CONSTRUCTING A BASELINE UNDERSTANDING OF DEVELOPMENTAL TRENDS IN GRADUATE CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

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ABSTRACT

The graduate field of conflict resolution is composed of an eclectic mix of programs, departments, centers, institutes, and think tanks which conduct a wide range of theory development, basic and applied research, service and teaching functions. Prior research on the graduate field has been limited mainly to either direct comparisons between a few graduate programs or summaries of progress made by program clusters, with the largest being a study of 18 programs. The composition and activities of the graduate field as a whole are not well understood, yet are hotly debated. This research attempts to fill part of this knowledge gap by specifically examining all known graduate programs in Peace Studies

(PS), Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) and Conflict Resolution (CR) in the United States that award verifiable graduate credentials (i.e., certificates, masters, or doctoral degrees) in PS, ADR, or CR. The participants in this study therefore constitute the entire known population (N = 94) of graduate credential granting programs in the United States that collectively award roughly 164 certificate and/or degree options. The results of this study constitute a baseline from which to specifically examine and compare program factors including: program location, size, student composition, faculty credentials and areas of expertise. This study also examines program content, including curriculum content, design, and delivery, areas of training specialization; and those elements that participants report make their programs unique. These and other results provide a means of comparing program types and individual program innovations in regard to curriculum, service, research agendas, and areas of practice. The study concludes with participants' ideas on what program development trends we can expect to see in the coming years as well as where the academy is or is not meeting social needs.

This chapter presents findings from a multiyear survey research study on the graduate field of ''conflict resolution'' in the United States. For the purposes of this article, ''conflict resolution'' describes a broad category of degree-granting graduate programs that focus a major portion of their mission and vision on conflict analysis, dispute resolution, and/or peace-building. More importantly, it refers to programs that have established their curriculum, theory development, research agendas, and, if present, faculty and student practice on dispute/conflict analysis, prevention, management, and/or transformation.

In addition, due to historical developments, we have divided the field into three interrelated groups of programs. The first and oldest group is composed of degree-granting Peace Studies (PS) programs, as well as some certificate programs in labor relations. The second group is a conglomerate of Conflict Resolution (CR) programs that generally cling together based on their common curricular foci and overall program mission. Some of these programs are direct evolutionary offshoots of PS programs, while others have deliberately distinguished themselves from PS programs. The third group is Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) programs. ADR is a general reference to decision-making or settlement options other than those used by courts (e.g., adjudication, litigation, and other forms of prosecution), such as negotiation and mediation. Not surprisingly, these

programs are largely found in law schools. These three categories are not mutually exclusive, as quite a few CR programs consider themselves to be closely aligned to PS programs, while quite a few ADR programs are remarkably similar to CR programs. This "bleeding over" creates unique programs that borrow from many academic paradigms and traditions, which reinforces the flexible and evolutionary nature of the field. Common roots, similarities, and differences between PS, CR, and ADR programs will be discussed in the "History of the Field" and "The Present State of Wave Four" sections.

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Over the years, a variety of studies have been done on developments within specific parts of the field. The literature is rich and encompasses many interrelated topics. Indeed, taken as a whole, it presents an interesting visual mosaic of the field. Specific research will be discussed in depth in the literature review.

What is lacking is a broad, empirical accounting of what constitutes the field in terms of its composition, size, breadth, or depth; locations within the academy; areas of specialization; or emerging areas of program development. In fact, some of the research forays into these topics are, by many authors' own accounts, based largely on good faith, educated guesswork, and are focused on a specific area within the field. A few scholars, such as Ron Fisher in an unpublished report, conducted detailed comparative analysis of three different types of graduate programs. William Warters' (1999) Delphi study of Hewlett-funded programs provides an excellent examination of survey results from 22 colleagues in graduate programs, while Timothy Hedeen and Pat Coy (1996) conducted a study of undergraduate CR programs. In addition, several directories list many types of programs at the undergraduate and graduate level, including those that teach courses but do not offer academic credentials. These include the Consortium on Peace Research, Education, and Development (COPRED) directory, the Peace and Justice Studies Association (PJSA) directory, and the listing available on www.CRinfo.org.

In short, there has been no research study whose end result attempts to present a panoramic view of the entire graduate field, or that provides a means of accounting that allows researchers to conduct across-the-board comparisons between programs. The current study provides a starting point from which to begin the long-term process of framing many of the great

advances that have and will take place within our field. It also provides a starting point for other cross-comparison work on the rich and eclectic range of programs that constitute the field, both current programs and those being developed. Finally, it provides a greater understanding of the core elements that bind programs together into one field of study.

HISTORY OF THE FIELD

A review of literature on the history of the field's development and curriculum changes is necessary in order to properly ground the results of the research on current trends in graduate education and the future projections. CR, PS, and ADR graduate programs have an intriguing and interconnected history. Ironically, this history has become the focus of quite a few heated debates in recent years, as some individuals and programs jockey for the "pioneer" status position. Others debate where the field began, under what conditions it evolved, and which group or individual gets credit for discovering or leading this academic enterprise. This study indicates that there is enough good work and recognition to go around.

Some see PS, CR, and ADR as having completely distinct origins that have only recently merged, like streams into one river. However, that analogy works only if one fails to see the overlap between the three areas of the field. For this reason, we are adopting Carolyn Stephenson's wave development analogy to discuss the history of the field.[1]

Like waves reaching a beach, it is sometimes difficult to draw a clear line between one wave cresting and another one receding. Some of the developments in various parts of the field have occurred at the same time, and some have occurred in isolation. In other words, the wave analogy depicts motion that is impacted by past and current forces – a reality of the field. This "wave" history of the field also provides a context within which to place the current research, and from which to launch into a discussion on the future trends – both internal and external to the academy – that will shape the field in the coming years.

Historically, the three areas of the field (CR, PS, and ADR) have gone through several overlapping and intertwined, yet distinct, phases or waves of development. To some degree, each wave has been propelled by a combination of major social forces, including labor unrest, war, legal reform, religious teaching on day-to-day social responsibility and social justice, consumer demand, and changes within the academy itself. Some members of the field see these changes within a social movement framework, while

others see them as a response to job market forces. Still others describe these changes as the melding of established disciplines that are making unique contributions to this multidisciplinary field of practice. Whatever the thinking behind how individuals frame the field, it is clear that these social dynamics form part of the root system that supports the present base. And, over time, numerous evolutionary branches have jutted off in new and unforeseen directions, giving way to unique specialized areas of theoretical development, new areas of basic and applied process research, and specialized forms of practice. Current graduate programs, whether knowingly or not, have been strongly influenced by these past social forces.

Wave One

The first wave of graduate education began soon after World War II, in the early 1950s, with the advent of PS as a discipline.[2] While it is difficult to pinpoint an exact beginning for any field, most scholars would agree that PS began during this first wave, as early as 1948, with the program at Manchester College (Dugan, 1989; Lopez, 1989; Stephenson, 1999). Dugan and Carey (1996) observe three developments to signify the "birth" of an academic discipline: the development of published journals, professional associations, and academic programs in colleges and universities (p. 85). The first journal specific to PS was the *Bulletin of Research Exchange on the Causes of War*, published in 1952 (Stephenson, 1999), followed by many other journals throughout the 1960s. Professional associations also began to develop at that time; the first PS conferences were held in the United States, Sweden, and the Netherlands (Stephenson, 1999).

These early programs were primarily research-oriented. In fact, many early researchers were mathematicians and quite a few of the doctoral degrees were in mathematics with an emphasis in peace research (Dugan, 1989). While such origins produced excellent theoretical foundations and empirical results, it offered little in the way of practical application to resolving current day-to-day conflicts. In a related vein, Princeton and Harvard University mathematicians, economists, and physicists began experimenting with game theory and rational choice models of decision-making, ranging from interpersonal cooperative-competition (e.g., the Nash equilibrium) to large-scale nuclear war simulations.

The after effects of World War II and the beginning of nuclear proliferation strongly impacted the theories taught and the research conducted during this time. Research was based on the beginning assumption that

conflict, especially war, was negative (Poundstone, 1992). The primary focus was on the quick cessation of physical violence (or "negative peace," as it was later dubbed) and other means of de-escalation that led to détente, rather than the resolution of deep-rooted social problems. A decided split was developing at this early stage during the Cold War, which would begin to separate the field by research agenda, activism, and politics.

Throughout the 1960s, as this first wave of PS was drawing to a close, these assumptions about conflict began to change, especially as Galtung's (1969) theories of positive peace and structural violence gained momentum. The advent of the modern PS movement began as researchers came to embrace ideas such as the positive potential of conflict and Coser's (1964) functions of social conflict, and began studying the presence or absence of structural violence rather than more strictly defined armed conflicts (Wehr & Washburn, 1976).

While scholars in PS did make significant headway in developing the beginnings of a discipline, the field was still very broad and usually interdisciplinary (Lopez, 1989; Scott, 1984). Many universities, rather than starting an entirely new program, would draw courses and faculty from other departments, further straining already limited resources (Rank, 1989).

During this first wave, when PS dominated the academic scene, there were some early, limited forays into CR (Kriesberg, 2005). The University of Michigan started the Center for Research on Conflict Resolution in 1959. Though it was in operation for only 12 years, the Center and staff made significant headway in developing CR as a separate discipline from PS. While the goals of the Center were fairly conventional, its scope and ambition was broad, distinguishing it from other PS centers being developed in this same time period, such as those at Stanford and Northwestern.

Many of the problems plaguing the early CR "movement" in the academy in the late 1960s, and leading to the Center's closure in 1971, were the same problems that PS faced in the early 1990s. Harty and Modell (1991) theorize that "perhaps because the movement had emerged as a joint project of a large group of scholars from a variety of disciplines, and because it was always plagued with obstacles in the recruitment of the new young scholars, no single theoretical framework, set of variables, or terminology had gathered enough proponents to become the interdisciplinary theory of conflict resolution" (p. 735). Indeed, the lack of a canon or a coherent connection between theory development, research agendas, and their combined impact on practice is an ongoing challenge for the field.

Also during this first wave, law schools created a parallel track in making significant curriculum reform toward a focus on trial and appellate

procedure. While ADR was not introduced at this time, the reform would set the groundwork for ADR to take root in legal education in the 1970s.

Wave Two

The second wave began in the early 1970s, following the height of the civil rights movement and the end of the Vietnam War, and continued through the mid-1980s. During this wave, the number of graduate programs in PS grew quickly, and there was also significant growth at the undergraduate level (Stephenson, 1989; Dugan & Carey, 1996). While scholars were unsure if the first wave of PS could truly justify its position as an independent academic discipline, by this second wave of development PS was most certainly an academic field (Lopez, 1985; Carey, 1980). Though many programs still lacked resources and institutional support, the rise of journals, professional organizations, and conferences offered a new legitimacy to the field.

During this wave, both curriculum and research shifted dramatically in response to significant cultural and societal changes. Though the nation was still embroiled in the Cold War, with the Vietnam War drawing to a close, curricula began focusing less on individual choices for peace and more on the practical application of peace research at the personal, group, national, and international levels.

The focus of research shifted, becoming more action-oriented or activist in nature rather than strictly empirical. Research and teaching began to focus more on current political conflicts, particularly nuclear disarmament, and processes of resolving conflict. Debate arose as to the role of peace research in a time of peace activism. Some scholars argued that research should be empirical and neutral; others argued that research should have an overt goal of ending violence. The balance between activism and neutrality is an issue still faced by academics and practitioners today.

Though the early efforts in CR, such as those at the University of Michigan described above, tapered off or ended in the late 1960s, some level of development did continue between that time and the late 1980s when CR really began to flourish as its own field. A growing number of universities began offering isolated courses in mediation and negotiation skills, teaching students to put those skills to use in resolving disputes in their own daily lives (Kriesberg, 2005).

Also during the second wave, in the 1970s and 1980s, ADR courses began appearing in law school curricula. Some of this rise can be attributed to a growing social awareness of nonviolence and the growing legitimacy of PS

in liberal arts education. Sacks (1984) argues that this dual development (both social and academic) created not only the demand for ADR courses, but also the pedagogical basis for its continued growth. Another contributing factor was the introduction of moot courts, trial skills, and theories from other disciplines into law school curricula. In 1981, the University of Massachusetts Amherst opened the Mediation Project, which allowed law students to practice ADR techniques and by the mid-1980s, several law programs had an ADR focus in their curricula or research.

Wave Three

The third wave of PS began as a massive expansion in the mid-1980s. In fact, "the campuses that did not offer at least some type of peace studies courses were few and far between" (Lopez, 1989, pp. 67). That expansion quickly gave way to the development of CR graduate programs as an independent academic field, with significant changes in curricula, philosophy, and pedagogy, with the first program at George Mason University in 1983 (the Institute for Conflict Analysis and Resolution, or ICAR) in 1983. As CR programs continued to expand through the late 1980s and early 1990s, the growth of PS programs slowed. The shift to CR was so drastic that some scholars no longer considered PS a field on its own but rather a subset of CR (Rank, 1989; Katz, 1989), though many would still argue that PS stands alone.

Literature on PS throughout the late 1970s to the mid-1980s expressed concern over perceived vulnerabilities in the field. Several areas were noted in which programs must evolve to keep up with changing political and academic trends, in order to stay relevant as a field throughout the 1990s. The primary concern seemed to be a lack of structure, both at the University level (Wehr & Washburn, 1976) and in the field as a whole (Lopez, 1985). At the University level, programs were often interdisciplinary, lacking any real framework in terms of learning goals, curriculum, and courses: "Too often, PS programs are mere amalgams of existing courses with a new title affixed" (Wehr & Washburn, 1976, p. 48). At a broader level, there was again very little framework delineating the boundaries or goals of the field or the curriculum. Leaders in the field, when writing about goals, were split between educating students about causes and consequences of conflict and actively training students to be advocates for peace, similar to the research split described above.

CR programs grew rapidly beginning in the mid-1980s.[3] In Paul Wehr's survey of 500 programs, he found that 294 offered at least one course in CR (Warters, 1999).[4] Within another ten years, those course offerings had rapidly evolved into undergraduate and graduate programs (Warters, 1999). Much of the quick development was a result of a growing social movement in nonviolence and political changes toward the end of the Cold War (Kriesberg, 2005). During the 1980s, the Hewlett Foundation began to directly support CR programs, especially in the area of theory development. Support of "Hewlett Programs," as they came to be known, lasted until the early 2000s.

CR programs differ significantly from the earlier PS programs. Generally speaking, the primary difference is CR's mix of practical experience, skill-building and theory, as compared to PS' almost exclusive focus on theory and research. At least in part, the academic shift from PS to CR can be ascribed to the differences between PS' primarily theory-based curriculum and the experiential learning component present in most CR programs. For instance, in 1987, Dr. James Laue and the Conflict Clinic, Inc. joined George Mason University's ICAR program and, with some student involvement, provided mediation services to the community, a practical concept that has been duplicated across the country. This difference is crucial, since "few colleges or universities have successfully incorporated an experiential component into their [Peace Studies] academic programs" (Bing, 1989, p. 48).

A second difference between the two subfields can be seen in the research each produces. While PS was originally quantitative in nature and provided statistics on the effects of and reasons for war, CR research typically focuses on specific, isolated conflicts and offers practical solutions for resolution.

As CR courses and programs were gaining momentum, the curriculum typically focused on domestic conflicts and the dispute resolution skills necessary to effectively intervene. While some theory and research was taught in most programs, this usually took second place to skills training in mediation, arbitration, and negotiation. Even though labor relations programs had been in existence for many decades, it now became one of the primary areas in which students began putting these practices to use. Indeed, many of the CR organizations today evolved directly out of labor relations departments' attempts to professionalize their own field. It wasn't until CR scholars began taking those theories and skills that were working so well in labor relations and applying them to international crises, a concept which PS was only approaching in a theoretical manner, did CR really take off.

Also during wave three, the ADR movement in law schools grew rapidly. In 1986, 43 law schools reportedly offered ADR courses, representing almost a quarter of law schools at the time. Just three years later, 550 ADR

courses were being offered in 174 law schools. By 1997, that number had jumped to 714 courses in approximately 177 law schools, representing most US law schools at that time (Moberly, 1998).

The emergence of ADR courses, clinics, and degree-granting programs in law schools came not only from increasing social and academic interest in ADR as described above, but also from the growing use of it in the civil legal system. Many states encourage or require some form of ADR for civil cases, especially in family courts. Another factor is the general public's ongoing dissatisfaction with the administration of justice and the American Bar Association's willingness to make adjustments. As negotiation and mediation became common means of dispute resolution in the justice system, and as lawyers began using these skills in their daily practice, the number of ADR courses offered in law schools increased.

This growth was also facilitated by a small group of pioneering law faculty who wanted to reinforce a holistic approach to client needs. They reinvigorated the curriculum, all the way down to first-year doctrinal courses, by focusing on the breadth of needs-based services that the traditional, adversarial approach to legal education had largely ignored.

During this wave, there was some debate as to how ADR should be incorporated into law school curricula. The Missouri Plan, articulated by Leonard Riskin in 1984, attempted to challenge the adversarial bias of the standard curriculum by incorporating the skills, theories, and practices of ADR into each of the first-year courses. While students did learn the processes of mediation, arbitration, and negotiation, the plan was not as successful as hoped when it came to shifting the focus of students from adversarial trial law to a more needs-based approach (Pipkin, 1998). Other attempts to introduce ADR into the curriculum include adding basic theories to specific first-year courses (i.e., civil procedure and basic legal skills) (O'Neill, 1998; Vaughn, 1998) or dedicating third-year courses to skills training in ADR processes (Moberly, 1984).

WAVE FOUR: RESEARCH ON THE CURRENT STATE OF THE FIELD

The field has again undergone significant changes in curriculum, focus, and mission due to social forces, planting us firmly within a fourth wave of development. The results of this study present a clear understanding of this current state of the field. Before going directly to the results, a brief

discussion on the background and research methods used in the study is in order. For those wishing to skip this section and go directly to the results, please see ''The Present State of Wave Four'' section below.

This study began in 1995 when the Department of Conflict Analysis and Resolution (DCAR) at Nova Southeastern University was taking part in the University's reaccreditation process. An external reviewer asked the department how it compared to similar programs in terms of curricular and programmatic specialization, faculty competencies and qualifications, postgraduate student job placement, and a variety of other key program indicators. A review of the literature revealed no studies that addressed these questions. We therefore undertook a series of studies, one internal and the other an external study that canvassed the field, to meet the reviewer's request for information (Polkinghorn, 1998; Polkinghorn & Chenail, 2000). Our departmental colleague, William Warters, conducted his 1999 Delphi study on Hewlett Programs during this time period. These studies provided us with evidence that the field was in the midst of rapid change in curriculum, program focus, and program location throughout a wide range of schools and colleges. In 2001, the project took on added significance when a request was made to begin preliminary work on a master's program, this time at Salisbury University. A more complex research tool and protocol was developed and administered to all graduate programs in the United States.

RESEARCH TOOLS, PROTOCOL, AND SUBJECTS

The current study builds on these previous inquiries. More than ten years in the making, this research has continuously tracked the development of the field that now constitutes 94 US-based graduate CR programs. Members of the research team have been able to personally visit most of the programs. From our survey research, semistructured interviews and analysis of written documents, Web pages, and literature reviews, the following profile is made possible.

The primary research instrument is an extensive survey, completed over the phone or in person with program directors or key faculty members, usually requiring at least an hour.[5] Questions fell into six areas of inquiry: history of the program, location within the University or College structure, demographics on the students and faculty, curriculum delivery, content and areas of specialization, and the uniqueness of each program.

These extensive surveys completed with each program comprise the primary research data.[6] In addition, a separate survey was developed and administered to students in four graduate programs as supplemental information. Two programs completed it online and two chose to administer it face to face. We chose the programs for student interviews based on four criteria: (1) if the program director was amenable to it, (2) how long the program had been in operation, (3) geographical location, and (4) the area or field in which the program is located (i.e., law, international, domestic/social, or PS). Finally, after the data had been collected on 94 programs and a preliminary analysis of the data had been conducted, the last step was to interview the second group of nearly 30 senior academics.[7] Most of these individuals have had a major impact on the field and provided a wide range of thoughts. Their perspective on the history of the field, in relation to the findings from the study, has provided critical insight into the identification of long-term trends. Their participation has also helped make sense of some of the history behind a few of the data trends. For that we are grateful.

PROGRAM SELECTION

The threshold criteria for a program to be included in the study are straightforward. The "entity" (i.e., school, department, institute, center) housing the program must have the authority to award academic credentials (certificates or degrees), which must appear and be verified on a student's official university or college transcript. This means that the institution where the program is located has granted the program permission to confer graduate certificates or degrees, including Master of Arts, Master of Science, Master of Divinity, Juris Doctorate, Master of Law, MBA, or Doctorate.

In order for the program to be included in this study, the degree must be directly in CR (recall this can be labeled conflict management, conflict transformation, PS, peace and justice, ADR or a host of other related names) or the degree must have a verifiable designation, concentration or track in CR. So, for instance, a doctoral program in Sociology or International Relations with a concentration in CR would be included.

The certificate awarded by programs must be in an area of CR, PS, or ADR, and/or specialized areas such as environmental, international, or cross-cultural CR. If the program does not offer a degree option, the certificate must appear on student transcripts.

The justification for these threshold criteria is simple. The first is based on the assumption that programs that award verifiable credentials have gone through some institutional review process to gain the institution's approval. Secondly, and this is where we diverge from nearly all the previous research projects, we did not want to cast a wide net and include every program in existence. We did not include programs that offer a set of preexisting courses packaged from various departments into a "program of study" without conferring any special status in terms of a certificate or degree. From an academic perspective, the increasing credibility of the field rests on, among other things, legitimate credentials. Upon further investigation, some programs turn out to be think tanks that offer a course or two but no academic credentials. In short, if the program offers no credentials, it is still a part of the field but was not included in this study.

THE PRESENT STATE OF WAVE FOUR

Currently, the field is riding the crest of the fourth wave of development. The major distinctions between this wave and the previous are twofold. The first is the breadth and depth of growth in graduate degree-granting programs. The credibility and legitimacy issues that arose in wave three, by both helpful critics and outright skeptics, have largely been attended to. There is now a firm base of programs. Likewise, programs are now found in more areas within the academy, including traditional liberal arts and humanities disciplines and professional schools. Second, the continuing development of the field has shown greater signs of diversity and stability. In wave four, we see substantial development in a number of areas: the growth of professional organizations, especially at the local and regional levels; the introduction of uniform codes for various areas of specialized practice; the growth of specialized and regional professional organizations; and more scholarly outlets specifically for CR researchers, which are predominantly trade journals and popular press but include a few peer-reviewed journals.

Data Analysis

The fourth wave of the field can be described differently than the previous waves. On the surface, it appears as a semiorganized cluster of programs clinging together for reasons discussed shortly. Clearly, the field does not

mimic traditional disciplinary developments. Programs are housed in research and teaching institutions, as well as vocational and professional schools[8] (see Table 1). Participants were asked, "How did your program begin?" They provided remarkable responses in three general areas. One response about the origin concerned faculty and student interest in specific areas of inquiry, such as peace and nonviolence, education, environmental and international issues. Another response concerned major social events, such as Vietnam, Columbine High School, and 9/11, which focused and sharpened individuals' thinking about how to frame an appropriate set of productive responses to the crisis. Third, the mission and vision of the institution made the creation of a PS or conflict program inevitable. This was seen mostly in religious-affiliated universities or colleges, divinity schools, or theological seminaries. Only a few participants mention a specific visionary faculty member or key administrative "champion" as the catalyst for the development of their program. However, some participants indicate that their programs flourished when "cornerstone" faculty were involved and later floundered when that faculty retired, died, or moved on.

Table 1.   Program Locations.

| Responses	Frequencies	Percentage
College of Arts/Humanities and Science	23	24.5
School of Law	18	19.1
Graduate School	12	12.8
Seminary, School of Theology/Religion	7	7.4
School of Education	7	7.4
College of Public Affairs	5	5.3
School of Business	3	3.2
Stand-Alone Center or Institute	3	3.2
Graduate & Professional Training (Continuing Ed.)	3	3.2
Distance Learning/Online Programs	3	3.2
School of Management	2	2.1
Interdisciplinary Program	1	1.1
School of International Service	1	1.1
College of Social Sciences	1	1.1
College of Public Programs	1	1.1
School of Social Work	1	1.1
Professional Psychology	1	1.1
Public Resources	1	1.1
School of International Studies	1	1.1
Total	94	100
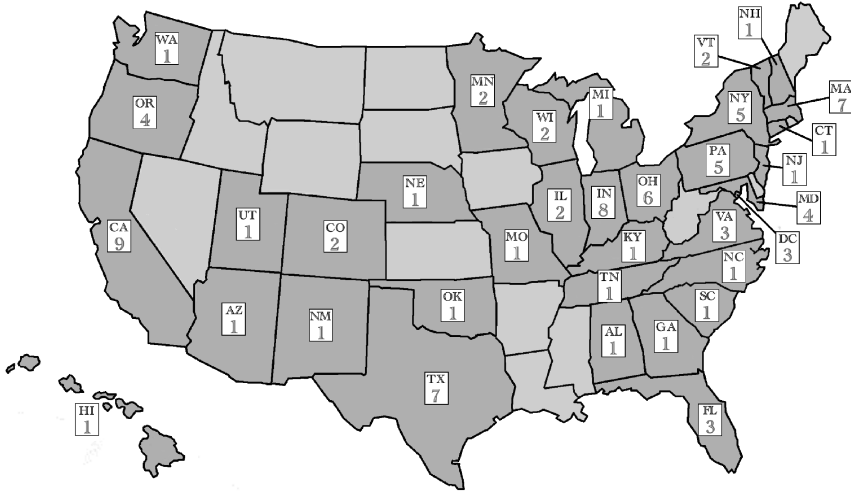
Fig. 1.   Location and Concentration of Programs.

Currently, the CR field (including CR, PS, and ADR programs) in the United States is composed of 94 programs found in 35 states that offer a combined total of 164 different credentialing options (certificates or degrees) (Fig. 1). Program development across the country has been uneven, with older programs found more in the northeast and in private institutions. One might expect to see more programs in higher density areas or larger education markets, but the programs are literally all over the map, an indication that the field is not easily swayed by market forces. It also provides an indirect means of registering the field's overall social utility.

Fig. 2 superimposes the wave analogy of the field over the actual growth of the three segments of the field. PS programs formally arrived prior to CR and ADR, yet are currently developing at the slowest rate. There were some sporadic bursts of activity, as is seen early in wave one, followed by a second small growth spurt in the late 1980s (during wave three) and a little activity post 9/11. CR programs, on the other hand, came online in the early 1980s and accelerated in dramatic fashion in the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s. The surge in CR programs overtook PS program development throughout the 1990s and currently dominate the field numerically. ADR programs followed a path similar to CR programs, albeit on a smaller scale and with about a four-year lag. Fig. 2 shows no real dip in the 2006–2010 range. As of this writing, we are only two years into that time frame but by 2010, more CR and ADR programs will have come online.
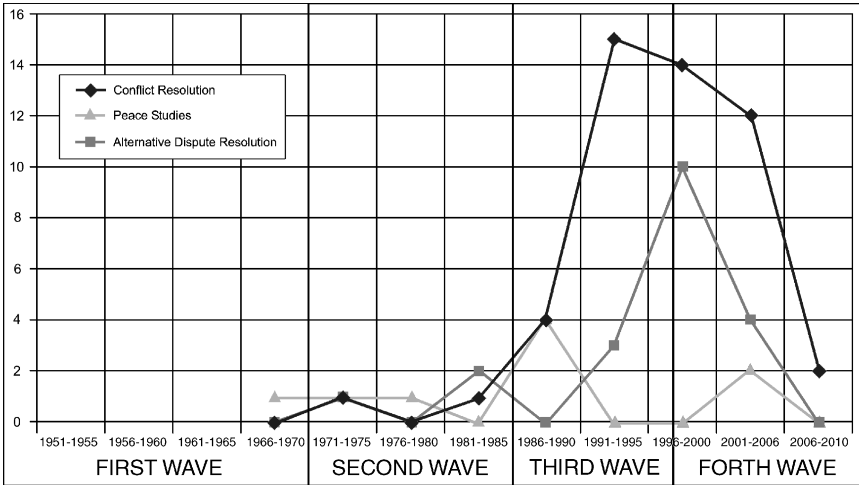
Fig. 2.   Program Type to Number of Programs Developed by Wave Time Periods.
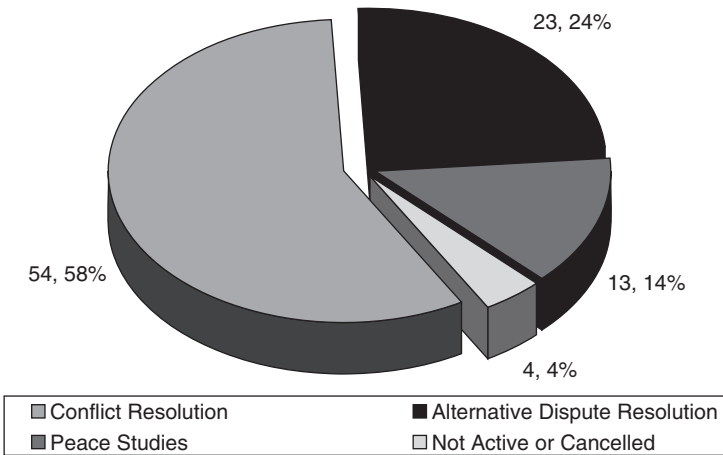

Fig. 3.   Breakdown of Programs by Type.

   The pie chart in Fig. 3 provides a breakdown of the current state of the three segments of the field. As stated, the field largely began with the development of PS programs and a few labor relations programs. However, as Fig. 2 shows, the number of those programs has remained steady or declined. Several different reasons – or a combination of reasons – may

account for this decline. Survey participants were asked two important questions: What forces helped shape the field? Where do you want to see your program evolve? Three answers were the most common. First, the program simply morphed from PS to CR, although some ADR directors disagree. Second, the politicization of "peace" has forced a shift in program focus and goals. Third, the market for skilled practitioners and researchers in both the public and private sector led to a surge of CR programs.

The next generation of programs in CR, found more often in traditional liberal arts departments and university public outreach programs, has come to comprise more than half of the graduate programs in the field (58%). This is followed by the relative latecomer – ADR law school programs (24%), and finally PS programs (14%).

Likewise, the sudden shift from PS programs being alone in the field to a surge in the development of CR and ADR programs produced a configuration of clusters. Taking a closer look at the CR and ADR clusters, a detectable, but more gradual, corresponding shift in the types of institutions that house these programs is evident. They moved from being overwhelmingly private to an increasingly more in public institutions. However, about two-thirds of programs, roughly 62%, are still found in private universities, with another 37% found in public universities and one percent in a public/private university.[9]

Recall that Fig. 1 shows a high concentration of programs (about 34%) in the northeast, stretching through the Ohio Valley. These programs are primarily housed in private institutions that typically have some affiliation to a religious organization. They are also older and more firmly established.

Taking this as a starting point, it is interesting to note the relationship between the specific type of program (PS, CR, and ADR) and the type of institution housing it. From interviews with participants, we hypothesized that both PS and CR programs would be more likely to be found in private institutions, but for different reasons. It is reasonable to think that PS programs are more likely to be found in institutions with affiliations to religious organizations that are without exception private. On the other hand, we think CR programs are often found in private institutions, since private institutions have the ability to quickly respond to emerging areas of research and practice, as well as changes in the job market, by moving into new areas of study. It is also worth noting that, overall, 80% of the schools and colleges that house CR programs are in both research and teaching institutions with student populations of less than 17,500. Because ADR programs are largely in law schools, and therefore subject to American Bar Association rules and consistent market trends, we did not think there
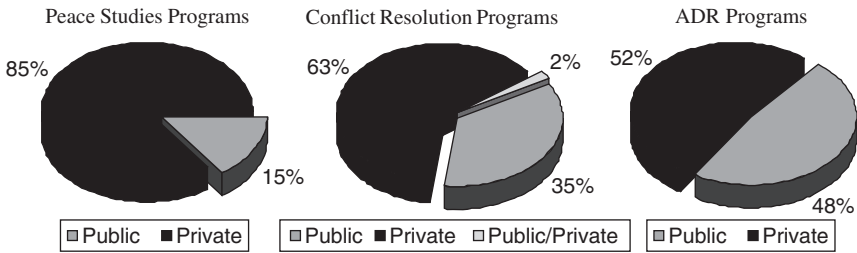
Fig. 4. Breakdown of Programs by Private or Public Institution.

would be much difference in degree-granting program locations. However, we hypothesized that certificate programs, which are less subject to outside requirements, would more likely be found in private law schools. Indeed, certificates are found in nine private and six public institutions. All three suppositions were correct. Not surprisingly, Fig. 4 indicates that a majority of PS programs are found in private institutions (85%), as are CR programs (63%), while not surprisingly, ADR programs are fairly well distributed between private (52%) and public (48%) institutions.

Program Evolution

Because of its eclectic composition, as well as the various developmental paths many programs have taken, the story of the evolution of field is complex. It certainly isn't as clear as the development of fields like psychology or sociology. The evolution of individual programs is similarly complex. For instance, most of the master's programs in the field have evolved from one of the following sources: individual classes or a concentration in CR (36%); a graduate certificate program (18%); a PS undergraduate program, although not necessarily a degree-granting program (9%); an undergraduate program other than PS such as criminology or sociology (13%); or a university outreach or service center (9%). A majority of master's programs that evolved from certificate programs have kept their certificate programs running. In fact, it is rare for a program to begin by offering a master's degree and later add a certificate option. When this does happen, these certificates are for areas of specialization (e.g., environmental, cross-cultural, international, or peace education). Of the master's degrees offered throughout the field, most are Master of Arts, followed by Master of Science, Master of Law or Master of Divinity degrees. The remaining master's programs (e.g., MBA) offer various concentrations and minor options.

The doctoral programs within the field have evolved in a much more predictable and structured manner. Only two programs in the United States offer a doctorate directly in the field. The oldest is the doctoral program in Conflict Analysis and Resolution at George Mason University. The other is the doctoral program in Conflict Analysis and Dispute Resolution at Nova Southeastern University. Two master's programs in the southeast United States plan to launch doctoral programs in CR over the next two years. (Worldwide, there are 14 programs that offer a doctorate directly in the field.) Of the 11 remaining doctoral programs found in the United States, eight are degrees in a variety of disciplines with a concentration in CR and one with a concentration in PS. The remaining two offer minors in the field (one CR and one PS).

For the most part, the development of CR graduate programs appears to be largely an internal graduate school evolutionary phenomenon. There seems to be less impact from external sources such as undergraduate programs, certificate programs, or the morphing of centers or institutes into degree-granting programs. Overall, the field is dominated by master's programs; this is highly predictable and expected. A master's degree acts as the first level of entrée into most fields of practice, while doctoral programs are reserved for specialized work, usually of a research nature. This heavy weight toward master's programs in the field mimics the structure of most social science and humanities disciplines across the nation. The wide range of offerings and requirements for certificate programs is too lengthy to describe in detail here.

Program Curriculum Content

From the previous studies, we found that for the purposes of data analysis, it made sense to divide the curriculum into five tracks: practice, theory, process, research, and substantive areas of specialization. Using the five tracks, an across-the-board examination shows which courses are taught and which are required. This provides the first real opportunity to examine which areas students are being trained.

Two-thirds of the programs (66%) offer field practice or supervised practicum course work, while two-fifths of the programs (39%) require a practicum. A total of 73 programs (78%) offer theory courses, and of those, 68% indicate that these are specific to their program. Sixty percent of programs indicate that theory courses are required. This means that roughly three-fifths of the programs have theory and practice built into their curriculum.

Eighty-five percent of programs offer processes courses (i.e., mediation, negotiation, arbitration, facilitation) and 70% require them. Half of the programs offer at least one research methods course. However, of those, (using cross tabulation) we note that 23% offer research courses taught by a different department that may not be specifically geared to the program and 56% of programs do not require research courses at all. See Table 2 for more details.

Specialization Courses

Specialization courses are offered in most programs (81%). Often there is a direct correlation between the program size (number of faculty and students) and age of the program to the number of specialized courses offered. About one quarter (24%) of the programs offer both required and elective specialized courses. Offering a variety of specialized courses is an indicator of multiple credentialing options. Indeed, one program in the Western United States offers multiple degrees and numerous areas of certification, and delivers more than a dozen specialized courses. Another program, this time on the East coast, offers a master's degree and more than 40 specialized one-credit skills courses annually. There are roughly six programs that have a large full-time and part-time faculty who offer between 30 and 52 distinct courses in CR annually. These programs do not represent the average faculty size or curriculum profile.

Participants' listing of specialized area courses offers an insight into the many areas of theory, research, and practice that are currently being taught within their program. When asked to list specialized courses, participants easily provide 365 responses that constitute 54 distinct areas of curricular specialization. Table 3 provides more detail.

In order to understand the vastness of the curriculum across the field, a quick examination of these specialization areas is necessary. The above topics can be broken down into three broad categories: practice and process areas of specialization, substance areas of specialization, and specialized areas of study.

The practice and process area of specialization is fairly straightforward. These courses primarily focus on training in various traditional and hybrid conflict intervention processes. Some programs teach strictly third-party process and human factor skills, making use of various training models and role-plays, while others blend theory and research to analyze processes, such as organizational conflict or dispute system design.

Table 2. Program Content.

Course Types	Offered		Program Specific[a]		Required		Electives	
	Yes (*n*, %)	No (*n*, %)	Yes (*n*, %)	No (*n*, %)	Yes (*n*, %)	No (*n*, %)	Yes (*n*, %)	No (*n*, %)
Field practice/practicum	62, 66.0	25, 26.6	50, 53.2	37 39.4	37, 39.4	50, 53.2	28, 29.8	59, 62.8
Internship	45, 47.9	41, 43.6	36, 38.3	51, 54.3	22, 23.4	65, 69.1	23, 24.5	64, 68.1
Theories	73, 77.7	13, 13.8	64, 68.1	22, 23.4	56, 59.6	30, 31.9	25, 26.6	61, 64.9
CR/ADR processes	80, 85.1	5, 5.3	70, 74.5	15, 16.0	66, 70.2	19, 20.2	29, 30.9	56, 59.6
Specialized content areas	76, 80.9	10, 10.6	65, 69.1	21, 22.3	36, 38.3	50, 53.2	57, 60.6	29, 30.9
Research methods	47, 50.0	39, 41.5	36, 38.3	50, 53.2	33, 35.1	53, 56.4	17, 18.1	69, 73.4

Note: There is overlap between courses that are offered as an elective or as a required course. This is due to the particular program offering multiple courses within that particular category (in the case of internships or practicum, the program in question allows students to receive additional credits as an elective after required course work is completed).

[a]By program specific, we are referring to those courses taught directly in the program. A research methods course, for example, that is offered to all humanities students would not be considered program specific, while a research methods course directly in PS or CR would.

Table 3.   Areas of Curricular Specialization.

Responses	Frequencies	Percentage
Negotiations (including collective bargaining)	20	5.5
International conflict	19	5.2
Cross/multicultural conflict issues	19	5.2
Environmental issues and conflict resolution (including ecology and sustainable development)	17	4.7
Mediation	16	4.4
Organizational conflict analysis and dispute systems design	15	4.1
Religion and conflict dynamics	15	4.1
Law and applications of conflict resolution	14	3.8
Workplace and/or organizational conflict dynamics	13	3.6
Peace Studies (including peace-building and nonviolence)	12	3.3
Restorative justice and/or trauma reconciliation	11	3.0
Family conflicts (including domestic violence)	10	2.7
War & conflict (including mass violence & genocide)	10	2.7
Gender and conflict studies	9	2.5
Ethnicity and conflict studies	8	2.2
Justice studies	8	2.2
Human rights and civil rights	8	2.2
Conflict analysis and intervention (including processes)	8	2.2
Communication and conflict theory	7	1.9
Arbitration	7	1.9
Conflict management	7	1.9
Business applications of conflict resolution	6	1.6
Race and conflict studies	6	1.6
Conflict Resolution processes in schools (peer mediation)	6	1.6
Facilitation	6	1.6
Public policy and administration (including urban planning)	6	1.6
Ethics (legal, business, religious)	6	1.6
Large-group conflict resolution theories & processes (including group dynamics)	6	1.6
Identity-based conflict	5	1.4
Trial advocacy (including appellate advocacy)	5	1.4
Violence & nonviolence studies (including social movements)	5	1.4
Decision-making and leadership	5	1.4
Conflict transformation	4	1.1
Economics	4	1.1
Education and conflict resolution	4	1.1
Social work and human services	4	1.1
Violence prevention	3	0.8
Counseling	3	0.8
Psychology	3	0.8
Interpersonal relations and conflict resolution	3	0.8
Political science and political conflict studies	3	0.8
Critical thinking	2	0.5
Community conflict	2	0.5
Middle-east conflict studies	2	0.5

Table 3. (*Continued*)

Responses	Frequencies	Percentage
Theories of conflict resolution	2	0.5
Class-based conflict studies (rank and privilege)	2	0.5
Parish leadership and youth ministry	2	0.5
Behavior science (including behavior modification)	2	0.5
Criminology	1	0.3
Human resources systems	1	0.3
Healthcare	1	0.3
Faith -based conflict resolution education	1	0.3
Western cosmology	1	0.3
Skills training	1	0.3
Total	365	100.0

Substance areas of specialization refer to specific social, political, legal, or other topics of inquiry. This category includes such topics as social movements, peace and justice, philosophy, international conflict, peace education, legal, violence and violence prevention, service provision, and religion and spirituality. In terms of curriculum development trends, it is highly likely that this category will show the most growth in the years to come as faculty and students explore more areas of specialized theory development and practical applications.

The final category mentioned is specialized areas of study, specifically those curricular areas that programs report as being directly tied to their specializations. In many cases, these courses are the primary self-reported source of what makes the programs unique within the field and correspond to faculty expertise and research. Such areas include gender, ethnicity, class or racial conflict studies, theory development, or conflict in specific regions, such as the Middle East.

Fieldwide Comparison of Credit Requirements

Certificates

Many certificate programs are attached to either a master's or a law degree program. Therefore, some of the required courses in these programs can count toward both the certificate and degree completion. Overall, there is a wide variation in credit requirements for these certificate programs. Most require between 9 and 15 semester hour credits. A completely different strategy for programs is to offer a variety of stand-alone certificate

programs without offering a degree option. These programs tend to require between 15 and 21 semester credits and may, for example, require students take a prescribed number of courses from an approved list. Courses range from general conflict courses to areas of substantive specialization within the degree program such as international, cross-cultural, PS, environmental, social movements or education.

Master's Degrees

There is a huge range of credit requirements across master's degree programs. On the lower end of the scale, master's programs with ''minors'' or concentrations in the field require require between 9 and 18 semester credits. semester credits. Note that this is for the minor or concentration, not the overall degree. On the other end of the spectrum are divinity and seminary programs that traditionally require up to 63 semester credit hours.

If all programs are weighted evenly on a semester credit system (rather than quarter or trimester credits), the average program requires 36 credits. The range of credits is 9 to 63 semester credit hours, with the outliers mentioned above.

Doctorates

Credit requirements for four of the 13 doctoral programs are unavailable.[10] The two doctoral programs in directly CR require 57 and 82 credits. The program with the fewer credit requirements also, remarkably, provides the most curricular flexibility, allowing students to take courses in a variety of departments. The other program is more structured and allows far fewer opportunities to take courses in other departments or schools. One of the doctoral programs that offers a minor requires 15 semester credits. The remaining doctoral programs are those with a concentration in CR, and these have a wide variation in credit requirements. Some of the concentrations require a substantial percentage of the coursework in CR, and it is a highly emphasized part of the program.

Examining credit requirements is one means of making direct comparison between programs. It provides some sense of the number of courses (though not content) necessary for each program. With some programs requiring only a few core courses and others more than 20, it is reasonable to think there might be differences in regard to expertise and preparedness in graduates.

Fieldwide Comparison of Program Faculty

The strength of a program is related to the quality of and, to a lesser degree, the number of faculty. Inquiries were made about the number of full-time, part-time, and adjunct faculty[11] and how many faculty members possess terminal degrees. This measures one aspect of program strength, and the level of commitment by the host institution and/or student demand.

The number of program faculty is often a function of program growth and corresponding institutional support. However, some programs are heavily reliant on part-time faculty, who are either borrowed from other programs or are hired adjuncts. Few programs have more than ten full-time faculty. In fact, 90% of the programs have nine or fewer full-time faculty and 80% of programs have nine or fewer part-time faculty members. Excluding those programs not reporting on faculty numbers ($n = 14$), programs have a mean of just over four full-time faculty members and close to five part-time faculty members. Sixty-nine percent of the programs operate between a range of one and ten total faculty members. Any programs that have ten or more full-time faculty members are considered outliers. In order to better understand the relationship between full-time and part-time faculty member composition, each "dot" in Fig. 5 represents the count of part-time and full-time faculty for each program reporting. Note,
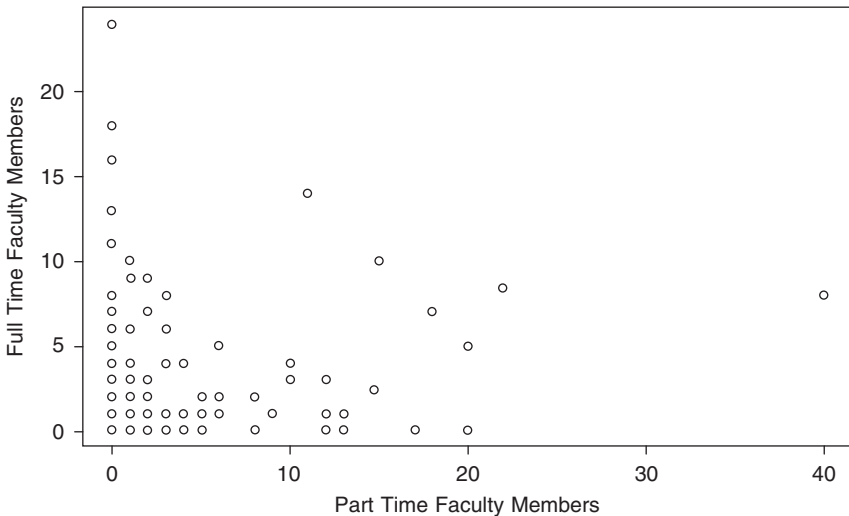

Fig. 5. Scatter Plot of Part-Time to Full-Time Program Faculty.

however, that some programs have the same configuration of faculty (e.g., three part-time and two full-time faculty members), so each dot may represent more than one program.

Fig. 5 shows the results of a comparison between full-time (vertical) to part-time (horizontal) faculty for each program.[12] Recall that 14 did not report on their faculty composition; additionally, at least 14 programs have no part-time faculty and at least 11 programs have no full-time faculty. Most programs cluster within the bottom-left portion of the chart, with fewer than 20 faculty members (ten part-time and ten full-time faculty members). A few programs are worth pointing out. On the far left side of the chart, notice that five "elite" programs have no part-time faculty (zero on the horizontal axis), but anywhere from 13 to 24 full-time faculty. These are typically law school programs or long-established master's or doctoral programs. Likewise, in the middle of the chart and to the far right of the chart, there are programs that have anywhere from 5 to 15 full-time faculty, along with 13 to 40 part-time faculty. Upon further investigation of programs with a large part-time faculty, it appears that they usually operate summer institutes, winter terms, and weekend courses (in an "institute" format) that are largely taught by part-time and/or adjunct or visiting faculty. This means that student demand and delivery method impact the size of the faculty.

The study also examines the credentials of the faculty, as that too is a measure of program strength. Not shown here is the breakdown between program types and terminal degrees. PS programs have the smallest number of faculty and ADR programs have the largest number. Likewise, nearly 100% of ADR programs report that their faculty possess a terminal degree (JD or higher), while in CR and PS programs, the range varies widely from 0% to 100% of faculty possessing terminal degrees. Across the board, 82% of programs report that all of their full-time faculty members possess terminal degrees, while 58% of programs report that all their part-time faculty members possess terminal degrees.

Program Resources

Another area of inquiry relating to program development and growth examines resource allocation and external funding. Programs reported on their use of grants for research, service provision, or other projects. They also reported on whether or not they are seeking long-term endowments, since some programs exist solely on those funds; in fact, three programs
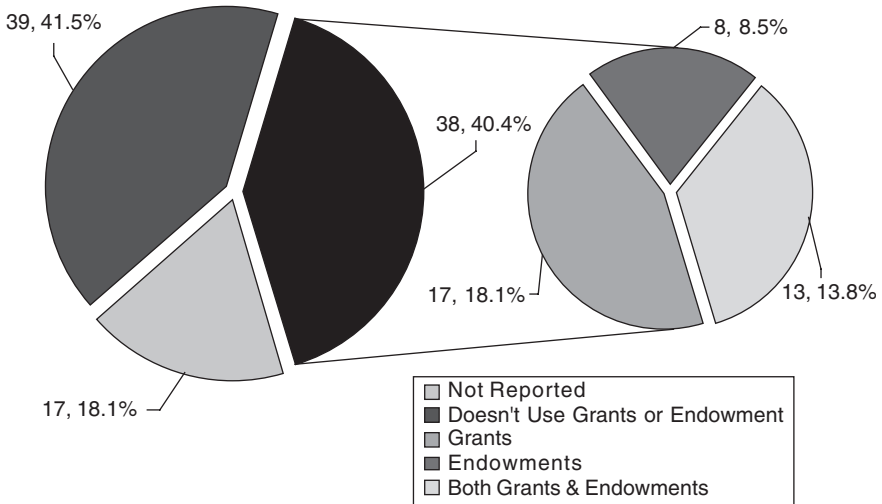
Fig. 6. Programs Reporting Grants and Endowments Activity.

have endowments of more than $50 million. Examining a program's grant activity is not only an indication of research and scholarship activity, but is also a sign of the addition of value to the program. It also is an indirect indicator of increased resources. Likewise, evidence of endowment activity is one indication of program stability, at least in economic terms. Programs that seek grants and endowments may be more strategically situated to weather major shifts in the field. Yet, Fig. 6 indicates that more than two-fifths of the programs undertake none of these activities. Eighteen percent of programs seek grant activities while 14% have or are working on an endowment campaign. The remaining 9% seek both grant and endowment opportunities. Not shown in Fig. 6 is the difference between programs in public versus private institutions that seek either grants or endowments. Programs in private colleges or universities are more likely to seek grants and endowments than those in public institutions.

WHAT DOES THE FUTURE HOLD?

The following discussion comes from a variety of sources. First, participants – mostly programs' directors or key faculty members – were asked: "In an ideal scenario, where you have unlimited resources to work

with, what would you do to build the ideal graduate program?'' Second, students were asked: ''What do you seek in a CR graduate program?'' And third, additional information was obtained from the senior leaders of the field, who were interviewed after the first analytical run of the data.

Faculty members indicate that in order for a program to thrive it needs increased scholarships and resources for students (10%), more faculty dedicated to the direct support of the program (9%), funding for more hands-on experiences (7%), and more specialized courses or tracks (5%). They also express a desire for visiting faculty, endowed chairs to bring in notable professors to help anchor their programs, a lecture series to draw public attention and more professional development opportunities for faculty and students.

For the most part, students want superior faculty, in particular those with firm credentials directly in the field rather than those migrating from other disciplines. They also want faculty who actually practice conflict intervention, or that train or otherwise engage in activities that are taught in the courses. To a lesser extent, but still prominent on the list, are faculty who generate new knowledge, whether in the form of new practice or process innovations, theoretical development, or basic and applied research endeavors. In other words, students are demanding competent teachers who practice and produce scholarship to be their mentors and guides.

The senior faculty, quite a few of whom have been professional leaders in the field for more than 50 years, uniformly look at the big picture in terms of how to connect all the various current trends into a coherent whole.

PROJECTING INTO THE FUTURE

The above analysis covers only a few notable highlights of the data collected. The future trends for the field, outlined below, are based on the analysis of all the empirical data gathered, taken together with information from the three groups mentioned above and within the context of the field's historical development.

From that, we can project some trends that will impact the direction of our current wave four of the field. These partially include:

1. There will be more meshing of specific professional occupations (i.e., law, business, counseling, and even accounting) and public administration with CR/ADR to produce greater specialization expertise. Expect to see more dual-degree programs.

2. Programs will begin to adjust their development plans, in part, based on employer and social demands. Currently, this is not happening fast enough.

3. The 94 programs in this study are spread out in more than 20 different departments and schools. (Note: Some clusters of CR programs are found more frequently in Sociology and Social Psychology than in, for example, History departments.) This wide-ranging growth will continue, but may eventually be impacted in terms of where growth will occur by the influence of megaprograms, i.e., heavily endowed programs with large faculties that draw students from around the world or have broad curricular offerings.

4. In order to meet student demand and employer needs, expect more programs to form consortiums to offer extracurricular opportunities for such things as specialized field work, practice courses, training programs (certificate sharing), and overseas experiences that increase student marketability.

5. Following national trends, expect to see more programs offering a variety of flexible curriculum delivery formats. (The current breakdown includes 18.9% online courses, 24.2% distance learning, and 35.8% weekend formats.) While there is ongoing debate about online instruction in a practice-oriented field, some programs will not have the resources to resist and will even make this a hallmark of their program. Programs with more resources will be in a position to either resist or adapt to some parts of this trend.

6. We can learn from past mistakes. There are three common reasons why programs fail. First, curriculum planning is based on what the faculty want or can teach, rather than students' desire or what various sectors of the job market demand. Second, too narrow a specialization may create students who are experts in one aspect of the field, but are otherwise unmarketable. And third, there is lack of institutional commitment, competent faculty, or internal program leadership. Also, universities should avoid the temptation to build a program around one faculty member. Programs that strike a balance in program focus, perhaps theory to practice, and that build institutional support will do well.

7. Expect process-heavy programs to emphasize courses that focus on marketable skills including training, workshop development, and other consultative skills.

8. Rather than ''reinventing the wheel,'' programs are beginning to adopt courses from other established programs and modifying them to meet

their own program focus. This is indicative of an emerging core curricular canon across the field.

9. There will be more growth in specialization certificates as a value-added component to existing degree programs.
10. In the law school arena, we can expect to see more growth in certificate programs but less in degree-granting programs.
11. More graduate programs will continue the trend of beginning to branch into undergraduate instruction by offering certificate programs or minors; however, fewer will develop undergraduate majors.

CONCLUSION

This article shows some of the many across-the-field comparisons that can be made between the 94 programs that constitute our field. This study is the first to thoroughly account for the composition of the field in these areas, and provides both a grounding and the means to further track the evolution of the field. The study describes a field in the process of formation with few across-the-board stated guidelines on such things as curriculum content and focus, practice competencies, an established canon or coherent framework for theory development, or overarching research agendas. The study also indicates that there are clustered sets of standard requirements for faculty credentials (especially in law and doctoral programs) but, in other parts, the standards are not based on any particular set criteria other than that of the host institution.

Additionally, it shows that the field is growing in a flexible manner, which strengthens the scope and utility of the field from theoretical, research, and especially practical ends. The findings also indicate that the field is composed of programs that provide an exceptionally rich variation in course content, program specializations, areas of practice, and, to lesser extent, variation in degree requirements. As the field continues to develop, we will experience further growing pains (tension) between old and new programs as developments in theory, practice, and new orientations challenge older, established program agendas. This can be based to some degree on generational differences, ideological shifts, political preferences, and substantive similarities creating new "forces" within the field, along with a sense of growing urgency to try and establish some sense of common goals. This should be the basis of the fifth wave. In other words, we are exactly where we should be.

NOTES

1. Stephenson's wave analogy was developed and published in 1989 as a basis to examine the development of PS programs, and is broken up into distinct waves based on identifiable social influences. CR and ADR programs, though coming to the group much later than PS, were impacted by the same social forces and can fit within Stephenson's wave analogy. Additionally, these waves correspond to Lopez's (1989) eras of development.

2. PS was obviously researched and practiced prior to the 1950s, most notably by Wright and Richardson. This date refers to the advent of PS as a recognized field of study within higher education.

3. Although the field has certainly grown, based on prior research there seems to be little verifiable agreement on exactly what parts have grown and by how much. Many reports mention a rough number of programs that exist (anywhere between 50 and 500) without providing either a research protocol or other direct evidence to back up the assertion. Some rely on the opinion of experts in the field, while others rely on preexisting program lists such as COPRED. Many articles that touch on this subject also fail to mention the exact parameters used to decide which programs are included in the program count. Is it the number of colleges or universities that periodically teach a course or two in peace and conflict? Is it an actual program on the campus regardless of whether or not it teaches any courses at all? Does the program provide a minor, a major, or graduate credentials in PS? Without answers to these questions, we can't begin to examine the inner workings of individual programs, much less be able much less be able to make across-the-board comparisons.

4. This study predominantly focuses on undergraduate programs.

5. In many instances, it was left to a staff member to assist us by gathering more detailed data. Because of this, we were able to collect more data from some programs such as annual reports; curriculum projects; lists of key course materials including books, course exercises, and syllabi; brochures and other promotional materials; and, remarkably, four book manuscripts (all of which have been published).

6. Only highlighted results will be presented in this article. The full data analysis is too detailed to be included here but will be available in a forthcoming book.

7. This group is composed of senior program directors and leading theoreticians, researchers, and practitioners in PS, CR, and ADR programs.

8. Table 1 provides the self-reported answers to the question: "Where is your program housed?" Many smaller universities clump all graduate programs into a "Graduate School" rather than having separate schools or colleges for each discipline. Almost a quarter of the programs reside in the "School of Arts and Humanities," as expected, but programs are also housed in other locations such as the "School of Management" or the "Public Resources Department," a growing and interesting trend.

9. Statistics indicate that there are more private universities than public in the United States.

10. These four doctoral programs have no set credit requirements for entering students. Instead, a personal program is built with faculty advisors and/or the

dissertation committee. Therefore, a comparison of their requirements to those programs with set requirements is inapplicable.

11. Part-time faculty members are those who teach more than one course and/or have additional responsibilities in the program, including faculty from other departments; adjunct faculty typically teach one course and have no extra responsibilities in the program.

12. As noted, a few programs reported no full-time or part-time faculty. Each course was taught by faculty members who work full time in another department.

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