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Chapter - 1

Introduction

Background to the Study

In the gloomy days of November 1945, when the war was hardly over, delegates from forty-five nations met in London at the Institute of Civil Engineers in order to formulate the Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. The representatives of various governments assembled in an atmosphere of harsh memories of war, yet of renewed hope. The selection of the institute to hold the conference was quite appropriate in the sense that UNESCO was destined to play a decisive role in the educational and technical development of a large number of nations.

Why did such a large number of delegates come together to inaugurate an international agency for education, science and culture? What were the problems which they were attempting to tackle in

the developing areas of the world? Did UNESCO introduce innovations in the educational structures of different nations? The answers to these questions may be found in a round of discussions held at San Francisco as well as in the diplomatic exchanges which preceded the conference in the British capital.

The views exchanged in that conference made it explicit that there was a pressing need for educational and scientific development of war-torn areas, among which Poland, China and the Philippines, had been the worst casualties. An urgent need was felt to improve educational standards in the developing countries of the world -- a need which an international agency such as UNESCO could not possibly ignore. Schools and university buildings had to be rebuilt; textbooks and furnishings replaced; libraries and laboratories restocked and equipped. The catalog of needs was large. Heavy losses of teachers, directors of education and other personnel required innovative programmes of recruitment and training. Many nations required material and technical assistance from outside sources if their educational institutions were once again to start training of children and youth.

The participants in London stressed the need for educational training; they also identified in unequivocal terms the educational and moral causes of war. The New Zealand delegate emphasized the ties linking education, peace and democracy. "A peace-loving country," he argued, "cannot live and breathe freely except in a world of peace-loving democracies, and we know further that

education, in the broad sense of the word, is the only means
whereby peace-loving nations can be created and renewed."

(Emphasis added).

An important need was for the exchange of knowledge among scholars and experts in the field of education. A "clearing house" could be set up to accomplish this goal, that is, an international mechanism by which developing nations --and others-- might gain access to knowledge and educational problems faced by people in various parts of the world.

An urgent need mentioned at London directly concerned with the developing regions of the world. Their spokesmen stressed the need for assistance in enhancing the educational and social conditions of their people. One of the principle objectives of the new agency, the Colombian delegate maintained, was a crusade against illiteracy. The Egyptian delegate spoke at some length about the problems of illiteracy in Egypt, problems relating to the shortage of teachers as well as the rudimentary phase of education in that nation. "No country today," he pointed out, "can live next door to illiteracy."

Since the condition in the Arab and other Islamic states was more complex than in other developing countries, no over-all pattern of development was proposed. The Arab states, for one thing, were considered national in character and attempts to harmonize them on the basis of common objectives had been only a partial success. It was not quite clear yet how important

an effort the United Arab Republic comprising Egypt, Iraq and Syria would make in the field of education. Under such circumstances UNESCO did whatever it could.

In 1962, the Arab member nations were invited to formulate where necessary, and to implement comprehensive plans for the future growth of their educational systems within the framework of national planning for economic and social development and to give special attention to such plans including the training of teachers, to the production of textbooks and other educational materials and to the construction of school buildings.

In a different category, quite broad in scope, are UNESCO's direct services to the growth of education in various parts of the world. Admittedly, the line of demarcation here is theoretical, but "direct" is taken to indicate acceptance of some degree of responsibility for the nature of a project and for its implementation. UNESCO helped the government of India to build a library in Delhi as a model project for South-East Asian countries. It also sent an army of technicians to Pakistan, Panama and Sri. Lanka. The efforts of UNESCO are urgently needed when one realizes that the rate of illiteracy among men is 95 per cent and among women, 99 per cent in some African countries. There is also a similar need in many countries in Asia and South America as well.

Perhaps the most widely heralded enterprise of the international agency is the Major Project on the Extension and

Improvement of Primary Education in Latin America. The prodigious attempt was approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations Organization in 1965 as a function to continue over a period of ten years. Similar efforts have been taken in other developing countries. The present study is significant in view of the fact that UNESCO has done much to improve literacy and the general standards of education through its various international programmes.

We now come to a remarkable development in the field of education. In the UNESCO programme, the development starts from the steadily increasing participation by the United Nations and its subsidiary agencies in the task of helping the people of developing nations to improve their educational, social and economic institutions. As tensions in the world mounted, President Harry Truman called for a programme of technical assistance by the United States --called the Point Four Programme-- and for a comparable one to be undertaken with the direct collaboration of the United Nations and its specialized agencies. At the General Conference of UNESCO held in Montivideo in 1954, a Participation Programme was established under the title of "Aid to Member States."

In 1962, as a result of the various activities of UNESCO in collaboration with the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance, the funds made available to it had soared from \$10 million to \$13 million. When one bears in mind that

the total biennial budget of the international agency for the 1955-56 period was less than \$26 million, one can clearly see the change in the organization's fortunes. During 1963-64, an estimated amount of one million dollars was spent on teacher training programmes, and an equal amount was also earmarked for educational research in various fields.

Meanwhile, the United Nations Special Fund has begun to play an even greater role than ever. This agency, entrusted with organizing a "pre-investment programme" in countries which required assistance, began to include additional educational projects in its planning for developing nations. The International Development Association, another lending agency of the United Nations, has started to consider educational institutions as an integral part of its concern. While planning has not been extended beyond the initial phase, there is adequate ground to believe that in the foreseeable future the Association will also welcome cooperation of UNESCO in crucial educational decisions. There is a strong possibility that when it develops a programme of assistance to schools in Latin America, the Alliance for Progress will seek support of international agencies such as UNESCO.

We now come to yet another major aspect of UNESCO's programme: indirect aid for education. In the beginning, almost everything UNESCO was asked to fulfill in the field of education fitted quite naturally into this category. To all intentions, the

programme was confined to "stimulating" educational efforts although the term was relatively vague. Much of what has been accomplished in education in many parts of the world could be described as the outcome of liaison activities on an international level.

The hope which inspired the conference at Patzcuaro, Mexico, was to stimulate the entire Latin American Cooperative Peace Corps, except that the focuss was chiefly on training rather than on service. The Patzcuaro project has a counterpart in the Middle East, and it is called ASPEC (Arab States Fundamental Education Center), established in 1953 at Sirs-el-Layyan, a village in the Nile Delta. The Center has many parallels with the project in Latin America although the orientation was specially adapted to the particular environment and stressed the significance of community building. The students, who came from nine different Arab countries, were individuals who had combined previous training with leadership qualities. A considerable impact was made on the adjacent villages in the sense that a remarkable sense of spirit was kindled in the minds of many people including several experts.

Sirs-el-Layyan, the first UNESCO project to make a deep impression on experts in education and on other observers, was commended highly in journals. In retrospect, it seems quite regrettable that this "experiment station" in rural and community education could not have been duplicated many times

over in other developing regions of the world. Regional centers proved less feasible in some countries than others because of intense national feelings.

Educational exchanges form a significant part of UNESCO's programme in Africa and Asia.

Under this programme grants are frequently offered for research in educational issues; individuals in the pertinent field of study may apply for research and fellowship; teachers who wish to specialize in teaching about West-East relationships are offered travel grants and assistance is often provided for training translators of masterpieces of Eastern literature into Western vernacular. Special mention may be made of travel arrangements for Latin American students who plan to specialize in studies about other parts of the world. It may be noted that programmes for promoting cultural understanding between the West and the East by means of education have placed particular emphasis on exchanges.

Although few fellowships were made available in the beginning for exchanges, their number has steadily increased in the past. Yet, Open Doors (the 1962 report of the Institute of International Education) cites activities in the United States alone eclipsing what is being done by several international agencies combined. In spite of this, the attempts being made by UNESCO alone are not negligible and are being expanded because of the demands made by other international bodies for this type of service.

It frequently presupposes cooperation with governments and/or other private organizations.

Under the rubric "Study Tours for Women Adult Education Leaders," it is mentioned that travel grants will be offered to women adult education leaders and that the grants will undertake study abroad for a period of three months or longer. Sponsoring bodies will be required to plan the study project and to ensure maintenance costs while UNESCO will defray travel expenses.

UNESCO has also taken steps to record the benefits gained from various exchanges. Fellowships for exchanges were offered to Afghanistan, China, Colombia, Ecuador, Egypt, Haiti, India, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Mexico, Peru, the Philippines, Syria, Thailand and other needy countries of the world. They were granted fellowships for work related to fundamental education, scientific reconstruction and subjects recommended by UNESCO's educational missions.

The principle objectives of UNESCO, it goes without saying, are the advancement of knowledge, establishment of peace and security, promotion of human welfare, improvement in educational standards and the fostering of international understanding. It is quite useful to ask: In what areas has the international agency been effective? How well has it served the people? What are its prospects for the future?

Although an increasing number of individuals are being involved in the activities of UNESCO, the overall impact of

some projects has been confined to a handful of specialists in education. Many other experts, and needless to say the public, are only vaguely aware of even the existence of the international agency, and this can be overcome by proper publicity. The number of individuals who can really participate in UNESCO's various committees, seminars and conferences is necessarily restricted. The task of extending their influence to a much wider circle than is the case today rests mainly with the member states. This has not always been fulfilled. The main reason is an inadequate development of national commissions.

UNESCO can do much in presenting the history of Mankind without distortions through its educational programmes. By doing so, it can remove the dark clouds of prejudice prevailing in many areas of the world. To a great degree national educational systems have failed to carry out this basic responsibility. Educational programmes of many countries are still clannish in outlook particularly when it comes to teaching humanities.

A general appraisal of UNESCO's functions in different countries indicates that it has been able to perform many important tasks which the member nations expected it to fulfill. Many of the weaknesses shown within the organization in the early years have been overcome. The fundamental weakness which conditions its prospects for the future lies in the policy and action of member states, for the area of UNESCO's competence ends at their boundaries. Most member nations have not yet given to the

international agency an appropriate place in their foreign policies.

This attitude by member nations can perhaps be resolved by UNESCO's declaration that its activities are non-political in nature and that it stands for the same educational objectives of different national systems. The international agency provides tangible evidence that people all over the world believe in the importance of education and culture for the advancement of civilization.

It is unfortunate that UNESCO has not done much to make its activities known throughout the world, and to make people aware of the importance of the agency in furthering their interests as well. If this is done UNESCO will find itself in a better position than ever to introduce innovations necessary for international cooperation. Since it is international in scope the organization can do some things better than individual governments. In fact, UNESCO's programmes receive their vitality from the agency's international character.

The Nature of the Study

The thesis is meant to be a case study. The member nations have undoubtedly benefited from UNESCO in the three fields of education, science and culture. What are the benefits which the developing countries have derived from UNESCO? What is the nature of relationship between the international agency and the member nations? To what degree has the agency contributed to the technical growth of its members? These and other questions provide the framework of analysis for the present study or what is usually called a research design.

A research enquiry will not produce proper results if it is limited to answering only the general questions and the issues raised here are general. But one can raise specific questions within the scope of general issues. In fact, raising relevant questions and finding answers to them remains one of the basic ingredients of proper research. It is only by delving into basic issues that we can properly conduct research and come to logical conclusions. This approach, in other words, means that the focus of enquiry should be well defined since it is the corner stone of research.

/ The focus of enquiry should be to answer certain significant questions. What is the nature of UNESCO's involvement in the educational standards of developing countries? Has the main objective of the international agency been changing in content and/or emphasis during the last three decades? Or has it been the same as it was in 1946 when UNESCO came into being? Is the developing countries' image of the international agency influenced by their own view of international organization?

These questions need further probing. Our objective should be to find out if answers to these and similar questions are significant enough to be woven into a systematic image of UNESCO as an agency to enhance the educational standards in several parts of the world and to remove certain barriers which exist in different educational systems of various countries. It is quite clear even from a quick glance to the existing literature on UNESCO that it would be worthwhile

to make a serious effort of this kind.

There is still another factor closely related to the contributions of several countries to the several images of UNESCO which have been projected at the international level. The international agency has received valuable support from the developed countries of the West in its attempts to assist other nations. Julian Huxley, the first Director-General of UNESCO looked at the agency which could form the foundation of "a new world civilization." This view was not entirely acceptable to a large number of delegates who played a prominent role in formulating the activities of UNESCO in the early days of its growth even under the leadership of Julian Huxley. Each of the subsequent Directors-General formed his own view of UNESCO and, in turn, that view has determined the agency's activities in the world.

An evaluation of the interrelationship between the developing countries and UNESCO is intended to be analytical and not descriptive. An analytical assessment can be made possible only in a theoretical framework. Consequently, it is quite necessary for one to be clear about the theoretical base on which analysis would be made. The functional theory of international cooperation provides an effective --and useful-- framework for an evaluation of UNESCO's contribution to the growth of education in developing countries. The international agency's activities amply illustrate close cooperation among nations.

A detailed account of the functional theory of international

cooperation is beyond the scope of this chapter, but a brief discussion of its main points is within the realm of the present study. The basic argument of the functional theory is that international collaboration in the social and economic aspects of life is the fundamental requirement to resolve the problem of war. This view is a sequel to the belief that human welfare, justice and progress are more crucial than the mere elimination of violence and the issue of national security. Thus the functional activities of international organization are closely related to social, technical and humanitarian needs. UNESCO's activities exemplify the functional aspect of a world organization. It is deeply involved in the educational, social, economic and technical improvements of an overwhelming number of people in the world.

This deep involvement is the direct outcome of the belief that it would make a direct contribution to improve the chances of peace, security and welfare of the people. Apparently, UNESCO launched its activities on the firm belief that it should promote international cooperation in strictly non-political areas of education, science and culture. Whatever deviations in the international agency's practice in adhering to non-political nature of its activities, its Constitution and the policy statements by the member nations at various meetings in the past clearly indicate faith in the fundamental premise of the functional theory that we must attempt to create international cooperation in non-political areas and use that cooperation and goodwill to resolve the issues

which have strong political overtones.

These observations, then, provide the guidelines for the present study on UNESCO's role in the growth of education in the developing countries. From the very beginning, the international agency has been aware of the importance of education in realizing its various objectives. In achieving the goals it naturally relied on the cooperative attitude of different countries. Thus it contributed much to international understanding through educational programmes as well as the methods it adopted to advance the cause of knowledge.

In the light of these considerations the present study dwells on a number of significant aspects of UNESCO in terms of their overall influence on the developing regions of the world. The campaign for fundamental and adult education has been an important part of the activities of the international agency in a world where 800 million people cannot still read or write! Perhaps UNESCO's serious attempt to erase illiteracy in the world is one of its most remarkable contributions in our times. The organization's efforts in fundamental education have served as a model in various countries, and have given a fillip to developing countries.

UNESCO did not ignore the importance of economic growth in its educational programmes in Africa, Asia and Latin America, and the present study analyses the agency's economic and technical assistance programmes. Unlike other international aid programmes UNESCO has, in fact, helped the economic growth of other countries

by introducing new methods as a part of its educational programmes. In many of the present aid programmes the educational aspect is often ignored by providing direct aid in the form of direct cash or machinery. The role of the British Commonwealth and the Peace Corps is also discussed in the present study since these international agencies have also worked in parallel to the broad objectives of UNESCO.

UNESCO has dealt with the problems of race, immigration and the revision of textbooks for schools more than any international organization. Its educational attempts will not be effective unless serious errors in textbooks are removed. Such an action is also vital to further international understanding. The present study also deals with the international agency's efforts to advance knowledge through free flow of ideas, stimulation to intellectual activity and through the preservation of historic sites in various parts of the world.

Scholars and private agencies have published literature in the past on the activities of UNESCO. Although some books are descriptive in nature, others have made suggestions for improvement. Most of the publications provide a detailed account of the origin and development of UNESCO. Several official publications provide case studies of the agency's involvement in different nations and its impact on regional development. These publications provide the special student with the necessary data of UNESCO's current activities in the developing nations.

Walter Laves and Charles Thomson give a highly detailed account of the activities of UNESCO in various parts of the world in their highly documented work titled, Unesco, Purpose and Program Prospect. The book analyses the circumstances which eventually led to the signing of the constitution of the organization, its initial role in the developing countries, the difficulties it experienced in the beginning, the organization's attempts to bring educators and specialists together to discuss common problems, efforts to break down barriers to the free flow of ideas in the world, programmes to enhance international understanding and the contributions UNESCO has made in science, education and culture. One is compelled to point out that no study of the organization will be complete without reference to this book.

In the same manner, J.S. Huxley's Unesco: Its Purpose and Its Philosophy examines the international agency's role vis-a-vis the urgent educational needs in the aftermath of the last major war and the demands of the developing world. James Sewell analyses the role of the organization in his work, Unesco, and explains in vivid terms the role being played by the organization in handling the educational problems of the post-war era. Similarly, Gertrude Sellers explains the structure and the past accomplishments of the international agency in the book titled, Unesco: Its Purpose, Structure, Accomplishments and Plans.

In addition to these works significant to any study on UNESCO

a large number of official publications are easily available for a proper understanding of the functions of the organization. For instance, in 1972, UNESCO published a detailed work titled, Thinking Ahead: Unesco and the Challenges of Today and Tomorrow.

The book vividly explains the evolution of the organization, its present activities and prospects for the future. This is an excellent study of what the international agency is doing in today's world in the educational field. Another similar work, Unesco, Today, is a collection of essays by experts in the developing countries of the world, and it is a highly useful book. Unesco has also published periodic reports of missions to different regions of the world.

There is a considerable literature relating broadly to the problems of the developing countries. Although they are not directly related to the organization they still provide valuable data about the problems of the developing countries. The studies are pertinent to UNESCO, and deal with topics in which the agency is equally interested.

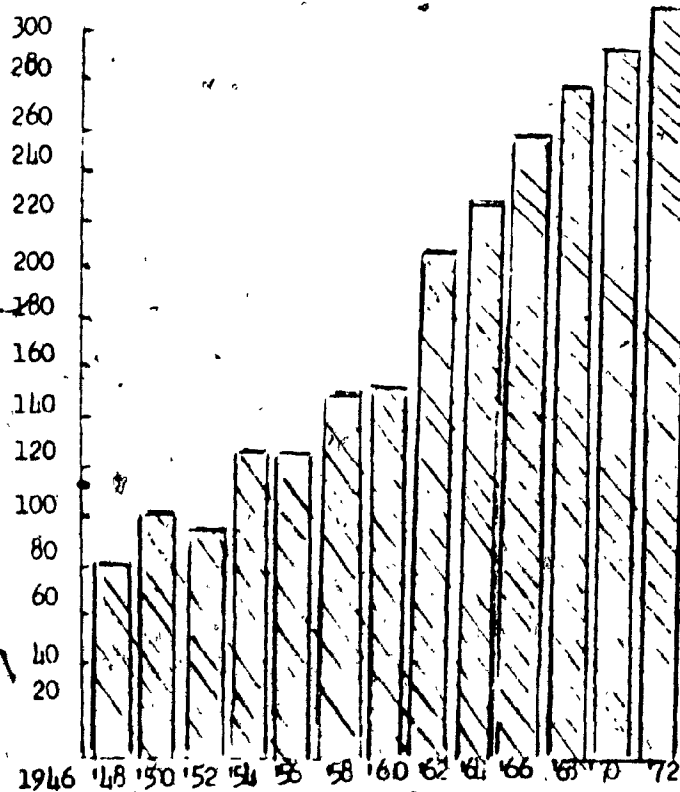
In Education and Social Change in Ghana, Phillip Foster narrates the impact of education on the changing conditions in Ghana. Education and Economic Development by Anderson and Rowman is a collection of essays by experts analysing the interrelationships between educational standards and economic development in some developing countries. References to these and other books on UNESCO may be found in the bibliography.

The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace has done some

good work in this field, and it is available in most university libraries. Many American universities and scholars have also published a number of books on the activities of UNESCO. Experts in the developing countries have also done much work in the field, and it is of much importance because they deal directly with the issues of the developing countries and the direct influence of the organization. The agency also publishes a number of periodicals explaining the activities of the organization. These publications keep the special student as well as the public aware of the contributions of UNESCO.

The thesis is primarily based on works produced by scholars official publications, periodicals and press releases. Many of the current materials are available at different libraries including the library at Concordia University. In addition to this, the United Nations Association, a private organization, is working to spread the message of the United Nations Organizations. It has branches in almost every major city in North America, and the Montreal branch has a good collection of material on the activities of the various agencies of the United Nations. The author has benefited greatly from the literature available at the Montreal branch of the United Nations Association. He has also relied on materials available at the United Nations library while staying in New York.

The thesis has made some personal observations no matter what worth they are, and for any errors the author craves lenience.



Nongovernmental Organizations (NGOs)
Affiliated with Unesco, 1946-1972

Chapter - 2

FUNDAMENTAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

One of the most important goals of UNESCO is the promotion of the human condition by launching an effective campaign against illiteracy and the general inadequacy of educational, scientific and cultural facilities in several parts of the world. Fundamental and adult education is also a highly important field assigned to the international organization by the member nations. Since it came into existence, UNESCO has effectively met the educational needs of several developing nations particularly those ravaged by warfare and those which lacked the basic educational tools to satisfy the growing needs of their people.

One of the most obvious needs was the educational and

cultural reconstruction of war-damaged areas, among which China, Greece, the Philippines and Poland had perhaps suffered most grievously. School and university buildings had to be repaired or altogether rebuilt; text-books and furnishings to be replaced and libraries restocked and equipped. Under such gloomy circumstances the founders of UNESCO reached the inevitable conclusion that war-torn countries were unable to handle their educational problems alone and that they required immediate assistance from the outside world. Unprecedented loss among teachers, directors and other educational personnel required novel programmes of recruitment and training.

From the very beginning, UNESCO believed that fundamental and adult education might prove a losing enterprise unless education at the primary grades was also rapidly expanded. In many developing countries such as India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, primary education was meant entirely for children ignoring the needs of thousands of adults who could not attend school or who dropped out of schools at an early age. UNESCO found the need here to meet the needs of an army of adults; due to the lack of adequate capital and educational materials many developing nations were not in a position to cope with the needs of adults.

An entire complex of educational needs facing member nations shaped their requests to the international organization. The problems included planning and financing the expansion of fundamental and adult education; improving the general

quality of teacher training; encouraging educational research; developing proper curriculum linked to local and national needs; building schools and other centers of education; assuring access to education by women and stimulating understanding of international affairs and a broad world outlook.

In 1948, approval of the United Nations General Assembly of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights provided UNESCO with a special incentive beyond the mandate in its constitution for activities in education. Article 26 stated in explicit terms:

Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

Earlier Experience in Great Britain and Canada

Although the immediate stimulus of UNESCO's adult education programme can be traced back to the aftermath of World War II, the need to reconstruct war-torn areas and to improve the educational standards of developing countries, that programme has a long historical background. We have already noticed that the conference to formulate the constitution of the organization was held at the Institute of Civil Engineers

in London. Many of the founding fathers such as Archibald Macleish, poet and scholar, Julian Huxley, Director General of UNESCO from 1946 to 1948 and Gilbert Murray of Oxford were certainly under the influence of educational programmes in their countries, including plans for adult education. We shall take a look into this aspect now.

Historically the first motive for adult education was religious in nature in England, and the first recorded educators were missionaries.¹ Adult education is widely regarded as primarily a phenomenon of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The availability of additional information, man's willingness to acquire more knowledge and the needs created by scientific and technological advancement must be the main reasons for this contemporary phenomenon. Thomas Kelly explains it in the following words:²

By the first half of the nineteenth century adult education was flourishing in a great variety of forms and at all levels of society, but the characteristic feature of the period was the tremendous interest in the teaching of science. We have seen this interest developing, in the form of public lectures and scientific societies from the seventeenth century onwards, and we have observed how it received a new impetus as a result of the importance of applied science in the Industrial Revolution.

It was in the nineteenth century that mechanics' institutes began to grow with astonishing rapidity --especially in London. At least thirteen new institutes came into existence

in 1824, and about ~~seventy~~ in 1825. The motives which inspired the founders of the early institutes were many and varied. Employers sought better educated and more industrious workers. Politicians hoped that the institutes would provide training in self-government while philanthropists looked at them as a means to alleviate the poverty of the working class people.

Later, universities made a remarkable contribution to the development of adult education in England. A notable feature of the twentieth century was a renewed demand "for adult education for working people, especially in such subjects as politics, economics and industrial history." During the first decade of the present century university extension continued to flourish, with approximately 50,000 students in attendance. The majority of students attended courses arranged by Oxford, Cambridge and London, but other universities also made some contribution.

After Second World War one can see unparalleled changes in the social, economic and educational setting within which adult education has to operate. From the point of view of adult education it is of particular interest to study changes in education and leisure activities. The period also saw radical improvements in science and technology further creating the need for adult education to cope with the new situation. There was also a greater reliance on radio and television in

adult education programme in England and elsewhere.

In Canada, as in England, the desire of mechanics to learn more about applied science, to widen their knowledge of new skills also resulted in the birth of widespread adult education programme. Perhaps the most significant social feature of the Mechanics Institute was that it emphasised that education was the right of all individuals and not just a privilege to be enjoyed by those in power.

J.R. Kidd points out:⁴

It managed also to establish the fact that the labouring class was destined to be a rational agent and that the right of all the people, to education and culture was even more necessary and pressing than the right to labour or the right to vote.

Before the Mechanics Institute had come to its close, an effort was made to begin a university extension movement. In 1891, the Minister of Education of Ontario called a conference of representatives of the prominent universities and other educational institutions in Ontario, along with a delegation of three representatives from McGill University, Montreal. The conference discussed the need for the formation of an Association for the Extension of University Teaching. The outcome of the conference was the formation of a society called "The Canadian Association for the Extension of University Teaching," in order to bring within the reach of the people opportunities of sharing in the benefits of

higher education."⁵

In the present century responsibility for informal adult education has been increasingly taken over by the extension departments of universities and by Provincial Departments of Education and Agriculture in many parts of Canada. The University of Alberta Extension Department, for instance, has grown rapidly in the past. The University of British Columbia has a comprehensive cultural programme. As the forces of government --federal and provincial-- become more and more involved in the planning and administration of the departments of labour, industry and public health, they require the understanding and cooperation necessary for effective planning.

There have been some changes in the curricula of adult education in the past and today. A 1935 survey showed that popular subjects at that time were economics, current events, politics and vocational information. Although these subjects are still a part of the present curriculum in Canada, others have been added to meet the present needs of the society. These subjects are mostly related to the development of science and industry. Several areas of human relations now occupy a major part of the curriculum. Since there is more leisure now than ever the number of people attending adult education courses is on the increase. Many universities and other educational institutions are offering additional

courses to meet the needs of the public.

Perhaps the most remarkable aspect concerning the organization of adult education in Canada is the variation which one can clearly find from province to province. This is largely due to the particular needs of different societies, and the organizational structures which are important to cope with them. In British Columbia, for example, the chief stimulus of the programme comes from the University Extension Department. In Prince Edward Island it is the regional library system. Some provincial departments, such as Agriculture, are maintaining extension services for the needs of farming communities. Highly industrial societies give considerable importance to adult education which is gaining popularity in developing nations also.

Unesco and Adult Education

The term "adult education" may be difficult to define, but experience shows that UNESCO's contribution to this field has met a genuine need of developing countries. The term seems to have different meanings in different countries. For instance, in a collectivity with a high level of illiteracy "adult education" is synonymous with fundamental education. Nevertheless, in some highly industrialized societies, it implies workers' education, training to improve skills or

training in trade union organizations, to gain knowledge in cultural development, appreciation of the arts or some combination of these.

In the past, UNESCO has chiefly associated adult education with the world-wide spread of democracy. Attempts to guarantee stable democratic systems in the newly independent countries of Asia, aspirations for democratic rule in many African nations, the desire to obtain it in full measure in several Latin American republics, expand it in a number of European countries --all this testifies to the need to educate the common man to play his role as a citizen. Thomas Jefferson declared:⁶

I know no safe democracy of the ultimate powers of society, but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them but to inform their discretion by education.

Combined with the democratic basis for interest in adult education have been the remarkable advances in technology resulting in an increase in the need for technical personnel in developing countries. In several nations the demand and opportunities for adult education have been considerably expanded either because today's adult missed educational opportunities in his youth or because the rapid changes in our society require supplementary education to meet additional responsibilities.

The need for defining the term became quite apparent at

the International Conference on Adult Education which met under the auspices of UNESCO at Elsinore, Denmark in June 1949. The discussion here revealed that adult education varied much from nation to nation that it was impossible to formulate a precise definition. One delegate at Elsinore pointed out that adult education should assist the individual to find his place in the contemporary world. The goal of adult education is to "help every man to become himself" and to be more a brother to his fellows by being more himself.⁷ In order to help educators understand what was being done in countries other than their own, UNESCO published a volume titled, Adult Education, Current Trends and Practices, and in 1952 and International Directory of Adult Education, the first such survey since 1929. The world organization has also published a series of discussions jointly with national educational journals.⁸

In 1952 and 1953, seminars and summer schools were held at the International Center of Workers' Education at La Breviere near Compiègne, France. UNESCO also helped four international workers' organizations to hold conferences from 1954 through 1956 in several parts of the world: the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, successively in Calcutta and the Gold Coast in Africa; the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions in Chile and Togoland; the Federation of Workers' Educational Associations in Gold Coast and Austria and the

International Cooperative Alliance in Haiti and Austria.⁹

The original emphasis on exchange of information and study groups has shifted to adult education in developing countries.¹⁰ UNESCO has helped Japan in an experiment on using television for adult education in rural areas. Following the visit to France of a Japanese educator on a UNESCO fellowship, Japan started preparations in 1956 to telecast several programmes for rural adult education which would be viewed by more than sixty tele-clubs in Tokyo, Ngoya and Osaka.¹¹

It is worth mentioning that since the 1960's adult education has made unprecedented progress, quantitatively and qualitatively, in response to the needs arising from scientific and technical changes and the accession of many nations to independence. The three successive international conferences convened to promote adult education (Elsinore, 1949; Montreal, 1960; and Tokyo, 1972) have been milestones in the history of UNESCO.

Following the Montreal Conference and notably after the World Congress on the Eradication of Illiteracy held in Teheran in 1965, the new organization has given priority to adult education in the field of literacy. In the late 1960s it became quite apparent to move on to a wider area; the preparations for the Tokyo Conference revealed that important developments had taken place in several member nations. A universal desire became manifest for an overall growth of adult education seen as a significant factor for economic, social and cultural development

as well as for the implementation of policies for lifelong learning.

The Tokyo Conference (1972) viewed adult education as:¹²

(a) an instrument to promote awareness and as an instrument for socialization and sweeping social reforms;

(b) an instrument whereby the whole man (including the man at play, man in his civic and family roles) can achieve fulfilment, by helping to develop his physical, moral and intellectual qualities;

(c) an instrument for preparing the individual for productive activity and for participation in management;

(d) an instrument with which to combat economic and cultural alienation and prepare the way for the emergence of a liberating, genuine national culture.

The Tokyo Conference concluded that the elaboration and adoption of an international instrument bearing on the quantitative and qualitative development of adult education as a significant goal for the 1970s. Regarding UNESCO's future action we have the following official statement:¹³

Unesco's action should be shaped in accordance with the characteristics observed in adult education in the different countries and which form its specificity: the indispensable and considerable variety of objectives, approaches, methods, target audiences, agents and resources involved and the flexibility that must be maintained in the diversity of undertakings and approaches.

In the 1970's UNESCO's action has been focussed on the institutional development of adult education as well as the

intensification of international cooperation; the organization should also stress qualitative improvement of adult education. Accordingly, the programme will be extended to deal with the problems of the formulation of programme content and methods adapted to the characteristics of adult education --the training of personnel, the dissemination of information to the agencies and coordination at different levels of operation such as coordination between governmental and nongovernmental agencies.

UNESCO has done much in African countries for the qualitative improvement of adult education. Upper Volta is a West African country with about five million people --but few roads, no coastline and no immediate prospect for wealth. The international agency started a relatively modest project with a moral objective: to increase the access of adults, particularly of women, to education. Since 95 per cent of the population live on the land without proper chances to attend schools, the project has an important task to complete.

In 1966, the government asked UNESCO after deciding on "a systematic effort to improve the access of women in rural areas to education in order to increase their contribution to the country's development" UNESCO's recommendations for educational improvement were accepted. The chief technical adviser, a Senegalese woman and an expert in literacy teaching, and adult education, conferred with officials in the capital

of Ouagadougou. She met district chiefs, who arranged for the mission to confer with local health officials, teachers and others engaged in development, stock-rearing and agriculture.

An agreement was reached to use local languages for literacy teaching, and to carry out the project in three different pilot zones: Banfora in the west, which is the most developed; Po in the south, which is the poorest; and Kongoussi in the north, which offered an irrigated zone, with an agricultural cooperative where new farming techniques were used and, also, an area where farmers kept to the old traditions. The project was launched here. The plan of operation was signed between UNESCO and the Government of Upper Volta in February 1968...

Consistent attempts were made to transcribe Voore, the language of Kongoussi. A transcription into the Roman alphabet was agreed on, and an expert in functional literacy could begin preparing a programme of instruction in order to meet the needs of the people in the traditional area. The courses, which must be held during the annual dry season, consisted of three six-month periods spread over three years, the first dealing with reading writing and arithmetic, the second the reading of technical textbooks in Voore and the third elementary French. Audio-visual methods were also used (the programme was heard over specially distributed radio sets). The lessons revolved around huge posters which are reproduced in the learners' exercise books and the

two-hour session begins with a discussion of the poster, reading, writing (for only fifteen minutes) and thirty minutes of arithmetic.

It is still too early to assess the results of adult education programme in the African countries. The Upper Volta project clearly demonstrates that a relatively modest venture can profit much from a still larger Experimental World Literacy Programme, and can call upon the international agency's expertise from disciplines as varied as sociology and technology. Furthermore, it shows how the world agency's efforts for development keep the human being in the forefront aiming not merely at productivity statistics but at the quality of lives it tried to improve.

The Marbial Valley Project

An early project undertaken by UNESCO is the Marbial Valley Project which improved standards of education and hygiene in Haiti. It was also a learning experience for the international agency. In April 1948, a survey was conducted by an anthropologist of international experience, assisted by a team of Haitian social scientists. Meanwhile, as a result of the eagerness of the Haitian officials --and particularly of the Marbial people-- some health and educational activities were started as the first phase in a programme of self-reliance. In Haiti the UNESCO anthropologist

reported that the road or track into Marbial from Jacmel was impassable most of the time, that safe drinking water and housing were inadequate, and that there was much friction between the Catholic and Protestant religious groups. Although he recommended that the project be continued, the Valley's inhabitants lost confidence in it and the government officials at Port-au-Prince questioned its objectives.¹⁵

In January 1950, the project took a turn for the better with the appointment of a new director -- an administrator of long experience in the British Colonial Service. He recruited a staff of competent Haitians, and the World Health Organization provided a doctor and a nurse.¹⁶ There was a revival of interest in the enterprise; a clinic, a community center, schools and industrial crafts buildings were opened. In 1952, the Marbial Valley Project had started to train people in order to carry the rudiments of practical education to illiterate people in many parts of the country.

The UNESCO center was also serving as a demonstration point with a primary school providing education for 105 pupils, a clinic, a stock-raising station for poultry and nurseries for vegetables and small trees. More than eight hundred people were attending adult classes in nineteen open-air centers with an average of forty adults in each group.¹⁷

By the summer of 1953, of the three groups of student-teachers graduated, the first was working in the Marbial Valley while

the rest went to other parts of Haiti. The teachers returned to their own villages to take leadership in carrying out local improvements. At the same time, a number of prominent individuals in the villages were trained to work on soil erosion, to improve roads and water resources, to begin new education centers, markets and clinics.¹⁸ By entering into an agreement with the local government, UNESCO ended its direct aid programme to Haiti at the end of 1953, but continued its assistance as an "associated project."¹⁹ The Haitian government carried forward its work in the Marbial Valley chiefly through rural schools with the support from graduates of UNESCO's regional fundamental education center at Patzcuaro in Mexico.

Although the international agency's experiment in the Marbial region had to suffer its quota of errors, much progress was made in education, teacher training, health standards and methods of cultivation. Its work in Haiti was of considerable value in the sense that the effectiveness of such experiments depended greatly on a thorough preliminary study of the area as well as the peoples' way of life. As a result of inadequate knowledge of the area and people, UNESCO, in fact, had to face some initial difficulties in Haiti. That even dampened the enthusiasm of government officials and the people as soon as the groundwork for the project was made. Official support, particularly in economic development, is needed. Coordination of educational effort with agriculture, health and other technical services is also quite

essential.

Campaign Against Illiteracy

UNESCO's Marbial project indicates what it means by "fundamental education." More than half of the people of the entire world still do not know how to read and write. This clearly illustrates the significance of international agencies such as UNESCO in carrying out educational programmes in developing countries where hundreds and thousands of people cannot read or write. Dr. Torres Bodet of Mexico considered the line which separated those who can read from those who cannot as "the most unjust of all frontiers." He declared:²⁰

We have terrible memories of the concentration camps, but we sometimes forget that, without prisons or barbed wire, more than 1,200 million men and women today live in the implacable, invisible inner dungeons of ignorance in many parts of the world.

It is still shocking when one realizes that only one person in two in the world can read the statement in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights declaring that "Everyone has the right to education."²¹ In several developing countries the number of children is much more than schools can actually accommodate.. In 1972, about half of the approximately 740 million children of school age (5-14 years) in the world were not in class-rooms, and a large number of them could not go beyond the primary level.

This, in other words, meant that out of ten children, five had no chance at all to attend school, four would not attend school beyond the primary level and only one could enter high school or college.²²

It may be noted that the rate of illiteracy is unevenly distributed in the world. In Latin America, according to the latest statistics, the percentage ranges from twenty five for Argentina to about fifty nine for Brazil, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela, fifty five for the Dominican Republic, seventy for Bolivia and seventy five for Haiti. In Asia, outside Japan (where illiteracy has been almost eliminated), the rate is quite high --in the forties for Sri. Lanka, the Philippines and Thailand; forty-five for China; seventy for India and eighty-one for Indonesia. In Africa, the rate for Congo is estimated at fifty-two per cent. For Egypt and most regions south of the Sahara the rate of illiteracy runs in seventees and eighties.²³ (Some figures are estimates)

Illiteracy not only impedes economic development but slows the campaign against ignorance and disease. We have to concede the fact that illiteracy is not synonymous with ignorance. In fact, hundreds of illiterates have a reservoir of folk knowledge and wisdom. Nevertheless, illiteracy results in ignorance of innovations in science, technology, health, education and agriculture.²⁴

These factors explain why UNESCO fully recognized the

significance of education from the very beginning. It was also the first time that an international agency prepared a blueprint to solve the problems of illiteracy and the general lack of educational opportunities to millions of people. Addressing the first meeting of the Preparatory Commission, Sir Alfred Zimmern stressed UNESCO's significant role to assist nations where huge masses of people who lived "in conditions not only of poverty but of ignorance, and of removable ignorance."²⁵ Since international agencies such as UNESCO came into existence there has been considerable improvement in standards of education and health; a large share of the credit goes to these organizations.

The new organization's campaign against ignorance and illiteracy brought together an array of educational experts interested in fundamental education. Through a series of discussions held in London and at UNESCO headquarters in Paris, attempts made previously by educationists such as Margaret Read of London, James Yen of China, Torres Bodet of Mexico, Henry W. Holmes of the United States and experiments of nearly five decades in several countries including the Philippine Islands were brought to bear on the international agency's future task. Much of this material was published by UNESCO in volume edited by Dr. Holmes entitled, Fundamental Education: Common Grounds for All Peoples.²⁶

Relevant opinions and the findings of several experiments were highly instrumental to help work out practical plans

to meet the needs of newly independent nations such as Burma, India, Indonesia and Pakistan. At the same time, countries in Latin America and the Middle East also had special educational needs. United Kingdom showed a new awareness of the rising aspirations of the people living in these countries.

Meanwhile, UNESCO's urgent task was to stimulate awareness of the problem, define terms and identify the most feasible methods of activity. It sponsored conferences of specialists, educational missions to study the special problems in various developing countries and to exchange information on current projects. Through the clearing-house arrangement UNESCO was kept informed of different experiments --successful or unsuccessful-- which were conducted in various parts of the world.

A few of UNESCO's early functions did not distinguish sharply between "fundamental education" and other types of education. In the early stage many countries appealed for guidance in formulating their educational programmes, and the international agency responded by sending a team of world experts in education.²⁷ Some of the appeals involved reforms of schools as well as fundamental education programmes for illiterate people. As early as 1949, the first mission was sent to the Philippines, a newly independent country torn by war; the members of the mission conducted an extensive survey of adult and primary education and teacher-training. The mission also made

some recommendations for improvement.

UNESCO sent an important mission to Afghanistan in the same year. Partly as a result of its activities, the government of Afghanistan opened sixty primary schools, a new institute for secondary school teachers, reorganized an agricultural college and an engineering institute for advanced studies. In 1951, an educational mission to Burma played a significant role in doubling the budget for education and launching plans for opening 1,000 new elementary schools, 200 junior high schools and 40 senior high schools. In 1951, the government of Pakistan invited a UNESCO mission which outlined plans for a nationwide campaign for fundamental education with particular emphasis on women's education, improvement in native arts and crafts and agricultural methods.²⁸

Furthermore, several conferences and seminars for teachers sponsored by UNESCO have made teachers conscious of the need to resolve educational problems. The organization sponsored two regional conferences, one in Nanking, and the other, in Mexico City, just before the Second Session of the General Conference.²⁹ UNESCO fully cooperated with the Organization of American States (OAS) in an educational seminar held in Venezuela to discuss literacy campaign in rural education. As a result of this seminar, another conference was held at Quitandinha in Brazil, dealing with measures adopted by the American Republics to promote literacy and adult education in different parts of South America. In 1950, a conference on rural education was held at Mysore in India

with delegates from fifty-six countries and territories.³⁰

Since UNESCO started its struggle against illiteracy, recommendations and resolutions adopted at various conferences and meetings have endorsed that mission and acknowledged the organization's competence in handling the problem effectively.³¹

From a conception of literacy action associated with fundamental education, there has been a move toward a functional conception linking literacy with economic development; this evolution clearly indicates that the role of UNESCO has undergone changes as ideas and attitudes have developed within the international community. The World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy held in Tehran in 1965 marks this historic turning point.

The Experimental World Literacy Programme (E.W.L.P.), which emerged from the Tehran conference, was carried out from 1966 to 1973. Its importance is explained in the following words:³²

The Experimental World Literacy Programme, which came as a result of the Tehran Conference, was carried out from 1966 to 1973, a period during which, under the auspices of Unesco and in cooperation with other organizations in the United Nations system, special importance was attached to the implementation of intensive, selective projects in eleven of the twenty countries taking part in it.

A critical evaluation of the Programme, completed in 1975 and published in the form of a global report at the beginning of 1976, made it possible to draw a great many lessons in regard to organization, financing, methodology, results and international cooperation in literacy action.

In 1975, the evaluation stressed the following aspects;³³

- (a) To link literacy activities with overall action for development which, besides economic growth, will include far reaching social changes.
- (b) To view the 'functionality' of literacy work in its widest sense, that is, cultural, social and political as much as occupational and economic.
- (c) To determine the nature and procedure for world assistance for literacy action on the basis of national priorities, a standpoint which implies diversified strategies and conceptions of international cooperation.

The new organization's campaign against illiteracy has been moving toward decentralization in the past. Examples are the Regional Center for Functional Literacy in Rural Areas for the Arab States (ASFEC), Sirs-el-Layyan, Egypt; and the Regional Center for Adult Education and Functional Literacy for Latin America (CREFAL) at Patzcuaro, Mexico. It may be noted that these two centers have been contributing for more than two decades to the training of personnel and have provided technical aid to the Arab countries and Latin America. Since 1968, the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods in Teheran has been promoting the exchange of information and documentation between literacy projects in different parts of the world.

While UNESCO's two regional fundamental education centers have not had much effectiveness in promoting the growth of interdepartmental teams or in training significant number of experts whose experience had been outside the field of education,

the UN Administrative Committee on Education (ACC) concluded in May 1956 that the centers should be continued. The decision was reached provided major adjustments were made by governments in their choice of students and by the centers in their training programmes. It was hoped that the centers could also become increasingly useful as inter-agency institutions in the work of the United Nations for rural development.

The ACC spelled out the future functions of the centers as follows: ³⁴

"(a) to provide regular courses in fundamental education of eighteen to twenty-one months for persons mostly selected by Ministries of Education;

"(b) to provide short specialized courses in different aspects of education for social and economic development for persons drawn from various Department of Governments concerned (these courses should be jointly planned, where appropriate, with the agencies concerned);

"(c) experimental study of educational methods and communication techniques in relation to development programmes;

"(d) the production of tested prototype educational materials (books, films, filmstrips, posters etc.,) for use in rural development."

The graduates of CREPAL set up national fundamental

education centers in Cuba, Honduras and Venezuela. These centers were also the first few steps toward realizing the goals of Patzcuaro and Sirs-el-Layyan. They were also meant to train leaders who would return to their own countries in order to offer training to an increasing number of other leaders. Furthermore, national centers began to grow in various countries which were not represented at either Patzcuaro or Sirs-el-Layyan. Another major field project which began in 1951 at Klay in Liberia grew into a national training center from which thirty teachers graduated in June 1955. After they returned to their home villages, they would work as teachers in rural primary schools and, also, as fundamental education field workers, linking the overall improvement of community life with the expansion of elementary schools. Similar training centers were open at Ubol in Thailand and in Delhi.

Although there has been no basic change in the philosophy of UNESCO in handling the educational and economic problems of the developing regions of the world, the international agency had to adopt different means in different nations to meet particular needs. This can be expected of an organization which is meant to resolve problems existing in different countries. When the Preparatory Commission assessed the range of proposed functions in July 1946, it found them so numerous that a scheme of priorities was proposed; first, those problems which needed immediate attention; second, those which should be discussed by the First

Session of the General Conference for operation in 1947-48; third, those to be considered for action at a later time; and fourth, long-term activities approved in principle only.

Since UNESCO came into existence, there have been changes in its emphasis on certain aspects of education. Today, in the field of literacy it gives considerable emphasis to adult education. This shift in attitude became quite apparent in the Montreal Conference held in 1960, and five years later in a conference held in Teheran to eradicate illiteracy. The international agency gave considerable attention to the problem of illiteracy among a large number of adults in developing countries since that problem did not receive adequate attention from local bodies. Today, a large number of adults are benefiting from UNESCO's literacy programmes in developing countries. After the 1972 Tokyo Conference, UNESCO viewed adult education, among other things, as an instrument to prepare the individual for productive activity and to combat his/her economic and cultural alienation. It also set the quantitative and qualitative growth of adult education as an important goal for the 1970's.

It was in pursuit of such an objective that UNESCO directed its attention in Upper Volta for the qualitative development of adult education. A West African country, Upper Volta, has approximately five million inhabitants, but with few roads, no coastline and without any immediate prospect for growth. UNESCO began a comparatively modest scheme in order to increase

the access of adults to education. The local government accepted UNESCO's proposals for educational improvement. An agreement was reached to use local language for literacy teaching. The plan of operation was signed between the international organization and the Government of Upper Volta in February 1968.

Although there are some variations in the approach adopted by UNESCO in tackling various problems, one can also draw many parallels in its international activities. In the early days of its operation, the international organization opened a primary school providing education for 105 pupils in Haiti, began a clinic and a stock-raising station for poultry and nurseries for small trees. When one analyzes the work of UNESCO one can clearly find similar attempts by the organization in other parts of the world. In almost all participating nations UNESCO has undoubtedly started schools or adult education centers to improve educational standards. This is a common theme. But if one finds variations in the approach of the organization, that is primarily the result of particular needs of a member nation. For instance, UNESCO was concerned about arid zones in Tunisia. The agency had to introduce new methods to make arid zones economically more productive. And to attain that objective UNESCO trained new personnel to meet the emerging needs.

An important area for the agency's assistance in Asian countries in educational and scientific research; this came about

as a result of meeting the changing conditions in many nations in Asia. Scientific and technological research is rapidly growing in Asia, and as a direct consequence of assistance from UNESCO, research programmes in natural resources and oceanography, engineering and building design have made notable progress in the past. Since the resources for these ventures are somewhat limited, UNESCO's task is to mobilize and increase them both nationally and internationally. The international agency has encouraged research in social aspects of small-scale industry in different Asian countries.

Regional aspects play a dominant role in the implementation of UNESCO programmes. Regional factors do have some influence on the educational systems of different countries of the world, but in the case of an international agency such as UNESCO this aspect looms large. Thus in the African region a serious concern has been the collection of fundamental demographic data and the training of technical personnel required for the analysis. Consequently, the organization had to adopt measures to train the required personnel. In the case of Latin American region, attention was focussed on the interrelationship between social and economic variables within different development styles and patterns of socio-economic changes which characterize the area. In West Asia action has been influenced by factors such as high birth rate, rapidly declining mortality, large scale exodus of people from rural areas to urban centers and social

imbalance resulting from the movement of skilled workers and technicians.

During the period, 1977 to 1982, steps will be taken to improve scientific knowledge of the interrelationship between demographic phenomena and natural environment and resources. This policy, UNESCO hopes, will provide a better knowledge-base for policy makers, educators and others concerned with the general progress of their respective regions. The international agency's functions will take the form of studies, including a number of comparative, cross-cultural studies on family structures, dynamics and consequences of migration, studies on pedagogical and learning theories in relation to population education. These are some of the innovations UNESCO is introducing in its efforts to combat illiteracy and other inadequacies in different parts of the world.

S u m m a r y

1. In many developing countries primary education was mainly for children ignoring the needs of many adults. UNESCO found the necessity to meet the needs of a large number of adults. Adult education is a significant part of UNESCO's activities in developing countries.

2. Historically the first motive for adult education was religious in nature in England, and the first recorded educators were Christian missionaries. Adult education is widely regarded as a phenomenon of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries

3. In Canada, as in England, the desire for mechanics to learn

more about applied science, to widen their knowledge of new skills and to keep abreast of new methods in education and technology have resulted in the birth of widespread adult education programmes.

4. The term "adult education" may be difficult to define, but experience has shown that UNESCO's contribution to this field has met genuine needs of developing countries. The term though seems to have different meanings in different nations. Nevertheless, in the past UNESCO has associated adult education with the world-wide spread of democracy and efforts to guarantee stable democratic systems in the newly independent countries in Africa and Asia.

5. Combined with the democratic basis for interest in adult education have been the remarkable advances in technology resulting in an increase in the need for technical personnel in developing countries.

6. It may be noted that since the 1960's adult education has made unprecedented progress, both qualitatively and quantitatively, in response to the needs arising from scientific and technical changes in the world.

7. An early project undertaken by UNESCO is the Marbial Valley Project which improved general standards of education and hygiene in Haiti. It was also a learning experience for the international agency in the sense that the officials were able to learn much from their efforts in Haiti and adopt relevant methods in other parts of the world.

8. The organization's campaign against illiteracy and ignorance

brought together an array of educators interested in fundamental education.

9. Since UNESCO started its programme against illiteracy, recommendations and resolutions adopted at various conferences have endorsed that mission and acknowledged the organization's competence in handling the problem effectively. For a conception of literacy action associated with fundamental education, there has been a move toward a functional conception linking literacy with economic development.

10. Although there has been no basic change in the philosophy of UNESCO, the international agency had to adopt different means in different parts of the world.

11. A significant area for the agency's assistance in Asian countries is in educational and scientific research.

12. Regional aspects play a dominant role in the implementation of UNESCO's programmes. Regional factors do have some influence on the educational systems in different parts of the world. Thus in the African region a serious concern has been the collection of fundamental demographic data and the training of technical personnel required for the analysis.

Notes and References

1. The missionaries came from Ireland or the Continent to convert the inhabitants to Christianity; for example, St. Columba working among the Picts of the Scottish Islands, St. Augustine in Kent and St. Paulinus in Northumbria.
2. A History of Adult Education in Great Britain, Thomas Kelly, (Liverpool: Liverpool University Press, 1970) pp. 112-13.
3. Ibid., p. 216.
4. Adult Education in Canada, J.R. Kidd, (Toronto: Garden City Press Cooperative, 1950) p. 3.
5. Ibid., p. 5.
6. Quoted in Unesco: The Right to Education, (New York: 1969) pp. 3-4.
7. Jean Guenheno, Adult Education and the Crisis of Civilization, Unesco, Adult Education, Current Trends and Practices, (1949) pp. 12-17.
8. Unesco, International Directory of Education, (1952); and Unesco, S.G. Raybold and E.A. Corbett, Universities in Adult Education (1953).
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10. W.E.F. Ward, Unesco at Montevideo, " Overseas Education, Vol. XXVII, No. 1 (April 1955), p. 17.
11. Unesco Features, No. 192 (July 9, 1956) p. 1.
12. "Thinking Ahead: Unesco and the Challenges of Today and Tomorrow," cit. op., p. 228.
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15.

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16.

He remained in the area only twelve months, but did much work. As a result of the efforts of WHO, the disease yawn, which had previously affected eight per cent of the inhabitants in Haiti, was eliminated effectively.

17.

Unesco Features, No. 100 (June 26, 1953) pp. 6-9.

18.

Thibor Mende, "Things are Looking Up in the Forgotten Valley'," Unesco Courier, Vol. V, No. 1 (January 1952) p. 5.

19.

See p. 147.

20.

Unesco, Learn and Live, (New York: 1951), pp. 5-8.

21.

Article 26 of the Declaration.

22.

Unesco, World Survey of Education, Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics, (1955), pp. 17-19.

23.

Countries in northern Europe, Hungary and Czechoslovakia in Eastern Europe, the United States and Canada, Australia and New Zealand have almost wiped out illiteracy as a result of educational planning and efforts taken by the governments in these countries. Some of their attempts provide models to others. Campaigns to remove illiteracy have been quite successful in many countries of the world. In Russia and Poland the proportion of illiterates has been reduced to nineteen and twenty-five per cent respectively; in countries

of southern and southeastern Europe, such as Italy, Spain, Rumania and Yugoslavia, it is about twenty-five per cent.

24.

Unesco, World Survey of Education, Ibid., pp. 13-16.

25.

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26.

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27.

For a general statement by Clarence E. Beeby on educational missions, see Unesco, Courier, Vol. II, No. 1 (February 1949), p. 11.

28.

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29.

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30.

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31.

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32.

"Thinking Ahead: Unesco and the Challenges of Today and Tomorrow," (Unesco, New York: 1977) p. 242.

33.

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34.

United Nations, Administrative Committee on Coordination,

Chapter -- 3

UNESCO AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

UNESCO's educational programmes are closely linked with economics and technical development in countries under our study. By improving the educational standards in developing countries the international agency is, in fact, making a lasting contribution to national development programmes in many nations. The United Nations Expanded Technical Assistance Programme was launched during the early phase of UNESCO's history, and it was to be increasingly important in its operation. The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the world body's unique contributions to the economic and industrial growth of developing countries in the past.

In several developing countries of the world education for

economic development based on technological improvement is relatively a novel approach in the curriculum. Arnold C. Harberger argues that in India emphasis was placed on the study of arts and humanities almost ignoring technical education during the pre-independent days.¹ In the same manner, Philip Foster points out that a similar situation existed in Ghana.² This was the result of a general lack of equipment and personnel to train technical experts who also required more capital outlay than that needed to train individuals in arts and humanities. Consequently, one finds an imbalance in the number of trained personnel. Harry Leibenstein explains the phenomenon in the following words:³

It is quite common for underdeveloped countries to have a deficiency of certain types of skills and, at the same time, a surplus of other skills. For example, a country may lack various types of engineers, skilled mechanics, machinery maintenance personnel, entrepreneurs and people with managerial talents while at the same time having a surplus of individuals with bachelor of arts degrees. It is not uncommon in some underdeveloped countries to find pools of unemployed intellectuals and a shortage of craftsmen and technicians who appear to require roughly an equal amount of education.

If developing countries are to make education enhance their overall development, they should assign priorities to specific levels or types of education. If literacy of the masses, for example, is a high-priority objective, primary education should be stressed; if rapid mechanization, then technical education should be emphasized. Education has three main functions to fulfill in developing nations:⁴ (1) to provide technicians and skill necessary

for development and to prevent waste; (2) to develop appropriate modes of thought and a positive approach toward planning; (3) to cultivate simple agricultural skills which will produce surpluses far above subsistence level in order to make contribution to capital accumulation as a basis for industrialization.

In developed as well as developing countries one of the basic economic bases for categorization of skills is the degree of mobility not only among types of job available but also firms or employing units. In contrast to arts and humanities one also finds it easy to transform technological skills from one area to another, and provide training to other individuals inhabiting a different region. Today, UNESCO largely relies on trained personnel of a particular region to train others in similar skills; many developing nations have benefited a great deal from this flow of ideas from areas which already have acquired sufficient knowledge in a particular technical field. UNESCO greatly depends on the transformation of ideas on an international basis, from the highly advanced regions to the less advanced parts of the world.

With the introduction of a new method in technology or with rapid technological advances there is a concomitant need to make necessary changes in educational planning. If this is not done, there will be serious imbalances in the economic structure of a nation. In other words, economic changes and educational planning have to move hand in hand. Bowman underlies three main principles concerning this:⁵

First, the more rapid the pace of economic change, the higher the levels of generalized schooling that are needed to provide adaptability in subsequent occupational position.

Second, a prescription of higher levels of generalized schooling does not imply a production in on-the-job training and learning, even though such a prescription may involve substitution of schooling in a particular case.

Third, history suggests that typically both types of human resource development must, and in fact do, rise together if economic growth is to be rapid and sustained.

Another principle is that the available opportunities condition how individuals will combine learning in school and at work; their choices, in this respect, can play a dominant role in the subsequent path of economic development. Bowman says that the choices "affect the kinds of human competencies that come to be most fully developed, and hence also the ways in which human factors are combined with each other and with other factors in production."⁶

We already found that during the colonial era many African and Asian countries did not have a technological base. In most cases the economy was based on agriculture. After most of these nations became independent, there was a growing belief that economic growth depended greatly on improvements in education and technology. In the early stages, UNESCO also realized such a need in the developing nations, and put forward plans to introduce new methods or provide training to many individuals.

In the autumn of 1948, the United Nations General Assembly

started a significant programme in order to provide technical know-how and assistance for economic development of the less industrialized nations of the world. This was a logical outgrowth of Articles 55-60 of the Charter of the United Nations Organization. Furthermore, it was an obvious response to the need to promote the peaceful integration of these nations --many of them newly independent-- in the world community. Most of these countries were located in South and Southeast Asia, the Middle East, Africa and some parts of Latin America.

In January 1949, President Truman called for a programme of technical assistance by the United States and "as a cooperative enterprise in which all nations work together through the United Nations and its specialized agencies wherever possible."⁷ In the following month the Economic and Social Council passed a resolution, introduced by the Directors General of the specialized agencies, outlined a comprehensive programme of technical aid.⁸ During the first six years of the programme approximately eighty governments pledged \$142 million. Through various activities, 131 nations and territories have received assistance.⁹ Between 1950 and 1956, more than 5,000 experts were sent to different countries and about 8,000 training fellowships were offered to several individuals. The development of the programme was supervised by a Technical Assistance Committee (TAC) and by a Technical Assistance Board

(TAB) of delegates of various United Nations agencies which administer the programme.

The technical assistance programme made available to UNESCO additional funds beyond the organization's regular budget. Initially these were earmarked to the international agency for distributing funds received for the Expanded Technical Assistance Programme (UNETAP). Projects under the programme were carried out only following requests by governments of the recipient nations which also contribute part of the expenses payable in local currency. By 1956, UNESCO had sent 500 scientists and educators besides providing 600 fellowships. It may be noted that in practically all the less economically developed countries, UNESCO's contributions have been overshadowed by the more generously financed plans of a few individual nations and to a less degree by the Colombo Plan.

Technical Assistance Programme

UNESCO's programme for technical aid has been chiefly in the fields of education and natural science. In education it has assisted member nations in the general expansion of primary and secondary education as well as technical education. Meanwhile, in the natural sciences it has offered assistance for scientific research, science teaching and scientific and technical documentation. Attempts in these fields have

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been regarded as directly related to economic development, in contrast to other aspects of UNESCO's programme such as social sciences and cultural activities. Nevertheless, experience demonstrates that economic and social development are closely linked together and that natural sciences have an important role to play in the economic revival of any collectivity.

During the 1953-56 period, a novel approach was adopted toward programme formulation and concentration. The most remarkable attempt to concentrate UNESCO's programme took its origin from a recommendation to the Executive Board in July 1953 by Vittorino Veronese, a delegate from Italy. The international agency's activities, at this time, focussed on four important points; (a) UNESCO's apparent failure to receive full support from member nations, educators, creative thinkers and the general public; (b) greater reliance on regional approach in the activities of UNESCO; (c) need for effective National Commissions; (d) means of further concentrating the programmes.¹⁰

From the discussions held during this period emerged a long memorandum; its emphasis on the needs of member nations was further reinforced by mounting requests from Asian countries. This emphasis obtained expression in a conference of the Indian National Commission which took place in Delhi on January 9-11, 1954. The discussions had a regional character because of the

participation of delegates from Afghanistan, Ceylon, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Japan, Lebanon, Nepal, Syria and an observer from Turkey. The memorandum recommended division of the programme into the following two major categories;¹¹

1. Permanent activities, such as technical services and measures meant to have a universal effect;

2. Activities limited in space and time, but clearly specified issues. Some of these proposals had been already put forward on several occasions. Yet, their relevance had been strengthened by initiation of the technical assistance programme.

The first category, called "the continuing universal programme," would consist of clearing-house services in which UNESCO serves as an international fund of knowledge for the gathering and dissemination of information, assistance to the international cooperation of scientists, specialists and other scholars, technical advice to the United Nations and the distribution of educational, scientific and cultural material.

The second chief category, "a programme of action," included two types of activity; (a) an enlarged service of technical assistance (not limited as that of the United

Nations to "economic development") for meeting specific requests from member nations and (b) important projects to lead to achievement within a certain period of time and in a definite area carried out by "task forces" including representatives of pertinent fields, technical or otherwise, from interested member nations.

In many cases allocation of additional resources -- cash, technical advice and equipment-- can provide the "lift-off" which a development project requires before it can soar on its own power. In some cases the need is to stretch resources which are apt to become stagnant for a while. If this can be carried out, the nation can make use of the technical progress as they become available; if not, attempts are taken to train engineers and technicians, to improve farming methods and to raise literacy levels.

A nation which has faced such a problem is Tunisia, where the resource which must be stretched is water. Industry, agriculture and the towns were consuming about 50 per cent of the annual assets of 2,720 million cubic meters by 1968; by 1980, according to scientists, consumption will soar to 85 per cent. Faced with the need to increase production of food and to set up agricultural exports, the government decided to expand irrigated farmland from 80,000 to 200,000 hectares. The Medjerda, the only river which flows throughout the year in Tunisia, provides half the nation's water and that is saline.

The problem which the government took to UNESCO was simply stated: could they utilize saline water for irrigation? Agriculturists point out that as much as half to one gramme of salt per thousand will be sufficient to sterilize plants and ruin farmland; the remnants of vanished civilizations in the Mediterranean base are unquestionable evidence of what takes place when salt accumulates in the soil.

The solution to this problem was not easy to come by. UNESCO's consistent efforts are explained in the following words in an official publication.¹¹

It needed seven years of work by "Unesco workers and around \$1.8 million from the Tunisian Government and the United Nations Development Programme. It involved setting up six experimental field stations to represent the differing soil, rainfall and irrigation conditions to be found in Tunisia.

In 1969, UNESCO was able to report the final result of its efforts in Tunisia. "Salinity, as it occurs in the irrigated areas of Tunisia, is a surmountable barrier."¹² The eight international experts and thirty-six Tunisian specialists came to the unanimous agreement that alkalinity posed no serious threat to Tunisia, that the highly poisonous chemical boron, which is regarded as a curse in arid zones, was not discovered in water and that despite rainfall was scarce, frequent storms washed away salt from the fertile levies of the soil to areas where it could be easily drained. The final result of the efforts,

in effect, meant that the country's farmland could be more than doubled thereby making additional contribution to its economic growth.

The Tunisian experiment may not be considered a blueprint for success in agricultural development everywhere since weather patterns and conditions of soil differ from region to region. The use of saline water, the report concluded, would call for careful planning, training of farmers and the proper use of equipment to ensure that fields are properly levelled, tilled and drained in order to keep salt levels down. After the conclusion of the study conducted by UNESCO, the United Nations Development Programme agreed to provide \$3.1 million for a three-year project. In this venture the Food and Agriculture Organization would train farmers in the techniques to increase yields from irrigated agriculture. A UNESCO publication explains the methods involved in such attempts in the following manner.¹³

Perhaps the classic form which Unesco participation takes in a country's development programme is a planned attack on one sector of the country's needs, generally the need for specific skills. Development requirements are forecast and become the targets for a carefully calculated project for which the United Nations Development Programme supplies some funds and the government usually more. Unesco, as executing agency for the project, provides experts, equipment and study fellowships to train local specialists to take over when the project ends.

This type of project figures in the UNESCO records under

the code name 'ECU 3', a plan to meet Ecuador's needs for engineers; the success of the plan cost United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) \$1,791,402 and the Ecuador Government \$3,163,046. UNESCO sent sixteen technical experts and short-term consultants and also provided twenty-three fellowships. The original plan had to be amended and expanded, and by the time field-work was completed in 1971 the trickle of engineers into the country's economy had become a steady stream. Ecuador's economy, according to the basic calculation, would absorb annually 400 more engineers in the field of chemistry, mechanics and electricity. Development would be in jeopardy without their assistance.

Ecuador had a proper base to start. Quito, the capital, was once the second capital of the Inca Empire, and the nation was rich in the art of the Spanish colonial era. The National Polytechnic School, which was selected for development, was 100 years old. Ecuador has a history and an infrastructure.

As a result of a high drop-out rate, about hundred students graduated from all the existing institutions; of these only a few really possessed the background of modern science teaching since the schools lacked proper facilities and equipment. The UNESCO project aimed at expanding the National Polytechnic School by improving the existing departments of electrical and chemical engineering, creating a department of mechanical engineering, beginning specialized

courses in electronics and upgrading curricula.

New curricula and teaching methods raised academic standards and research was encouraged through the acquisition of laboratory equipment. Close contacts were also established with working engineers and a Department of Applied Research helped improve the nation's industry. An important result was that enrolment rose rapidly and the drop-out rate fell.

Between 1963 (when the project began) and 1970, total enrolment was doubled to 706 a year while drop-out rate fell to 42 per cent from 85 per cent. The 1961 intake of students produced only 22 graduates in 1965, but 81 out of a total of 139 students who enrolled in 1966 graduated in 1970. A School of Technologists opened in 1969 further reduced wastage by providing training to those who happened to fail the preparatory course in order to become middle-level technicians. When a country such as Ecuador has set course for industrial and economic growth, shortage of technicians at the beginning stage can be a serious handicap. But when one starts a successful project in a developing country, and the final outcome will affect the economic and social life of a large number of people.

Development in Africa

Any account of the results of secondary and vocational education in African countries would not be complete unless an attempt was made to discover the aspirations and expectations

of students in particular countries. For instance, the aspirations of students in Ghana of their future role in society are closely related to their educational experience and the extent to which they will proceed with their studies after finishing the basic five-year secondary course. Their entry into professional occupations is clearly associated with access to higher education and the aspirations of the majority of students are dependent to some degree upon the successful completion of further full-time schooling. Concerning this problem Phillip Foster Points out:¹⁴

Initially, the most outstanding characteristic of our students (students in Ghana) is that the vast majority of them do not regard their secondary education as their terminal point of full-time education. Thus 97 per cent of the pupils hoped to continue with full-time schooling after the completion of their present full-time course

It would appear that once Ghanaian students have been fortunate enough to gain access to the selective secondary schools they become committed to a continuous programme of full-time studies beyond the secondary level.

An international agency such as UNESCO is assisting students who wish to continue their studies beyond the secondary level. Its various programmes are attracting a large number of students who had no adequate facilities before. Their plans for further studies may take the form of technical education. Presently, the emerging nations of Africa look at development not as a gift from heaven, but the direct result of will and determination

of individuals to organize, introduce and control manifold changes to improve man's lot. For African countries, more than for other countries, the motive force of development is the main concern. In Africa it is not the lack of natural resources that impedes development, but the existence of a vast number of passive individuals. It also needs an army of skilled people in various fields to make considerable progress. Aware of this problem and determined to reduce the gap between the standards of living of African people and those of the industrialized countries and to help Africans to raise their status, the young African countries have concentrated their attempts on discovering potential human resources with the assistance of agencies such as UNESCO.¹⁵

UNESCO was quick to respond to the needs of African people. Following the declaration of the first United Nations Development Decade in 1962, it was decided that the international agency should, within its fields of competence, assume the full role allotted to it in accordance with the principles and forms of its participation. William A. Eteki-Mboumoua explains UNESCO's functions in Africa in the following words.¹⁶

In fact, all of Unesco's activities, conceived in the light of Organization's three indivisible functions (intellectual, operational and ethical) contribute to Africa's development. Even Unesco's normative action, the declarations, conventions and recommendations of a general

or universal character, have a real and lasting influence. They produce an awareness of the tasks of development and contribute to their formulation of States, and they give rise among all men to a strong sense of intellectual and moral responsibility which leads to international cooperation on behalf of development.

UNESCO and the Economic Commission for Africa sponsored the well-known Addis Ababa Conference on the Development of Education in Africa. The objective of the Conference held in May 1961 was to help the African countries to identify their most urgent educational needs in view of the priorities which they had established for the economic growth of the whole area. Here, one can clearly find the close connection African officials saw between educational standards and overall economic development. The Addis Ababa Conference adopted an outline for Africa's educational growth which clearly foresaw an annual increase of 5 per cent in enrolment of children in the age-group for which education was compulsory; an increase in the number of children entering secondary schools from 9 per cent in 1961 to 13 per cent in 1966; an increase in the percentage of GNP devoted mainly to educational planning from 4 per cent in 1961 to 13 per cent in 1966, to 15 per cent in 1970 and the increase will be 16 per cent in 1980. The Addis Ababa Plan, based on the general considerations of an educational and economic nature, was undoubtedly an important step. UNESCO played a significant role in this area.

The effects of this historic step were felt in other important areas also. In the field of science, the Lagos Conference held in July and August 1964 studied the organization of research and training relating to the conservation and proper utilization of natural resources for development. This was followed by a conference in Yaounde in July 1967 on science policy and research administration in Africa. In 1963, UNESCO put forward a plan for the development of mass communication at an estimated cost of \$360 million, to achieve minimum levels of ten copies of a daily newspaper, five radio sets and two cinema seats per one hundred inhabitants.

In 1962, UNESCO envisaged the organization of training in educational planning at the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning which the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) proposed to set up at Dakar. The institute was responsible for training educators and experts in the economic aspects of education. As a result of its activities in Dakar and other African countries, "a score of African states now have in their education ministries officials who are familiar with the practices and methods of educational planning and administration."¹⁷ In 1963, many experts were made available to countries under the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance. Planning missions were also sent to nine countries in 1964 and specialists were

made available to twelve countries in 1965, ten in 1966, seventeen in 1967 and fourteen countries in 1968.

Since 1961, UNESCO has assisted in helping to begin several institutions for the training of medium- and high-level technicians. In Kenya, the Nairobi Polytechnic trains technicians in applied mechanics and electronics and the Faculty of Engineering at the University College in Nairobi trains engineers. Other similar institutions are in Nigeria, the Faculty of Engineering, Lagos University and the Technical Teacher Training Institute, Lagos; in Uganda, the Ugandan Technical College; in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the National Institute of Building and Public Works at Kinshasha and the National Mining Institute at Bukavu; and in Guinea, the Polytechnic Institute, Conakry.

Since farming is the mainstay of Africa, progress depends to a great degree on the development of agriculture and the industries which agriculture supports. Following the example of the Rural Polytechnic Institute set up at Katibougou in Mali and financed by UNDP, other projects under consideration are a faculty of agriculture in Tanzania and a higher institute of agricultural education in the Democratic Republic of Congo. It is hoped that the graduates from these institutes will make a valuable contribution to the overall development of African economy. UNESCO continues to give assistance to a number of African technical and agricultural colleges.

Progress in Asia

The growing momentum given to development in Africa, Asia and Latin America in the 1950's derived its force from many factors making the international scene. A number of political, sociological and ideological forces, growing power of arms, extremely low standards of living and frequently verging on stark poverty in the developing countries of the world attracted much attention in the appropriate agencies of the United Nations and in the economically developed nations. UNESCO directed its programmes to the general needs of the developing countries; technical assistance and operational programmes received funds from various sources in order to carry out such programmes.

In spite of certain difficulties such as inexperience in operating international projects, the Technical Assistance Programme undertaken by the international agency produced encouraging results even in the 1950's. Concerning this problem, Prem Kirpal makes the following observation.¹⁸

Projects were conceived and executed in a diversity of needs and conditions in different regions; their general success was, however, based in all cases on the quality of planning, the happy blending of international assistance with national effort, the speed and nature of implementation and the influence they exercised on local and regional developments.

Although the international body has accorded to the application of science and technology to development much priority,

sufficient resources have not always been forthcoming. Various UNESCO projects have stressed the training of scientists and technicians and the installation of infrastructures for science and technology in Asian countries. Important advances were made in the fields of oceanography and hydrology, and a comprehensive study of the feasibility of a World Scientific Information System (UNISKF) was launched in 1966.¹⁹

Dominating all forms of cooperation is UNESCO's consistent attempt for development with the United Nations, which can be said to have started in August 1950, when the Organization started its first technical assistance programme. Since that time, UNESCO has been responsible for the operation of projects involving \$207 million from the United Nations Development Programme. An official publication explains it in the following words.²⁰

The United Nations Development Programme as it now operates is the result of consolidating two United Nations schemes, the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and the United Nations Special Fund, into a unified effort to help low-income countries speed up their social and economic progress through bringing money, specialized knowledge and skills to bear on their particular problems.

... Development has been concerned in the establishment of educational institutes which can train people in urgently needed skills, in the promotion of new techniques aimed at improving productivity and in providing advisory services and consultants.

Addressing the Economic and Social Council of the

United Nations in July 1965, UNESCO's Director General, René Maheu, pointed out the relationship between education and national development.²¹

The yearning of the world's peoples for education appears as a gigantic wave swelling and threatening to break and sweep away everything in its path if it is not harnessed in time to irrigate the vast areas that it can render fertile. This demand for education is universal and irresistible for it is directly linked to the triple appeal of national development, national freedom and individual dignity.

A significant area for UNESCO's assistance in Asia is educational and scientific research. Scientific and technological research is rapidly growing in Asian countries. As a result of direct assistance from the international agency, research programmes in natural resources and oceanography, engineering and building designs have made considerable progress in Asia. Nevertheless, the resources for these projects are somewhat limited, and a serious problem often being faced by UNESCO is to mobilize and increase them both nationally and internationally to the benefit of Asian people.

In addition to a few sporadic national projects for the specific development of social science teaching in Iran, Pakistan and Thailand, UNESCO's chief attempt has been to encourage a regional research programme attached to the New Delhi Science Office and from 1965 through the establishment of a Unesco Research Center on Social, Economic and Cultural Development

for South Asia in Calcutta. (In 1961, the center was reorganized and transferred to Delhi). It encouraged research in social aspects of small-scale industry in Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Viet-Nam. The center also studied the changing social structures in Afghanistan and Malaysia.

In many cases this was the first time that an international agency was undertaking projects to improve industrial output. UNESCO also emphasized the social side of technological changes. Since 1965, there has been an improvement in the international agency's association with social science research in Asia. "There is an imperative need," says Malcolm S. Adiseshiah, "to employ this tool to ensure desirable social changes, to understand and control technological and urban growth and generally to help in counting the costs of Asian development."²²

UNESCO has invested 12 per cent of its total aid to Asia in educational planning and social science policy. Faced with the problem of insufficient resources, the urgent need of educational change and science redesign, the Asian countries have turned their attention to educational and science planning. Such a planning has been one of the most remarkable innovations in the 1960's for a number of countries in Asia, and it is also UNESCO's highly important contribution to the overall development in that continent. Although planning methodology is still experimental, planning techniques have been adopted in one

way or another, by the nineteen Asian nations. A major source of inspiration has been the Asian educational model which, in turn, has been the basis for the science model built for Asian science at Castasia in 1968, and for European science at Minespol in 1970. UNESCO's assistance programmes in Asian countries are directed in the search for a national educational and scientific system in order to meet its culture and development frame. As a direct result of such attempts in the past, a number of nations in Asia have made much progress in both science and technology.

Development in Arab Countries

The chief features of the Arab countries as a developing region are the primary nature of the available resources, limited investment potentiality and the inadequacies of economic and social structure. UNESCO's reputation has its roots in the widespread appreciation of its attempts as well as an enthusiasm which is common to all Arab countries. The effectiveness and success of the organization in the entire region and their impact on the life of the people as a whole is due to this willingness for close cooperation.

UNESCO's role in several fields is to offer technical and financial assistance to a number of national projects. The assistance it provides takes the form of sending experts, providing

fellowships, equipment and training courses or the organization of regional projects with the Arab League. Mohi El Din Saber makes the following observation about the results of UNESCO's activities in Arab countries:²³

Unesco's activities cover a wide range of general and specific projects. Successful results have been achieved in the reform and development of education, both quantitatively and qualitatively. The results are particularly apparent in the fields of educational planning and financing, construction of curricula, teacher training, development of technical education, to science and research. The Organization has also devoted special attention to rural development projects.

The following list indicates the scope of UNESCO's assistance to many educational institutions for the development of Arab States.

- Algeria. Training of engineers at the University of Algiers.
Higher technical teacher training, Oran.
- Iraq. Higher Technical Institute, Baghdad.
Institute for Applied Research on Natural Resources, Abu-Ghraib.
- Jordan. Faculty of Science, University of Jordan, Amman.
- Libya. College of Advanced Technology, Tripoli.
- Morocco. Engineering School, Mohammadia.
- Sudan. Training Institute for Secondary School Teachers, Omdurman.

Syria. Technological Institute, Damascus.

Tunisia. Research and Training on irrigation with saline water, Tunis.

United Arab Republic. National Physical Laboratory for Metrology, Cairo.

Mansoura Polytechnic Institute for Higher Education

Mention should also be made of the assistance UNESCO provides to developmental activities in the Arab countries through regional seminars, training courses dealing with technical education, the social consequences of industrialization and the development of the teaching of science and mathematics. The activities of the international agency are based on the selection of strategic areas and key situations in the developmental process whether they take the form of launching new programmes in line with the basic philosophy of development or of providing a team of specialists and experienced leaders to administer different activities.

The Center for Functional Literacy in Rural Areas for the Arab States (ASFEC) set up in the United Arab Republic has developed a school of thought in order to guide the process of rural development and to find solutions to the problems of rural communities within an integrated programme of economic and cultural development. Through its several graduates working in rural and desert regions, several methods of field-work

have been unified as a direct consequence of their attempts in training others in the scientific methods they learned at ASFEC.

The Arab States have benefited much in education and science from their active and close cooperation with the international agency. The national and regional programmes have a positive value; they have contributed much to the improvement of educational, scientific and cultural activities at the national level, to the unification of schools of thought and various projects at the regional level and the establishment of proper and creative relationship with the prevailing international trends. Such attempts have resulted in a deep appreciation of UNESCO in the Arab countries, and they will definitely have a great influence on other developing regions of the world.

Unesco's Role in South America

The first session of the General Conference in 1946 decided to set up Science Cooperation Offices with the goal of assisting areas "remote from the main centers of science and technology," and the areas included South America.²⁴ The idea to open such centers came directly from experience gained during the last major war as a result of the establishment by the Allied Nations of science cooperation offices in a number of countries, particularly the British office established in China.²⁵

One of the centers, with a small staff, was located in Montevideo. In many cases the local government has augmented the UNESCO contribution in personnel and money. The main objective of such centers has been to channel scientific data from the most advanced nations to the less advanced regions, enlisting scientists and technicians in developing regions, including South America, in the "international teamwork leading to scientific progress."²⁶ It is in these fields that the need is greatest for the aid of science against poverty and ignorance. Scientists were added in 1951 to the staff of the offices at Cairo and Montevideo.

The Montevideo center has organized courses in mathematics and physics for university professors in Argentina and Mexico. Regional training courses were offered in scientific documentation, methods of using radioisotopes, scientific apparatus and science teaching in secondary and primary schools. The Science Cooperation offices have also conducted a number of symposia on advanced technical subjects, which have brought together twelve to fifteen scholars from the area and a few experts from outside; such symposia have included topics as research methods in physics (Brazil) and cell biology (Uruguay).

One of the most significant seminars was that on high altitude biology held at Lima, Peru, in 1949. Dating from the later half of the nineteenth century, laboratories for

high altitude research were established in several countries,²⁷ including Peru in South America. The research is of vital importance to aviation. The biological aspect of this problem, affecting reproduction and other physiological activities of men and animals, was of special importance to Peru since five million of its inhabitants live ten thousand feet above sea level.

Juan Gomez Millas makes²⁸ the following observation about the earlier attempts of UNESCO in the development of South America.²⁸

The first efforts of the Field Science Office for Latin America were devoted to the dissemination of basic scientific information, partly in applied science, and to informing the rest of the world about the work being done in the region. The year 1949 saw the launching of a series of publications on scientific institutions in the region and of directories of scientists.

... From 1967 information published was expanded to cover descriptions of the science policies of various States and of the situation regarding certain branches of scientific study.

The application of science and new techniques to the identification and conservation of natural resources has been a major part of UNESCO's programme in South America since the 1950's. The characteristic features of the tropical and arid zones, hydrology, marine biology and oceanography are subjects of great significance to the region. "The magnitude

and urgency of the research," says Millas, "required convinced governments and scientists that the development of science and its applications required, in the modern world, policy decisions at the highest levels."²⁹

The Latin American Center for the Application of Science and Technology to Development in São Paulo plans to put into practice goals laid down at the meeting held in 1965 in Santiago de Chile. The objective here is to encourage and coordinate scientific and technical endeavours which individual nations cannot conduct by themselves and to train the relevant personnel. The emergence of science policies for development in South America is linked with the active participation of governments in the various international gatherings convened by UNESCO.

The ideas on educational planning and development were discussed further in 1962 at a conference held in Santiago de Chile. (The plan was first discussed at the Lima Conference).

The conference, convened by UNESCO in cooperation with the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) was attended by economists, educators and sociologists. They examined the principles and strategies of educational planning as part of over-all development in the region. UNESCO's efforts in South America in order to bring science and technology part of the curricula in various educational institutions make the youth aware of the work of the organization.

An increasing number of individuals consider education as a prerequisite for economic development. So uncritical has been the general recognition of this view, that the United States has, as an official policy, given primacy to educational planning and development. The acceptance, says James Coleman, "of education as the master determinant of long-term economic growth, apart from all its other effects in the development process, has become for many persons an article of faith."³⁰ Today developing countries unquestionably regard education as an unavoidable part of their economic and technological growth. Coleman argues that in a developing nation separate educational institutions emerge to provide specialized training for the various groups which make up the "strategic elites."³¹

The British Commonwealth and Peace Corps

Besides UNESCO, there have been other international attempts in the development of newly independent countries of Africa and Asia. In some cases these attempts were on bilateral levels. The British Commonwealth has made lasting contributions to the growth of developing countries since it came into existence in 1949. M. Margaret Ball observes:³²

There has been mounting use of the Commonwealth both for consultation on social problems and economic issues and as a means of encouraging assistance from

countries capable of giving it to countries in need of economic and social development. Fully recognizing that both the problems and the solutions extend far beyond the confines of the Commonwealth, its members have viewed it as one of several devices for coming to grips with larger problems.

In 1957, the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference gave preference in the economic discussions to the problem of development although a number of other significant issues were also discussed.

Regarding development, the final communique of the conference pointed out:³³

In their general view of economic questions, the Commonwealth Ministers gave special attention to the impact of major programmes of development in which many of their countries are now engaged ... The United Kingdom will continue to play a leading role in furthering economic development in the countries of the Commonwealth, and important contributions are being made by the other Commonwealth members.

Like the Peace Corps, one of the most extensive areas of Commonwealth cooperation is in the field of education where Commonwealth Education Conference and the Commonwealth Secretariat play crucial roles in organizing educational activities. There can be no doubt that the experience of the British Commonwealth has had its impact on the development of Peace Corps, and the same concept is quite evident in the birth of UNESCO. The first Commonwealth Education Conference held in Oxford in 1959 concentrated on setting up a Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, while the Second Commonwealth Education Conference held in New

Delhi in 1962 discussed the problems of training and supply of teachers, education for economic and social development, technical education, the provision of educational materials, rural education and financial problems.³⁴

In the same manner, the early programmes of Peace Corps were concentrated in education. In 1963, Peace Corps volunteers constituted more than one third of the degree-holding instructors in secondary schools in Ghana and more than one-third of all teachers in South Ethiopia and Nyasaland (now Malawi). In 1965, over half of the secondary-school teachers in six African countries were from Peace Corps, and more than two-thirds of the Peace Corps volunteers serving in Africa were teachers.³⁵ Emphasis on education continued, and the programme was expanded from secondary education to include primary, vocational and university education as well as teacher training.

Since the Peace Corps began its operation in developing countries, approximately half of all its volunteers were active in education or education-related projects. They have worked in cooperation with national ministries in order to set up new curricula; many of the volunteers have taught in local primary schools, secondary schools, teacher training institutes, universities and, in the past, have participated in training courses. In some countries outdated curricula are being discarded and volunteers are working with ministries and in class rooms to introduce new methods and subject matter suited to the needs

of a particular country.

Even after eight years of its operation, there still exists some degree of confusion regarding the meaning and objectives of community development within the Peace Corps. One volunteer has defined it as "the discovery of elements in a community who are progressive and the support of these elements in any way possible to carry out their ambitions or their objectives."³⁶ Frank Mankiewicz, a former director of Latin American operation for the Peace Corps, described community development as a revolutionary force the ultimate aim of which is "nothing less than a complete change in the social and economic patterns of the countries in which we are working."³⁷ In the early projects undertaken by the Peace Corps, there was much stress on results. Volunteers initiated new projects for which there was a need and often did most of the work themselves.

The British Commonwealth, like the Peace Corps, has also been interested in community development through education. In its development programmes, the Commonwealth has given considerable importance to technical assistance. One can draw parallels between the importance the Commonwealth attaches to technology and that of UNESCO to the growth of developing countries. It is in the area of technical aid rather than that of capital aid that multilateral attempts have been made with the greatest possible success by the Commonwealth countries.

on Society, Vol. VII, No. 3 (September 1956), pp. 121-46.

26. Unesco, Science Liaison, (Paris: 1973), p. 13. The countries were Italy, France, Switzerland, the United States, Peru and the U.S.S.R.
27. Latin America, "In the Minds of Men," cit., op., p. 192.
28. Ibid., p. 193.
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30. James S. Coleman, Education and Political Development, (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965) p. 5.
31. Ibid., p. 145.
32. M. Margaret Ball, The "Open" Commonwealth, (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1971) p. 157.
33. Ibid., p. 160.
34. For another version of international aid, see Jonah Alexander, International Technical Assistance Experts, cit. op. and William Hame, African Economic Development, (New York: Council on Foreign Relations, 1965).
35. Robert G. Carey, The Peace Corps, (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1970) p. 136.
36. Ibid., p. 117.
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39. For the contribution of Peace Corps to the general growth of

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1966).

10. The Open Commonwealth, cit. op., p. 180.

11. Ibid., p. 195.

Chapter -- 4

EDUCATION AND INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

UNESCO's various attempts will naturally improve international understanding even if these attempts are not specifically meant to realize that objective. There are some fundamental reasons for this. Since UNESCO is a world organization, its activities are bound to have an international character. Its diverse programmes bring together experts from various parts of the world and they, in turn, work for the general well being of the peoples of the world. They use educational programmes as a proper medium to foster international cooperation. Without this cooperation UNESCO will not find itself in a position to carry out its work. This chapter will analyse the agency's crucial role in furthering world cooperation.

The unprecedented importance of education for international understanding and peace can be understood from a brief study of facts relating to war. Violence is not a novel phenomenon. Yet, the alarming aspect is its rapid escalation. Calculations based on war-violence index on the basis of population, fighting force and casualties involved reveal that even before World War II, violence in warfare was 25 times greater in this century than in the past. Historians find it difficult to determine the actual cost of the last war in terms of human lives and property damage. Therefore, only an approximate estimate of damage can be given.

It is estimated that 55 million died in the last war. Germany, Russia and the nations which were directly involved in the conflict may have lost as much a tenth of their entire population. Most civilians, except perhaps in the United States and Canada in the west, died from bombings, massacre, forced migration, epidemic and sheer starvation.

The last war was also the most expensive in the annals of man. The cost of war totaled \$1,154,000,000,000 and the cost of property damage amounted to more than \$239 billion. The United States alone spent about ten times as much as it had spent in all the previous wars combined. Many countries will continue to pay for war damage for years to come through repaying loans and for the care of the veterans. In fact, no one can measure the cost in human suffering and the general loss of lives. These facts stress the role of education for international understanding.

UNESCO was founded on recognition of the fact that vast diversity of traditions, customs and value systems exist among nations. This diversity is an historical fact and, at the same time, an asset to international society. Under such circumstances the international agency was lured by the member states into the exploration of religious and philosophic beliefs, in an attempt to discover points of agreement underlying human diversity. Indeed, points of common agreement are much greater than diversity. To what degree has UNESCO attained its goals in bringing people together? In this area has its educational experiment been successful? Can we use education to further international understanding on a more effective basis? Has UNESCO restored a common sense of humanity?

As early as 1948 Archibald MacLeish urged:¹

Unesco must restore the sense of human community. It should start by stressing the universality of the question which all men in all countries face --the question of how any man can live in the modern world of vast machines and inhuman environments in which the individual seems powerless. Unesco must express the vast and tragic, but common human experience of trying to answer this one question. It is the question and not the attempts to answer it that is important.

Regardless of the extent to which widespread sense of human community ever existed, the world organization understood the significant character of the problem. For instance, the first session of the General Conference pointed out:²

The philosophic problem of Unesco is the problem of finding common grounds for understanding and agreement between diverse philosophies and religions. This is a new and important problem for philosophy directly related to the cause of peace.

Aid to Education about the United Nations

We now turn our attention to UNESCO's attempts to improve international understanding by promoting support of the United Nations Organization and its specialized agencies. The Constitution of UNESCO pledges the organization to advance "the objectives of international peace and of the common welfare of mankind for which the United Nations Organization was established, and which its Charter proclaims." Conversely, the United Nations General Assembly proclaimed in 1946 that the United Nations would not realize its objectives "unless the peoples of the world are fully informed of its aims and activities."

In 1947, the General Assembly adopted a resolution which urged all member nations to pursue a policy;

".... to encourage the teaching of the United Nations Charter and the purposes and principles, the structure, background and activities of the United Nations in the schools and institutes of higher learning of their countries, with particular emphasis on such instruction in elementary and secondary schools. (Emphasis added).

The same resolution also invited UNESCO to assist in

this venture. One of its first activities in this field was an international seminar on teaching in various schools about the United Nations and its specialized agencies; the seminar was held for six weeks in the summer of 1948 at Adelphi College on Long Island, New York. The delegates examined methods by which school children could learn about the United Nations and reviewed the need for teaching materials. A teacher from the Philippines used his experience at the seminar to organize a series of lectures at Quezón College and an eight-month radio series on the United Nations in his country.⁴ Following the Long Island seminar, a Danish participant published a book meant for secondary schools, The United Nations -- Background, Origins and Experience.⁵

In addition to seminars held in various parts of the world, UNESCO assisted the World Federation of United Nations Associations to hold regional seminars on teaching about the United Nations: in 1949 in Paris and Havana; in 1950 in Rome, Teheran and Paris; in 1951 in Beirut and Delhi; in 1952 in San Salvadore; in 1953 in Monrovia and Mogadiscio; in 1954 in Manila and Montivideo; in 1955 in Heidelberg; and in 1956 in Copenhagen.⁶ Two regional conferences of Unesco National Commissions --one in Havana in 1950 for the Western Hemisphere and the other in Bangkok for South Asia and the South Pacific-- discussed teaching about the United Nations and human rights. In many developing countries the conclusions of the seminars revived a great

interest in the activities of the United Nations, and teaching about the world organization soon became a part of their curricula. Today, many universities offer courses on the United Nations.

In response to a number of requests from educators and public officials about the United Nations, UNESCO published a booklet, Some Suggestions on Teaching about the United Nations and Its Specialized Agencies, and a Selected Bibliography on Education for International Understanding. This was an annotated list of books and pamphlets in fifteen languages containing a section on teaching about the United Nations. A third booklet, The United Nations and World Citizenship, was a report prepared by an international team of six teachers. Perhaps UNESCO made a mistake in abandoning the term "world citizenship" on the ground that the term would be subject to possible misinterpretation. Concerning this aspect Dr. Torres Bodet pointed out in 1952:⁷

It has never been the purpose of Unesco to turn citizens from their national loyalties. We are trying to do something quite different: to train citizens --since we are concerned with education-- who will be faithful in their duty to their own country, and who, for that very reason, will also be loyal to the international obligations which their country has assumed.

The United Nations and Unesco have both shared the responsibility of assisting member states on whom rests the main task for teaching about the United Nations. A resolution

adopted in 1950 by the Economic and Social Council defined their respective obligations as follows:⁸

- (1) Prepare basic materials and encourage member states to adapt and publish them.
- (2) Provide information about the United Nations to press, radio, film services to individuals
- (3) Study ways to increase public recognition and understanding of the United Nations.

Meanwhile, UNESCO was assigned the following important functions:⁹

- (1) To provide teaching aids on the United Nations for use by teachers and adult education groups.
- (2) To evaluate, in cooperation with member states, methods for teaching about and promoting interest in the United Nations.
- (3) To grant fellowships permitting interest in the United Nations, both in educational institutions and at headquarters of the United Nations and the specialized agencies.
- (4) To encourage teaching about the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in schools and adult education programmes and through the press, radio and films.

Occident and Orient

In December 1951, a conference on the philosophical and

cultural relations was held in Delhi on the theme: "The Concept of Man and the Philosophy of Education in East and West." A large number of philosophers and educators attended the UNESCO conference; the delegates came from France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, the United States, Ceylon, Egypt, India, Japan and Turkey. Prime Minister Nehru and the Indian Minister of Education Dr. Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad also took part in the conference.

The participants reached the conclusion that the conventional distinction between the active West and the contemplative East was fallacious and has been overplayed. Both regions, the delegates said, have basically similar religious and cultural ideas and that attitudes supposedly "typical" in both regions had been conditioned by geographical factors and climate. While ethics and philosophy were more clearly based on religion in India than in the West, this was not the case with other Eastern countries such as Japan and China. Such differences also existed in many western nations. The delegates pointed out that while science had given to people greater health and happiness, there was danger that it might enslave the soul of man. Education, they stated, should recognize that the intellect formed only one element in human nature, and it was also important to cultivate man's imagination and spirit.

It was hoped that the discussion would identify areas of practical activity where the thinking of West and East might converge in line with the views presented by Jacques Maritain

at the Second Session of the General Conference. The delegates recommended further seminars of philosophers, educators, artists and scientists; wider knowledge in the West of literature and classic books of the East; mutual revision of history books; new books on religious leaders of the world; linking the teaching of science to the teaching of philosophy and continuation of UNESCO's attempts for exchange of knowledge and advancement of education.¹⁰

Western-Eastern discussions were carried forward in a series of international round table conferences on Asian-American relations sponsored during April and May 1956 by the United States National Commission at the request of UNESCO. Leading educational and cultural leaders from ten Asian countries¹¹ attended the conferences held in different American cities. The talks revealed, as one Asian educator remarked:¹²

.... that Asians and Americans have the same cycle of life and the same values. The difference lies largely in emphasis ... Each region must do its best to understand the psychology of the other, and each region must choose its friends and its policies with care, lest it back the wrong horse. In achieving both aims, these meetings have been of inestimable help. They have changed a meeting of minds into a meeting of hearts. (Emphasis added)

Developing countries, India in particular, had urged that UNESCO help present to Western countries the cultures of the East -- literature, painting, history, music, dance, spiritual values of religion and recent progress in many spheres of human

activity. While appreciation must be reciprocal, Asian countries had stressed that the prevailing trend in influence had been from West to East, notably with regard to science and education.

The Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values was approved as a major theme by UNESCO's 1956 General Conference in Delhi. The proposals presented to the Delhi conference were less precisely outlined than the other two important projects approved, dealing with teacher training in Latin America as well as the improvement of living conditions in the arid zones. It called for action along four lines:¹³

(1) Discussions among philosophers and scholars were to continue. Fellowships and travel grants for exchange of specialists, teachers, university lecturers and eminent scientists were to be increased.

(2) Schools should be encouraged to improve international understanding through contacts among educational leaders, administrators, improvement of curricula, revision of textbooks and experimental work in teacher-training institutions.¹⁴

(3) Wider and better exchange of information for the general public would be promoted through publications, radio, films and television.

(4) UNESCO would assist national organizations

to provide necessary coordination and liaison.

The General Conference gave the project its stamp of approval only in general terms since it failed to reach agreement concerning the nature of activities and the methods to be used.¹⁵ Nevertheless, it provided for an advisory commission which would help the Director General in choosing activities after approval by the Executive Board. The Conference voted \$850,000 in order to carry out the project during 1957 and 1958.

Problems of Race and Immigrants

UNESCO's focus on various ethnic groups is related to educational and cultural factors which make it easier for immigrants to be incorporated into the community where they have settled. Several studies have been conducted on assimilation of immigrant groups in Australia, Belgium, Brazil, France and Israel. Countries of emigration were queried with regard to steps taken to prepare emigrants for new lifestyles, and countries of immigration about the measures they have adopted to facilitate the assimilation of immigrants.

Investigations were conducted in 1952 under the auspices of UNESCO to help nations directly concerned with migration to ascertain and identify the social conditions, facilitate assimilation into the economic and cultural life of the

country and further understanding between peoples. For example, a study conducted in Brazil by Professor Arca Parro of Peru, formerly Chairman of the United Nations Population Commission, provided immigration officials and welfare services with an objective account of measures to facilitate the assimilation of immigrants. Other studies, which served as a framework for a UNESCO conference in Havana in April 1956, assessed the influence exerted by racial and cultural groups on the foreign policy of their country as well as the contributions of immigrants to the economic and cultural life of their country of adoption.¹⁶

UNESCO started its activities in the field of race relations in 1949, as a result of request from the United Nations. The Sub-Commission on Discrimination and Protection of Minorities of the Economic and Social Council had approved resolutions recommending that the agency disseminate scientific information "designed to remove what is commonly known as race prejudice."¹⁷ UNESCO has helped to make more widely known the findings of scientists that racial differences in behaviour and/or mentality are not rooted in biological factors, but are due to historical development under different circumstances.

The international agency has published a series of books and pamphlets on The Catholic Church and the Race Question, Jewish Thought as a Factor in Civilization, The

Ecumenical Movement and the Racial Problem and Hinduism

and Tolerance.¹⁸ UNESCO has also encouraged a study of constructive measures to improve relations among racial groups in Brazil, the French West Indies, Germany, Mexico, the United States and Yugoslavia.

In the late sixties member states asked UNESCO to examine the question of how education --particularly at the primary and secondary level-- can assist children to develop racial tolerance rather than prejudice. Studies were also planned of members of supposedly "primitive" communities since they are becoming intellectual leaders and competent administrators and technicians. The survey of such "elites" covers people in West Africa (Nigeria, Dahomey and the Gold Coast) including the progress of educated African women.¹⁹

It may be noted that sociologists, educators, social psychologists and social anthropologists have done considerable research on social behaviour within nations. These studies have cast some light on domestic tensions, and have helped improve relations between races and professional groups. The main function of UNESCO has been to stimulate cooperation in research of an international nature, to secure information, to encourage studies by scholarly bodies and to help member nations at their request to resolve their most pressing problems. In the past, many groups in different parts of the world have benefited from such efforts of the international agency.

In the area of education for international understanding one can see a wide gap between goals and actual achievements.

This is clearly explained in the following words:²⁰

In particular, the presentation of the cultures, values and realities of foreign nations, both in textbooks and teaching aids and by the information media is all too often distorted, giving rise to the transmission and perpetuation of stereotypes and misunderstanding which hamper both the building of peace and the establishment of greater justice in relation between nations.

The full potential of school education to improve international understanding, even in the most advanced nations, is far from being realized. Curricula and the content of courses offered in schools and other educational institutions are ill-adapted to the promotion of peace and world cooperation; teachers are inadequately prepared for the task; textbooks and teaching materials are sometimes inaccurate and in many cases even prejudiced. Furthermore, the school itself operates in isolation from the world beyond its walls. Many of the problems rest with teachers who had been trained in particular national systems which did not stress the importance of education to promote international understanding nor did it take a broad attitude toward other nations. Most of the contemporary leaders are products of such a system. Another problem is that of achieving a pedagogy which is truly effective in shaping attitudes and behavioural patterns consonant with international understanding.

We have to take into account a significant aspect in both school and out-of-school programmes, and that aspect lies in determining content, methods and types of activities since many young people today are much more aware than ever of the issues involved in achieving and maintaining peace. This awareness results from many factors such as broader access to education, the expansion of media, certain orientation to bring young people into the mainstream of community development, campaign to promote justice and the increasing role of youth movements. "Peace," they believe, "can no longer be equated with the absence of wars."²¹

The most recent comparative and detailed study of education for international understanding was published by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education in 1968.²² Ministries and other officials directly responsible for educational planning in eighty-two nations responded to a questionnaire on the issue. It may be noted that in nearly half of these countries, many in the developing areas of the world, laws and regulations on education and curricula contained special provisions for international understanding. In several nations there was considerable emphasis on such education generally in history, civic education and geography. The majority of replies stressed the role of out-of-school programmes, with about half the total referring to collaboration between the school and out-of-school agencies and, in particular,

to the role of youth organizations. Still recent evidence indicates (the surveys of teaching about the United Nations in 1969 and 1974) continuing progress in a large number of countries in the development of different programmes aimed at improving international understanding. An official publication states that "the sum total of information available shows that leadership, stimulus and assistance from the United Nations family of organizations has been significant in strengthening and extending education in this field."²³

UNESCO has also recommended effective ways of furthering on a large scale relevant programmes and activities to improve the chances of peace and cooperation in the world. It has offered assistance to set up projects which, in effect, are laboratories for the development of international understanding. An example is the Associated Schools Project began in 1953, in which more than 1,000 educational institutions scattered in 63 nations took part. There has been a proliferation of UNESCO Clubs and Associations in the sixties and seventies, now numbering about 2,000 in 67 different countries.

The international agency has also made a significant contribution to the establishment of international standards to enrol adults at all levels of professional activities with a view to bring about new attitudes aimed at furthering international peace and understanding. It participated in

the drafting of the United Nations Declaration of the Promotion among Youth of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and understanding between peoples. The declaration was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1965. The International Conference on Public Education, held jointly by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education in 1968, made a recommendation on Education for international understanding as an important part of the Curriculum and Life of the School. At its eighteenth session, the General Conference of UNESCO adopted the Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. The recommendation, applying to all stages and types of education, is a comprehensive and authoritative account on what education for international understanding ought to be; it also clearly mentions the various measures that member nations should adopt to promote understanding in the world.

A large number of activities being conducted by UNESCO toward the realization of other goals will have as byproducts a general increase in mutual knowledge and dissemination of ideas. The world organization facilitates free flow of knowledge among peoples of the world more than many organizations combined. It attempts to improve understanding through education, especially through fundamental education and the extension of free primary education in many countries. It helps people from various parts of the world to work together on common issues, for the organization hopes

that the experience of working together may foster understanding.

One of the effective ways to improve such an understanding will be by recruiting individuals from the local areas to educate or train people of a particular region. It seems quite logical that such an approach will have better rapport with the local people. This is not to say that UNESCO should always have men from the local areas to provide training for others; that clannish approach will be detrimental to the growth of international understanding. There must be a healthy balance between individuals in the local region and those recruited from other regions to provide training to others.

A number of UNESCO's functions under our study are aimed directly at improving international understanding. These functions are as follows: (1) those which create opportunities for direct contact with peoples of various lands, particularly exchange of individuals; (2) those which attempt to foster understanding of other people through the medium of education; (3) those which improve understanding of the values underlying the diversity of various cultures; (4) those which encourage research on fundamental issues affecting international understanding; and (5) those which promote comprehension of the United Nations system as a whole.

Revision of Textbooks

Nations wish to have their history presented adequately and accurately in the textbooks of their own schools and those of

other nations. Yet, no country has any right to determine what should be printed in the textbooks of foreign states. Consequently, one can find many errors in the books prescribed for students in the schools of various countries. This is education for international misunderstanding. Here, the role of UNESCO, as indicated by Dr. Luther H. Evans, the Director General, is not that of a critic, much less of a censor or judge. UNESCO has no power to write or rewrite textbooks for schools in different countries. But the international organization finds itself in a position to urge the appropriate authorities in member nations to look carefully at their own textbooks. Today, many schools use books replete with errors about the history and the social conditions in different parts of the world; these, in turn, result in national tension and ignorance about other countries and their social values.

UNESCO's efforts toward improvement of textbooks were the outcome of experience gained over two decades of previous activity. In the early days the emphasis had been negative in the sense that some books required removal of inaccurate or biased passages and elimination of chauvinistic books. As time passed, the emphasis began to shift to the more positive goal of developing in children goodwill toward other peoples. The result of this change in attitude led to the establishment of official agencies in many countries to revise textbooks.²⁴ Active groups concerned with this problem included trade

unions, peace societies, educators and historians.

As early as 1935 The Institute of Intellectual Cooperation prepared a Declaration Regarding the Teaching of History, which emphasized the significance of presenting the history of other nations as well as the facts regarding the independence of various countries.²⁵ The Norden Association (The North) in Denmark, Poland, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden conducted many activities on a regional basis for the general improvement of history textbooks. In the same manner, the American republics gave their stamp of approval to two conventions concerning the teaching of history, at the Montevideo and Buenos Aires Conferences of the OAS in 1933 and 1936.²⁶

It is a well known fact that the content of textbooks in a few countries before the outbreak of World War II has contributed much to foment national feelings which eventually resulted in the great tragedy. Curriculum of German schools before the last major war gave great emphasis to nationalist ideas with little or no appreciation of the history or the attainment of other people. Textbooks provided a distorted view of the conditions in other countries with the sole objective of glorifying Nazism. Such an approach resulted in great misunderstanding in the minds of the youth who looked at other nations culturally sterile.

Nevertheless, Germany, and also France, played a remarkable role in the revision of history books at the end of World War II. For instance, during the winter months of 1947-48 the German

Teachers' Association named a committee of experts to adopt methods for revising history books. The committee consisted of university professors, teachers of history, authors and radio specialists. The committee was primarily concerned with the harm done under the Hitler regime by turning textbooks into propaganda vehicles. Although no country since the time of Hitler may have not used textbooks as effective means to convey a particular ideology, they still need revision in many countries to present an objective assessment of the history and various achievements of other people.

In the two decades preceding the establishment of UNESCO it had become quite clear that the goal of textbook revision should not be just factual accuracy. Errors of any kind should be rectified before they begin to cloud the clear vision of children of any age. The task required a multiple approach including careful research by scholars, wider use of research by authors, more sensitive editing by publishers, cooperation by governments in bilateral and regional agreements and attempts by private agencies. One method of tested utility was the selection of topics the analysis of which would play an important role for international understanding and cooperation.

In 1952, the General Conference of UNESCO recommended a regional plan, viz., a study of the treatment given to one region of the world in textbooks as well as other teaching materials of another region and vice versa. In different countries students

have been offered an account of European expansion rather than the history of Asia objectively. The history of Europe presented to pupils in Africa and Asia has overemphasised the role of the former rulers and their systems. This proposal involves great difficulties and has special relevance to the new project on West-East relationship adopted by the New Delhi General Conference held in 1950. In a similar conference held in Brussels the participants came to the conclusion that there was a great emphasis on nationalism in text books and that world history should cover all regions of the world and not just one area or one continent. The emphasis placed on nationalism in school books certainly dampens our efforts to further international understanding and cooperation.

UNESCO's efforts for the revision of textbooks raise certain pertinent questions. Has the world organization been successful in convincing educators in this matter? Have educators in different countries responded favourably to the proposals of UNESCO? Have they made the necessary changes in books? Or have these changes improved understanding in the world?

After the UNESCO seminar on modern languages held in 1953, in Paris, the French High Commissioner in Germany invited German modern language teachers to take part in a reciprocal examination of books in the field and to reach an agreement on revisions.

French and German language teachers' associations, the Association des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes and the Allgemeiner Deutscher

Neuphilologenverband, held two meetings, one in France and the other in Germany in a true spirit of friendship. At the end of the discussions criticism by the German teachers was sent to French publishers, and French criticism was forwarded to German publishers. Meetings of a similar nature took place in 1954-'55. The result of all the discussions was the revision of two English and six German history books. Many educators believe that substantial progress has been made in improving school books. They also note that it is becoming increasingly common for authors to submit their manuscripts for criticism to their colleagues in other countries. An English author has reported that three of his own books have been modified as a result of criticism by experts in Germany, Canada, Turkey and Denmark. UNESCO's efforts in this area should be extended to countries where books on various subjects are presented to suit their special needs and to create a low profile of other nations.

S u m m a r y

1. The international agency's attempts will improve understanding even if such attempts are not primarily meant to realize that objective in the world.

2. UNESCO was founded on the premise that diversity of traditions, value systems and customs exist among men. This is an historical fact, also an asset to international society. We should also be aware that the basic human nature is the same

in spite of the differences.

3. The United Nations Organization and Unesco have both shared the responsibility of assisting member states on whom rests the chief task of teaching about the United Nations. A resolution adopted in 1950 by the Economic and Social Council has defined their respective obligations.

4. The delegates in some conferences sponsored by UNESCO have reached the firm conclusion that the conventional distinction between the active West and the contemplative East is fallacious. They also point out that both regions have fundamentally the same religious and cultural ideas and that attitudes have been conditioned by geographical factors. In brief, the differences have been highly exaggerated by individuals who do not look at the problem objectively. Educational reforms can change the situation.

5. The Mutual Appreciation of Western and Eastern Cultural Values was accepted as a major theme by UNESCO's 1956 General Conference held in New Delhi.

6. UNESCO has helped to make more widely known the findings of scientists that racial differences in behaviour and mentality are not rooted in biological factors, but are due to historical development under different circumstances.

7. Educators, sociologists and social anthropologists have conducted considerable research on social behaviour within nations. Their conclusions have cast some light on domestic tensions and have helped improve relations between races.

8. Although UNESCO is committed to foster international understanding, many national educational systems do not seem to have that objective. In the social studies curricula of several nations a biased view is presented to students of actual social and economic conditions in other countries. It is to combat such tendencies in educational systems that UNESCO has initiated various programmes. One of the programmes is the exchange of persons.

9. The international agency's efforts toward improvement of textbooks were the outcome of experience gained over two decades of earlier activity. In the early days the emphasis had been negative in the sense that some textbooks required the removal of inaccurate passages or elimination of chauvinistic ideas.

10. In the two decades preceding the establishment of UNESCO it had become quite apparent that the goal of textbook revision should not be just factual accuracy.

11. In a conference held in Brussels the participants came to the conclusion that there was an undue emphasis on nationalism in text books and that world history should cover all regions of the globe rather than just one area or one continent. The emphasis on nationalism certainly dampens our attempts to further international understanding and cooperation.

Notes and References

1. U.S. National Commission for Unesco, "Summary Minutes of the Fifth Meeting," Boston, September 27-29, 1948. Document Unesco/C/47, SM/4-5, p. 25.
2. Unesco, "General Conference, First Session," Document Unesco/C/30, p. 222.
3. In order to carry out the recommendation, Unesco has cooperated with the United Nations in publishing a number of reports based on data provided by member nations. The reports present the most thorough review of information available on teaching about the United Nations Organization. Also see United Nations, Teaching about the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, Report submitted to the Economic and Social Council by the Secretary General of the United Nations and the Director General of Unesco, covering the period 1950-52 (New York: United Nations), p. 1. For an account of the previous experience of the League of Nations in teaching about international cooperation, see Teaching about the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, Report submitted by the Secretary General of the United Nations and the Director General of Unesco to the Economic and Social Council, "Official Records, Fifth Year: Eleventh Session, Special Supplement, No. 1, July 1950, New York, Document E/1667.
4. Another delegate, a writer from Norway, published a story book for children from twelve to seventeen years of age called, Friends All Over the World.
5. A direct follow-up to the seminar was a national conference held in Australia in June 1949 and attended by fifty persons from schools, universities and youth organizations. The seminar resulted in the publication of three important pamphlets: Teaching about the United Nations, a practical guide for teachers; The United Nations in Action, a reference book for teachers; and Towards World Understanding, a handbook for youth leaders.
6. Also see, Report of the Southeast Asia Teachers' Seminar on Teaching about the United Nations (New Delhi: Indian Federation of United Nations Association, n.d.).

7. Unesco, "Teaching about Human Rights, A Report on the Unesco Seminar on Active Methods of Education for Living in World Community," Document Unesco/ED/124 (1953), p. 5.
8. Resolution 3-14 (XI), United Nations, Teaching about the United Nations 1952, (New York), p. 40.
9. Ibid., p. 52.
10. Unesco, Humanism and Education in East and West (1953), pp. 22-26. This source also includes a report of the discussion and several essays written by the participants. See Unesco, "Report of the Director General," Document 7C/3, pp. 218-219. One result of the meeting held in Delhi was the decision of the Indian Philosophical Congress to discuss at a meeting in Colombo in December 1954 the issue of "Human Relations and International Obligations in East and West." Unesco, "Report of the Director General," Document 8C/3, pp. 27-28; and "Report of the Director General, 1954," p. 102. For a report on the seminar, and discussions which followed it, see Richard McKeon, "Human Relations and International Obligations," Journal of Philosophy, Vol. LIII, No. 2 (1956), pp. 29-55. The papers prepared for the Colombo discussions were published in N.A. Nikam (ed.), Human Relations and International Obligations (Bangalore, India: 1956).
11. The countries are Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Laos, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam.
12. Arthur Goodfriend, Two Sides of One world, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 72 and Unesco, "Report of the Director General, January 1 - June 30, 1956," Document 9C/3, pp. 100-03.
13. This item and a few others were referred to the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies.
14. Arthur Goodfriend, cit. op., p. 121.
15. Unesco, Document 9C/Resolutions, pp. 27-28.
16. Unesco, "Report of the Director General," Document 7C/3,

pp. 203-04 and Document 80/3, pp. 111-12. Recent publications by Unesco include The Positive Contribution of Immigrants (1955) dealing with developments in Argentina, Australia, Brazil, United Kingdom and the United States. On the Havana Conference see #D. Borrie, "The Cultural Integration of Immigrants," Unesco Chronicle, Vol. II, No. 10 (October 1956), pp. 289-93.

17. United Nations, Economic and Social Council, Resolution 116 B (VI).
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19. Alfred Metraux, "The Problem of New African Elites," Unesco Chronicle, No. 5 (November 1955), pp. 204-06. Another study relating to the United States by Murroe Berger, Racial Equality and the Law, (Paris: Unesco, 1954). The study reviews legislation against discrimination and attempts to make jobs accessible to all.
20. Thinking Ahead: Unesco and the Challenges of Today and Tomorrow, (Paris: Unesco, 1977) p. 79.
21. Final Report of the International Seminar, "Youth, Peace, Education, (Unesco: Gdansk, Poland, 1972) 2460/YD.
22. Unesco/International Bureau of Education, Education for International Understanding, (Geneva: 1968) Publication No. 311.
23. Thinking Ahead: Unesco and the Challenges of Today and Tomorrow, cit. op., p. 81
24. For reviews of the attempts for textbook revision as well as teaching materials, see Merrill Hartshorn, "The Improvement of Educational Materials," Yearbook (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1954), pp. 441-73; and Unesco, A Handbook for the Improvement of Textbooks and Teaching Materials (1919), pp. 9-15.
25. The text is given in Ibid., pp. 105-06
26. Ibid., pp. 39-42, 100-02, 107-08, 110-114; and Unesco, Haakon

Vigander, Mutual Revision of History Books in the Nordic Countries (1950); and "Norwegian National Commission for Unesco, A Study of History and Geography School Textbooks," Document Unesco/ED/11/117 (1952)

Chapter -- 5

UNESCO AND THE ADVANCEMENT OF KNOWLEDGE

UNESCO's various attempts in the past have contributed much to the advancement of knowledge in the world. When it undertakes a new project in any part of the world, to irrigate a parched land or to start a new programme in adult education in Africa or Asia, it adds something permanent to the reservoir of existing knowledge. In this effort the international agency has received cooperation from sources throughout the world. This chapter will, however, focuss on UNESCO's attempts to advance knowledge in arts, humanities and libraries.

The International Conference of Artists sponsored by the Organization in Venice in 1952 was the first international gathering of painters, writers, sculptors and creative workers

in the theater and cinema. Thornton Wilder, who was the rapporteur of the Conference stressed the role of UNESCO in bringing together the artists of the world. He said:¹

... the discussions revealed wide differences in the extent to which delegates placed confidence in their governments as competent to regulate in matters of art. A striking fact emerges, however: committee after committee exhibited an unquestioning confidence in the competence of Unesco to collect and allocate funds, to select committees for their distribution and to supervise a wide variety of projects.

As a direct result of international conferences and exhibitions, UNESCO has been able to facilitate cooperation among thinkers and artists of the world. For posterity their works will portray the character, spirit and the aspirations of the contemporary era and the international attempts taken to preserve them. UNESCO has attempted to fulfill this task in a manner which is in full accord with the freedom of thought and creation.

Literature.

In the field of literature the International P.E.N. Club (the initials stand for poets, editors and novelists), an organization of writers to create contact among writers of different nations, was founded after World War I. Some of the leaders of the organization were John Galsworthy, Somerset Maugham, Pearl S. Buck and Thomas Mann. Its monthly

bulletin publishes sketches and reviews of contemporary literary productions throughout the world.

One of the main objectives of the P.E.N. Club is to encourage budding writers. Every year it recommends to UNESCO the names of authors whose work is of high calibre, but has not been published in other widely spoken languages. This procedure has not only enhanced international understanding but it has also advanced knowledge about various aspects of life. In 1954, two books were translated --one from Japan and the other from Iran. In 1955-56, the selections fell on books from Norway and Sweden. The international agency is also providing traveling fellowships to many young writers who are in a position to select freely the country and/or countries they wish to visit.²

UNESCO has given wide circulation to outstanding works of literature. It is doubtful if any other agency has undertaken such an international attempt. It is quite true that there are other organizations, like UNESCO, working for the scientific and technological development of various nations. In 1946, the United Nations General Assembly requested UNESCO to encourage translation of literary master-pieces into different languages of wide circulation. Outstanding works have been chosen from five areas: Arabic and Persian literature, the literature of India, the Far East, Italy and Latin America.³

An Anthology of Japanese Literature until the middle

of the nineteenth century was published as a first step in the translation of Asian classics. Thirty volumes have already appeared in this area, and others in planning stage.

Besides the classics of Arab-speaking countries, India and Iran, translations will be published from the master-pieces of China, Japan, Pakistan and Thailand. This project includes philosophical works, plays, novels, poetry and scientific studies.⁴ The translations have created a better appreciation of different groups of men and their achievements in the past. They have also had a mutual influence upon the thinking of men.

During the first days of the programme various national committees selected books to be translated into other languages. However, national feelings precluded a realistic and objective appraisal of interest which existed abroad in the writer or in the subject matter he has chosen. Consequently, since 1953, a committee of experts chosen by the International Council of Philosophy and Humanistic Studies reviews and, if necessary, modifies the national recommendations, selecting works the translation of which is considered significant. This method improves the quality of works to be published in other languages. The country of origin or the individual publisher meets the major part of the expense, and UNESCO's contribution has been limited to payment of translator in return for which he receives some copies for general distribution.

The Humanities and Philosophy

UNESCO has made important contribution to the exchange and enlargement of the humanities and philosophy. The Preparatory Commission recommended various measures in this area, and they were quite similar to those outlined for other subject areas. In 1946, groups working in this field concluded that projects be designed, not with the goal of what UNESCO could accomplish for the humanities and philosophy, but what they could do to realize the international agency's broad objectives. Therefore, it was proposed that the diversified list of activities drawn up by the Preparatory Commission be narrowed down to two continuing projects --one in Philosophy and the other in the humanities.⁵

Concerning philosophy, knowledge may be advanced through an analysis of basic philosophical issues involved in international cooperation. In this regard the concept of "human rights" was chosen first. An enquiry was suggested into the origin and growth of the philosophical basis of human rights; consequently, the problem of democracy, law and liberty were also studies. In the past human rights and democracy have received considerable attention in various meetings of UNESCO. When a question arose concerning the wisdom of the international agency's undertaking research of this type on its own, responsibility, in many cases, has shifted from the secretariat of the agency to a number of private international organizations. Thus, the

inquiry into the issue of liberty was undertaken by the International Council on Philosophy and the International Council on Philosophy and Humanistic Studies undertook a detailed study on law. Recently, the project was broadened to include the preparation of a Dictionary of Fundamental Terms of Philosophy and Political Thought the purpose of which is to establish the relationship among the fundamental concepts in various traditions of thought.

A pattern can be found in the efforts of UNESCO and the successive adaptations of the programme to meet new needs have only made it sharper. The most remarkable pattern, needless to say, is its international character whether it is to increase knowledge in different areas or to improve technology in developing countries. We see the remarkable results of such cooperation in the non-political activities of the United Nations Organization. Even what the Director General has termed the 'decisive mutation' brought about as a result of UNESCO's response to the needs of the developing world through various activities has not altered the agency's moral orientation nor has it lessened the need for intellectual cooperation. Mr. Rene Maheu makes the following observation about this:

Operational action lies between intellectual cooperation and moral vocation, the practical prerequisite for the universality of both ... Just as what imparts an ethical dimension to intellectual cooperation is the universality of views on which it depends, so what gives aid

for development its value is a certain concept of the principles by which it must be governed.

In 1949, UNESCO helped establish the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies (CIPHS), set up on the general pattern of the International Council of Scientific Unions. The Council seeks to develop contact, exchange information and collaboration among historians, philosophers, anthropologists and other scholars working in humanistic areas throughout the world. The Council and its member associations employ substantially the same methods as their counterparts in natural and social sciences --international seminars, congresses and scholarly publications. Thirteen private world organizations --many of them federations of national or specialist groups-- are represented in the Council.⁷ Through such attempts UNESCO has given an international character to the efforts of many individuals to advance knowledge in different fields. The contacts such individuals are enabled to establish contribute much to knowledge.

The annual subsidies to the Council have increased from \$60,000 in 1950 to \$100,000 in 1956. Its quarterly publication, Diogenes, is the first international journal which seeks to translate for the educated public the wealth of knowledge of scholars and research workers. It is published in Arabic, English, French, German, Italian and Spanish.⁸

Undoubtedly, UNESCO uses its educational programmes as a means to advance knowledge in all possible fields. The priority which education still receives is shown by its budget figures of \$73,069,404 voted by the seventeenth General Conference for programme operations and services, education was provided \$27,232,745. No other sector has been given as much money as education. Behind this priority lies more than the mere pressure of population, which is presently recognized as a human right. In 1965, Mr. Maheu told the Economic and Social Council:⁸

The yearning of the world's peoples for education appears as a gigantic wave, swelling and threatening to sweep away everything in its path if not harnessed in time to irrigate rationally the vast areas that it can render fertile. The demand for education is universal and irresistible, for it is directly linked to the triple appeal of national development, national freedom and individual dignity.

Free Flow of Information

In nearly every field UNESCO has taken a determined effort to facilitate free flow of information as laid down in its Constitution. The agency realizes fully that without free flow of information and ideas, its attempts to advance knowledge in the world will not be effective. The United Nations General Assembly has termed freedom of information

the touch stones of all freedoms. Unesco and the United Nations are mutually sharing the responsibilities in this field --Unesco focussing on economic, technical and administrative difficulties while the United Nations dealing with political problems.

UNESCO has played a significant role in signing a number of international agreements. Of these the most important is the Universal Copyright Convention held in Geneva in 1952 by the Intergovernmental Copyright Conference which marked the culmination of five years of negotiations. Forty governments signed the Convention which became effective on September 16, 1955, and by the end of 1957 twenty two nations ratified it. The convention removed obstacles which had existed in different countries to the free flow of information; the difficulties had been a source of concern to publishers, authors and composers.⁹

The Geneva convention has contributed much to the advancement of knowledge throughout the world by removing unnecessary obstacles. The convention standardized world copyright procedure for literary, artistic and scientific works, books, films, sculpture and painting. The copyrights are protected for a minimum period of twenty-five years, and every signatory nation assures to authors and publishers of other ratifying countries the same treatment as that offered its own citizens without the need for any special registration.

In cooperation with the Berne Copyright Union and the International Labour Organization, UNESCO has recently interested itself in the so-called "neighbouring rights" of copyright. While the Geneva convention covers the rights of authors, publishers and composers, "neighbouring rights" cover those of performing artists, broadcasting organizations and manufacturers of recordings.¹⁰ The conference held in New Delhi authorized the Director General, in cooperation with ILO, to convene an international conference for the adoption of an agreement to protect such rights.

UNESCO has also signed an agreement with member nations for Facilitating the International Circulation of Visual and Auditory Materials of an Educational, Scientific and Cultural Character. This Agreement covers films, filmstrips, recordings, microfilms, maps and charts. The Agreement calls for freedom from tariffs, licensing systems, quotas and other import regulations which restrict the free flow of information throughout the world.

In 1956, in tariff negotiations at the Geneva Conference of parties to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), fourteen governments responded to a proposal from the Director General of UNESCO in order to reduce import duties on educational, scientific and cultural materials. Reductions on several scientific materials were agreed to by Australia, Canada, France, Italy, Sweden and the United States of America;

on radio receivers and their parts by the Federal Republic of Germany, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom; on television sets by Japan; on sound recordings by Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands; and on films by Chile and Sweden.¹¹

In order to encourage free flow of information across national boundaries, UNESCO has also proposed methods for a general reduction of freight, postal and telegraph rates. In 1952, the international agency recommended to the Congress of the Universal Postal Union, the organization which fixes international postal rates, a number of changes in the world postal regulations which have since been modified. About thirty nations have accepted such proposals and other countries are expected to do the same. Consequently, it is easier and more economical to send books, newspapers, periodicals and other educational materials from one nation to another. One of the important measures approved as a revised international procedure by which any individual can subscribe to a foreign publication, pay for it in his national currency at his local post office and receive the publication at reduced mail rates. UNESCO has proposed that its member nations revise their existing postal regulations to remove barriers to the free flow of information and thereby advance knowledge in various parts of the world.

Censorship is yet another great obstacle to the free

flow of ideas and news-gathering. The International Telecommunication Convention explicitly permits national governments to step messages to certain countries. UNESCO proposed that its member nations support a United States amendment to the convention which recommended abolition of censorship. Although the amendment was not accepted, the conference requested governments to adopt necessary measures the free transmission of news and events.

UNESCO fully realizes the significance of world public opinion in its various attempts to remove obstacles to the free flow of informations. With that object in view every year the international agency publishes a study to familiarize the public with the relevant problems in this field. In addition to its publication, Transmitting World News, the organization also issues Trade Barriers to Knowledge, a detailed guide to tariffs and various regulations affecting educational, scientific and cultural materials. This manual, published with the cooperation of The Economist of London and covering approximately ninety-one countries and territories, is of great value to publishers, film libraries and organizations interested in importing or exporting these and other educational materials for schools or other educational institutions. Another related publication is Books for All, a comprehensive survey of international circulation of books and some obstacles encountered in exchanging in different countries of the world.

In 1963, it became quite clear that special provisions for developing countries should be a part of unilateral copyright convention. It was with this view that some fundamental provisions of the Berne Convention were adopted in Stockholm in 1967, providing special status for developing nations. At its fourteenth session in 1966 the General Conference invited the Director General to request the appropriate agencies to study the possibilities of revising the Universal Convention. Concerning this an official publication states:¹²

The revised text of that Convention was adopted on 24 July 1971 and entered into force on 10 July 1974. In view of the difficulties encountered in applying the Stockholm Protocol, the Berne Convention was revised, in July 1971, so that the developing countries might enjoy the same nature as those in the Universal Convention as revised.

Furthermore, the General Conference at its sixteenth session held in 1970 agreed to set up an International Copyright Information Center. Its objective was to implement a programme of action to facilitate within certain legal norms the access of developing regions to protected works by assisting those countries to overcome the obstacles they faced in the collection "of various data and the difficulties they experience as a result of economic conditions."¹³

Stimulation to Intellectual Activity

UNESCO's efforts to promote the reading of books are

designed to stimulate, harmonize and support activities in the international community with the ultimate goal of making available to as many people as possible books likely to encourage the advancement of knowledge. In order to attain this goal, member nations and other professional organizations are stepping up attempts to conduct simultaneously in the closely interconnected spheres of book production and distribution. The international agency's essential role to promote these actions by contributing to the development and operation of mechanisms for the implementation of concerted policies for the development of book at regional, national and international level.

" The stimulation of intellectual activity has held the attention of public officials in as much as they have found in it a significant factor of social cohesion and development. Besides these internal considerations, the world community has become conscious of the significance of exchange in the field of production and distribution of books. UNESCO, meanwhile, looks at it as an important way to advance knowledge in the world.

For example, after First World War it was proposed that an institutional framework might be established for the attempts to establish and strengthen international exchanges in this field. The International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation attached to the League of Nations symbolizes

the first attempt at international action, in the modern sense of the term, in order to promote intellectual and artistic activity. UNESCO's role is explained in the following words:¹⁴

This role comprises responsibilities for information, guidance and assistance which lead Unesco to provide Member States and organizations with regular information on their respective activities and experiments, with a view to mutual enrichment of their programmes, and to make a comparison between the needs of some and the assistance potential of others; to undertake or instigate study, research and meetings of experts, and to make their conclusions available to the international community, so as to enable action to be undertaken with a clearer understanding of what is involved; to afford assistance and advice to countries and bodies at their request, and to mobilize, under the bilateral or multilateral cooperation programmes, the resources needed for the implementation of projects undertaken in the developing countries.

The 1972 International Book Year marked a significant phase in the implementation of the activities of the international community for the promotion of books and other publications dealing with current topics. It not only imparted new vigour and impetus to the programme to stimulate the production and distribution of books but provided an occasion for the realization by member nations of the need to integrate the efforts made in the various spheres of activity relating to book promotion. The same concern for harmonizing activities was shown by various international organizations, both governmental and nongovernmental.

UNESCO's programme between now and 1982 is designed to encourage the formulation of information policies at regional, national and international levels. It is also hoped that such efforts will advance knowledge between the industrialized countries and the developing regions of the world. Such a close interdependence of knowledge and information activities at the national and international level is of great importance. Knowledge is basically universal. It is quite obvious that countries operating in isolation cannot become self-sufficient particularly with regard to such areas as scientific and technical knowledge. This fact was stressed in a resolution which was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations at its seventh special session and at its thirtieth regular session.

We may conclude from the activities of UNESCO that the organisation is functioning under the principle that knowledge generated in any field and in any part of the world belongs to all men. By bringing individuals together to disseminate knowledge, the international agency has also contributed much to create understanding in the world. Such attempts are non-political, and in that sense they are also free of various unnecessary limitations which nations have created in the world. The understanding created by similar attempts by an agency like UNESCO are likely to have influence in other activities of men, including political activities. These attempts open the eyes of men to the highly positive --and beneficial-- aspect

of international cooperation.

UNESCO's attempts to advance knowledge are also helping a number of developing countries to keep abreast of modern methods in science and technology. In many conferences delegates of less advanced countries are provided adequate representation so that they can participate in and benefit from the exchange of ideas. Consequently, knowledge is not confined within the boundaries of a few nations in the world. The benefits of such international contacts may be found in the progress the newly independent countries in Asia and Africa have made in the past. Even if there are no conferences specially meant to transmit knowledge to others, the international agency is spreading new ideas and information by sending specialists in several areas to different parts of the world and, also, through its numerous publications.

The experience in the past clearly indicates that UNESCO has been a highly useful instrument in conserving, increasing and diffusing knowledge on an international level, on a level unknown in history. Without resorting to any force communication among many scholars and specialists in various countries has been considerably eased and stimulated by the improvement of existing channels and by opening new ones. Perhaps it is due to the influence of UNESCO's attempts in this field that many countries have opened their doors to others in gathering and spreading new ideas; these efforts have been made independent

of the world organization.

There can be no doubt that the world body has served as a bridge between the industrialized countries and those which are less developed in making consistent attempts to improve their standards of life. Examples are the science cooperation offices and notably the technical assistance projects. There is a constant flow of information among these agencies scattered throughout the world and some of the greatest beneficiaries of the various attempts made by UNESCO have been the developing countries. This was made quite clear in a statement by Dag Hammarskjöld that the developing countries of the world need the support of the United Nations Organization more than other countries.

Preservation of Historic Sites

Historic sites and monuments are a source of knowledge in any part of the world. They also provide a link between the past and present. Although some historic monuments are centuries old and others on the verge of being ruined considerably to make room for industrial development in many countries governments are attempting to preserve them for future use. Yet, some nations are not in a position to undertake the task by themselves and consequently they are seeking assistance from international agencies such as UNESCO which has launched effective programmes to preserve historic sites and monuments.

Egypt provides a good example. In 1955, the Egyptian officials requested UNESCO which agreed to set up a research center to study art and civilization of that nation. A full record of historic sites and other vestiges of ancient art was not in existence in Egypt or in a few other areas. The plans for the construction of Aswan dam threatened the temple of Abou-Simbel near the Nile River in North Sudan and other historic sites in a region of 500 kilometers. Egyptian government, faced with this dire situation, requested UNESCO for assistance to preserve them. In addition to preserving monuments and records, it was hoped that aerial photographic surveys might help to identify other monuments in the region not yet explored.

Ancient buildings and other vestiges of art in several parts of Egypt were equally suffering severe deterioration as a result of wind and sand storm. Mural paintings in tombs and statues were the victims of this adverse environmental conditions. If the relics of one of the ancient civilizations were to be saved, prompt steps were necessary to make records of the vanishing remains, including drawings, descriptions, architectural plans and copies of actual texts. The research center hoped to publish catalogues and brochures on its findings.

From the very beginning the center proved to be a cooperative attempt between UNESCO and the Egyptian people. In the beginning its value may sound questionable, but a series of events may bring out its significance. It also illustrates the importance of flexibility.

in the UNESCO programme. As early as 1949 the international agency had suggested a proposal for the preservation of historic monuments --a proposal which came as a result of the devastation of World War II.¹⁶ The government of the Netherlands had taken a prominent part in this attempt and at its initiative UNESCO gave considerable attention to the problem of historic sites and "all objects of cultural values, particularly those kept in museums, libraries and archives, against the possible consequence of armed conflict."¹⁷ In 1950, the Italian government suggested to the General Conference that UNESCO call an international convention for the preservation of cultural treasures. At the end of serious consideration by succeeding General Conferences and other agencies, the International Conference on the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict convened at The Hague in 1954, with the Netherlands government as host, and with delegates from sixty-six governments.¹⁸ We have the following account on related attempts to preserve historic sites.¹⁹

The General Conference adopted a Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict and sought to provide the same protection to museums, works of art, libraries, scientific collections and cultural treasures. It also provided that the contracting governments would prepare in time of peace facilities for protecting cultural property and would refrain from exposing such property to destruction in time of war.

In the Protocol, governments agreed to preclude exportation of cultural objects from a region occupied during war. The Convention

came into force in August 1956. Eight governments ratified it in December of the same year.¹⁹ Concerning financial aid to nations to protect monuments an official statement points out:²⁰

In 1949, a recommendation was made to offer economic aid to nations in order to protect cultural property with the income derived from a special tourist tax. The recommendation met with little support and a formula was approved in 1952 to provide technical assistance in matters relating to the restoration of historic monuments. According to the terms of the formula, member nations were to be assisted in applying scientific methods for the preservation of art collections and archeological and historic sites.

Similarly, the General Conference held in New Delhi adopted a proposal to establish an international study center to collect information, stimulate research facilities, help train research workers and technicians and to provide advisory services on general and specific issues. Although it was meant to be an independent agency, it will be connected with a national research office in Italy.²¹ Under the scheme UNESCO would provide financial support to the center for a limited period of time after which it would become self-supporting on the basis of financial assistance from various governments and private organizations.

Since 1951, UNESCO has organized technical missions to member countries which needed assistance on issues relating to cultural and historic monuments.²² The first such mission went to Peru where the ancient city of Cuzco suffered serious damage after a disastrous earthquake and required plans for restoration. In 1950,

a similar mission recommended ways to protect the buildings and frescoes of the Church of St. Sophia at Ochrida in Yugoslavia. Subsequent teams of experts have helped other nations in the protection of historic sites: Lebanon at Tarabulus and the Baalbeck Acropolis; Syria at Aleppo, Damascus, Palmyra and similar other points; Iraq at Hatra; Indonesia in preserving Buddhist temples, especially the shrines at Borobudur in Java dating back to the eighth and ninth centuries A.D. and India in recording the wall paintings of the Ajanta caves in ordinary and colour photographs.²³ Although requests came from a large number of countries to preserve historic sites, UNESCO, in 1955 offered assistance to fourteen nations.²⁴

Policies of Governments and Experts

In addition to conference votes, governments have given their approval to the majority of projects conducted by UNESCO in the past. Without such approval and cooperation the international agency will not be effective in carrying out its commitments. Many governments have actively participated in UNESCO's clearing house in education. Others have taken over and have continued various programmes started by the international agency such as the fundamental education training center in Liberia; the university science faculty at Baghdad with a carefully planned curriculum and laboratories; an observatory at Quetta in Pakistan for research on earth magnetism, magnetism and earthquake; the Cologne Social Science Institute

supported by the German government and two institutions in Yugoslavia, one to produce school furniture and equipment, and the other to make scientific and technical documents more widely available.²⁵

Although government support of various UNESCO projects is recorded in the General Conference and member nations do participate in them, the extent of close government collaboration is still limited to some degree. Walter Laves refers to this aspect in the following words:²⁶

There are great differences among nations as to the proper role of government in relation to the advancement of knowledge. There are also basic constitutional questions in federal governmental systems regarding the role of national governments in dealing with such matters through international relations. Projects to strengthen professional contacts through nongovernmental organizations attract the attention of specialists, but have less systematic support from governments.

The author argues that the distribution and sale of various UNESCO publications have not so far received adequate support from governments and that the organization's attempts for "the advancement of knowledge remains largely unknown except among small professional groups."²⁷ The attitude of experts is evident in the general enthusiasm with which they have attempted for a number of UNESCO projects in National Commission conferences as well as in the General Conferences in particular fields of training and research. It may also be noted that in this area the educators and natural scientists

have been quite vocal. Support also comes from organized bodies of professional men.

The UNESCO Agreement on the Importation of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Materials was supported in several countries by more than twenty private agencies including the International Publishers Association, the International Federation of Newspapers Editors and Publishers, the International Council of Women and the League of Red Cross Societies. Specific UNESCO projects have also received endorsement from private organizations. For example, the curator of the Perth Museum in Australia testified that the touring exhibition of colour photographs "proved a great stimulus to the art-loving public and created a considerable interest among those to whose notice it brought the work of some contemporary artists for the first time."²⁶

In conclusion what can one say about UNESCO's programme to advance knowledge? How effective have its attempts been in the past?

Within each of the main fields of education, science and culture, the projects started by the international agency have been of five distinct types: collection and dissemination of technical knowledge; establishing and strengthening contacts among scholars and specialists; the mobilization of talents on particular problems affecting mankind and the opening to a wider public of obtaining scholarships to conduct studies as well as the improvement of knowledge in arts and philosophy. In these fields UNESCO's

activities have been of considerable assistance to people mainly in the developing countries in improving the general educational standards as in the case of African countries or in introducing new methods of irrigation as in the case of a few Arab countries or in introducing innovations in technical education as in the case of India or Latin American countries.

The entire UNESCO programme has evolved gradually like any other social or political institution. Nevertheless, the principle weakness during the early phases of UNESCO's development lay in the absence of definite criteria in determining the agency's specific activities in a particular region. The organization's experience in the Marbial Valley illustrates this point. Translating someone's favourite work, getting some person or a group of persons to a conference room, publishing someone's pet project and scores of other demands descend on UNESCO with a claim that each would advance knowledge in some way or other. Consequently, choices of projects were not always wise. Yet, there is no doubt that UNESCO has done much to advance knowledge in the world by adopting an international approach. This international attitude has brought individuals together in the dissemination of new ideas in the developing countries of the world.

S u m m a r y

1. UNESCO's attempts have contributed much to the advancement of knowledge by facilitating cooperation among thinkers and by removing barriers which impede the flow of information in the world.

2. The international agency has made significant contribution to the exchange and enlargement of the humanities and philosophy.

3. In 1949, UNESCO helped establish the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies (CIPHS). The Council was set up on the general pattern of the International Council of Scientific Unions.

4. In nearly every field the international agency has adopted a determined attitude to facilitate free flow of information as laid down in its Constitution. The officials fully realize that without free flow of ideas and information, their attempts to advance knowledge in the world will not be fruitful. The Geneva convention has contributed to the advancement of knowledge throughout the world by removing unnecessary barriers.

5. In order to stimulate intellectual activity member nations and other professional groups are stepping up their attempts to produce and distribute books on a large scale.

6. UNESCO's programme between now and 1982 is designed to encourage the formulation of information policies at international, national and regional level. It is believed that such efforts will advance knowledge between the industrialized countries and the less developed areas of the world.

7. Historic sites and monuments are a source of knowledge in the world. UNESCO is actively participating in national efforts to preserve them. The agency provides technical service for this.

8. The international agency has given much publicity to

outstanding works of literature. They have been chosen from five distinct areas: Arabic and Persian Literature, the literature of Far East, India, Italy and of Latin America. During the early days of its development UNESCO's various national committees selected books to be translated into other languages. The country of origin or the individual publisher meets a major part of the expenses.

9. The broad international attitude adopted by the organization has brought together specialists and scholars in various fields in the dissemination of new ideas in the world. Countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America have participated in these international attempts.

Notes and References

1. Unesco, The Artist in Modern Society, (n.d.), p. 123.
2. Unesco, "Report by the Director General, January 1 - June 30, 1956," Document 9C/3, p. 104. Fourteen fellowships were earmarked for writers, visual artists and composers.
3. International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies, Bulletin, 1951-53 (Paris, n.d.), pp. 24-25.
4. Unesco, Document 9C/3, pp. 106-07; and Unesco Chronicle, Vol. II, No. 11 (November 1956), pp. 348-49.
5. Unesco's Programme, "Looking at Unesco," cit. op., p. 62.
6. The thirteen constituent bodies of the Council are as follows: International Academic Union, the International Federation of Philosophic Society, the Permanent International Committee of Linguistics, the International Committee on Historical Studies, the International Committee on Folk Arts and Folklore, the International Federation of Association for Classical Studies, the International Union of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences, the International Committee on the History of Art, the International Association for the Study of the History of Religions, the International Federation for Modern Languages and Literature, the International Federation of Orientalists, the International Musicological Society and the International Congress of Prehistoric and Protohistoric Sciences.
7. "Looking at Unesco," cit. op. p. 157.
8. For an outline of the objective and character of Diogene, see Roger Caillois, "The Tasks and Ambitions of 'Diogenes,'" Unesco Chronicle, Vol. II, No. 1 (January 1956), pp. 3-8.
9. "Looking at Unesco," cit. op., p. 63.
10. Previous conventions had not been effective since they were

not international. The forty nations which participated in the Berne Convention held in 1886 were mostly from Europe and Asia. However, in the Western Hemisphere a separate American system came into being. The new Convention provided certain minimum standards of protection without inhibiting prevailing international regulations.

11. Unesco Features, No. 191 (July 2, 1956), p. 1.
12. "Thinking Ahead: Unesco and the Challenges of Today and Tomorrow," cit. op., p. 340
13. Ibid., p. 342.
14. Ibid., p. 136.
15. 40,000 and 50,000 pounds respectively (Egyptian currency). At the time the amount in dollars calculated at the rate of one Egyptian pound to \$2.70.
16. The geographical level and the destructive nature of weapons during World War I and during the last major war had considerably increased the damage to man's cultural treasures. During World War II more than 5,000 churches, shrines and other historic buildings were destroyed in Europe alone. In 1907, the Hague Conventions had attempted to circumscribe this danger. Continuing study of the problem resulted in 1935 in an inter-American agreement. In 1938, the study led to the presentation to the League of Nations of a draft convention prepared by the International Museums Office. During World War II the government of the United States set up a committee to preserve historic and artistic monuments in war torn areas. World War II also saw an unprecedented level the massive and systematic pillage, notably by Germany, of valuable works of art from the occupied nations. For further details see Unesco, Intergovernmental Conference on the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, The Hague, 1954, "Historical Note," Document Unesco/CBC/7, pp. 1-5. For a review of the activities of Unesco on the problem, see "Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict," Unesco Chronicle, Vol. II, No. 12 (December 1956), pp. 363-66.
17. Unesco, Document L/C Resolutions, pp. 27-28.

18. Unesco, Document Unesco/CBC/7, pp. 5-7. At this meeting the U.S.S.R. attended for the first time in an international gathering called by Unesco.
19. The countries were Bulgaria, Burma, Egypt, Hungary, Mexico, Poland, San Marino and Yugoslavia. The U.S.S.R. ratified the agreement in January 1957. When San Marino deposited its ratification, it offered the mountainous slopes of its small territory, including an old railway tunnel, as a sanctuary in the event of a future war to preserve the works of art of all nations. Although its territory covers approximately thirty-two square miles, the diminutive country has remained an independent and neutral state for almost sixteen centuries. For details in Jean Gachon, "San Marino and the Protection of Cultural Property," Unesco Features, No. 185 (May 21, 1956), pp. 10-11.
20. Unesco, Document 7C/Resolutions, p. 27.
21. An outline of its proposed character and duties is given in "International Center for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property," Document 9C/PRG/10.
22. Such activities were authorized in Unesco, Document 6C/Resolutions, p. 25.
23. Unesco has published monographs on the reports of some of these missions. Details are given in Unesco, I, Sites and Monuments: Problems of Today (1953); II, The Care of Paintings (1952); III, Cuzo: Reconstruction of the Town and Restoration of its Monuments (1952); IV, Saint-Sophia of Ochrida: Preservation and Restoration of the Building and its Frescoes (1952); V, Manual of Travelling Exhibitions (1953); VI, Lebanon: Suggestions for the Plan of Tripoli and for the Surroundings of the Baalbeck Acropolis (1954); VII, Syria: Problems of Preservation and Presentation of Sites and Monuments (1954).
24. Unesco, "Report of the Director General, 1955," p. 106.
25. Unesco, "Progress Report on Unesco's Participation in the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical assistance," Document 41/EX/14; The Geographical Observatory, Quetta and "Progress

Report on Unesco's participation in the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (September 1 - December 31, 1955)" Document 43 EX17, pp. 46-7. At Quetta, about sixty miles south of the Khyber Pass, an earthquake in 1955 killed some 30,000 persons and in 1955 a village four miles north of the city was totally destroyed.

26. Walter H.C. Laves and Charles A. Thomson, Unesco: Purpose, Progress, Prospects (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1957) p. 140
27. Ibid., p. 141
28. Unesco, Arts and Letters, (Paris: Unesco, 1965) pp. 5-6.
29. Ibid., p. 7.

Chapter - VI

CONCLUSIONS

The history and development of the activities of UNESCO have been described in some detail. We have explained its origin, early experience and the hopes entertained by the governments which created it to meet some of the pressing needs of the world, especially of the developing regions of the world. We have outlined the scope of its programme and the nature of its functions. A general and critical examination of different areas of UNESCO is important here. A brief assessment of degrees of success will also be made. Our analysis has indicated that the objective of UNESCO, to further peace and security, has been broadly interpreted to include the advancement of knowledge, the development of international

understanding and the promotion of human welfare.

Assistance to New Nations

UNESCO has contributed much to one of the important goals of the present generation, that of helping scores of people in the developing areas of the world to improve their economic and social conditions of life and to become full partners in the community of nations. It has accomplished this objective in a number of ways.

One of such ways is that the international agency has helped the peoples of the economically less developed areas to attain their hopes of economic, social and political improvement. The organization has effectively used educational innovation as an effective tool to attain that goal. Consequently, UNESCO has come to symbolize for many of them the economic and social advancement, political stability and a free way of life they seek to establish. There can be no doubt that the realization of their aspirations for self-improvement and for effective participation in international affairs relies to a great degree upon raising the educational levels of peoples living in developing countries. The improvement in educational standards through the activities of organizations such as UNESCO is one of the most important aspects of the post-war era. The activities of the organization contribute directly to fulfilling the aspirations of the people

on the basis of individual freedom, justice and the rule of law.

The international agency has also helped people in their constant attempts to solve problems which have hindered their progress in the past. In several countries in Asia, Latin America, Africa and the eastern Mediterranean pressures are rising against traditional attitudes. From UNESCO these countries are now in a position to learn from the experience of other people who have attained progress by releasing human abilities as a result of utilising their educational and scientific resources. Perhaps international agencies are in a better position to accomplish this goal than direct national aid.

Although UNESCO accepts cultural diversity of man, it stands unequivocally for man's dignity, freedom of inquiry and political and social democracy. If the international organization has had difficulties in realizing some of its earlier objectives it is largely the result of suspicion and self-interests which still exist among nations. Therefore, if member nations remain loyal to the principles of the organization's constitution, its influence will be of great benefit in the struggle against illiteracy and the inadequacy of educational opportunities. Since many countries are stigmatized by colonialism, it is particularly important that an international organization free of such onus is available to assist the newly independent nations in Africa and Asia. This is a positive aspect of UNESCO.

One can see marked differences between UNESCO's global work perspective and its attempts in regional areas. In the local areas of the developing countries the international agency started schools, training centers for teachers and clearing houses much to the advantage of the local people. There is little evidence to indicate, outside the less privileged countries, that the agency has been effectively related to national policy in education, science and culture. To the economically less developed nations UNESCO offered cooperation and assistance in dealing with issues critical to national, economic and political growth. UNESCO has fulfilled this task by opening training centers or by starting schools for fundamental education in a village in Nigeria, Haiti or India. In Tunisia its efforts to improve methods of farming were successful.

In urging further efforts by UNESCO along this line, assistance on a global level is essential. In the past many countries have fully cooperated with such UNESCO activities as clearing-house operations and exchange of experts, but few have made serious commitments to the agency's broad objectives. This is quite clear in the reports of member nations presented at various sessions of the General Conference as well as in the desultory character of debates which take place during various sessions. The prevailing view is that UNESCO is meant mostly for developing areas of the world to start schools and training centers. The fact is that the world requires the agency to enhance cooperation through education.

The United Nations serves as a political forum for many nations. At the same time, other agencies of the Organization provide them with important services in health, social welfare, general economic improvement and nutrition. UNESCO, in addition to its technical services in education, science and culture, also acts as a forum for discussion of philosophical problems, different ways of life of people and values. The world organization provides opportunities for the developing nations to acquaint the rest of the world with their history and social background. It also enables them to experience at first hand and judge objectively the social values of other parts of the world.

Unesco's World Influence

UNESCO provides ample evidence that its member nations believe in the crucial role of education, science and culture for the advancement of civilization. The world organization provides leadership and support for individuals and groups wishing to strengthen these intellectual values which they consider as important for social and economic growth.

Since UNESCO is international in scope and nature, it has been able to accomplish certain things better than individual nations. This is quite evident in India's request in 1969 for assisting it in a study of social tensions which posed a threat to the internal unity of the nation soon after it gained freedom.

Such a request could hardly have been made by any individual foreign source. Furthermore, a single foreign country may not have the resources necessary to handle the problems such as those which existed in India. Since UNESCO is international it receives assistance from different countries of the world. It is because of this basic universal character that UNESCO has been able to enjoy considerable influence in the world.

The same aspect is well illustrated in the educational missions recruited by the world organization on an international basis. Such missions have assisted a number of developing nations to improve their educational systems. UNESCO's world-wide orientation protected the recipient nations from the political and cultural bias inevitably found in an educational mission representing only one country.

The international organization's various technical assistance programmes also owe much of their influence to their basic international character. These programmes are financed, like those of other UN agencies, from a common fund to which several nations have contributed. Technical experts are also selected on a world-wide basis and have functioned as international teams without instructions from nations. This has relieved the recipient countries from a sense of burdensome obligations toward any particular country or countries. It has also allowed the donor states, which do not have sufficient financial resources for their own bilateral programmes, to make useful contribution

to UNESCO's international attempts for economic and social development.

UNESCO's efforts, unlike those of individual countries, offer continuity of international experience on a number of issues in education, culture and science. Sustained attempts on specific problems give insight into the conditions, interests and needs of several nations. An international agency such as UNESCO is in a better position to gain this insight than individual governments. The world organization is also in a better position to receive assistance from different parts of the world; this aspect always strengthens the work of UNESCO.

The project on arid zones pointed the way toward solutions for comparable problems in humid tropical regions. In the same manner, efforts in fundamental education stimulated or aided by UNESCO in one region of the world provided models which could be followed in other zones, perhaps with some modifications. This enables UNESCO to give continuity in its attempts. In fact, the success in one part of the world improves its capacity to work in another part and enhances its influence on other people. Different methods such as cooperation with nongovernmental agencies, and the use of advisory groups, which had proved effective in natural sciences and the humanities, were employed in social sciences as well.

UNESCO can formulate, and win recognition of, internationally accepted standards of educational, scientific and cultural

attainment. As a direct result of its attempts, nations can compare their own progress with that of other states in expanding primary education and in eliminating illiteracy. They also become quite aware of the creative potential of their various institutions for educational development and scientific research.

The Problem of International Understanding

Education can be used as an effective tool to foster international understanding. In its various efforts to improve understanding among nations, UNESCO seems to have had much success with projects which, in fact, initially reached only small groups, small groups of students, a team of educators or a few delegates in a seminar. Nevertheless, their influence gradually spread to wider circles as a result of their own activities in different parts of the world.

The international agency's attempts, through a modest programme of fellowships, have borne fruit by influencing the fellowships and foreign study programmes now conducted by several educational institutions which have helped students and scholars to widen their mental horizons. The post-war era is marked by student exchanges and travel fellowships in an attempt to foster international understanding. UNESCO has had a dominant role in this area by setting example to educational institutions and individuals in several parts of the world.

An example of working through small teams of individuals is the scientific and cultural history of mankind. The study of social tensions, with particular attention to race and social differences, has been the work of individual scholars. The international seminars for teachers were meant to foster understanding of other people through the teaching of history, geography and modern languages. The attempts to encourage the revision of textbooks have produced somewhat good results.

While UNESCO has had notable success in improving international understanding by working through special groups, it has developed no project with a universal appeal; it also has not been effective to stimulate action of this kind among its member nations. Consequently, it has had no direct response from the public at large although there is widespread latent interest in the UNESCO concept in developing international understanding. The fact that the international organization has not been able to reach the public is unfortunate, and it has made no serious attempts to remedy the situation.

UNESCO's efforts to persuade the mass media in order to join the crusade to improve international understanding have not been effective. Leaders of the press and other media are still reluctant to become involved in such an attempt. Some individuals feared that they would have to accept direction from outside sources while others held that news agencies should report rather than attempt to shape public opinion. It is a fact that UNESCO alone cannot foster international understanding. In order to attain that objective it needs the cooperation of mass media and private

organizations. But the criticism of the media is ill founded. Mass media do influence and shape public opinion in a number of ways. One wonders why the media cannot cooperate fully with the attempts of UNESCO, and report its positive efforts for harmony and peace in the universe.

UNESCO's failure to develop an effective project to further people-to-people understanding through mass media illustrates the irony that governments desire the fruits of peaceful cooperation, but are unwilling to pay the necessary price for that purpose. This is the outcome of our traditional thinking about nations. The international agency's efforts are designed to break down such traditional attitudes as a part of its general campaign for international understanding. We act under the dominant influence of national feeling which is so strong that almost all our activities have national overtones. We even judge human nature on the basis of national origin and background ignoring the fact that the basic factors which unite us are greater than those which separate us. Charles Darwin was more struck by unity among men than disunity.

In summary, UNESCO had been most effective when it sought to strengthen and even extend traditional methods of cooperation to advance knowledge. These attempts were highly appreciated and brought immediate and lasting benefits to member nations. They also resulted in close cooperation among the participants. But such a cooperation was not seen in the attempts for world understanding.

Fundamental Education

The prodigious task facing UNESCO in the field of fundamenal education was recognized from the very beginning of the international agency's history.

The agency's strong concern in the general campaign against illiteracy and ignorance was demonstrated by its effect in brining together individuals from diverse backgrounds, but interested in fundamental education. Such individuals and groups have had little or no opportunity to compare various methods and little assistance from sources outside their own countries. UNESCO's timely assistance was of great benefit to the developing nations. Their delegates explained the lack of educational opportunities and stressed the need of fundamental education as an important part of the crusade against illiteracy.

Views of experts and records of different experiments were marshaled to help out practical formula in order to meet the requirements of the newly independent countries of the world.

UNESCO's urgent task was to stimulate awareness of the problem, define terms and identify the best methods of work. It succeeded in various ways. The world body held meetings of specialists, conducted educational missions and, perhaps, most important, facilitated exchange of information on current projects. UNESCO's other efforts in educational planning are

closely linked to its initial success in fundamental education. The educational progress many countries in Africa and Asia have made in the past may be attributed to the various activities of the world organization.

A new phase in the world organization's programme of fundamental education began with the launching of the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance. This programme was the result of a growing awareness that the developing countries required technological improvement to solve some of their urgent problems. UNESCO emphasised the need for practical education as opposed to the mere teaching of traditional subjects which may not fully meet the needs of developing countries. Consequently, it turned its attention to educational planning for the improvement of farming methods, better ways of producing equipment for farming and manufacturing.

Ability to read and write is also a step toward a better life including improved housing, health, handicrafts, better agriculture and nutrition and greater individual capacity to develop roads and bridges, schools, clinics and cooperative markets. UNESCO's fundamental educational planning included ways to improve such areas of human activity. It had a great practical importance.

UNESCO's second task in fundamental education assisted member countries in the application of methods and media. Libraries and museums can be effective instruments. This factor was given much emphasis in the location of subsequent seminars

public libraries at Sao Paulo, Brazil, in 1951. The seminar was held in cooperation with the Organization of American States.

The international agency's Arab States Fundamental Education Center (ASFEC) was set up in January 1953 at Sirs-el-Layyan, a rambling village in the Menufia district of the Nile Delta, about forty-five miles from Cairo. The inhabitants of this densely populated region, with an estimated 310 persons to the square mile, eked out a meager living from small plots of land many of which were less than one and a quarter acres in size.

The students, whose average age was thirty and who had already acquired a wealth of knowledge, came to the center from nine countries which were Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria and Yemen. The main objective of the center was quite similar to that of Patzucaro, that is, to train teachers and field workers as well as to develop materials simple enough in language, but of considerable interest to adults in solving their own practical problems.

Economic Development

UNESCO's activities in the developing countries are tied to the economic development in different regions. In a number of cases, the economic structures peculiar to the rural world are ill-adapted, and they constitute a source of slow growth.

The low level of training prevents rural population from using the benefits of progress in science and technology, increasing their productivity and improving the living conditions. Moreover, the needs of these people do not have a high priority in scientific and technological circles. Due to the cost of research, the developing countries, which account for two-thirds of the world's farmers, were in 1965 employing only 17 per cent of all agricultural research workers, devoting 0.26 per cent of the value of agricultural production to research, as compared with 0.87 per cent in the developed countries.

Education acts as an essential component in any development programme. Therefore, UNESCO should take steps to guarantee, by means of various studies, meetings and publications that there is full recognition of the importance and complimentary nature of different factors of rural economic development, the integration of factors, the effects of changes and the need to take them into account in planning. The international agency is assisting member nations to establish and implement integrated rural development projects. It promotes the production of documentation and audio-visual materials, the organization of exchanges of views and experience and the proper training of personnel. The introduction of new methods, notably through experimental projects, is encouraged.

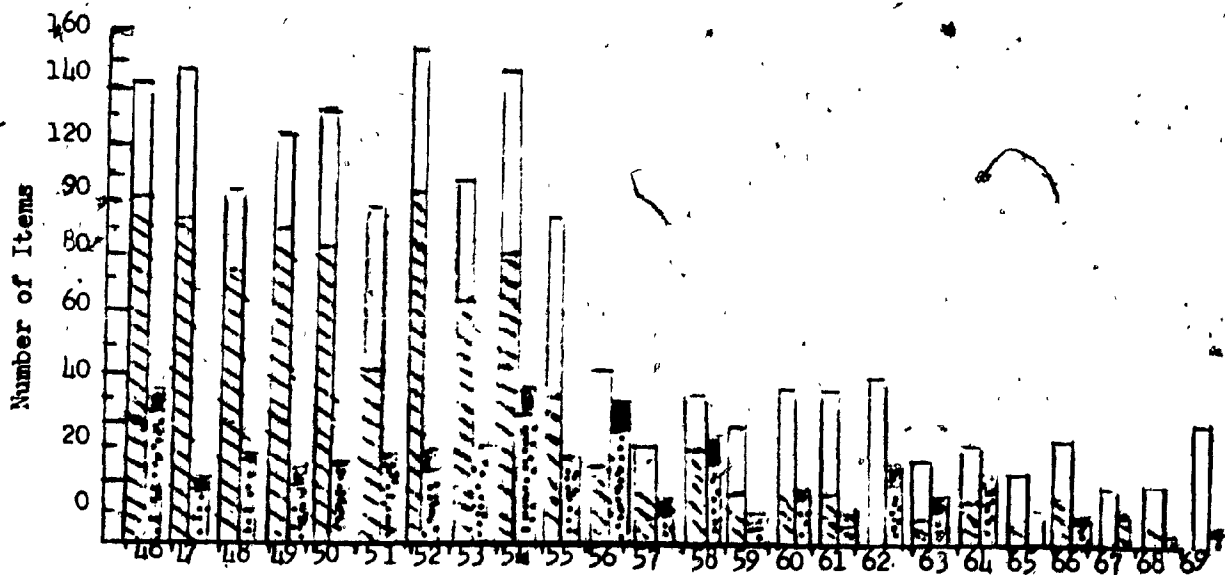
During the 1960's the United Nations stressed the growth of the gross national product of the developing nations through

industrialization as well as the development of infrastructures. While this approach did result in a relatively high average rate of economic development in some African and Asian countries, assessment of the First Development Decade indicated that it had scarcely benefited the most underprivileged, especially the least advanced nations and the disadvantaged rural population. For this reason the agencies of the United Nations system now believe that rural development programme should have a more integrated character than ever.

Since it came into being UNESCO has been concerned with the educational aspects of rural development. The 1950's were characterized by the promotion of 'financial education' which attempted to improve the educational standards in the rural communities of the developing regions of the world. From 1965 on, the world-wide functional literacy programme chiefly helped people in the rural areas. UNESCO has provided assistance to formulate world standards for education, science and cultural activities, which will be of great help to member nations to define their own urgent needs and to adopt remedial measures. The international agency has also helped its member states to locate outside assistance, and to apply that to the full development of their own educational and cultural resources. Apparently, such assistance being given by UNESCO has been more beneficial to some nations than others. In this manner, the international body has also served as a bridge between the developed and the less developed countries.

APPENDIX - A

New York Times The Times (London)
 References Ref
 Articles Art



Items on Unesco in New York Times and The Times. (London)

(1946-1969)

APPENDIX - B

Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.¹

The Governments of the States Parties to this Constitution on behalf of their peoples declare:

That since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed;

That ignorance of each other's ways and lives has been a common cause, throughout the history of mankind, of that suspicion and mistrust between peoples of the world through which their differences have all too often broken into war;

That the great and terrible war which has now ended was made possible by the denial of the democratic principles of the dignity, equality and mutual respect of men, and by the propagation, in their place, through ignorance and prejudice, of the doctrine of the inequality of men and races;

That the wide diffusion of culture and the education of humanity for justice and liberty and peace are indispensable to the dignity of man and constitute a sacred duty which all the nations must fulfill in a spirit of mutual assistance and concern;

That a peace based exclusively upon the political and economic arrangements would not be a peace which could secure the unanimous, lasting and sincere support of the peoples of the world; and

¹.

Adopted in London on November 16, 1945, and amended by the General Conference at its second, third, fourth, fifth, seventh, eighth and ninth sessions.

that the peace must therefore be founded, if it is not to fail, upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind.

For these reasons, the States Parties to the Constitution believing in full and equal opportunities for education for all, in the unrestricted pursuit of objective truth, and in the free exchange of ideas and knowledge, are agreed and determined to develop and to increase the means of communication between their peoples and to employ these means for the pursuit of mutual understanding and a truer and more perfect knowledge of each other's lives.

In compliance whereof they do hereby create the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization for the purpose of advancing through the educational and scientific and cultural relations of the peoples of the world, the objectives of international peace and of the common welfare of mankind for which the United Nations Organization was established and which its Charter proclaims.

Article I - Purposes and Functions

1. The purpose of the Organization is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion, by the Charter of the United Nations.
2. To realize this purpose the Organization will:

(a) Collaborate in the work of advancing the mutual knowledge and understanding of peoples, through all means of mass communication and to that end recommend such international agreements as may be necessary to promote the free flow of ideas by word and image;

(b) Give fresh impulse to popular education and the spread of culture;

by collaborating with Members, at their request, in the development of educational activities;

by instituting collaboration among the nations to advance the ideal of equality of educational opportunities without regard to race, sex or any distinctions, economic or social;

by suggesting educational methods best suited to prepare the children of the world for the responsibilities of freedom;

(c) Maintain, diffuse and increase knowledge;

by assuring the conservation and protection of the world's inheritance of books, works of art and monuments of history and science, and recommending to the nations concerned the necessary international conventions;

by encouraging cooperation among the nations in all branches of intellectual activity, including the international exchange of persons active in the fields of education, science and culture and the exchange of publications, objects and artistic and scientific interest and other materials of information;

3. With a view to preserving the independence, integrity and fruitful

diversity of the cultures and educational systems of the States members of this Organization, the Organization is prohibited from intervening in matters which are essentially within their domestic jurisdiction; by initiating methods of international cooperation calculated to give the people of all countries access to the printed and published materials produced by any of them.

3. With a view to preserving the independence, integrity and fruitful diversity of the cultures and educational systems of States parties of this Organization, the Organization is prohibited from intervening in matters which are essentially within their domestic jurisdiction.

Article II - Membership

1. Membership of the United Nations Organization shall carry with it the right to membership of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
2. Subject to the agreement of conditions between this Organization and the United Nations Organization, approved pursuant to Article X of this Constitution, States not members of the United Nations Organization may be admitted to membership of the Organization, upon recommendation of the Executive Board, by a two-thirds majority vote by the General Conference.
3. Territories or groups of territories which are not responsible for the conduct of their international relations may be admitted

as Associated Members by the General Conference by a two-thirds majority of members present and voting, upon application made on behalf of such territory or groups of territories by the Member or authority having responsibility for their international relations. The nature and extent of the rights and obligations of Associate Members shall be determined by the General Conference.

4. Members of the Organization which are suspended from the exercise of rights and privileges of membership of the United Nations Organization shall, upon the request of the latter, be suspended from the rights and privileges of the Organization.
5. Members of the Organization which are expelled from the United Nations Organization shall automatically cease to be members of this Organization.
6. Any Member State or Associated Member of the Organization may withdraw from the Organization by notice addressed to the Director-General. Such notice shall take effect on December 31, of the year following that during which the notice was given. No such withdrawal shall affect the financial obligations owed to the Organization on the date the withdrawal takes effect. Notice of withdrawal by an Associate Member shall be given on its behalf by the Member State or other authority having responsibility for its international relations.

Article III - Organs

The Organization shall include a General Conference, an Executive Board and a Secretariat.

Article IV - The General ConferenceA. Composition

1. The General Conference shall consist of the representatives of the States members of the Organization. The Government of each Member State shall appoint not more than five delegates, who shall be selected after consultation with the National Commission, if established, or with educational, scientific and cultural bodies.

B. Functions

2. The General Conference shall determine the policies and the main lines of work of the Organization. It shall take decisions on programmes submitted to it by the Executive Board.
3. The General Conference shall, when it deems desirable and in accordance with the regulations to be made by it, summon international conferences of States on education, the sciences and humanities or the dissemination of knowledge; non-governmental conferences on the same subjects may be summoned by the General Conference or by the Executive Board in accordance with such regulations.
4. The General Conference shall, in adopting proposals for submission to the Member States, distinguish between recommendations and international conventions submitted for their approval. In the former case a majority vote shall suffice; in the latter case a two-thirds majority shall be required. Each of the Member States shall submit recommendations or conventions to its competent

authorities within a period of one year from the close of the General Conference at which they were adopted.

5. Subject to the provisions of Article V, paragraph 5(c), the General Conference shall advise the United Nations Organization on the educational scientific and cultural aspects of matters of concern to the latter; in accordance with the terms and procedure agreed upon between the appropriate authorities of the two Organizations.
6. The General Conference shall receive and consider the reports submitted periodically by Member States as provided by Article VIII.
7. The General Conference shall elect the members of the Executive Board and, on the recommendation of the Board, shall appoint the Director-General.

c. Voting

8. (a) Each Member State shall have one vote in the General Conference.

Decisions shall be made by a simple majority in cases in which a two-thirds majority is required by the provisions of this Constitution. A majority shall be a majority of the Members present and voting.

- (b) A Member State shall have no vote in the General Conference if the total amount of contributions due from it exceeds the total amount of contributions payable by it for the current year and the immediately preceding calendar year.

- (c) The General Conference may nevertheless permit such a Member State to vote, if it is satisfied that the failure to pay is

due to conditions beyond the control of the Member Nations.

D. Procedure

9. (a) The General Conference shall meet in ordinary session every two years. It may meet in extraordinary session if it decides to do so itself or if summoned by the Executive Board, or on the demand of at least one-third of the Member States.
(b) At each session the location of its ordinary session shall be designated by the General Conference. The location of an extraordinary session shall be decided by the General Conference if the session is summoned by it, or otherwise by the Executive Board.
10. The General Conference shall adopt its own rules of procedure. It shall at each session elect a President and other officers.
11. The General Conference shall set up special and technical committees and such other subordinate bodies as may be necessary for its purposes.
12. The General Conference shall cause arrangements to be made for public access to meetings, subject to such regulations as it shall prescribe.
13. The General Conference, on the recommendations of the Executive Board and by a two-thirds majority may, subject to its rules of procedure, invite as observers at special sessions of the Conference or of its Commissions representatives of international organizations, such as those referred to in Article XI, paragraph 4.
14. When consultative arrangements have been approved by the Executive Board for such international non-governmental or semi-governmental organizations in the manner provided in Article XI, paragraph 4,

those organizations shall be invited to send observers to sessions of the General Conference and its Commissions.

Article V - Executive Board

A. Composition

1. The Executive Board shall be elected by the General Conference from among the delegates appointed by the Member States and shall consist of twenty-four members each of whom shall represent the Government of the State of which he is a national. The President of the General Conference shall sit ex officio in an advisory capacity on the Executive Board.
2. In selecting the members of the Executive Board the General Conference shall endeavour to include persons competent in the arts, the humanities, the sciences, education and the diffusion of ideas, and qualified by their experience and capacity to fulfill the administrative and executive duties of the Board. It shall also have regard to the diversity of cultures and a balanced geographical distribution. Not more than one national of any Member State shall serve on the Board at any one time, the President of the Conference excepted.
3. Members of the Board shall serve from the close of the session of the General Conference which elected them until the close of the second session of the General Conference following that election. They shall be immediately eligible for a second term, but shall not serve consecutively for more than two terms. Half of the members

of the Board shall be elected every two years.

4. In the event of the death or resignation of a member of the Executive Board, his replacement for the remainder of his term shall be appointed by the Executive Board on the nomination of the Government of the State the former member represented. The Government making the nomination and the Executive Board shall have regard to the factors set forth in paragraph 2 of this Article.

B. Functions

5. (a) The Executive Board shall prepare the agenda for the General Conference. It shall examine the programme for the Organization and corresponding budget estimates submitted to it by the Director-General in accordance with paragraph 3 of Article VI and shall submit them with such recommendations as it considers desirable to the General Conference.
- (b) The Executive Board, acting under the authority of the General Conference, shall be responsible for the execution of the programme adopted by the Conference. In accordance with the decision of the General Conference and having regard to circumstances arising between two ordinary sessions, the Executive Board shall take all necessary measures to ensure the effective and rational execution of the programme by the Director-General.
- (c) Between ordinary sessions of the General Conference, the Board may discharge the functions of adviser to the United Nations, set forth in Article IV, paragraph 5, whenever the problem upon which advice is sought has already been dealt with in principle by the

by the Conference, or when the solution is implicit in decisions of the Conference.

6. The Executive Board shall recommend to the General Conference the admission of new Members to the Organization.
7. Subject to decisions of the General Conference, the Executive Board shall adopt its own rules of procedure. It shall elect its officers from among its members.
8. The Executive Board shall meet in regular session at least twice a year and may meet in special session if invoked by the Chairman on his own initiative or upon the request of six members of the Board.
9. The Chairman of the Executive Board shall present, on behalf of the Board, to each ordinary session of the General Conference, with or without comments, the reports on the activities of the Organization which the Director-General is required to prepare in accordance with the provisions of Article VI.3 (b).
10. The Executive Board shall make all necessary arrangements to consult the representatives of international organizations or qualified persons concerned with questions within its competence.
11. Between sessions of the General Assembly, the Executive Board may request advisory opinions from the International Court of Justice on legal questions arising within the field of the Organization's activities.
12. Although the members of the Executive Board are representatives of their respective Governments they shall exercise the powers delegated to them by the General Conference on behalf of the Conference as a whole.

c. Transitional Provisions

13. At the Ninth Session of the General Conference thirteen members shall be elected to the Executive Board pursuant to the provisions of this Article. One of them shall retire at the close of the tenth session of the General Conference, the retiring member being chosen by the drawing of lots. Therefore, twelve members shall be elected at each ordinary session of the General Conference.

Article VI - Secretariat

1. The Secretariat shall consist of a Director-General and such staff as may be required.
22. The Director-General shall be nominated by the Executive Board and appointed by the General Conference for a period of six years, under such conditions as the Conference may approve, and shall be eligible for reappointment. He shall be the chief administrative officer of the Organization.
3. (a) The Director-General, or a deputy designed by him, shall participate without the right to vote, in all meetings of the General Conference, of the Executive Board, and of the Committees of the Organization. He shall formulate proposals for appropriate action by the Conference and the Board, and shall prepare for submission to the Board a draft programme of work for the Organization with corresponding budget estimates.
- (b) The Director-General shall prepare and communicate to Member States and to the Executive Board periodic reports on the activities of

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