

The Conflict Mapping Chart

By

L. Shay Bright

To design an effective intervention into a conflict, one must be able to identify and analyze all facets of the conflict and accurately diagnose the cause or causes. Oftentimes, however, conflict situations are so convoluted that crucial aspects are overlooked or linkages between dynamics are not evident. Interveners, or third parties, must essentially decipher a conflict if they are to determine the causes and attempt a resolution. Assessment guides are useful in navigating conflicts and helpful in outlining all the various facets. Using a guide, interveners can map conflicts and conduct in-depth analyses. This facilitates the process of designing appropriate interventions.

I have found the Wehr Conflict Mapping Guide (Wilmot and Hocker 177-79) to be one of the most useful tools of assessment. Using it throughout my stay as a master's student at the Institute for Conflict Analysis and Resolution (ICAR), the Wehr Conflict Map enabled me to break down complex conflicts into their component parts and conduct analyses that led to informed interventions. Another useful guide is *A Comprehensive Mapping of Conflict and Conflict Resolution: A Three Pillar Approach* (Sandole). After using the Wehr Conflict Map for two years while at ICAR and having been recently introduced to the Three Pillar Approach, I have found that a combination of these two guides provides an extensive tool for analyzing conflict and designing interventions.

This paper outlines the way in which I have combined the two guides. This framework which I have designed is useful at both the macro- and micro-level of conflict analysis. At the macro-level, the

framework has served as a vehicle for organizing a majority of the knowledge I have gained at ICAR and hence information from the field of conflict analysis and resolution. At the micro-level, the framework is capable of being applied to conflict at any level, such as individual, societal, and international. In addition, the framework can be applied to a conflict at any stage of development, whether it be latent, gaining momentum, or at the crisis stage. Moreover, the framework facilitates analysis which informs all types of intervention ranging from conflict prevention to conflict settlement to conflict transformation.

The foundation of my framework is the Wehr Conflict Map, although I have rearranged it and added to it as some points. The Three Pillar Approach is inherent in my framework as I have essentially incorporated it into my modified version of the Wehr Conflict Map. My framework, hereafter referred to as the Conflict Chart, consists of six main components. They are 1) Conflict Parties, 2) Conflict History, 3) Conflict Context, 4) Party Orientation, 5) Conflict Dynamics, and 6) Conflict Intervention. This paper provides a detailed outline of the Conflict Chart. Each component and its sub-categories are listed in bold print and followed by a description. The complete outline of the Conflict Chart can be viewed in Appendix A.

CONFLICT CHART

The chart is arranged in such a way that an intervener applies the first five components to a conflict so as to develop his/her analysis. All information gathered in these components informs the choice of

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

If two parties have a long history together, their relationship may have moved back and forth on this continuum. Two parties could have been at crisis stage numerous times in their past, or they could have never reached crisis stage and instead fluctuated between conflict and tension for years. Knowledge of the exact pattern of interaction that two parties have had on the continuum is essential in understanding their modern relationship.

The relationship between parties is oftentimes shaped by events that have occurred in their past and hence at some point along the continuum. If two parties have reached conflict or crisis stage at some point in their past, then those should be mapped just as a current conflict is mapped. For instance, the first five components of this Conflict Chart should be applied to the past conflict so as to accurately understand that conflict and how possible unresolved issues might be influencing the current conflict. Moreover, fluctuation and/or transfer of resources and power between two parties in the past may impact their current relationship if one party feels it deserves retribution.

If two parties have previously experienced conflict or crisis, psychological effects may linger from that conflict. This may cause one or both of the parties to behave in a certain manner in the present conflict. An event that has caused a party to feel helpless and victimized is referred to as a chosen trauma (Volkan 11). This event, such as genocide, becomes embedded in a party's identity and severely limits interaction between that party and the other who carried out the genocide. The memory of chosen traumas are usually passed on from generation to generation. These events play such central roles in a party's identity that the strong feelings of hurt and shame and the dislike for the other party are capable of transmission to following generations. For most groups that possess

chosen traumas, time essentially stands still as they speak about the chosen traumas as if they happened yesterday. These chosen traumas typically persist because the event has not been mourned adaptively (Volkan 11). An intervenor in this situation must recognize the importance of the event and allow for it to be recognized and addressed appropriately in any intervention.

III. Conflict Context

A. Level of Conflict

- 1. Individual**
- 2. Societal**
- 3. International**
- 4. Global/Ecological**

B. Multiple Levels

C. Cultural Aspects

- 1. Communication Style**
- 2. Orientation to Time**

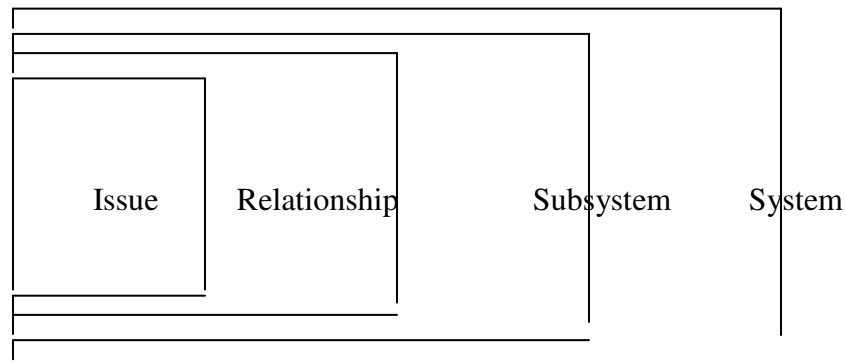
D. Behavioral Determinants

- 1. Relative Deprivation**
- 2. Rational Choice**
- 3. Frustration-Aggression**

The four main levels of conflict are individual, societal, international, and global/ecological (Sandole 12). The individual level consists of both intra-personal and inter-personal conflict. The societal level includes organizations, which denotes families, small groups, institutions, and businesses. The societal level also includes communities, ethnic groups, and cultural groups. The international level includes conflicts on a national scale that provoke involvement of external national actors. These conflicts are of a political, economic, or social nature (Sandole 12). The global/ecological level focuses on conflicts that affect the earth's environment (CONF 642, class notes, 3 March 2000).

Every conflict is located in one or more of these levels. Maire Dugan's nested paradigm model provides a way in which to view conflicts that are located in multiple levels (Lederach 56)

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright



Using Dugan's model, a specific interpersonal conflict between two high school students would be the issue. The interaction between the students and any repeating patterns in their behavior constitutes the relationship realm. The subsystem consists of the school and the department of education and the extent to which those institutions influence or limit behavior. The system level consists of political, cultural, and social influences or limitations placed on the students. By placing an interpersonal conflict in Dugan's model, the conflict has been located in both the individual and societal levels. This is demonstrative of many conflicts, and hence, every conflict should be tested at multiple levels.

Dugan's model is also reflective of structural violence. This concept refers to instances of deprivation based on someone belonging to a particular ethnic, religious, or class group (Sandole 6). As an example, an ethnic war that appears to be based on only ethnic rivalry may in fact be caused by political policies that favor one ethnic group over the other. This ethnic conflict, then, has a root cause that results from structural violence. Moreover, this ethnic conflict could be placed in all four levels of Dugan's model. Therefore when analyzing a conflict using Dugan's model, if the conflict can be

placed at the system level, it should be assessed for the possible occurrence of structural violence.

When determining a conflict's level, other context aspects should be identified within each level. This includes aspects such as geographical setting and boundaries, political and economic structures, communication patterns, and decision-making entities (Wilmot and Hocker 177).

In the modern complex conflicts of this post Cold-War era, determining political and economic structures is a crucial link in defining a conflict's context. Oftentimes political and economic structures are inextricably linked, and one can be understood only if the other is included in the analysis (Berdal and Keen 798-99). Extra-legal war economies, which operate parallel to legitimate economies, are created and sustained in order to fund political agendas. Those involved in the war economy are gaining power and resources and hence have a vested interest in prolonging the conflict. In this instance, then, neither a purely political nor an economic solution will end the conflict. Instead, an analysis of how these two systems interact and affect the conflict parties should be conducted, and an appropriate dual political-economic intervention should be considered.

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

Culture is another important aspect of a conflict's context as it influences party behavior. Culture dictates attitudes and behavior and influences the meaning people place on events and actions. Cultures vary according to identity groups, such as ethnicity, gender, socio-economic class, and workplace. The interaction between two parties of different cultures can result in miscommunication and prolong a conflict. Six aspects of culture, in particular, have a profound effect on party interaction. The aspects are 1) attitudes toward conflict, 2) communication style, 3) comfort with disclosure, 4) problem-solving approach, 5) decision-making style, 6) approach to completing tasks, and 7) expectations regarding outcomes (ICAR). Every culture approaches these six aspects differently and that in turn affects the dynamics of the conflict.

The aforementioned aspect of communication style can be better understood by differentiating between high-context and low-context cultures. High-context communication style is relatively implicit while low-context is explicit (Avruch 64). In high-context cultures, discrepancies often exist between what is said and what is actually meant, and therefore, attention must be paid to nuances and body language (Wilmot and Hocker 23). Low-context cultures are direct and assertive and what is said can be taken at face value.

Another aspect of culture to consider is the parties' orientation to time and their perception of history. Cultures can be future- or past-oriented, and their orientation affects their priorities, goals, and values (Cohen 54). If two parties in conflict each have a different time orientation, this may affect mutual understanding and their interactions. If one party is preoccupied with the past, the other party that is future-oriented may become frustrated and angry and not be able to comprehend why value is

placed on historic events. For instance, if one party is past-oriented and possesses a chosen trauma, communication with a future-oriented party will be inhibited.

The theory of relative deprivation also deserves attention when considering a conflict's context as it helps to explain, and in some cases, predict party behavior. The theory of relative deprivation states that people take action, often in the form of violence, when their achievements and capabilities fail to meet their aspirations (Huntington 1-2). This can occur in four ways: 1) aspirations increase and capabilities such as power and resources remain stable; 2) aspirations and capabilities increase, but capabilities do so at a slower rate than aspirations; 3) aspirations remain constant and capabilities decrease; and 4) aspirations and capabilities increase, but capabilities then decline (Huntington 1-2). Conflict is likely to occur in societies where capabilities are unevenly distributed among social groups. In these situations, some people's aspirations are heightened because they witness the increasing capabilities of others, and then become dissatisfied when their capabilities do not increase as well. When analyzing a conflict it is imperative to consider the issue of relative deprivation by assessing the distribution of capabilities and how parties are reacting.

In slight contrast to relative deprivation is the theory of rational choice (Houweling 155-56). This theory has been used to explain the mobilization of individuals in collective violence. Results that are achievable through collective violence can be labeled either non-excludable or excludable. Non-excludable results benefit all group members regardless of whether they participated in the action that achieved those results. Excludable results, such as power and privilege, are those that come only from personal involvement in violent conflict. People who

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

desire the results that are excludable must make a rational choice when participating in collective violence. Therefore, instead of becoming dissatisfied and participating in conflict only when their aspirations are not met, people act before a large discrepancy appears between their aspirations and capabilities. These people choose to initiate conflict in order to obtain results that they know will only be achievable through confrontation.

A more generalized theory but one similar to relative deprivation and rational choice is frustration-aggression (Dougherty and Pfaltzgraff 266-67). This theory states that aggression is a consequence of frustration. Interference by another party with the occurrence of a goal creates frustration. The interference takes the shape of a barrier, and the larger the barrier, the more energy that is required to overcome it. Extreme use of energy tends to provoke aggression in the form of destructive behavior. In protracted communal conflicts, large amounts of energy are expended and aggression reaches dangerous levels. At this point, individuals or collective groups experience an immense desire to attack the barrier, which causes conflicts to escalate.

The three theories of relative deprivation, rational choice, and frustration aggression are useful when analyzing both conflict context and conflict dynamics. However, they are best applied in Conflict Context since the party behavior in the

theories is dictated by the context of the conflict.

IV. Party Orientation

A. Determining Issues and Objectives

1. Circle of Conflict
2. Basic Human Needs
3. Three-Tiered Paradigm
4. Situation-Attitude-Behavior
5. Diametric Formats
6. Decoding Communication
7. Determining Levels

Conflict Orientation consists of identifying the issues and objectives of the conflict

parties and placing the issues within the context of the conflict. Numerous models and theories

exist for identifying party issues, and all of them provide a slightly different perspective on the parties and their motivations.

Issues are best identified by their “primary generating factor” (Wilmot and Hocker 178). According to Moore’s Circle of Conflict, these causative factors are: structural, data, relationship, value-related, and interest-based (Moore 60). The model while pointing out the various causative factors also names the types of conflict. Below is a modified version of the Circle of Conflict.

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

Type of Conflict	Causative Factors
Structure Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Destructive patterns of behavior or interaction ▪ Unequal control, ownership, or distribution of resources ▪ Unequal power and authority ▪ Geographical, physical, or environmental factors that hinder cooperation ▪ Time constraints
Value Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Different criteria for evaluating ideas or behavior ▪ Exclusive intrinsically valuable goals ▪ Different ways of life, ideology, or religion
Relationship Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Strong emotions ▪ Misperceptions or stereotypes ▪ Poor communication or miscommunication ▪ Repetitive negative behavior
Data Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of information ▪ Misinformation ▪ Different views on what is relevant ▪ Different interpretations of data ▪ Different assessment procedures
Interest Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Perceived or actual competition over substantive (content) interests ▪ Procedural interests ▪ Psychological interests

This model simplifies a conflict by deconstructing it. The causative factors can be differentiated and by doing so, the primary generating factor as well as other contributing factors can be identified. According to this model, some conflicts are more difficult to resolve than others. Value and structure conflicts are more difficult to resolve as it is in these realms that negotiation and compromise is limited. Structure conflicts have infrastructure limitations that are difficult to manipulate, and value conflicts are difficult as people are less likely to compromise their beliefs and ideologies. The other types of conflict, data, relationship, and interest, are easier to resolve as more leeway exists for negotiation, collaboration, and compromise.

Another way to identify the issues of conflict parties is through the application of

basic human needs theory. Although this theory is mainly used to explain deep-rooted, intractable conflict, it does provide a general model for understanding violent behavior during conflict. This theory is founded on the principle that people cannot live and prosper unless their basic needs are met, or in other words, unless their main issues are resolved. Social conflict results when existing systems fail to satisfy basic needs such as identity, security, and recognition (ICAR No. 2, 63-64). These needs typically are not bargainable, nor irrepressible, and demand satisfaction. Basic human needs are considered universal in their nature in that every collective group or culture demands their satisfaction. The satisfiers of the need are determined by the particular group or culture, and only once

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

the needs are satisfied will violent behavior cease to occur (ICAR No.2, 63).

Identity is the need which is most often associated with violent conflict. Groups seeking to satisfy that need are concerned with defending or creating group identity. In order to establish or maintain their identity, groups are willing to suffer violence and misery, as well as sacrifice their own lives. Needs are, then, tied to emotion and, therefore, typically not bargainable using reason. Each group has its situational perspective as to how their need will be met and nothing short of that will satisfy the need (ICAR No. 2, 67).

The three-tiered paradigm provides three ways to categorize the issues of conflict parties. The three tiers are labeled cognitive, evaluative, and affective, and each provides a way in which to view the party issues.

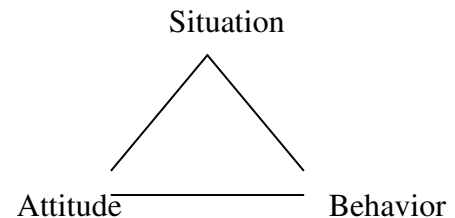
Cognitive	Beliefs
Evaluative	Values
Affective	Emotions

(Conf 642, class notes, 2 February 2000)

The cognitive level reflects the beliefs that the parties hold and hence what they believe to be true and not true. The evaluative level focuses on the party values and their opinions regarding the issues. The affective level focuses on the emotions of conflict parties. Issues are typically categorized at this level when highly valued beliefs or a group's sense of identity are under attack by another party (Conf 642, class notes, 2 February 2000). These levels actually exist as a continuum as parties may move from one level to another throughout time. For instance, a party that has a chosen trauma may only be able to deal with the issue of the trauma at the affective level. However, if an intervention involves a process, such as a collaborative problem solving workshop, that allows the party with the chosen trauma

and the opposing party to constructively address the trauma, the affected party may eventually be able to move on to another less emotional level. The party may move to the evaluative level where they still value the chosen trauma as an important part of their history but the trauma would no longer evoke as strong of an emotional response.

The situation-attitude-behavior model provides yet another way to frame party issues. Attitude, which is predominately shaped by culture, affects behavior, and that in turn affects a situation (Conf 501, class notes, 8 September 1998).



In a conflict situation, issues arise between parties, and their behaviors are the means for settling those issues and achieving their goals. This model serves as a reminder that party issues and behaviors are ultimately determined by party attitudes. This then allows issues to be reframed in various contexts of culture, such as ethnicity, gender, or socio-economic class, and contributes to an appropriate analysis of the conflict situation.

Oftentimes, party objectives can be classified as diametric opposites. Two simple formats exist for this classification. The first format is simply win-win or win-lose. Parties that seek to gain at the expense of others are engaged in a win-lose conflict; whereas parties that are seeking collaboration are pursuing a win-win outcome. The second format consists of status-quo maintaining and status-quo changing (Sandole 9). A party whose objective is to wrest political control from another party is engaged in status-quo

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

changing. The party that wishes to uphold political control is demonstrating status-quo maintaining.

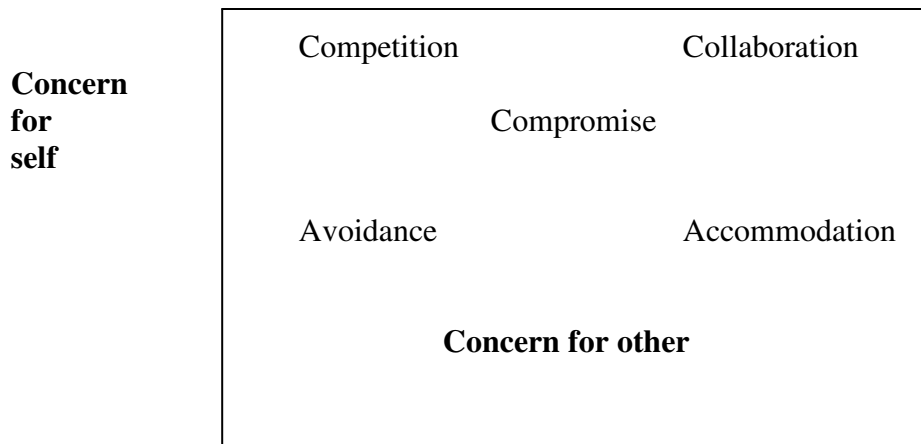
Determining party issues and objectives oftentimes requires “reading between the lines.” When parties voice their issues and goals, they may not necessarily be completely forthright. When this occurs, the parties are encoding their words with implicit messages. In order to determine these messages and understand exactly what the parties are implying, an intervenor must essentially decode the parties’ messages (Conf 690, APT notes, 7 April 2000). In order to accurately decode these messages, an intervenor must have an in-depth understanding of the conflict’s context as well as extensive knowledge of the parties. Only an intervenor that is intensely familiar with a conflict and its parties is able to accurately decode these messages and reframe them as issues and goals.

As parties’ issues are identified, additional information can be gathered by locating the issues in one or more of the conflict levels. As mentioned in the section Conflict Context, the four levels are individual, societal, international, and global/ecological. This process of level identification assists in determining the complexity of the issue, and hence informing the intervention design.

- V. **Conflict Dynamics**
 - A. **Behavior Styles**
 - 1. **Conflict Styles**
 - 2. **Worldview Approach**
 - B. **Conflict Events**
 - 1. **Precipitating Events**
 - 2. **Issue Transformation**
 - 3. **Polarization**
 - C. **Action-Reaction Processes**
 - 1. **Aggressor-Defender**
 - 2. **Conflict Spiral**
 - 3. **Self-Fulfilling Prophecy**

Conflict dynamics consist of the actions and reactions of parties, as well as the events that these actions provoke or dissuade. These dynamics, if recognized or predicted by an intervenor, can highlight ways around a conflict or strategies to resolve a conflict (Wilmot and Hocker 178).

The main determinant of party actions is conflict styles. These styles emphasize how parties behave in response to conflict. Five conflict styles exist, and each one can be graphed according to two dimensions—concern for the self and concern for the other (Wilmot and Hocker 111).



Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

The two styles of avoidance and competition are opposite conflict styles. Avoidance is characterized by denial and hiding from the conflict, while competition is characterized by the use of power or violence to change the status quo or achieve a win-lose situation. The other three styles are less severe and emphasize a willingness to work with the other conflict party to achieve a solution. The style of collaboration is placed at the top right corner of the graph as it is highly but equally concerned about the concern for the other as well as the concern for the self. If this type of conflict style is practiced by the involved parties, the conflict is most likely to be resolved as a win-win situation. Neither party would have received everything they wanted, but they both would have achieved a satisfactory portion of their goals.

Behavior of parties can also be classified using the two worldview approaches of Realpolitik and Idealpolitik (Sandole 11). Parties that possess a Realpolitik worldview typically demonstrate a competitive approach to conflict. In addition, they basically have a negative outlook on human nature and are quite pessimistic when it comes to envisioning possibilities for collaboration (Sandole 11). Parties that possess an Idealpolitik worldview are generally optimistic when considering human nature and readily participate in collaborative processes (Sandole 11).

Inherent in the aforementioned behavioral styles is the means by which parties achieve their objectives. Some basic examples of means are using violence, which is indicative of a competitive conflict style and a Realpolitik worldview, or practicing nonviolence, which is indicative of the other four conflict styles and an Idealpolitik worldview. Other examples of means are destroy (competition, Realpolitik), outwit (competition, avoidance,

Realpolitik), and persuade (competition, compromise, collaboration) (Sandole 10).

The ways in which parties respond to conflict and the means by which they attempt to achieve their goals direct the events that occur throughout a conflict. The action of one party determines the responding action of the other party, and it is this action-reaction model that shapes conflict dynamics. When analyzing a conflict, attention paid to these dynamics provides insight for determining an appropriate type of intervention as well as the timing of the intervention.

Precipitating events are those that indicate a change in a conflict's status and hence predict an action by one or more of the parties. For instance, a latent conflict may escalate to a manifest conflict process (MCP), in which parties to a conflict outwardly pursue mutually incompatible goals (Sandole 1). Precipitating events also mark the transition from a MCP to an aggressive manifest conflict process (AMCP). This change in conflict status is marked by the occurrence of physical or psychological damage to either people or property (Sandole 1). Precipitating events can be identified in two ways. First, if the parties in conflict have a history of conflict together, then precipitating events from their past can highlight which modern events will most likely be contentious. The second way to identify precipitating events is by comparing a conflict to other similar conflicts.

As a conflict progresses, parties' issues may change (Wilmot and Hocker 178). The interaction between parties may cause new issues to emerge or single issues to spawn multiple issues. Issues may also undergo transformation as parties negotiate and re-evaluate their goals. This transforming of issues may cause polarization among primary and secondary parties. When this occurs, parties are

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

seeking consistency and strength in numbers. Coalitions are formed with allies and positions against the opposition are hardened. Bipolarization results, and this can act as a catalyst for either resolution or increased animosity between parties (Wilmot and Hocker 148, 178).

The process theories of aggressor-defender and conflict spiral emphasize the model of action-reaction and demonstrate how the dynamics of interaction lead to escalation (Rubin et al., 73). The aggressor-defender model distinguishes between one party and the other by labeling one party as the aggressor and the Other as the defender (Rubin et al., 73-74). In this model, the aggressor is the instigator of the conflict and is taking action against the Other, who reacts but only in defense. Even though the defender is not responding with a stronger reaction, the aggressor is still hindered from achieving its goal. The response, then, from the defender causes the aggressor to use heavier tactics, which provokes another defense action by the Other. This action-reaction continues and contributes to the conflict's escalation.

In contrast to the aggressor-defender model is the conflict spiral (Rubin et al., 74-75). In this model, escalation results due to contentious actions taken by both parties. Instead of responding only in defense, the Other, in this instance, responds with an action that is heavier than the party's initial action. This provokes a stronger reaction from the party, which in turn provokes another strong reaction from the Other. As increasingly stronger tactics are used, the cycle continues, and the conflict is perpetuated as it escalates (Rubin et al., 74).

Escalation through action-reaction can also occur through stereotyping and mirror imaging. Parties project images onto others, and this creates a stereotype of the other. Oftentimes, the images that parties create of each other are similar, like mirror

images of another. For instance, each party views itself as virtuous and moral and views the enemy as deceptive and immoral. The perception of the other, although it may be false, can shape a party's reality and create a self-fulfilling prophecy. For example, in the aggressor-defender model, the aggressor's action provokes a reaction from the defender. As the conflict escalates the defender, rather than taking the blame itself, is able to place the blame on the defender because it responded with a reaction. By doing this, the aggressor shapes its own reality and hence creates a self-fulfilling prophecy that the defender was malevolent (Dougherty and Pfaltzgraff, 282).

These action-reaction processes of conflict spiral, aggressor-defender, and mirror-imaging all have the possibility of leading to a self-fulfilling prophecy. The combination of provoked yet expected responses in these models easily leads to self-stimulating/self-perpetuating conflicts (Sandole 13). It is imperative, therefore, that an intervenor be aware of the possible occurrence of these processes.

VI. Conflict Intervention

A. Analysis

B. Preparatory Decisions

1. Continuum

2. Level

3. Dugan's Levels

4. Track

5. Type of Peace

6. Timing and Sequencing

C. Type of Intervention, Outcome, and Level

1. Prevention

2. Management

3. Settlement

4. Resolution

5. Transformation

D. Forum

E. Intervenor Roles

F. Activities

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

G. Skills

H. Evaluation

This last component of the Conflict Chart focuses on intervention and the many decisions regarding design that an intervenor must make before implementation. The Intervention Design Menuⁱⁱ in Appendix B presents the major decisions that must be made as well as provides a range of choices for each. This component of the Conflict Chart outlines the Intervention Design Menu and provides explanation for the choices that may need further clarification.

The conflict analysis conducted in the previous five components of the Conflict Chart is essentially the first step in designing an intervention. Using the information gathered about the parties, the context, and the dynamics, an intervenor begins to formulate a possible intervention. The insight that is gained by applying the various aforementioned theories and models contributes significantly to the choices the intervenor makes regarding the intervention.

Of the aspects of analysis covered previously, three models deserve to be mentioned again as they directly inform intervention design. These models are a crucial part of the analysis and in effect facilitate the making of preparatory decisions. The first is the Continuum of Relationships model mentioned in Conflict History. Knowing at which stage two parties are interacting is crucial when choosing a type of intervention, as the interventions vary according to stage of the parties' relationship. The second and third important models of analysis are the level of conflict and Dugan's level of conflict. Using both of these models, intervenors must identify where the conflict is located. The more levels in which a conflict is located, the more intricate an intervention.

In the Intervention Design Menu, three additional preparatory decisions exist. These three aspects of analysis were not previously discussed as they pertain more directly to the subject of intervention. They are nevertheless some of the most important aspects to consider when beginning to design an intervention. The first consists of choosing a "track" or method of implementing an intervention (Diamond and McDonald). Nine tracks exist, but it is the first two tracks that have received the most exposure. Track One involves the realm of official government diplomacy, such as the State Department or the United Nations. Track Two consists of professional non-governmental work in the realm of conflict resolution. The other seven tracks consist of business/commerce; private citizens; research, training, and education; activism/advocacy; religion; funding; and communications and the media (Diamond and McDonald, 4-5). Although all of these nine tracks exist as mechanisms for pursuing conflict resolution endeavors, an intervenor needs to decide, based on his/her analysis and available resources, which track or tracks are the best method for implementing an appropriate intervention.

The second additional preparatory decision is based on types of peace. Two types of peace exist—negative peace and positive peace—and different kinds of interventions create either one of these types of peace. Negative peace consists of the termination of hostilities and violence, and positive peace consists of the termination of hostilities as well as the eradication of the root causes of the conflict (Sandole 14). This preparatory decision, then, correlates with the Dugan's level of conflict model. Dealing with a conflict at the issue level of Dugan's model would be creating negative peace. If a conflict is approached at multiple levels, such as the issue, relationship, subsystem, and system levels, the conflict is not only

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

temporary settled but most likely resolved permanently. This is the creation of negative peace.

The third preparatory decision is that of timing and sequencing. This aspect of the design should be revisited often throughout the creation and implementation of an intervention. It is, however, important to consider when first embarking on an intervention design. Oftentimes, a conflict requires multiple “interventions” with each on a different level and/or of a different type. To achieve positive peace especially, multiple interventions are typically required. Therefore, the timing and sequencing of these multiple interventions must be considered and strategized in order to achieve maximum effectiveness.

After making the preparatory decisions, the intervenor must consider the type of intervention that would be appropriate for the conflict considering the analysis. Five types of intervention exist—prevention, management, settlement, resolution, and transformation. These interventions, the expected outcome, and the level(s) they affect according to Dugan’s model are outlined in the Intervention Design Menu. As multiple interventions may be conducted, any combination of these types may be implemented (Sandole 13), and as mentioned previously, consideration must be given to the timing and sequencing of them.

The next aspect of intervention design to consider is the forum. This consists of identifying the types of parties that are involved in the conflict and the parties that should participate in an intervention if it is to be successful. Although most of the forums listed in the Intervention Design Menu are self-explanatory, a few of them deserve further explanation. An endogenous forum consists of indigenous mechanisms for resolving conflicts (Sandole 11). Oftentimes, parties

have their own mechanisms for resolving conflicts, such as elders or traditional infrastructures, and these are useful forums as the parties typically respect the authority of these mechanisms. An exogenous forum is used in the absence of indigenous mechanisms (Sandole 11). This type of forum would require that the intervenor provide an acceptable mechanism for the intervention.

Three other types of forums to consider are top leadership, middle-range leadership, and grassroots leadership (Lederach 39-42). Top leadership consists of high-ranking military, political, or religious leaders that possess high visibility in their communities. Middle-range leadership consists of people in community leadership positions who are not connected to structures of the formal government. Grassroots leadership represents the masses, such as members of nongovernmental organizations or members of local community groups. The choice of which types of leadership or forums to involve in an intervention are again informed by analysis of the conflict and the preparatory decisions.

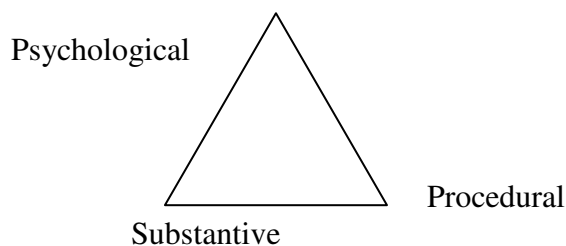
Intervenor roles is the next step in designing an intervention. The Intervention Design Menu includes two lists of roles that an intervenor may pursue (Lederach 68-69, Ury). The choice of a role or roles, depending on if multiple interventions are enacted, is based on the type of intervention and forum that is chosen.ⁱⁱⁱ At this point of the design, it is also important for the intervenor to consider the affect that s/he as an individual may have on the conflict and the intervention. Referring to the situation-attitude-behavior model used in the section Party Orientation, an intervenor should consider his/her attitude and how it shapes his/her behavior, as well as affects the behavior of others. An intervenor must be cognizant of his/her own culture and be

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

aware of how his behavior may influence the conflict parties and the outcome of an intervention.

The next two steps in the Intervention Design Menu are activities and skills. Based on the previous steps of the Menu and the choices made in each step, an intervenor must choose which activities to pursue and which skills to utilize in an intervention. These steps, although small in comparison to the ones previously addressed, are significant aspects of the intervention design. The activities direct the communication of the parties involved in the intervention, and the effectiveness of the activities determines the outcome of the intervention. The skills which an intervenor uses in an intervention are determined by the role s/he chooses to play as well as by the activities pursued. An intervenor's skills also affect the success of any activity as the intervenor is ultimately responsible for facilitating and managing the communication between parties.

The last step of the Intervention Design Menu is satisfaction evaluation. As interventions are designed and implemented, the intervenor must consider the satisfaction of the parties involved. From the type of the intervention to the type of activity, the parties must be satisfied with the entire intervention or a long-term resolution will not be achieved. Parties typically must be satisfied on three levels—psychological, procedural, and substantive (ICAR 66).



The psychological level deals with the relationship aspects of the intervention. The parties must be acknowledged by each

other as well as by the intervenor and feel as if they are being heard. If this occurs, positive relationships develop and contribute to the success of the intervention. The procedural level focuses on the processes used in the intervention and whether or not they are considered "fair" by the involved parties. To encourage procedural satisfaction, the intervenor must exercise impartiality and facilitate trust between the parties and in their relationship with him/her. The substantive level consists of parties' needs and whether or not they feel as if they are getting what they wanted. To satisfy this level of satisfaction for both parties, the intervenor must utilize the roles of mediator and facilitator and implement various creative activities, such as option generating. The success of an intervention depends on the satisfaction of the parties involved on these three levels. If satisfaction is not achieved on any one of the levels, the conflict will ultimately persist.

CONCLUSION

Although numerous additions have been made, the Conflict Chart essentially represents the combination of the Wehr Conflict Mapping Guide and the Three-Pillar Approach framework. The use of these two assessment guides in the creation of the Conflict Chart contributes to the chart's definitive nature.

The outline of the chart allows a conflict to be mapped from the most identifiable aspects to the most convoluted. The order of the outline facilitates analysis by deconstructing a conflict, yet organizing it in a linear form that upholds the continuity of the conflict. The provision of models and theories in the chart emphasizes the importance of reflective practice by an intervenor and contributes to the creation of informed interventions.

Despite the chart's categorical nature, it can be used for a variety of

Conflict Mapping Chart – L. Shay Bright

analytical purposes. The chart is applicable to conflicts at both macro- and micro-levels and is as well useful at any stage of conflict. In addition, the chart can be used to develop various types of interventions. This flexibility that the chart possesses makes it a useful prescriptive as well as descriptive tool.

The Intervention Design Menu in the last component represents the culmination of the analysis. This menu presents all of the choices regarding intervention that the previous analysis should inform. By utilizing the chart and this menu, an intervenor can successfully navigate a conflict and choose an appropriate path for intervention.

ENDNOTES

ⁱ Conflicts mentioned in this paper consist of only two primary conflict parties, unless otherwise noted. Although most conflicts consist of more than two parties, this paper is written to facilitate the understanding of the theories and models described.

ⁱⁱ It should be noted that the idea for the Intervention Design Menu as well as some of the information came from a Conf 713 (Fall 1998) class handout. The layout of the menu has been changed, and significant additions have been made.

ⁱⁱⁱ More than one person may be acting as the intervenor. If so, depending on the type of intervention, forum, and activities, the intervenors may each take on a different role. The intervenors may also change their roles throughout the duration of the intervention(s).