A NEW MAGNA CARTA FOR CHILDREN
THE HEN WITH THE GOLDEN CHICKS
(See page 28)
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Cover Photo
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The problem of schooling in the countries of Asia is a vicious circle. The countries are poor because they are not properly educated and they cannot build schools because they are poor. Asia's people are now determined to break this vicious circle.

One of the crucial issues of our time is the educational future of the children of the world. For the children of Asia, Latin America, tropical Africa and the Arab states of the Middle East this is a problem which, in magnitude and complexity, ranks with those of hunger, sickness and poverty.

The extension of school facilities to all children has always been a basic concern to Unesco. International regional studies and conferences sponsored by the Organization led to the launching of a major Unesco project in 1957 for the extension of primary education in Latin America. Since then, surveys and inquiries have been made by Unesco into the needs of Asia, Africa and the Middle East.

Preliminary investigations for each area were completed last year and considered at meetings of Ministers and Directors of Education from each region, held in Karachi, Addis Ababa and Beirut at the end of 1959 and early this year. The reports they adopted are of special importance in connexion with the long range efforts being planned and have also made possible the formulation of proposals for Unesco action which are being considered at the eleventh session of Unesco's General Conference which opens in Paris later this month.

Georges Fradier, special correspondent of The Unesco Courier, travelling through Asia, Africa and the Middle East, has had a first-hand view of their educational resources, problems and projects. Below we present his first report—a striking picture of the educational problems and plans of Asian countries whose populations total 800 million. Further reports, on Africa and the Middle East, will appear in future issues of The Unesco Courier and the whole broad outline of the school situation in the three regions will be reviewed in "Asia, the Arab States and Africa: Education and Progress", a forthcoming Unesco publication.
W

e live in an age which has grown ac-
customed to huge figures. Miles, tons, dol-
ars and roubles are calculated in
terms involving more and more strings of zeros. Applied
to human beings such figures are lifeless and without
meaning. Thus when we speak of children we must think
of them one by one, remembering that in each and every
case a promise, a future, an opportunity and an irrepla-
ceable life is at stake.

Here we are dealing with 130 million irreplaceable
children from 15 Asian countries about half of whom
are denied a basic opportunity (1). They are denied the
opportunity of obtaining an education, of escaping from
the narrow confines of inherited toil ("You don’t know
anything so you can do the same work your father did"),
of understanding something of what goes on outside the
village, the factory or the home; they are denied the
opportunity of choosing their own careers or their own
opinions, of going through life with some degree of
awareness and understanding.

In Korea, for example, all children between the ages
of 6 and 12 go to school (much as in Western Europe about
1880); in Thailand almost all children go to school from 7
to 14. But in Vietnam, in India, in Pakistan, Indonesia
and Iran, only 5 out of every 10 children are lucky enough
to be taught the 3 Rs; out of 10 village children, 5 go to
school and 5 work in the fields; out of every 10 children
in the industrial suburbs, 5 spend their days in the class-
room and 5 in the streets.

If we take these 15 Asian countries as a single unit, out
of every 10 children, 5 will never read a newspaper or a
letter or the history of their own countries. They will
never read a single line of any of the masterpieces of
"world" literature, so named because they were conceived
and written for the benefit of all.

These 5 children, boys or girls, picked at random from
each group of 10, will grow up, live and work very much
like their illiterate parents before them. But not quite
like them. Life will be even harder. Our civilization is
based on the written word. As that civilization develops
and spreads, illiterates will be increasingly faced with a
difficult and isolated existence, sometimes fearful and
secretive, sometimes jeering and rebellious, the same
existence as that led by the few complete illiterates still
sometimes found in the large cities of the Western world.

The average number of Asian children condemned to
illiteracy is 5 out of 10; but in Afghanistan, in Laos or
Nepal, the number is as high as 7 or 8 in 10. In any
event, something like 65 million children in 15 Asian
countries are in this situation, despite the fact that tre-
menous progress has been made in these countries in
recent years.

Between 1950 and 1956, for example, the number of In-
dian children in classrooms rose from 18,394,000 to
28,847,000; in Laos the number of schoolchildren increased
three-fold and in Iran and Malaya it almost doubled.
Undoubtedly these increases were offset by the over-all
increase in population, but they do reflect an unprece-
dented effort on the part of the States concerned: 9,000
new schools built in Burma since 1950, 3,000 in Malaya
and 9,000 in the Philippines in 4 years, and more than
80,000 in India between 1950 and 1956. In the 15 countries,
primary school enrollment rose from 38.7 million in 1950
to more than 66 million in 1960.

When we take into account the teacher training that
had to be given and the salaries that had to be provided,
then it is safe to say that so much action in so short
a time was never taken during the 19th century (except
perhaps in the case of Japan) when today’s "developed"
countries were introducing compulsory education. Yet
despite these remarkable (and costly) advances, Delhi,
Rangoon, Karachi, Teheran and the other eleven capitals
realize that these are merely the first steps on a long
and difficult road.

The governments of these countries have solemnly pled-
ged themselves to provide all children with a practical,
solid and useful education. They have even set them-
Thousandes of schools have been opened. But dozens
of towns and thousands of villages are still without
schools. In most cases the reason is simply lack of money.
Most of these States have been independent for less than
15 years; whatever education systems they inherited, they

1 Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, India, Indonesia,
Iran, Korea, Laos, Malaya, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thai-
land, Vietnam.

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have had to give priority in this period to the building up of the elements necessary to independent States: economic development, means of defence, the maintenance of police order, etc. Many countries were asked to wait a little longer. In fact some countries still seem to find themselves in an impasse, and then what is the use of proclaiming compulsory primary education when adequate schools for receiving children cannot be built.

It is not unreasonable to expect a child to walk one mile to school or even a little more in very sparsely populated regions. Thus at least one school is needed for a zone of 3 to 5 square miles. In Korea, Pakistan, Thailand and Malaya, however, there is only one school for 7, 8 or 10 square miles; in Burma and Nepal, one for 23 square miles or more; in Iran one per 75 square miles.

These figures, moreover, are approximate and relate to average areas. In actual fact most schools are grouped around the towns. In India, the average individual served by each primary school is 4.2 square miles. But India is essentially a land of villages and its 840,000 communities, most with less than 500 inhabitants, have hardly more schools than electric power lines. The Indian authorities estimate that they will need to build 180,000 schools before 1962 to provide a school within one and half miles of each child's home.

Educationally speaking, then, there are groups of still more underprivileged children in the under-populated regions and many of them are country children. Millions of Indian, Afghan, Pakistani and Iranian boys are condemned to remain illiterate simply because they are the sons of peasants or village craftsmen. Education will be available for their counterparts in the cities and towns, but they will have to wait for adult education classes, when these are set up one day.

Another under-privileged group is not limited to rural areas. In the fact of being a girl is a barrier to primary education—not on an official basis, of course, but in actual fact, just the same. In none of the 15 Asian countries are there as many girls in schools as there are boys. In India, Pakistan and Iran girls represent less than 50% of the school population; in other countries where only 10 to 12 per cent of children attend school, for every 10 boys able to read there is only one girl. But the problems of rural education and education for girls form only one aspect of a whole complex of factors which puts a brake on the development of primary education. Differences in the progress that has been made between one State and another are (partly due to variations in demographic and economic conditions.

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Outstanding among the material factors is the multitude of little villages already mentioned. India has 443,000 communities of less than 500 people. In Nepal, out of 28,770 villages or hamlets, 24,429 have less than 50 inhabitants; in Iran, 40,000 villages are scattered over an area four times that of Great Britain; in Burma, 25,621 communities out of 33,000 have less than 500 inhabitants.

In all these countries, the vast majority of the people live in tiny communities dispersed among the islands or in the forests, clinging to the mountain sides, hidden away in all but inaccessible valleys or clustered around oases in the desert. Women are often the persons most familiar with the needs of these thousands and thousands of communities with schools, of equipping the schools, of finding the teachers, paying their salaries and providing them with some means to live, it is not hard to understand why even the most enthusiastic advocates of compulsory primary education sometimes become disheartened.

Industrialization and urbanization growth are already affecting the picture, drawing village people into towns or creating new towns. Apart from this, it should be possible to group villages in two or three and supply only one school for the entire group; in other places, even small rural schools can be built.

What about the social aspect of the problem? There is the complex situation in the countries as a result of the involuntary communities which are racially distinct and whose customs are often markedly different. There are also the mental or geographical barriers which continue to divide the communities and castes. Most Asian countries, too, possess some communities cut off from the national life in general and living in inaccessible or wild regions.

There are probably enough priests, shamans and wise men among these nomadic hunters and farmers to provide for the traditional teaching—for initiations and crafts. But one is not likely to find among them literate persons of the type suitable for a compulsory primary education programme. The "tribal populations" may be scattered, but collectively they represent millions of human beings—and hundreds of thousands of children.

But the most important social factor here is the status of women. Imagine a country where virtually all the women are illiterate. Outside the home, no-one seeks their opinion on the country's present or its future; their task is to maintain the old traditions. But a country wishing to advance and anxious to make rapid progress in living conditions will have a hard road to travel if half the population must be carried as a dead weight; and that is what women have become through being deprived of the elementary means of understanding and adjusting to new things.

And, in the final analysis, it is on the women that so much social progress depends. Once they have won the right to education, women demand other rights: to participate in social, economic and finally political activities from which they were previously excluded. Women, in fact, know better than men how to combat poverty and slums, unjust working conditions, and bad health and hygiene conditions as well as ignorance in all its forms. Once emancipated they demand enough new schools not only for their sons but for their daughters also.

In this respect, there are some striking differences between one Asian country and another. In some regions, women have long enjoyed a great measure of freedom and there is no feeling or situation that prevents their education. In others, reformers still have an uphill fight to convince the population as a whole that it would be fair and reasonable to provide schools for girls. In a few countries there will soon be as many girls at school as boys. But others will have to make heavy sacrifices to achieve as much, their task made all the harder because in general the countries in which few girls now go to school are also those most opposed to the idea of co-educational schools; thus these countries will have to find as many women teachers as men.

Yet even in India and Korea where the disproportion between the sexes is by no means the most marked, men teachers outnumber women teachers by 8 to 1; elsewhere the ratio is as much as 10 to 1. At the other end of the scale there is Ceylon with almost as many women as men teachers and the Philippines which stands out among other Asian nations because it has more women than men teachers.

It may seem surprising to talk of cultural barriers to the progress of education. But the fact is that culture has not always nor everywhere been linked with the idea of general education given to teachers. The case of the 3 Rs in many civilizations the most important knowledge and
Few children have ever been asked to help build their own school. But in Indonesia it is a case of needs must, and village folk and their children have made themselves responsible both for finding the material and for building schools. Thus they contribute their share to the effort of the government which provides all funds for education. No special taxes or local rates are imposed for education. Top left, the headmistress and a teacher give working instructions to the children; right, youngsters hard at work breaking up bricks. Scaffolding behind is of bamboos collected by the children. Above, young masons carry their bricks to the building site on a "stretcher".
WRAPPED IN YELLOW SHAWLS. Indian boys at a Benares school (run on the ancient Vedic principles of the Hindu religion) study under the supervision of a bearded teacher called a Brahmachari. Their studies include Sanskrit and religious subjects, but they also follow the modern curriculum and enter for the normal State examinations. Shawls bear Sanscrit script with the word MA or Mother—for the Mother Goddess. Cultural traditions of certain Asian countries have always encouraged the development of what we today call primary education.
SOLEMN-FACED children on their way to school pause for a moment on the Cabantcharuk Road near Djakarta, the capital of the Indonesian Republic.

Photos Unesco-Pierre Pittet

ARCHAEOLOGIST from France and boy from Bali study some well-weathered stone figures inspired by stories from the Ramayana, the Hindu epic poem.
the most useful, whether for this world or another, was not the sort that could be passed on by a schoolteacher to young scribes and future merchants. And a peasant, able to recite from memory the noblest passages from ancient epics and hymns, is unlikely to be overimpressed by the business of writing.

Elsewhere, however, cultural traditions have always encouraged what we call primary education. In Burma, for instance, the religious tradition has for centuries been a true intellectual tradition as well. Here, custom has long decreed that young boys should spend a certain period in a monastery or temple. Guided by a master, they learn the arts of reading and writing—considered as sacred—while studying the doctrines and rules of Buddhism. Obviously the development of primary education presents no social or psychological difficulties in a country where the remotest village has always proudly sent its small monks to school. But then not everyone is Burmese...

On the other hand, millions of Asian students, when they hear about education in other lands, can understandably be expected to remark, with some regret, “Not everyone can be Russian, or English or Italian.” For there are, fortunately, a great many children in the world who do all their lessons in their own language, that of their homes and the streets of their city, the same language whether at work or play. These children don’t realize that the world outside Asia must learn all over again. Either the mother tongue is not the same as the national language or this language is inadequate for even slightly advanced studies, and so before long still another language must be learned.

Here then are some of the difficulties confronting children in simple primary education. At least half their time is spent in learning languages which often have no connexion with each other and which do not even use the same alphabet. The resulting organizational problems are naturally immense. Sometimes a school must be started for each linguistic group; at best, teachers must be specially trained. Schoolbooks have to be specially prepared, and it is difficult for a publisher to produce a reading primer on a large scale and at a low price: the schools need twenty different books in 20 different languages using a variety of types.

Yet despite all these huge problems, let us suppose that the nations of Asia now had all the books they needed and had managed to build enough schools and to train enough teachers. Let us imagine that the present problem of primary education had been miraculously solved in every country, from Manila to Tabriz. Would multilingual Asia now equalize the educational level? No! Either the mother tongue is not the same as the national language or this language is inadequate for even slightly advanced studies, and so before long still another language must be learned.

Between 1956 and 1966: in 10 years it will have topped 527 million.

Because of the relatively short life-span in Asia, there are many more school-age children in proportion to the total population than is the case in Occidental countries. For this reason the burden of education grows increasingly heavier. The great problem is where and how to find the necessary funds. Advisers may suggest how each of the difficulties confronting education should be met. But they have little to propose for the most formidable obstacle of all—mass poverty.

Because they are poor and cannot provide clothes and other necessities, people don’t send their children to school, or, children are taken away from school before they have finished their education, either to help at home or to earn a little money. But the impoverishment of the people has still graver consequences: taxes have to be kept low and this seriously limits the State’s income; what is available is devoted by priority to the activities considered most essential.

This fundamental obstacle to educational progress is, in fact, a vicious circle. The people of these countries cannot build a sound educational system because they are poor—and they remain poor because they are not properly educated. The government is short of money to finance national education because its income is limited by the low living standards of the people and these, in turn, cannot be raised precisely because of the inadequate system of education.

It is this vicious circle which the Asian countries have determined to break.
A visit to a few "ordinary" schools in the East inspires not only sympathy for the teachers, but also admiration for these poorly but neatly dressed men and women, who are at their schools from an early hour each day. Two things about the average school strike one immediately: it is too small for its purpose and it is forbiddingly austere. It may be a straw hut built by the village council or a group of small mud houses or, more often, a "modern" building of bricks and cement, which means it is even less attractive with its treeless courtyard and its dusty school garden.

A glance round the classroom offers a neat but bleak perspective of benches, a dais and a single window. There is nothing to relieve the bare walls; not even a map or a picture. But the teacher is not likely to be conscious of this emptiness; his own home is just as austere, and even probably has nothing but a calendar or a religious print the best furnished living-room in the neighbourhood probably has nothing but a calendar or a religious print by way of ornament. A classroom with a blackboard, a few chalks and a sponge is relatively well-off.

The teacher has probably never heard of visual and audio-visual aids to teaching. If you mention these things to him, he will probably nod and smilingly tell you that they are not yet available in that part of the world. Here, in fact, even the basic equipment—maps, wall charts and large sheets of drawing paper—are all sheets of paper, and if by some miracle come by, if indeed the school has any sort of paper other than perhaps the portrait of the Chief of State which hangs in the headmaster's office. A radio? Yes! one would be useful, but there is no mains electricity so it would have to be a battery set. And anyway there is no one to look after it or to repair it if needs be.

And here are the children—a hundred or so, apparently of all ages between 7 and 14, squeeze themselves onto the narrow benches. How still and well-behaved they are; just as quiet in the stifling summer heat as they are in the monsoon season or in the chill cold of winter.

They work hard on the whole, the teacher tells you, or at any rate they are eager to learn, but after a few hours they get tired and their attention wanders. "The trouble is," he adds, "that some of them don't get enough to eat. They come from poor families. If only we could help to feed them." (School canteens are practically non-existent in Asia. Among the exceptions: Ceylon, where each child receives a cup of milk and a bread roll each day; Korea, where every school has a garden enabling powdered milk, supplied, as in Ceylon, by American funds; the Philippines, where a cheap meal is available; Madras State, where subsides enable school committees to carry out as meals—an experiment which the State intends to develop until 30% of schoolchildren will be getting one meal a day in 1966.

As to the children's health, all the teacher can tell you about it is that on the whole it is good—as good as can be expected. There are no files to supply further information and no doctor to look after the children, although nearly all the countries are trying to expand their medical services.

The next thing that strikes you are the obvious differences in size and apparent maturity among the children in the classroom. You are not mistaken; they are of all ages. Some are perhaps brighter than others and each year they get to a higher class until they finish the school programme. But these are not the majority.

"There are always some who stay in the class for another year," says the teacher; "that is something that really plagues us in this school." It is also the constant headache in many other primary schools throughout Asia. Far too many children stay for one, two or even three years in the first class, eventually struggle into a higher grade and advance one, then become discouraged and give up.

The children who "stick" in the same class for several years and those who give up altogether are symptomatic of more deep-seated ills: irregularity of attendance, ineffective teaching and the unsuitable orientation of the school programme.

As for the other symptoms, the teacher will sometimes admit that the lessons he gives, as well as those of his colleagues could, in principle, be improved. (An inspector will tell you how difficult it is to overcome the placid resistance of teachers who have been trained according to old-fashioned methods.) But to improve teaching takes time. The programme has to be carried out as well as may be, mostly without guidance; there are few inspectors and these confine their activities to inspecting the school programme.

The school programme is packed with subjects; nothing has been forgotten. First come languages (generally at least two have to be learned and in some countries as many as five). Then come arithmetic, history, geography, object lessons and elementary science; next the arts and manual work, such as agriculture; drawing, singing, dancing, sports and gymnastics; and what some countries consider a basic subject—religion or civics and ethics. "It is a great deal for one man to cope with," says the teacher. It is also a great deal for the children to cope with, and they too are likely to lose themselves...
15 nations plan a school revolution

In this labyrinth of subjects, loosely related to each other and still less related to the local life.

Nowadays, however, some countries do encourage the use of active methods: "projects" or practical tasks are carried out in the community schools of the Philippines, "co-ordinated education" in India's new schools, and "interest centres" form part of the programme in some Laotian schools. Usually, the good pupils learn everything by heart, and unfortunately they are not alone in thinking that this is the best way of passing examinations.

Active methods which make demands on intelligence rather than memory and which aim at developing initiative and a spirit of co-operation should be applied by teachers having a broad general culture and proper pedagogical training, which are not required to the same extent when traditional methods are used. They also require much more classroom material—pictures, photographs, equipment of all kinds and, above all, plenty of books.

These same methods encourage children to choose their own reading matter. This very idea is enough to make the teacher of our "ordinary" school anywhere in Asia raise his hands in heaven. Choose what they would like to read? Why, he himself has only a handful of books and his pupils have to make do with the unique textbook which serves them throughout one year—a textbook sometimes shared by two or three children. One reason for this terrible shortage is that during the past ten years it has been necessary to translate into national or local languages books which were only available previously in English, French or Dutch. Another is that Asia is short of paper. Finally, however cheap the textbooks may be, there are always people and communities for whom they are too dear.

There are then the conditions in which the teacher each day carries out the job entrusted to him by society, in the hope that from the classroom will emerge younger generations less shackled to a particular destiny and better fitted for the tasks of their time. And perhaps before his day is over, the teacher will have run an adult education class or stopped by at the town hall where he acts as secretary. Finally, he will be free to go home, a home in all probability devoid either of comfort or charm.

For teachers are still poorly paid in some Asian countries—often less well paid than other civil servants of similar status. And the teacher's social condition depends very largely on his economic situation. Nor is it merely a question of his personal well-being: at a time when compulsory primary education is coming into its own, the teacher of our "ordinary" school anywhere in Asia is treated as an unimportant, minor official, it will be all the harder for him to create the respect and desire for knowledge which Asian countries are seeking to inculcate in even the remotest villages.

The educational picture of Asia is changing all too rapidly for it to be summed up briefly. The important fact which stands out is that the peoples and governments are resolute in their determination to vanquish the many obstacles to educational progress. A veritable revolution lies ahead for the under-equipped countries and their largely illiterate populations. But it will be a peaceful and calculated revolution which, in some countries, has been planned to the last detail.

In India, for example, educational projects are drawn up by the governments of the different States and co-ordinated in an over-all plan by the Ministry of Education. India's Third Five-Year Plan (1961-66) which has just been completed, aims at making primary education compulsory for all children from 6 to 11 and at increasing the school population to 54 million. The final goal for India is free and compulsory primary education up to the age of 14. In Pakistan, the government has set up a National Education Commission which recently published a complete report on education at all levels.

Plans have also been drawn up by ministries or planning councils and commissions in Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, Korea, Iran and Viet Nam. In some countries, recently created planning and statistical departments are still not properly equipped for their job. But the need to methodically plan the extension and reform of primary education is now universally recognized. This was apparent when representatives of Asian States met at Karachi this year at the Unesco-sponsored conference which produced a work plan designed to ensure "universai, free and compulsory education in Asia."

The first of the 15 objectives in this remarkable programme is to ensure at least seven year primary education for all children within the next 20 years. It is a tremendous task and must be carried out stage by stage. Thus, the second aim is to raise the number of primary school pupils to 11 per cent of the population in 1965, to 14 per cent in 1970, to 17 per cent in 1975 and, eventually, to 20 per cent in 1980.

Five objectives concern teachers: there should be one teacher for 35 pupils. All teachers should have a good secondary education plus at least two years' professional training. Within five years enough training colleges and special courses are to be established to produce the qualified teachers which the development programme requires. Teacher training colleges will have specialized instructors in the proportion of 1 for 15 student teachers.

In its budgetary provision, the plan envisages the increasing of recurring expenditures to 10 dollars per pupil in 1965, to 12 dollars in 1970, to 18 in 1975 and to 20 in 1980.
With its 90 million inhabitants spread out over the world’s largest group of islands, Indonesia needs to train a vast army of teachers. Right, students in a handicrafts class at a teacher-training college; below, opposite page, preparing a silk screen for the production of charts at a Teaching Aids Centre in Bandung.

Schools to be built must have classroom areas calculated on the basis of 1 square metre per pupil; enough equipment, furniture and teaching materials for these schools must be provided and adequate administration and inspection services created. Accommodation must be found for 50% of the teachers. More money must be spent to raise the level of instruction in teacher training colleges: 125 dollars per year per pupil in 1965, rising to 200 dollars in 1980. Last, but not least, the plan emphasises the urgent need to produce books, for teachers and pupils alike.

What is the real significance of this plan and what will it cost?

By 1980 it is estimated that the total population of these 15 Asian countries will have reached 1,185,000,000. This means that in 20 years time these countries should be ready to provide 7 years’ primary education for 237 million children (compared with 4 or 5 years currently provided for 60 to 65 million).

A vast army of teachers will be needed to cope with this teeming school population. The bulk of the colleges where they will be trained are still to be built and staffed. When they are operating, it is calculated that these schools will have to train 286,000 teachers each year by 1965, 388,000 before 1970, and 599,000 each year between 1975 and 1980, when primary education in the 15 countries will be needing the services of about 6,770,000 men and women teachers.

The total cost has been estimated at $56,217,000,000 spread over 20 years. It sounds like a frightening amount of money, but in point of fact it is only enough to pay for a modest project: to provide for Asian children during the next 20 years means of education that are today considered inadequate for Western children.

Furthermore its full achievement will cost these countries annually 5 dollars per head of population. This is about the same as is now being spent in Ceylon on all levels of education and probably less than one-tenth of expenditure on primary education in the West. Compared with the Asian plan to spend 20 dollars per pupil by 1980, Venezuela currently spends more than 100 dollars.

In a unanimous recommendation, the Karachi Conference suggested specific ways of raising money for the plan: reforms making possible an increase in primary education allowances; levying of taxes suited to local conditions; special loans; appeals for voluntary contributions from local committees.

But the Conference insisted equally strongly on the need for outside aid. If we have to rely solely on our own national resources, said the delegates, we might just as well give up the plan. In this case, compulsory primary education for Asian children might become a reality sometime in the 21st century. But the children of Asia cannot wait until then, and the delegates at Karachi refused to consider such a possibility.

In their final recommendation, they declared, in part: "The main method of ensuring this aid (outside financial support) consists in bilateral and multilateral arrangements between the countries of the region and the economically developed countries, and a further effort in this direction should be made in the near future. It is to be hoped that UNESCO will offer its good offices to encourage this assistance and, given the growing goodwill of countries throughout the world, there is reason to hope that the amount of such assistance will greatly increase before long. The meeting also feels that UNESCO should encourage the creation of an international fund for primary education designed to complete the bilateral and multilateral agreements..."

Unless action is taken now, hundreds of millions of children will still lack education ten years hence. It is not these children who are to be pitied, but the adults they are to become. Ignorance today will be misery tomorrow. That is why the problem of education is one confronting clear-thinking and responsible citizens of every country on earth. On the solution of this problem depends not only the future progress of Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Middle East, but the prosperity and peace of the whole world.
The United Nations General Assembly, on November 20, 1959, unanimously adopted and proclaimed a Declaration of the Rights of the Child, setting forth those rights and freedoms which the international community has agreed every child, without any exception whatsoever, should enjoy.

Many of the rights and freedoms proclaimed were already mentioned in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the General Assembly in 1948. It was, however, thought that the special needs of the child justified a separate declaration.

Like the Universal Declaration, the Declaration of the Rights of the Child sets a standard which all should seek to achieve. Parents, individuals, voluntary organizations, local authorities and governments are all called upon to recognize the rights and freedoms set forth and to strive for their observance.

This year, Human Rights Day on December 10 has been set aside by the United Nations and its agencies to mark the first anniversary of the adoption of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child.

The full text of the United Nations Declaration of November 20, 1959, is reproduced on the following pages together with a special photo-reportage by Paul Almasy. All photos copyright.

PREAMBLE

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have, in the Charter, reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights and in the dignity and worth of the human person, and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas the United Nations has, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status,

Whereas the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth,

Whereas the need for such special safeguards has been stated in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924, and recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the statutes of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children,

Whereas mankind owes to the child the best it has to give,

Now therefore,

The General Assembly

Proclaims this Declaration of the Rights of the Child to the end that he may have a happy childhood and enjoy for his own good and for the good of society the rights and freedoms herein set forth, and calls upon parents, upon men and women as individuals, and upon voluntary organizations, local authorities and national Governments to recognize these rights and strive for their observance by legislative and other measures progressively taken in accordance with the following principles:

PRINCIPLE 1

The child shall enjoy all the rights set forth in this Declaration. Every child, without any exception whatsoever, shall be entitled to these rights, without distinction or discrimination on account of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, whether of himself or of his family.
PRINCIPLE 2

The child shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose, the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration.

PRINCIPLE 3

The child shall be entitled from his birth to a name and a nationality.
PRINCIPLE 4

The child shall enjoy the benefits of social security. He shall be entitled to grow and develop in health; to this end, special care and protection shall be provided both to him and to his mother, including adequate pre-natal and post-natal care. The child shall have the right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation and medical services.

PRINCIPLE 5

The child who is physically, mentally or socially handicapped shall be given the special treatment, education and care required by his particular condition.
PRINCIPLE 6

The child, for the full and harmonious development of his personality, needs love and understanding. He shall, wherever possible, grow up in the care and under the responsibility of his parents, and, in any case, in an atmosphere of affection and of moral and material security; a child of tender years shall not, save in exceptional circumstances, be separated from his mother. Society and the public authorities shall have the duty to extend particular care to children without a family and to those without adequate means of support. Payment of State and other assistance towards the maintenance of children of large families is desirable.

PRINCIPLE 7

The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him, on a basis of equal opportunity, to develop his abilities, his individual judgement, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society.

The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and guidance; that responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.

The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of this right.
PRINCIPLE 8
The child shall in all circumstances be among the first to receive protection and relief.

PRINCIPLE 9
The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic, in any form.

The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education, or interfere with his physical, mental or moral development.
The child shall be protected from practices which may foster racial, religious and any other form of discrimination. He shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship among peoples, peace and universal brotherhood, and in full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the service of his fellow men.
An inquiry carried out among 71 countries by the International Bureau of Education leads to the conservative estimate that at least four per cent of the world's children are mentally handicapped. In the relatively few countries where statistics exist the figures are staggering—almost a million in Japan, over 250,000 in France (or nearly five per cent of the school age population), six per cent in Uruguay, four per cent in Peru, two per cent in Yugoslavia and Poland.

Most of these millions of unfortunate children are potentially educable, but unless they receive special education they will become a burden on society, sometimes useless and often dangerous—tragic misfits who constitute a problem for their families and communities.

Yet today, in the middle of the 20th century, special education for the mentally handicapped is reserved for a privileged minority and hundreds of thousands of potentially useful citizens are lost to themselves and to the world.

It was to focus attention on their plight that the International Conference on Public Education, organized by Unesco and the International Bureau of Education, meeting in Geneva last summer, chose as a major discussion theme the organization of special education for mentally deficient children. The basis for its discussions was the world-wide inquiry mentioned above. This comparative study, however, was not concerned with the whole problem of mentally deficient children, but was confined to those considered as "educable" or "recoverable."

"So long as a child can be taught to read, he can be made into a useful member of society," Mr. César Santelli, of France, told delegates from 77 countries at the Geneva Conference. "But the problem of special education for mentally deficient children is one which is always being put aside in favour of seemingly more urgent ones," he added.

Obviously, said Mr. Santelli, countries grappling with the problem of stamping out illiteracy among their "intelligent" population and putting them all in school have little time for dealing systematically with their mentally handicapped. Even the advanced countries where illiteracy is no longer a problem lack sufficient specialized institutions and qualified teachers to deal with the difficult cases.

In only a dozen countries of the 71 covered by the inquiry does educational legislation stipulate that special education is to be organized and that it is obligatory for mentally deficient children to receive instruction. In a further 12 countries, mentally deficient children are liable for compulsory schooling in the same way as other children.

Where special institutions do not exist, educable mentally deficient children must usually attend the ordinary school. But when classes are already overcrowded, it is practically impossible for the teacher to give enough time to the mentally deficient, who more than any other children, need direct contact and individual attention. They are inevitably neglected, waste their time, often disturb their fellows, have to repeat the class and when they reach school leaving age, they depart without having learned anything much.

If it is easy to pick out immediately children who are seriously sub-normal—cases of idiocy or imbecility—the educable mentally deficient child is at first sight more difficult to identify. Cases of slight deficiency are often confused with slow learners, whose intelligence may be developed, whereas the mentally deficient suffer from a lesion of the brain which may be more or less serious, but which is unfortunately incurable.

It is important therefore to detect such children at an early age. Psychological and IQ tests combined with medical examinations and enquiries into family environment enable mental deficiency to be diagnosed and thus save the time of teacher and class as well as giving the child himself a chance to improving with special education.

When once it has been established that the child is mentally handicapped rather than backward or lazy, practical teaching based on manual work, games and exercises will help him to co-ordinate his movements and to gain self confidence—one of the prime requirements for a normal life. Group activities and teamwork help the child to adjust to society and learn to live with others; memory, suitably trained, will often help him to compensate for lack of intelligence.

It has often been noted that there is a relationship between delinquency and mental deficiency," Mr. Santelli told the Geneva Conference. "This makes it all the more important to give these children a sound moral training, and also to equip them with the means of earning a living. They should be guided towards jobs they can do and employers should be discreetly convinced that mental deficiencies can often carry out certain work more conscientiously than their more gifted brothers. A list of specially suitable trades and jobs in industry should be drawn up on the basis of experiments and an attempt made to keep these jobs open for them."

Apart from the shortage of money, qualified teachers and special schools, one of the main obstacles in the way of the mentally deficient is their own parents. They are often unwilling to admit their children are unlike others and they have to be taught to overcome their pride and to understand that with proper education their children can be made useful members of society.
A chain of human solidarity forged by the United Nations Children's Fund (Unicef) today spans 86 countries, helping to protect millions of children from three deadly dangers: sickness, hunger and ignorance. Unicef's chain now girdling the world is composed of gay and artistic greeting cards.

From the obscure beginnings of a German wood-cut print bearing a New Year's message about 500 years ago, greeting cards have become an almost universal tradition and within this framework, the Unicef cards have become a tradition in themselves.

Ten years ago Unicef brought a new concept to the custom, by seeking out the works of famed artists as designs for cards which would bring the joys and needs of children to people throughout the world. Since then, Unicef's gallery of contributors has grown to include many great names in world art.

Among this year's contributors is Marc Chagall, visionary painter and Biblical illustrator, always close to the world of children and to the folklore of his native Vitebsk. In “Glad Tidings” he has affirmed his faith in the work of the United Nations and has symbolized the strength of maternal care and affection.

Another master of modern art, Mexico's Rufino Tamayo, has contributed an abstract design, “Poetry of Flight”, whose soaring movement expresses his concept of the efforts of the United Nations towards peace.

Switzerland's Alois Carigiet, has created two appropriate designs entitled “Alpine Games”. Both “Bells” and “Sledding” are as crisp and gay as the snow and the happy children they depict.

As an illustrator of children's books, Adolf Zabransky, the Czech artist, has gained international fame in the field of romanticism. The five designs he has made for Unicef are entitled "Tales of Many Lands." His legends and fairy tales portrayed in fascinating colour are: from Holland, "The Legend of St. Nicholas"; from Denmark, Hans Christian Andersen's "The Ugly Duckling"; from India, "The Epic of Ramayana"; from Korea, "The Jade Slipper"; and from Brazil, "Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs."

Ettore de Grazia of the United States breathes life, colour and motion into a favourite subject of his—Indian children and the Arizona desert. As the children dance in a circular motion, the desert around them seems also to rotate in a whirlpool-like motion.

Unicef greeting cards come in boxes of 10, offering to people everywhere an easy way to remember their friends in the festive season while helping sick and hungry children throughout the world.

Each box sold makes it possible for Unicef to supply vaccine to protect 50 children against tuberculosis. Five boxes provide enough antibiotics to cure 15 children of that blinding disease, trachoma. Ten boxes pay for enough penicillin to save 120 children from the crippling effects of yaws.

From a modest beginning of 130,000 in 1950, Unicef Greeting Cards sold more than 14 million last year and provided enough money to protect six million children against malaria for a year, or enough vaccine to immunize 78 million children against tuberculosis.

Through planned universality and variation of art, people in 86 countries are every year given glimpses of other cultures and new approaches to art. In this sense these cards are both educational and conducive to better understanding among peoples.

All Unicef cards are available with Seasons Greetings in the five official languages of the United Nations—English, French, Spanish, Russian and Chinese, or with inside pages blank for use as gifts or personal stationery. They are packaged ten to a box with matching envelopes, at $1.25 (U.S.A.); 7/6 (U.K.); and 5 NF (France) per box.

For further information, orders, etc., write to any of the three main Unicef Offices: Greeting Card Fund, Unicef, United Nations Building, New York; Greeting Card Fund, 14-15 Stratford Place, London W.1; Service des Cartes de Vœux, 23, rue Borgès, Neuilly-sur-Seine, France.
In 1860 there was born in the village of Cedarville, among the rich and open countryside of Illinois in the United States of America, a delicate, bright-eyed little girl whose childhood was haunted by a dream. She dreamt that only she remained alive in the world and that upon her alone rested the responsibilities of making a wagon wheel which would get the world started again. In the daytime she would go to the village forge and watch from the doorway as the blacksmith worked, asking him questions and trying earnestly to memorize the process of wheel-making.

She never told anyone of this dream until she wrote of it years later in her autobiography, and in time it slipped into its place among childhood memories, but looking backward from today it could appear prophetic; that small dreamer grew up to be Jane Addams whose whole life was in fact dedicated to "making wheels and getting things started".

By the time she died in 1935, Jane Addams was a world figure, famous for her achievements in social reform and her work towards international peace. Her work was manifold and its legacy still enriches us today; she founded the famous Hull House settlement in Chicago, and in an age when any kind of social work was totally unorganized, she and the handful of ardent helpers she gathered around her helped to set the pattern of present day formal sociological investigation. Their efforts brought better living and working conditions to the underprivileged and oppressed, without reservation of class, creed or race, particularly to the children and young people who were their first concern, and the gradual expansion of their influence enforced civic legislation which changed the social fabric of the time.

To the causes she championed Jane Addams brought a penetrating intellect which never failed to take into account any opposing viewpoint, a quietly brilliant gift of oratory and authorship, and an unfaltering integrity which established her as one of the outstanding public figures of her time. In private life she radiated a compassionate and gentle serenity which endeared her to those whom she inspired. She was honoured by the love of the people among whom she lived and worked as well as by numerous civic and academic distinctions, and in 1931 she received the final accolade when she became the first American woman to be awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

The driving force behind all her endeavors was the conviction that only understanding between people, between groups and societies and nations, could ensure peace and progress and to develop such understanding was her main ambition:

Its roots as her basic inspiration seem to have sprung from her own character and also from the lessons of her childhood.

Her mother died when Jane was two, and she grew up closest to her father. John Addams was a friend of the young Abraham Lincoln. Jane adored him and eagerly absorbed from him the Lincoln traditions of tolerance and liberty; she was much struck as a child to find him one day dazed with grief at the news of the death of the Italian liberator, Mazzini. From her father's reaction to the loss of this stranger, whom he had never even known, Jane learnt something she prized all her life—"a sense of the genuine relationship which may exist between men who share large hopes and like visions even though they differ in language, nationality and creed."

She began early to question the inequalities of society, when as a little girl her father took her into the nearest town and she saw for the first time the squalor of city poverty. "The horrid little houses so close together—worry her into resolving that when she grew up she "would build a big house among the horrid little ones so that people could come and visit her." Twenty years later she was to do exactly this when she opened Hull House in the Chicago slums, but like so many great altruists, she found the path from wide-eyed idealism to its final realization was anything but straightforward.

In 1881, her father died and though she tried to smother her grief by concentrated medical study at Philadelphia, her health broke down under the strain. The spinal disorder with which she was born necessitated an operation, leaving her physically and nervously exhausted, and for her health's sake she was advised to travel in Europe. The next few years passed for her in spiritual confusion and depression. The careless round of pleasure and enjoyment which seemed to be expected of a young woman of her type seemed to her "would build a big house among the horrid little ones so that people could come and visit her." Twenty years later she was to do exactly this when she opened Hull House in the Chicago slums, but like so many great altruists, she found the path from wide-eyed idealism to its final realization was anything but straightforward.

In the journal she kept during these years she notes her bitter resentment at the wretched poverty of a London brewery overseer regarding some oppressed women labouring for him. These experiences and her own feeling of inadequacy before them filled her with an unformulated desire to take action. Her purpose, as yet shadowy and indistinct, was "to rent a house in a part of the city where primitive and actual needs are found." This idea simmered until 1888 when, in Madrid, Jane voiced it to her travelling companion and
A SOCIAL PIONEER, Jane Addams was involved with practically every great cause and reform movement in the United States. She was champion of the poor, pioneer in health, welfare and social work, instigator of child-labour legislation, and winner of the 1931 Nobel Peace Prize. Above (on extreme right) she campaigns for women’s voting rights at a New York meeting in 1912.

old college friend, Ellen Gates Starr. She realized that if she was to do more than just dream, she must put her idea to the test at once. The time of preparation had given way to the days of action.

Losing no time, she left at once for England, where she sought help and advice from Samuel Barnett, the English clergyman who had four years previously founded the first of all settlements, Toynbee Hall in London. She then hurried back home to look for “her big house among the horrid little ones.”

She found it in Chicago, where rapid industrial expansion and alternating waves of boom and slump had made the city one of the gaudiest as well as the most wretched in America. Fortunes from railroads, meat-packing and shipbuilding were being made while the most abject poverty remained untouched by any kind of civic legislation and nowhere more so than in the nineteenth ward of the city, which was largely given over to the emigrants from all over Europe who, through bewilderment and poverty, found themselves exploited as cheap labour.

Here, on Halstead Street, surrounded by sweatshops, tenements and filthy alleys, Jane Addams discovered Hull House, a fine old mansion degenerated into half drinking saloon, half warehouse. With the care and enthusiasm of new young housewives, she and Ellen Starr furnished it and in September 1889 opened it “to provide a centre for a higher civic and social life: to institute and maintain educational and philanthropic enterprises and to investigate and improve the condition of industrial Chicago.”

From the beginning, Jane Addams found the claims of the children of Halstead Street her first attention. A kindergarten and nursery came into being almost immediately and a Boy’s Club grew up rapidly. Remembering the unhurried joys of her own countryside childhood games she opened a playground at Hull House and later agitated for the first civic playgrounds and parks where the city children could at last play in peace and in safety. Great place was given to the force of Art in education; arts and crafts classes were soon started with a studio and music school and a new world opened to children who had never before known of its existence.

One of her foremost concerns was the relationship between first and second generation immigrants; she saw how the more rapidly Americanized children tended to despise their elders, and she gathered these old people together to give exhibitions of their native skills in weaving, spinning and cooking, and so on. These meetings became a feature of Hull House, giving new dignity to the older immigrants and earning them a new respect from their children. At the same time, she took up the cudgels for the children when their parents acquiesced too readily in their being employed in ways far too harsh for their age.

When the immigrant children at a Hull House Christmas party refused sweets saying they “couldn’t face them” after working 14 hours a day in a sweet factory, Jane Addams started investigating the whole question of child labour to find that children of five were working in the glass and textile industries. With Dr. Alice Hamilton and Florence Kelley, who came as residents to help her in Hull House, she started to work on this question, continuing, against bitter opposition and even attempted bribery, to combat it until, finally, after fourteen years, in 1903, the first Child Labour Laws were passed in Illinois.

Another of the Hull House residents, Julia Lathrop, became head of the first Children’s Bureau in Washington and was also concerned with Jane Addams in the question of the many juvenile delinquents spawned by poverty and ignorance in the city. Their work led to the formation of
the first Juvenile Court in America, a Juvenile Protective Association, and later initiated the use of psychology in the treatment of young criminals.

For three years Jane Addams worked on the Chicago Board of Education trying to instil her ideas into the factions which at that time composed it. “Our schools must give the children better and truer standards for judging life. Life does not ask whether a man can read’ or write so much as it asks him whether he can use whatever faculties have been given him... To find a native talent in a man, woman or child, and then see that it is exercised, is one of the greatest objects of all social work.”

In the first year, 52,000 people came for help or advice to Hull House; in the second, thousands a week were coming and it is said Jane Addams never refused to see any one of them. With her devoted team of residents, she minded babies, kept house, organized new buildings as they were needed, maintained finances entirely from her own pocket, or with the help of generous friends, and wrote and lectured increasingly. She published 9 major works in 30 years which established her as an authority on social enquiry and leave an indelible record of her as a humanitarian.

She learnt patience and tenacity—“Premature reforms fail. Doctrinaire reforms fail. Reforms to be effective must be rooted in and routed through the social consciousness. One does good if at all, with people, not to people. Jane Addams never lost sight of her guiding principle, the simple understanding between people, but she was no bigot; her effectiveness lay often in her balanced ability to see all sides of every question; she tackled what lay before her with humility and the wish, not the certainty, to be right. Walter Lippman once described her as “inhabiting reality” and Jane Addams was indeed no theorist: she admired the inspiration of a Tolstoi, and visited him at Yasnaya Polyana, in 1895, but she believed fundamentally in action, in “pushing vigorously but kindly through and beyond all difficulties.”

At the end of ten year’s work at Hull House she had grown immeasurably as a citizen and both she and the settlement became world famous. The one building on Halstead Street had become a huge establishment, with training workshops as well as studios, a theatre, an art gallery and a country club for summer recreational activities.

Complete racial, religious and political tolerance distinguished Hull House; it later engendered Hull House; it later earned Jane Addams the reputation of “dangerous radicalism” and a good deal of abuse, but for the moment her star was set high and in the first decade of the 20th century she achieved an almost imperial status in America, with 14 academic honorary degrees and many prizes to her credit.

Neither fame nor calumny deflected her from her work; she handed all the money she made to the settlement and went on to continue and enlarge her activities. Her upbringing and background ensured her support of Women’s Suffrage and as the first world war approached she became increasingly aware of their traditionally pacific role in history. Her tenet of mutual understanding and neighbourliness expanded into a confirmed internationalism which inspired her finest work—her work for world peace.

In 1904 she was principal speaker at the National Peace Societies’ convention in Boston; in 1907 she published her book “Newer Ideals for Peace” which was received enthusiastically. She took part in the first National Peace Congress ever held in America and supported Theodore Roosevelt as the first President to use the World Court at the Hague in an international dispute.

At the outbreak of the European war in 1914 she plunged wholeheartedly into the work for continuous mediation of neutral powers to bring about peace. As a means to this end, she accepted the chairmanship of the Women’s Peace Party which was to develop into the historic Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom, dedicated “to uniting women in all countries who are opposed to any kind of war, exploitation and oppression, and who work for universal disarmament and for the solution of conflicts by the recognition of human solida-

ON THE WALLS of the Riverside Church in New York stand figures honouring two great humanitarians of the modern age: Jane Addams (shown in photo above) and Dr. Albert Schweitzer.
rity, by conciliation and arbitration, by world co-operation and by the establishment of social political and economic justice for all, without distinction of sex, race, class or creed."

She presided over the Congress of Women in 1915 at the Hague and accepted, with Dr. Aletta Jacobs of Holland, the mission to interview leading statesmen of a world at war. They were received courteously at top level in 12 capitals and were told that neutral action to bring about an honourable peace would be welcomed. Jane Addams returned to Washington and handed to President Wilson the report and resolutions of the Congress, some of which in a modified form were embodied in the famous 14 points.

America’s entry into the war did not deter her from her pacifist work, although public opinion turned bitterly against her. She lost the support of even her family and many of her Hull House colleagues, but she maintained the League’s decision to continue working for peace wherever possible. Hull House continued to be a sanctuary for all shades of opinion and she defended conscientious objectors and harassed immigrants.

As soon as the war ended she again presided at the Second Women’s Peace Congress held in Zurich in 1919, supporting the League of Nations and foreseeing the dangers inherent in the Versailles Peace Treaty. After an extensive tour with the Friends’ Service Committee through war-stricken Europe, she returned to travel the length and breadth of America to plead for food for the children and the starving people of all nations, irrespective of their war-time allegiances.

Her attitude and her stand against military training of any kind earned her personal vilification, but the Women’s International League grew and she presided at its conferences in Vienna, Washington, Dublin and Prague where in 1929 she forced through her own resignation. During the post-war years she travelled the world, presiding at the Pan-Pacific Women’s Union and speaking all over the Far East.

When women were given the vote she turned her attention to what she called the humanization of justice in which she included the Negro question, the immigrants Quota Act, Old Age Pensions, and the needs of the younger generation facing the Depression. She was by this time over 60 and increasingly beset by ill health which often forced her into hospital but she never stopped her work for Peace.

In 1931 she presented to President Hoover in Washington a petition for disarmament signed by 200,000 American women but had to refuse appointment as delegate to the Geneva Disarmament conference the next year because of ill-health.

She was waiting for an attack of bronchitis to clear up before she could undergo a major operation which had been recommended, when she received news that with Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler she had been awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for 1931. The day it was formally presented in the presence of the Swedish Court, Jane was in hospital in Baltimore; so she never heard the address honouring her as “the foremost woman of her nation... the spokesman for all peace-loving women of the world.”

The Peace prize money she promptly handed to the Women’s Independent League for Peace and Freedom and Hull House, one of America’s pioneer social settlements, was founded by Jane Addams in Chicago’s West Side slums. Here, for most of her life, she strove against injustice and unkindness, against dirt and disease, against greed and dishonesty in public office, against intolerance, bigotry, ignorance and war. Even in her late years, she continued to take a special interest in the myriads of children who have found the key to a new world in Hull House (left).

Four years later she died, mourned by the simple people of Chicago whom she had benefitted, and honoured by famous men and women the world over.

This year her centennial is being commemorated by a 75,000 dollar grant from the Field Foundation Inc., for a training school for settlement house workers, and by the creation by the League and the Office of the U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees, of a “Jane Addams” house for 32 refugee families in the refugee village of Spital on the Drau in Austria. To these great and fitting ceremonies in her memory there could be added the echo and example of her own credo:

“I believe so firmly in this great world at peace, ready to come into being as our wills turn toward it, that I must needs go about this present world of disorder and darkness like an exile doing such feeble things as I can toward the world of my desire. Nothing could be worse than the fear that one had given up too soon and left one effort unexpended which might have saved the world.”

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HEN OR HAWK. Whichever bird this ten-inch long clasp is meant to represent (right and in profile, opposite page) the result is an artistic work of rare elegance and one of the masterpieces of the historic Rumanian treasure of Pietroasa. The crown of the head and the neck are pierced with heart and circle-shaped holes from which garnets once shone, simulating the bird’s ruff. Empty settings on the entire body were once bright with rows upon rows of garnets, sapphires, emeralds, topaz, rubies and other precious stones. Smaller clasps (below), also bird-shaped, are the “chicks” with long necks and hooked beaks set on elliptical bodies. They have neither wings nor feet. Worked in the same manner is a still smaller bird clasp (bottom) on which a single large garnet once replaced the head.

Rumanian National Commission for Unesco
THE HEN WITH THE GOLDEN CHICKS

by Emil Condurachi

Director, Institute of Archaeology of the Academy of the Popular Republic of Rumania

Among the most treasured possessions of the Rumanian National Antiquities Museum in Bucharest is a collection of twelve works of art in gold which has become known as "The Hen with the Golden Chicks." The name has come from a group of magnificent bird-shaped clasps contained in the collection which comprises in all twelve objects, some worked in solid gold and embellished with engraved or carved designs, others in gold leaf filigree work adorned with precious stones set in gold.

Together they compose an inestimable treasure as much by their beauty and value as by the light they throw on the past history of the Rumanian people and of Europe, and in particular the little-known period of the great tribal migrations between the 4th and 7th centuries A.D.

Like every treasure worthy of the name this one has an exciting story behind it. One day in 1837 two Rumanian peasants were working in a quarry at a tiny village called Pietroasa when they suddenly unearthed a fantastic treasure in gold. One by one they drew from the ground 26 cups, vases, clasps and other gold objects, many of them decorated with precious stones.

For a whole year they kept their discovery a secret until they met an Albanian stone-cutter and decided to sell him the entire treasure trove for 4,000 piastres. The Albanian decided that it would be easier to sell the gold if he broke up all the objects and disposed of them one by one to different jewellers. Some he smashed up with an axe, scattering the precious stones with which they were studded, and he split a solid gold tray into four parts, all of which were later recovered and reassembled.

Fascinated by the gold, he threw away all the precious stones as well as some chips of gold which were later found by some village children. Thus the rumour spread through the village that a treasure had been discovered and this, in turn, reached the ears of the authorities. An investigation was made, but it was not until five years later, in 1842, that careful searching enabled 12 of the original 26 objects to be recovered.

But the chequered history of the "Hen with the Golden Chicks" did not end on the day in 1842 when the treasure found its way into the collection of the National Antiquities Museum in Bucharest. In 1868 it disappeared in mysterious circumstances and was badly damaged by those who stole it.

Fortunately, a young Rumanian archaeologist, Alexandru Odobescu, had spent several years studying the treasure and delving into its origins. The drawings and reproductions he had had made of the objects enabled them to be reconstructed and restored when they were eventually recovered.

Nor was this the last adventure for the Pietroasa treasure. In the Autumn of 1916 it was evacuated from the Museum in Bucharest to save it from the armies invading Rumania, and was taken to Russia along with other works of art. Later, it was handed back to the Antiquities Museum by the Soviet Government.

The total weight of the objects now preserved in the Museum is 44 pounds, and the fact that there were originally a further 14 objects, which were never recovered after the peasants had sold them, shows that this was undoubtedly one of the largest treasures of its kind ever discovered in Europe.

There are differences of opinion as to the origin of the collection. Some historians, like Alexandru Odobescu, believe that the treasure belonged to the Visigoth king, Athanaric, who in 378 A.D. fled from the Hun invasion. According to this version, Athanaric took refuge in the region of Pietroasa and there buried his most precious possessions, hoping that a change in fortune would enable him to recover them sometime later.

Other scholars, however, maintain that the treasure belongs to a later
One of the most remarkable pieces of the Pietroasa treasure is a beautifully worked shallow dish, or patera, dating from the 2nd or 3rd century A.D. Ten inches in diameter, it is decorated with a statuette surrounded by sixteen figures of gods, Graeco-Roman in style, several of which are reproduced here. Above, left to right: the third of the Gothic Fates holding in her left hand the scissors with which, like her Greek counterpart Atropos, she cuts the thread of human life; a young man, naked and carrying a mantle draped over one arm and a whip in his other hand, is probably the Germanic Castor; woman dressed in a flowing robe, a pail in one hand and a porringer in the other, is another of the three Fates; statuette of the Gothic Earth goddess (seen also in centre of dish, below). Opposite page, top: the Gothic Mars has a raven on his shoulder; bottom: holding a lyre and with a mythological animal, the hippocorn, at his feet, is the Gothic Apollo.
period and is not connected with the flight of the Visigoths. They point out that Athanaric would have been ill-advised to bury what was the royal treasure or even the sacred treasure of the nation in a region he was going to have to abandon completely.

But the objects themselves do have many things to tell us of their origins and purposes. Archaeologists agree that they do not all belong to the same period, and the techniques used to make them, their shape and their ornamentation all indicate that they came from different workshops.

There is no doubt that the tray-shaped patera encircled by divinities, Graeco-Roman in style, is the work of an artist from one of the Greek settlements to the south of what is now the Soviet Union.

The same applies to a pitcher with a long, straight handle, the lip and rim adorned with carved leaves. This is similar in all respects to the multitudes of Greek "cinachoiai" made of silver or terra cotta. The date of these works can be fixed approximately as the middle of the 3rd century A.D.

The filigree objects adorned with coloured stones, on the other hand, date from the 4th-6th centuries A.D. Objects such as these, embellished with garnets, turquoise, topaz and other precious stones are the work of Oriental craftsmen.

In the 3rd and 4th centuries, such works of art and the precious stones decorating them came mainly from Sassanide Persia; and the Eastern, Iranian style spread everywhere and became greatly in demand among the chiefs of the tribal aristocracy and the rich merchants established on the northern shores of the Black Sea. This explains the great numbers of objects made by this technique, which was later to become characteristic of German workshops.

From one end of Europe to the other, all the royal treasures of the Visigoths, Ostrogoths, Vandals, Burgundians and Lombards contained works of art fashioned in the ancient Persian style.

Not all the mysteries of the Pietroasa treasure have yet been resolved. But as artistic and historical testimonies of the ancient story of the Rumanian people and that of medieval Europe as a whole, the "Hen with the Golden Chicks" has served as an touchstone of rare value.
Some of the golden treasures of Pistroasa, smashed and mutilated after their first discovery so as to aid their illicit disposal, they were later recovered and carefully restored by master craftsmen. Even so, they still bear some scars of vandalism and cupidity. The small octagonal basket (above) has lost nearly all its precious stones. Its bottom and several panels (in rear) are missing, as well as gems, garnets and mother-of-pearls which adorned the two panther-shaped handles. The round tray (left) weighing 16 pounds was broken up into four pieces. The gold ewer (below) an elegantly-shaped vessel with a long, straight handle was split lengthwise.
WANTED! MORE BOUBAS

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Miss Ina Spykhoven
Krislauan 208 by Amsterdam (O)
Netherlands

YOGA AND HEALTH

Sir,

As a regular reader of The UNESCO Courier I am especially interested in the issues that deal with health services. In our day, when all mankind is making a tremendous effort for peace and progress, the preservation of health is a subject of the greatest importance. I was much impressed by your issue that dealt with the fight being waged to preserve animal and vegetable life, the purification of the atmosphere and achievements in the field of medicine.

It is well-known that the physical exercises of the Indian yogi are one of the miracles of human invention. They are regarded as an unusual science that preserves health and lengthens life, a science based on thousands of years’ experience. Unfortunately, the articles that I have been able to get hold of express different opinions on the subject. I should like to see The UNESCO Courier print the opinions of authoritative scientists on yoga.

A. Chetverikov
Gory, U.S.S.R.

DON’T TAKE THE MONUMENTS

Sir,

I feel that it is up to every country to contribute, as far as its means allow, towards the conservation of Nubia’s monuments and to the archaeological investigations in those areas which are soon to be inundated by the water.

But I also think that the monuments which are to be dismantled and removed should not leave the country. Taken from their natural setting and transported to Europe or America, they would lose a great deal of their inherent charm. The country which contributes towards the transfer of a monument should not take it out of Egypt, despite the facilities to do so which are being offered, but should leave it elsewhere in the country alongside other historic and artistic works. Thus this help would take on its full measure of disinterestedness and chivalry.

José Navarro Alcazar
Sucina, Spain

F.R.N.S. 3 & THE TRIPOD FISH

Sir,

I should like to point out an error in your issue of July-August (The Ocean’s Secrets) concerning the French bathyscaphe F.R.N.S. III. The caption with the photo of the tripod fish on page 23 has a serious error of fact in it, the effect of which could be detrimental to the scientific work accomplished during the past six years by the French bathyscaphe F.R.N.S. III. The caption states: “This tripod fish... was photographed from the bathyscaphe “Trieste” off Guam... 7,000 metres under the surface.” The photo in question was in fact, taken by me from the F.N.R.S. III in September 1954, off Toulon in the Mediterranean, at a depth of 2,200 metres. A correction published by you would set the record straight and would also prevent possible errors with respect to assertions that this fish has been found at a depth and in waters where so far it has not been identified.

Commander G. Hoot
Commandant, Bathyscaphe F.R.N.S. III and French Navy Bathyscaphe Group Nr.43,
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INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF SPORT AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION: An International Council of Sport and Physical Education, whose aim is to bring about the co-operation of athletes, educators, physical education instructors, members of the medical profession, psychologists and sociologists, has been established in Rome following the 1960 Olympics. The Council came into being at a meeting which brought together some 100 representatives of international physical education associations, international sport federations, government agencies and institutions. The meeting was addressed by Mr. René Maheu, Deputy Director-General of Unesco. He stressed Unesco’s interest in all efforts to link sport to education and to culture.

A MASCACCIO’S FRESCOS ON COLOUR SLIDES: The new series of Unesco Art Slides, the seventh to be issued, is devoted to works of one of the great masters of the Italian Renaissance: Tomaso di Giovanni Guidi, better known as Masaccio. The works are frescoes from the Brancacci Chapel of the Church of Santa Maria del Carmine, and from the Santa Maria Novella Church in Florence, painted about 1428. The price of the complete set of 30 colour slides is $10 (maximum) or the equivalent in other currencies; a 20% discount is granted to educational and cultural institutions. Orders may be placed directly with the distributors: Publications filmées d’Art et d’Histoire, 11, rue Carcès, Montreuil, Seine, France.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES: In many U.S. colleges, high schools and even in private industrial firms “language laboratories” have now been installed. Pupils sit in semi-sound-proof glass-pannelled booths provided with earphones. A tape-recorded lesson is played, and the teacher may illustrate it with slides or other visual aids. Textbooks and exercises are prepared for each tape. During pauses, pupils repeat the phrases they have heard. The teacher may tune in and correct pronunciation and inflexion and give help to students needing it most without holding up the rest of the class. Students, it is claimed, make faster progress and have more chance to develop conversational ability. However, the system does not replace the teacher who is needed to explain linguistic structure, correct errors and to prepare good master tapes.

ADULT EDUCATION—A WORLD NEED: The second World Conference on Adult Education organized by Unesco, recently held at McGill University, Montreal, Canada, the representatives of about 50 countries and an international non-governmental organizations to discuss the many problems which educators and governments face in this field. The declaration which they adopted unanimously sets down the principles on which adult education should be based in coming years. It concludes: “We believe that adult education has become of such importance for man’s survival and happiness that a new attitude toward it is needed. Nothing less will suffice than that the people everywhere should come to accept adult education as a normal—and that Governments should treat it as a necessary—part of the educational provision of every country.

SHOW WINDOW OF EVOLUTION: A travelling exhibition now touring Latin American countries, illustrates the history of the Galápagos Islands and the role played by various species of animals and plants found there in the theory of evolution. The display, prepared jointly by the International Union for the Protection of Nature and Unesco, aims to spotlight the efforts now being made to preserve this “Noah’s Ark” of strange forms of life. A second exhibition, circulating in Europe and after being shown in Belgium, is to open in Prague.

TEACHING TEACHERS OF JOURNALISM: Professors of journalism and specialists in journalistic education from Europe, Africa and Asia are attending the fourth annual course of instruction which has begun at the International Centre for Higher Studies in Journalism, at Strasbourg. This centre was set up in 1957 through collaboration between Unesco and the French Government. Professor-pupils generally attend it on fellowships for higher training. This year, sixteen fellowships have been awarded by Unesco. The Strasbourg Centre, however, is only part of a broader enterprise. Following a Unesco-convened conference in Quito, Ecuador, a similar Latin American Centre has now opened its doors at the Central University of Ecuador.

CENTRE FOR CULTURAL EXCHANGE: An Orient-Occident Cultural Exchange Centre has now been opened in Paris by the Congress for Cultural Freedom—an independent international organization in which are grouped universities, writers, scientists and artists. The new foundation meets one of today’s basic needs: efforts must be made to overcome the intellectual barriers which prevent a full understanding between the Orient and the Occident. It will thus work to spread mutual knowledge and perhaps help to provide deeper spiritual and intellectual understanding. The distribution of literary works and the exchange of translations will be part of its functions and it has also the special role of helping to facilitate meetings and discussions between those who represent current movements in the philosophy, arts and science of the Orient, on the one hand, and of Europe, Africa and America, on the other.

NO MORE CANING: Corporal punishment, already abolished in other types of schools, is now being completely abolished in Swedish primary schools. Special instruction may be given to help badly behaved pupils to fit into school life. Marks for behaviour and neatness will no longer be entered in the final marks which children receive when they leave school.

FREE FLOW TREATY AIDS 1,000 MILLION: Nearly 1,000 million people are benefiting from a Unesco-sponsored Agreement which exempts books, newspapers, educational films and many other information materials from import duties. The Agreement adopted ten years ago by Unesco’s General Conference, is now applied by 32 countries and has also been extended to over 40 non-self-governing territories. Reviewing the progress made through this treaty, M. René Maheu, Deputy Director-General of Unesco, recently declared: “The customs revenue which States forego in applying the Agreement amounts to millions of dollars annually. This is evidence of the willfulness of governments to promote intellectual co-operation between peoples by aiding the development of education, science and culture. I hope that before long the Agreement will be universally applied.”

MUSIC AND MENTAL HEALTH: The works of famous composers who at one period or other of their lives suffered from mental disturbances, were featured in a concert broadcast recently over the Belgian radio network to mark World Mental Health Year 1960. The programme included compositions by Robert Schumann, Massonbery, Hugo Wolf, Chabrier, and Ravel. The concert was designed to prove that former mental health patients can produce works of real artistic merit. It is hoped that the idea will be extended to other fields of artistic creation as a means of fighting the prejudice from which such former patients often suffer.

TEACHERS-A-PLENTY: While most countries are desperately short of teaching staff, in Spain a recent competitive examination for primary school teachers produced 14,120 candidates to fill 4,306 posts. Meanwhile enrolment in teacher training colleges is steadily increasing. In the past three years, the number of teacher-trainees has risen from 10,000 to 17,000 in male students and from 18,000 to 26,000 for female students.
Announcing

A NEW GERMAN EDITION

The UNESCO Courier is proud to announce the launching of a German edition, published in Berne, Switzerland, under the auspices of the UNESCO National Commissions of Austria, the Federal Republic of Germany and Switzerland. The first issue dated September 1960 has now appeared.

Subscriptions to the "UNESCO KURIER" in Austria, Germany and Switzerland only should be sent to the following addresses:

AUSTRIA: Subscription S 50.-. Single issue S 5.-. Subscriptions to: UNESCO-KOMMISSION, Mentergasse 11, Wien VII.


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In countries other than Austria, Germany and Switzerland the subscription rate for the German edition will be the same as that of our other language editions.

Current subscriptions can only be transferred to the German edition at the time of renewal.

For the English, French, Spanish and Russian language editions in the above three countries, and for the German edition of the "UNESCO KURIER" in all other countries, please continue to send subscriptions to the National Publications distributors listed below.

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AUSTRALIA. - Melbourne University Press, 369 Lonsdale Street, Melbourne, C. 1, Victoria. (A. 136.)

AUSTRALIA. - Verlag Georg Fromme & Co, Spengergasse 39, Vienna V (Sch. 37/50.)

BELGIUM. - For The UNESCO Courier: Louis de Lannoy, 23, Place De Brouckère, Brussels, C.C.P. 338.000. (fr. b. 100.) Other publications: Office de Publishe, 16, rue Manze, Bruxelles, C.C.P. 283-98; N.V. Standard-Boekhandel, Belgen 151, Antwerp.

CANADA. - Queen's Printer, Ottawa Ont. ($ 3.00).

CEYLON. - The Associated Newspapers of Ceylon Ltd, Lake House Bookshop, 105 Parsons Road, P.O. Box 244, Colombo, 2. (Rs. 9).

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INDONESIA. - Bapto Press "Permai" Dalan Nusantara 22, Jakarta.

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UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC (EGYPT)- La Renaissance d'Egypte, 9 Sh. Adly-Pasha, Cairo.

UNITED KINGDOM. - H.M. Stationery Office, P.O. Box 549, London, S.E.1 (10/-)

UNITED STATES. - Unesco Publications Center, 801 Third Avenue, New York, 22, N.Y. (8.300) and (except periodicals): Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N.Y.


YUGOSLAVIA. - Jugoslovenska Knjiga, Terazije 27/11, Belgrade.
HELP THE WORLD'S CHILDREN by buying greeting cards which UNICEF is selling this year. The proceeds will protect millions of youngsters from hunger and sickness. (See page 23) Three of the ten different designs are shown on this page. Above, "Los Ninos", an impression of Indian children dancing a joyous round in the desert, by American painter Ettore De Grazia.

THE JADE SLIPPER, a kind of Oriental version of "Cinderella" from the folk tales of Korea, is one of a series of designs by Czech artist Adolph Zabransky based on five children's stories. Here, pretty Kon-Gi is seen with her white pigeons which help her to thwart the evil schemes planned by her step-mother.

THE EPIC OF RAMAYANA is to Indian mythology what the Iliad is to that of Greece. This design shows the Princess Sita in the fateful moment when she sees the golden deer. This epic story from India is another of the "Tales of Many Lands" designed for UNICEF cards this year by Adolph Zabransky.