Public and Social Welfare

IP Event Lesson Plan

1. **Topic:**
   Public and social welfare

2. **Suggested activities:**
   A. Goodwill
   B. Catholic charities
   C. Meals on wheels
   D. Old age homes
   E. Girl and boy scouts
   F. Soup kitchens
   G. Big brother/big sister organizations
   H. Thrift shops owned by charities
   I. YMCA/YWCA
   J. Health and rehabilitative services departments (food stamps/welfare/WIC, etc.)
   K. Social security administration offices

   (above list is by far not all inclusive -- there are literally hundreds of volunteer support groups that fall under this topic area)

3. **Student requirements:**
   A. Attire (civilian clothes/uniform)
   B. Event information sheet
   C. Camera and film
   D. Money for emergency phone call or souvenirs

4. **Escort requirements:**
   A. Advance ticket purchases if necessary
   B. Event information sheets for each international student
   C. Ensure necessary briefing information is available
   D. Brief (pre & post) international students about event(s)
   E. Ensure escorts are familiar with event objectives to guarantee all points are adequately covered
   F. Confirm/arrange transportation requirements
   G. Event evaluation sheets are completed by each student
   H. Discuss event with point of contact at event location and ensure escort carries point of contact’s name and phone number
I. Ensure point of contact at event location is provided with the objectives to be covered prior to arrival of students

5. **Introduce student to following objective(s) (under the universal declaration of human rights):**

   A. **Article 24:** everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

   B. **Article 25:** everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

   Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

6. **IP area(s) of emphasis:**

   A. Internationally recognized human rights as outlined in the universal declaration of human rights.

   B. The democratic ideals of an elected government and effective civil-military relations that reinforce the government.

   C. The roles and interrelationships of a culturally, ethnically, economically, and socially diverse population in a democratic society.

   D. U.S. free enterprise system and its role in a democratic society.

8. **Other learning objective(s) or teaching point(s):**

   A. America is a "nation of joiners." Not only do Americans participate in civic life by petitioning government, they joint organizations that support causes they believe in or want to help.

   B. "thousand points of light" -- government cannot do it all; volunteerism is lifeblood of civic well-being.

**IP Event Information Sheet**

**Public and Social Welfare**

The emphasis in this country has usually been on the goal of economic success and individual attainment; however, we have also been faced from the beginning with the problem of providing for groups and individuals unable to achieve a commonly accepted minimum standard of living. For much of our history, this function was regarded as a matter for state and local governments and for religious and other private charitable groups.
A principle which still underlies public and private action in the social welfare field is that the individual bears the primary responsibility for himself and his family. However, it was recognized early in our history that society had a responsibility to supplement individual efforts when they proved insufficient.

In the overwhelmingly rural environment before the mid-19th century, government action in the social welfare field meant little more than the setting up of almshouses or country "poorhouses" for the infirm or aged. These were the responsibility of local governments. The federal role in welfare functions was primarily limited to special areas beyond the competence of the states or occasionally to indirect support of state action. For example, when the care of merchant sailors at foreign ports presented a problem, the federal government created the United States marine hospital service, an agency which eventually became the United States public health service. The central government also assumed some responsibilities for the welfare of Indian tribes, whose treaties gave them special status as wards of the nation, and for the veterans of military service.

By the mid-19th century, the rapid development of industrialization, the growth of cities, and the sharp increase in immigration created new social problems which in turn fostered social ferment and a spirit of social reform. The result was an expansion of state and municipal activity in such areas as prison reform; establishing homes for the blind, deaf, and other handicapped persons; establishing hospitals for the care of the poor; and establishing institutions for the humane care of the insane. A notable woman of this period, dorothea dix, campaigned tirelessly to get the states to broaden their responsibilities in the social welfare field. By the 1860’s the welfare activities of some states were so broad and widespread that they required centralized administration. Massachusetts, for example, took the lead in creating a board of state charities which worked closely with private agencies in coordinating statewide welfare services.

The unprecedented problems brought by the civil war resulted in a lessening of the reform movement. Much of the burden of aiding soldiers and civilian victims of the war was assumed by the United States sanitary commission, a forerunner of the American red cross. The needs of the prostrate and defeated south led Congress to create the freedman’s bureau in 1864. During the three years of its existence, this agency distributed nearly 21,000,000 rations to southern blacks and whites and performed a multitude of other welfare tasks. This instance of massive federal aid to individuals, however, remained without parallel until the 1930’s. So far as the federal role was concerned, Americans returned to the sentiment expressed by president Cleveland that "the people should support the government, but the government should not support the people." The federal response to the new social problems resulting from industrialization tended to remain within the bounds of setting a good example, as in the eight-hour day prescribed by federal employees, or in gathering information and providing guidance for state agencies, as in the work of the public health service and the bureau of labor.

The progressive movement of the early 20th century was partly a response to the above needs. Many states acted as the seedbed of new ideas in welfare legislation. By the 1920’s, some of them had gone beyond the regulation of working conditions for women and children to experiment with old age pension schemes, unemployment insurance, and other approaches to alleviate difficult conditions. These ideas were not well accepted, partly because of the fear -- which still hampers the welfare efforts of some states -- that the additional taxation required would impair a state’s competitive position in attracting and holding industry. Although the growing magnitude of social problems forced the states as a whole to almost triple their welfare expenditures in the 1920’s, most Americans remained confident during these comparatively prosperous years that the old principles of self-reliance and individual responsibility still applied. Social insurance schemes had been introduced in Germany in the 1880’s and in the rest of industrial Europe before world war i, but their need was much less obvious in the United States.

The shock of the great depression overwhelmingly demonstrated the inadequacy of the traditional reliance on local government and private efforts to relieve individual distress. One expert has
vividly described the impact of this experience: "men and women who had saved diligently for a rainy day saw their savings disappear. Those who believed that hard work and ability are rewarded in this world found that hard work and ability did not make such difference to a man whose company had decided to liquidate his whole department. Men and women who had believed that the spirit of charity and mutual self-help in each community should look after the needs of those who were in trouble, found that whole communities were without enough cash or facilities to meet the situation. Economic events seemed to move with a savage disregard for all the virtues on which millions of people had built their hopes."

With a large group of "new poor" joining those already impoverished, the demand for federal action became irresistible. During the first two years of the new deal, the government concentrated on programs of short-term emergency relief of distress. The works program administration (WPA), the civilian conservation corps, and a host of other agencies attacked the problems from various angles. Congress passed a series of laws giving federal guarantees and insurance to protect various groups, from banks to farmers, against the vagaries of economic change. In this same atmosphere, Congress passed the first general law creating a nationwide system to aid individuals in the quest for economic security. This was the social security act of 1935.

The social security act of 1935 is a complex law which has been amended and expanded considerably since its passage. However, its fundamental structure has not changed. Basically, it provides for three different types of benefits as indicated below.

A system of compulsory social insurance, called old age and survivors insurance (OASI), is administered wholly by the federal government. It provides retirement benefits to people in certain categories whose income is below a prescribed level. Full-rate benefits begin at age 65 and reduced-rate benefits at age 62. Monthly benefits are also paid to the widow and dependent children of a deceased worker who was covered by social security. A small lump sum is paid to eligible survivors or others who pay the funeral expenses.

The unemployment insurance aspect of the program is administered by the states in accordance with minimum standards set by Congress. The federal government contributes a large share of the costs. The exact benefits and eligibility to receive them vary from state to state, but the principle of nationwide short-term protection against loss of employment is observed.

In addition to the two major benefits mentioned above, there is also a system of federal grants to the states to help them finance other kinds of welfare programs. For example, the federal government contributes most of the funds to aid to dependent children, old-age pensions for persons not covered by the social security provisions, aid to special categories of the physically handicapped, and general relief funds for the indigent. In most of these programs the states must conform to certain minimum standards set by the federal government, but they are allowed wide latitude in administration and determining eligibility. This results in considerable variation in the nature and extent of these programs from state to state.

Many groups were excluded from coverage by the social insurance provisions of the original law, but coverage has been broadened by every administration. However, there are still several million workers outside its protection. Furthermore, the protection it offers is deliberately limited. The law was designed to supplement, not to replace, private insurance, pension plans, and individual thrift in savings and home ownership. Social security benefits alone will not support anyone on a comfortable basis without some other source of income or aid. Even with a supplementary private industry pension, the average aging worker is faced with a very sharp contraction of income when he reaches retirement. Thus the need for personal saving continues.
While some Americans remain outside the social security system or find its benefits inadequate, the vast majority consider it an extremely useful and permanent institution; it forms a major part of their plans for economic security. One of its great strengths is its means of financing, for it operates independently of the federal government’s general budget. People are entitled to social security benefits not as a form of charity but as a matter of right, for they have paid toward those benefits over their working life. A payroll tax is levied with equal weight on employers and employees, and this money goes into a separate fund, where the “miracle of averages,” to use Winston Churchill’s apt phrase, goes to work in providing insurance for all who contribute. The complex operations of this fund can best be explained, if anyone is interested, by a responsible official from the social security office. Recent concerns over the adequacy of the fund to meet long-range demands are likely to come to the attention of the foreign visitors, making this a possible topic of interest and discussion.

The depression ended with World War II, but fear of another one and the increased social demands of the public have resulted in additional governmental action in the field of social welfare.

Immediately following World War II, a grateful nation rewarded its war veterans with a massive program of aid embodied in the serviceman’s adjustment act, which quickly earned the title of the “GI Bill of Rights.” This aid was continued for Korea, Vietnam veterans, and desert storm. Now the program has changed to make it a participatory one. Under this act, millions of veterans received education and vocational training, home loans, and other aids which compensated in part for the social and economic opportunities they might have missed while in service.

Rapid population growth, the backlog of needs neglected during the depression and war years, the mushrooming of suburbs, medical advances, and other factors have greatly increased the kinds of social welfare services provided by state and local governments as well as the amount of money spent on them. Expansion has taken place especially in such areas as providing better educational, recreational, and health services, not only for the needy but for all citizens.

Recent federal welfare legislation has been concerned largely with extending, modifying, and making more permanent the basic programs of the new deal era. Under presidents Truman and Eisenhower the social security and fair labor standards acts were extended in coverage, and the benefits were adjusted to inflationary trends. The housing act of 1949 recognized and expanded federal activity in the housing field and is still responsible for erecting over 50,000 low-cost housing units a year to replace slum dwellings. The department of health, education, and welfare (hew), urged as a cabinet post since 1937, was created with little opposition in 1953. It has done much to coordinate federal welfare programs, enforce regulations, and unify national standards in its areas of concern. Under president Carter’s administration, hew was reorganized to form the department of health and human services and the department of education.

The almost universal acceptance of government programs in some social welfare fields has not meant the end of opposition to proposed programs in other areas. For example, a national health insurance system, similar to those in many European countries, was proposed but has never gained sufficient support to result in favorable legislation. This issue, resurrected under the Clinton administration, will no doubt be long debated in legislative halls and by citizens in general; but on the whole, this nation has probably come closer than any other to providing "a good life" for all its people within the democratic framework.

In addition to the government programs for social welfare, there is a magnitude of private arrangements which serve to assist in the goal of individual attainment.

Due to the nature of the hardships endured both in the crossing from Europe to the colonies and in settling the colonies, these bold and daring pioneers developed an attitude of working together
and helping each other in order to survive and get ahead. This spirit of helping each other stays with us today. Granted in that era mutual benefits were received by all.

As the nation expanded westward, this colonial attitude of helping each other out of necessity continued, spreading the seed of moral attitude that it was the thing to do. When a family fell upon hardship, the neighbors would gather together material and moral assistance for them. This carried over into the provision of essential services, such as volunteer fire departments, some of which still function today.

With the end of the westward expansion and the resolution of the conflicts with the Indians, the need for this type of community action diminished. However, at the same time, other problems began to show up. The U.S. became the focus of immigration of large numbers of people from various countries and ethnic groupings. These groups tended to congregate and form "little nationalistic" communities within the larger sphere. Many arrived penniless. These communities absorbed the new arrivals and provided the social services required until the new arrivals could become self-supporting. As members of these groupings branched out over the United States, they carried with them the spirit of volunteerism in the area of social services.

It was also during this period that the United States changed from a predominantly agrarian society to an industrial society. Huge fortunes were amassed during this era. It also began the exodus to the industrial areas from the farms, as the need for large numbers of laborers developed to support the industrialization. This broke up the traditional extended family and community social groupings and brought new demands for social services that could not be met because of a lack of an informal infrastructure as there had been in the past. This coupled with the depression caused a shift in expectations as the federal government assumed much of the burden for social services. Since this time, it has become an expectation that social services were to be provided by the government instead of through volunteer means in large part.

At the same time, many services are provided by volunteers. One of the biggest areas is in the area of youth activities. Aside from the small paid staffs and the publicly provided facilities, the majority of the adult leadership for sports and scouting programs is by volunteers. This also applies in the areas of church supported social services and support by

Volunteer aides to funded programs, such as classroom aides in the public schools or "grey ladies" in hospitals.

Another phenomenon which has provided volunteer support in the social services area has been the monetary contributions made by individuals and organizations to various social programs ranging from medical research to the national association for the advancement of colored people (NAACP). A classic example of this national volunteer support is the "March of dimes" program initiated by president Roosevelt. This program raised large amounts of money that was used in research, as well as to support treatment of victims of infantile paralysis. Through this jointly funded and voluntary program, "polio" has been conquered. The multitude of such programs is too numerous to list here, but each receives a considerable amount of support since the federal and state governments encourage such donations by allowing income/corporate tax credits.

Individuals and corporations who amassed large fortunes during the industrialization period took advantage of the tax credit by means of establishing non-profit foundations which either sponsored programs in the social services area or provided funds in the form of grants for various programs. Again, the areas covered under this process are too numerous to list here.

All in all, the volunteer support for social services contributes a significant amount in both financial and in-kind support and cannot be overlooked when discussing social services. It appeared by 1985 that the United States had reached a watershed in the area of federal funding for programs
and that the Regain and bush administration had reversed the trend to return the responsibility for social programs to the state and local levels. With the arrival of the Clinton administration at the white house, the traditional democratic party concern for social spending has re-emerged. Initiatives in a national health program and tax-payer sponsored abortions seem to indicate money used for defense will be shifted to fund social programs even in light of the demand to reduce the national deficit. It would appear that there will be more emphasis on volunteer support for social programs to preclude increasing the tax burden further.

The family is the primary social unit in practically all societies. Although patterns of family organization around the world vary widely, the family usually performs two major social functions: it perpetuates the species and transmits the basic cultural elements of a society from one generation to the next. Family customs and behavior patterns grow out of the unique social history of a people. Because they deal with people’s most intimate experiences, they are viewed emotionally, and those which differ from one’s own concepts tend to be regarded as inferior or "bad." Closer acquaintance with different family patterns and behavior helps to develop an attitude of tolerance and open-mindedness, even though one remains devoted to the value systems of his or her own society.

Although European in origin, American family patterns have from the beginning been adapted to fit a different physical and social environment. Life in frontier communities did not reproduce the stratification of European society. It left class lines fluid and permitted considerable movement from one stratum to another. The scarcity of women enhanced their value and status and gave early impetus to their successful battle for equal rights. Equalitarian attitudes on the frontier and in government generally spread into family affairs. This resulted in the "team" concept of the family, rather than the male-dominated family still found in many parts of the world.

While the American family has these distinctively American traits, it also reflects the impact of modern trends-industrialization, urbanization, and increasing mechanization -- as do families in other highly industrialized societies. In all such societies there has been a general loosening of family ties and a period of painful adjustment during which society seems to suffer from a lack of values as old standards are adjusted to fit new conditions. Since the United States leads the world in industrial development, it perhaps exhibits more than other countries both the good and the bad effects of these modern trends. But there is little cause for pessimism -- the family is obviously here to stay, and it is showing the usual American ingenuity in adapting itself to the economic, social, and emotional needs of Americans in the 1990’s.

In making these adjustments, it is greatly aided by an aroused social awareness of the need for cooperative action by all members of society. The existence of many public and private welfare agencies and programs is evidence of the increasing sense of social responsibility among the American people. Through the social security system and other federal programs, as well as a vast array of state and local social welfare programs supplemented by the efforts of private philanthropy, the American people are close to succeeding in their goal of providing for the welfare of all without impinging on the traditional freedoms and opportunities of the individual. In these most basic aspects of American life -- family patterns, social classes, and social welfare -- which are dealt with in this topic, American diversity and spirit of compromise are still their strength.

Since World War II, the American economy has become more involved in the economic affairs of the world. The threat to the free world presented by communism was not only military and political but economic as well. Because the impact of the American economy on the global economy is so great, there is sometimes sensitivity to our role among foreigners. For better or for worse, the economic destinies of many countries are closely liked with the level of performance in our economy and with our foreign economic policy.
The United States contains about 7 percent of the world’s population and land area, but it produces and consumes over one-third of the global output of goods and services. Much of what we produce is sold abroad, while much of what we consume comes from abroad. This makes the United States the largest single trading nation in the world. It supplies about one-fifth of the western world’s exports and purchases about 13 percent of its imports. Our proportional participation in world trade would be even greater if we disregarded the large volume of intracontinental western European trade which is beginning to take on the character of domestic commerce. Also, our trade relationship with many of the countries of the western hemisphere is much more important than our global participation figures suggest.

Despite the large volume of our foreign trade, only about 8 percent of our national income is derived from this source. This is a much smaller percentage than is the case in most of the other major nations of the world. However, this does not mean that foreign trade is not vitally important to us. Our economic and military strength depend on it. We could not possibly maintain our high levels of production and our standard of living without imported raw materials. For example, we depend on imports for all or part of about 30 of the 39 minerals vital to our industries. In addition, foreign trade supplies millions of jobs, provides markets for 15 percent of our total farm production, and accounts for a sizable portion of our industrial sales.

Our future imports and exports may be expected to grow, provided there is world peace and a reasonably nondiscriminatory trading environment. Such expansion would benefit both the United States and those with whom we trade. The occasional doubts expressed here and abroad seem to reflect a concern over possible trade restrictions or the anxieties of those who feel the pressures of changing supply and demand relationships found in any dynamic economy. For example, industrialization of the less developed countries may lessen the demand for certain categories of our exports, such as consumer goods. But it may also open up new possibilities for the export of producer goods. Further, the higher incomes produced by wise industrialization will create new consumer demands for a diversified range of imported goods.

World trade experience indicates that the more industrialized countries are the best customers for each other’s exports. Thus, in addition to humanitarian and political motives for supporting development programs in other countries, there are also economic reasons. Foreign economic development not only tends to shift the export demand away from simpler products to more elaborate technical items, but it also tends to shift our resources from less efficient to more productive industries. This in itself is an important secondary benefit.

Since the American economy produces nearly two-thirds of the world’s savings, this country is the leading international investor. Until about 1914, great Britain had been the major world supplier of new investment funds. A major source of funds for investment abroad is our export balance -- we export more than we import.

Most early private investment was directed toward Latin America and then Canada. More than half of our investments abroad remain in the western hemisphere, but the remarkable postwar economic recovery of western Europe has attracted increasing amounts of investment funds.

Money invested abroad is used for a variety of purposes, depending largely upon the available resource base and the stage of economic development. For example, in some tropical areas, funds were plowed into the large-scale production of such crops as bananas, sugar, and rubber. The building of railroads, highways, airports, and factories, and the extraction of mineral resources, especially petroleum, were other important uses. Not only capital but production techniques and organizational skills as well are supplied by foreign investors.

With the creation of the export-import bank in 1934, the government began to finance a portion of our exports. During the 1940’s, the bank’s functions were expanded so that it became an
important credit agency for financing overseas investment projects which used equipment and materials from the United States. The establishment in 1946 of the international bank for reconstruction and development, to which the United States contributed almost a third of the capital, was another vehicle through which government funds were made available for overseas investments. More recently, the development loan fund was set up to make “soft” loans (loans repayable in currencies other than the dollar) for projects in other countries. Subsequently, the social progress trust fund was established with government capital to finance part of the alliance for progress program. Our government also participated in the establishment of two other international or multinational lending agencies: the international finance corporation (affiliated with IBRD) and the inter-American development bank.

One cannot overlook the fact that people in other countries, particularly the smaller ones, sometimes feel, even resentfully, that they are excessively dependent upon the United States. Many of their international economic relationships appear to be governed by conditions over which they have little control. The temptation arises to infer that somehow or the other, the United States controls these relationships because of its global economic impact if not through deliberate policy. Two factors tend to stimulate this influence:

(1) the rise of the United States to a position of preeminence in world trade coincided with the severe dislocations in trade produced by two world wars and a world depression. These events convinced many that foreign trade is an element of vulnerability rather than strength in national development programs. Anxiety about this has occasionally been transferred, rather illogically, into a suspicion of our foreign trade policies.

(2) the United States became the chief foreign investor just when intense nationalism was spreading in the areas where foreign investments were heavy. This, combined with anticolonialism, aroused deep hostility towards foreigners, despite the fact that they contributed much to the economic development of such areas. We must remember that people from other cultures often have assumptions different from ours regarding the origins of wealth. Those who hold an exploitive theory feel that through foreign trade and investment we (and other wealthy nations of the west) have gained wealth at their expense. We tend to regard foreign investment as a means of "developing" resources that would otherwise go untapped. People from poorer countries are more apt to regard it as "exploiting" the resources of other regions.

Probably the best way to think about this issue is to consider the mutual advantages of international trade and investment. They permit regional specialization and the most efficient use of natural and manmade resources. Productivity increases, bringing new wealth and a rising standard of living. Whenever independent or semi-autonomous countries have failed to realize the full potential benefits of foreign trade and investment, it has nearly always been due to limitations on growth arising out of domestic political, social, and economic conditions.

Our foreign aid programs have been a major prop of the international exchange pattern of the noncommunist countries since World War II. The first postwar aid programs were geared to help war-torn countries rebuild their economies and to strengthen the economies of free nations threatened by communist aggression. Time and experience brought reorganizations of our aid programs. Today the following broad aims are emphasized: development based on programs tailored to each country, emphasis on loans over grants, increased procurement of goods and services in the United States, meaningful concentration among countries, aid geared to self-help, a broader role for private enterprise, and termination of aid.
when countries become able to maintain their own momentum. Above all, the aid is not to interfere in the domestic affairs of other nations.

Aid to western European countries received the highest priority in the years following World War II. Its purpose was to counter the aggressive westward thrust of the soviet union and to strengthen the general economy of the noncommunist world. A revived European economy would, in turn, strengthen the export markets of less developed countries and substantially enlarge the productive capacity of the world. Through the European recovery program (marshall plan), which was in effect from 1948 to 1954, over $12 billion of American aid was channeled into western Europe. This is one of our most successful aid programs, partly because it went to an area already industrialized.

The point iv program was designed especially to aid underdeveloped areas by providing technical assistance -- the services of experts to bring their "know-how" to bear on the problems of improving agricultural productivity, developing industrial capacity, building adequate housing, caring for public health, and a host of other needs. Unlike other forms of economic assistance, it required comparatively little in loans and grants. Although the annual average cost of this program was only some $100 million, this hardly reflects its true value.

A recent example is the peace corps. This was set up in 1961 to enable suitable volunteers to serve their country overseas in useful nonmilitary pursuits. Congress appropriated $30 million for its first year's activities. The corps achieved greater success than many anticipated. Volunteers, mostly young men and women just graduated from college, after careful screening and training, served in many underdeveloped countries as teachers, rural development workers, surveyors, geologists, nurses, agricultural extension workers, and in other similar capacities. By mid-1964, a total of 10,078 volunteers were in training or on duty in 46 countries overseas; now the program has been significantly reduced due to political realignments.

This 10-year program, initiated in 1961, was designed to link the United States with the countries of Latin America in a massive development program based on the principle of self-help.

Economic aid is planned and administered through this agency. Planning is done on a country rather than on a project-by-project basis.

In concluding this multifaceted section, it is apparent that the problem of providing for groups and individuals unable to achieve a commonly accepted minimum standard of living has surfaced in the national conscience of the United States. There is no simple solution to the problem. Many public and private social services organizations are deeply involved in helping the needy. The public and social welfare organizations are doing so much with so little; however, the reality of the situation is that this problem will not be solved in this century.

This information should provide you an understanding of how our public and social welfare system works. You should also be able to recognize how public and social welfare relate to the following Articles in the universal declaration of human rights:

*Article 22*
Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international cooperation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each state, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23

Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favorable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

Everyone who works has the right to just and favorable remuneration insuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his/her interests.

Article 24

Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25

Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.