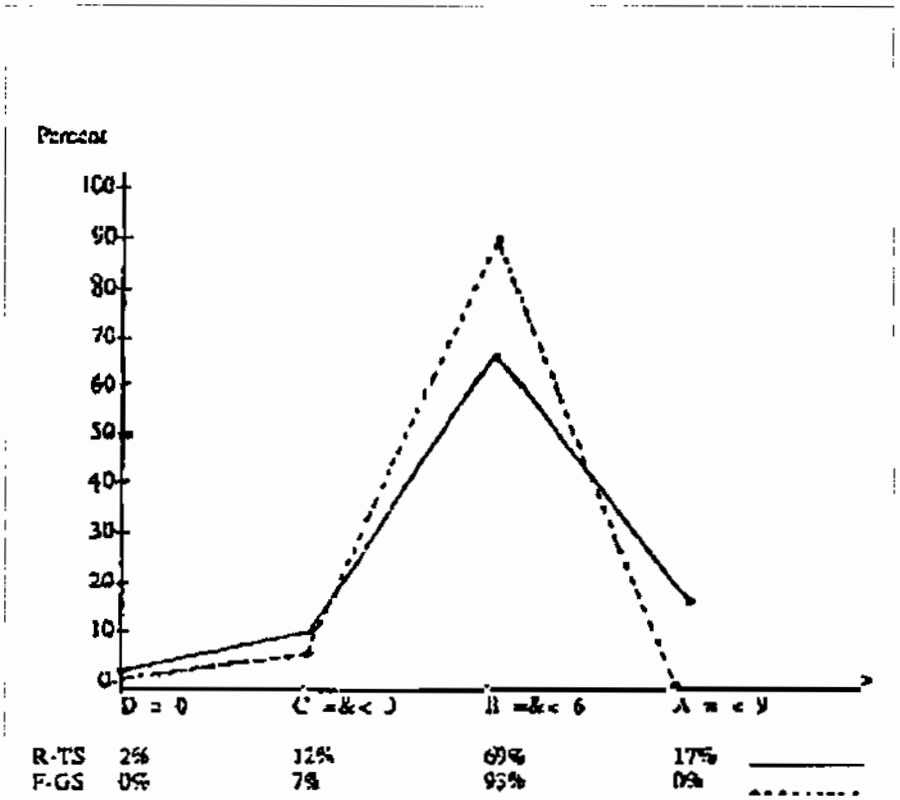

Figure 3.

Frequency of Subjects' Scores in Concepts of Rejected in Taking-in-Sharing (R-TS), and Forced in Giving-in-Sharing

Violence Inactivates Creative Thinking in Problem Solving

Rejected in Taking-in-sharing (R-TS), and Forced in Giving-in Sharing (F-TS)

The majority of the subjects' answers to R-TS (69 percent B) and F-GS (97 percent B) indicated that subjects demonstrated a "developed" concept in NCR. The reasons behind the subjects' avoidance of conflict were based on "giving up" or "reserving" their rights through complaining and/or seeking justice and help. As a result, subjects demonstrated a neutral and passive state of mind for NCR, rather than their capability to revert and react to either a violent or nonviolent creative resolution. Recent studies on brain function (Feeney, 1987) could lead us to a more reasonable interpretation. Feeney concluded that:

"There are three main parts of the brain: 1) Reptilian, which handles the survival instinct, 2) Limbic system or Old Mammalian, which controls the physical responses to emotion, and 3) Neocortex or New Mammalian, which mediates think-

ing, planning, decision-making, language, and consciousness. (p. 83)

These studies indicate that when survival is threatened, the reptilian brain dominates the functions of other parts of the brain including interfering with the function of the neocortex. It could be interpreted that in threatening situations such as when individuals are unjustly rejected from taking-in-sharing or forced to giving-in-sharing, the mind becomes passive and incapable of functioning and achieving neither a negative nor a positive creative solution. Yet, this passiveness is not involved in violence. It is a negative state of mind, similar to negative peace, which results in avoidance of war and "violence."

This state of passiveness also could be interpreted as the lack of development of mental skills for nonviolent resolution. As a result, one should develop the pattern of NCR in children, either through modeling or independent thinking, before they adopt to the primitive, animalistic, survival skills. Moreover, through development of NCR techniques one will give our youngsters a chance to develop their "mental and abstract thinking," which is the finest distinction between animal and human characteristics.

Summary of Discussion

Although it is stated that, typically, a child's mind is governed by the ego, the subjects demonstrated some degree of flexibility in modifying their egocentricity in giving-in-sharing. The emergence of this capability was recognized through the practice of "reciprocity" in the social environment (taking and giving-in-sharing). Also, creative thinking could be blocked through fear of violence (rejected in taking-in-sharing, and forced in giving-in-sharing). Through the establishment of justice (reciprocity) and security one could eliminate violence, and encourage the development of an environment where creative thinking occurs. Finally, through development of positive and nonviolent patterns in problem solving, one could challenge the humanistic mental capability into modifying egocentricity in favor of the love of others.

The insignificant result of correlation in the second part of this study could be interpreted as the existence of a small gap between subjects' ages (5 & 6 YO), the small size of the sample (42 subjects), and the variety of variables considered in the correlation part of the study. This condition resulted in clustered data, which limited the distribution of the scores, and resulted in an insignificant correlation between variables.

Questions to Be Answered

Assuming that, through the practice of reciprocity (taking and giving in sharing), one could eliminate violence from children's social environments, the unanswered question is, "To what extent one can expect children (5 & 6 YO) to modify their egocentric mind in favor of the love-of-others?" Since the ego is one of the main sources for development of the love-of-self one should be cautious of not compromising and risking the development of the pattern of the love-of-self, which is the initial model for love-of-others. Then, the overriding question to be answered is, "Will an age extension from that of the original study create a substantial difference in the results?"

Limitation of the Study and Further Studies

The possible limitations and biases for this study could be listed as:

a. using a newly designed instrument for evaluation of NCR;

b. the limitation of an age range of 5 and 6 year olds and use of a 4-scale rank score could have concentrated the frequency of scores and limited distribution of the degree of variability, which is required in a Correlational study.

Further Studies

Therefore, further evaluation of Oboodiat's NCR instrument using a large sample is called for. Additionally, an investigation of correlation of children's concepts of NCR with racial and age, and gender factors is suggested.

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The Role of Mediation and Conflict Resolution in Creating Safe Learning Environments

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The most shocking characteristic of violence in America today is the youth of its perpetrators. In communities across the country, children's violence is a steadily increasing phenomenon, reflected in the almost daily newspaper headlines reporting such incidents, e.g., "13-Year-Old Is Charged in Stabbing of a Boy, 12" (James, 1994). Responding to growing violence in the school environment, educators are committing their scarce resources to school-based prevention programs built around conflict resolution and peer mediation training. Educators, researchers and program providers alike, however, are concerned that the crisis nature of today's violence in schools has meant a too rapid implementation of programs prior to their systematic evaluation, a critical component of all innovative programming. Despite wide-spread anecdotal evidence suggesting positive results from conflict resolution (CR) programs, we do not yet have reliable evidence either attesting to a measurable reduction in violence or demonstrating the specific elements in CR programs which are critical to achieving program objectives. Some of those currently being forced to confront day-to-day of violence in the schools believe that the arguably premature application of CR programs has been necessitated by the wide-spread, critical nature of the problem. In fact, many conflict scholars and practitioners feel that the application of CR programs to the problem of youth violence is justified given the impressive body of knowledge already amassed concerning social conflict and aggressive behavior. The practical question remains, however, concerning whether CR programs as currently conceived and implemented are adequate to their assigned task of reducing violence in society.

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Accordingly, this article will briefly review the more prominent issues and most recent accomplishments concerning school-based CR programs as well as address some of the misunderstandings which have arisen concerning the measurement of program efficacy in this area. First, we point out that CR programs are frequently used inappropriately. The objective of CR training is to provide *all* children with constructive skills in this area. Despite the potential efficacy of CR training as an effective way of achieving the school climate to nurture cooperative, nonviolent interactions for a wide range of students, CR programs in general have not been designed as treatment/intervention services for all types of serious problem behavior. Second, neither are CR programs designed to correct all the structural social problems that exist. Violence is a system-wide problem, the end product of a causal chain deeply embedded in social structure and economics as well as children's lack of specific social skills, and needs to be resolved as such. The development and use of critical conflict resolution skills can only be effective within an environment affording some degree of responsiveness to these skills and goals. Third, CR programs are in the

early stages of development. Continued research is needed to determine what dosage level is necessary and what "booster" sessions are needed to produce the most effective results in the long term. Fourth, despite the lack of reliable evidence concerning program efficacy, informal CR and peer mediation outcome measurement to date suggests that programs do have positive results and that schools are correct in implementing such programs. Our article will discuss each of the above points in more detail, present a brief review of the success achieved by school-based CR programs in reducing destructive conflict behavior, and suggest future directions to be considered in endeavors to create safer learning environments.

I. Basic Research Supporting CR Programs

It is important to state that conflict is a fundamental aspect of life at all stages of development. Handled constructively, the problem-solving nature of conflict leads to healthy psychosocial development and all levels of intellectual growth and achievement (Deutsch, 1993). When handled destructively, conflict frequently results in troubled or abusive relationships and unsatisfactory outcomes in a variety of ways, including failed goals and even violent confrontations. Skills in this area are thus important for academic and professional achievement as well as for more satisfying personal relationships in life. CR training programs are created based upon these general concepts of the importance and pervasiveness of conflict in our daily lives.

Although we lack the definitive large-scale studies of the type necessary for the scientific acceptance of specific programs, there is an impressive body of research demonstrating the theoretical soundness of such programs. Such studies reveal the insights we have gained into the complex pathways leading from the currently evolving prevention efforts to reduced violence in our schools and society.

Basic developmental research with children has effectively traced the relationship between increased aggressiveness and the failure to develop the interpersonal skills associated with constructive conflict resolution. The influence of different social institutions in developing CR skills depends to a large extent upon the child's developmental stage. From the perspective of social learning theory (Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller, & Skinner, 1991), aggressive behavior frequently begins in early maladaptive interactions between parents and child, e.g., a lack of parental attachment provides a direct link to aggressive and delinquent behavior. Among family characteristics, the strongest influence on aggression and violence are parental supervision, parental rejection, and little parent-child involvement (Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1987). Researchers have also found parental conflict is more likely to predict delinquency than other family structural factors, e.g., the presence or absence of a father figure (Kruttschmitt, Heath & Ward, 1986; Zill, 1978; U.S. Department of Justice, 1994).

As peer influence becomes a more compelling influence upon behavior than parental attachment, social acceptance and rejection show a stronger statistical relationship with aggression and delinquency. The process is circular: rejected children increase their level of conflict as a consequence of their rejection, often escalating the conflict situation into full-scale aggressive behavior (Dodge, 1991).

The characteristic behaviors of aggressive children include engaging in more overall conflict, escalating conflict to a greater extent, having more negative expectations about conflict resolution, being less accurate in perceptions of their peers intentions, and attributing more hostile intentions to others. They are also more likely to compete for desirable objects, less likely to adopt peers' frame of reference than other children, and, being more interested in social power or obtaining desired objects than personal relationships, they are perceived by other children as not caring about or liking others. As stated above, experiences with parents and peers result in children who are hypersensitive to rejection by others and who react to aggression or rebuff by increasing the behavior which got them rejected in the first place (Rubin, LeMare, & Lollis, 1990).

Violence is a system-wide problem, the end product of a causal chain deeply embedded in social structure and economics as well as children's lack of specific social skills, and needs to be resolved as such.

More specifically, poor early relationships, particularly privation in terms of early intimate relationships or inconsistency in parenting lead to a type of angry aggression called reactive aggression. It is characterized by anger, fear and hyperactivity to threatening stimuli (Dodge, 1991) and may be fostered by chronic dangers such as those encountered in ghettos or war zones. These children frequently show anger, are likely to have temper tan-

trums, and often may appear to be out of control. A second form of aggressive behavior has been called proactive aggression, a behavior prompted by object acquisition or the desire to dominate or bully a peer. Its etiology involves high exposure to violence to develop a repertoire of aggressive responses in addition to positive reinforcement for these responses, e.g., from parents who teach their children to hit back when shoved and to value aggressive role models as well as the considerable support that may result from deviant peer group membership (Dodge, 1991; Patterson, 1982; Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989). The distinction between the two forms arises from the motivating factors and incentives involved. Although most behavior usually encompasses both proaction and reaction, the coping strategies and skills needed to handle each will differ substantially. Hence, the presence or absence of reactive anger and the functional value of the behavior need to become target considerations in programs designed to reach or treat aggressive children.

II. Critical Issues in Mediation and Conflict Resolution

(1) Unwarranted expectations concerning conflict resolution programs. The first step in correcting the problem of youth problem behavior, aggression, and violence will be to define and clarify our concepts. Violence may or may not involve conflict: conflict frequently is a very healthy, growth-promoting behavior. In conflict theory and research, we define conflict as an incompatibility of behaviors, cognitions (including goals), and/or affect among individuals or groups that may or may not lead to an aggressive expression of this social incompatibility. This definition specifically incorporates behavior, cognition, and affect because all these factors are important in conflict. Although conflict encompasses both constructive and destructive conflict management processes and outcomes, "aggression" is usually defined as involving only a destructive process. It is characterized by the intentional imposition of unpleasant stimuli by one organism upon another. On the other hand, conflict is endemic to all aspects of social existence from the moment of birth onward. Constructive conflict is a critical ingredient of the learning experience and it promotes healthy development and psychological growth in addition to its obvious effects on everyday goals and objectives. Consequently, CR training should be evaluated in terms of its positive impact upon every child's healthy social, cognitive, and moral development (Boardman & Horowitz, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 1994). As a curriculum issue, constructive conflict management should be thought of as a basic skill requiring coaching appropriate to the different developmental stages, cultures, and socio-economic circumstances of the child, important not only for the economically disadvantaged but the advantaged child as well.

. . . rejected children increase their level of conflict as a consequence of their rejection, often escalating the conflict situation into full-scale aggressive behavior (Dodge, 1991).

Unfortunately, the need for a solution(s) to youth violence has led us to use conflict resolution and peer mediation programs in ways they were never intended to be used. Often CR programs are implemented to fulfill unrealistic expectations, such as offering six weeks or nine hours of conflict resolution curricula as a "cure" for the accelerating rate of violence in our schools. CR skills are largely preventative tools. They prevent the destructive expression of conflict given participants who are amenable to the conditions of constructive conflict resolution. CR skills do *not* protect one against situations where individual's have no desire to or refuse to engage in interpersonal negotiating behavior. Those children with emotional or behavioral disturbances have problems requiring more intensive, specialized interventions. Diminishing an overall social acceptance of violence in our communities and nationally will also be an important component of reducing violence. CR training and skills for all students will be invaluable and an integral aspect of attaining the latter goal, but these alone cannot be expected to eradicate all the ills associated with violent behavior. Youth, and even adult violence, is a multi-faceted problem that will require a number of measures to correct, including a long-term investment in CR skills training to fully reach current students as well as to prevent violence in future generations of children.

(2) A system-wide problem: Multiple determinants, contexts, and solutions. Violence prevention as a national priority will benefit from the integration of several different fields currently engaging in research and prevention/intervention program development: theorists and practitioners in conflict resolution behavior, child develop-

ment researchers, education and curriculum specialists as well as those working in violence/delinquency/crime prevention. We are suggesting CR programs be viewed more realistically as one critical component in a comprehensive attack upon the conditions leading to violent behavior. Combined with remediation in other critical areas, CR training is an extremely important component of change for aggressive children. Since social rejection/acceptance is a core factor in aggressive children's overall functioning, the school climate created by cooperation and CR programs should be important for promoting a more accepting and positively reinforcing environment for children with special problems and needs. In addition to experiencing meaningful relationships with parents and peers, many of these children must also see the rewards and potential self-fulfillment attached to school performance as well as be convinced they will have the opportunity to experience the rewards afforded mainstream youth. In other words, there must be a place for the most disenfranchised child, help that child perceive that place as realistic and desirable while promoting feelings of self-worth in her/him.

It is important that we structure CR prevention programs to address the problems and needs of individual children in the classroom. Children with special problems, such as an inability to correctly interpret peer motivations in day-to-day transactions, will require different assistance than those lacking the ability to generate a sufficient number of problem solutions in interpersonal conflicts. Thus, it may be that children who are proactively or reactively aggressive will require special peer groups and intervention measures to learn more cooperative, less aggressive approaches in their social dealings (Dodge, 1991). Addressing violence as a complex phenomenon is not as parsimonious or inexpensive as having one single program to cure all ills, but it holds greater promise for reducing youth violence. Insofar as aggression and violence are generated and perpetuated within a complex interactive system extending from the family to such social institutions as the school, workplace, and various health and child care services (Zigler, Taussig, & Black, 1992), we should not expect any intervention at a single level to bring system-wide change.

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(3) CR programs require ongoing research. As indicated by a number of critics, CR programs need to be submitted to stringent assessment. Recent analyses of the scanty literature available on these programs show a consistent pattern of either (a) no measurement of program effects or (b) measurement seriously compromised by methodological problems (Boardman & Horowitz, 1994; Moskowitz, 1993; Wilson-Brewer, Cohen, O'Donnell, & Goodman, 1991). Basically, the few evaluations conducted on CR programs are seriously flawed, raising the question of whether CR programs are effective in changing behavior. As a consequence of these evaluation shortcomings, critics view curricula-based CR programs as, at best, "stop-gap" measures incapable of counteracting the structural problems underlying violent behavior (Hawkins, 1993) and argue that current school-based conflict resolution programs fail to reduce interpersonal violence (Webster, 1993). Again, we feel this is certainly a pressing need, but one which should be addressed following (a) the clarification of concepts already suggested, and (b) the adoption of reasonable goals in our efforts.

There are also a number of other pressing research questions as well. For example, what is the most appropriate age for CR programs to be implemented? The evidence is increasingly pointing to middle school years or earlier (Deutsch, et al., 1992; Hammond & Yung, 1991; Horowitz & Boardman, 1994; Webster, 1993). Programs also need to be designed to coordinate with developmental stages of children. The approaches and skills taught in preadolescence will be significantly different from those needed by youngsters during the various stages of adolescence. The best results will be obtained in CR programs which begin in childhood and continue through the high school years. Attention to the appropriate skills at these different levels may prove to be an important factor in promoting proficiency in conflict resolution for many children as well as in preventing the sequence leading from aggressive to violent behavior. Childhood training needs to incorporate family, school and community within its scope. Children do not spontaneously develop constructive CR skills; they learn them from skillful adults and through successful interactions with peers who also have these skills. The conflict issues and the skills required to resolve them constructively increase in complexity with the cognitive, social and moral development of the child.

Finally, in addition to providing structural relevance, CR curricula must be structured to provide realistic situations/real-life experiences for children in the programs. If children do not see the behavior as being effective for their problems, they are not likely to put their newly acquired skills into practice. There are two ways of addressing this issue. First, the activities, language and situations of the videotapes and conflict exercises must include role models as similar as possible to the children themselves. Age, sex, language, and ethnicity are important factors in enabling children to identify with the problems and assist them in seeing CR skills as useful in their everyday lives. Second, in some circumstances, CR programs must consider providing motivators for children. Incentives have been used successfully with children with behavior problems (Hammond & Yung, 1991) and need to be provided by the teachers, principals, and program in a variety of ways. Enthusiasm and acceptance for CR strategies are also key to behavioral change. Considerably more research is needed in this area, but in the meantime, there should be focus on providing as much incentive as possible considering what we already know about effective rewards for the acquisition of these skills.

III. Current Success of School-Based CR Programs

Critical reviewers of CR programs deplore the lack of large-scale studies to demonstrate effectiveness, yet even they conclude that a number of programs have proven promising (Hechinger, 1994; Wilson-Brewer et al., 1991; Webster, 1993; Zigler, Taussig, & Black, 1992). They do not necessarily agree upon a definition of the exact elements that constitute a promising program, however. Some see the improvement of overall social competence as a more important factor in the reduction of delinquency than the focus on improving a specific type of behavior, such as peer interaction procedures (Zigler, et al., 1992). Others (Lochman, Coie, Underwood, & Terry, 1993; Webster, 1993) provide evidence pointing to the importance of assessing the impact of social competence programs on specific problem behaviors rather than delinquency or problem behavior in general.

Unfortunately, the need for a solution(s) to youth violence has led us to use conflict resolution and peer mediation programs in ways they were never intended to be used.

Although needing further work, the latter approach (Lochman et al., 1993) has shown promising results in cognitive-behavioral, school-based interventions offering twice weekly sessions that cover a full school year. Participating students were socially rejected children who were divided into two groups based upon screening scores: aggressive, rejected children in one group and nonaggressive, rejected children in the other. Both groups were given social relations training to increase and motivate prosocial behavior as well as cognitive behavioral training to encourage adaptive problem solving. Follow-up assessments conducted at post-treatment and one year later indicated that this program effectively changed behavior in the aggressive, rejected group.

A program developed by Hammond & Yung (1991), Positive Adolescent Choices Training (PACT), has received considerable praise (Webster, 1993) based upon an informal evaluation and an emphasis upon the following features: (a) targeting specific skill deficits and behavior problems; (b) providing nearly four times as many sessions with far fewer students as other programs; (c) providing trained experts for program implementation rather than depending upon hastily trained teachers or others; (d) designing the program to be culturally relevant for the participating students; (e) conducting the program in small groups of peers rather than large classrooms; and (f) using incentives to boost participation and elicit appropriate behavior.

Another program being singled out as especially worthy of consideration and study is the Deutsch program at the International Center for Cooperation and Conflict Resolution (ICCCR) (Hechinger, 1994). Staff at the ICCCR offer a relatively general, widely applicable CR program which offers skills development and benefits to a variety of students. One test of this approach (Deutsch et al., 1992) involved the implementation of the program in an urban alternative high school designed for students at high-risk for aggressive and other problem behavior. An emphasis was placed on the need for long-term participation in the project to provide the intensity or dosage of CR skills training that is needed to bring about change in behavior. The results of this program showed that as the students improved in their ability to constructively manage conflict, there was a concurrent improvement in the school's social environment. In turn, a better environment was significantly related to students' sense of greater social support, higher self-

esteem, stronger internal locus of control, and improved general attitudes and moods (cheerfulness, life is interesting, etc.). A stronger internal locus of control, or self-generated ability to control circumstances, resulted in higher academic achievement. Additionally, it was found that students with negative mental states (upset, tense, depressed, etc.) were less likely to have satisfactory academic achievement.

Increasingly, the evidence provided by the Deutsch and similar programs is indicating the need for instilling these skills most effectively through far more intensive efforts than previously thought. Long-term exposure to CR methods involves the institutionalization of this approach into not only the individual school but the district as well. As we suggested in an earlier article (Horowitz & Boardman, 1994), one has yet to determine the most effective dosage level, or how much training is necessary to effectively influence students. Often CR programs are offered for six or nine hours in a classroom, and students are expected to learn the necessary skills as well as be motivated to use CR techniques to constructively manage conflict. The most promising programs involve longer exposure; for example, two hours a week for a full semester (Hammond & Yung, 1991) or several hours a week for several years or more (Deutsch et al., 1992).

This view is also expressed in current pedagogical models in education. According to Joyce and Showers (1983), the type of skills that need to be developed in CR require extensive practice and will not be effective behaviorally if students have not had sufficient time to practice these skills. Effective change requires much longer time periods since the acquisition of procedural skills, in particular, require extensive practice and exercise for mastery (Raider, 1995). The long-term performance of CR procedures will also depend to some extent upon distributing practice sessions over time. Studies show that spacing the learning sessions is substantially superior to massing training and practice all together (Dempster, 1990; Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Clearly, a system-wide commitment to conflict resolution programs as well as the long-term training exposure necessary to bring about behavioral change will require more patience and be more labor intensive than previously thought. This multidimensional approach, however, appears far more likely to produce substantial, lasting change in student behavior not only in the classroom but outside as well. Promising exploratory data obtained from middle class elementary school children (Johnson, Johnson, Dudley & Magnuson, 1994) suggest that when constructive conflict skills are thoroughly learned in school, this behavior transfers to the home environment.

IV. What Schools Can Do

A summary of the latest concepts and research concerning CR programs in schools indicates that a reduction in aggression and violence depends not only upon schoolwide change in conflict attitudes and behavior but upon concurrent intensive programs designed to target the specific problems of particularly aggressive children. Given the latest pedagogical research as well as the recent developments in research on children's violence per se, it appears unlikely that a few weeks of general CR training will have the impact required for real change. After participating in special programs, children who are/have been especially aggressive or violent will require a receptive, nonrejecting school environment if their changes in behavior are to be promoted and sustained. Such change can be brought about through the implementation of CR skills training curricula for all students in the school. Constructive conflict resolution skills provide all of us with more effective tools for problem solving, improving interpersonal relationships, building self-esteem, and promoting academic and other types of achievement.

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In addition, there is a need to be aware of and seek to resolve the social structural problems which breed violent behavior: poverty, inadequate opportunities in life, and discrimination against special groups. These are problems which are tougher to handle in many ways; yet, the skills used in constructive conflict resolution are the same skills needed to effectively reduce discrimination, e.g., empathy, taking the other's perspective, and learning to understand the other person's needs and goals within a situation. As more and more students develop and practice these skills, the greater we can expect our reduction in both destructive conflict and discriminatory attitudes and behavior.

A final point concerns the implementation of CR curricula in the classroom and research requirements related to policy making and program funding. Again, a reasonable amount of time must be scheduled for curriculum implementation before measurement is possible: three to five years before a curriculum is taught at a level allowing a fair evaluation to occur (Hall & Loucks, 1982). Good evaluation efforts require a collaboration between teacher and researcher in which both may need to make some concessions but in which both will gain in terms of a richer, more reliable measurement of the program. A psychometrically rigorous approach will most likely be a necessary aspect of program measurement at this stage of CR curricula development. This frequently frustrates teachers who strongly believe in the need to mold the curriculum in ways that respond to the local context. A traditionally based evaluation will also prove to be a difficult interruption for teachers who actively use their own and their students interpretations of the curricula to change attitudes and behavior. However, both educators and researchers must work together during the early stages of CR programming not only to provide the psychometrically rigorous outcome evaluations which require implementation fidelity, but also to discover (a)what changes in the curriculum may occur during implementation; (b) what factors facilitate or inhibit implementation; and (c) what meaning the curriculum is given when it is allowed to evolve through the interaction of the teacher and the students (Snyder, Bolin, & Zumwalt, 1993). The shared work will certainly make each task slightly more time consuming and involved, but it will lead to a real understanding for teachers, researchers, and policy makers of the ways in which CR curricula and training can be implemented most effectively to provide safe learning environments.

Basically, the few evaluations conducted on CR programs are seriously flawed, ...

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Toward a Renewed Family-School Partnership

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With great concern, the Ministry of Education of Costa Rica has documented through institutional research the need for a stronger partnership between the school and the family. There are symptoms that have been identified and carefully monitored, particularly at the secondary school level such as: the breakdown of the family structure, erosion of authority, lack of discipline, evidence of drug consumption, and the confluence of the most diverse values. These are leading our adolescents into an increasing state of confusion. This problem can obviously be tracked down to the loss of old virtues without the acquisition of new solid ones that the family, on the one hand, and the school on the other have the responsibility to forge for our youth. In fact, as Malavassi (1994) stated it, "the family is biologically, morally, and culturally," the cell and foundation of society. As to the moral factor, one should keep in mind that the development of a person's moral and spiritual strength, is fundamentally a question of family education. That's why according to social pedagogy, the family is irreplaceable as far as its educational role is concerned. In this regard, the ancient philosopher Plutarch warned us about our responsibility to educate the child so that in the future one does not have to punish the man" (p. 15A).

Parents should come to terms with the fact that these are times of change. Change in such issues as the environment, the rights and duties of all the members of society, and their social and personal lifestyle patterns. This is the age of the end of the Cold War and the birth of a still uncertain new world order. The information age, which in the past was just a possibility, today is a reality. This is taking place within the context of what Varis (1995) calls a global metropolis in which "the peoples of the world can no longer perceive themselves as isolated individuals or cultures" (p. 13). This is a time to educate based on global images and quick communication, a time where the opening of our country to the world seems to be an irreversible process. This implies changes in the attitudes toward education, production, consumerism and the environment. In short, our youth are living in an age that is getting to an end, and another one whose birth is still in progress.

Charles Dickens (1904) stated in his masterpiece, "*A Tale of Two Cities*" alluding to the situation of Europe during the turn of the Eighteenth Century, that such time was both the best and the worst of the times. One could add two centuries later, that the current challenges are also the best of the times, but only if everyone understands the signs and acts with wisdom. On the contrary, they may turn into bad times if one does nothing about it and loses one's initiative and vision of the critical role the integral development and education of our youth plays regarding our society's and our country's survival as a democratic nation.

. . . one should keep in mind that the development of a person's moral and spiritual strength, is fundamentally a question of family education.

The previous analysis leads us to ponder the following questions: What changes do adolescents have in their perceptions of their environment and the unpredictable future direction of this distinct world? What is the impact of this upon their

attitudes and values? What kind of communication channels are actually open between these youngsters and their parents, teachers and principals? What kind of expectations do these youngsters have regarding the different obstacles they face as they struggle to make intelligent decisions about educational and career opportunities? Do all these pressures have an impact on their behavioral patterns? When they show their frustration through discipline problems, do parents, teachers, and principals put these situations in the right perspective when making decisions about the issue?

One might not have all the right answers to all these questions, for additional research may be required to substantiate them. However, the current state of affairs and its developing trends for the future are definitely having an impact upon the value systems and traditions of the different countries around the globe. Costa Rica is not exempt from this challenge. Everyone ought to be aware of it, particularly parents, teachers, school administrators and policy makers who in one way or another have a voice and the overwhelming responsibility for educating our youth.

In this regard, based on one's own experience as a parent, teacher and educational leader, it is not difficult to concur with Covey (1992) that the clue to dealing with these societal challenges effectively lies in the common wisdom found in the natural principles, which unfortunately are not commonly observed. For that reason, it is necessary that at this particular time when youth want to speak up and be listened to, parents, teachers and principals open spaces for a permanent constructive dialogue, a dialogue where listening for understanding becomes a priority. One should remember that these are times where respect for parents is not inherited anymore, but rather, earned every day. And there are times when self-respect and honesty are threatened by the promotion of non-positive values such as those sponsored by the drug and easy money cultures, where the ancient Machiavellic principle "the end justifies the means" is an every day practice (Bondarella and Musa, 1979). It is not a matter of rescuing the idyllic Costa Rica of the past, but rather to be realistic with respect to the challenges of the present and the future to be able to cope with them effectively.

... it is necessary that at this particular time when youth want to speak up and be listened to, parents, teachers and principals open spaces for a permanent constructive dialogue, a dialogue where listening for understanding becomes a priority.

Challenges to the Family

1. Parents must set up avenues of open and honest communication with their children. They must ask themselves what their children's expectations and concerns are, as well as understand that the generation gap issue is only resolved by accepting its existence and by building bridges instead of generational walls between them and their children. Children cannot be molded after their parents anymore. One ought to accept their individuality and, on these grounds, start building and instilling in them the necessary positive values to help them attain their self-actualization.

2. Parents must address such problems as drugs, corruption, lack of discipline and disregard for life openly and directly, stressing the risks implicit in each of them. As noted before, it is necessary that families ponder the importance of the acquisition and development of positive values and attitudes as a means of furthering their children's, self-respect and appreciation of life.

3. Parents must recover the virtues implicit in the education of their children. Virtues are lived in the family. Families should ponder them and instill them in their children at every opportunity available, at breakfast, lunch, and dinner, or at any other time set aside as family time. Parents need to be reminded of the importance of promoting an enjoyable family culture so that their children do not seek answers to their problems outside the family but rather within it. A positive family culture as Covey (1992) reminded us, provides support, resources and feedback. In doing so, it builds children's self-esteem, encourages them to develop their own interests, and tries to set an example of excellence where the value of reading and learning is an unspoken, unwritten norm. Such a family culture teaches children to have faith, to believe and trust others, and to serve others.

Family life has much to do in the development of the following virtues: discipline, self-respect and respect for others, honesty, love of work and school-studies, courtesy, esprit de corps, service to others, respect for and consideration of your elders, and responsible criticism based on rigorous thinking and solid facts.

4. It is in the family where it is instilled that no end justifies the

means. Children should learn that it does not make sense if, for example, to graduate from high school one has to cheat or steal an exam. Children should also learn that it does not make sense to excel in life if to do so, one has to be dishonest. The means and ends are indissoluble. As Edelman (1994) states, children must learn that "they should not feel entitled to anything they have not sweat and struggle for" (p. 45). One has to concur with her that children should be taught that they should never work just for money or for power, because it is a fact of life that neither one, will save their soul or help them sleep at night. Parents have to work very hard to make these truths part of their children's lives.

5. It is also in the family where children must learn that rights without their concomitant duties are useless. If one demands his, or her rights, one must, likewise, accept his, or her obligations and responsibilities as well.

Families should take these five challenges with both determination and commitment. In so doing, parents would be making a significant contribution to the education of their children while helping principals and teachers in their endeavors toward this noble common goal. Here one should keep in mind John Paul II's (1994) words, "In the young there is, in fact, an immense potential for good and for creative possibility" (p. 124). Let us not, neither in our role as parents and/or educators let our youth down. It is our responsibility to accept the challenge to develop a renewed partnership between school and family without further delay.

Challenges to Educators and Educational Leaders

New challenges call for a different leadership style on the part of educators in general and educational leaders in particular. One should make sure that the conflict and confusion derived from our society's state of flux does not lead us into what could be called the conflict avoidance syndrome. For as Gorton (1993) pointed out, by trying to avoid all conflict, an administrator could be ignoring or suppressing significant problems or issues that need to be brought out into the open if they are to be ameliorated or resolved. As Wexley and Yukl (1984) emphasized, "Interpersonal and intergroup conflict occur to some extent in all organizations and are a natural part of social relationships" (p. 192). The challenge, according to Wynn (1985), "...is not to eliminate conflict but to minimize its destructive impact and make it a positive force in the organization" (p. 1).

New challenges call for a different leadership style on the part of educators in general and educational leaders in particular.

In the past, for example, it sufficed to be appointed to a position as a principal to gain the respect of parents, students, faculty and staff. This kind of legal authority granted by the Ministry of Education was enough to get things done and accomplished in the schools. This was possible because organizations were top down, pyramid-like structures with very few communication channels open between those at the top and those at the bottom of the organizational structure.

Those were the times of the traditional managerial approach to school administration. Today things have substantially changed. Therefore, it becomes evident that in the current circumstances a new kind of leadership model is called for, if principals are to be able to inspire our youth, empower our faculty and staff, and gain the cooperation of both parents in the education of their children. Principals cannot pretend to be successful in coping with the new societal challenges using the same old approaches which are obviously not effective anymore.

The research on leadership in general and educational leadership in particular stresses the fact that in both excellent businesses and effective schools the common path to success has been a strong and visionary leadership. In fact, as DuFour and Eaker (1992) stated, "recent research on effective leaders, and effective schools calls for a new definition of the principalship, one that recognizes the four major leadership roles of the principal: (1) empowerer of others, (2) promoter and protector of values, (3) instructional leader, and (4) manager of climate" (p. 47).

Today's educational leaders should make a priority of their professional development to become knowledgeable of and skillful in the aforementioned competencies. Along the same lines, they should become aware of the fact that schools do not exist in a vacuum and should be viewed within the framework of the open-system theory. For as Hoy and Miskel (1991) noted, organizations are not only influenced by their environments, but also dependent upon them. Their view is that schools are open systems confronted with both rational and natural constraints that change as the environmental forces change; to overlook this fact is to be doomed to failure. For this reason, educational leaders should not approach their task from an ivory tower perspec-

tive; namely, managing their schools from a closed-door office relying only on their legal and formal authority to get things done. To do so is to promote mere *compliance* with orders and discipline, rather than *commitment* to the actualization of the mission and objectives of both the school and the educational system. The former is momentary; the latter is long-lived.

It is within this context that one has to understand the importance for principals to grasp the implications of the transitional stage which the world and our society are currently going through, as well as the effects this transition has upon the schools and our youth. In so doing, they will be in a position to better understand our youth's tribulations and concerns rather than just seeking to be understood, as it is currently the case. These are competencies that principals in particular, and educators in general, should develop through well planned staff-development programs that can be offered through a cooperative effort between the Ministry of Education and the colleges and universities.

On the other hand, for those aspiring to pursue careers as educational leaders, Colleges of Education should offer them reconceptualized preparation programs tailored to meet their needs as far as the new theory and practice in the field of educational leadership are concerned. For as Milstein (1993) stated, "Even a casual observer of the reform scene over the past decade must realize that the demand for change and improvement in the education of coming generations represents a significant and unprecedented challenge to our educational system. These challenges call for strong and creative leadership. This, in turn, calls for a reconceptualization of how educational leaders are prepared" (p. vii).

Conclusion

It is evident from the previous analysis that the challenges are significant and there is plenty of work to be done ahead. However, one ought to be confident and optimistic that a strong service-oriented partnership involving the Ministry of Education, the universities, the teachers' and principals' professional organizations, the local boards of education, the local business and community leaders and the parents as a unified force will lead us into the improvement of not only the quality of education our children deserve, but also into the consolidation and enhancement of sound school-family-community partnerships. By sharing our visions of the present and the future and working as a unified solid force to actualize them, the ones that will benefit from the accomplished success will be our children.

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Student Alienation and Schools With Heart

by Allan A. Glatthorn

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In several nations across the world, the public interest in education seems to focus chiefly on student achievement, as narrowly defined by scores on achievement tests. At the same time there is much anxiety in those same nations about violence in the schools. It is argued here that this obsession with test scores and the prevalence of violence are subtly connected.

The excessive concern for test scores exacerbates the alienation experienced by the students; the alienation in turn is reflected in violent outbursts. As a consequence, programs that intend to help students resolve conflict non-violently would seem doomed to failure if those programs are instituted in schools that foster alienation. It is the intent of this article to examine the evidence of alienation in schools in the United States and then to suggest that the appropriate response is to reconstitute those schools as schools with heart, schools that have been restructured as learning communities.

Student Alienation in the Schools of the United States

To understand the extent and nature of that alienation, consider recent evidence from a comprehensive study of schools in California (Institute for Education in Transformation, 1992). The authors conclude that the problems of schooling (such as lowered achievement and high dropout rates) are consequences of much deeper problems. Both students and teachers identified the following problems as the ones that really troubled them.

... the real problem is that there are too many schools without heart.

1. Human relationships between teachers and students seem to be in a sorry state: students report that their teachers, support staff, and other students do not like or understand them.

2. The schools seem biased with respect to race, culture, and class. Some students doubt the substance of what is being taught. They feel their teachers do not understand or value their life experiences.

3. Students feel the schools are amoral institutions, where discussions of values are forbidden. While the students believed that their values were different from their teachers', the researchers concluded that there was instead a consensus around the core values of honesty, courage, caring, and justice. Obviously, this misperception stemmed from the fact that there was no discussion of such matters during the regular school day.

4. Both students and teachers feel that what is taught is meaningless. Students are bored and see little relevance in the curriculum presented to them; teachers feel pressured to teach what is mandated and also doubt its appropriateness.

5. Neither students nor teachers feel safe in the schools. In the middle and high schools especially, they worry gravely about deadly violence that might erupt at any time in the school. An alarming number of elementary students reported that they did not believe that they would live to be adults.

6. The physical environment is often depressing. Students feel that the poorly maintained facilities and the unappetizing food are symbols of the society's lack of priority for education.

In summary, the real problem is that there are too many schools without heart. If these elements constitute the real problem, then the solution is not to be found in many of the current reform efforts. If this picture is accurate for many schools, then who would want a longer school day or a longer school year?

The Answer: Schools with Heart

The answer instead is schools with heart—schools that have become partnerships for a learning community. Each of the key compo-

nents of this construct may be examined as follows:.

The first component is partnerships—of principals, teachers, students, university faculty, parents, and business leaders. In the school that is a learning community, the only adversary is ignorance. Everyone becomes a partner in a shared enterprise—the education of the young.

To understand the special need for teacher-student-parent partnerships, consider the factors that affect student achievement. After reviewing fifty years of research, scholars concluded that nine factors affect student achievement (Fraser, Walberg, Welch, and Hattie, 1987). Three are student factors: age, ability, and motivation. Three are school factors: time, climate, and curriculum and instruction. And three are out-of-school factors: peer pressure, family support for schools, and the use of out-of-school time. Those nine factors clearly indicate that significant improvement can come about only through cooperative efforts of school, students, and family.

The second component is learning. All involved in that school—teachers, administrators, students, and parents—see learning as a lifelong journey, a never-ending quest for enlightenment. In such a school parents learn about the critical importance of close and caring families. Teachers learn about new ways of teaching. Principals learn about more effective leadership. Students learn how to learn. And all participants embrace a fresh view of learning, one that recognizes both the pain and the joy of growth, that values risk-taking as a necessary aspect of creativity, and that sees failure as an opportunity to learn.

The most significant learning, of course, is the learning of the organization. Rather than mindlessly adopting one educational fad after another, the principal and teachers dedicate themselves to developing a school of the sort that Senge (1990) calls "the learning organization." Such a learning organization sees school improvement as a journey, not a destination. It systematically evaluates all programs to determine where change is needed and uses incremental improvement as the essential strategy.

The most important component is community. Parents, administrators, teachers, and students need to work together to build the school with heart. In the school with heart, everyone feels known, is considered important, and works for the common good. To understand the essential qualities of a school as a learning community, imagine that a student is speaking about what the school means to him or her. This is what would be said in a school with heart.

A growing body of research indicates that schools that structure themselves as caring communities have better holding power for at-risk children and youth.

I feel that I belong here. There is a place for me.

I make a difference here. I have the power and the skills to change what needs to be changed.

I am known as an individual, and I am prized for what I am.

I know that people here care about me.

They know when I am absent, they sense when I am hurt.

I feel needed; I am part of a learning family, who need each other.

I feel safe here. And most of all, I feel fully myself.

Such school communities would address not only the problem of heartlessness but would also have a positive effect on achievement. A growing body of research indicates that schools that structure themselves as caring communities have better holding power for at-risk children and youth. Such schools seem to develop in students a greater sense of belongingness, greater involvement in academic work, and improved achievement. (See Wehlage *et al.*, 1989.) How can educators create schools with heart? The answer is a complex and emerging one, but several factors are already obvious from the research. They are examined below under these rubrics: foundations for community; structures for community; and elements of community.

Foundations for Community

The foundation factors are those that support all the rest: the culture and climate of the schools. *Culture* here is defined as the set of core values that in turn give rise to norms of behavior and manifest themselves in the school and classroom climate. In the school as a community, these core values and their associated norms of behavior are operative: learning is primary; cooperation is essential; rights and responsibilities belong to everyone; and moral action is required.

The school and classroom climate manifests a sense of caring. Caring acknowledges our responsibility to each other, an awareness that everyone is joined together. But

it also involves high expectations, in which parents and teachers say to the student, "I care so much for you that I will not accept anything less than your best." Caring also is based on a recognition of personhood. Teachers and school leaders see the student as a unique individual, one who defies the labels that seem to proliferate in education. They avoid the use of such convenient but misleading labels as *minority*, or *at-risk*, or *gifted* that reduce the student's wonderful complexity to a single dimension. The climate of caring is one in which the life of dialogue flourishes: where students and teacher are open to the meaningful encounter. Here one might keep in mind the insight of Martin Buber (1947), who said, "There are no gifted here; only those who give and those who withhold themselves."

Structures for Community

The structures are the organizational arrangements that grow out of the culture and climate. These structural aspects seem to be important in schools with heart. First, the school is small, or, if large by necessity, is divided into smaller units of approximately 150-200 students. As noted in the report by the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989), large schools are inevitably impersonal. Second, there are structures for governance that facilitate decision-making by both teachers and students. There is a structure for problem-solving that typically takes the form of the advisory sessions advocated by the Carnegie Council. There is also a structure for meaningful parent involvement as partners in learning. Finally, there is a structure for equity, the use of grouping practices that ensure that all students have access to a quality curriculum.

It should be emphasized here that, to be effective, such structures must be grounded in the core values; the literature is replete with reports of smaller "houses" that are just as impersonal as the large schools and of advisory meetings that become homework time.

The school with heart has a curriculum that helps the student create meaning through knowledge-based problem-solving.

Elements of Community

The elements of community are the critical programmatic components, including curriculum, the extra-curricular program, and the instructional processes.

A Meaningful Curriculum. The school with heart has a curriculum that helps the student create meaning through knowledge-based problem-solving. It is a curriculum that embodies the several kinds of intelligence that all humans possess, not just mathematics and language. And it is most of all a curriculum that makes connections. The curriculum connects not with student interests, but with deeper student concerns. It lifts the students out of the confines of the present and connects them with their past. It connects them with the history of their country through an informed patriotism that acknowledges the mistakes and celebrates the triumphs of the nation's past. It connects them with the rest of the world, destroying their parochialism by helping them understand that they are part of a global community. It reduces their self-centeredness by making them sensitive to the plight of the poor and the war-weary all over the world. It strips away their cultural blinders by helping them see the world through the eyes of other people. And it reminds the students that on this planet earth all human beings are recent immigrants.

An Extra-Curricular Program Built upon Multiple Talents. In too many schools the extra-curricular program reflects an athletic elitism: the only ones who are rewarded are those with exceptional athletic talent. The school with heart prizes multiple talents: musical, the artistic, scientific, mathematical, communications, and interpersonal talents all have an opportunity to be nourished through an expanded activities program.

Instructional Processes with Heart. Teachers in the school with heart teach with a sense of joy. Teachers have become grim professionals, who have forgotten how to laugh. Because of rampant criticism from the media and the resistance of students beset with problems, too many teachers have lost their enthusiasm for teaching. It is especially important that teachers not succumb to the forces of despair. Instead, when the burdens of teaching seem almost intolerable, they must re-kindle their professional enthusiasm by renewing the spiritual self, reaching deep inside to tap the wellsprings of hope that lie buried there.

With that sense of joy, they make use of instructional processes that emanate from the core values. They make extensive use of cooperative learning; they use strategies that respond to individual differences; they enable students to expand their repertoire of learning styles.

Again, the curriculum, the extra-curricular program, and the instructional processes should be anchored in the bed-rock of universal values that transcend ethnic preferences, party politics, and sectarian

differences. To amoral youth who believe that their fleeting wishes justify any action, educators must place a renewed emphasis on values. Educators have avoided the awesome task of developing character because they fear the attacks of extremists. Polls conducted in 1993 and 1994 by the Gallup organization offer some assurance. More than 90 percent of those polled supported the teaching of the following values: honesty; democracy; acceptance of people from different races; patriotism; caring for friends and family; moral courage; the golden rule; respect for others; the value of hard work and persistence; fairness; compassion; civility; and self-esteem (Elam, Rose, and Gallup, 1994).

When asked about skills needed for employment, employers listed these five as the most important: no substance abuse; honesty; ability to follow directions; respect for others; and punctuality.

One may add to this list the value of acting responsibly. While there is a continuing need to respect the rights of students, parents, and teachers, there is a countervailing need to emphasize responsibility. There are too many irresponsible people who mindlessly respond to the whims and caprices of their individual needs, without considering the impact of their actions on those whom they touch. Too many deny responsibility for what they have become—blaming parents, teachers, or the larger society in an endless whine of "It's not my fault."

The obligations of being human must be stressed. The teacher who wastes a class session on mindless seatwork must be told , "You wasted thirty learning hours; you are responsible." The student who comes unprepared, must be told, "You are not able to contribute to today's work and thus you hurt us all; you are responsible." The parent who sees the school only as a baby-sitting service, must be told, "You are not carrying your fair share of the burden; you are responsible." All must reaffirm their responsibility for what they have become, acknowledging human frailty and shouldering the burden of individual sinfulness.

The importance of character development is underscored by a Michigan state survey of employers reported by Carson, Huelskamp, and Woodall (1993). When asked about skills needed for employment, employers listed these five as the most important: no substance abuse; honesty; ability to follow directions; respect for others; and punctuality. The five least important skills were mathematics, science, social sciences, computer programming, and foreign language. And those who adulate Japanese schools should be impressed with recent findings that Japanese middle school teachers spend twice as much time as their American counterparts in providing moral education and counseling individual students (Yang, 1994).

The challenge of creating partnerships for learning communities is an awesome one. There will be dark days ahead, when children seem unreachable, when lessons fall apart, and when the public fails to appreciate the school's efforts. But there must be no submission to the forces of despair. The Divine (however one designates that) grants teachers small miracles in the lives of those they teach. Their minds will come alive through the knowledge they share. Their hearts will be touched through the caring they extend. Their spirits will be stirred by the values they live. And they will know deep in their hearts that they have made a difference in the lives of those who sit before them.

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Wish I Could've Told You

Wish I Could've Told You was written to expose the human side of those sitting in our classrooms. It is intended for parents, teachers, and those interested in youth and education. It is based on the experiences of Dr. Marge Tye Zuba who directed a chronic truancy program in Oak Park, Illinois. The program has been recognized by the State of Illinois as an outstanding and innovative response to the problem of truancy.

Wish I Could've Told You presents portraits about Ken, Tracy, Nick, and other Oak Park and River Forest High School (OPRFHS) freshmen and sophomores designated as "truant." They are not special education students. They are in the mainstream of our educational system. They are not unusual, although we might like them to be. They are on the class roles in English, math, and science. They are part of the regular school system. They need to be looked at; they need to be heard. They are almost dropping out.

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–Larry Nucci, Chair,
Educational Psychology,
University of Illinois at Chicago

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–Earl Bitoy, 1990 Kohl
International Teaching Award
recipient, educator, and
educational consultant

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About the author

Dr. Marge Tye Zuba has spent more than 25 years as a teacher and social worker. She has worked at Cook County jail and with street gangs in Chicago's Pilsen area. She regularly conducts workshops for teachers, parents, and community groups, and is in demand as a motivational speaker. Dr. Zuba is a Dean at OPRFHS and assistant professor at Northern Illinois University.

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Speaking of Discipline, . . . : An International Perspective

by Nancy Zeller and Miguel A. Gutierrez

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On February 21, 1995, at East Carolina University in Greenville, North Carolina, six teachers sat down to talk about issues involving school safety and discipline in their various parts of the world. The discussants in this focus group interview included Luisa De Wilson of Panama, Marina Kudritskaya of Belarus, Valentina ("Val") Kushnarenko of Ukraine, Ludmilla ("Lucy") Spiryakova of Russia, Debbie Seykora of the USA, and Dilsen Tuncer of Turkey. The interview was moderated by Miguel Gutierrez of Costa Rica, with a little input from Nancy Zeller of the USA.

What is *Discipline*, Anyway?

Miguel: I would like to give you some information as to the purpose and rationale of this interview. I have been a teacher in Costa Rica for many years and a principal and then a college professor. When I came to North Carolina looking for experience in the public schools, I had read a lot about American education, but I hadn't had an opportunity to really be in a school environment here. So I decided I wanted to do that. I came here, and something caught my attention which I thought would be worth exploring—the violence and discipline problems which the schools here have. When I worked as a teacher here, I came with my Costa Rican tools to deal with discipline: instead of looking for fear or trying to threaten my students, I looked to something in which I had always believed—when you gain respect, you accomplish more than if you just instill fear in your students because respect is long-lasting. With fear, you have to be . . . scaring everybody all the time—every single minute or two—to accomplish something. As a result, you can never accomplish anything. So, that's my perspective.

Now that I have made you aware of my perspective, I think it's time for us to get into, as they say around here, the *nitty gritty* of the interview. The first question that I have has to do with your perception of *discipline*. According to your perception, what is the operational definition of *discipline* that teachers and school administrators have in your respective countries? I don't know if I am making myself clear here, what I mean is, in every country, school administrators and teachers have a different perception of what a *discipline problem* is. For instance, when I taught here in the public schools, what some American principals and teachers considered a *discipline problem* was something *normal* to me. But, what is your perception? Before you begin, I should emphasize that there is no wrong or right answer here. The important thing here is to express your own opinions and perceptions. So . . . what is a *discipline problem* in your schools?

Marina: I think first of all, I would define *discipline* as a set of rules. First of all, attendance . . . and then a set of rules which students should follow to let the teacher conduct his or her lesson. For me, it is approximately a narrow set: attendance, studies, and the opportunity for the teacher to conduct the lesson.

Luisa: Years ago I worked at a private school in my country. This

school is very prestigious—it was conducted by a priest. Then I thought that the traditional concept of *discipline* had changed because the priests were expecting silence, just everybody silent and working. But for teachers, that is not *discipline*—at least not for me. I could see *discipline* as a set of conditions—first of all, external conditions, and afterwards, internal conditions. First of all, a teacher has to establish some external conditions, and after that, the students learn to apply these same conditions, internally, to self-control.

Debbie: Well I think our biggest discipline problems involve a lack of respect—the students not having respect for the teachers, for the other students, and for everybody in the school. And I think that—lack of respect—is where most of our problems stem from.

Dilsen: In Turkey, there are no discipline problems in public schools. But we have problems in private schools. I think that the most important thing is what the family expects of children. If the family's social level is high, their children think they can do anything—everyone must say, "O.K. You're alright. You can do it." That's why in private schools we have problems. But in public schools, the children do not want to talk. They don't want to say their opinions. In public schools there is very strong discipline.

Nancy: So you see a class difference—so that the upper class presents more of a discipline problem, and lower class students in the public schools don't present the problem?

Dilsen: That's right.

Nancy: That might be something very different than what we experience in the United States.

Val: When I came to the States, I saw that your schools have a lot of space, and children can walk freely along the corridors. But in Ukraine, the schools are multi-level buildings. For example, on the first floor, there is an elementary school; and on the fifth floor, there are seventeen year old students. So, if you do not keep discipline in this building, it would be a mess because during the break: along the corridors, the seven-year-old child encounters the the seventeen year old child. In general, Ukrainian children are very well behaved. They respect their families; they respect their teachers; and to speak about our having a very big discipline problem, such as verbal abuse, . . . no. The children are very well behaved. And it doesn't depend on from what background they came; they are good. For me *discipline* is respect, respect of the teachers, respect of the families, and respect of the neighborhood.

Lucy: So . . . we begin with a definition of *discipline*. I would like to support Marina and Debbie in my understanding of *discipline;* in fact, I would combine these two approaches. So it is easy for me to be the last. I can say that in Russia, we do have problems with discipline. I think the roots of this is maybe a lack of self-esteem. Maybe now I realize after my coming to America . . . I paid attention to that issue in your schools and in the classes I have attended here at East Carolina University: self-esteem seems to be the most important part in raising the children in elementary school. I know that Americans who were in Russia, their general opinion was that in Russia there is a fear of fear. Then I couldn't understand them, and I didn't agree with them—that was before coming here. But now, yes, I realize that maybe, . . . well, our whole nation has been always oppressed by somebody. That's why when a Russian child comes to school, he wants to be himself—he wants to be a personality. This is why he can be rude to a teacher; that's why he's trying to show himself. That's why when a teacher is young or new at school, the children try to speak back to him or her. So, misbehavior is not so rare in Russia.

How Big a Problem Is It?

Miguel: How would each of you characterize the school safety and discipline issue in your countries? Is it a serious problem or a minor one?

Luisa: I think in my country, that discipline is not a big problem. But, it is the opposite of what you say about Turkey because in private schools in Panama, there is better discipline.

Nancy: Because the Catholic church is operating the private school? Could that be related to the fact that there is strong discipline?

Luisa: Yes. But in public school, I don't know how to define *normal*, but discipline is not the big deal.

Miguel: It's not shooting someone . . . ?

Luisa: No, no. We don't have those problems.

Marina: In Belarus now adults have the opportunity to buy weapons and to do something criminal, and maybe it is possible for children . . . children can have, for example, guns or rifles if they live in village or in the country, or father or grandfather is a hunter. It is illegal, of course. There may be a few cases of guns in schools, but if it happens, usually the town or city or region knows about it. . . that something has happened. So it is really big news if something happens with weapons, with guns, if children bring them.

Miguel: But it's not a very common problem now?

Marina: No. It's illegal now. We have, for example, stores with guns and rifles, but it is impossible to just carry a gun; you need to have permission.

Nancy: Were students attacking teachers or attacking other students?

Marina: No. For me, and I have only been teaching three years . . . maybe Lucy has been working longer, or Val has been working longer, but I didn't hear, I didn't . . .

Lucy: In the beginning of my career, just the first year when I began teaching in the school where I worked, we really had a problem with one boy. But that boy . . . there was something wrong with him psychologically. It is very difficult to describe the level of how much his psychological system was damaged. From time to time he spent some time in the special school where he was given shots and pills to calm him down. But then every time he came back, he was something awful. You ask if it was safe in Russian schools. I would say in the school where I worked and in the class where he started, I was always anxious about the children around him because it was not safe for them. Fortunately, everything was alright; then, later, I heard he was walking around school with a rifle and he was shooting, but nobody was shot. The problem is that I do not know where the teachers must go when their nervous system is not healthy enough, what schools they must attend. I cannot answer this question myself.

Miguel: So, in a nutshell, is there a real problem with discipline and violence in the schools in your country?

Lucy: Besides that child?

Miguel: Yes, is it a generalized problem that you hear on the news everyday, that a student shot a teacher or something like that?

Lucy: No. Shot at teachers? No. Well, I've never heard about it in the town where I live. In my town there are nineteen schools. We didn't have such cases.

Val: No, you know I am a teacher. When I return from United States, it will be my twelfth year of teaching. In twelve years I have never heard that somebody shot during school in Ukraine. I regularly read the newspapers, but I never heard about it. So the only problem with violence in our schools is a problem with verbal abuse, not with shooting. No. We are coming to United States, and we heard that this happened in this region, and that happened in that region. So I am very interested to hear from the expert here. [To Debbie] So what about the violence in the American schools?

Debbie: We have a *problem* here! But I think my school is doing a lot to try and combat that problem. Right now we have peer mediation: if a student is having a problem with another student, or someone sees a problem starting to happen, they can recommend that they go to peer mediation. It is strictly volunteer; and the kids go, and they'll sit in a room with two trained mediators that are also students, and they'll talk through their problem. One will tell their side, and the other explains it to the other, and the other tells their side, and they come to an agreement. Last year, I just found these statistics: I think only one member failed to come to an agreement, and only two agreements were broken in a whole year. So that was eighty-four cases that would have gone . . . that would have probably escalated and gone to the principal or into a fight or something. I think this year we've already had about fifty, and we haven't had any problems from that, so . . .

Val: From what age can the young people have a gun? Legally?

Debbie: I have no idea. We cannot have any weapon on campus. I'm not sure at what age they can possess a gun themselves, but I know that even teachers are not allowed . . . I used to carry a Swiss army knife on my key chain to fix musical instruments. I was told I could no longer carry that or I would be arrested!

Val: If school children have a gun, do families know about it?

Debbie: Not necessarily. I know we had one case this year where a gun was brought to school. I think that some kids saw it on the bus and went immediately to the principal and said, "we've seen a gun here" and "this is who has it." And they actually kept the students in one class until they found the gun.

Dilsen: In Turkey . . .

Miguel: Is there a big problem?

Dilsen: No, no. It's not a big problem. I said before, we have some problems in private schools, but carrying a gun is not legal. I think this is very important. If a twelve-year-old child can carry a gun, he cannot think, "is this good or is this bad." I think this is a big lesson for Turkey.

Val: And maybe we can connect this with a Muslim country. It is a strict religion.

Dilsen: Your private school is not a religious school. Some schools are financed from private companies or some people's school. These are not public schools. But our public school system is very, very strict.

Nancy: And I would imagine where there are Muslim schools, those also are very strict?

Dilsen: Yes.

The Teacher's Role: Gaining the Students' Hearts

Miguel: The third question is: What role are *teachers* expected to play in the classroom and in the school as they deal with students' behavioral problems? School administrators? Parents?

Marina: Of course teachers play a great role, and the principal plays a great role in discipline. But, I would like to emphasize the teacher's role. For example, when you are talking about respect to a teacher, very often children don't respect the teacher, but very often *the teacher doesn't deserve the respect.* Maybe you can't agree, but it is very

often that a teacher begins to require or demand this respect—"You should respect me!" And of course children want, as Lucy said, to show themselves as adults, as maybe not stupid; they want to have their self-respect, too, because teachers very often humiliate them. So, this is like a chain reaction. Sometimes students misbehave just to show themselves. But often teachers exaggerate misbehavior, and they begin to say, "Go to the principal. You're bad, bad. Go there, go here." The parents are invited to school and so on. But sometimes, I'm talking about common, usual things . . .

Miguel: Excuse me, that's a good point what you are mentioning that I would like the other participants to reflect on, that sometimes—that was my perception also—that sometimes there is no problem, and the teacher sees a problem and creates a big problem.

Marina: Absolutely right. So maybe 50 percent of the time, I suppose, we wouldn't have a problem if the teacher would or is able to handle the problems himself.

Nancy: Have better classroom management?

Marina: Yes.

Val: And I want to add that the teacher himself should be a vivid example; then the students come to the class, and they listen to the lecture with an open mouth. So you know, the teacher must be an example for everybody. For example, I teach my students to be polite, to respect families and so on, but when they go out to the streets, they say, "Listen, what are we speaking about in this school?" Because in the streets, in society, there is an absolutely different life. The third environment is family. The school must educate children, and the family must teach them how to be civilized and productive citizens for their own country.

Luisa: Talking about family . . .

Miguel: Yes . . . the role of family in discipline problems?

Luisa: You know, when children come to school, they have a background; so teachers receive the children and help to work with what they bring . . .

Nancy: Some—in American slang, we call that *baggage*.

Luisa: Yes, *baggage*. It's not easy to deal with this. Each child has a different culture and familiar environment, and I think one of the first steps a teacher has to deal with is the personal treatment. We have a task, but first we have to deal with the person. We have to deal with feelings, and at the same time we have to deal with academic tasks; but you know it is important to deal with feelings and teach through feelings and treat the children with respect—if you want respect, you have to show respect. You have to show consideration.

Miguel: That is a very good point, an excellent point because you need to come across to the child as a person who cares so that the child cares for you, too. It is a two-way street.

Luisa: It is the base of self-esteem—that's what we were talking about, the base of self-esteem.

Miguel: Right.

Lucy: I've thought about the same. I'd like to say we have some discipline or ways how to discipline children, but most of them are designed to cause feelings of fear in students. I do not think that this is correct. For example, we can write some message for a child's parents in his day pad. Then we can call the student to a meeting with the teacher. We can call him to the principal's, but none of these remedies is effective for a long time. It takes only a little time before the student goes back to what he was. I think that maybe the most effective thing is love and trust: when you trust children, when they feel that you love them—even when sometimes you are scolding them—they forgive you. And next time, . . . well, I think it decreases the problems of discipline, that when you love each other, the discipline problems will not be so big in society—where everybody is afraid of everybody.

Val: We came to this country. We go to class and come from the classes and switch on TV and look what they show on American TV. It is the best propaganda for guns, shooting, violence. Here we are trying to explain to the child what is good, but when the he arrives home what he sees on TV is absolutely different. It's just another question, but it is very serious.

Dilsen: In my country, most of the problems aren't with teachers. When I was teaching in high school, I saw if a teacher is satisfactory in his or her subject, and he or she likes people, children, everybody, in every age, I saw that students also like the children very much, and they don't want to do any bad things. But also in my country, teachers in public school, they can do anything to students. If they are angry, they can maybe slap; it's not common, but they can do that. That's why if teacher is not satisfactory, she can use this to feel strong or to control . . .

Miguel: To have control of the classes? There is a set of rules, but if the teacher is not a good teacher or a satisfactory teacher according to the standards in your country, they are allowed to resort to those rules to keep control of the class?

Dilsen: Yes.

Debbie: Here one of the hardest problems we have as far as discipline goes is we will try to discipline a child or teach them respect, and then they'll go home and . . . we don't have any support from families—not where I teach. We don't have any home support because the parents aren't there, or they are out drinking, or they just don't have any family life whatsoever. Once the children get to school, they're only imitating what they've seen at home, so it's hard to discipline them because you know they are only do-

ing what they've already seen their parents do, and . . .

Nancy: There's nothing to build on?

Debbie: Right.

Miguel: That's a very good point. I believe the teacher has a double role, and that is to educate and to instruct. When you develop respect from your students, when you teach through concentrating and feelings first, you are able to help them pay attention to you and learn the academic part; so that was a very good point.

Preparing Teachers

Miguel: The next question is: To what extent teacher education programs in colleges and universities in your countries effectively prepare prospective teachers in such aspects as classroom management methods, child and adolescent psychology, mediation techniques, and teacher-parent relationships? According to your own experience, has this preparation proven effective and helpful in your teaching careers?

Val: We spend five years in a pedagogical university of foreign languages. We are taught English as a second language. But we have no subject like managing classroom environment. No, we were only taught methods of teaching English as second language.

Miguel: Psychology? Child psychology? Adolescent psychology?

Val: Yes, but this was not connected with discipline. It was maybe from the medical point of view, the development of the child, but not connected with the moral point of view.

Miguel: But let me ask this. Did the fact that you learned some adolescent or child psychology help you to understand your role as a teacher in discipline problem situations?

Val: Yes. But we didn't stress managing the school environment.

Marina: At my college we studied psychology and the *physical* environment and in lots of detail how to make better such ideas. I noticed that there's no such factors in American schools, for example, the height of chairs, the height of desks—you don't have different sized chairs usually. In our schools it is required to have different sized chairs and desks. We studied lots of details on how to make lessons and the physical environment more effective. But as a teacher we have not been trained, for example, in how to manage the psychological problems. They were mentioned, but when you begin to teach, it's really like a discovery—you know about it, you studied it, but nobody told you about the experiences. I am happy that I had one old teacher who told me, "Never, never, go against aggressive children." When I first began to teach, I was aggressive with aggressive children, but the result was aggressive. When I began to show my interest toward them and had a softer way, I had different children.

Miguel: So you believe that teachers should be trained?

Marina: That teachers should be trained in psychological problems with these difficult children .

Debbie: I really don't think I had a lot of classroom management preparation. I did have child psychology, but it wasn't as much as it probably should have been. But I think I've learned more through teacher programs and in-service things since I've been teaching.

Luisa: I have to say that in my country, we have a very complete program for teachers. Students who want to teach have to have some special characteristics. They have to complete all the requirements; so that is the only way they can be credentialed as a teacher. During high schools, we have a lot of psychological, even medical instruction, and now we have university courses in order to complete informational pictures. We are in a good position. It is always good to learn more, to get more instruction. You always *need* more. In my opinion, besides instruction, the personal engagement is important because it's not just about training, it is also about your motivation as a teacher. You can learn throughout your whole career. You never stop learning.

What Would a Visitor See in the Schools in Your Country?

Miguel: When I first came here to the States and walked into a school, I felt like I had a . . . not very positive impression—in the sense there was total silence. It was as if I were in a cemetery. That was not the perception of *discipline* that I was taught that a teacher should have. Now, if I were to visit or teach in your respective countries, how do you think I would perceive and describe the typical school climate there? What would my impression be?

Val: When you come to a Ukrainian school, you are impressed at the first step of the door. You will come into the class, and thirty-six children will raise up. They will show you respect. They will show you respect for your knowledge. They will show you respect as a guest in our room. They will show you respect for your age [laughter]. Excuse me, they are small kids. So, this is your first impression. The second one is that a Ukrainian school is not an army. You'll not find strict soldiers who are marching on the carpet. They are all kids—they are with their own families, backgrounds; and so, they are small but have personalities. And the third thing is the Ukrainian School has been independent only three years. Because Ukraine has a low economic standard, education, unfortunately, is very poorly financed by the government. All our

schools are governmental schools, but our schools work on the enthusiasm of the teachers, and like our anthem says, "Ukraine will flourish," and our education will flourish in maybe two generations.

Miguel: Lucy, would you like to add something?

Lucy: Okay. In December, when I returned to Russia from being in America, I went back to the school where my daughter goes. I was surprised that nobody seemed to care about each other—they were just rushing and passing each other without saying "excuse me." I would like that in Russia, we would care about each other more. The school is a reflection of society.

Miguel: Is there . . . For instance, if I were to walk into that school, would you have what I call working noise, which is what is expected of children? Would I be in a safe environment?

Lucy: Really, I don't know because I've been to some classes, and the teachers were so strict, and it was silent. Well, . . . I was afraid of the teacher . . .

Miguel: The teacher?

Lucy: Yes. We knew each other before, and maybe the children were used to her manner of conducting the lesson—they were not afraid, but I was. Yes. It was silence. In Russia, silence is considered to be discipline. So that is a problem.

Nancy: So are teachers in Russia expected to be intimidating, then . . . to intimidate the students?

Lucy: Yes, I think so.

Marina: I'd like to add some words. I'd like to talk about silence. For example, in my lessons, I demand that my students speak as much as possible; so there is usually not much silence! For example, I tell them, "Don't keep silent. Speak, speak."

Miguel: To clarify a little bit more, I see things here . . . education is to learn. You have to communicate. For example, in Costa Rica, if a teacher has a math problem on the board, it's normal for a student to talk quietly to his classmate and ask, "Do you understand what teacher said?" The other student will help him to understand. My perception when I came here was different. I mean, I was a Spanish teacher going from one class to another one, and students could not ask each other about minor details about the lesson because the teacher screamed at him or her in such a threatening and scary voice. Twelve years of this—no wonder why so many people end up being violent and getting fed up and shooting someone in high school! I've attended faculty meetings at schools where the teachers would chew gum, rattle papers, and talk all during the meeting. If students did that in their classes, the teachers would scream and yell. Teachers expect students to behave like adults, when really the adults behave like children. This is my perception. I am very sensitive to this problem because you mention it. It's a matter of knowing how to get to the hearts of these kids, and their feelings.

Marina: Miguel, excuse me, I would just like to add some words about your perception if you were to come to my school. For me it is a striking feature that in Belarus schools all students have breaks—five, ten, fifteen, twenty minutes—and usually they run. Of course the teacher must stop them, but we allow them to be noisy during the break. I really enjoyed it, but when I went to my school here for my internship, it was a little different. The students in three minutes just go to another classroom, and no children laugh in American schools. In my school tenth graders, eleventh graders stand at the window and tell stories and laugh . Here I don't see it. I need to see love, and I don't see it.

Nancy: So . . . maybe our schools are overly regimented?

Marina: Exactly. I ask them, why do they have only a three-minute break. The answer is because they are afraid—children are afraid to go to the rest rooms. During this five minutes, something bad can happen.

How About U.S. Schools?

Miguel: I understand that you all have had the opportunity to visit several schools in North Carolina. What's your perception of the school climate here as compared to that of the schools in your countries? What makes it similar or different?

Lucy: I had my internship in a private school in Kinston—at Parrot Academy. I love the atmosphere there. I feel that the atmosphere is safe. And we've been to five more schools in North Carolina, and really all the schools were different. And I would say the more . . . I do not know if I am right or not—it's just some feeling I have . . . the more Black students there are in the schools, the more unsafe it seems to be. Maybe that is just their appearance—bright, well, just extraordinary clothes, not clothes that are usually to be worn at school.

Val: The general cultural level of American schools is much higher than in Ukraine. The students wear torn jeans, and they can go near the elevator, and they say, "Excuse me, ma'am. Or, I'm sorry, ma'am." The general atmosphere is very good . . . very cordial, very warm, and the young students are very well behaved. I think it is from the families, especially in the South.

Nancy: Dilsen, have you visited any schools?

Dilsen: I was only at Rose High School. I think this school is different because I didn't see anything that I've heard before. Most of the students are polite in their schools, but I saw only two classes—an art class and a computer class. Maybe in that class time they have some things to do: they were working with computers; they were doing

some art. That's why they didn't have time for other things. But it was like a Turkish School.

Any Advice?

Miguel: What piece of advice would you give to your American colleagues to help them cope effectively with violence and discipline in the schools?

Val: Keep smiling.

Lucy: Be patient.

Nancy: Don't be aggressive with aggressive students?

Marina: Sure, sure. I'd like to mention a problem about White Americans and Black Americans. Usually at school when you come as a foreigner, I was told that there was a war between Blacks and Whites, and I asked why. The children dance together. The children study together. They have extracurricular activities together. I saw some activities where they took part together. But there is some war, and when I began to ask teachers about it, they answered that they don't speak about this problem. Maybe to settle this problem, to remove this wall, maybe you should just talk about it. For example, what do you have in your past, and what do you have now . . . because really you work together; you study together; you look at each other as equals. But there is a wall . . . because you don't talk openly about the history.

Debbie: I know at the high school where I'm at, we don't have a problem between Black and White. We have more of a problem with territory. These kids come from, say, *this* town; those kids come from *that* town. So it's not racial, it's territorial.

Marina: I'm afraid that I don't agree. Because when the foundation education asks the students who see us, would you like to live with a Black neighbor, everyone says "yes." Do you have any Black friends? "Yes, I have." But, at Halloween, we didn't see any Whites dancing together with Blacks. No Whites except Russian and Turkish and maybe some others. But the Whites just came in and came out. I mean, it's something . . . it's some wall you can't see, but you can feel it.

Nancy: Debbie, have any of the peer mediation cases you talked about at your school dealt with any interracial issues?

Debbie: I don't think so. It's been more boyfriend/girlfriend and territory. Race is not a problem.

Miguel: Yes, but there is always a concern. I understand what you mentioned, and that might be a big problem. For instance, my wife, when she was a teacher here, she looks like her [Luisa] . . . like a brunette. And, when she was teaching there, the kids came to her and asked her, "Are you Black, or are you White?" My wife answered, "I'm Brown." Race is a concern for the kids. They asked me what I was."

Nancy: They wanted to put a racial label on you?

Miguel: Yes, a racial label. So I used to say that I was Black. I have a good sense of humor; so I said I was Black, but had undergone the same treatment that Michael Jackson did [laughter].

Val: I think every country has its own problems. I would like to invite you, our international family, to visit Ukraine. We will show you our generosity, our beautiful future generation in independent Ukraine, and I think we will make our country a safer place to live in.

Marina: I think we need to visit each other's country to visit the schools to get our own opinions about schools.

Lucy: I want to thank you for your support. As Luisa said, "through teaching, we learn, and through learning, we teach."

Miguel: In conclusion, I want to thank you all very much for your participation.

Some Final Thoughts . . .

In our focus group interview with these six teachers, we learned that while school environments are very different in our respective countries—often reflecting culture, history, political philosophy, or other factors—what most teachers want for their students and schools is not so different in the end. All seemed to feel that gaining the student's heart was a more effective classroom management technique than fear or intimidation. All seemed to prize laughter and value natural childish exuberance, and all seemed to dislike regimentation of children. We were somewhat surprised at the issues of class and race that crept into our discussion, but found each others' tentative impressions of great interest and value.

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