EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

EXAMPLES AND SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS-ROOM USE

UNESCO
EDUCATION
FOR INTERNATIONAL
UNDERSTANDING
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This booklet gives practical suggestions to class-room teachers on ways of educating for international understanding. It describes some class-room practices, methods and teaching material which can be fitted into the usual school subjects; it shows that the regular school curriculum offers many opportunities for developing teaching for international understanding.

The booklet is international in its outlook not only because of its subject but also because its contents are drawn from schools in different parts of the world. It is practical, because it is based on actual practices of teachers in class-rooms. Most of the examples given here are taken from reports which have been specially prepared for Unesco by teachers in many countries.

For several years, Unesco has been co-operating with some of its National Commissions in a plan for stimulating experiments in education for international understanding. On the recommendation of the National Commission or of the Ministry or Department of Education, one or more schools in a country are designated as participants in Unesco's Associated Schools Projects. Each school plans a project which, for that school, constitutes an interesting variation from the usual programme. The schools consult with the Secretariat of Unesco, which helps them in several ways: by locating and providing some of the background materials they need; by organizing international study conferences for teachers; by giving some fellowships which allow supervisors of projects to visit schools abroad; or by circulating reports of what is being done in participating schools. At the time when this reprint was prepared about two hundred and ninety institutions in forty-three countries were taking part in the scheme.

Educational programmes and methods differ greatly from country to country, as do their cultural settings, and the associated schools differ, too, in their treatment of a project. In some countries, schools have conducted fairly short, precise experiments. In others, the scope of the project has
been steadily expanded and more schools have been brought into the programme in successive years. Where several schools are taking part they have sometimes been allowed to experiment more or less independently while, in other cases, National Commissions have set up planning committees and have brought together teachers from the different schools concerned. In some schools there have been interesting innovations but no attempt at evaluation; others have tried to study the effects of experimental activities in a scientific spirit. This variety of approach is reflected in the examples given here.

Three main themes are stressed in the following chapters: teaching about the United Nations, teaching about human rights and teaching about other countries. These are the three themes that were proposed to all the schools taking part in the programme of Associated Schools Projects, and reports received from the schools deal principally with one or other or a synthesis of them.

This is not intended, however, to be an official and complete report of the programme. More detailed accounts of the experiments described here, and of others not mentioned, are in the files of Unesco. Some have been issued as separate documents, others are or will be published in the countries where the projects took place. The aim of this booklet is to bring to classroom teachers some ideas, in compact form, drawn mostly from experience in carrying out some of these projects.

Supplementary information has been obtained from national reports on teaching about the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, from some national publications, to which acknowledgement is made, and from reports of teaching projects carried out independently or sponsored by non-governmental organizations such as the World Federation of United Nations Associations.

The booklet has, thus, in a sense, been written by practising teachers for their colleagues at home and in other countries. It is hoped that it will be of use and interest to teachers generally, even to those who have themselves had many opportunities and much experience in teaching for international understanding, and who have resources of educational techniques and teaching materials at their command. Especially, it is hoped that it will reach those teachers who may feel somewhat isolated and out of touch with what others are doing, and that it will encourage them in their efforts to develop a spirit of international understanding among the pupils in their charge.
CHAPTER I
THE AIMS OF EDUCATION
FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING:
SOME GUIDING IDEAS

Much has already been written about the aims of education for international understanding and of its importance in preparing children to lead full and useful lives. Nevertheless, it has been thought worth while to recall here some of the formal statements made in support of this teaching and to list some of the guiding principles and ideas which have been found helpful.

The Charter of the United Nations, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Constitution of Unesco record the hopes and aspirations of millions of people, but these depend for their fulfilment on the ability of nations to live and work together in a peaceful community. These documents, which signatory governments have pledged themselves to observe, stress that education at all levels has a vital role in building peace through international understanding.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 26, paragraph 2) states that: ‘Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.’

The Preamble to the Constitution of Unesco says: ‘The States parties to this Constitution, believing in full and equal opportunities for education for all, in the unrestricted pursuit of objective truth, and in the free exchange of ideas and knowledge, are agreed and determined to develop and to increase the means of communication between their peoples and to employ these means for the purpose of mutual understanding and a truer and more perfect knowledge of each other’s lives.’

In these terms, chosen for their universal application, the broad aims of education for international understanding are clearly stated. To aid teachers and educators in working towards these high ideals Unesco has called upon expert committees from time to time to formulate some guiding principles
and to indicate the fields of knowledge and the attitudes of mind which, it is believed, can contribute most to international understanding.

A statement prepared by a group of members of Unesco’s Executive Board appointed to study this question, attempts to define the work of teaching for international understanding. A programme with this end in view, says the report, should:

‘1. Make it clear that unless steps are taken to educate mankind for the world community, it will be impossible to create an international society conceived in the spirit of the Charter of the United Nations.

‘2. Make clear that States, whatever their difference of creeds and ways of life, have both a duty to co-operate in international organizations and an interest in so doing.

‘3. Make clear that civilization results from the contributions of many nations and that all nations depend very much on each other.

‘4. Make clear the underlying reasons which account for the varying ways of life of different peoples both past and present, their traditions, their characteristics, their problems and the ways in which they have been resolved.

‘5. Make clear that throughout the ages, moral, intellectual and technical progress has gradually grown to constitute a common heritage for mankind. Although the world is still divided by conflicting political interests and tensions, the interdependence of peoples becomes daily more evident on every side. A world international organization is necessary and it is now also possible.

‘6. Make clear that the engagements freely entered into by the Member States of international organizations have force only in so far as they are actively and effectively supported by those peoples.

‘7. Arouse in the minds, particularly of young people, a sense of responsibility to this [world] community and to peace.

‘8. Encourage the development of healthy social attitudes in children so as to lay the foundations of improved international understanding and co-operation.’

A committee composed of fourteen distinguished scholars and educators, each from a different country, appointed to advise the Director-General of Unesco on ‘principles and methods of education for international understanding and co-operation’ states the problem, and points to the solution, in the introduction to its report:

‘It is not easy to find the right kind of education to enable the peoples of the world to understand each other and work together for the common

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good. Seen globally, the world has shrunk, but the world of each individual has expanded enormously, and this has left him exposed to strains and anxieties that may seriously affect his attitudes towards other men, particularly those beyond his own national borders. . . .

'The problems which these new forces, tensions and fears create confront educators, whether of children or adults, with tasks of new quality and magnitude. Not only must people be given a wider variety of new skills, but it must be a conscious aim of education to find ways of carrying over from smaller groups to increasingly larger ones, and finally to the world as a whole, attitudes and values which make for decent living in a complex society. Not least of the problems in this regard is that of the relation between national and international interests and loyalties. It would be idle, even dangerous, to deny that conflicts exist. But—and here lies a crucial task for the educator—it is possible and necessary to teach that loyal citizenship of one's own country is consistent with world-mindedness and that national interests are bound to suffer if international interests are ignored.'

Although these are all concepts which were thought out and agreed upon in an international atmosphere, those who have studied the question in a national context tend also to see it in much the same light; appeals to teachers, educators and parents responsible, within the limits of a particular national system, for the education of the children in their charge, are frequently based on very similar principles. The author of a pamphlet for British teachers, in defining the qualities to be cultivated in members of 'an integrated co-operative world community,' says:

'These qualities are but an extension of those we expect to see in the good national citizen. Among them will be the following: a concern for the welfare of others; willingness to place the common good before one's own immediate interests; the will and courage to co-operate by good means for good ends; receptivity to truth wherever and however it may be revealed; a capacity to think clearly, independently and without prejudice; a capacity to form critical judgements; a quality of mind that is tolerant to honest opinion but intolerant of evil, selfishness and dishonesty in all their forms; readiness to claim no rights for oneself that one is not willing to concede to others; a sense of personal responsibility for the right ordering of community life; respect for persons of every class, race and colour; a quality of imagination that enables a man to assess the results of any action or policy on people far removed from his immediate surroundings.'

Many school programmes in history, geography and other subjects, provide information which can be the basis for international understanding.

But teachers who accept the importance of international understanding and have had experience in adapting their own programmes know that this is not enough; sympathy and respect for the rights of the individual, a sense of justice and responsibility, critical judgement and freedom from prejudice, in other words, right attitudes towards other people outweigh, and will probably outlast, the factual knowledge from which they spring.

Efforts to develop these attitudes need not involve drastic changes in the regular programme of work or in the standards and aims of education. Indeed, they may consist simply of enriching the content of regular courses of study, of adding new dimensions to subjects included in the normal syllabus. Far from distorting the aims of education or detracting from its quality, teaching along these lines may greatly increase the educational value of the pupil’s experience in school.

Some of the most successful teaching projects described in this booklet did, of course, call for substantial changes in the syllabus and time-table. However, such changes are not always practicable, even on an experimental basis, and they may require time and resources which the teacher does not have. Other projects have been chosen to illustrate ways and means of using the opportunities presented by the regular curriculum and the daily routine of school life so as to encourage the development of attitudes favourable to international understanding.

Active methods are generally agreed to be the most effective means of teaching pupils to make constructive use of the information they have acquired; individual and group research, open discussion, freedom to state a point of view and to try to defend it in debate, the preparation of a report or an essay on a chosen topic and similar activities encourage the pupil to think for himself, to sift evidence and to support his judgement with facts.

Experience of group relations as a member of the school community lays the foundations for understanding, particularly where the school organization creates an atmosphere of harmony and confidence, and where there is co-operation between teachers and pupils; personal contacts (meetings and conversations) with persons from abroad, are, according to teachers’ reports, a most valuable means of arousing a sympathetic interest in other countries.

A handbook for Australian teachers describes, as a vital factor in international understanding, the ability to regard the world outside one’s own community and the people in it as ‘here’ and ‘we’ rather than ‘there’ and ‘they’. The progress and results of teaching projects described in the

following pages suggest that children can be helped to develop this outlook through studies designed to show how the society in which they live has developed, and how some other peoples in different countries and regions have woven the pattern of their lives; in spite of sharp contrasts in physical appearance, habits, customs, economic advancement and standards of living, they will come to realize that ordinary people the world over have similar needs, and that they have the same desire for freedom, a capacity for loyalty, family affection, gifts of artistic expression and other typically human qualities.

A consideration of common world problems, of the international organizations working to solve them, and of multi-national contributions to art, science, industry and trade can help them to understand the meaning of interdependence, and why, at this stage of history, nations can no longer exist in isolation one from another but must seek a *modus vivendi* on a world scale.
Without public understanding, interest and support, the United Nations, as an international organization founded in the cause of world peace, would lose all strength and meaning and the United Nations Charter would become a dead letter.

But the basis for adult understanding must be established in the schools. The General Assembly of the United Nations recognized this when, in 1947, it called on Member States to encourage ‘teaching of the purposes and principles, the structure and activities of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies in schools of Member States’.

Since then, the United Nations and Unesco have received many reports from governments which reveal the growing recognition of the importance of teaching schoolchildren, the adults of tomorrow, about the United Nations, and also—a matter of more immediate interest here—the way in which methods and materials for this teaching have developed. In a steadily increasing number of countries official directives regularly instruct the heads of primary and secondary schools to include some teaching about the United Nations in the curriculum. In some countries, passages on the work of the United Nations have been written into new textbooks, units or lesson plans have been drawn up and special materials and other incentives provided.

Two points of special interest can be observed: one is that instruction has gradually changed from a rather formal, lifeless study of structure and functions to a well-rounded and often fascinating presentation of what might be called ‘the United Nations at work’. The other is that teaching about the United Nations has become inseparable from teaching for international understanding. No programme to develop international understanding is complete without reference to the United Nations as an example of international co-operation on a world-wide scale, and no attempt to teach about the United Nations can fail to convey some sense
of the interdependence of different countries, of the urgency of world problems and the need to solve them through co-operation and peaceful means.

**METHODS AND CONTENT**

Where teaching about the United Nations is integrated into the regular school programme, the methods used vary widely depending on the type of school system, the time allotted to the teaching and the individual teacher’s interpretation of the directives he or she may have received from education authorities. Possibly because the subject matter of this teaching is comparatively new, because the events and developments treated are essentially topical, sometimes controversial, and often of burning importance, the tendency is to abandon conventional routines and to use activity methods allowing free, informal discussion and giving opportunities for individual and group projects. Such methods have helped to enliven class-room studies of the United Nations and have enabled the children to exercise their judgement and to crystallize their impressions of the information offered by press, radio, cinema or television programmes.

In schools where a comprehensive course on the United Nations has been introduced, the curriculum subjects most often involved are history, geography, social studies, civics and current events, and a series of lessons or a unit of study may be fitted into the syllabus for one or more of these subjects. Other subject fields can also play an important part however, particularly modern languages, literature, natural sciences and the arts. Many teachers hold that almost any class-room subject can contribute to the general knowledge which is the basis of a good understanding of the work of the United Nations.

**TWO APPROACHES**

Two approaches to a long-term study of the United Nations have been found particularly helpful: one is the use of a historical introduction which traces the development of present-day international organizations from earlier movements in the cause of social welfare and freedom. The topics chosen for such a study have included, for example, the growth of democracy, the socialist movement, trade unions, the League of Nations, struggles for independence resulting in constitutional government, the origins of some Specialized Agencies of the United Nations such as the World
Health Organization or the Universal Postal Union. The work of great statesmen and humanitarians has been introduced. Comparative studies have been made of a country's own constitution and the Charter of the United Nations.

Another, less academic, method is the 'problem' approach, by which students consider existing world problems and their causes; this leads to an inquiry into the work of the United Nations and its agencies in helping to solve problems through international co-operation. In order to understand why the United Nations was founded and how it is accomplishing the tasks assigned to it, children need to know something of the nature and urgency of the needs which determine its structure and its aims. The problems it faces are real and pressing and many of them lie within the range of schoolchildren's observation and experience. By studying them children will see clearly the significance of this world organization in the battle against disease, in the conservation and development of natural resources, in improving agricultural methods, in the fight against illiteracy, in the regulation of air transport and in many other economic, social and cultural developments. The practical value of international co-operation and its instruments will be brought home to them because they will see these matters as part of their own lives.

**REGIONAL STUDIES**

Successful programmes on the work of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies are usually limited to one region or group of countries, for example, the Eastern Mediterranean, the Caribbean, South-East Asia, Central America. Teachers have found that a close study of one region arouses more interest and provides a clearer illustration of the work of the United Nations than any attempt at a world survey. It also allows time for detail and discussion and reduces the risk of overloading the syllabus when it is necessary to add or substitute new materials.

*A project on the United Nations at work in India*

In a co-educational State grammar school in South Wales a group of thirty-six children of the average age of 15 years followed an experimental programme on the subject of India and the United Nations which was substituted for the regular syllabus in geography for one term (fifty lessons of about one hour each) and included several lessons on history and religion. The teacher in charge was confident that the material omitted from the
regular syllabus could be incorporated during the two subsequent years’ work, a device that could be used only in a school system permitting a fairly elastic curriculum. Five lesson periods before and after the course were given up to evaluation (tests of knowledge and attitudes).

The programme was divided into five parts; the first two sections, on the history and geography of India, were made up of lessons of a fairly conventional pattern but an effort was made in planning them to (a) emphasize the geographical reasons for India’s needing assistance; (b) help the pupils to appreciate the length and grandeur of India’s history; and (c) understand the modern Indian’s viewpoint. Three lessons on the religious background in India were followed by the main section on problems in India and the work of the United Nations. Here, after an introduction to the United Nations, the children studied the relations between (a) one geographical problem, one Specialized Agency of the United Nations and conditions in India and Pakistan (the example chosen was the work of the World Meteorological Organization in plotting and forecasting cyclones in the Bay of Bengal), and (b) one geographical problem and the work of several Specialized Agencies (i.e., the problems of the Terai region and the contribution of the World Health Organization, the United Nations Children’s Fund, the Food and Agriculture Organization, Unesco, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and United Nations Technical Assistance). A detailed study of four of the Specialized Agencies, with special reference to their work in India, was followed by a final lesson on the structure and procedures of the United Nations.

Several hours of the course remained for summing up and for the discussion of two general themes: ‘India’s problems are those of most of the world’, and ‘World problems, the United Nations and the individual’. The main conclusions reached were illustrated where possible by examples related to the children’s own environment and experience; thus, to demonstrate the fact that the world is becoming one economic unit, the pupils made a list of ‘the sources of food for our breakfast table’.

Other points discussed were: the uneven distribution of wealth in the world; over-population; wasting of natural resources; reasons why the richer countries must assist the poorer, culminating in the question ‘Modern science has made the world one community. Have we sufficient good will to live as neighbours?’ The course finished with suggestions for ways in which individuals, even those of school age, might contribute actively towards greater international understanding and co-operation.

The teachers concerned with the project had some constructive criticisms to make, mainly on the grounds that the programme was too ambitious.
and tended to cover too wide a canvas. Their intention was to study fewer problems in greater detail in a later project for which they hoped to obtain more pictures, films and descriptive material with human interest.

Nevertheless, the effect on both pupils and teachers was judged to be of great value. The teacher in charge of the work writes: 'As a result of this project my pupils will possibly know less pure geography... on the other hand, they will probably have a much better idea why they have been studying geography. They will have been helped to realize that history and geography are practical, intellectual tools for the person who wishes to understand his fellow-men and contemporary world problems... If we believe that what a man knows is much less important than what a man is then we are well justified in devoting so much time to a project that concentrates on attitudes.'

A regional study of some Mediterranean and middle eastern countries

In a Danish secondary school students in the top classes of the Gymnasium (age group 15 to 18 years) followed a three-year course centred in the work of United Nations Technical Assistance in Southern Italy and in Israel, Jordan and Iraq. The programme was incorporated into the regular syllabus for geography (two years, two hours a week) and biology (one year, four hours a week). For two of the four classes concerned, the course in history was adapted so as to focus attention on political, cultural and social developments in the region selected.

To establish the physical setting for their theme, pupils in the first two years who were studying geological features, climate and plant ecology gave special attention to conditions in the region, for example, Mediterranean and desert climates, droughts, the need for irrigation, and the danger of floods such as those which occurred in Calabria and Salerno in 1953 and 1954. Statistics of the effects of geographical conditions on production and a survey of economic conditions paved the way to an examination of the problems of underdevelopment and ways and means of overcoming them. Here the pupils sought the answers to three questions: 'Who helps?', 'Why do they help?', and finally 'What is the extent of the help given by the United Nations?'

At the end of the second year's work a group of about thirty pupils with their teachers visited Southern Italy on a field trip where they were able to see something of the work accomplished by national centres for rehabilitation\(^1\) and by United Nations Technical Assistance missions. This

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1. Unione Nazionale per la Lotta contro Analfabetismo and Casa per il Mezzogiorno.
group also visited the headquarters of the Food and Agriculture Organization in Rome and took part in a broadcast which gave an account of their experiences.

Activities in the third year were, as in the first two years, shaped by the curriculum subjects into which they were incorporated, in this case biology and human physiology. The topics chosen for special study were malaria, locust plagues, race discrimination, nutrition, and the biological effects of radio-activity.

Those who had visited Southern Italy had seen something of the campaign against malaria. Both there and in the Middle East region examples could be seen of several United Nations Specialized Agencies (WHO, Unicef, FAO and Unesco) working together, and of the need for co-operation across frontiers (Israel-Jordan) in fighting a common pest.

Because of recent progress in research on the malaria-bearing mosquito and other insect pests, the students often had to make their own drawings and diagrams to replace illustrations in their reference books that were obviously out of date. The biology teacher also found the topic a useful starting-point for lessons on subjects such as the blood-stream, fevers, heart regulation and parasitism.

An interesting array of materials was used, in addition to the school textbooks, for this and for the study of nutrition: an issue of *The Unesco Courier (Killers of the Insect World, April 1956)*; pamphlets and news-letters of WHO; statistics from the National Geographical Society in New York and from the United Nations *Demographic Yearbook*; United Nations news; filmstrips from a petroleum company, two films ‘Somewhere in India’ (United Nations) and ‘Adventure in Sardinia’ (State Film Board of Denmark) and two films from the United States Information Service. Pamphlets, posters and films were obtained from the United Nations Information Centre in Denmark, from Unesco, FAO and WHO, and the pupils themselves made their own albums of notes, news cuttings, photos and letters from pen friends.

The remaining topics were treated in the same way, i.e., by establishing a basis of scientific knowledge, emphasizing the size of the problem in terms of human life and indicating the attempts to find a solution through international co-operation. The teacher in charge of the work says in his report: ‘During the three years the experiment lasted we were very happy to work on this special assignment . . . we have become very interested in continuing to draw attention to the work of the United Nations in our class-room work on all levels; this is because the pupils in the first experimental classes reacted in such a positive way to the whole project.’
SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES

Through class-room practice and in discussion, teachers have established some useful principles for the guidance of their colleagues in teaching about the United Nations. They have recommended, for younger age groups, a process whereby the children study their own local and national institutions as an introduction to the study of international organizations, proceeding, for example, from the town postal service to the Universal Postal Union, from local health services to the World Health Organization, from an agricultural co-operative to the Food and Agriculture Organization, and so on. They have stressed the importance of visual aids in enlivening the study of problems concerned with food, health, education and minimum standards of living, and in showing something of the daily life, customs and cultural traditions of people in other countries, and they have made practical suggestions on ways of introducing topics on the United Nations into curriculum subjects.

They have also been able to point out from their own experience some of the pitfalls in this teaching. One is the danger of engaging in propaganda in favour of the United Nations—a practice which may provoke resistance on the part of the pupils. Another is the temptation to rely too much on the activities of the Specialized Agencies as an illustration of the work of the United Nations Organization itself. The United Nations may come to be regarded as a vast charitable organization unless the study of the economic and social aspects of its work are balanced by some knowledge of its political functions and of the central mechanism (the General Assembly, Security Council, the Trusteeship Council, etc.) and its scope and limitations.

Teaching about the political significance of the United Nations

In many secondary schools these subjects are treated, in more or less detail, in current events classes, in courses on international relations or in history or social studies. In some countries, where reforms in the educational system have been undertaken since the war, special attention is given to the political significance of the United Nations. In Iran, a syllabus for a new subject has been officially introduced in the secondary school curriculum. This subject was described by the Iranian participant in a recent seminar for teachers in South-East Asia, on teaching about the United Nations, as follows:

"The course begins by asking the pupils what is meant by a community. Here, the teachers try to define a community for the pupils by telling"
them that wherever a few people live together in harmony and in mutual co-operation, it is known as a simple community. In the same way their families, their schools, their sports clubs, their literary societies and their mosques and churches are each in their own way a kind of simple community. Then in the next stage, a more complex community would be their town and province, and finally their country. However, above all these, there is the community of the human race. This community is the world where people of different races, colours, creeds and languages must live together in peace and harmony. They conclude by stating that the United Nations, if strongly supported, can accomplish this task. Then the pupils are made aware of the meanings of freedom and democracy, international co-operation and international law. They are told how treaties are made and how international problems and quarrels of a political, social or economic nature are solved through peaceful methods. They are repeatedly reminded of the terrors and hazards of past wars, particularly those which affected Iran most. At the same time, the vast difference between ancient and modern war weapons is pointed out to them.

‘The pupils are further reminded of some of the social, moral and ethical codes of the ancient Iranians. Instances such as the advent of the prophet Zoroaster are recalled, especially his motto: Speak Good, Do Good and Think Good. . . . It can be noted that the customs and ethics of ancient Iran are very much on the same lines as the basic principles of the United Nations. Thus the pupils are encouraged to follow and to support the aims and the objectives of the United Nations which so closely coincide with their own historical background. Moreover, they are given examples of the efforts of the United Nations in trying to maintain peace and security throughout the world, as for example the question of Azerbaijan in Iran, the Korean war and the Suez Canal conflict.

‘The pupils are also given information on the geography and history of ex-colonies, and how the United Nations has been instrumental in the emancipation of some of these, and then later given them the necessary technical and economic assistance in order to put them on their feet. It is a known fact that the United Nations has been struggling to destroy racial and class discrimination from the beginning. Other instructions to the pupils are given by means of visual aids to make them fully realize the vast work of the United Nations and its different organs. Lastly, pupils are directed to read relevant books, pamphlets and articles on current international affairs for preparing papers and speeches for discussion in their class-rooms.’
Commemorations of United Nations Day (24 October) take many different forms and are of most value when the school activities are part of a larger community celebration or when they are arranged as the climax to a year-round course of study in the class-room. Film shows, lectures, exhibitions, pageants representing different nations or illustrating events in the history of international co-operation, poster and speech contests are among the activities most frequently used to focus attention for a day or more on the United Nations.

In Costa Rica, in a school of over a thousand boys and girls, the tenth anniversary of United Nations Day was marked by a three-day programme in which parents and the local community took part. The school's international relations club organized a speakers' contest for the older pupils and the twenty finalists gave their talks at a public meeting; prizes were awarded by local civic organizations; an exhibition on the theme of 'living in the world community', set up in the school library and opened to parents and friends, showed illustrated albums on different countries, dolls dressed in national traditional costumes, coats-of-arms, national flags, models of dwellings typical of different regions, and collections of postage stamps and coins. All these, together with posters, charts and wall maps explaining the work of the United Nations, were the work of the pupils.

Finally, the school, in company with students of a teacher-training college and the Boy Scouts group, organized a ceremony in which trees for each Member State of the United Nations were planted in the grounds of the college. The United Nations flag was raised among the trees beside the flag of Costa Rica and the scouts kept a guard of honour during the whole day. The ceremony was attended by the President of the Republic and addresses were given by a member of the Committee for Collaboration with the United Nations and the Minister for Foreign Affairs.

The school concerned was one of those taking part in Unesco's Associated Schools Projects, and these activities were part of its programme on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in which the whole school was involved.

Where similar commemorations are annual events isolated from any regular teaching about the United Nations, some research and preparation for the event takes place beforehand; the interest and curiosity thus aroused may lead to the establishment of a Unesco club, an international relations club or some other form of follow-up activity to be carried on through the school year. In many schools, much of the work done in support of
the United Nations is undertaken in clubs, societies and study circles during sessions held after school hours. The clubs' activities are often arranged with the help of interested teachers and, in larger towns and communities, events such as a film showing, a debate, a talk by a visiting speaker, or the staging of a model session of the United Nations General Assembly may be shared with groups from neighbouring schools.

Some examples of the work and achievements of these voluntary groups are given in Chapter VI on extra-curricular activities.
Any comprehensive study of the United Nations must include learning something about the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 10 December 1948.1

WHY THE DECLARATION IS IMPORTANT

When the United Nations Charter came into force in 1945 the promotion of the full range of human rights everywhere became, for the first time in history, a recognized responsibility of organized international society. Until then, organized international society had assumed no universal responsibility for the rights of the individual in his own country. But the terms of the Charter affirmed, in effect, that what happened to the rights of the individual in his country was the business not only of his own government but also of the world community as a whole.

The relevant Articles of the Charter are as follows:

Article 55

'With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, the United Nations shall promote:

(a) higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development;

1. No. VIII in the Unesco series of booklets Towards World Understanding is The Universal Declaration of Human Rights—A Guide for Teachers. The booklet gives suggestions for teaching about human rights and includes the text of the Declaration and a chapter on the work of the United Nations Commission which drafted it. The examples of typical class-room practice included in this publication were taken from surveys on teaching about human rights in a number of different countries, made for Unesco by four international teachers' organizations.
(b) solutions of international economic, social, health, and related problems; and
international cultural and educational co-operation; and
(c) universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.'

Article 56

All Members pledge themselves to take joint and separate action in co-operation with the Organization for the achievement of the purposes set forth in Article 55.

The fact that the Charter is a treaty freely entered into by the United Nations, and that it has the same force as any other treaty between nations, is sometimes overlooked. As such, it imposes on its signatories a legal obligation to carry out its provisions. However, while the Charter affirms rights, it does not define them. The definition of rights was to follow.

In 1946, the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations established the Commission on Human Rights to draw up an international Bill of Rights. The first chairman was Mrs. Roosevelt. After two years of intensive effort, the first part of the bill was completed: this was the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

With its adoption by the General Assembly, the Declaration became the most widely accepted definition ever evolved of the rights which belong to everybody everywhere without any discrimination whatsoever. For the first time in history, most of the nations of the world had agreed on a catalogue of basic rights.

The Declaration was not arrived at simply, and it is not a simple document. The comparatively plain language masks a long history of animated international debate that went into the choice of each word, phrase and clause. The text raises highly complicated and controversial questions of interpretation.

The 30 Articles of the Declaration, however, touch on a wealth of interesting questions, and teachers looking for lively themes or discussion topics for their pupils could hardly do better than to explore them, for example: 13(2), Passports; 14(1), Refugees; 16(2), Marriage; 23(1), Employment; 26, Education.

Anyone reading the Declaration carefully will realize at once that no country has yet been able to realize for all its citizens all the rights in it. But, although it has no legal force, as the United Nations Charter has,
it does carry great political and moral weight. It imposes a strong obligation to observe the principles set forth and to strive for the full achievement of the rights proclaimed.

And, in fact, it has already had a substantial impact on the life of nations. Its direct influence is clearly evident in a number of recent national constitutions (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Federal Republic of Germany, Haiti, Indonesia, Jordan, Libya, Puerto Rico, Somalia, Syria). It has provided the basis for national legislation in Canada, Ecuador, Federal Republic of Germany, Paraguay and Thailand; it has affected judicial action many times in national and international courts; for example, it has been cited in a number of court decisions in the United States of America.

Nevertheless, for many people at different levels of society, the rights and freedoms affirmed in the Declaration have yet to be won and the duties implicit in the principle of respect for the rights of others have yet to be universally accepted. Thus, the Declaration is a statement of common standards to be achieved rather than a catalogue of established facts. This is recognized in the Preamble to the document and, as it goes on to stress, it is largely through teaching and education that the Declaration may become more widely known and observed and that the standards it proclaims may be realized for more and more people. It may be useful to review some of the different ways which teachers have found for adapting the curriculum and organizing the life of the school so as to encourage understanding and observance of human rights.

SOME GENERAL APPROACHES TO A STUDY OF HUMAN RIGHTS

A subject so complex and of such vital interest presents many aspects for study. The two most likely to be of value to children at the secondary school level are: the historical background against which the Universal Declaration was drafted; and the interpretation of the Declaration, in terms of human relationships in the school, the family, the community, the nation, and the world as a whole.

Each of these methods of approach has a contribution to make to the understanding of human rights, but while a study of the historical setting of the Universal Declaration will have fairly well-defined limits depending on the children's background and level of ability, the human approach can be linked to a multitude of activities and curriculum subjects and can have an influence on the whole spirit and atmosphere of the school.
PRACTISING THE OBSERVANCE OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN SCHOOL

At a junior high school in the United States of America, the teaching staff, under the direction of the principal of the school, discussed ways of creating a happy school environment through the observance of human rights. The programme of activities which they planned and carried out was designed to help the pupils gain a knowledge and understanding of human rights based on the following concepts:

1. How certain human rights and freedoms are obtained.
2. How, eventually, a peaceful world can be built.
3. How faith can be reaffirmed in fundamental human rights.
4. How standards of living can be improved.
5. How the Universal Declaration of Human Rights can be understood in relation to immediate local conditions.
6. How the idea of social progress can be reaffirmed in terms of fundamental human rights.
7. How all human rights can be respected.
8. How the interdependence of human beings can be recognized.
9. How the immediate environment can be improved by learning about achievements and errors in the history of the community, the state, the nation and the world.
10. How interests and sympathies must be broadened.

It was agreed that: 'If we wish to know about others, we must know about ourselves; that the dignity and worth of every individual must be preserved in the face of the increasing complexity into which human society seems to be pushed; and, that if mankind is to be saved, it can be done only by replacing the values of industrial technology with those of co-operation, of love and of understanding.'

In framing their programme the teachers tried to give it both educational and moral values. The activities devised gave opportunities for exercises in speech-training, written compositions, creative and imaginative work and the development of critical, impartial judgement.

Under the heading of oral expression, the students took part in dramatizations which included (a) arranging a radio programme for the local broadcasting station on the work of the Food and Agriculture Organization in Asian countries; (b) a playlet illustrating how the recognition of human rights has been achieved at certain times and places; (c) acting scenes in a local traffic court; and (d) panel discussions or debates on problems of human rights. Following interviews arranged with personnel in department stores, in the local courts, and with newspaper reporters, teachers and United Nations officials, the students discussed such topics as the
rights of employers, employees, and customers in trade; rights of the driver, the pedestrian, the taxpayer; rights of teachers and students; rights of the press, rights of individual nations and the rights of people in need.

Written work was allotted along the same lines. The pupils wrote their own plays, essays and poems on topics related to human rights. Correspondence was kept up with over three hundred pen friends in ten different countries and letters were also sent to delegates at United Nations Headquarters asking for information on children in their countries. Letters of thanks and appreciation to the various people who had given interviews were composed. The students had further opportunities for exercise in written expression in preparing reports on the interviews they had had and in evaluating the talks, field trips, discussions and film shows in which they had shared. They also produced a simplified version of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This activity was of special interest because it involved a close study and analysis of the text of the Declaration and also produced a teaching aid for use with younger age groups (the students’ version is reproduced with another simplified version in Appendix I).

Reading lists and suggestions for research in newspapers and journals helped to supplement the information students gained from their interviews and from other experiences outside the school; a list of subjects for discussions in class and in school assemblies was built up starting from themes concerned with school and community problems and spreading out to state, national and world affairs.

Much of the work which went into this project was done outside school hours and students had the opportunity, in various school clubs and circles, of putting into practice the ideals of behaviour they were encouraged to pursue. For example, the Junior United Nations Organization in the school arranged for representatives of each social studies class to meet before school hours once a week to learn about the work of the United Nations and to organize a programme of assistance for children in need.

The programme planned covered activities spread over a whole school year (three terms). Simple tests on knowledge of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights applied before and after the programme showed a satisfactory increase in the percentage of students who had become familiar with the Declaration and who recognized what the articles stood for. The long-term results of such a programme cannot easily be judged but it seems fairly certain that, where so many different school activities were involved, some lasting influence would be felt in the life of the school in general.
HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE COMMUNITY

In a large co-educational secondary school in Hiroshima, Japan, the aim of a short but concentrated project was a frank appraisal of the observance of human rights in the home country. A class of about forty senior students spent four to five weeks on the programme, which consisted of class-room lectures, field trips in town and rural districts, and discussions. The project was carefully evaluated by tests, interviews and comparison with a control group of the same level.

The results of a test given beforehand showed that the students were not greatly interested in or aware of the problem of human rights and that their general attitude towards it was idealistic rather than practical. Many of them believed that the standard of culture of a given group or race was unlikely to be raised by a change in conditions of environment, or by the provision of greater educational opportunities. Twenty-five per cent thought that racial discrimination could not be removed.

In social studies classes the students learnt about earlier developments in the struggle for human rights (the winning of independence for the American colonies, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man, the Industrial Revolution, the growth of democratic government, etc.) and in language classes they read accounts of village life in Japan and studied the text of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Lecturers from outside the school, a lawyer, a professor of economics and a former member of the committee which drafted the text of the Universal Declaration, spoke to the students on 'Problems of human rights observed in a law court', 'Right of women and the Universal Declaration', 'The status of human rights in Japan', and 'Labour problems and human rights'.

Detailed arrangements were made in advance for the field trips, which took place in the third week of the programme. The group which chose the village as its field of study was made up of eight boys and four girls; the students were lodged with farmers' families, two to a household. On the first day, after listening to a talk by the village leader on the history and administration of the community, they were conducted on a survey of the village and in the evening they talked with families in their homes. The second day was spent working in the fields beside their hosts and in discussion with the young people of the village.

Thirteen boys and fourteen girls elected to visit factories. Their programme included a tour of a large enterprise of 4,000 workers manufacturing bicycles, and visits to a small factory of 100 employees and to a subcontract workshop of only seven workers. They were also received at the Workers
Union of the local tramway company where they heard about the organization of a labour union and a description of a strike. Two films, 'Modern Times' and 'The Street without the Sun', were shown.

On their return to school each group prepared a report on its experiences containing observations related to the recognition of human rights. Each report was delivered to the whole class and the programme wound up with round-table discussions on the findings and a summing-up of the conclusions to be drawn from the experiment.

The teachers who directed the programme were very satisfied with the enthusiasm of the pupils and the hard work they put into the project.

'We have learned more than we expected we should', one pupil wrote. 'These four days were not wasted at all. I have observed many aspects of rural life which I had anticipated, and in addition to those, I saw and heard many things which were quite new to me. This feeling is shared by all twelve of us. It seems village people are very fond of talking. I found that there were just as many problems and difficulties in a village as in a city. There are the problems of education, labour, food, housing and clothing; difference of opinions between the old and the young; interest in village politics and indifference to national politics; low standard of living; feudalistic traditions. And the worst part of it is that villagers in general are not fully aware of all these problems and they have no idea how to go about solving them. We have been to a village and observed actual conditions there, but we should not be content with just seeing them and contemplating them.'

The tests for evaluation showed positive results and it was noted that those who had taken part in the project continued to relate their experience to events and conditions in their immediate surroundings, for example, to problems of school organization and to a dispute over land tenure reported in the daily press.

A STUDY OF THE RIGHTS OF WOMEN

A two-year project in a girls' secondary school in Ecuador (1,200 pupils) also concentrated attention on the local or national scene as a means of developing knowledge of human rights and concern for those to whom, for one reason or another, their enjoyment may be denied. The theme of the programme was 'the rights of women'. Although field work and inquiries were naturally limited to the status of women in different regions of the country, every opportunity was taken to study their place in society in other cultural regions and in other times.
As it had been officially declared an experimental institution, the school was free of curriculum restrictions; it was possible to adapt the syllabus and to have full co-operation between the teachers of different subjects so that they contributed the maximum to the special programme. The six units of study planned for the course were followed by girls in the six classes of the pre-baccalaureate or matriculation section (aged 11 to 17 years) and were designed as the basis for a new branch of study which was to be known as ‘The United Nations and human rights’.

Extra-curricular school clubs and sections of Girl Guides, Junior Red Cross, etc., were asked to direct their activities towards the aims of the programme and, through the existing system of self-government and the student council, it was expected that the organization of the life of the school would provide a day-to-day demonstration of respect for human rights.

The six units of study planned on the theme of ‘the rights of women’ were:

1. Family life and place in society of Ecuadorian women.
2. Their part in cultural life.
3. Their economic status.
4. Historical development of status of women in Ecuador.
5. Their legal status.
6. Women and international organizations.

Each unit of study had a series of secondary themes to guide the students in their work and a set of specific aims and suggestions for related activities which would encourage the girls to take an active part in research and observation. The aims stated for Unit 2 (place of women in cultural life) were: to develop (a) a knowledge of cultural background and opportunities within reach of Ecuadorian women, and (b) means of co-operating in the national literacy campaign and in efforts to raise cultural standards among different groups of women. Activities proposed for this unit included visits to a fundamental education centre, to literacy centres, to a girls’ technical training school, to a rehabilitation centre, to a training school for social workers, and to a school for hospital nurses; studies of the lives of women who have contributed to Ecuadorian culture; maintenance of a wall newspaper; and preparation of diagrams of statistics. For Unit 3 (economic status of women) the objectives were: (a) to acquire a knowledge of the economic status of women in Ecuador and (b) to prepare for taking an active part in the improvement of living standards by developing a spirit of co-operation and a sense of civic responsibility. The students observed women at work in a peasant community and visited a city clinic, a hospital and the general dispensary of the social security services. They went over
a textiles factory, and made a survey of conditions in the street markets and among women peddlars. They also visited an office of one of the public administration services.

In addition to preparing reports and statistical diagrams, the students in the 16 to 18 age group contributed materials for a 'workbook' which was put together with the help of teachers of geography, history and civics. This was to be a kind of home-made textbook and a reference list to assist others in following the course, and at the same time a record of the work of individual students and a means of evaluating the project and its results. Comparisons were made, at all stages, with the life of women in other countries.

Over a period of two years, two hours a week of class time were allotted to this project, but in addition a great deal of work was done in out-of-school hours.

Active methods (group work, discussions, debates, competitions, preparation of materials and letters for exchanges with other countries) were used throughout and contributed not only to the success of the project but also to the general plan of reorganizing the school on an experimental basis.

The girls took their assignments with great seriousness and made a practical application of their studies in various kinds of welfare work in the city areas and in the country. A French teacher travelling in Ecuador on a Unesco fellowship who was present at one of the community projects arranged by students in an Indian village was greatly impressed by what he saw:

'On a Sunday morning, in the courtyard of the village school of El Inca, 12 kilometres from Quito, a crowd of village people, in family groups, sat on benches, while some of the more timid hovered about at the edge of the maize field which bordered the yard. The school bus had brought twenty girls of the first class (11 to 12 years old), some teachers, an announcer from Radio Andes, a tape recorder, an electric generator, and a pile of mysterious objects which were put into a class-room. We were to take part in a public recording of a radio programme of fundamental education planned and produced entirely by the girls. Grown-ups were there purely as assistants and to manipulate the machinery. A 12-year-old girl who attends a radio announcer's course as one of her school activities, presented and directed the programme with a smiling efficiency and charm that professionals would have envied. The programme lasted three hours and even the daily downpour of winter rain did not interrupt the proceedings. Entertainment items (songs, dances, recital of poems) alternated with brief practical demonstrations: how to put windows in a house and why; cleaning and decorating the interior of the home; how to make a folding desk for children, or a cradle to keep the baby out of reach of
animals, or a cage for the guinea-pigs which ordinarily run free in the house; first essentials for personal cleanliness. All the objects shown were offered as lottery prizes and the winners were interviewed.

'The children had done everything themselves—made the furniture, collected money to buy the things given away, made their costumes, rehearsed their entertainment. They knew the village people well and seemed to have more influence than some grown-ups might have had."

"The programme finished with a national dance, the "Poncho Verde" (green blanket), in which everyone joined, children, villagers and officials, and with a creole collation offered in our honour by the village. The programme, which was repeated a few days later over Radio Andes, was one of a series prepared by the school and broadcast weekly.'

A STUDY OF THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO WOMEN'S RIGHTS

In a Swedish lower secondary school, two groups of students followed a course on human rights given mainly in classes of history and social sciences with the collaboration of teachers of Swedish, geography and religion. Students at the same level formed control groups. These students were preparing for the final examinations (Real-examen) by which they would either terminate their formal education or pass into another type of school, and it was important not to add to their workload. For this reason, the new material was fitted into the regular curriculum with some adjustments and no homework or written exercises were set.

Two lessons a week for two terms were used for class-room instruction and discussion. In addition, the students were shown films and pictures and heard lectures on other countries from people who had travelled or lived abroad.

To illustrate conditions of employment for women and the situation of women in the labour market, small groups of students were taken to visit offices and factories. Here they interviewed managers of business enterprises and officials in State or local administrations to discover their opinions of the efficiency and competence of women employees.

Both instruction and discussion were related wherever possible to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights with special reference to the rights of women. The teachers also drew attention to problems of race and to the existence of slavery. The programme was introduced by a survey of concepts of the dignity of man and the rights of the individual in society with examples drawn from biblical history, Greek classical
antiquity, and the age of the Vikings in Swedish history, leading up to a study of the origins and development of the Swedish movement for women's rights.

Following this introduction the work was concentrated on a study of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and present-day problems in Sweden and other countries, including underdeveloped regions of the world.

A first study of the Universal Declaration was greeted with some indifference by the students. They did not seem to show much interest in a text which appeared at first glance to be composed of paragraphs of legal jargon. On closer examination, however, they realized that the articles treated matters which were very closely connected with their own world. They came to discover that freedoms and conditions of life which are taken for granted in some quarters are by no means universal.

Given their age and background, it is not surprising that the students showed most animation in discussions of such practical issues as rights to equal salaries for equal work, women's chances in education, employment and promotion, or the choice of careers open to women. As the class was mixed, there was no danger of a feminine bias in arguing the pros and cons of the various situations and it can be assumed that both boys and girls had opportunities of broadening their views on these and other subjects concerned with human rights.

The students in the experimental groups were not told that they were engaged in an experimental programme and the tests given before and after the special programme were set and marked by members of the Statens Psykologiska-Pedagogiska Institut of Stockholm. The experimental and control groups were matched on the basis of three criteria: sex, intelligence and educational status.

The attitudes and knowledge of both experimental and control groups were assessed in three preliminary tests, one of general information, one of information on the subject chosen for study and one of attitudes of acceptance or rejection towards the subject. After the period of special instruction, these tests were repeated and the changes (gains or losses) noted for the experimental groups were contrasted with those for the control groups. Those in charge of the evaluation of the project could find no significant difference or trend in knowledge or attitudes after the special instruction or between experimental and control groups. This was attributed to a number of factors such as limitations in the tests themselves, interaction between control and experimental groups who were in daily contact, differences in teaching and other possible 'sources of error'.

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During the period of special instruction the director of the project noted that the students’ analysis of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights revealed a complete acceptance of its principles. He did not therefore expect any particular change in their attitudes; in the director’s opinion the most valuable result of the project was the students’ increased awareness of the meaning of human rights and of the different problems to be met in achieving them.

A STUDY OF CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE BY TEACHER-TRAINING STUDENTS IN BELGIUM

In a group of teacher-training institutions in Belgium students were invited to take part in a special project on the rights of the child and of the adolescent. The organizers chose a project based on a study of children and young people in different countries and different periods of time as being the most apt to develop a sense of international understanding among teacher-training students.

Courses in history, French, education, ethics and history of art were adapted to give scope for the project and the students worked in teams or individually on particular themes which they selected themselves. Students in nursery school, primary school and secondary school sections took part in the work and classes in the demonstration school also contributed to it.

In the nursery school section, the students tackled subjects such as the problems of orphaned children; children in the Congo; child labour; children in Southern Italy. One feature of their course was the preparation of summaries of literary works having children as their main characters. Exchanges of correspondence were made with girls in the Congo, France, Tunisia, Canada, Italy and Switzerland on the subject of ‘the child, the nursery school and the teacher’.

In the primary school section, students drafted a declaration of the rights of the child; in their course on the history of literature they noted the aspects of childhood which had influenced the authors whose works they had studied.

In the French literature course for the secondary school sections, activities included talks and written exercises, with reference to the child and the education of children, on, for example, the role of games, drawing and the theatre. Working in groups, the students prepared a series of studies on the child in literature using three novels by nineteenth-century authors, three novels of the twentieth century, the works of Colette and others. Another class in this section centred its studies on the adolescent in litera-
ture with reference to the works of Georges Duhamel, Roger Martin du Gard, Romain Rolland, Francois Mauriac, Francoise Sagan, Jean Anouilh, and others. In addition, some of the students made a special study of literature written for children and young people.

In the education course, students of primary school teaching worked in teams on a study of schools where new methods are in use and made a comparative study of school legislation covering such matters as compulsory schooling in different countries. Secondary school teaching students examined the questions of children’s homes, juvenile delinquency in Belgium and abroad, and the selection and training of teachers in different countries (Congo, Netherlands, United Kingdom, and United States).

Other subjects studied were the great educationists of different countries; some national and international organizations for education (Unesco; International Bureau of Education; New Education Fellowship; Institut J. J. Rousseau; Teachers College, Columbia University; etc.). The problem of the rights of the child was studied with special reference to three aspects: the right to life; the right to education and the right to choose a way of life adapted to one's tastes and aptitudes.

Texts for use in English, Dutch and German language classes were selected with the theme of the special project in mind and, for studies of juvenile delinquency and children’s rights, the training school pupils used documentation published in the United Kingdom, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland.
CHAPTER IV

TEACHING ABOUT OTHER COUNTRIES

The description of projects in the preceding chapters shows that for a study of international co-operation or of a problem concerning human rights, a knowledge of other countries is essential to provide a background and to illustrate the study in terms of human needs and achievements. In a project on the work of the United Nations, some detailed information on the selected region or group of countries is usually given as an introduction, further facts and impressions are gathered in the process of discovering what work is carried out by the United Nations and why; and reference is usually made to economic and cultural relations with other countries or to the part they have played in the history of the region being studied.

Taking into account the needs and abilities of their pupils, some teachers have found it profitable to make a country and its people the focus of interest in a special project, using whatever opportunities may occur to discuss problems of human rights and examples of international co-operation.

A study of other countries can be fitted into most secondary school programmes with relatively little difficulty and, given some human interest, appeals to most age groups in the school. It was perhaps for this reason that about two-thirds of the hundred schools taking part in the Unesco Associated Schools Projects in 1956 chose this theme from among the three proposed as subjects for a controlled experiment. (The other two themes were: the rights of women, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.)

With younger children in secondary schools or in types of school where activities are not governed by examination requirements, teachers have been able to carry out very successful programmes designed simply to familiarize their pupils with the way of life and the characteristics of another country, often far removed from their own.
Among children who have taken an active part in such studies by collecting and comparing information, looking at illustrations and films, discussing the differences and similarities they have detected and, if possible, making some personal contacts through interviews or letters, feelings of friendliness and interest begin to take the place of the apathy, 'stereotypes' or even the prejudices which may have existed in their minds before. Teachers who have organized this type of project frequently receive requests from their pupils for another programme of the same kind.

STUDYING JAPAN IN SWITZERLAND

Fifty girls (11 to 12 years old) in the first- and second-year classes of a secondary school in Switzerland chose Japan as the theme of a special project. Most of the work, which was spread over a period of eighteen months, was done in French, history, geography and art classes, and translations from Japanese literature were used for exercises in grammar, vocabulary, composition and elocution. In addition, Japan became a centre of interest to which many different activities in the school contributed.

The project was introduced by an exchange of letters and small gifts with a group of Japanese girls of the same age as the Swiss children. Photographs were also exchanged to give a more personal note to the correspondence. The letters and pictures from Japan were used, with other materials, in the preparation of a monograph or booklet on the country; it was on this and on the exhibition planned for the end of the project that the children focused their work. The scope of the programme is reflected in the index to the monograph which covered history, geography, language and writing; the arts (literature, theatre, painting, music); the secondary arts (gardens and flower arrangement, lacquer work, pottery); customs and traditions (buildings, costume, food, festivals, funerals and mourning, the tea ceremony, Bushido), religions, beliefs and legends; women and the family; modern Japan, cultural life.

Some chapters of the monograph were composed by groups of pupils working together and some by individual efforts. When the documentation was too difficult to be used directly by the children, it was first explained by the teacher and discussed in class.

Chapters dealing with social questions, reforms, relations with Western countries, or comparison of civilizations were discussed thoroughly in class before being written as a group enterprise. In the teacher's opinion, these discussions contributed the most to international understanding. It was observed that problems such as disarmament, Western influences,
the introduction of technical skills, the question of abandoning or keeping up traditional customs, carried the discussions far beyond purely national considerations.

During this time, Japan and things Japanese became the children's main preoccupation in out-of-class activities. The Japanese embassy lent them documentary films and an embassy official talked on modern Japan; the Unesco travelling exhibition of Japanese wood-cuts visited the school and the children copied some of the prints to illustrate their book; they even staged a performance of traditional Japanese plays, the No and the Kiogen. A Japanese visitor, who spent a whole day at the school, talked about her country's folk-lore, showed the children flower arrangements and decorated bamboos, and helped them to prepare and serve a typical Japanese meal.

In the tests given before they had begun the programme the pupils showed no feelings of prejudice against Japan, but revealed a completely false or at least superficial knowledge of the country. They knew virtually nothing about Asian civilizations and constantly confused Japan with China. It was noted, however, that in attitude tests on international understanding given after the completion of the programme the children in the experimental groups had made considerably greater gains than those in the control groups. The explanation may be that the children's feelings of friendliness and interest towards the country they had come to know through the project had had a positive influence on their outlook on other countries in general.

STUDY OF SOUTH-EAST ASIAN COUNTRIES IN AN INDIAN SCHOOL

A comparable teaching experiment was carried out in a boys' boarding school in Gwalior, India (200 miles from Delhi) with a group of about thirty boys aged 14 to 15 in the first and second years of the course leading to the Cambridge School Certificate examination. Boys at this level were chosen mainly because they were studying subjects which could most easily be adapted to a project on another country or region and also partly because of their ability to read and express themselves in English.

The theme of their study, agreed on unanimously by boys and teachers alike, was a group of countries in South-East Asia (Ceylon, Burma, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia, Viet-Nam, Malaya and Indonesia). The reasons for their choice are interesting: the region chosen had traditional and cultural ties with India and there was a deep and newly awakened interest in the countries because they had all recently achieved independence; they were neighbours of India and yet the boys knew practically nothing about them or their people. The teachers intended to introduce a study of the work
of the United Nations and its agencies into the project, but the main emphasis was to be on developing knowledge of ties with India.

Three or four months were spent in planning lessons and collecting and preparing materials. The project itself was conducted intensively over a period of two months, and teachers of history, geography, economics, English language and literature and art co-operated in the work. Lesson periods concerned with the project were allocated as follows: history (background up to 1947), 21 lessons; geography, 18 lessons; politics, civics, health education, work of the United Nations, 20 lessons; economics, 8 lessons; cultural background, religion, everyday life, 16 lessons; practical and creative work, film showings, 24 lessons (additional time was given to these activities in free afternoon periods and in the evening after school hours).

Two features of the project which distinguished it from the usual classroom activities gave the experiment a special interest and helped to ensure its success: the opportunities provided for practical and creative work, and the scope for independent, individual achievement by the pupils. The teachers in charge of the project would have preferred to spread the work over a longer period and they regretted the scarcity of materials suitable for direct use by the pupils. But the practical work and the materials constructed in art classes helped to make up for the lack of pictures and documentation. To illustrate their project, the boys, under the guidance of art and geography teachers, made a large relief map in clay and cement of South-East Asia; they reproduced paintings, sculptures and architectural designs and made copies of Indonesian 'batik' work; in history and economics classes they prepared posters, maps, charts and statistical diagrams. The school theatre group organized a pageant on South-East Asia.

All the relevant pictures and publications that could be collected, such as United Nations posters and pamphlets, copies of *The Unesco Courier* and geographical magazines published abroad and in India, were used to make a United Nations 'Corner' and a small library on South-East Asia.

To make up for the shortage of printed materials, the organizers of the project sought the aid of embassies and legations in obtaining pictures and documentation for the school and in arranging visits by persons who would talk to the boys about the countries being studied. Some material was

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1. The students studied the art and architecture of South-East Asian countries with the senior art master and completed the following models, paintings, etc.: a model of a Burmese pagoda in clay; a sculpture frieze from Borobudur copied in clay; a painting from a pagoda in Laos copied on a large masonite board; copies of paintings from Cambodia, Ceylon and Java; two large frescoes showing (a) rice planting in Thailand and (b) Sanghamitra taking the Bodhi sapling to Ceylon; a 24 x 7½ ft. screen filled with drawings of scenes, figures, dances, temples, mosques and pagodas, racial types, masks, and everyday activities to illustrate South-East Asia, done in black and red linework and pastel colours; a large Buddha image; a large Nataraja; a Moslem dome with a pinnacle topped by the crescent and the star.
collected in this way and a visit from a member of the Ceylon High Commission proved a great success. The teachers were convinced that a personal contact of this kind had a unique educational value in the study of another country.

Special syllabuses were planned in history, geography, religion, culture and everyday life (given by the languages master), art, politics and civics. The lists of lesson topics, chosen to illustrate a survey of social, political and cultural changes and developments in South-East Asia up to the present day, give an interesting insight into the history of the region. For example, lessons 5, 6 and 7 in the history programme are described as follows:


The teachers based their evaluation of the project largely on personal observation and on talks with the boys in the experimental classes. This evidence and the written answers to questionnaires satisfied them that the course had not only increased their pupils' factual knowledge about the region studied but had also developed in them a conscious, sympathetic reaction towards its people and their problems. They were quick to comment on any news of South-East Asia appearing in papers or heard on the radio; when the annual school excursions were being planned they requested visits to the nearest countries, Burma or Ceylon; they impressed an Indian official visiting the school by their informed inquiries and observations on South-East Asia.

The interest and enthusiasm of the experimental class was caught by other boys and at least two more classes asked to be given similar projects to work on. It was the teachers' opinion that, if problems of time and materials could be successfully overcome, such projects might be made a feature of the normal year's curriculum in several senior classes.
TRAVELS IN A POLISH CLASS-ROOM

As a part of their contribution to Unesco's programme of Associated Schools Projects, four of the upper classes of a girls’ school in Warsaw (Poland) have spent a number of lesson periods each term in studying one or two foreign countries. Lectures given by the teachers or by visitors, talks and recitations prepared by the pupils, are illustrated with filmstrips and pictures to suggest an imaginary journey in France, Japan, Viet-Nam, the United Kingdom or Switzerland, the countries chosen for study. The girls collect whatever materials they can find in magazines and journals and exchange letters and pictures with young people in these countries. The pupils corresponding with Japan and Viet-Nam have received drawings from their pen friends and have sent them publications on Poland. Arrangements are being made for exchange visits with a group of French girls from Nancy in France.

Teachers report that the girls have broadened their knowledge of other lands and peoples. They are also showing renewed interest in modern language courses in an effort to improve the standard of their letters to girls in other countries.

STUDYING ORIENTAL COUNTRIES IN AN AMERICAN SCHOOL

As a part of their project to promote understanding between East and West, students and teachers of a girls’ high school in Washington, D.C. (U.S.A.) arranged a display for presentation at the school assembly which they entitled ‘Glimpses of Asian culture’. The programme included the performance of Oriental dances, Indian music, and Western style music composed on Asian themes. Speakers from Ceylon and Pakistan helped to give the audience a clearer picture of the peoples and customs of their respective countries.

The teacher in charge of the project has encouraged her students to make India a centre of interest. In home economics classes, for example, they have studied Indian foods and Indian clothing. Objects illustrating arts and crafts of India have been collected for display in the school show-case and groups of students have visited the Indian Embassy for talks with officials.
A study of Turkey undertaken by a group of boys (aged 13 to 14 years) in the third year of a secondary (grammar) school was organized to fill history and geography periods for one term (a total of four 45-minute lessons per week, with the addition of six periods taken from religious instruction classes).

Extra time was given to the boys for film showings and to attend a lecture by a Turkish visitor to the school.

Teachers of history and geography collaborated closely in planning the course to ensure that there would be no duplication in the lessons and in order to impress on their pupils the interaction of historical and geographical forces in the development of a country.

The choice of Turkey as the subject of a special course was approved by teachers and boys; it was selected as being a country whose history and geographical position placed it 'at the crossroads' between what is commonly regarded as East and West.

On the history side, Turkey was studied within the context of the Middle East and with special reference to the work of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. The syllabus was planned in four parts: (a) the Ottoman Empire; (b) Mustafa Kemal and modern Turkey; (c) post-war Turkey; (d) aspects of modern Turkey. As a special exercise, each boy kept his own diary of events in the Middle East, illustrated with news cuttings and pictures.

In the geography course, the boys studied the following topics as an introduction: the political map of Europe; changes in 1914-18 and after 1945; the physical map of Europe; racial groups (Mediterranean, Alpine and Nordic).

They went on to discuss topics from which they learnt something of physical conditions (rainfall, earthquakes, climate, distribution of commodities, agriculture), the Turkish people (Turkey and her neighbours, racial migrations, people and their dress) and occupations and industries (farming, crops, mineral wealth, industrial progress). In connexion with the subject of earthquake zones they studied the work done in seismology as part of the activities for the International Geophysical Year.

The lessons in religious instruction traced the missionary journeys of St. Paul on a map of present-day Turkey; this in turn led to discussions on religion and archaeology in the Middle East.

The use of formal class-room methods, lectures and note-taking were reduced to a minimum in both history and geography classes. The teachers observed that during the first weeks of the course the boys seemed at a
loss and rather unresponsive to efforts to draw them into discussion. As soon as they had accustomed themselves to the new methods they began to enjoy their independence and the teachers were overwhelmed with questions, suggestions for discussion and demands for materials.

At the beginning of the study the pupils were given notebooks and invited to prepare, as an individual task, a project book on Turkey. This was to be compiled by each boy as he wished, but it was impressed upon them that it was not to be purely a scrapbook. The completed books were displayed in the exhibition on Turkey with which the project culminated and the standard of work put into them was considered to be very satisfactory and a proof of the boys' interest in their subject.

The teachers were able to obtain a useful supply of materials from Specialized Agencies of the United Nations, from the Turkish Embassy and the Turkish Tourist Agency in London and from other sources. Four films were shown, providing some good illustrations of the old and the new in Turkish life; a lecture given by a member of the Turkish Embassy was a source of great interest and on this occasion the teachers observed that the experimental group were quicker with their questions than boys of the sixth (top) class who also attended it.

The exhibition which was devoted to materials on the work of Specialized Agencies of the United Nations as well as to Turkey, was opened to parents and to the rest of the school and, at the request of the Director of Education, it was kept intact for inspection by teachers and headmasters attending a vacation conference at the school.

SOME EXPERIMENTAL PROJECTS DESIGNED TO REDUCE PREJUDICE OR MISUNDERSTANDING

In some schools studies of other countries or regions have been planned with the more clearly defined and deliberate motive of lessening feelings of dislike or mistrust rooted in ignorance, in racial prejudice, in some long-standing antagonism or in rivalry stemming from political or military conflict.

A study of Korea in Japan

As part of a broader programme of teaching about human rights a group of sixty second-year pupils (aged 13 to 14) in a lower secondary school in Japan made a study of Korea with special reference to the Korean people resident in their city, a large industrial port.
The report on this project gives the reasons for the choice of theme: 'The Japanese and the Koreans belong to the same racial family. Japan and Korea have had deep relations historically, geographically, economically and politically. Still, mutual prejudice and lack of understanding have been obstacles in the way of efforts to solve the problems of livelihood. There are more than 600,000 Koreans living in Japan and, within our own school district, we find a considerable number of Korean families, having contacts with our pupils in their daily life. In view of the not always desirable relations that exist between Japanese and Koreans, we decided to take up this theme with the objective of improving pupils' knowledge of and attitudes towards Koreans.'

Over a period of four or five weeks, ten hours of teaching time were devoted to the study. Lessons in the history and geography of Korea designed to supplement the elementary knowledge the pupils had of the country were followed by a talk with a young Korean post-graduate student specializing in economics. The visitor was chosen especially for his fluency in the Japanese language, and because he was believed to be a person of broad views and high intelligence who would quickly be on good terms with the children. This proved to be so and, although he mentioned a number of points not favourable to Japan, there was no ill-feeling among the pupils, who showed a marked improvement in their attitudes as a result of what they had learnt from him.

The next lesson period was spent in writing letters to Korean pupils in a neighbouring school, inviting them to give their opinions on their Japanese neighbours. The replies were to be used as material for a final discussion. Under the guidance of their teachers six delegates from the experimental group met with six Korean children to take part in an open discussion of their problems. This was followed by an afternoon of shared recreational activities, when the children spent an hour playing outdoor games and an hour performing songs, dances and recitations to each other. The lectures, explanations of Korean problems and social interchange between the two groups all contributed to material for a final discussion on the theme of 'what can be done to eliminate mutual prejudice'. Essays written after this discussion by the children in the experimental group suggested that most of them had had a change of attitude as the result of the information they had acquired and the personal contacts with Korean children.

There were, of course, individual differences in the degree of change noted by the teachers. A few of the children, while admitting that the project had corrected many of the impressions they had had about Korea,

were still uncertain of their ability to be on friendly terms with Korean children. Four children showed no change in attitude from the beginning of the project. On the other hand, about one-third of the group were confident of their desire to have Korean friends and were anxious to tell their parents and others outside the school what they had learnt about Korea.

_A study of West African, Chinese and Italian people made by British schoolchildren_

The aim of an experiment in five British secondary schools was to discover how far the attitudes of children towards peoples other than their own can be improved by ordinary educational means, using only the resources normally available in school.

The experiment was planned, carried out and tested by three members of the Institute of Education of the University of London in co-operation with teachers of geography in the schools concerned.

Groups of thirty to forty children aged from 12 to 15 years took part in the project, which consisted of series of lessons on one of three ethnic groups of which the children had little or no accurate knowledge. What little they knew was based largely on hearsay, newspaper headlines or television and cinema and, in a few cases, some personal observation. Ignorance, rather than outright prejudice, was the problem.

The peoples selected for study were West Africans, Italians and Chinese. Each programme was planned to cover eight lessons (two a week) and the teaching was carried out either by the investigators themselves or by the geography teacher. The teaching aids used were purposely limited to films, filmstrips, still pictures (with and without an epidiascope), outline maps and some selected texts from pamphlets, journals and textbooks. The directors of the project realized the value of visits from and social contacts with persons from the country to be studied, and of visits abroad and exchanges of correspondence, but these were excluded because they were not readily available to all schools.

Each group of children followed one of the three series of lessons on West Africa, China or Italy, according to the point they had reached in a geography syllabus which covered Europe, Asia and Africa in different years. For example, those studying Europe were given the course of lessons on Italy.

The outline for each set of lessons and the notes for the teacher were planned in some detail. This was done, not with a view to restricting the teacher's handling of the course, but to meet the requirements for a carefully controlled experiment. Identical materials were supplied with the
notes and the individual interviews were conducted by the same expert. In this way, the conditions for each project were made as uniform as possible although the children themselves came from a variety of social backgrounds and the schools were situated in different localities—a large industrial town, a country market town, a London suburb, a dockyard district.

Change in attitudes was assessed by interviews and questionnaires or by questionnaires alone. To ensure that the changes observed might reasonably be ascribed to the lessons rather than to information and experience acquired in the children's daily life (e.g., through television, films, newspapers, a visit to the school of a foreign speaker) tests were given before and after the series of lessons and also before and after an equal period of time during which no special lessons were given.

The experiments were planned and carried out in the belief that the teaching of geography can be adapted, without detracting from its value as a science, so as not only to provide children with accurate, objective knowledge about other peoples, but also to give them a fuller understanding of the problems of those peoples and a friendly interest in their way of life. Although the directors of the project recognized the difficulties that might be met with in the use of similar programmes and the limitations of their own experiment, the positive results of the projects and their experience in carrying them out confirmed their belief that geography should focus on people rather than places.

The teacher's notes for the lesson units on West Africa were addressed to teachers in British schools. The ideas expressed, however, were similar to those of many teachers in other countries who are concerned with education for international understanding. They stress the importance of active participation by the children; the necessity for avoiding propaganda; the appeal of familiar things; the value of visual aids. The introduction to the lesson notes includes the following points:

'It is important that any improvement in attitude should come from the lessons and not from suggestions by the teacher that children ought to improve their attitudes towards foreign peoples. It is hoped that every opportunity will be taken of stressing the points listed below and that the children will be helped to draw conclusions about them.

'The emphasis in the lessons is on man as an ordinary human being and on his life and work as related to his environment.

'It is hoped that every opportunity will be taken to answer the children's questions, particularly when they relate to working and living conditions.

'Children seem to react favourably at several levels in their attitudes towards foreigners. These may be summarized as follows: (a) foreigners as ordinary human beings, going about their ordinary family life, shopping,
working, going to school, playing games, eating, in fact doing the things which children are accustomed to do themselves; (b) the material signs of modern civilization (industrial development), e.g., cars and bicycles, well-built shops and buildings, factories and docks; (c) foreigners doing jobs, e.g., farming, which are broadly similar to our own, but which differ in detail in ways better suited to the local environment; (d) foreigners producing commodities for export and receiving imports (i.e., mutually helpful trade); (e) any signs of sensible adjustment to environment (e.g., clothes, houses, customs).

A study of Japan in the Philippines

In two Philippine schools, Japan was chosen as the theme for a project on international understanding. Although it was a country with close historical, political and economic ties with the Philippines, feelings of suspicion and dislike concerning the Japanese people had developed as a result of experiences in the Second World War. Signs of devastation and the conversation of their elders constantly reminded the children of the events which had generated these feelings.

Over five hundred children, of whom 178 were in the control groups, took part in the experiment. The aim of the project was to find out how more favourable attitudes towards Japan might best be developed through class-room teaching and through certain methods and materials selected for this teaching.

Over a period of four months the pupils in the experimental groups followed a course of special instruction on the geography, history, civilization, daily life, government, and foreign relations of Japan. The control groups continued to study Japan through the normal syllabus for Oriental history in their social studies course. Papers on these topics were prepared and mimeographed copies circulated among the pupils. The teachers also used library references and publications supplied by the Japanese mission in the Philippines as background information for class-room lectures.

The pupils worked on individual and group projects for which they did their own research. They collected information and illustrations for different topics concerned with Japan and reported on them to the rest of their class; they produced and performed dramatic representations of life in Japan; many pupils worked on scrapbooks and all brought objects and pictures borrowed from homes or friends for a class exhibition on Japan. Letters were exchanged with Japanese pen friends, an activity which proved so popular that complaints were received of there not being enough names.
provided for everyone to have a correspondent. The pupils much apprea-
ted filmstrips on Japan. The teachers also tried to make them aware of
Japanese influences which have been beneficial to the Philippines. They
introduced such subjects as flower-arrangement, home interiors, the tea
ceremony, and holiday celebrations and emphasized the importance to
the Japanese people of their long tradition of education and literacy.

Tests were given before and after the experiment, and, as a further check
on changes in attitudes, the teachers directing the work kept records of the
pupils’ behaviour and comments, based on observation and on personal
interviews. Before the course, each student was asked to write an essay in
which he was invited to express freely his feelings towards Japan and
Japanese people. A second essay was written at the conclusion of the project.

An analysis of the evidence collected in this way convinced the teachers
that the project had been successful in developing in the pupils attitudes
of sympathy or tolerance, not only towards the people who were the subject
of their study, but also towards other peoples and racial groups. Positive
changes in attitude were noted for about 75 per cent of the pupils concerned.
Replies to tests suggested that their general knowledge had also improved.

An additional test, given six months after the end of the project, showed
that the changes were, for the most part, maintained.

The control group, which made gains almost as great as those in the
experimental group, may have been influenced directly or indirectly by
contact with the experimental section of the same school. But in answer
to a questionnaire designed to discover when and how changes had come
about, control group pupils gave a variety of reasons for their more favour-
able attitudes. The settlement of the reparations treaty with Japan was
the most important single factor and this event undoubtedly had an effect
also on the opinions of pupils in the experimental groups. The majority
of the latter, however, claimed that their attitudes had changed most during
the time of the special project as a result of (a) information acquired and
(b) the correspondence with Japanese pen friends.

Remarks in the essays written at the close of this project suggest that the
children whose attitudes changed were affected by much the same qualities
and characteristics as those which influenced the British and Japanese
children in projects described above. For example, they appreciated simi-
larities: ‘They are very industrious like the Filipinos . . . ’ ‘The mothers
take care of their children very well. Their habits are very similar to the
Filipinos. . . .’

Cleanliness, skill, hard work and friendliness were highly rated, and the
physical beauty of the country and the people were recognized. One
teacher was interested to observe the childrens’ favourable reactions to
pictures of Japanese film stars. Co-operation or achievement in the fields of sport or entertainment seem to appeal to most children and young people. For example, in an experiment described earlier the Japanese children spoke of the quickness and skill of the Koreans in ball games, and in the Philippine experiment pupils were impressed by a team of Japanese swimmers. Some of the children in their essays maintained reserves, and some showed no sign of change from earlier opinions. The differences suggest that the children had used their own judgement and had attempted to express themselves with sincerity. One remark in particular exposes the false reasoning at the root of prejudice: 'For the bad things done in the war, people blame even those who were not yet born at that time.'

A STUDY OF MIDDLE EASTERN COUNTRIES

In a co-educational grammar school in Wales a group of thirty-nine boys and girls aged 14 to 15 made a study of the Middle East covering Egypt, Iraq, Israel, Lebanon, Libya and Syria. No special arrangement of the school time-table was necessary, as the study was incorporated into normal courses in history, geography, literature and Latin. Some lessons on religion, cultural history and background, present-day problems and the work of the United Nations were included in the special syllabus.

The school's senior history master, who is also the supervisor of the Associated Schools Projects in the United Kingdom, was in charge of the project. He says in his report: 'The teachers concerned felt strongly that no lasting changes of attitude towards other peoples could be achieved unless the pupils acquired a sound knowledge of the countries they were studying. Without this knowledge their sympathies would be fleeting and unstable and the effect of the course purely superficial and temporary....

In geography the emphasis was on the everyday lives of the people and in the other lessons the stress was on religious beliefs and customs, the contributions of the ancient civilizations and of Judaism and Islam to the world's literature and culture. For the present day, problems of food, health, homes, schools, farming, industry and work for refugees were the main topics....'

Altogether, eighty-one lesson periods of 45 minutes each were allotted to the project, spread over a term and a half (about five months) and exclusive of the time given to tests of knowledge and attitudes taken before and after the course. The periods were divided as follows: geography, 18; religion, 8; literature, 15; history and culture, 12; Latin, 9; biology, 4; present-day problems and work of the United Nations, 15.
Teaching aids and methods used were films and filmstrips, radio recordings, maps, illustrative work and discussions together with normal classroom methods of lectures, questions and notes. Most of the films shown were used as the basis for geography lessons; in history classes religions, Arab and Jewish contributions to the world's civilizations, modern history and present-day problems and the work of the United Nations in the Middle East were studied.

The children greatly appreciated their individual assignments and carried them out with enthusiasm. Each child made his or her own file of illustrations and news-cuttings and wrote two illustrated essays, one on a topic related to Islam or Israel generally and another on the work of the United Nations in the Middle East. The subjects of the essays were selected from themes previously discussed in the classroom and included, for example, Islamic architecture, arts and crafts, Arab and Jewish music, Israel's achievements in modern times. Essays on the work of the United Nations gave accounts of the campaign against locusts and against malaria and other diseases, desert reclamation and irrigation, fundamental education, relief of refugees and technical assistance.

The teachers collected a special library for the project, to help the pupils with their essays and to encourage home reading. The two rooms used for the work on the Middle East became the background for displays of posters, maps, pictures, photographs and other materials obtained from Unesco, the United Nations Information Centre in London, the Council for Education in World Citizenship, and the Central Office of Information. Both teachers and pupils took part in collecting and setting up the displays which were changed frequently and sometimes used as the focus for a lesson.

Some correspondence with schools abroad was organized as a part of the project, and the children exchanged letters with pupils in Lebanon and with a school in Libya to which they had sent Unesco Gift Coupons. They also raised money for the work of Unicef by school collections and the sale of Unicef Christmas cards.

A Syrian teacher studying at a neighbouring university visited the school and talked about the schools, religious customs and beliefs and everyday life in his own country. The children, who were impressed both by the talk and by meeting someone from the region they were studying, had many questions to ask the speaker.

Tests of knowledge and attitudes were given to the group working on the project and to a control group in another school. In addition, the pupils were asked, at the end of the course, to give their opinions on it in reply to a questionnaire. They also wrote essays, some six weeks later, commenting on the value and interest they had found in the work. The
teachers based their conclusions on this evidence and on conversations with the pupils and with their parents.

The results of the tests, which were analysed by an educational psychologist, showed that the knowledge of the project group had undoubtedly increased. The differences in marks before and after the course for the section on the work of the United Nations was particularly striking.

The children were unanimous in declaring that the project had been well worth while. Although the work demanded considerably more time and effort than their normal studies, they all requested another course on similar lines saying that they had found the project 'more interesting and useful than ordinary school work'. They especially appreciated the films, the teachers' lessons and the individual research and essays.

The report of the teachers responsible for the project says: 'The different parts of the course fitted well together to give a complete picture of the Middle East in the past and in the present. The human approach was as invigorating to the teachers as to the pupils and the variety of methods used was certainly an important reason for the success of the experiment. . . .'

It was observed that those pupils considered as less intelligent than their fellows benefited particularly from the use of several different approaches in carrying out the project and 'displayed an interest and an energy that their normal school work never seems to arouse'.

With regard to changes in attitudes, the report mentions the children's study of Judaism and Islam as being 'one of the most successful . . . parts of the course and one that did a great deal to dispel false conceptions and prejudices'. The report says, in addition: 'The United Nations captured the children's imagination and was a major factor in the development of an international outlook and a greater sympathy for the problems of other countries and their peoples.'

VISITORS IN THE CLASS-ROOM

Ideally, the study of another country, planned with the purpose of knowing and understanding its people better, would be followed by a journey to that country to 'see for oneself'. In some school systems opportunities for travel abroad enable the children to round out, through some first-hand experience, the knowledge they have previously acquired of a country through books, pictures and films.

But these children are still the fortunate few; in most cases it is necessary to find other means of bringing the world into the class-room and of making the personal ties and contacts which alone can give life and colour
to the study of another culture or region. Visual aids of all kinds are useful; discs, tape recordings and radio programmes bring the music, voices and typical sounds of distant places into the class-room; probably the best substitute for travel is to talk with a person belonging by birth or association to the country chosen for special study and teachers have often observed the warmth of their pupils' response and the vivid impressions left by even an hour of questioning and discussion on these occasions. Replies to questionnaires given to children to discover their reactions to a special teaching project on another country suggest that the climax of the programme is the appearance in the class-room of a visitor who can not only give a faithful description of people, places and customs, but who can reply with confidence to their questions.

The personality of the visiting speaker is an important factor. People from many different backgrounds have lent their assistance in this way to schools engaged in projects on their countries; students, housewives, teachers, economists, politicians and artists all have an interesting contribution to make to a study of their country provided that their temperament and training equip them to deal with children and young people and that there are no serious language barriers.

Finding a suitable person for such a visit and arranging for his or her reception at an appropriate time is often a problem. For schools in isolated towns or rural districts it is particularly difficult. But determined teachers have shown great resourcefulness in engaging the help of embassies and legations or in taking advantage of, for example, the presence of foreign students at nearby universities, of teachers on sabbatical leave or exchange teachers and of people newly settled in the community.

A report from a British school on a project on the West Indies suggests that much of the success of the programme was due to visits from West Indian people living in the neighbourhood. Talks on food, clothes, customs, art and music were the basis of lively discussion in the class-room. The pupils were encouraged by what they had learnt to attempt performances of calypsos, mimes and puppet plays composed by themselves. The exhibition arranged at the close of the project was opened for an evening to parents and friends of the children and, on this occasion, a group of West Indians gave a demonstration of music and dance.

At a French lycée, a visit from a group of Brazilian teachers led to an exchange of letters and illustrated albums between pupils in the sixth class (11 to 12 years) and a school in Brazil.

For a group of 14-year-old boys and girls in a school in Wales studying Middle Eastern countries, three students from Iraq each volunteered to give a fifteen-minute talk on one aspect of life in their country. The inter-
view developed into a discussion lasting over two hours and long past the normal school closing time. The teacher in charge of the project mentions that lessons on the Moslem religion and Islamic civilization following this visit were particularly successful.

For a study of a region which involves discussion of controversial problems it is important to present the pupils with different points of view. This was achieved in a British school where the subject of a special study was South Africa. The school was not far from London and it was possible to arrange for visits from four people with different backgrounds but all having close connexions with the country. Thus, the pupils were able to hear and to question the headmaster of a European school in South Africa, an African woman graduate of Johannesburg University, a South African journalist and an English teacher who had spent six years in South Africa.

In some cases the resources of the school itself can be tapped to find speakers from among the teaching staff or even the students. In the project on Japan carried out by a school in the Philippines (see above), a Japanese pupil demonstrated to the class some of the intricacies of Japanese writing. In Australia, where many immigrants from European countries have settled, a recently published guide for teachers on activities to develop international understanding includes suggestions for presenting a folk dancing festival for which 'new' Australian parents and children may be invited to perform the dances of their countries of origin.

A feature of the Unesco programme of Associated Schools Projects has been the award of fellowships for travel and study to teachers and educators engaged in the programme. The groups of fellowship holders, usually four or five persons from different countries, have visited participating schools to observe experimental teaching projects and to discuss the work in their own schools. In addition, they have addressed the pupils, taken part in some of the lessons and in social activities organized by the host schools. The visits have, for the most part, proved mutually successful in stimulating interest in the respective countries and in establishing, in a very brief time, friendly and lasting relationships. A report from a Canadian school which welcomed teachers from Afghanistan, Austria, Denmark and India speaks of the occasion as 'the highlight of the year's activities'.

Talks with holders of fellowships coming from Colombia, France, Japan and Switzerland made a deep impression on pupils in Norwegian schools; the visitors were impressed, in their turn, by the ease with which the pupils were able to converse in English, chosen as a common language for the interviews, and the intelligent questions which were put to them in the classes they attended.

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There is another alternative to travel which is within reach of almost any school and which has been proved to have excellent results. This is to arrange some scheme of exchange between the group of pupils working on a project and their counterparts in the country being studied. Writing letters and sending photographs to a pen friend abroad is not, of course, a new activity; it is encouraged through radio programmes and journals for young people in a number of countries. The teacher in charge of a project in education for international understanding can carry this process one step further and turn to good account his pupils’ very natural instinct for communication by organizing an exchange of correspondence as a group activity.

A two-way exchange of letters and other materials between children of similar age, on however modest a scale, gives a spice of human interest to the study of another country which the richest and most varied selection of books and films may not be certain to achieve. In a co-operative effort of this kind each child in the class can play his part, according to his abilities, by contributing a piece of creative work or by helping in the collection and preparation of pictures and other materials. Everyone can have some measure of responsibility and personal interest in the exchange and, at the same time, the work of writing, gathering and appraising materials, and finding the answers to questions in the letters received, can be fairly distributed.

From the experience of schools taking part in the Associated Schools Project which have organized such exchanges, it is clear that the teacher himself should make the first approach to the corresponding school and should be reasonably certain of a satisfactory response before allowing the children to plan their letters. The correspondence will be easier to control and of more value to the study if, at first, letters and other materials are centred on a few themes chosen to suit the tastes and intellectual level of the class, for example, family life, sports, clothes and food, local occupations and industries, regional studies of a town, a village or a seaport. Descriptions of some of these or similar topics will help to set the scene and, in classes of older children, more difficult or controversial subjects can later be tackled, for example, the rights of women and their place in society, standards of living in town and country, the arts, religion, race prejudice or other forms of discrimination, current events or current world problems.

In the school which launches the exchange the children should be encouraged to ask questions and to invite their correspondents to ask questions in their turn. In this way they will come to realize that details which may
seem banal to themselves are often a source of wonder to someone living in another climate, eating different food and studying another set of textbooks. Compiling and selecting the materials to send to another country sometimes results in arousing in the children a new interest in their own surroundings, a fact which was noticed by a history teacher in the Netherlands who had helped his class of thirty boys and girls to prepare illustrated albums and scrapbooks to send abroad.

The problem of language and the cost of postage are two important factors in planning an exchange which are likely to influence the choice of a correspondent school and to set a limit on the quantity and kind of materials to be exchanged.

Where there is no available means of making translations fairly quickly and easily, there will be less risk of disappointment or discouragement, if the two groups of correspondents are able to use a common language. Successful exchanges have been carried on, for example, between schools in India and Australia, in Britain and the West Indies, and in Japan and the United States. In spite of apparent language difficulties, however, some more unusual combinations have had good results, for example, Switzerland and Japan, Yugoslavia and the United Kingdom, Netherlands and Ecuador, Denmark and Israel, Norway and Japan.

Where long distances or customs regulations have to be taken into account, it may be necessary for reasons of economy to forego the sending of small gifts, which is often a popular feature of exchange schemes. To judge from reports of school projects received in Unesco such restrictions still leave room for variety in making up packages to send abroad. For instance, students in a teacher-training school in Switzerland who prepared albums to send to schools in Germany, Yugoslavia and Uruguay, illustrated each linguistic region of their country with a folk-tale, a cookery recipe, a song, a poem and an example of local customs; other sections included an account of national sports, an historical outline and portraits of three great men. Some of the younger students wrote and illustrated an account of Christmas in Switzerland.

Pupils of a secondary school in Yugoslavia taught themselves folk songs and dances with the aid of written instructions, diagrams and sheet music sent to them by schoolgirls in Wales (United Kingdom); correspondence between Greek and Swiss girls led to a group visit to Greece; a West Indian teacher has arranged an exchange of paintings between his own pupils and girls in a school near London.

To help its members in planning exchanges, the School Affiliation Service of the Society of Friends (Quakers) has circulated a list of themes and materials headed ‘What can we exchange?’ Some of the items have
already been given above, but among other suggestions the list includes postcard collections, regional maps, studies of plants and animals, samples of things to eat (e.g., maple syrup, sunflower seeds, nuts, herbs), small dolls dressed in regional costume, gramophone records or tape recordings of songs and playlets, and puppets. Other suggestions are travel folders or advertising matter such as posters or catalogues to illustrate trades and industries.

For schools not already associated with some international service or organization, such as the Schools Affiliation Service mentioned above or the Unesco Associated Schools Projects, there are a number of national and international non-governmental organizations which are prepared to help in finding suitable correspondents abroad. The International Federation of Organizations for School Correspondence and Exchanges has bureaux in twenty-five countries; most of the international youth organizations such as the Junior Red Cross and the Boy Scouts Association can assist with correspondence exchanges.\(^1\) National branches of teachers associations, educational journals and international relations societies can often provide suggestions and advice and, in some countries, there are voluntary associations, such as the League of Friendship in the United States,\(^2\) which have been formed especially to encourage correspondence exchanges. As sponsor of an international tape exchange programme, the Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide in the United States,\(^3\) publishes names and addresses of people abroad interested in tape exchanges with schools and other organizations in the United States, and gives, in addition, valuable information concerning packaging and customs regulations.

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1. Addresses of these organizations are given in Appendix IV.
2. P.O. Box 509, Mount Vernon, Ohio (U.S.A.).
3. 2,000 Lincoln Park West Building, Chicago 14, Illinois (U.S.A.).
CHAPTER V

SOME WAYS OF USING THE CURRICULUM

Few planned projects in education for international understanding are attempted or successfully accomplished without drawing on the materials of a number of curriculum subjects although, because of the choice of theme, or for other reasons, the programme may be centred in a particular discipline. This is as it should be, if it is accepted that international understanding is one of the end products of a full and balanced education and not a separate element in the educational programme. At meetings of teachers and educators who have come together to discuss methods and materials and how they can best be used to develop international understanding in school, the belief is frequently expressed that any subject in the regular secondary school curriculum has something to contribute. Descriptions of school activities aimed at developing international understanding seem to support this belief.

HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY AND SOCIAL STUDIES

Modern educational practice, tending towards a broadening or humanizing of these subjects so that they become truly 'social' studies, is an encouragement to many teachers to help their pupils develop attitudes of tolerance and sympathy towards other countries and other races. In schools where geography is taught as the study of man in his environment, and where the curriculum allows space and time for the consideration of events and movements in history outside the national scene, the programme may be said to be already oriented towards education for international understanding.

1. A more detailed treatment of these subjects is to be found, in the Unesco series Towards World Understanding, in No. IX, Suggestions on the Teaching of History; No. X, Some Suggestions on the Teaching of Geography; No. XI, History Textbooks and International Understanding.
Several of the projects in British, Danish, Indian and other schools described in Chapters II and IV were developed largely by adapting the history and geography syllabuses. In another Danish school, in the second year of an experimental course, the pupils studied the history of efforts made to maintain peace between states, and examples of international cooperation. A textbook, *People and Peace through 3,000 Years*, was specially prepared for the work.

In a Belgian school, voluntary groups of older boys (15 to 18 years) under the guidance of the history and geography teachers, studied periods in history illustrating interdependence of States and nations and examples of international co-operation past and present. One group took the theme of Belgium under the Romans to show how commercial relations were established throughout the Empire, to the benefit of Roman civilization. A second group studied interdependence during the Renaissance and, under the supervision of the geography teacher, a third group examined the questions of economic interdependence in the modern world, with particular reference to commercial relations affecting the port of Antwerp. The work was done outside school hours during the weekly half-holidays and the parents' association awarded prizes for those who completed the courses.

A three-year course in the social studies in a boys' model secondary school in Cairo (United Arab Republic) included the following topics: world equilibrium and causes of hostility between Eastern and Western blocs, hopes for securing world peace and international understanding; problems of world output and how far it meets man's needs, means of exploiting all economic resources so as to raise living standards, and the role of the United Nations and of the Food and Agriculture Organization in this work; the problem of colonization, its motives, its evils and the fruits of self-rule.

NATURAL SCIENCES

Subjects which come under this heading, for example, geology, botany and zoology, bring a mass of valuable factual information to the study of any of the world problems concerned with health, nutrition, agriculture, plant and animal pests, forestry, oil, atomic energy, etc., and help to explain the reasons for high or low standards of living.

Biology and physiology make a scientific contribution to a study of race relations or problems arising from racial discrimination. Lessons on the natural sciences often refer to the works of world-famous scientists whose
achievements have benefited all countries. Some of these men and women are among the great humanitarians whose lives can be studied in greater detail through literature or biographical history, for example, Nansen, Curie, Schweitzer.

The headmaster of a school in Vienna participating in the Unesco Associated Schools Projects is the author of a zoology textbook used in all Austrian grammar schools which draws attention to themes for developing a wider human understanding. He mentions, for example, the scientists of different nations who have contributed to biological research, opportunities for welfare work, first aid, measures to be taken against the spread of infectious diseases, and finally makes some observations on a peaceful community of nations as a biological necessity.

LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

These subjects have an obvious contribution to make to international understanding. To know something of the written and spoken language of another group of people is already to have some acquaintance with them as persons. Literature, from folk-lore to philosophy, reflects the spirit and the cultural traditions of a country or of a period. For younger pupils, folk-tales, proverbs, songs and poetry help to explain the beliefs and the way of life of a region, supplementing and illustrating what they may know of its history. This is one means of introducing children to cultural regions with which they normally have little contact even through their textbooks.

For girls aged 16 to 17 years in a school in Hamburg the French language and literature course for one year was converted into a study of France and the French people. The students read extracts from French literature and from the works of philosophical writers, in particular those concerned with human rights (e.g., Montesquieu, Rousseau) and discussed what they read with the French 'assistants' who were teaching in the school. Out-of-class activities included showings of French films, visits to art exhibitions and lectures from members of the Institut Francais.

A working party of senior pupils in the same school, formed to study problems of religious or racial discrimination, read and discussed a variety of texts ranging from extracts of Hitler's Mein Kampf to The Diary of Anne Frank and including anti-Semitic propaganda as well as articles in the bulletin published by the German section of the International Congress of Christians and Jews.

2. See also The Teaching of Modern Languages, Paris, Unesco, 1955. (Problems in Education, no. X.)
Novels, plays and diaries often contain vivid descriptions of the social conditions and great events of earlier times. Extracts from the work of writers such as Dickens, Gorky, Tolstoy, Tagore and Ibsen can be used to illustrate stages in social progress, in the emancipation of women, in religious freedom, and in the struggle for human rights in other domains.

Groups of students (18 to 19 years) in three secondary schools in Norway on which a project on human rights was conducted through studies in French, English, Norwegian and history used specially prepared reading lists of materials both in the original and in translation. The pupils read, in the appropriate language or literature classes, extracts from the works of Swift, Goldsmith, J. S. Mill, Dos Passos, Voltaire, Rousseau, St. Exupéry and Norwegian authors. They also studied the lives of great humanitarians, including some of those who have been awarded the Nobel Prize for peace.

In many schools language classes perform a useful service in preparing translations of passages needed for study in other classes, or in translating captions for pictures and posters obtained from abroad.

MUSIC

Music, which may be said to have its own international language, circulates more freely about the world than any other form of art. In most secondary schools, although only a small minority of the students make a serious study of music, lessons in music appreciation, singing classes and increasing opportunities to listen to recorded or broadcast music provide a rich variety of musical experience for many children in school. Like painting, music may appeal to the senses as well as to the intellect and so leave a strong impression. It is an art that can be shared actively even by the listener.

In learning the words and tunes of songs from other countries quite young children begin to have a sense of the variety or differences in traditional songs and folk-music. At the secondary school level, they can relate their impressions to the factual knowledge they have acquired of a given region. At this stage they have more skill in reproducing the music and they can begin to learn about the origin and meaning of old songs and dances. In studying countries with a long musical tradition but little written music, they will perhaps have to rely on tape recordings or discs, a concert performance or an appropriate visitor. Research will give their discoveries an added value. They may discover that variations of the same tune or song are familiar in different countries, a finding which might provide a topic for a discussion on the history of intercultural influences.
The works of great composers, to be heard in many different parts of the world, are a constant reminder of the sharing of cultural treasures and of the universal appeal of the arts.

In teaching projects centred in a particular country or region recordings of traditional songs and dances are sometimes used to give colour to the study and to help create the atmosphere of town or rural life.

**DRAWING, PAINTING, MODELLING, HANDICRAFTS**

In classes where teaching is by active methods these arts are encouraged with the aim of rousing the pupils' interest and involving them personally in a project, and also as a means of providing visual aids, objects for exhibitions, properties and costumes for dramatics and materials to be used or studied by other pupils in the school.

Among the younger age groups in secondary schools, and especially for those pupils who have difficulty in expressing themselves in writing, drawing, painting and handwork have proved to be very satisfactory means of expression. Teachers have observed that their less intellectually gifted pupils learn and retain more and achieve a higher standard of work when they are given opportunities to take part in preparing, for example, posters or charts to illustrate social or economic life in a given region. This kind of activity also gives experience in co-operation. When the teacher and the class have decided on their objective, the art teacher can assist by proposing different ways of interpreting the theme; the class mathematicians can work on the statistics, the artistic pupils can organize the design and the colouring, the neat-fingered can contribute by making collages or mounting the finished products.

Reports on special programmes undertaken in the Associated Schools Projects suggest that all these activities have played an important part in projects to develop international understanding. When materials to illustrate the work of the United Nations were found to be lacking, students in a Welsh boys' school prepared it themselves and the materials formed part of an end-of-term exhibition. In schools in Ecuador, Costa Rica, India, Philippines and Switzerland students themselves made the materials for exhibitions on the countries they had studied, e.g., dolls dressed in traditional costume, decorated albums portraying life in other countries, national flags and badges, models of dwellings and relief maps. The art syllabus for an Egyptian boys' school includes a study of folk-lore, the sources and use of local raw materials in arts and crafts and the influences of Oriental art upon European trends in art. The course stresses that art
is not a luxury but a social necessity. Other examples of creative and practical work are given in Chapter VI on extra-curricular activities.

Secondary school pupils of all age groups appreciate opportunities of studying and reproducing examples of painting, sculpture or the decorative arts typical of the country or region they are studying. If visits to museums or art exhibitions cannot be arranged, collections of reproductions or illustrations from journals make a good substitute.

Unesco is working to popularize the greatest artistic achievements of different epochs, and has published a set of illustrated catalogues giving information on the sources of reproductions of paintings. Travelling exhibitions of reproductions of art representative of different cultures and different times have circulated in many countries. The Unesco World Art Series offers a further selection of reproductions of great works of art in the form of albums, and individual prints from the albums can also be obtained (titles of the exhibitions and albums are given in Chapter VII, ‘Materials’).

The above remarks are only an indication of what may be done for international understanding within the limits of several of the curriculum subjects most frequently found in the secondary school programme. It is not intended to suggest that international understanding can be developed successfully through any single subject, nor, on the other hand, that all the activities mentioned are essential to a good programme.

A planned programme involving several subjects probably has the most impact and is likely to have the greatest effect in orienting the whole life of a school towards a world outlook. Although it may be more difficult to organize and co-ordinate, such a programme, once it has been launched, may be less likely to disrupt the required syllabus. Finally, the extra work of preparation and research may be shared among the teachers of the different subjects concerned. Planning and reporting on the progress of the work sometimes leads to closer co-operation between teachers in different subject fields and between teachers and their students.

Norwegian pupils' study of the problem of refugees

Encouraged by the results of a teaching experiment in the fifth year gymnasiu m classes (18 to 19 years) of a group of three Norwegian secondary schools, the educational authorities, with the assistance of a special committee established by the National Commission for Unesco, authorized a second project to be carried out in four schools in classes in the third and last year of the realskole (16 to 17 years). They selected this age group for the experiment because its activities would be of interest to a much larger
school-going population than was represented by the pre-university gymnasium classes, and because participation in this or parallel experiments would give the pupils an opportunity to study a problem of international significance in their last year of secondary school.

The project was centred in a study of the refugee problem, a theme which illustrates the denial of human rights and represents a social injustice which in the modern world can only be righted through international co-operation. The study was made through three curriculum subjects, Norwegian, history and geography, with close co-operation between them. A short but concentrated time-table was proposed covering about one month during the autumn term and allowing three periods a week for each subject. This allowed from forty to fifty 45-minute periods including time for testing and for three final joint meetings of all the experimental classes. To make time for the extra work involved, the regular syllabus in each of the three subjects was reduced.

Study and research on the different topics was done by groups of two to four pupils during two or more consecutive class periods at a time; each group afterwards summarized its findings in a joint report to the whole class. Materials for the project were not selected for examination purposes and it was emphasized that the criterion of the experiment would be the formation of the pupils' attitudes towards the problem studied, rather than their detailed knowledge of the subject matter.

The outline of topics to be studied and discussed was as follows:

Fridtjof Nansen and his work for refugees: (a) Nansen in the League of Nations; (b) Nansen and the Armenian refugees; (c) Nansen and the Greek refugees; (d) the Nansen passport.

The United Nations and the refugees: (a) United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA), International Refugees Organization (IRO) and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees; (b) the convention on the status of refugees.

The refugee problem in Germany: (a) the general background—war and collapse; (b) the flight; (c) refugee camps; (d) the solution of the problem.

The refugee problem in the Middle East: (a) historical background; (b) Jewish immigration into Palestine; (c) the Arab refugees.

The contribution of Norway: (a) government activities; (b) activities of voluntary organizations.

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1. A list of twenty-nine books and articles in Norwegian and four in English was proposed as source material for these topics. The English titles were: *Magna Carta for Refugees*, United Nations Publication 1953.1.33; *Forty Questions and Answers*, published by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, 1955; *Refugees*, United Nations background paper No. 78, 1953; B. M. M. Murphy, *Flight and Resettlement*, Paris, Unesco, 1955. (*Population and Culture*, no. II.)
The plan was followed fairly closely, depending on the number of pupils in a class. At some of the schools, additional studies were made of Armenia, a comparison between a refugee camp and a concentration camp, and foreign news commentaries on events in Hungary. Distribution of the topics to the working groups was made by agreement among the pupils or by drawing lots.

The pupils worked independently as far as possible while the teachers played an advisory role, helping to plan the work and explaining foreign terms. It was not always possible to make an equitable distribution of source materials, some of which were beyond the pupils' intellectual level. Foreign language texts proved, in general, too difficult for direct use in the class-room.

A film, 'Home of the homeless', was shown at all the participating schools as an introduction to the work. Two films on Greece, 'Laurion' and 'Destinies under the Acropolis' were shown at three of the schools. The students heard a lecture on refugee camps in Germany and on the work of the IRO; a group from one school visited the Nobel Institute to hear a lecture given by the director and took part in discussions with a number of people who had played a prominent part in work for refugees.

On the completion of the project all the teachers and pupils involved met for a final discussion at one of the participating schools where they heard a lecture by a social worker and saw a showing of the film 'They took my child'.

The results of the work were made known to other pupils in the participating schools by various methods. In two schools the experimental classes passed on their notebooks to the parallel control classes. In the third, a recorded programme on the work, produced by one of the teachers, was broadcast over the school's loudspeaker system.

In estimating the value of the experiment, the teachers expressed some interesting differences of opinion. The majority, led by those who had worked out the draft plan for the project, believed that the very fact that some of the pupils showed immaturity and lack of skill in using their materials was a proof that the experiment was useful and necessary. They decided that the true value of the experiment lies in the opportunities it provided for the pupils to co-operate with each other, to achieve a task independently and to improve, however slightly, their ability in research and their critical judgement.

One teacher believed that the pupils lacked the ability and experience, at this stage, to profit from the free methods of work used in the project. He was, however, in favour of introducing series of short units of study.
on similar problems and themes to develop international understanding, lasting from four to six days and beginning as early as the first year of realskole.

An investigation into a possible change of attitudes due to the experiment was carried out by the head of the Institute of Educational Research of Oslo University by the use of control groups and testing before and after the work was carried out.

Replies to some of the questionnaires used show that the pupils reacted very favourably to the experimental work. Of the eighty who took part in it, two did not like it, six were neutral, while seventy-two of them said they liked it very much. The report says: 'It is worth noting that the pupils give reasons of very different types for their reactions to the experimental teaching: that it is more interesting, that they learn more, that the lesson periods are more enjoyable and pass more quickly, that they have a closer relationship with the teacher, etc.'

**Theory and practice of human rights in an Austrian school**

The official curriculum for Austrian state secondary schools allows for, and prescribes, teaching for the promotion of peace, democracy and international understanding. In a school in Vienna of about four hundred pupils it was possible therefore to organize a programme on the principles and practice of human rights without adding to the pupils' workload. Following the lines agreed on by the teachers concerned, every opportunity was taken in classes for German, modern languages, history, geography, music and art appreciation, to include instruction and discussion on questions and topics relating to human rights. Sections of the *Unesco Album on Human Rights* were displayed in the class in which related themes were to be discussed and a wide selection of materials on the United Nations was available throughout the experiment. During the school year about 160 hours of class time were reckoned to have been used for lessons partly or entirely devoted to the subject of human rights.

The experimental teaching was limited to two groups of twenty-seven pupils, one of 13 to 14 years, the other 15 to 16 years, to enable the teachers to test for changes in knowledge and attitudes.

Largely as a result of the activities of the students' council, however, all the pupils were made aware of the aims of the programme. In this school, the council plays an important part in the democratic organization

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1. A report covering part of the material was published in September 1957 in the Scandinavian journal *Pedagogisk Forskning* (Educational Research).
2. Now out of print.
of school life generally and is also responsible for the running of a number of leisure-time clubs and for arranging extra-curricular events such as film shows, lectures and commemoration celebrations. The theme chosen for the year's extra-curricular activities was human rights and international understanding.

In addition, the school newspaper, issued 10 times a year by the students' council, always contains at least one article on international co-operation. The daily routine of the school follows a system worked out and adopted by the pupils themselves, with the aim of making life in the class-room not merely bearable but pleasant, through a spirit of mutual help and the free acceptance by everyone of tasks useful to the school community. Here, and in out-of-class occupations such as the Junior Red Cross, the pupils had many opportunities for testing and practising the theories they had learnt about human rights.

*Use of five curriculum subjects in a study of another country; project in a British girls' school*

In this school, teachers of history, geography, science, mathematics and art collaborated in a project on South Africa for a group of fourth year pupils (14 to 15 years).

The work was planned to cover a period of four months in the belief that in a short, concentrated project the pupils' interest and enthusiasm could be more easily sustained.

In history classes an attempt was made to give the group some understanding of the development of modern South Africa from the discovery of the Cape by European settlers to the present day, including the original Dutch settlement, the advent of the British in 1815, the abolition of slavery, the Great Trek, the discovery of diamonds and gold, the work of General Smuts as a South African and as a world citizen, the cities and industries of the Republic of South Africa.

Geography periods were used for a study of the importance of South African ports of call on shipping routes to the Far East; the physical difficulties in the way of development in the interior, such as unreliable rainfall, the size of the country, and agricultural problems including insect pests, hailstorms, labour supply, distance from markets. The pupils made a study of crops and farming in different regions and of the problems raised by mushroom urban development following the exploitation of minerals and an economy based on cheap labour.

Science lessons included a short course on genetics and explanations of differences of race, skin colour and blood groups; a study of the dangers
of the tsetse fly and efforts to control it; some animals and birds; the Kruger National Park and how the balance of wild life is preserved.

Mathematics contributed a variety of activities to the project: the pupils made a comparative table of sunshine averages and worked out population percentages for a pictorial graph of South African races. They also made picture graphs of school attendance, medical services, town populations, immigration ratio and other items and collected statistics for the production of gold and other minerals, imports and exports, rates of taxation, etc. From a study of examples of Bantu art they learnt that it was based on geometrical designs.

The work accomplished in these classes provided a background of factual information for the study of some problems of South Africa in the present day. No attempt was made to avoid discussion of apartheid and other controversial matters and the teachers tried to ensure that through books and other documentation and with the help of visiting speakers, the pupils were presented with evidence for both sides of every question that was raised. The topics discussed included the different races in South Africa; the Bantus in native reserves; race friction; treason trials; South Africa and the United Nations; South Africa and the Commonwealth; trade relations; aspects of social life such as health, education, housing.

Teachers were able to obtain a good supply of pictures, books and pamphlets, principally from South Africa House, tourist agencies, the Imperial Institute and from public libraries, and some booklets printed by Christian Action and the Movement for Colonial Freedom. Fourteen films were shown and most of the girls watched a television programme on apartheid in their free time. Four visiting speakers, who were either Africans or resident in Africa, described conditions in South Africa and gave their own point of view for discussion by the girls.

Art classes assisted the practical work for the project which took the form of individual files on South Africa and a class file to which everyone contributed.

Both teachers and pupils found the project interesting and stimulating. It was found that there had been some duplication in the work which the teachers agreed could be avoided on another occasion by more frequent consultations on progress. The girls, in reply to questions on their reactions, said they would rather study another country in the same way than return to the normal curriculum.
A project in a French school on the history of slavery

An experiment made in a French co-educational secondary school *lycée mixte*, participating in the scheme of Associated Schools Projects, provides a practical example of a comprehensive programme in education for international understanding carried out without making any substantial changes in the established curriculum.

As there was no possibility of adding to the syllabus or altering the time-table, the teachers analysed the programme for each subject to determine where and how opportunities could be found for using material or for orienting the teaching so that they would contribute to international understanding.

It was recognized that a strong element of humanism existed in the French educational tradition but in a somewhat limited context of abstract thought and history of the past. The teachers felt that there was a need to extend the humanistic outlook through an understanding of the world at large and of some of the problems of present-day society. The main objective of the project was to provide, therefore, not only a body of information, but a climate in which to develop favourable attitudes.

With the assistance of the Service de la Recherche Pédagogique, of the Centre National de Documentation Pédagogique, teachers in charge of the project made plans for co-ordinating the different subjects and selected a central theme from among those proposed by Unesco as the basis for a controlled experiment.

Under the main heading of ‘the conquest of human rights’ the pupils in the experimental groups concentrated on a study of the history of slavery. Other aspects of the struggle for human rights were kept in mind but the subject of slavery received the most attention and was the most fully documented. The Service de la Recherche Pédagogique assisted in the search for texts from literary and historical sources, which together with materials supplied by Unesco, selected films, and examples of music and poetry produced by enslaved peoples, were used to illustrate the theme.

The documentation so carefully assembled refers to the practice of slavery in three eras—classical antiquity, the Middle Ages and modern times. The texts are either authentic, strictly historical documents, or extracts from literary and philosophical works. They describe the origins of slavery at different periods, the attitudes of writers and philosophers

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1. For example, provisions of the Athenian law on the sale of slaves; Greek inscription giving the origin and price of the slaves of a certain Kesidoroë, a foreigner resident in the Piraeus; extract from the Law of the Twelve Tables (450 B.C.), the source of all Roman law, which children were obliged to learn by heart and which decreed the penalty of slavery for insolvent debtors.

2. For example, Cato’s advice on the care of slaves in his treatise on agriculture. Selections from St. Paul, St. John Chrysostom. Protests by Montesquieu, Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, Robespierre.
towards this social phenomenon, the protests recorded and achievements in the cause of freedom.

Translating and commenting on these materials, the pupils came to realize that although the circumstances, the times, and the people concerned were different, inhuman treatment was the lot of slaves or serfs at any period and the same justification or pretexts were offered by those who supported this social evil.

A list of the dates at which slavery was officially abolished in various countries provided landmarks in the history of the struggle against slavery and the study led finally to an examination of the problems of racial equality and colonialism. Here the pupils could draw their conclusions from texts of official documents and literature published over the last hundred years. These included extracts from the works of Harriet Beecher Stowe, Renan, Jules Romains and Victor Schoelcher, and from reports of administrators in French colonial Africa, the text of the second French decree of abolition of 1848, the address by the Swiss cantons in 1866 to the United States Congress, and reproductions and pictures from a French illustrated journal (*Illustration*) dated 1862 showing a sale of slaves in the southern United States of America and a convoy of slaves in Africa.

The teachers considered that the use of active methods was indispensable in a programme aimed at the development of attitudes. But school work accompanied by suitable outside activities and organized in a practical and lively manner was not enough for this purpose. These methods, excellent in themselves, must be used with a complete absence of dogmatism if the teaching was to achieve any deep or lasting results.

The documents for the project had been chosen specially to allow the pupils to examine, compare and criticize the evidence and to form their own conclusions. The teachers scrupulously avoided imposing their own opinions on the class, using the pupils’ spontaneous reactions as the starting point for a debate or discussion and encouraging them by questioning to reflect on what they had learnt and, above all, to use their own judgement.

The evidence of tests carried out in the experimental classes, and in comparable control groups from another school, showed positive results. As the pupils’ factual knowledge was considered to be of little importance only the psychological effects of the project were evaluated. These results were not regarded as altogether conclusive since any change in attitudes would be subject to the test of time, the influence of environment and even the process of ‘growing up’. They suggested, however, that, while

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1. The organizers of the experiment regretted the lack of materials concerning Asia and Latin American countries and, in the printed report which was circulated to schools participating in the Associated Schools Projects, they invited the collaboration of schools in these regions in completing the documentation.
prejudiced or unfavourable attitudes were not widespread in the school, there was room for improvement.

The teachers found in their syllabuses many opportunities for teaching for international understanding; they felt, however, that items of value were too widely scattered in the various subjects to make much impact. For example, in a history textbook of 300 pages, a few lines only are devoted to the French decree of 1848 abolishing slavery; in a history text intended for the teacher's use, five lines in 500 pages make the sole reference to the slave wars which were carried on almost without a break during the time of the Roman Empire.

As a result of their researches in the syllabus and their experience in adapting it to the purpose of the experiment, the educators who took part in the project made some specific suggestions for reform. They proposed:

1. Concentration, in all subjects, on a limited number of centres of interest, graded according to the children's ages and capacities (e.g., housing, food, transport, agriculture, government, justice, women's emancipation, social services).

2. More material on contemporary history, ideas and events (the teachers noticed a tendency of their pupils to define words such as aristocracy, tyrant, dictator, in terms of past history with no suggestion of their modern connotation).

3. Greater emphasis on the relation of past events with present realities.

4. Some revision of the content of history teaching to allow for more attention to be given to the history of civilization.

5. Greater freedom in the use of active methods.

It was recognized that the last point was a question of time rather than of good will on the part of the teacher. When there is a heavy syllabus to complete, the extra time involved in using active methods of teaching is difficult to find.

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1. Formerly, in the fifth class (second year of secondary education course in France) one or two hours at the most were given to lessons on the history of the Arab invasions and Arab civilization; as from 1 October 1957, the syllabus includes the following subjects:

*Second year.* The Arab Empire and civilization.

*Third year.* The arts (Gothic art; Moslem art); Transformations in Asia since the thirteenth-century.

*Final year.*

The Moslem world:

(a) Basis and evolution of its civilization (Islam, Iranian, Egyptian, Turkish and Spanish influences);

(b) Particular aspects of its civilization today (the countries of the Middle East, Pakistan, the Indian Archipelago, the countries of North Africa).

The Far Eastern world:

(a) Basis and evolution of its civilization;

(b) Particular aspects of its civilization today (China; Japan; Indo-China, except Cambodia).

The South-East Asian world:

(a) Basis and evolution of its civilization (Buddhism; Brahminism; European influences);

(b) Particular aspects of its civilization today.
It was suggested that where the programme did not allow for periods of practical work, discussion or research, closer collaboration between teachers of different subjects could be of assistance. For example, the teacher of literature or civics might introduce into his lessons themes or materials related to the syllabus for history and geography.

The experiment, in which nine teachers were engaged, was carried out in seven classes of the lycée averaging about thirty pupils in each class, i.e., three classes of the sixth grade (average age 11 years); two classes of the fifth grade (average age 12 years); and two classes of the second grade (average age 15 years). In addition, a Unesco club run by members of the upper school took part in some of the activities. The documentation selected for the experiment was also used by classes in other types of school in France including over two thousand students aged 15 to 18 years enrolled with the central correspondence school (Centre d'Enseignement par Correspondance) and the directors of the project based their conclusions on the experience of all participating groups.
CHAPTER VI

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

School activities which take place outside the normal class-room routine and independently of the required syllabus can do much to promote international understanding. Teachers generally agree that extra-curricular activities which supplement or grow out of class-room projects have more force and meaning than those which do not have this basis. But, in many schools, assemblies, clubs and societies, excursions, exchange schemes or out-of-class activities shared with other schools or groups in the community may be the only means of cultivating those interests and habits of thought which lead to better understanding of other countries and appreciation of the need for co-operating with them.

Extra-curricular activities have certain advantages which are not always to be found in normal class-room work. Participation is usually voluntary and members of a group may be drawn from different levels in the school; projects are carried out in an atmosphere free of the strain imposed by examination requirements or academic standards; students take part in these activities because they want to learn more about a particular subject, to be of assistance to others, to pursue their hobbies, or to practise their artistic skills, at leisure and in the company of those with similar interests. The school may provide house-room for the various activities and, preferably, some guidance and encouragement from the teachers. Most of the work, however, should be undertaken by the pupils, who will find opportunities to use their gifts of judgement and leadership, acquire a sense of responsibility and, at the same time, learn to adapt themselves to the group which they have chosen to join.

Many of these activities lead to co-operation with sections of the community outside the school. By helping in community aid projects or social welfare programmes, children gain experience of real life situations beyond the small world of school; they begin to understand some of the problems of poverty, ill-health, insecurity and other social evils and the efforts being made, at home and abroad, to solve them.
Student clubs devoted to music, painting or dramatics can make a special contribution to community life both in entertaining others and in helping to make known the arts of different countries.

Of the great variety of school activities and events which can be classified as extra- or co-curricular, few are so specialized that they cannot be said to contribute something to international understanding or to good relations within the school community.

ANNUAL COMMEMORATION DAYS

United Nations Day, Human Rights Day, World Health Day and other important dates in the history of international co-operation are celebrated in many schools throughout the world. In some countries circulars distributed by the education authorities call on school principals to organize special programmes for a day or more on the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies and suggest activities in which the children can share. Lectures and film shows in the school are used as illustrations of the work and achievements of these institutions; ceremonies to commemorate the United Nations Charter or the Universal Declaration of Human Rights take place in the school or as part of a larger public event, often in co-operation with local United Nations Associations or United Nations Information Centres. Programmes vary from one community to another and from year to year; the schools may provide the services of a choir, flag-bearers, a committee for a tree-planting ceremony, finalists in a speech contest, an international programme of dances and music, a pageant or a dramatic performance. Everyone in the school can have some part in the celebration, whether off-stage or on.

FUND COLLECTING

Support for the work of the United Nations and other organizations concerned with social welfare and international co-operation is given a practical emphasis in some schools by projects to provide aid for the relief of refugees, children in need, or the rehabilitation of a school or a community.

Funds raised through entertainments, sales of handwork, exhibitions, or personal collections are used to contribute to the work of the Red Cross, to Unicef (United Nations Children’s Fund), and to projects sponsored under the Unesco Gift Coupon Programme.

Through this programme Unesco Gift Coupons, which are a special
kind of international money order, can be bought and sent to an institution chosen from a list of priority projects drawn up by Unesco or sponsored by an organization and approved by Unesco. The gift coupons bear the name of the school or group which donates them and can be posted directly with a personal letter. The recipient school or group can use them to buy educational materials, including books, equipment for making and showing films, artists' and musicians' supplies and scientific apparatus.

Plans for raising funds for these and similar projects are often linked with the pupils' class-room studies. They can also lead to an interesting exchange of correspondence or to the 'adoption' of a school or group in another land. A school in the Netherlands followed up a study of the history and status of Negro peoples by collecting for Unesco Gift Coupons to buy equipment needed in an institution for the blind in West Africa. As part of its contribution to the Unesco Associated Schools Projects, a school in Uruguay organized a gift coupon scheme to assist a school in Libya.

In some towns of the United States of America the traditional Hallowe'en custom of 'Trick or Treat' has been adapted to 'Trick or Treat for Unicef'. The children, on their door-to-door rounds on this occasion, tell the story of Unicef to the householders, thus giving the organization publicity as well as financial aid. Many schools take part in the annual sale of Unicef Christmas cards.

These and similar activities in which everyone is free to participate have the advantage of helping to create a community spirit in the school itself.

USING THE SCHOOL ASSEMBLY

In some schools these gatherings provide the only opportunities for introducing the pupils to a wider knowledge of world problems and of other countries than may be offered by the prescribed curriculum. Where there is sufficient scope for an active programme in education for international understanding, assembly meetings enable the various school groups to pool their knowledge and their talents in inter-class debates, panels and similar activities. Lectures, film shows or entertainments on appropriate themes can be shared by several classes at a time or, where a large enough space is available, by the whole school.

A chapter in the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals¹ in the United States devoted to the subject of 'International

understanding through the secondary school curriculum' lists different activities which might be used for an assembly programme to promote international understanding: films on world problems, on individual countries and on the United Nations; forums, panels and round-table discussions to which students from abroad are invited as speakers; plays and pageants illustrating the history and customs of other lands; music of other nations played or sung by school choirs or orchestras or by visiting artists; folk-dancing displays; choral reading of the preamble to the United Nations Charter, the Declaration of Human Rights or other historic documents; model meetings of the United Nations General Assembly or of the Security Council; a model conference of one of the Specialized Agencies of the United Nations.

MODEL UNITED NATIONS MEETINGS

A model meeting of the United Nations Assembly is held yearly in a college in Michigan (U.S.A.), as a project sponsored by the Rotary Club and organized with the expert assistance of members of the college history department.

About six months before the date of the two-day meeting, secondary schools are invited to propose a delegation of at least three students and a teacher-adviser. Those who accept receive a list of the member nations of the United Nations from which they choose the countries they would prefer to represent. The organizing committee then allot a country to each school delegation and distributes a draft agenda of subjects for discussion at the assembly. (Suggested topics for the 1957 meeting included: Cyprus, the Suez Canal question; representation of the People's Republic of China; applications for membership in the United Nations; technical assistance; Palestine refugees; the Covenant of Human Rights). Two or three items are finally chosen and in each school, study and briefing for the coming meetings begin; the chosen delegates try to approach the various problems as if they were citizens of their adopted Member State, which means that they must be well informed on conditions and problems in that country.

Up to seventy school delegations have attended these sessions. Most of the visitors are housed in the college where the resident students take charge of registrations and programme arrangements; they also act as members of the secretariat and extra chairmen.

The student delegates run their own meetings following as closely as possible the procedures used at a United Nations General Assembly. On
the first day, officers and rapporteurs are elected; the two main topics selected for consideration by the model assembly are first discussed in a general debate. The students then go to the special committees to which they have been assigned by their particular adviser to work on the set of draft resolutions with which they are provided. The following day a second session of the separate committees is held and the resolutions are made ready for discussion and voting in a final general debate. The two-day meeting includes time for the students to relax and for two or three social events.

Teachers who have taken part in the proceedings as advisers recognize the project as an excellent teaching aid in the field of social studies and world affairs. Students have become deeply interested in other parts of the world and, in some cases, have chosen to specialize in a field of study related to the work done before and during a model assembly.

The section in the bulletin on extra-curricular activities emphasizes the importance of planning assembly programmes for a term or a year as a series with a single theme (e.g., one region of the world, the work of one or two agencies of the United Nations; a world problem) and suggests that the planning might be done by a mixed committee of pupils and teachers.

SCHOOL CLUBS AND SOCIETIES

International relations clubs, clubs for 'Friends of Unesco', United Nations clubs or study circles formed to discuss current events around the world, flourish in many secondary schools.

Although these groups may call upon interested teachers for help and guidance in choosing topics for discussion, finding materials or inviting guest speakers, membership is usually voluntary and the pupils, led by chairmen and officers elected among themselves, are responsible for initiating and organizing the various activities.

These may vary according to the age and interests of the club members. Younger pupils can be responsible for a 'United Nations Corner' which is often a feature of the club. They help to collect pamphlets, paint posters and lettering for announcements, or keep a wall newspaper up to date with clippings of news items and pictures. When a special exhibition (see below) is planned they can assist in the search for materials and in planning their displays. They can take part in welfare projects, letter exchanges and dramatics.

A junior Unesco club in an American school aims at practising some of the ideals stated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. For
Article I, 'All human beings... should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood', they made new friends in other countries through an exchange of letters. Teachers and parents helped them with translations. For Article 25 they organized a clothing collection to obtain winter clothes for children in Formosa. To illustrate Article 27, 'Everyone has the right to participate freely in the cultural life of the community', they visited the San Francisco Museum of Art to see an exhibit on 'Asia and the West', and made plans to visit other museums in order to learn more about the art and culture of different regions of the world. Article 26 concerning the right to education was represented in a television programme to explain how the Unesco Gift Coupon scheme can be used to provide school supplies and equipment where they are most needed. The club also organized school activities to raise money for gift coupons.

Older or more academically advanced students may use their club as a forum for debate among themselves or with groups from neighbouring schools and sometimes with visiting speakers. A list of topics for a French international relations club includes these items: United Nations action against hunger and disease and its work for child welfare; the Charter of the United Nations and world citizenship; the new India; the problem of atomic energy and the control of atomic weapons.

In the United Nations club in a Norwegian upper secondary school the students discuss present-day world problems and study materials on the work of the United Nations which they have collected for a small library. The club takes charge of exhibitions and school celebrations on United Nations themes and has two subsections, a stamp club and a folk-dancing group.

In a small country town in Italy an International Relations Club has been organized by a teacher and a group of students in one of the four schools in the community. The club is open to pupils in all the neighbouring schools and is under the patronage of the mayor of the town. Planned as a cultural and social centre, it offers to children and young people in the town opportunities for entertainment and for learning about other peoples through talks, film shows, recorded music and songs, and posters, pamphlets and news-sheets issued by the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies.

The club, which already has seventy members, is divided into working groups for special duties as follows: secretariat; translators; cultural activities; technical assistance; music and singing; drawing, sewing and plastic arts; drama and recitation. One of the first activities was a competition to choose a motif for the club badge, which girls in the sewing circle have stitched on the badges to be worn by each member and embroidered
on the club flag. Plans were also made for a visit to a French town in the Savoy which is affiliated with the club's home town, and for starting correspondence with similar groups in other countries.

Although its resources are small at present, the organizers of the club hope to build up a library of books and pictures to illustrate life in other countries and the work of international organizations. A letter received from one of the young members acknowledging a parcel of photographs and posters from Unesco suggests that these materials will be put to good use. She writes: 'we have become very interested in the news of other countries which our teacher often talks about and explains to us. Since the day when she first told us of the United Nations we have wanted to do something for this great family of nations. You cannot imagine how happy we are to have all the interesting and beautiful photographs you have sent to us. We can promise you that they will be used not only to decorate our class-room but also to teach about the customs and way of life of people in far off countries that we have never seen'.

In the United Arab Republic an Egyptian teacher-training school for girls aged 16 to 22 formed a club which was named the 'Friends of Peoples of all Nations'. Its aims are to establish contacts with schools in other countries through correspondence and exchange of photographs and stamps, and to meet with foreign students. Club members organized a tea party at their school to entertain forty-five girl students from Indonesia, Bahrein, Somalia and Jordan; members of the committee supervising the Associated Schools Projects were also invited and the student guests gave a performance of national folk songs and dances. Students from Western countries are to be invited to future club parties.

Some of the work done by schools taking part in the programme of Associated Schools Projects was carried out entirely in study groups or school clubs in out-of-class hours.

In Yugoslavia, boys and girls aged 13 to 15 made their contribution to the programme almost entirely through activities in a Unesco club. They devoted their weekly meetings to correspondence with Japanese, Swiss and Welsh children and to a detailed study of Wales. They also organized public meetings to which other pupils in their own and in neighbouring schools were invited. An exhibition of letters, photographs and postage stamps was arranged for one of these meetings; another was enlivened by a demonstration of Welsh songs and folk-dances. Other activities concerned the work and achievements of the United Nations and its agencies. The club raised funds by levying a small membership fee and through the sale of tickets for school dances.

A study of the Jewish people and the founding of the State of Israel
was made by a voluntary group of senior pupils in Belgium working on their half-holidays under the guidance of the history and geography teacher.

A group of girls in a Belgian school attempted a survey of women's rights in different countries; they prepared, in their free time and with the help of teachers of history, law and languages, a questionnaire in English, German, Spanish and Dutch with the aim of discovering whether the rights proclaimed in the Universal Declaration to be 'without distinction of sex' were in fact accorded to women. The questionnaire was circulated to schools in about thirty countries.

Girls in a Welsh school made a study of Pakistan during one term in the weekly periods normally used for club meetings. They also worked at home to produce posters and albums which were exhibited on Parents Day.

Extra-curricular research studies and field trips are mentioned in accounts of class-room studies of human rights (Chapter III) and of other countries (Chapter IV). Another example comes from Japan where a visit to a port to watch rice and iron ore being shipped or unloaded was the introduction to a project on similarities and differences in the lives of 'producers of the world's commodities'. The children followed up their observations with a study of the life of a rice-farmer in Asia and of iron-workers in the Philippines and in the United States of America.

**Dramatic Presentations and Pageants**

Although some of the extra-curricular activities in a school may, in a sense, isolate the specialists or amateurs who have elected to take part in them, the occasions on which such activities bring together not only the whole school but also parents and friends in the community, usually compensate for this tendency. This is particularly true of activities which are centred in, or culminate in, some kind of display or exhibition in which everyone can share as the audience or general public.

Members of school clubs, dramatic societies or puppet theatre groups who can find subjects in the folk-lore, music, literature and traditional drama of other countries learn to appreciate and understand something of the country which is the source of their materials; at the same time, they pass on their impressions to a wider public by means of the entertainment they give.

When adaptations or translations of plays are unobtainable or the performance is too ambitious a project, pupils can make their own dramatized
versions of folk-tales, ballads or even nursery-rhymes chosen from the literature of another region.

In some schools a pageant or series of tableaux is used to illustrate themes such as the family of nations, different trades or crafts, games, national festivals and ceremonies. Girls in an American school presented 'Christmas in other lands'; boys in a school in India (Kashmir) where rowing is a popular sport, decorated their racing boats to represent India and Kashmir and the six countries they had been studying. The procession of boats on the river was watched by their school fellows and by many people of the town. At another Indian school the boys produced a pageant to illustrate the different countries of South-East Asia.

A class or group which has made a study of the United Nations or other aspects of international co-operation can involve the rest of the school in its work by presenting the results in dramatized form. This method was proposed in an outline guide for a study of human rights carried out in a group of schools in the London area. After a period of study, discussion and research, the pupils presented a programme consisting of: (a) short dramatic scenes on the subject of slavery and the slave trade; (b) a series of mock trials showing the development of concepts of law and justice, e.g., trial by ordeal, trial by jury; (c) brief lectures on freedom of worship or religion; (d) dialogues or recorded interviews on the growth of trade unions; (e) a display of charts and diagrams to illustrate the principles of democratic government; (f) an illustrated scrapbook on the theme of education. The items were chosen to represent six of the articles in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

To arouse interest in labour problems, students in a school in the United States re-enacted the scenes in a labour arbitration case using a script obtained from the American Arbitration Association. When the case had been presented, a student jury gave its decision; a comparison of the findings with the judgement given in the actual case was followed by questions from the audience and a general discussion.¹

EXHIBITIONS

An exhibition frequently makes an effective climax to a programme on another country or to a study of the United Nations. The work of collecting and making the materials for an exhibition usually begins with the project and provides a stimulating activity throughout for the pupils taking part in it. The exhibition may be a small one, housed in the class-room, or a

more elaborate enterprise for which the school hall or assembly room will
be needed. If the exhibits are sufficiently varied and carefully arranged
and labelled they usually attract much attention from schoolfellows or a
larger public. The children responsible for the display can play the part
of curators and be on hand to explain the objects shown and to answer
questions.

The Swiss schoolgirls whose project on Japan is described in Chapter
IV used for their exhibition the gifts and letters sent to them by Japanese
girls. Following plans enclosed in the letters, they constructed a model
of a room in a Japanese house and decorated it with paintings received
from their pen friends. They showed samples of the products of new
Japanese industries; examples of clothes, food, flower decorations, dolls
and objects in lacquer and porcelain. They were fortunate in being able
to borrow from the town’s ethnographical museum some rare and precious
exhibits which gave the display a greater documentary value. Prints and
paintings showed typical scenes and landscapes and popular festivals,
and drama, religion and music were represented.

Pupils in a Philippines school who had studied China each brought or
made an object or a picture to illustrate the country. The list of exhibits
included articles of dress, slippers, chopsticks and crockery, games, embroi-
dery, tables and pictures of people and landscapes. Ten scrapbooks pre-
pared by different groups of pupils were also displayed. An exhibit on India
and another on Japan were prepared by other classes at the same
school.

A study of the West Indies made by 14-year-old girls in an English
secondary modern school was completed by an exhibition which lasted
for a week and was visited by groups from neighbouring schools as well
as by parents and friends.

The children had little opportunity of obtaining objects from West
Indian sources; almost everything shown was made in art classes after
reading, research in museums and with expert advice from West Indian
visitors: a large mural painted on wallpaper represented a market scene;
a stall was set up in front of this for the sale of fruit and any West Indian
foods or spices that could be collected. Three large panels showing birds,
sea life and a jungle scene were linked together with paper cut-outs of
leaves and monkeys. Smaller panels illustrated the cultivation of coco-nuts,
cocoa beans, sugar cane, bananas, rice and the sponge industry. Dress-
makers’ dummies with papier mâché masks were dressed in West Indian
costume, which was also worn by many of the exhibitors. The maps, dia-
grams and charts prepared in history and geography lessons were on view
and a large map of the West Indies was painted on the floor.
The exhibition was the background for presentations of puppet plays, stories and mimes, and recitals of folk-songs which the girls had learnt from their West Indian visitors.

SCHOOL NEWSPAPERS AND BULLETINS

In schools which produce their own newspaper, journal or bulletin from time to time, there may sometimes be space for an article, reprinted or original, on some aspect of international co-operation, or for reproducing letters from abroad. Some United Nations or International Relations Clubs issue their own bulletin or news-sheet.

A bulletin board or wall newspaper is a feature of many schools and is often used for displaying news cuttings and pictures concerned with events or developments of international significance. The board may be the responsibility of a small committee of pupils who collect and arrange pictures, photos and newsprint, booklists, announcements, forthcoming visits or excursions, etc., and see that the material is renewed at least once a week. In some schools the board is topped by a map of the world so that coloured ribbons can join news items or pictures to the relevant places on the map. Another device for the wall board which encourages the pupils to develop their critical judgement and to think things out for themselves is to take a theme of current interest that is likely to be a subject of controversy, e.g., ‘Control of atomic weapons’, and display headlines and cuttings from different sources giving different points of view. If a discussion is held later on the same topic, the pupils will be prepared.

COMPETITIONS

Contests for the best essay or speech on the United Nations or on some theme concerned with international understanding and co-operation are often conducted in school as a voluntary activity on the occasion of United Nations Day.

Contests on a large scale for schools in a district or in the whole country are organized by national United Nations Associations in co-operation with educational authorities. In 1956, 30,000 pupils entered for the annual high school contest on the United Nations, organized by the American Association for the United Nations. In Italy, the Società Italiana per l'Organizzazione Internazionale (SIOI) arranges an annual contest on the
United Nations and international co-operation. About 50,000 pupils took part in the contest in 1957 for which the following questions were set:

1. The United Nations was created to contribute to the maintenance of international peace and security. What, in your opinion, are the chief obstacles which the Organization has to surmount in order to attain this objective?

2. Does it seem to you that the wide development of international organizations during the last 10 years is due to incidental or transitory causes or do you believe, on the contrary, that it is an inevitable and growing outcome of necessity?

3. What contribution, in your view, can international organizations bring to the economic and social progress of peoples all over the world?

The aim of the contest is to select groups of pupils whose work represents the standard achieved by the school from which they come. The ten prize-winners are therefore chosen from one school and travel usually to Paris or Geneva in the company of their teachers to see for themselves the work of the headquarters of the United Nations and some of the Specialized Agencies. The prize for the four winners of a contest arranged by the Turin branch of the SI01 for younger children aged 11 to 14 years, was a fortnight in a seaside camp. The entries (drawings, paintings, sculpture, or pottery) were displayed to the public in an exhibition on the theme of mutual assistance between the peoples of the world.

An essay contest on themes related to the work of Unesco was planned by the National Commission for Unesco in co-operation with educational authorities for children in Ceylon. Entries were accepted in three languages (Tamil, Sinhalese, English) and prizes of books and money were awarded in each group.

In Denmark, at an exhibition on the work of the United Nations sponsored by an international businessmen's association, specially printed loose-leaf booklets on the United Nations were distributed to school-children who visited the exhibition. The booklets contained lists of questions on the structure, work and achievements of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, illustrated with outline maps, drawings and isotype figures representing statistics. The children were asked to fill in the answers to the questions, and to colour the maps and illustrations. The required information was to be found in the publications recommended as a reading list. Over two thousand booklets were completed in this way and prizes awarded for the best entries.

For an essay contest organized by the Norwegian United Nations
Association in 1956 for pupils in the third, fourth and fifth classes in upper secondary schools (gymnasium) the following questions were set:

1. Why is the problem of economically underdeveloped countries so important in our time? What can be done to create better living conditions in these countries?

2. Give an evaluation of the United Nations activities in the last 10 years. What do you believe to be the most important tasks for the Organization in the near future?

**SCHOOL TRAVEL AND EXCHANGES**

Many schools, particularly those in large towns or cities, organize visits to museums and temporary exhibitions, and participation in cultural events, such as international art and music festivals.

Comparatively few are able to sponsor and arrange visits to other countries but this practice is growing, both in public and private schools, in a number of countries. For economic reasons, but also for the added educational and cultural advantages, such schemes are usually carried out on an exchange basis. In a school which sends a group of young people to a neighbouring state or country, receiving an equivalent group in their place, a twofold influence from outside is felt, from the presence of the visitors and from the impressions brought back by the travellers.

A system of exchange which has sometimes resulted in lasting friendships and in the building up of a permanent association between two schools, is that whereby the visitors stay, not in a school boardinghouse, but in the homes of children from the host school. The time spent in the host country may vary but a short visit usually includes a few days or a week attending selected classes in the school and some days sharing in end-of-term celebrations and holiday occupations.

This process has been followed successfully by schools in a town in the Netherlands, which have recently organized exchanges with a boys' school in Germany and a girls' school in Northern Ireland. A committee of pupils and teachers began preparations for the Irish girls' visit to Holland six months before their arrival; letters were exchanged by way of an introduction and the girls who were to stay in each other's homes were 'matched' as far as possible for interests and age. The committee drew up a timetable of classes to be attended, excursions and entertainments for the visitors, which included a reception at the Town Hall by civic and education authorities. A few months later the Dutch girls made a return visit to Belfast which was organized along much the same lines. Of the twelve
pairs of girls involved, only one was judged to be unsuitably matched. An inquiry made about a year later in the Dutch school revealed that most of the girls were still corresponding with their Irish friends, eight of them regularly, and further individual visits have been planned.

A more unusual travel project has become part of the annual programme of the dramatic society of a British boys’ school. The group has made three tours in Western Germany and Luxembourg and has given productions of Shakespeare plays or Gilbert and Sullivan operettas in nine towns in all; invitations have been received to visit Denmark and the Netherlands and school choirs and orchestras from Germany have, in their turn, visited the British school to give performances.

The school finances the costs of the theatrical productions and the boys and teachers in the group pay a nominal sum for daily living expenses. The large motor coach which carries boys, teachers and properties to their destination is also used for excursions to which host families are invited.

Groups such as these, with a definite purpose to achieve, make many contacts among audience, hosts and helpers and preparations for the production quickly ‘break the ice’. The dramatic performances, which are reported to be of a high standard and have been very well received, represent only one item in a programme of cultural and social interchange to which hosts and visitors alike contribute. A report on the tours made gives the formula for this project:

‘Scenes and faces change, but the basic pattern remains the same: arrival timed to coincide with the end of term, dispersal, the first meal en famille, the first excursion, a social evening. On the second day a rehearsal, sightseeing and the performance which is preceded by an introduction of cast and play in the language of the audience. On the last day, attendance at school, sometimes a civic reception, another excursion and a party with musical contributions from both sides.’

A number of bureaux and agencies, both voluntary and official, have been established to encourage and facilitate student exchanges and travel projects. The International Federation of Organizations for School Correspondence and Exchanges (see Appendix IV) sponsors and promotes student exchanges of correspondence. It co-ordinates and assists the work of its national bureaux whose aim is to increase knowledge of foreign languages and civilizations and to help bring together young people of all nations through one or more of the following means: international school correspondence; individual and group visits; individual accommodation with families; accommodation au pair; international holiday camps.
Many schools have traditional ties with schools abroad and others make their connexions through associations such as the School Affiliation Service of the Friends Service Committee. The projects described above were carried out by institutions which are members of the Conference of Internationally-Minded Schools (CIS), a voluntary association of schools mostly in European countries, which has developed from two conferences of principals of international schools invited by Unesco to meet in Paris in 1949 and 1951.

LECTURES AND CONFERENCES

In some countries organizations outside the school have assumed responsibility for arranging lectures, meetings or seminars for secondary school pupils as an extra-curricular activity in term-time or during weekends and vacations.

In the United Kingdom a lecture programme organized by the Council for Education in World Citizenship\(^1\) has, in a period of a few months, enabled over 5,000 school pupils to hear talks specially arranged for them in connexion with Unesco's major project to develop mutual appreciation of the cultural values of Orient and Occident.

The children attending these lectures were for the most part senior pupils in grammar schools (ages 15 to 19) and children in the 13 to 15 years age range in secondary modern schools. The talks were either on the subject of one of five Asian countries—Japan, China, India, Indonesia and Pakistan—or else dealt with the changing situation in Asia generally, and were given by experts who had lived in the countries concerned as well as by some members of the staff of embassies of Asian countries.

A number of inter-school conferences lasting a whole day and attended by several hundred pupils were included in the series, as well as one residential conference, and some interesting techniques were employed in connexion with these. For instance, pupils attending a conference on India and Pakistan were provided with mimeographed notes on the history, geography and general background of the two countries and with sketch-maps. Two of the talks concerned 'A day in the life of a Pakistani boy or girl' and 'A day in the life of an Indian boy or girl'. Films, displays of dancing, and an exhibition of Indian and Pakistani pictures, crafts and costumes varied the proceedings. The conference ended with a 'quiz' on

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1. The council is a voluntary organization of the United Nations Association which provides informational and educational services in the field of international understanding and teaching about the United Nations and human rights, to the several hundred schools affiliated with it in the United Kingdom.
India and Pakistan for which the pupils had to provide the answers. A 'brains trust' was a feature of other conferences, when questions were supplied by the pupils and answered by a team of experts. During a five-day conference on the East-West theme, discussion group sessions were held daily with a final reporting and summing-up session on the last day.

In Italy, the SIOI has organized, in some of its constituencies, series of lectures for secondary school pupils on the work of the United Nations and other aspects of international co-operation.

Educational associations and non-governmental organizations in the United States provide a variety of opportunities for secondary school students to attend conferences and seminars on international relations, problems of international co-operation, the work of the United Nations and other subjects contributing to international understanding. At United Nations headquarters, information services organize conferences, round-table discussions and seminars for high school pupils and for university students and teachers. These meetings, which are sometimes planned over a period of several days, include a guided tour of the United Nations building, film showings and distribution of material.

In Canada, the United Nations Association has encouraged universities to sponsor seminars on the United Nations for selected high school students. With the co-operation of the departments of university extension and adult education, a six-day seminar has been held annually for the last five years at the University of Manitoba. The participants live in the university buildings, follow a programme of talks, discussions and film showings and sum up their impressions in group reports. The meetings are sponsored by local civic organizations which underwrite the students' expenses or provide hospitality on social occasions during the seminar.
CHAPTER VII

MATERIALS, TEACHING AIDS
AND SERVICES

Generally speaking, the textbooks in use in schools do not give teachers what they want in the way of teaching aids and materials for projects in education for international understanding. There are obvious reasons for this. Teachers often try to relate school work to current events, about which most textbooks are, inevitably, silent. Even if they are not dealing with immediate current events, teachers may wish to introduce into their lessons subject matter which cannot easily be adapted to the conventional, organized course and its accompanying textbook. Adequate background information about international problems and international co-operation is only likely to find a place in textbooks when syllabuses dealing with these topics have been widely adopted.

TEACHING MATERIALS—TOO FEW OR TOO MANY?

Some teachers have the utmost difficulty in getting any teaching materials except textbooks. They do not have libraries, they have no budget for purchases, the children have few resources, books and newspapers may be virtually non-existent. At the other extreme, teachers have been bewildered by the mass of materials they have to choose from, none of which may be precisely tailored to their needs.

Teachers with access to a good library can almost certainly get more information on almost any subject than they can actually use. But they may not have the time or the energy to absorb it. Finding materials which the pupils themselves can use is still another problem.
The United Nations and the Specialized Agencies obviously cannot produce centrally a range of teaching aids to satisfy the needs and fit the circumstances of all the different school systems; they can and do provide, however, basic information materials, some of which are specially designed for schools.

Teachers and pupils taking part in the Associated Schools Projects have made good use of many of the booklets, illustrated news sheets, poster sets, photo prints, filmstrips and films which have been published by these organizations. The materials, some of which are for free distribution, can be obtained from United Nations Information Centres, Information Offices of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies and from national distributors in many countries. Almost all printed texts appear in English, French or Spanish, and some of them are available in a limited number of other languages. They give descriptions and illustrations of what is being done, by countries working together through the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, with regard to such matters as health education, economic co-operation, land reclamation, peaceful uses of atomic energy and care of children and refugees, and they provide statistics, and news of developments in these and other fields of activity.

The Unesco Courier, an illustrated magazine, publishes each month information on art, science and education contributed from all parts of the world. Several times a year, in addition to individual articles, a section of the magazine consists of a 'special report'—a treatment of an important world problem in Unesco's field of interest. Articles written by world authorities on the subject show what is being done to solve the problem on the national scale and through international co-operation.

Past issues of special interest to schools have covered topics such as atomic energy; exploring the oceans with science; protection of nature; the food we eat (in connexion with World Health Day); problems of illiteracy; rare masterpieces of world art; Buddhist art. Some numbers have been largely devoted to the arts and customs of a particular country or region, for example, those on Latin America, Japan and Egypt. Once a year, a special issue published to commemorate Human Rights Day contains commentaries on some particular aspects of human rights, for example, the status of women; the rights of the child; the right to education.

1. The addresses of the United Nations Information Centres and of the Information Offices are given in Appendixes II and III.
Many teachers find this magazine an excellent teaching aid for their older pupils. Printed in Arabic, English, French, Italian, Japanese, German, Spanish and Russian editions, it can be used with advantage in language classes. A Danish version also appears four times a year in collaboration with the Danish review *Kontakt*.

Some of the associated schools have used the travelling exhibitions prepared by Unesco on scientific topics, for example, 'Man against the desert', 'Man against the jungle', and those designed to make the art of different countries and cultural periods more widely known; these include displays of reproductions of Persian miniatures, Japanese wood-cuts and water-colour paintings from East and West. The travelling exhibits are supplemented by albums of reproductions published in the *Unesco World Art Series* on, for example, paintings from the caves of Ajanta (India); Yugoslav medieval frescoes; paintings from temple, shrine and rock (Ceylon); early Russian ikons; prehistoric paintings (Mexico). Individual colour prints from the albums can be obtained from the publisher.¹

An annotated bibliography of materials for use in teaching about the United Nations has been prepared by the United Nations and Unesco and has been published by Unesco in its series *Educational Studies and Documents* in English, French and Spanish.² The bibliography lists and describes publications, posters, films and filmstrips produced by the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies and materials issued by governments, commercial publishers and educational organizations and by other international organizations. The items in the bibliography have been selected especially to help teachers and youth leaders to find suitable aids for teaching about the work of the United Nations and also to interest the general reader.

### MATERIALS PREPARED AND PUBLISHED IN INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES

While the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies can fairly claim to have made progress in producing and circulating materials which are both useful and interesting for teachers and secondary school pupils, these still constitute, in many cases, only the raw materials of class-room aids, and often cannot be used without translation. Unesco, therefore, encourages governments, educational authorities and non-governmental organizations to adapt and prepare materials on a national basis as much as possible.

In a number of countries, commercial publishers are producing more and more publications on the work of the United Nations, on problems of

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¹. New York Graphic Society, 95 East Putnam Avenue, Greenwich, Conn., U.S.A.
². Out of print.
international co-operation and on life in other countries, which are attractive in presentation and can easily be used by teachers and by children of different age levels.

Some National Commissions for Unesco have published, in co-operation with Ministries of Education, teachers’ guides, textbooks or collections of texts, specially prepared for the purposes of teaching for international understanding in particular countries.

The following are some examples: a source book on human rights published by the French National Commission; a textbook on international understanding through the social studies published by the National Commission for the Philippines; texts for lessons on the Food and Agriculture Organization printed in a Swiss teachers’ journal; a textbook on the United Nations for use in secondary schools in Iran; a teachers’ guide for education for international understanding for use with Australian children 14 to 15 years of age, prepared by the Australian National Advisory Committee for Unesco; a mimeographed guide for teachers with lesson plans, prepared by the National Commission of Costa Rica; an anthology of texts from United Nations and Unesco publications collected and translated by the Japanese National Commission.

These are only a few examples of the initiative taken in various countries to fill the need for materials which can help teachers to plan and carry out projects in education for international understanding. Teachers’ organizations, United Nations Associations and other voluntary organizations also play an active part in improving and increasing the flow of teaching materials, in suggesting new themes and activities and in drawing attention to useful sources of information.

The American United Nations Association has published a Resource Handbook consisting of a collection of annotated bibliographies, games, music and other teaching aids for use in programmes on the United Nations and in developing international understanding. The Council for Education in World Citizenship in the United Kingdom, as part of its services to affiliated schools, distributes news-sheets, posters and teaching suggestions. The Federation of International Relations Clubs and Clubs of ‘Friends of Unesco’ in France issues an annual bulletin of news, ideas for practical projects and activities, discussion topics and advice on how to organize a club or study circle; the federation also circulates materials, including the Unesco travelling exhibitions, and provides equipment such as cameras, projectors, screens for film shows and tape recorders, on loan to its member clubs.
Discussions with practising teachers on the problem of obtaining materials suggest that certain types of teaching aid are particularly useful in many different countries. Those mentioned most frequently, both by teachers and pupils, are: pictorial illustrations of all kinds; studies dealing with world problems and the efforts made to solve them, each study centred in a different region; source books of historical texts and extracts from world literature to illustrate ideals of human rights; bibliographies of books published, at home and abroad, on everyday life in other countries; news-sheets or weekly newspapers for school pupils providing up-to-date accounts of the work of the United Nations and other international organizations; textbooks or chapters on international relations and on the work of the United Nations prepared for different age groups in the secondary schools.

To assist and stimulate its National Commissions and the national education authorities in the production of more new teaching materials Unesco has distributed a mimeographed text on the problem of food, prepared in co-operation with the Food and Agriculture Organization, with suggestions for adapting and translating it for local use.1

As a 'pilot' project in the production of regional studies, a British teacher of history has prepared, with assistance from Unesco, a comprehensive study of the work of the United Nations in countries of the Middle East for use in secondary schools of the United Kingdom. As supervisor of the Associated Schools Projects in his own country, he had already planned and conducted a project on this topic over a period of three months in his school and had learnt from his own experience the difficulty of selecting and adapting the necessary materials for a study centred in a particular region. To obtain up-to-date and authentic materials for his book, the writer carried out research at the headquarters of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies in Europe.

Some teachers taking part in the Associated Schools Projects have found themselves well supplied with materials on the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, but have had some difficulty in finding descriptive accounts and pictures for use in teaching about other countries. When the conventional resources of school or local library have proved insufficient, they have often shown great ingenuity and initiative in compiling and collecting their own texts and pictures and encouraging their pupils to do likewise.

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1. Adapted and published by the FAO in 1957 in English, French and Spanish under the title Man and Hunger.
As a result, they have been able to make use of a variety of sources of information. Materials have been obtained or borrowed from the homes of pupils, from correspondents in other countries, through exchanges with other teachers, from shipping offices, railway stations and travel agencies, from embassies and foreign information services, from museums and government cultural departments and from industrial sources such as large petrol and chemical companies. Many teachers have established useful and lasting contacts with the United Nations Information Centres and Information Offices of the Specialized Agencies.
In education, as in other fields, the words 'experiment' and 'evaluation' can have different meanings, and a reflection of this fact is to be found in the variety of the experimental activities carried out in the Unesco Associated Schools Projects. The projects have had, however, one thing in common: all are forms of what might be called 'operational' research, involving some change in the existing educational situation. They have thus effectively demonstrated the willingness of teachers and schools to try out new subject matter, methods and materials. Such practical testing of new possibilities is essential to educational development and is useful in itself even without scientific 'controls'.

However, for the purpose of contributing to a body of validated knowledge about education, it is desirable that experimentation should approach the scientific method as closely as possible. Many of the participating schools have therefore adopted a structure and pattern for their experiments which would enable them to apply scientific methods of analysis and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>Initial situation</td>
<td>A certain set of opinions and attitudes on a given subject (a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>Experimental period</td>
<td>Special educational programme on given subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Final situation</td>
<td>Modification of opinions and attitudes relevant to the subject (b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparison of (b) and (a) in each group and of (b) and (b) in the different groups should make it possible to draw conclusions as to the effectiveness of the new educational factors. This comparison can take very different forms, from a straightforward judgement expressed by the teacher to a highly complex statistical analysis, depending on the evaluative techniques employed.
measurement. In general, their experiments have taken the form of altering one or more factors in the educational situation and studying the effect of this alteration on the knowledge and attitudes of the pupils. This type of experiment is represented in tabular form on the previous page.

**SOME METHODS OF EVALUATION**

Methods of evaluation, like subject content, materials and teaching methods, should be closely related to aims. In the comparatively new field of education for international understanding, it is often necessary for teachers to devise their own instruments. Some techniques and instruments which have been used with good results are mentioned briefly below.¹

*Descriptive reporting*

Descriptive reporting by the teacher or other observers, if carried out in an objective spirit, can make an important contribution to evaluation. It is useful not only in itself, but also as an aid to interpreting data produced by other methods and to checking subjective impressions and judgements.

Many teachers keep a ‘log book’ from day to day in which they record how pupils respond to particular lessons or activities. Over a period of time, such an account may very effectively show how the knowledge and attitudes of the class have evolved. The value of this kind of reporting increases in proportion to the amount of specific descriptive details included. Generalizations, on the other hand, have less meaning in retrospect and may not convey much to those who have not directly observed the class reaction.

*Tests of knowledge*

Every teacher is familiar with tests of knowledge, which are the basic instrument for measuring academic achievement. In education for international understanding, factual information is essential but the possession of it does not by itself demonstrate that the objective has been attained. Thus, tests of knowledge should be employed in conjunction with other methods of evaluation, and they should be constructed (like good tests of knowledge in other fields) in such a way as to reveal not only knowledge of facts but also comprehension of the meaning of facts. For example,

¹ Some of the suggestions in this chapter have been taken from ‘How can teachers evaluate growth in international understanding?’, by Margaret Cormack, in: *International Understanding through the Secondary School Curriculum*, Vol. 40, No. 224, December 1956 issue of the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*. 
it is less important to find out whether pupils know when the United Nations was founded and how it is organized than to ascertain whether they understand the need for it and its role in world affairs.

In constructing tests, teachers may find it useful to keep in mind the following principles, which are widely accepted:

1. Questions should be brief and clear.
2. ‘True-false’ statements are too limited. Multiple choice or matching items are better.¹
3. In multiple-choice items, the positive forms of phraseology, rather than the negative, should be employed.
4. In multiple-choice items, at least five alternatives, only one of which is correct, should be offered.
5. In matching questions the number of alternatives offered should exceed the number of items with which they are to be paired.
6. In both types of question the alternatives offered should be homogeneous, grammatically consistent and plausible, and mutually exclusive.
7. Open questions (‘What are the functions and responsibilities of the Security Council?’) disclose more than matching or multi-choice items, but the answers are more difficult to interpret and evaluate.

**Attitude scales**

Attitude scales are useful in two main ways. First, by indicating the ideas and opinions of the pupils, they may give the teacher valuable clues to the particular needs of the class, to which the programme of instruction can then be adapted in appropriate ways. In addition to this ‘diagnostic’ function, attitude scales are also useful in showing the effects on attitudes, ideas and opinions of the programme of instruction, whether it is the usual one or a special or experimental one.

Various forms of attitude tests have been devised. Many are too complicated for general use at the secondary level without expert assistance, but some types can easily be adapted to the purposes of education for international understanding and can be employed effectively by the non-specialist. One such is designed to reveal prejudices. Following is a modi-

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¹ Example of a multiple-choice item:
The nation with the largest population is: (a) India; (b) China; (c) U.S.S.R.; (d) U.S.A.; (e) Canada.

**Example of a matching item:**

(1) Chopin ( ) (a) an educator
(2) Copernicus ( ) (b) a musician
(3) Pestalozzi ( ) (c) a chemist
(d) an astronomer

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ied example of this form, drawn from the sample tests distributed in the Associated Schools Projects:

Read down the statements and decide, for each of the nationalities in turn, where you would draw the line. Then draw the line quite clearly underneath the number for the last thing you would be prepared to accept. Perhaps you would agree to all 8 of the statements. In that case, draw the line under the figure 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I would let them visit our country</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I would let them live in our country</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>2 2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I would let them go to my school</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>3 3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I would let them live in my neighbourhood</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>4 4 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I would let them live next door to me</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>5 5 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I would let them play in my house</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>6 6 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I would have them to tea in my house</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>7 7 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I would be happy to have one as a very close friend</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>8 8 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another type of attitude scale is that in which a series of statements are made to which there are five or six possible responses expressing degrees of agreement or disagreement. The following example is an excerpt from one of the sample tests prepared for Associated Schools Projects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. They work hard</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I would like to live next door to them</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I like them</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is easy to be friends with them</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I would like to know more about them</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This same technique can easily be adapted for inquiries concerned with opinions and ideas rather than nationalities.

A third type also suggested for use in Associated Schools Projects is intended to indicate pupils’ tendencies towards generalization or differentiation in thinking about other nations or peoples. Here is an example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. They are hard-working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. They are cruel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. They have a hard life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pupils are asked to complete the table according to the following letter code: A, if they feel that the statement applies to all people of the nationality named; M, if they feel it applies to most; F, if they feel it applies to few, or N, if they feel it applies to none.

While such tests as these can yield interesting evidence concerning attitudes, ideas and opinions, they should not be relied upon uncritically. Several factors may limit the validity of findings: for one thing, questions are necessarily directed to thought or feeling at the conscious level of the mind, which may not faithfully reflect unconscious impulses and motivations. For this reason, many specialists feel that such findings are superficial. Another reservation, related to the first, is that the opinions and ideas which these instruments are able to reach frequently change with time and growth, and that results obtained at a given point may have no permanent validity and may not even provide reliable predictions of future change and development. For this reason, it is desirable to follow up experiments with further testings, at, for example, yearly intervals. A further objection is that intelligent pupils may know, or quickly guess, what answers will be considered proper and will put down what they think is wanted rather than what they really believe. (It is particularly important, of course, to avoid ‘teaching for the test’ which suggests the ‘right’ answers.) And finally, some teachers and specialists feel that instruments which contain emotionally charged, negative statements about, for example, nations, races or institutions may have the effect of implanting undesirable ideas or opinions.

Thus particular care should be exercised in the use of such tests and in the interpretation of results. They should be employed together with other techniques and instruments designed to supplement and substantiate findings. Some of these are mentioned below.
OTHER TECHNIQUES

The possibilities of evaluation are by no means exhausted by descriptive reporting, tests of knowledge and attitude scales. Other methods may reveal as much or more. Free discussion, particularly in small groups, can disclose much of pupils' knowledge and attitudes. Though it is difficult to evaluate results, this method, in the hands of a teacher who can avoid imposing his own opinions and who is prepared to record the results carefully and in detail (or, better still, to record them on a tape machine) produces valuable qualitative material. Similarly, interviews with individual pupils are an effective, though time-consuming, device. Essays in which pupils express their ideas and opinions are also useful.

Various kinds of 'interest inventories' can help the teacher to discover something of the individual tastes, preferences, intellectual leanings and practical interests of pupils. They may be asked to compile, in the order of preference, lists of books or films; or to say what it is that they usually read first, second, third, and so on, in the newspaper; or to list their favourite radio or television programmes.

Many teachers and specialists feel that 'projective' techniques are preferable to 'verbal' techniques (such as attitude scales) because the responses to them are likely to be more reliable and because they penetrate to subconscious attitudes. However, such results, though they may be more significant, are generally harder to interpret and evaluate.

Some projective techniques involve the use of pictorial material. Pupils may be shown a photograph or drawing depicting some aspect of life in their own or a foreign land and asked to explain what they think the picture means, what is happening in it, who the people are, etc. Another device is to show selected photographs of different faces and ask them to identify the nationality, race, religion or profession of the persons portrayed. Or they may be asked to draw pictures giving their own impressions of, say, a scene in a particular foreign country or a person of a particular nationality. Such exercises may reveal deeply hidden stereotypes and prejudices.

Some methods call upon pupils to invent situations or to participate in them. For example the teacher may give the first few sentences of a story and ask the pupils to complete it, or show the opening scenes of a film and ask them to tell what they think is going to happen afterwards. In doing so they often express underlying attitudes. It is also sometimes possible to arrange situations or experiences in which the behaviour of the pupils will yield significant evidence concerning their attitudes. Inviting a foreign speaker or visitor to the class; arranging a school visit to another country;
and 'acting out' by pupils of what they would do in a given situation are examples of this kind of projective technique.

In addition to the methods and instruments which have been mentioned there are many others. It is not possible here to do more than suggest a few of the possibilities. It is wise, however, to employ a flexible and comprehensive range of methods and instruments, chosen or devised with the precise purposes they are intended to serve in mind. Their aims and limitations should be clearly understood by the teachers who use them. They should not only be effective as research tools but also beneficial from the educational point of view. Finally, they should be appropriate to the circumstances and atmosphere of the school and should be applied in such a way as not to arouse hostile reactions or feelings of insecurity among pupils. These conditions are sometimes difficult to fulfil, but the gains from evaluation, when it is carried out wisely and well, justify the effort involved.
The projects and activities described here illustrate a variety of approaches to teaching for international understanding. Essential elements such as visual aids, information, activity methods or personal experience in group relations, play a greater or a lesser part according to the needs of the pupils, the school’s resources and the time available for special programmes. But, whatever the pattern of teaching may be, the teacher’s part in it is the most important single factor and it is certain that teachers have devoted much time, patience and ingenuity to the work of adapting their programmes, collecting texts and illustrations and guiding their pupils in research or discussion.

Many teachers who have directed or taken part in experimental projects for international understanding have found the work rewarding. They have appreciated opportunities to try out new material and new methods in the class-room and have been very satisfied with their pupils’ response and the positive results achieved in developing a deeper sense of international understanding among them. Some teachers have themselves broken new ground in preparing their programmes and have enjoyed making discoveries with pupils about different countries and peoples and their problems.

Some of their programmes have found a place in the regular school curriculum; others have been used as the basis for fresh experimentation. Teachers have also commented on the improvement in school relationships, with their pupils and with their colleagues, which has often developed as a result of collaborating in a special programme.

Experience has shown that the co-operation of other teachers and, particularly, support and encouragement from the school principal are more or less indispensable to the teacher directing a project if the risk of discouragement or overwork is to be avoided. In many schools, where a special programme has been followed by one group or class of pupils,
the teaching staff as a whole has co-operated, not only in the work of the group, but in making known the aims and results of the programme to the rest of the school.

In their attempts to give new colour and a fresh approach to their lessons in the interests of international understanding, teachers need encouragement, assistance and information from outside as well as in the school. This is supplied, to some extent, by educational authorities, National Commissions for Unesco, education services of the United Nations, non-governmental organizations, such as the United Nations Associations, and teachers' organizations both at the national and international level.

Some materials and services provided by the United Nations and Unesco, as well as other Specialized Agencies, have been mentioned in Chapter VII. In a number of countries, for example, in France, Italy, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States of America, national authorities and teachers' associations issue materials and organize weekend or vacation courses for teachers on the work of the United Nations and other aspects of international co-operation. In Afghanistan, the Institute for Education has introduced a programme on 'The United Nations and the Modern World' into its annual courses for primary and secondary school teachers.

The international associations of teachers' organizations take an active interest in promoting the production of materials and programmes for use in teaching for international understanding and collaborate closely in this work with the United Nations and with Unesco. The World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession has, for example, completed a survey of audio-visual aids available in different countries and launched a project in ten countries for the preparation of various teaching aids designed to be of use in particular national school systems; the work was carried out by national teachers' organizations in each country in cooperation with United Nations Information Centres and with financial assistance from Unesco.

Recommendations and suggestions for action made at teachers' meetings are an indication of the strength of their interest in education for international understanding and of their most pressing needs in carrying out projects in this field. In the hope that demand will create supply, reports of the findings at these meetings are circulated as widely as possible among education authorities and interested organizations. The teachers, in their proposals, cover most of the problems presented. They regularly make an urgent appeal for more materials designed for use in school by the teacher and, more particularly, by the pupils themselves; among other suggestions,
they have proposed measures for providing teachers in rural districts or isolated towns with information by using the services of visiting school inspectors or travelling libraries, and for organizing short courses on, for example, the work of the United Nations, at official gatherings of teachers. Participants at these meetings have also drawn attention to existing sources of assistance and have encouraged their colleagues to make use of United Nations Information Centres within their reach or to join national United Nations Associations.

Unesco's Associated Schools Projects programme has provided opportunities for teachers in different parts of the world to exchange information and materials, to meet with colleagues from other countries and to compare the results of teaching experiments. The schools and institutions formally associated with the programme are comparatively very few, but their activities are increasingly looked upon as pilot projects from which ideas for methods and curricula may flow into education systems generally.

Fellowships for travel and study, of which up to ten have been awarded every year since the commencement of the programme, have enabled some of the participating teachers to observe educational practice in other countries and, at the same time, to inform teachers and students in the host institutions about conditions in their own school systems. The success of these exchanges and the useful contacts established between teachers who have taken part in them is proof of the value to practising teachers of visits to other schools both at home and abroad.

In some countries, schools participating in the programme of Associated Schools Projects have had guidance from special committees set up by National Commissions for Unesco and education authorities (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Japan, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States of America). This has had the effect of easing the teacher's task in carrying out new projects and adapting current programmes and has assisted co-ordination between schools and between countries.

In Costa Rica, Finland and Poland, teachers-in-training have been invited to observe and to take part in model lessons given in schools where programmes to develop international understanding are in operation. Many teachers in service feel that inadequate preparation for this teaching during the period of training is the cause of some of their difficulties in orienting their school work towards international understanding. Recognizing the importance of the teacher's part in this work, Unesco extended the programme of Associated Schools Projects in 1957 to include teacher-training institutions. There are at present eighty-three of these institutions in twenty-seven countries participating in the scheme.
Teachers interested in ways and means of educating for international understanding may find some inspiration and encouragement in the examples of school practice given here. They may wish to adapt, for their own purposes, methods and programmes with which their colleagues in other schools and countries have experimented successfully; it is hoped that they will, in this work, make the widest use of any new sources of information or services brought to their notice in this booklet.
APPENDIX I

TWO VERSIONS
OF THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION
OF HUMAN RIGHTS
PREPARED BY SCHOOL PUPILS

United States version

One group of students of a junior high school in the United States decided to restate the articles of the Declaration in simple form. Their interpretations were as follows:

1. Human beings should act like brothers.
2. Everyone is entitled to all the rights set forth in the Declaration.
3. Everyone has the right to life, liberty, and security of person.
4. Slavery is prohibitive.
5. No punishment or degradation of the individual is allowed.
6. Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.
7. Everyone is equal before the law.
8. Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by national tribunals.
9. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.
10. Everyone is entitled to a public hearing.
11. Everyone is innocent until proven guilty at a public trial.
12. Everyone is entitled to privacy.
13. Everyone is entitled to travel and to have residence within the borders of each State; everyone has the right to travel.
14. Everyone has the right to asylum in another country if he has not violated acts contrary to principles of the United Nations.
15. Everyone has the right to a nationality.
16. Everyone has the right to marry one of his or her choice. The family is entitled to protection by society and the State.
17. Everyone has the right to own property.
18. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion.
19. Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression.
20. Everyone has the right to freedom of assembly.
21. Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly, or through freely chosen representatives.
22. Everyone has the right to social security.
23. Everyone has the right to free choice of employment; the right to equal pay for equal work; the right to join a trade union; and, the right to just remuneration.
24. Everyone has the right to leisure.
25. Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for health, food, shelter, clothing, and necessary social services.
26. Everyone has the right to education.
27. Everyone has the right to participate in the cultural life of the community.
28. Everyone is entitled to be protected by the Declaration of Human Rights.
29. Everyone has duties to his community.
30. No one has the right to engage in any activity aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

United Kingdom version

Suggestions for a children’s version made by pupils in a school in the United Kingdom.

1. We are all born free and have equal rights with our neighbours. We are able to think and to reason and should act towards one another as though we were brothers.
2. Everyone should have the freedoms written in this Declaration no matter what their colour is, where they live, what they think or how they work.
3. Everyone has the right to live freely and in safety.
4. There shall be no slavery, no torture, no cruel treatment or punishment.
5. ... 
6. Everyone shall be recognized as a free person by the law and shall be ruled equally and be given equal protection by the law.
7. ... 
8. ... 
9. No one shall be imprisoned or sent from the country without a fair reason.
10. Everyone has the right to be given a public trial and to be tried fairly by a group of neutral people.
11. Everyone who is charged with a serious offence has the right to be considered innocent until he is proved guilty in a public trial in which he has representatives for his defence. Punishment shall not be increased after the original sentence.
12. The law shall protect everyone from unjust interference with his private life.
13. Everyone has the right to go where he likes within the borders of each State and everyone has the right to leave any country including his own and go back again.
14. Everyone has the right to look for help and enjoy in other countries refuge from political, religious or social injustice.
15. Everyone has the right to belong to a country and this shall not be taken away unfairly but he can change his nationality himself.
16. All men and women at the full age have the right to marry and have a family which shall be protected by the State.
17. Everyone has the right to own property which shall not be taken away from him without just cause.
18. Everyone has the right to have, and to change, his own beliefs and to tell other people of them.
19. ... 
20. Everyone has the right to belong to a society or union but he may not be forced to do so.
21. Everyone has the right to vote at elections and take part in the government of the country.
22. Everyone has the right to health, education and to develop his own way of life.
23. Everyone has the right to work in good conditions, to equal pay for equal work, to choose his own job and to protect his working rights.
24. Everyone has the right to rest and to have time to do as he pleases, reasonable working hours and recognized holidays with pay.

25. Everyone has the right to live in good and healthy conditions and to have security when sick or unemployed. Special care shall be given to mothers and children.

26. Everyone has the right to learn. Elementary education shall be free and compulsory and everyone can have further education if he is capable of achieving it. Education shall be directed so that the person shall have a respect for human rights and shall encourage understanding and friendship among all people. Parents have the right to choose the kind of education they wish for their children.

27. Everyone has the right to enjoy books, music, art, drama and benefit from scientific discoveries. Authors and inventors have the right to prevent their work from being copied.

28. The rights and freedoms set out in this Declaration should be recognized in all countries.

29. Everyone should work together and help each other so that all can live happily in their country but they must recognize the law of the country.
APPENDIX II

UNITED NATIONS INFORMATION CENTRES AND OFFICES

Accra
United Nations Information Centre, Post Box 2339, Accra, Ghana.
Street address: Liberia and Maxwell Roads.
Area covered: Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Nigeria, Sierra Leone.

Addis Ababa
Street address: Adua Square.
Area covered: Ethiopia.

Asunción
Centro de Información de las Naciones Unidas, Calle Chile 430, Apartado postal 1107, Asunción, Paraguay.
Area covered: Paraguay.

Athens
United Nations Information Centre, 25A Jan Smuts Street, Athens, Greece.
Area covered: Cyprus, Greece, Israel, Turkey.

Baghdad
United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 2048, Baghdad, Iraq.
Area covered: Iraq.

Bangkok
Area covered: Cambodia, Laos, Federation of Malaya and Singapore, Thailand, Viet-Nam.

Beirut
United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 4656, Beirut, Lebanon.
Area covered: Jordan, Lebanon, Syria.

Belgrade
United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 157, Belgrade, Yugoslavia.
Street address: Trg. Marksa i Engelsa, br. I.
Area covered: Albania, Yugoslavia.
**Bogotá**
Centro de Información de las Naciones Unidas, P.O. Box 65-67, Bogotá, Colombia.
Street address: Calle 19, Numero 7-30-Septimo Piso.
Area covered: Colombia, Ecuador, Venezuela.

**Buenos Aires**
Centro de Información de las Naciones Unidas, Marcelo T. de Alvear 684, 3F, Buenos Aires, Argentina.
Area covered: Argentina, Uruguay.

**Cairo**
United Nations Information Centre, Sharia El Shams, Imm, Tagher, B.P. 262, Garden City, Cairo, United Arab Republic.
Area covered: Saudi Arabia, Sudan, United Arab Republic, Yemen.

**Colombo**
United Nations Information Centre, 45 Alfred House Gardens, Colombo 3 (P.O. Box 1505), Ceylon.
Area covered: Ceylon.

**Copenhagen**
United Nations Information Centre, 37 H. C. Andersens Boulevard, Copenhagen V, Denmark.
Area covered: Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden.

**Dar-es-Salaam**
United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 9182, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanganyika.
Area covered: Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, Tanganyika, Uganda, Zanzibar.

**Geneva**
Area covered: Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, Switzerland.

**Jakarta**
Area covered: Indonesia.

**Kabul**
United Nations Information Office, P.O. Box 5, Kabul, Afghanistan.
Street address: Shah Mahmoud, Ghazi Square.
Area covered: Afghanistan.

**Karachi**
United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box No. 349, G.P.O., Karachi 1, Pakistan.
Street address: Havelock Road.
Area covered: Pakistan.

**Lima**
United Nations Information Centre, Parque Mariscal Caceres No. 18, Apartado 4480, Lima, Peru.
Area covered: Bolivia, Peru.
Lomé
United Nations Information Centre, Lomé, Togo.

London
United Nations Information Centre, 14/15 Stratford Place, London W.1, United Kingdom.
Area covered: Ireland, Netherlands, United Kingdom and dependencies except those listed under the Accra, Bangkok, Dar-es-Salaam and Port of Spain centres.

Manila
United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 2149, Manila, Philippines.
Street address: World Health Organization, Regional Office of the Western Pacific, corner of Taft Avenue and Isaac Pavel.
Area covered: The Philippines.

Mexico City
Centro de Información de las Naciones Unidas, Hamburgo 63, 3er piso, México 6, D.F., Mexico.
Area covered: Cuba, Dominican Republic, Mexico.

Monrovia
United Nations Information Office, P.O. Box 274, Monrovia, Liberia.
Street address: 24 Broad Street.
Area covered: Liberia.

Moscow
United Nations Information Centre, 15 Hohlovski Pereulok, Apartment 36, Moscow, U.S.S.R.

New Delhi
United Nations Information Centre, 21 Curzon Road, New Delhi, India.
Area covered: India, Nepal.

Paris
Centre d'Information des Nations Unies, 26, avenue de Segur, Paris-7e, France.
Area covered: Belgium, France, Luxembourg.

Port Moresby
United Nations Information Centre, c/o Island Products Ltd. Building, Champion Parade, Port Moresby, Papua, New Guinea.
Area covered: New Guinea, Papua.

Port of Spain
United Nations Information Centre, 19 Keate Street, Port of Spain, Trinidad W.I.
Area covered: British Guiana, British Honduras, Caribbean area.

Prague
United Nations Information Centre, Panska 5, Prague II, Czechoslovakia.
Area covered: Czechoslovakia.

Rabat
United Nations Information Centre, c/o Resident Representative, Technical Assistance Board, Boîte Postale 524, Chellah, Rabat, Morocco.
Area covered: Morocco.
Rangoon
United Nations Information Centre, 24 B Manawhari Road, Rangoon, Burma.
Area covered: Burma.

Rio de Janeiro
United Nations Information Centre, Caixa Postal 1750, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
Street address: Rua México 11, Sala 1502.
Area covered: Brazil.

Rome
United Nations Information Centre, Palazzetto Venezia, Piazza San Marco 51, Rome, Italy.
Area covered: Italy.

San Salvador
Centro de Información de las Naciones Unidas, Apartado Postal 1114, San Salvador, El Salvador.
Street address: Edificio de la Gran Logia Cuscatlan, 8a Avenida Sur, Número 126.
Area covered: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama.

Santiago
ECLA Information Officer: Economic Commission for Latin America, Avenida Providencia 871, Santiago, Chile.
Area covered: Chile.

Sydney
United Nations Information Centre, Box 4030, General Post Office, Sydney, Australia.
Street address: 44 Martin Place.
Area covered: Australia, New Zealand.

Tananarive
United Nations Information Centre, Boîte Postale 1348, Tananarive, Madagascar.
Area covered: Madagascar.

Teheran
United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 1555, Kh. Takhte-Jamshid, 12 Kh. Bendar Pahlavi, Teheran, Iran.
Area covered: Iran.

Tokyo
United Nations Information Centre, New Ohtemachi Building, Room 210, 4, 2-chome, Ohtemachi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo, Japan.
Area covered: Japan.

Tunis
United Nations Information Centre, Boîte Postale 863, Tunis, Tunisia.
Street address: 61 Fared Hached, Tunis.

Usumbura
United Nations Information Centre, Boîte Postale 1490, Usumbura, Burundi.
Area covered: Ruanda, Burundi.

Washington
United Nations Information Centre, Suite 714, 1028 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.
APPENDIX III

INFORMATION OFFICES OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND ITS RELATED AGENCIES

United Nations
Office of Public Information, United Nations, New York, N.Y., U.S.A.

United Nations Children's Fund
Public Information Officer, Unicef, Room 2410 B, United Nations, New York, N.Y., U.S.A.

International Atomic Energy Agency
Kärntnerring 11, Vienna I, Austria.

High Commissioner's Office for Refugees
Palais des Nations, Geneva, Switzerland.

International Labour Organisation
Public Information Division, International Labour Organisation, 154, rue de Lausanne, Geneva, Switzerland.
ILO Branch Office, avenida Presidente R. Saenz Pena 615 (piso 7º), Buenos Aires, Argentina.
ILO Branch Office, Repartição International de Trabalho, Edifício do Ministerio de Trabalho, 2º andar, salas 216 a 220, avenida Presidente Antonio Carlos 251, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
ILO Branch Office, Room 307, 202 Queen Street, Ottawa 4, Ontario, Canada.
ILO Branch Office, 205, boulevard Saint-Germain, Paris-7e, France.
ILO Branch Office, Hohenzollernstrasse 21 Bad Godesberg, Bonn, Germany (Federal Republic).
ILO Branch Office, Í-Mandi House, New Delhi, India.
ILO Branch Office, Villa Aldobrandini, 28 Via Pancisperna, Rome, Italy.
ILO Branch Office, Zenkoku-Choson-Kaikan, 17 1-chome, Nagatacho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo, Japan.
ILO Branch Office, Petrovka 15, Apt. 23, Moscow K. 9, U.S.S.R.
ILO Branch Office, Talaat Harb Street, Soussa Building, Flat 83, Cairo, United Arab Republic.
ILO Branch Office, 38-39 Parliament Street, London S.W.1, United Kingdom.
ILO Branch Office, 917 15th Street, N.W., Washington 5, D.C., U.S.A.

Food and Agriculture Organization
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Viale delle Terme de Caracalla, Rome, Italy.
FAO Regional Office for Europe, Palais des Nations, Geneva, Switzerland.
FAO Near East Regional Office, P.O. Box 2223, Cairo, United Arab Republic.
FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Far East, Maliwan Mansion, Phra Ait Road, Bangkok, Thailand.
FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Far East, Western Zone, 21 Curzon Road, New Delhi, India.
FAO Regional Office for Latin America, Northern Zone, Apartado Postal 10778, México (1) D.F., Mexico.
FAO Regional Office for Latin America, Eastern Zone, Rua Jardim Botânico 1008, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
FAO Regional Office for Latin America, Western Zone, Casilla 10095, Santiago, Chile.
FAO North American Regional Office, 1325 C Street, S.W., Washington 25, D.C., U.S.A.
FAO Regional Office for Africa, P.O. Box 1628, Accra, Ghana.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
Department of Mass Communication, Unesco, Place de Fontenoy, Paris-7e, France.

World Health Organization
Division of Public Information, WHO, Palais des Nations, Geneva, Switzerland.
Regional Office of WHO for Europe, 8 Scherfigsvej, Copenhagen, Denmark.
Public Information Officer, WHO Regional Office for the Americas, Pan-American Sanitary Bureau, 1501 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., U.S.A.
Public Information Officer, Regional Office of WHO Eastern Mediterranean, P.O. Box 1517, Alexandria, United Arab Republic.
Public Information Officer, Regional Office of WHO for South-East Asia, Patiala House, Princes Park, New Delhi, India.
Public Information Officer, Regional Office of WHO for the Western Pacific, Post Box 2932, Manila, Philippines.
Public Information Officer, WHO Regional Office for Africa, P.O. Box 6, Brazzaville, Congo (Brazzaville).

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development

International Finance Corporation
International Finance Corporation, 1818 H Street, N.W., Washington 25, D.C., U.S.A.

International Monetary Fund

International Civil Aviation Organization
Public Information Section, International Civil Aviation Organization, Room 828, International Aviation Building, 1080 University Street, Montreal 2, Quebec, Canada.
European and Africa Office, 60bis, avenue d’Iéna, Paris-16e, France.
Far East and Pacific Office, Sala Santithan, Rajadamnoen Avenue, Bangkok, Thailand.
Middle East Office, 16 Hassau Sabri, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.
North American and Caribbean Office, 540 Avenida Chapultepec, 7th floor,
México D.F., Mexico.

*Universal Postal Union*
Universal Postal Union, Case Postale, Berne 15, Switzerland.

*International Telecommunications Union*
International Telecommunications Union, Place des Nations, Geneva,
Switzerland.

*World Meteorological Organization*
World Meteorological Organization, 41 Avenue Giuseppe Motta, Geneva,
Switzerland. 1, quai Branly, Paris-7e, France.

*International Trade Organization*
Information and Library Unit, Interim Commission for the International
Trade Organization, Villa le Bocage, Geneva 10, Switzerland.

*Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization*
Chancery House, Chancery Lane, London W.C.2, United Kingdom.
This list gives the addresses of the national offices of the International Federation of Organizations for School Correspondence and Exchanges (FIOCES).

Argentina

Australia
International Correspondence for Schools, c/o the United Nations Association of Australia (N.S.W. Div.), 29 Bligh Street, Sydney, NSW.

Austria
Österreichisches Komitee für Internationale Studienaustausch, Turkenstrasse 4/III, Vienna IX.
Verband de Österreichischen Neuphilologen, Internationaler Schülerbriefwechsel, Zentrale für Englisch, Kundmannsgasse 22, Vienna III.
Verband der Österreichischen Neuphilologen, Französische Korrespondenz, Seilergasse 16, Vienna I.

Belgium
La Jeunesse Belge à l’Etranger, 11, rue d’Egmont, Brussels.
Les Voyages scolaires Belgo-Luxembourgeois, 12, boulevard Charlemagne, Brussels 4.

Brazil
Servicio de Correspondencia Escolar Internacional, Casa do Estudante do Brasil, Placa Anna Amelia, 9, Rio de Janeiro.

Canada
Overseas Correspondence Department, United Nations Association in Canada, P.O. Box 393, Station F, Toronto, Ont.
Bureau de C.S.I., Commission des Écoles Catholiques de Montreal, 3737 Sherbrooke Street E., Montreal 36.

Finland
Koulumatkailutoimisto School Travel Bureau, Korkeavuorenkatu 25 A, Helsinki.
France
Service français de CSI, 60, boulevard du Lycée, Vanves, Seine.
Office national des Universités et Écoles françaises, 96, boulevard Raspail, Paris-6e.
Office du Tourisme universitaire et scolaire, 137, boulevard St. Michel, Paris-5e.
Échanges culturels et Séjours à l'étranger, SNCF, 36, rue de Leningrad, Paris-8e.
Ligue d'Amitié internationale, 48, rue d'Hauteville, Paris-10e.

Germany (Federal Republic of)
Briefwechsel der Weltjugend, Burgstrasse 1 (315), Peine-Hanover.
Pädagogischer Austauschdienst, Königstrasse 61, Bonn.

Greece
Bureau de correspondance scolaire internationale, Service d'Études et de Coordination, Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, Evangelistrias 2, Athens.

India
Nation's League of Pen Friends, 86 Theatre Communication Buildings, Connaught Place, New Delhi.

Israel
Service d'Échanges de Correspondances, Ministère de l'Éducation et de la Culture, Jerusalem.

Italy
Ufficio di Corrispondenza Scolastica Internazionale, Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione, Via Napoleone III, No 8, Rome.
CIVIS, (Ventro Italiano per i Viaggi d'Istruzione degli Studenti), Palazzo Antici Mattei, Via Michelangelo Caetani 32, Rome.

Japan
Association of Pen Friend Clubs of Japan, Azabu Post Office Box No. 1, Minato-ku, Tokyo.

Madagascar
Bureau Malgache de la CSI, Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, Tananarive.

Malta
Malta Correspondence Club, 280 Fleur-de-Lys, B'Kara.

Mauritius
Bureau Mauricien de CSI, Boîte postale 247, Port Louis.

Mexico
Clubes de Fraternidad Universal, Dpto. de Cooperación intelectual, Secretaría de Educación publica, Mexico D.F.

Netherlands
Nederlandse Stichting voor Schoolreizen, Danckertstraat, 9, The Hague.
Vereniging voor Internationaal Jeugdverkeer, 2, Stadhouderslaan, Utrecht.
New Zealand
Overseas Correspondence, The United Nations Association, 26 Westcott Street, Zone 6, Christchurch.

Norway
Skolenes Brevklubb, Kristian Augustsgt. 14, Oslo.

Spain
Esfeteta Juvenil Internacional, Delegación nacional de Juventudes, José Ortega y Gasset, 71, Madrid 6.
Oficina de Viajes Universitarios, SEU, Dep. Nacional de Intercambio Cultural, Glorieta de Quevedo, No. 8, Madrid.

Sweden
Centralnämnden för Skolungdumsutbytet med Utlandet, Storkyrkobrincken 11, Stockholm C.

United Kingdom
International Friendship League, 21 Wyndham Road, Birmingham.
International Scholastic Correspondence, Higher North Harton, Lustleigh, Newton Abbot, Devonshire.
National Union of Students International Correspondence Exchange, Leeds University Union, Leeds 2.
Scotland: The Educational Institute of Scotland 46-47 Moray Place, Edinburgh.
International Scholastic Correspondence, North America-Australia Sub-office, P.O. Box 40, Inverness.

United States of America
Association for World Travel Exchange, International Counselor Exchange Programme of the U.S.A., 38 West 88th Street, New York 24, N.Y.
World Pen Pals, World Affairs Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn.
League of Friendship, P.O. Box 509, Mount Vernon, Ohio.
Letters Abroad Inc., 45 East 65th Street, New York 21, N.Y.
National Bureau of Correspondence, AATF, College of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio.
Student Letter Exchange, Waseca, Minn.
World Friends’ Club, Cleveland Press, Cleveland, Ohio.

Non-affiliated offices of FIOCES

Morocco
Bureau Marocain de la CSI, Ministère de l’Éducation, Direction des Affaires culturelles, Rabat.

Thailand
Pen Friends Promotion Centre, International Relations Division, Post and Telegraphs Department, Bangkok.