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INTERNATIONAL
ASSOCIATIONS
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LA REVUE DES
ORGANISATIONS ET REUNIONS
INTERNATIONALES

THE REVIEW OF
INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
AND MEETINGS

NGO  ONG

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AVRIL 1956 APRIL

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In no country in the world has the principle of association been more successfully used or applied to a greater multitude of objects than in America. Besides the permanent associations which are established by law under the names, of townships cities, and counties, a vast number of others are formed and maintained by the agency of private individuals.

"Democracy in America"

by Alexis DE TOCQUEVILLE. 1835

The citizen of the United States is taught from infancy to rely upon his own exertions in order to resist the evils and the difficulties of life : he looks upon the social authority with an eye of mistrust and anxiety, and he claims its assistance only when he is unable to do without it. This habit may be traced even in the schools, where the children in their games are wont to submit to rules which they have themselves established, and to punish misdemeanors which they have themselves defined. The same spirit pervades every act of social life. If a stoppage occurs in a thoroughfare and the circulation of vehicles is hindered, the neighbors immediately form themselves into a deliberative body; and this extemporaneous assembly gives rise to an executive power which remedies the inconvenience before anybody has thought of recurring to a pre-existing authority superior to that of the persons immediately concerned. If some public pleasure

One hundred and twenty five years ago Alexis de Tocqueville visited the United States. On returning to France, he wrote his famous treatise *De la démocratie en Amérique*. The work is remarkable for its insight into the forces at work in America and its timeliness. The following excerpts, taken from a recent English edition of "Democracy in America" (New York, 1946, by F. Bowen and P. Bradley), are particularly appropriate in introducing our special issue highlighting the United States.

is concerned, an association is formed to give more splendor and regularity to the entertainment. Societies are formed to resist evils that are exclusively of a moral nature, as to diminish the vice of intemperance. In the United States associations are established to promote the public

safety, commerce, industry, morality, and religion. There is no end which the human will despairs of attaining through the combined power of individuals united into a society...

In America, the liberty of association for political purposes is unlimited. An example will show in the clearest light to what an extent this privilege is tolerated.

The question of a tariff or free trade has much agitated the minds of Americans. The tariff was not only a subject of debate as a matter of opinion, but it affected some great material interests of the states. The North attributed a portion of its prosperity, and the South nearly all its sufferings, to this system.

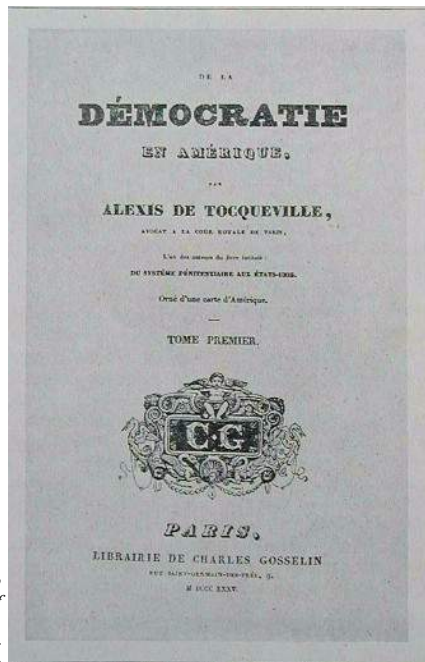
For a long time the tariff was the sole source of the political animosities that agitated the Union. In 1831, when the dispute was raging with the greatest violence, a private citizen of Massachusetts proposed, by means of the newspapers, to all the enemies of the tariff to send delegates to Philadelphia in order to

together consult upon the best means of restoring freedom of trade. This proposal circulated in a few days, by the power of the press, from Maine to New Orleans. The opponents of the tariff adopted it with enthusiasm; meetings were held in all quarters, and delegates were appointed. The majority of these delegates were well known, and some of them has earned a considerable degree of celebrity. South Carolina alone, which afterwards took up arms in the same cause, sent

sixty-three delegates. On the 1st of October 1831, this assembly, which, according to the American custom, had taken the name of Convention, met at Philadelphia; it consisted of more than two hundred members. Its debates were public, and they at once assumed a legislative character; the extent of the powers of Congress, the theories of free trade, and

the different provisions of the tariff were discussed. At the end of ten days, the Convention broke up, having drawn up an address to the American people in which it declared: (1) that Congress had not the right of making a tariff, and that the existing tariff was unconstitutional; (2) that the prohibition of free trade was prejudicial to the interests of any nation, and to those of the American people especially.

It must be acknowledged that the unrestrained liberty of political association has not hitherto produced in the United States the fatal results that might perhaps be expected from it elsewhere. The right of association was imported from England, and it has always existed in America; the exercise of this privilege is now incorporated with the manners and customs of the people. At the present time, the liberty of association has become a necessary guarantee against the tyranny of the majority. In the United States, as soon as a party has become dominant, all public authority passes into its hands; its private supporters occupy all the offices and have all the force of the administra-



tion at their disposal. As the most distinguished members of the opposite party cannot surmount the barrier that excludes them from power, they must establish themselves outside of it and oppose the whole moral authority of the minority to the physical power that domineers over it. Thus a dangerous expedient is used to obviate a still more formidable one.

The omnipotence of the majority appears to me to be so full of peril to the American republics that the dangerous means used to bridle it seem to be more advantageous than prejudicial. And here I will express an opinion that may remind the reader of what I said when speaking of the freedom of townships. There are no countries in which associations are more needed to prevent the despotism of faction or the arbitrary power of a prince than those which are democratically constituted. In aristocratic nations the body of the nobles and the wealthy are in themselves natural associations which check the abuses of power. In countries where such associations do not exist, if private individuals cannot create an artificial and temporary substitute for them, I can see no permanent protection against the most galling tyranny; and a great people may be oppressed with impunity by a small faction or by a single individual.

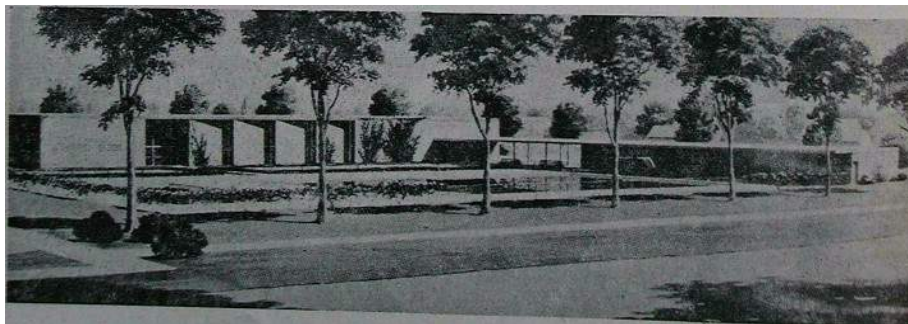
The meeting of a great political convention (for there are conventions of all kinds), which may frequently become a necessary measure, is always a serious occurrence, even in America, and one that judicious patriots cannot regard without alarm. This was very perceptible in the Convention of 1831, at which all the most distinguished members strove to moderate its language and to restrain its objects within cer-



The town-hall of New York in 1860...

tain limits. It is probable that this Convention exercised a great influence on the minds of the malcontents and prepared them for the open revolt against the commercial laws of the Union that took place in 1832.

It cannot be denied that the unrestrained liberty of association for political purposes is the privilege which a people is longest in learning how to exercise. If it does not throw the nation into anarchy, it perpetually augments the chances of that calamity. On one point, however, this perilous liberty offers a security against dangers of another kind; in countries where associations are free, secret societies are unknown. In America there are factions, but no conspiracies.



and the town-hall of **Levittown**, Pennsylvania, today.

Facts and figures on the participation of the United States in International Non-Governmental Cooperation

by Goldie SCAKR

UIA Secretariat

One of the most remarkable phenomena of post-war international development is the sudden emergence of the United States into the foreground of the world scene. This emergence, though sudden, is not surprising to the person familiar with much that has lead up to active US participation in almost all areas of international endeavor.

The purpose of this study is to acquaint the reader with some facts and figures about US past and present international life by giving some data about the number and location of international headquarters in the US, international congresses, international publications, US membership and officers, role of US private foundations in international life and the formal study of international affairs.

Pioneering

Even before the first world war, there existed a consciousness of American potentially for leadership in the world community. This feeling has been very eloquently expressed by David Starr Jordan in an article entitled, "What America can teach Europe" (1) :

America defends and has always defended a double ideal which it cannot elude, for this idea is intrinsic in its origin and its development. This is the double ideal of Internationalism and Democracy, and this ideal is certain to triumph : after conquering America, it must, through it, reconquer Europe. And since this ideal is incompatible with war, its triumph will mark the end of militarism and relations which have given rise to suspicion and hate among nations. The conquest of the world by the ideal of internationalism and democracy will be the beginning of universal peace.

" In a speech made in Baltimore in 1911, Mr. Henri La Fontaine, of Brussels, who prophesied the development of international life, spoke the following striking words : " Emigration, perhaps more than war, has deprived old and traditional countries of their most energetic and capable sons, to form the prosperous and progressive people who live on this side of the Atlantic. You are for us, Europeans, our brother's country, do not forget that Europe is for America what Greece was for Europe. Europe delivered Greece, and America has as its mission to deliver Europe of its burdens, of its prejudices, of its hates. It is your duty, your sacred duty to reconcile beyond your frontiers the peoples whom you have reconciled within your frontiers. For, in truth, the American people are, at the present time, a truly international people, the people-elect who alone can promote internationalism and transform all the people of the earth into one family of nations, a brotherhood of men, an international people.

... " Internationalism is the heritage of America, not by free choice, but by necessity. It has grown with this ideal in its heart, because no other one was possible for her. It has become the most cosmopolitan nation in the world because of its complex origin, and because of this origin, it ran only be as it is. "

Due to the limited space which can be devoted to this study, we are not able to give many examples illustrating the pioneering role of individuals and organizations in the US. (A detailed study on this period has yet to be done and the UIA would be very happy to cooperate with anyone interested in it.)

The few examples we give here are taken from very important areas of international cooperation.

It is notable for instance that the first Peace Society was founded in the United States, in Boston in 1810, six years before its counterpart in London and eleven years before the first such society appeared in Paris. This society was in-

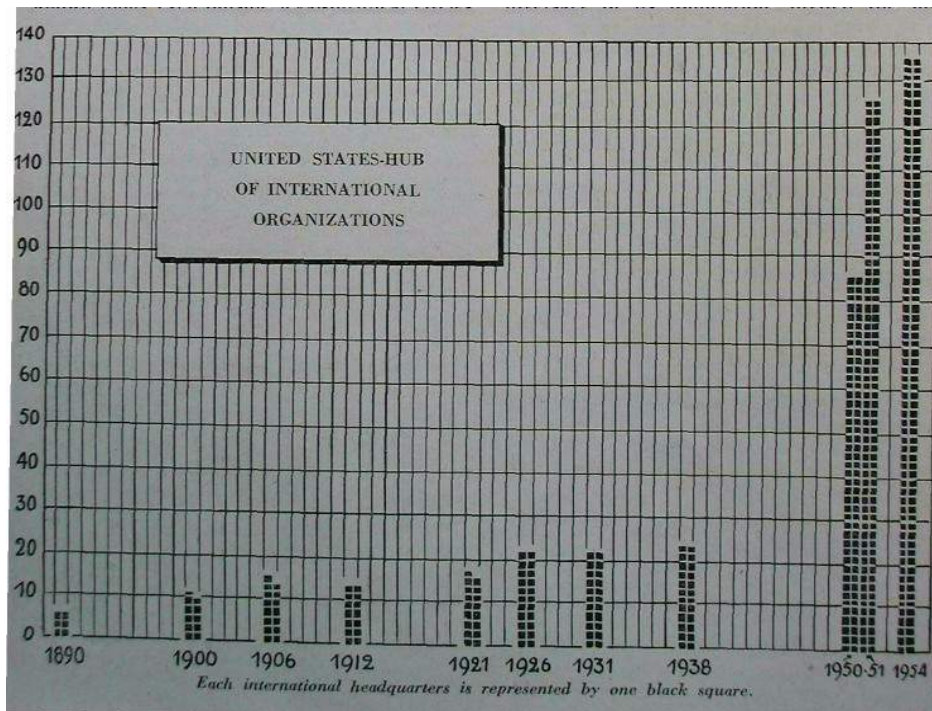
ternational in its composition and was founded thirty years before the first truly international meeting took place (2).

It is in the field in international law and peace that early American initiative is outstanding. The first international congress of the Friends of Universal Peace was convened by the American and British Societies in Brussels in 1848. This meeting, which prepared the way for modern international pacifism, set forth the principles conceived by a US citizen, Elihu Burrit. The " Association for the Reform and Codification of People's Rights " was created by the United States International Code Committee at the congress on International Law which met in Brussels in 1873. The first secretary of this Association was a Bostonian, James B. Miles. At the Organization's 17th congress, (1895, Brussels) its name was changed to the " International Law Association " whose activities and name are well known today even outside legal-juridical circles.

Scientists co-operate

The importance and the worthwhile activity of the International Council of Scientific Unions are very well known. But how many people are acquainted with the fact that this Council was formed on the initiative of Mr. George Hall, Permanent Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences in Washington, D. C., at the first meeting of the International Research Council which met in Brussels in 1919 (3). Mr. Hall, who was then Director of the Mount Wilson Observatory in Pasadena, California, had conceived this idea which bore fruit in the establishment of this semi-governmental body. Since 1931, this organization has been growing in scope and importance as the International Council of Scientific Unions.

In 1912, the American Society of Geography, planning a solemn celebration of the 60th anniversary of its foundation, invited the main



geographical societies of the world to make an excursion across the American continent, a trip which would be followed by a congress in New York. Sixty persons participated, among them thirty Europeans. A special train was put at the disposal of the excursionists. The trip lasted two months and 12,000 kilometers were covered. A credit of \$ 700.00 was allowed each participant by the Geographical Society of New York (4).

International headquarters

The post-war interest and active participation of the United States in international organizations and meetings is, without a doubt, spectacular. One hundred and thirty-six international organizations of which 119 are NGOs, now have their headquarters in the US, and thirty-four (26 NGOs) have regional offices there; this figure become duly impressive when compared to the twenty-four bureaux counted in 1938.

More than one-half the number of these 136 organizational headquarters are located in two cities : New York (53) and Washington, D. C. (33). The remaining 50 bodies have their home offices throughout the country.

A detailed study of the geographical distribution of international headquarters throughout the United States reveals some interesting facts : in 1951, there were 126 headquarters and 30 regional offices in 31 American cities. Of course, the majority were concentrated in New York (49 headquarters and 21 regional offices) and Washington (38 headquarters and 6 regional offices), but the fact remains that 29 other cities were also international centers. Chicago boasted 9, Philadelphia 3 and 1 regional office, while Columbus and Los Angeles had 2 each. *Twenty-five* other cities housed 23 headquarters and 2 regional offices.

By 1954, 17 new cities became centers of international activity, although 9 cities lost this status. This shift must be viewed against a background of an increase in the number of headquarters and regional offices in the US in 1954 : ten more headquarters and four more regional offices had been established between 1951 and 1954, making the present total 136 and 34 respectively. New York most ostensibly benefited from this growth going from 49 to 53 headquarters and from 21 to 25 regional offices. Wash-

ington ceased to be the home of five organizations, but the number of cities claiming the headquarters of one international organization jumped from 23 to 31 (5). Can we assume that a process of decentralization is beginning ? If so, it is probably a good thing for it will bring the benefits of international activity into more corners of the country, into places where the international spirit has, perhaps, not yet penetrated.

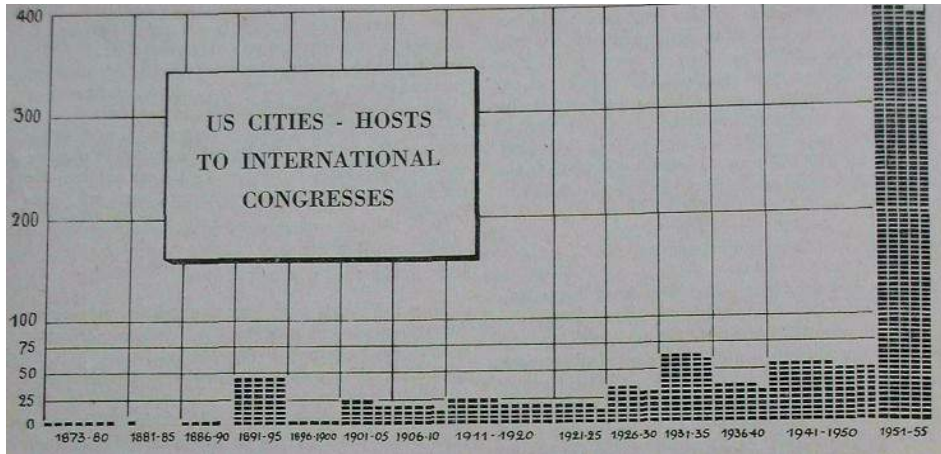
More and more congresses

The popularity of American cities as centers for international meetings is further testimony of the US " coming of age ". According to UIA records, the very first international congress held in the US seems to be the one convened by the Evangelic Alliance in New York in 1873. Since that time, the meeting of an international body on US territory has become less and less of a rarity. In the last century, the year 1893 is outstanding for it saw the Chicago World's Fair and 45 international meetings, 43 of which met in Chicago. Until that date (1873-1892) there had been only 12 international assemblies held in the US.

The following graph gives a historical picture of the growing number of international conferences by governmental and non-governmental organizations being held in the US. It does not, of course, include the hundreds of meetings held at the United Nations headquarters every year; nor does it count meetings whose international character may be open to question (6).

US membership, leadership

A survey was made in the spring of 1952 to determine the extent of representation of countries in the various fields of international activity. Replies from 583 organizations served as a basis, of this study which included eighteen areas of activity. Taken as a whole, the US occupies the seventh place being represented in 425 out of the 583 bodies consulted. France with 534, Belgium with 502 and the Netherlands with 500 are in first, second and third place respectively. A breakdown of these figures shows, however, that the US is in first place in two of these fields (law and administration and youth), in



In this graph one square represents one meeting. The vertical divisions give the totals of meetings for a five-year period with the exception of the years from 1873-1880 (7 years), 1911-1920 (10 years) and 1941-1950 (10 years). For the years 1891-1895, the high figure of 45 is explained by the fact that 43 of these meetings were held in Chicago at the World's Fair of 1893. The second notable growth in the number of meetings took place from 1931 to 1935 (64 meetings while, the latest remarkable increase is to be noted from 1951 to 1955, period which saw 393 international assemblies in the United States.

second place in two others (philosophy and religion, and arts, literature and culture) and in third place in two others (medicine and pure and natural science) (7).

A survey of the nationality of officers of international organizations put the US in third place (8). From a total of 6,892 officers heading 1,128 organizations, 749 American citizens hold 686 positions in 117 of the 1,008 international non-governmental organizations and 63 posts in 19 of the 120 inter-governmental organizations active in the world today. (Only the United Kingdom with 881 and France with 1,071 have a higher number). The two other categories in which the largest number of officers come from the United States are : 1) philosophy, religion and moral improvement (121) and 2) medicine and health (108).

Publications

An important part of the work of international organizations is the publication of periodicals, and in this area too, the position of the US is

notable. Only 472 of the more than 1,000 existing international organizations edit 698 periodicals. (Frequently publication is in more than one language and if these supplementary editions are counted, one can find 962 reviews put out by international NGOs). Of the total number, 133 are published in the US, just 50 fewer than in France which sets the pace in every aspect of international activity. In the 14 categories examined, the US is in first place in four : religion, law and public administration, feminism, and agriculture. It ranks second in three others : political and social science, natural and pure sciences, and medicine.

Private foundation help

Non-governmental effort in the US and abroad is generously subsidized by grants from private foundations, institutions almost non-existent on the continent. If governmental subsidy to non-governmental activity is only a very small part of funds allocated for international purposes, foundations contribute generously in this field.

Indeed, the picture of American subsidies to international activity would not be complete without an account of the contributions made by private foundations. According to a recent estimate, there are now in the US between 25,000 and 30,000 foundations, their capitals totaling nearly seven thousand million dollars (9).

There are two main categories of foundations : those which grant subsidies to individuals or organizations (fund granting foundations) and those which conduct their own programs of work or research (operating foundations). In the first category are the foundations with very broad aims and a wide range of activity, such as the Carnegie Corporation, the Ford Foundation and the Rockefeller Foundation. The main operating foundations are the Twentieth Century Fund and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

The major field of activity of almost all of these foundations is the continental United States. Some money does however go abroad, most often to further science and culture in Europe. For example, a large number of research institutes, libraries and universities in Europe have been established and/or given

grants out of a small percentage of resources available for expenditure in Europe.

These aims are pursued by foundations : education, social welfare, public health, sports and recreation, religion, international relations, racial relations, the political and administrative sciences, and political economy, in that order of importance. Individuals and non-profit, non-governmental organizations are eligible to receive financial support from these private fund-granting foundations.

The US and the formal study of international affairs

There can be no doubt that the colleges and universities of the United States have been the first ones to undertake seriously and formally the study of international affairs.

On their present scale these studies are comparatively recent, but isolated courses on " world politics " and " international relations " have existed since 1913-1914 (Universities of Iowa and Illinois) (10). Several other large universities introduced such subjects and by 1926 a study of 125 typical college and university catalogues re-



Some of the group of 28 European students who have recently taken part in a seminar organized by Boston University's Human Relations Center.



A seminar at Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire. Robert Frost, one of America's leading poets, is leading it.

vealed that about one-third offered introductory courses in international relations. In the late 1920's many institutions, large and small, established courses in the field, so that in 1930 a survey of 465 colleges and universities showed that some 264 courses on international relations, 234 on international law, and 75 on international organization were available for American college students (11). More institutions continued to offer more courses, and the sudden outbreak of world conflict in 1939 further stimulated the demand by students for a better understanding of the issues of international affairs.

Since 1945, courses on a great number of international subjects have been multiplying more rapidly than ever before. Anyone acquainted with the extraordinary variety of activities by which American universities now contribute, directly and indirectly, to the handling of international relations must be truly impressed.

New courses in international relations, area study programs, research undertakings, expanded student and public institutes of world affairs are only part of the picture. Over ten large universities have extensive area studies programs

which provide the student with the opportunity to learn as much as possible about a limited area. Much research in international relations is already under weigh in colleges and universities. During the year 1952, 718 papers concerned with international affairs were in preparation in 80 American institutions of higher learning. With the growing public interest in foreign affairs, and the heavy demands for expert personnel, many institutions have established special graduate programs or separate schools and institutes specializing in international relations. The number of private and public institutes and foundations concerned with international affairs has also been increasing. As of 1952, 25 such institutions were publishing 157 books and periodicals (12). Here again, the influence of foundations upon the development of research in international relations is made clear by the large number of studies carried on in institutions enjoying foundation support. It is also the general feeling in the US that educational institutions must take the lead in helping the citizen to analyze and evaluate today's events in the light of the past and the basic trends of the present. In recent years some universities have

started to sponsor summer seminars on international relations. These may last from a week to a month and offer the interested adult the opportunity to study and discuss specialized topics in the field of international affairs. The presence of more and more US citizens in every area of international life has become a permanent reality as has their desire to be informed about matters of international significance. This growing interest has inspired the creation of regional adult study centers for education in world affairs such as the Minnesota World Affairs Center and other similar units on university campuses throughout the country. (The Ford Foundation has recently made a very large grant for the establishment of adult study centers whose programs would include study and discussion of international topics).

The United States (and the United Kingdom to some extent) has unquestionably set the example in this field. Even France and Belgium, countries very much involved in international life, offer almost nothing along the above-expressed lines in their universities. They have however "instituted" devoted to these studies.

That the United States has come a long way along the road to international consciousness and cooperation is no longer open to question. Its more or less erratic participation during the first half of this century is now history; the past ten years have been witness to a remarkable growth in both the quality and quantity of

America's cooperation with her world neighbors. The United States has at last abandoned its limited role in international affairs and has embarked upon the most brilliant phase of its international career.

- 1) Jordan, David Staar. «Ce que l'Amérique peut enseigner à l'Europe». In: La Vie Internationale (Brussels), Office Central des Associations Internationales, tome IV, No. 1, Fasc. 15, 1913, pp. 5-25 (Translation).
- 2) World Anti-Slavery Convention, London, 1840.
- 3) Compte rendu de l'Assemblée Constitutive du Conseil International de Recherches, Bruxelles, 1919, pp. 46-47.
- 4) La Vie Internationale, tome II, 1912. Fasc. 8, pp. 433-4.
- 5) Thèse figures are based on an analysis of data found in the 1951-52 and 1954-1955 editions of the « "Yearbook of International Organizations " », published by the UIA.
- 6) Figures for 1950-54 are taken from " International Associations ", vol. VII, No. 6, p. 376.
- 7) "NGO Bulletin", vol. IV, No. 8, pp. 213-219. The survey concerning the same situation for 1954 is in the process of being completed.
- 8) Tew, E.S. «Who's who in International Organizations ». In : International Associations », vol. VII, No. 2, pp. 87-89.
- 9) Goormaghtigh, M. The example of American Foundations. Report made to Special Meeting of the Committee on Cultural and Scientific Questions. Council of Europe. Strasbourg, 1955.
- 10) Kirk, Grayson. The Study of International Relations. New York, Council of Foreign Relations, 1947, p. 3.
- 11) Symonds, Farrell. Courses on International Affairs in American Colleges, 1930-31. Boston, World Peace Foundation, 1931.
- 12) Current Research in International Affairs. New York, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1952.



American students hold a model UN Assembly. Experience gained at such assemblies helps young people to understand how the UN functions.

American people ta peaples around the world

by

Mildred F. GRAHAM

*Director
Bureau of Information*

Julie d'ESTOURNELLES

Secretary

Conference Group of US. National Organizations on the United Nations.

PPRIVATE organizations in the United States seem to reflect every interest group and shade of opinion. During the last hundred years, these organizations have come to play an increasingly significant role in all phases of

American life. Just as World War I stimulated a growth in American interest to international affairs, so did World War II and the establishment of the United Nations lead to even greater participation by American groups in **the promo-**

tion of international cooperation. Today there are an estimated 5,000 American organizations concerned with world affairs (1).

The majority of these groups are engaged in a wide range of activities which generally include educational, welfare, international friendship and exchange programs, as well as efforts to promote moral principles. A cross-section of these organizations has been chosen in an effort to survey the work of American groups in these fields in brief but meaningful fashion (2). This cross-section comprises the 65 member organizations of the Conference Group of U. S. National Organizations on the United Nations (a clearing house of national organizations with active international affairs programs).

This article does not pretend to present a comprehensive picture of the work of this cross-section. Rather it sets out to depict various types of programs in these fields and to indicate general trends in the work of American non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (3).



Thirty-one boys and girls, members of 4-H clubs in 22 states of United States, prepare to leave New York City for Europe. All of the 15 girls and 16 boys, ranging in age from 18 to 23, come from farms and will live with farm families in the countries to which they have been assigned. While the principal purpose of the project is to gain a better understanding of the people of Europe and to promote understanding of the United States abroad many of the youths will study agricultural methods in Europe. Four-H clubs are non-governmental.

Educational Activities

Broadly speaking almost every American NGO activity may be considered educational in nature. However, this section deals with main efforts to promote international cooperation and exchange and with specific types of educational programs to promote international understanding among Americans.

The National Education Association of the United States (an organization of American teachers) is dedicated to the promotion of international cooperation through education. Known as the NEA, this organization was one of the several American groups present at the San Francisco Conference in 1945 which has been given credit for recognition of education's role in international cooperation in the United Nations Charter. Along with religious groups and other major educational groups — such as the American Association of University Women and the Institute of International Education — the NEA joined in cooperative efforts in 1946 to provide educational relief and rehabilitation to war-devastated areas. Similarly, these groups participated in a joint effort in 1949 to bring together educators from Europe and Asia in the United States to study educational programs. A group of these educational organizations further work toward the formulation of policies to improve international cooperation in education through a joint advisory committee with the U. S. Government. And the support by a broadly constituted group of over 100 American organizations for Unesco's Work is implemented through NGO representatives designated to the U. S. National Commission for Unesco. On the international level, the NEA cooperates with the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession in efforts to overcome the world-wide shortage of teachers.

The Institute of International Education is a major organization in the educational exchange field. Established in 1919 as a clearing house of information on study abroad, the HE has continued this function and in 1947 undertook the administration of graduate applications for U.S. Government Fulbright scholarships. Following a decade of rapid growth in exchangees between countries, the HE now administers arrangements for about 4,000 Fulbright graduate students yearly. During the post-war period, HE pro-

grams have also included : administration of Unesco reconstruction and special fellowships in the United States; administration of Army re-orientation programs between the occupied areas and the United States; the establishment of an independent group to guide educational exchange groups in their policies and programs; special exchange projects for " young diplomats ", for specialists and foreign government leaders; a census of Americans in institutions of higher education overseas; and the publication of guides on educational exchange programs. Since their beginnings, groups such as the American Association of University Women, American Friends Service Committee, General Federation of Women's Clubs, National Catholic Welfare Conference, National Council of Jewish Women, National Education Association and National Social Welfare Assembly have been concerned with educational exchangees. The work of the American Friends Service Committee, and more recently of the NEA, has dealt with elementary and secondary school interchanges between countries. Like the HE, these groups are giving increasing attention to evaluating exchange experiences.

With the growth of international travel and the increased interdependency of nations, private educational exchange programs have proliferated in the last ten years and more organizations are expressing support for U. S. Government programs of educational exchange. A more recent trend seems to be the relating of educational exchange to technical assistance programs and the economic and social development of under-developed areas.

While American NGOs have become more closely concerned since 1945 with educational exchange and cooperation, the interdependence of nations, the work of the United Nations and Unesco, the Korean war and present-day tensions, have led to an intensification of American efforts to promote further understanding in the United States about the world.

All NGOs in this survey have active and ongoing educational programs usually covering the whole gamut of international affairs. Certain aspects of the international field, however, have been given special attention : United Nations, the political, social and economic development of under-developed areas, trade, " atoms-for-peace ", human rights, disarmament and the

international control of atomic and nuclear weapons, and the role of the United States in world affairs. These NGO educational programs are hard to categorize fairly or depict briefly, because they are framed to meet specific purposes and audiences, because they utilize a wide-range of informational techniques (such as conferences, contests, films, workshops, radio and television programs, exhibits and publications). In broad outlines, however, the world affairs educational work of these NGOs may be classified as follows : 1) research programs for experts and scholars in the field; 2) popular mass-membership or community educational programs; and 3) action programs.

Of the 65 members organizations in the Conference Group, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace and the World Peace Foundation are the principal research groups. Following World War I, the Endowment published materials focusing on international law and the pacific settlement of disputes; whereas, the Foundation in the period between World Wars I and II dealt principally with League of Nations studies. Since 1945, both the Endowment and the Foundation have focused on the United Nations, its specialized agencies and inter-governmental organizations.

The recent work of the Foreign Policy Association illustrates a new emphasis since 1945



A member of the American League of Women raters « explaining how to operate a voting machine. The League is an active civic group which tries to influence foreign policy.

upon popular world affairs education programs through community efforts. Through its 60 local associations and World Affairs Councils, FPA sets out to promote citizen understanding of international affairs and participation in the formulation of U. S. foreign policy. FPA nationally has developed pamphlet, programming, film and speaker advisory services for these groups; maintains the national office of 600 college International Relations Clubs; holds annual conferences for community-centered organizations to improve the effectiveness of educational programs; and makes community awards for significant contributions to citizen education in world affairs. In cooperation with FPA, the U.S. Committee for the United Nations — a quasi-official organization, made up of over 100 national organizations, whose purpose is the celebration of UN Day and the year-round distribution of materials about the UN — has developed training courses to help local leaders organize community groups in these celebrations. The Church Peace Union, an inter-faith group, also emphasizes leadership training in communities when it assists local groups in organizing local, state and regional workshops on the United Nations.

The intensification in popular world affairs education programs for Americans as a whole is further marked by the work of membership organizations. These constitute 38 out of 65 organizations under review. The American Association for the United Nations assists high schools and colleges in model UN sessions; holds annual high school contests; provides in-service training courses for teachers; publishes varied materials about the UN; and until 1955 administered the guided tours and the public correspondence unit at United Nations Headquarters in New York (4). By the summer of 1954, over a million people had taken this guided tour.

In conjunction with its 1954 convention, the NEA broke every record for mass meetings at the UN; sent out 268 stories about the UN and 148 pictures to "grass roots" newspapers with a total circulation of 9 million; arranged for a full-scale exhibit of world affairs and United Nations pamphlets; and in 1954 distributed over two-and-a-half million copies of the popular publication, "Box Score on the United Nations".

A large number of these membership organizations have action programs and take positions on major foreign policy issues. The League of Women Voters of the U. S., for example, has arranged mock Congressional hearings on trade issues and on economic development; conducted community surveys on the effects of world trade on local areas in the United States; has testified regularly before Congressional Committees on U. S. foreign policy issues along lines formulated by the entire membership of the League of Women Voters. Business groups such as the National Association of Manufacturers and the Chamber of Commerce of the U. S.; labor groups like the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations; the American Veterans Committee; the Farmers Educational and Cooperative Union of America; the American Jewish Committee, United World Federalists; the National Council of Churches of Christ in the U.S.A.; and many more representing diverse interests testify in this manner before Congress and use a variety of ways to indicate citizen opinions on U.S. foreign policy to U. S.

Government agencies.

The interests of American NGOs seem to have been fairly well centered upon the United Nations in the last five years. Government use of NGO representatives in post-war planning, the establishment of the United Nations and the extension of its work to cover almost any sphere of human activity, attacks upon the UN and Unesco in 1952 and 1953 by a few extremist groups, and the representation of practically all the NGOs under survey at the United Nations (either, directly or through international organizations to which they are affiliated) and at the U. S. Mission to the UN seems to indicate some of the reasons for American NGO focus on UN affairs. More recently, however, NGO emphasis on the United States role in the world is becoming apparent. There is evidence also of more studies on such broad problems as collective security, economic development, and self-determination.

Welfare

The work of the National Social Welfare Assembly exemplifies the social welfare services of American NGOs. Six years ago, about 70 organizations banded together and formed this central



Save the Children Federation sends relief to children overseas.

planning agency to further the social welfare of all people through a three-fold partnership of government and voluntary, national and local, lay and professional interests. Comprised of organizations with long international service, the Assembly has concentrated American interests in social welfare developments throughout the world. The Assembly has assisted the U. S. Government in the formulation of social policy ; consulted with and advised the UN on technical studies; held conferences to further planning and coordination of social welfare services; collected and published information about international social welfare issues; and assisted in the international exchange of social work personnel. Outstanding achievements of the Assembly include : a proposal in 1945 leading to the establishment of the UN Social Commission along certain lines of endeavor; and the Assembly's administration in cooperation with the American Military Government in Germany and the Rockefeller Foundation) of an exchange project

which brought several hundred German youth and welfare leaders to the United States after the war to observe youth-servicing work and other community services. The Assembly continues to work along these lines.

The majority of the 47 NGOs within the Conference Group, which were established between 1843 and 1930, initiated relief services either during World War I or within its post-war period. World War II, the Korean war and the provision by the U. S. Government of surpluses for distribution by voluntary agencies have led to another acceleration in American relief activities during the last ten years. This work may be characterized by : 1) statistics on the bulk and distribution of relief shipments; 2) the cooperation of these NGOs with official agencies; and 3) special projects designed to encourage individual participation in relief work.

If Americans are looking for special relief projects, they may choose, for example, " Friendship Boxes " and " Friendship Knits " sponsored by the American Women's Voluntary Services. Or they may lend support to the National Catholic Welfare Conference's " Adopt-A-Family " plan or " Operation Milky Way " for the distribution of Government surplus milk to 18 of the neediest countries overseas. Again they may choose to contribute to the National Council of Jewish Women's program to " Ship-A-Box " to children in resettlement centers and needy communities in 6 countries abroad. Their children may, as Girl Scouts, make gift layettes for distribution through UNICEF to children in Latin America, or, on Halloween eve ring doorbells asking in traditional fashion : " Trick or Treat ". This time the " Treat " would be for children across the world. A teacher may contribute \$ 20 to the Overseas Teacher Fund of the National Education Association, thereby increasing a Korean teacher's annual salary by 20%. In church observances, the American may also contribute funds in " One Great Hour of Sharing " for relief shipments through the National Council of Churches of Christ of the U.S.A. These are only a few of the countless programs in which American are free to participate.

The bulk and distribution of relief shipments is another indication of the work of American NGOs. From 1954-1955, American Friends Service Committee shipped 802% tons of supplies overseas (valued at \$ 2,473,903) : 16% of which went

to Korea and Germany, the remainder to Austria, France, Italy, Japan and the Near East. By the end of 1954, the NEA's Overseas Teacher Fund exceeded \$ 100,000 in voluntary contributions. Believing Korean relief to be the neediest, Save the Children Federation sent from 1951-1955 2,300,000 lbs of clothing to Korean children. In 1955, the Federation's child sponsorship program extended services to Yugoslavia, Israel, Finland, Greece, Germany, Lebanon and Korea. The National Catholic Welfare Conference, the National Council of Churches of Christ in the U.S.A., and the United Synagogue in America (5) are the major private American distributors today of relief materials. In 1953, these three organizations distributed 87 % (or 155 lbs.) of all government surplus commodities released by the U. S. Government. Between 1943 and 1954, the National Catholic Welfare Conference shipped through its Catholic Relief Services a total of \$ 327,835,204 in material aid to Korea, Hong Kong, the Near and Middle East and Western Europe. Between 1946 and 1956, the National Council of Churches has distributed through Church World Services a total of \$ 87,896,949 in material aid to approximately 26 countries (7).

American organizations, actively engaged in relief and technical assistance activities, serve on the U. S. Government's advisory committee of voluntary agencies for foreign services. Of the organizations under survey, 5 belong to this committee. Organizations are also assisted in their relief activities by the U. S. Information Agency. Some American NGOs cooperate also through their international counterpart organizations in relief and technical assistance projects under the auspices of the United Nations and its specialized agencies. The American Friends Service Committee, however, was directly responsible for the administration of UN relief from 1948-1950 to 200,000 Arab refugees in the Gaza strip.

Although large-scale relief shipments continue to needy and war-devastated areas outside the United States, the recent trend among the American NGOs under review is away from relief services to technical assistance programs. The American Friends Service Committee is one of the leaders in this field. Each summer, the Committee sends out voluntary service units of youth to assist in long-range social and technical assistance programs in Mexico and El Salvador:

administers under the U. S. Government contract 2 multi-purpose village participation projects in rural India; handles an educational program for Arab farmers in conjunction with the Israeli Ministry; contributes to the financial support of the National Union for the Struggle Against Illiteracy in southern Italy; has sent a team of medical personnel to Korea to assist in the rehabilitation of technical services in a provincial hospital; and utilizes its 12 international neighborhood centers located in 9 countries for training and community development purposes.

Technical assistance projects by a variety of the groups under review include : a \$ 50,000 grant from the William Green Memorial Fund of the American Federation of Labor to the International Labour Organisation to provide equipment for the vocational training centers for Indians in Bolivia and Peru; the Congress of Industrial Organization's provision of tool kits for organizing free trade unions abroad; the agreement between the Institute of International Education, Harvard University and the Government of Pakistan to administer an overall economic development project; a community self-help project between Save the Children Federation and UNKRA for youth in Korea ; the sponsorship by the National Council of Churches of Christ in the USA of Korea's first private radio station; and the adoption by the General Federation of Women's Clubs of an American organization with community extension programs in various parts of the world, known as World Neighbors. Recently, the National Council of Jewish Women has set up a Volunteer Leadership Training Program for Jewish women around the world to study voluntary welfare services in the United States. This program complements the Council's nine-year old Overseas Scholarship Program through which 107 social welfare professionals from 15 countries take a year of advanced study in the United States.

International Friendship Programs and Inter-Cultural Relations

American NGOs in this study carry out inter-cultural and international friendship programs in a multitude of ways. The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Foreign Policy Association, the Woodrow Wilson Foundation



Delegates from thirty countries who attended the New York Herald Tribune Forum visiting with President Eisenhower. The Forum, which brings together students from all parts of the world to discuss topics of international interest, is a regular activity of the New York Herald Tribune.

and the World Peace Foundation have cooperated in a conference for leaders of Institutes of World Affairs in 20 countries. The Carnegie Endowment International Center serves as a meeting place for peoples from all countries and in all walks of life. The National Education Association has given complimentary memberships to exchange teachers. The U. S. Committee for UNICEF and Save the Children Federation cooperated in a Christmas doll contest for children abroad. Groups such as the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs extend hospitality to members of the International Federation of Business and Professional Women arriving in this country. The Chamber of Commerce of the U. S. has held a conference for Canadian and American leaders in various organizations. The Girl Scouts award proficiency badges in international friendship and promote interchanges of Scouts in different countries. The Congress of Industrial Organizations has sent union members on three weeks' "life-seeing" tours of Scandinavia. And the National Association of Manufacturers placed Dutch workmen in jobs in this country for three months so that they might learn about the "free-enterprise" system of the United States. Town Hall has recently sponsored two "Town Hall Missions" bringing educators, editors and political leaders from various parts of

the world to meet with private groups during an extensive tour through the United States. American Friends Service Committee representatives participated in the Quaker "goodwill mission" to the Soviet Union last November and the National Council of Churches of Christ in the U.S.A. is planning a similar mission to the USSR shortly.

An unusual, but effective, international friendship program is the Common Council for American Unity's work to speak truth about American life and to promote democracy and international understanding between people in the United States and the countries of foreign-born Americans. In 1950, the Council established an annual "Letters from America" campaign urging the approximately 35 million immigrants and foreign-born Americans to write their friends and relatives abroad about America and the relationships between the United States and their countries of origin. Letters Abroad of the National Council of Women matches requests here and abroad for foreign correspondents: in 1954 Letters Abroad serviced 30,000 such requests.

Efforts to Promote Moral Principles

All of the groups under survey have been concerned in one way or another with the pro-

motion of certain moral principles and standards in international affairs. However, church and temple related groups have generally given closest attention to the formulation and promotion of such principles and standards. The Commission of Churches in International Affairs serves as a notable example of this type of work.

American NGOs within this survey have given particular emphasis to the promotion of human rights and fundamental freedoms. Their efforts at the San Francisco Conference in 1945 for the early establishment of machinery within the United Nations to carry out a human rights program were perhaps instrumental in the establishment of this machinery in 1946. Groups including the American Civil Liberties Union, American Jewish Committee, American Jewish Congress, American Friends Service Committee, B'nai B'rith, Commission of Churches in International Affairs, Hadassah, National Council of Churches of Christ in the U.S.A. and the National Catholic Welfare Conference have stood staunchly behind world-wide efforts to establish declarations and international conventions in the human rights field. Indeed, such groups as these have often stood at the helm of such efforts.

Of the 65 groups under survey, the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs gives almost its entire efforts in the international field to the promotion of the status of women. The American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations are closely concerned with trade-union rights. Both the AFL and the CIO, as well as the National Association of Manufacturers and the Chamber of Commerce of the U.S.A. have worked closely through business and labor representatives in the International Labour Organisation in the formulation of conventions and recommendations establishing labor standards. Groups such as the United World Federalists have worked in behalf of world government. And groups like the National Conference of Christians and Jews have sought a world brotherhood of man.

Summary Evaluation

As a brief survey of American NGOs' work in world affairs, this article has described various types of private activities in the field of education, welfare and inter-cultural relations. This

survey has pointed out that the international affairs activities of American NGOs have proliferated in all these fields since 1945. It has demonstrated how relief and educational activities are tending to be incorporated into technical assistance programs. In world affairs education in this country, emphases have been noted on United Nations and broadly phrased problems designed to indicate United States responsibility in the world today. Further, American NGO's work has focused more and more on people-to-people understanding of international affairs. Related to this is NGOs greater attention to problems of community and mass education in world affairs.

Because there is a duplication of effort among organizations in their various programs; because these organizations, for the most part financed by membership dues and contributions and by private foundation grants, have small budgets; and because there is an intense interest among American NGOs to help promote international cooperation, there has been a major trend in the last ten years among these NGOs to cooperate together in similar international affairs programs.

- 1) This estimate is based on a file of organizations maintained by the Bureau of Information, Conference Group of US National Organizations on the United Nations.
- 2) A rough statistical survey of this cross-section in relation to 434 organizations actively concerned with international affairs indicates a close correlation between them in terms of interests and activities. This survey is based primarily on the findings of *US Citizens in World Affairs : A Directory of Non-Governmental Organizations*, Katharine C. Garrigue, New York, Foreign Policy Association, 1953, 389 pp-
- 3) This article is based primarily on the reports and information bulletins of member organizations and upon summaries of their activities published in the Conference Group's *News Bulletin* during the period, 1952-1956.
- 4) These guided tours are now under UN Administration.
- 5) The United Synagogue is not a member organization of the Conference Group but many Conference Group members work closely with the United Synagogue.
- 6) Government surpluses are also distributed by CARE and 8 non-sectarian groups.
- 7) The Council's relief shipments through Church World Services were initiated in 1946.

The United States Government, Non-Governmental Organizations and the United Nations

by Walter M. KOTSCHNIG

Director

*Office of International Economic and Social Affairs, Department of State,
Washington, D. C.*

AS demonstrated in other contributions to this special issue, non-governmental organizations occupy an important place in American life. They reflect two basic American traits. The first is the reliance on the individual and his initiative which springs from an abiding faith in the worth and dignity of the human person. Americans refuse to be machined and ruled from above by some impersonal government or some self-appointed ruler. Where problems or needs are too great and too complex to be solved by the individual himself, he seeks solutions in voluntary association with others. The advances made in the United States in health, welfare, education, in community development and the growth of free political institutions, from the local town hall meeting to the Federal Government, can almost invariably be traced to the enlightened efforts of individual citizens bound together in a common purpose.

This first trait is reinforced by a second: the desire to belong, to be part of an organic group with common interests and aspirations. Unfriendly critics have described Americans as a nation of "joiners", afraid of being alone, always eager to be with the "crowd". This observation overlooks the innate neighborliness of the average American, his sense of responsibility for others, his desire to serve.

Both these traits could easily be traced to the early religious origins of the American people, who believed that human beings were made in the image of God and responsible for each other as children of God; to the frontier experience, with all its rugged individualism combined with a determination to defend the community in the hour of adversity; and to the political history of the United States where individuals from many parts of the world sought freedom within the framework of freely established institutions. What is important for our present purposes is the fact that the large-scale industrialization and urbanization so characteristic of contemporary America have not destroyed these basic traits although they may have transformed them. Innumerable small local groups have grown into regional and nationwide associations operating in every area of human endeavor. Personal relations from individual to individual may have become weakened, but individual initiative continues at a premium, and organizations which may have millions of members continue to seek their strength at the "grass roots" and not in centralized authority.

Many of these organizations, particularly church and educational groups, have a long record of work abroad. In recent decades, and more particularly since the second world war, an ever growing number of American NGOs

have extended their contacts with other lands. As they growingly recognized the impact of world affairs upon their own destiny or were filled with a desire to promote their own ideas and ideals, they founded or joined hundreds of international organizations. Their objectives have become worldwide, but their work continues to be based on individual effort made effective in voluntary association with others.

A grasp of these American characteristics is essential to an understanding of American NGOs in the shaping of United States policies at home and abroad. It also helps one to understand the positive attitude of the people and the government of the United States to national and international NGOs, both in general and in their relations to the United Nations.

Upon invitation of the American government and on their own initiative, private individuals and NGOs assisted constructively in the drafting of the UN Charter. The results of the inquiries and proposals made by such organizations as the non-governmental Commission to Study the Organization of Peace were fully taken into account as the United States government laid its own plans for the establishment of post-war international organizations, and members of that Commission and other private individuals served on advisory groups set up by the Administration. The Dumbarton Oaks proposals were distributed in hundreds of thousands of copies and there ensued throughout the length and breadth of the country a great public debate of these proposals. Government teams went all over the country to discuss the proposals with citizen groups in communities big and small and to obtain their advice. Hundreds of suggestions for improvements were offered to the government by experts and amateurs, by leaders of powerful organizations and ordinary citizens, by soldiers, preachers, housewives, teachers and war workers.

The United States government was not satisfied to provide its delegation to the San Francisco Conference with the distillation of all these proposals. It invited to San Francisco two consultants each from forty-two major national organizations to assist the American delegation in its work as it settled down to the drafting of the Charter. These organizations represented more than forty million American citizens. In

addition, some two hundred other organizations sent their leaders to San Francisco, where almost daily consultations were held between the representatives of all these NGOs and the United States delegation. Many oral and written proposals submitted by these organizations were given the most careful consideration in meetings of the American delegation. The extent to which these proposals actually influenced the drafting of the Charter was cogently set forth by O. Frederick Nolde in his recent article on "American NGOs and the UN Charter", which appeared in the September 1955 issue of this publication.

In the light of all this, it is not surprising that it was the United States delegation which put forward the proposal that organic relationships be established between NGOs and the United Nations, a proposal which resulted in the inclusion in the Charter of Article 71. This Article provides possibilities for close cooperation between the UN and NGOs on a broad and comprehensive basis, as contrasted with the impetuous demands made by the World Federation of Trade Unions in San Francisco for a position of special privilege. The Article itself, as well as its history, gives substance to the Preamble to the San Francisco Charter which proclaims that " We the peoples of the United Nations... have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims ".

Prompted by the same positive approach to and an appreciation of the potential contributions of NGOs, the United States government took a most active part in the elaboration of more detailed working arrangements for the fullest possible implementation of Article 71. Its chief pre-occupation was that relationships should be firmly built and of such a nature as to permit productive consultations and cooperation between the NGOs and the Economic and Social Council and its subsidiary bodies. To this end the United States insisted on the careful elaboration of criteria of eligibility in order to make sure that the NGOs brought into relationship with the UN had a real contribution to make, i.e. that they had a real interest and expert knowledge in matters falling within the competence of the Economic and Social Council. In agreement with other members of that Council, the United States also felt that the aims and purposes of all NGOs granted consultative status should be in conformity with the spirit, purposes

and principles of the Charter of the UN and that the organizations should be willing to support the work of the UN and to promote knowledge of its principles and activities. Later on, the United States saw itself constrained, in application of this principle, to advocate the withdrawal of consultative status from a few organizations which, far from supporting the United Nations, launched vicious attacks on its actions in Korea and poured scorn upon many of its economic and social activities. It will be remembered that this United States position met with large majority support in the Economic and Social Council.

In approving organizations for consultative status, the United States, contrary to the views held by some other governments, not infrequently favored smaller organizations with real expert knowledge from which the Council might benefit, rather than mass organizations more interested in political gain and their own advancement. It goes without saying that mass organizations truly representative of wide sections of labor, management and business, farmers and consumers, always met with United States support, provided they had expert knowledge and constructive economic and social views which they were willing to make available to the United Nations.

As early as San Francisco the issue arose whether not only international but also national organizations should be brought into relationship with the United Nations under Article 71. The United States strongly supported the inclusion of national organizations, provided they covered a field not fully covered by existing international organizations or that they had special experience upon which the Council wished to draw. On the basis of the agreement reached on that point, status could only be granted to national organizations with the endorsement of the government concerned. This last provision put a heavy responsibility upon the U.S. government since there were potentially hundreds of American organizations which might have sought consultative status. Actually, scores of them did. The United States government, however, true to the principles which it had helped to establish, was most sparing in supporting such applications. Everyone of the five American organizations which were endorsed by the American government over the years

demonstratively had a unique contribution to make to the work of the United Nations in the economic and social fields. Great credit is due to other American organizations which did not press their applications, but were satisfied to remain loyal supporters of the United Nations and its objectives without enjoying any special privileges. It should be added at this point, that special arrangements have been made within the United States government for continuous consultations with all these organizations in the form of special conferences and briefings held in Washington, at the seat of the United Nations, or wherever meetings of the Economic and Social Council or its subsidiary bodies are being held. Thus the formulation of United States policies in the United Nations continues to benefit from the help and advice of NGOs. In the case of national organizations in other countries, the United States welcomed with particular interest the admission of organizations from those parts of the world where there are few non-governmental organizations in existence. In its stand the United States was prompted by its recognition of the importance of freely constituted NGOs in the development of the democratic process.

In sharing in the attempts of the Economic and Social Council to define the privileges to be enjoyed by the NGOs, the United States has consistently taken the view that it would not be proper to accord NGOs functions within the United Nations which properly belong to governments. It therefore opposed all moves to grant NGOs the right to full participation without vote in the work of the Council and its commissions. It also opposed such other extremist propositions as that put forward by the WFTU that NGOs be given the right to convoke special sessions of the Council. The acceptance of such proposals would have completely changed the character of such intergovernmental bodies as the Economic and Social Council and would have prolonged discussion of that body to the point of complete paralysis.

By contrast, the United States favored the acceptance and consideration of written and oral presentations on the part of NGOs as long as such presentations pertained to matters before the Council or to economic, social, human rights and other issues clearly within its competence. Urged by such organizations as the American

Federation of Labor, which at that time enjoyed consultative status with the Economic and Social Council, the United States also favored the right of organizations with consultative status in Category A to put items on the provisional agenda of the Council. When it appeared at a later stage that this privilege might be abused, the United States supported provisions under which it is left to the Council NGO Committee to decide whether an item proposed by an NGO should find its place on the provisional agenda. This limitation of the application of the "agenda privilege" was deemed necessary in order to save the time of the Council and to make certain that only such items would be included in the agenda as would lend themselves to early and constructive action by the Council, and for which adequate documentation was available. Finally, the United States, inside the Economic and Social Council and outside it, promoted the closest possible cooperation between the Secretariat of the United Nations and the NGOs. It was felt that consultation and cooperation with the Secretariat, where most of the basic documents and studies of the United Nations are prepared, would offer the NGOs very real opportunities of making their views and expert knowledge available to the United Nations. In many cases, the United States favored the "farming out" of entire studies and reports to NGOs. Thus, it was among the first to urge that the publication of a handbook of international organizations should be left to the Union of International Associations in Brussels rather than be undertaken by the United Nations Secretariat. The admirable yearbooks published by the Union fully bear out the soundness of this position.

As anticipated by the United States, actual consultations and cooperation between the United Nations and the NGOs have substantially contributed to the achievement of the objectives of the United Nations. Many of the NGOs have made substantial contributions to the work of the United Nations and have given impetus and strength to many of its efforts. This is true particularly in the fields of human rights, of social welfare and defense, of assistance to refugees and of transport and communications. Numerous organizations cooperated actively in the drafting of the Declaration of Human Rights and the two proposed Covenants. They have provided the

Commission on the Status of Women with many helpful suggestions and a great deal of information. Organizations representing the mass media have given substance and perspective to discussions of freedom of information. In the social field, the progress made in the promotion of social welfare services and training owes much to the unstinting support of NGOs in this area. The small but effective United Nations program for the rehabilitation of the handicapped is to a large extent carried on with the help of NGOs. Some of the basic studies regarding the prevention of crime and the rehabilitation of offenders drew heavily on the experience of NGOs devoted to these causes. In the work on behalf of refugees and of immigrants, NGOs frequently assumed operating functions with the help of United Nations funds and proved that they could make a dollar go further than any strictly governmental body. The work of the Economic Commission for Europe aimed at the rehabilitation and development of transport in Europe after the war, could not have been undertaken as expeditiously and effectively without the active cooperation of non-governmental European transport organizations. In the economic field such organizations as the International Chamber of Commerce and some of the more highly specialized organizations in the field of finance have made helpful proposals and provided a good deal of basic research materials.

Equally significant is the contribution which NGOs have made to the creation of a climate favorable to the United Nations. In the United States they have done an altogether outstanding job in making known to the American people the objectives, policies, plans and activities of the United Nations and have thus helped to undergird United States support for the United Nations. In a country where the government is fully responsive to the wishes and aspirations of its citizens, this is a matter of transcending importance. There is a direct correlation between the interest of American NGOs in such United Nations progress as the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance or UNICEF and the massive aid given these programs by the American Congress.

There is a reverse side to this medal. The United States is concerned over the fact that certain organizations, including organizations in Category A which enjoy special privileges, have

tended to abuse their privileges. A small percentage of them, having gained consultative status, are satisfied to mention on their letterheads that they have such status. More serious are the continuous attempts of an even smaller number of organizations to use the consultative arrangements for purposes of self-aggrandisement. They appear more interested in obtaining ever new privileges for themselves than in the attainment of the objectives of the United Nations. In some cases, there is legitimate doubt whether they can be considered to be truly non-governmental. In their interventions and activities they follow invariably and without the slightest deviation the policies and views of certain governments and only waste the time of the United Nations by endless repetitions of statements made by representatives of these governments. In the view of every democratic country, such as the United States, used to and welcoming differences of opinion and criticism on the part of its citizens and its organizations, this is a complete perversion of the essence and purpose of NGOs and their relationship with the United Nations.

Criticism might also be levelled at the way in which some of the consultative arrangements are being implemented by the Economic and Social Council. Hearings by the Council NGO Committee of the views of the NGOs under Rules 84 and 85 of the Rules of Procedure are frequently perfunctory and must be frustrating to the NGOs concerned. The fault for this weakness lies in the first place with the governments serving on the Council and its NGO Committee. They make too little effort to be represented in these hearings

by experts who would be able and willing to enter into a real exchange of views with the organizations heard. This may in part be due to the fact, that few governments attach the same importance to NGOs and their potential contributions as does the United States. On the other hand, the seeming indifference of some governments is undoubtedly also due to the fact that frequently NGOs are content with putting forward pious declarations or statements barren of real substance and technical relevance to the work of the Council. It is to be hoped that as time goes on both sides will learn and gain in mutual understanding. This would certainly add depth and weight to the consultative process and enhance its importance for the work of the United Nations.

On balance, it would appear that the advantages of the system established under Article 71 of the Charter, and of other relationships with NGOs developed by the United Nations, by far outweigh the disadvantages. The United States is the first to recognize that many of these organizations made substantial contributions to the work of the United Nations and have helped to make that work known and appreciated throughout the world. What is more, the American people and their government consider that active cooperation of private citizens and their organizations in the formulation of policies and the day-to-day activities of the United Nations is essential to the achievement of the central purpose of the United Nations : the promotion, in greater freedom, of peace and the general welfare.



The American Association for the United Nations maintains a unit at UN Headquarters which, in cooperation with the UN Special Services Division, welcomes visitors, answers questions, gives public briefings and operates „ Cuided Tour Service. Guide Supervisor Andromache Geanacopoulos points to a scale model of the Secretary building, while briefing a group of visitors.



PRESSURE GROUPS

*Their influence on
American public life*

by

Josephine Mary BROWN

*Instructor in International Relations, Albertus Magnus College
New Haven, Connecticut*

and

James Robert BROWN

*Chairman, Introductory Course, Department of Government
Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut*



Essential to an understanding of the contemporary American political and social scene is a knowledge of the role which non-governmental organizations play in it. They enter into everyone's business life; a workman's standing in his union affects his job status as much as a lawyer's standing in his bar association affects his reputation and practice. Similarly membership in religious and cultural or service associations affect the standing of people in their communities.

How does this happen to be a characteristic of American society? In the first place we are a democracy with full civil liberties of communication, association and publication. Associations flourish in a democracy as the social nature of

men under these conditions reaches its full expression. This is probably the true basis for the phenomenon Tocqueville reports: "Americans of all ages, all conditions, and all dispositions continually form associations" (1). In the second place the organizational ability of the American is called into play by the felt needs of his continental living space. This large and populous land has developed one culture and the technology to maintain it. The easy accessibility of every section of the country by mail, automobile, railroad and plane, and the surplus wealth in the hands of the citizenry for the use of these facilities for self-improvement and enjoyment make for that mobility in which these associations flourish.

An actual census of these non-profit, voluntarily-joined organizations in the United States does not exist. The most inclusive estimate is one published in 1949 by the United States Department of Commerce :

Including locals and branch chapters, there are today 12,000 trade associations, 4,000 chambers of commerce, 70,000 labor unions, 100,000 women's organizations, and 15,000 civic service groups, luncheon clubs and similar organizations of business and professional men and women.

The four thousand organizations considered in some detail in this handbook are widely distributed in fields of manufacturers, of distributors and of other business types : professional and semi-professional associations, labor unions organizations of women, veteran and military societies, farmer's groups, negro organizations, fraternal, sports, recreation and religious associations, and societies of public officers (2).

There are many special studies as that of the Council on Foreign Relations whose handbook *American Agencies Interested in International Affairs* (3), supplies data on over 200 American non-governmental organizations which deal with international affairs.

The most interesting aspect of these groups and one which is now endemic to the American

scene is their political operation, i. e., their relation to the public, to parties and to government. Some people claim the United States today *has* government by pressure groups (4). There are two facets to this, one having to do with the organization of American government, the other with its present condition of operation.

The government of the American community is, as is well known, organized by the election of members to the central state legislatures and the national Congress from geographical single-member districts. This was intended to allow sectional interests representation. But American society is also organized into interest groups *not* geographically centered. There are not enough chiroprodists, polo players or district attorneys in one electoral district to form organizations of these respective callings that would be politically effective. There are enough of each in a state and certainly in the whole nation to form satisfactory organizations which can promote and protect the like interests of its members and afford opportunities of mutual contact and service. These organizations do form and want public hearing.

The operation of government and parties in this country increasingly has tended to let the public come in and demand things, rather than the government, parties or public men taking the initiative in supplying programs, services, reforms, etc. The purely *representative* function of legislators is increasingly stressed in American political thought and practice. Each Congressman should " reflect " his community, Congress should " reflect " the nation and organized groups claim to " reflect " public opinion and offer to supply their mirrors to elected officials. The other claimants to representation of public opinion are the press and media of mass communication. However, these are themselves often so influenced by pressure groups as to be simply another channel for their presentations.

How are these associations organized ?

They are membership organizations which may or may not be incorporated. Many are parent bodies which charter chapters. The larger ones follow the federal pattern. Local organizations establish relations through a state headquarters, most often at the state capital and then



Rural youth leaders from 10 countries assembled with leader from the United States farm regions at the twenty first National A-H Club Camp in June 1951. The meetings were held in Washington, D.C. and were sponsored by the U.S. Government. "*

these state federations affiliate with other state organizations to form a national association with headquarters in Washington, Chicago or New York, depending upon their major interest. Local and state chapters elect their own officers and manage their finances, the national office generally having a supervisory capacity. A constitution adopted by the organization settles questions of internal government.

The labor movement is thus federally organized for the most part. The Constitutional Convention of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations, held December, 1955, accredited 135 national and international unions, 93 state branches (state federations), 490 central bodies (city federations) and some locals. With a claimed membership of seven and one-half million and six million respectively the combined AFL-CIO is one of the largest of the non-governmental organizations and pressure groups (5). Several church groups are larger.)

On the other hand, some national associations are simply membership organizations of persons scattered throughout the country who join with individual memberships and maintain a national office and services for some interest they hold in common.

Some organizations combine these modes of construction as the American Bar Association which has a national membership both of individuals and bar associations and combines on its governing body, the House of Delegates, State and Local Bar Association representatives and State delegates elected by the ABA membership of each state. It thereby collaborates with, but does not control, local bar associations which tend to organize on a country-wide basis in the United States. While this association has only 58,000 members, this represents 24 % of the lawyers in the US (6).

These associations will have annual or biennial meetings or conventions at which officers are elected who run the organization between convention meetings. These meetings adopt resolutions on policy, that officers and headquarters can carry out. More prosperous associations may have a research staff, legal counsel and educational directors. These activities may be financed by membership dues, service charges, public appeals or other fund-raising drives, or by found-



A meeting of the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House of Representatives attended by Secretary of State John Foster Dulles. The work of committees and sub-committees is important in governing the nation.

ation grants. The Department of Commerce study previously mentioned gives these examples of organizations which maintain large staffs :

Chamber of Commerce of the United States (businessmen) founded 1912, staff 430; Association of American Railroads (transportation) founded 1891, staff 625 ; American Federation of Labor (workingmen) founded 1881, staff 340; American Automobile Association (car owners) founded 1902, staff 500-550 ; American Legion | veterans) founded 1919, staff 500; National Education Association (teachers) founded 1857, staff 340-360; National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs (women) founded 1919, staff 35-40; and the National Catholic Welfare Conference (religious) founded 1919, staff 100-120(7).

The federal form of organization is most favorable to widespread political activity by non-governmental organizations. Through such a structure they can bring pressure to bear on city, state or national officials and legislatures as needed.

Techniques of Pressure Groups

Pressure groups are special interest associations which want to influence government, but do not want to get control of government machin-

ery. They are quite different from political parties in this regard as American parties are interested primarily in getting control of local, state and national government through electing their party leaders to office. To this end the parties maintain an electoral machine or party committee in each of the 3,000 counties in the United States which appeals to the voter on the strength of a multiple issue platform.

The non-governmental organizations influence the political process by directing their activities to exactly those places in government where decisions are made which affect their interest. These include the parties themselves, the law-making bodies, administrative offices, the courts and channels of mass propaganda.

Party organizations rely on and seek the support of pressure groups, they are already organized voters and dealing with them is dealing in a " wholesale vote market ". Hence, in making up the party platforms, hearings are held at which these groups present their demands, and many of these will appear as " planks " in the state or national platforms. On controversial public questions, party organizations wait until all important pressure groups have spoken before taking a stand.

They are present in state and national party-campaign headquarters under such administrative divisions as : the labor committee, the small business committee, the veterans division, foreign language divisions, etc. These sections at headquarters are manned by personnel of the corresponding pressure groups, often at their own expense. If the candidate they support is successful, they have earned the right of entry to his office particularly if they have also contributed directly to the campaign. But this assistance is forthcoming only if there is the " right " candidate in primaries and elections, that is a candidate who will support the interest of the pressure group.

Pressure groups also attempt to influence elected officials through lobbyists maintained by them at Washington and the state capitals. These men seek to influence a legislature for the purpose of furthering the passage or defeat of a bill of interest to the pressure groups they represent. They are often attorneys, ex-Congressmen or ex-federal officials who " know their way " around the capitols and offices where they work.

A lobbyist operates by establishing many contacts with officials and legislators. At legislative committee hearings he speaks for his groups interest or marshalls outstanding persons in the community to do so. Frequently he furnishes Congressmen and state legislators with information which these busy lawmakers are glad to have. He brings pressures to bear " back home " by advising or directing a letter writing campaign or, by other types of communication, tries to overwhelm a single legislature, committee or both houses depending upon the need.

Different types of bills bring out different assortments of pressure groups. A hearing on the St. Lawrence Seaway Project attracted industrial associations, public utilities, unions and planning groups (8). The Palestine Refugee Program attracted associations of nationality groups from that area and representatives of religious organizations (9). Hearings on the revision of the United Nations Charter called forth patriotic societies, organizations interested in international relations, labor unions, religious organizations, bar associations, veterans and public affairs groups (10).

The executive is the most direct target for pressure. His power of approval of legislation, frequently required to be exercised only after public hearing, may result in a veto of legislation favored by pressure groups (11). The administrative officers of the government are also under pressure for the appointment of administrators favorable to the group interests of those coming in the purview of his bureau. Representatives of interests affected appear at public hearings where the adoption of regulations is under consideration. Interest groups also scrutinize personnel changes and dismissals within agencies of interest to them.

The courts are viewed by many pressure groups as deserving immunity from the ordinary-devices of pressure. However, as witnessed by the picket lines maintained in front of the Federal Court House in New York during a trial of Communist leaders, radical pressure groups have not hesitated to influence the judiciary. Some groups, as the American Civil Liberties Union, will intervene as " amicus curiae " filing a brief on behalf of a litigant whose cause they espouse in order to make a test case of some cause in which they are interested.



Present at the Conference of Non-Governmental Organizations held by the United Nations during the Ninth General Assembly Session are (from left to right) Rev. Robert E.L. Hardmond of the National Baptist Convention of the U.S.A., Inc., Dr. Josephine Pisani Brown of the National Association of Women Lawyers, Mrs. Eleonore T. Schurr, of the Young Republican National Confederation, Conrad Braun of the Friends World Committee for Consultation and Mrs. Stanley Woodward of the World Government Association.

(Photo Leo Rosenthal, New York)

Today this technique has gone so far that pressure groups will bring pressure to bear upon each other. A frequently used device to this end is the caucus. A number of groups will be called into conference on some subject of interest to them all. A genuine consensus will result and the group will lobby concertedly. Sometimes this technique is used by determined small groups to create a certain "climate of opinion" which intimidates the representatives of large organized groups into espousing positions their organizations actually do not support.

Most pressure groups disseminate a great deal of information for pressure purposes, utilizing television, radio, motion pictures, books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, posters and other media of communication. Thus they create and sustain public interest in their causes and lay the groundwork for their political work which must have the apparent support of public opinion.

This educational activity also keeps the organization membership informed as to government

activities of interest to them. Some of these groups are powerful channels for reaching a vocal and widespread group of community leaders. Thus, the American Legion conventions will be addressed by cabinet members and governors as well as by the President of the United States. Their three million members are influential male citizens of more than average civic consciousness (12).

The National Association of Manufacturers, Dayton McKean reports in his excellent study *Party and Pressure, Politics*, engages in a variety of informational activities. It spends over two million dollars a year in national advertising and publishes four periodicals with circulations averaging 30,000 each. The organization produced 816,000 copies of 45 pamphlets in a nine month period, and released motion pictures shown to 4,620 audiences. In a four year period he believes this organization will spend more for these purposes than any political party, and the material is technically superior to party propaganda (13).

It should be apparent that these non-political organizations are not non-partisan and in many instances are not non-political. Labor unions freely back party candidates for office who are responsive to their demands. For instance, in 1952 the CIO officially backed Adlai Stevenson, the democratic candidate for President. This is in line with Samuel Gompers advice to labor to "reward its friends and punish its enemies" at the polls.

Some will not speak on candidates but will bring their political weight to bear on issues. The National Council of the Churches of Christ in the United States representing about 30 Christian churches "offers a means of approach to agencies governmental and civil in matters of justice and good will" (14). The National Council of Catholic Men takes this position: "The NCCM does not endorse particular persons for political office or comment on purely political issues. It has never hesitated, however, to speak out vigorously and clearly on any issue in which moral principles are involved" (15).

Legal Controls

There is no over-all regulation of non-governmental organizations in the United States. Most of these associations are membership organi-

zations which may or may not be incorporated under state laws. Even if incorporated, state supervision of the non-profit making corporations is loose. If they are unincorporated they are subject to such general laws as may apply such as postal regulations, statutes prohibiting frauds, etc.

As is generally known, labor unions, which by and large are unincorporated, do come under some regulation under the Taft-Hartley federal labor law and state labor laws. Church societies also are specially governed by the religious corporation laws of the states. Some few of these groups are specifically recognized by public bodies, as the American Legion was chartered by Congress.

In short, if the purpose of the organization is not criminal there is no legal bar to its organization and operation. In fact, even the approximately 600 organizations listed by a Committee of the House of Representatives as subversive, in a printed and widely distributed handbook, operate unmolested (16). Their representatives appear at legislative hearings, they hold meetings and circulate materials through the mails.

All states have laws making the bribing of legislators a criminal offense. These laws are enforced and investigations of bribery by legislative committees (17) or law enforcement officers have repeatedly resulted in indictments and conviction for crime. Early this year in the American Congress the very suspicion of bribery, in a campaign contribution offered to a US Senator in the course of the debate on the natural gas bill, touched off a Senate Elections Subcommittee investigation of campaign contributions.

The states have also attempted to regulate lobbying activities. A recent survey showed 38 states have such laws. Twenty-nine of them require that lobbyists register giving data as to their purposes at the state capitol, their principles, the source of their funds, etc. Seventeen states require that expenditures be filed, but these requirements are laxly enforced in most states, so that even the registration figures are insignificant (18).

The present federal law (19) requires lobbyists at the national capital to register with the Clerk of the House of Representatives and the Secretary of the Senate, stating the names and addresses of the persons employing them and the amount of salary and expense allowances they

receive. Lobbyists are further required to make quarterly reports of all money received and paid by them for the purpose of influencing legislation, and to state the names of publications in which they have caused articles or editorials to be printed. In 1954, 2,800 organizations had registered as lobbying in Washington. Many organizations, such as the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, contended, due to what appears to be defective wording of the law (20), that they are not obligated to register, as their *principal* business is not lobbying.

In 1954, 225 organizations, operating in a manner that required their registration under the law, reported that they spent \$ 4,286,158.73 to influence legislation in Congress. Twenty-five organizations spending over \$ 50,000 each accounted for \$ 2,139,380.48 of this amount. The top five and their reported expenses were : The National Milk Producers Federation, \$185,496.13; The Association of American Railroads, \$185,379.55; The National Federation of Post Office Clerks, \$146,012.75; The American Federation of Labor, \$ 125,996.16, and the Congress of Industrial Organizations, \$ 120,119.09 (21). It must be admitted, however, that due to the previously mentioned inadequacies of the law, no one actually knows how much money has been spent by these and other organizations.

On the other hand, the cooperation of non-governmental organizations is frequently sought by the American government. For example, the American Legion with its three million membership was appealed to for help in developing the Good Neighbor Policy of the 1940's. It inaugurated Inter-American Affairs centers throughout the United States, held conventions of Caribbean and South American posts, sponsored programs for cultural and economic interchange and sent its officers on good-will tours of the sister American republics (22).

The recent White House Conference on Education was a consultation by the Administration with educational and the like non-governmental organizations on federal educational policy.

The State Department regularly puts the Administration's position on international questions before American non-governmental organizations for the purpose of explaining its programs. This is done by the United States Mission to the

United Nations which holds weekly briefings in New York City for non-governmental observers of about 150 of these national organizations who are assigned to the United Nations. This briefing has the added value of giving the American national point of view on controversial questions upon which these organizations are briefed by the United Nations International secretariat.

On the other hand, the opposition of these large reputable non-governmental organizations to government measures may spell defeat. A remarkable example of this was the American Medical Association's spontaneous and very effective campaign against the Public Health program of the Truman administration. An organization not previously experienced in such a campaign mobilized its membership and friends who brought the pressure of public opinion and adverse criticism before Congress so strongly as to defeat the bill.

Conclusion

The phenomenon noted by de Tocqueville in early 19th century America has become institutionalized in the 20th century. The organs of its government were originally designed for an individualistic agrarian society in the Jeffersonian tradition. The American governmental structure has, however, been adapted in the course of time to a highly complex and technological industrial society. No doubt it is also undergoing the modifications necessary for the democratic expression of the pluralistic character of contemporary American life. If the realities of American public life are harsh, it must be remembered that growth, human or institutional, is oftentimes painful.

- 1) *Democracy in America*, Alexis de Tocqueville (ed. Phillips Bradley), New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1945. Vol. II, Chap. 5.
- 2) *Rational Associations of the United States*, Jay Judkins, U. S. Dept. of Commerce, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1949, p. viii.
- 3f) *American Agencies Interested in International Affairs*, Ruth Savord and Donald Wasson, New York, Council on Foreign Relations, 1942, 1948, 1955.
- 4) Cf. *The Process of Government*, Arthur F. Bentley (new ed.), Bloomington, 111., The Principia Press, 1949; *The Governmental Process*, David Truman, New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1951; *The Group Basis of Politics*, Earl Latham, Ithaca, New York, Cornell University Press, 1952.
- 5) *First Constitutional Convention of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations*. Proceedings (reprint), 1955.
- 6) *American Bar Association : Constitution and By-Laws (1953-56)*, Pamphlet, American Bar Center, Chicago 37, III.
- 7) *National Associations of the U. S., op cit.*, pp. 249, 252, 444, 452, 473, 489, 504, 535 and 546.
- 8) *St. Lawrence Seaway*, Hearings before the Subcommittee of the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, 83rd Cong., 1st Sess., Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office, 1953.
- 9) *Palestine Refugee Program*, Hearings before the Subcommittee on the Near East and Africa of the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, 83rd Cong., 1st Sess., Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office, 1953.
- 10) *Review of the United Nations Charter*, Hearings before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, 84th Cong., 1st Sess., Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1955.
- 11) Cf. American Farm Bureau Federation backing President Eisenhower's opposition to the Senate Farm Bill, N. Y. Times, Feb. 12, 1956.
- 12) *The American Legion and American Foreign Policy*, Roscoe Baker, New York, Bookman Associates, 1954.
- 13) *Party and Pressure Politics*, David D. McKean, Boston, Mass., Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1949. Cf. *American Politics and the Party System*, Hugh A. Bone, New York, McGraw Hill, 1949.
- 14) "Message to the People of the Nation", *National Council Outlook*, Jan. 1951, p. 12.
- 15) *The National Council of Catholic Men*, pamphlet, Washington, D. C., National Catholic Welfare Conference, p. 15.
- 16) *Guide to Subversive Organizations and Publications*, Committee on Un-American Activities, U. S. House of Representatives, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, Mar. 3, 1951.
- 17) Cf. Investigation of campaign contributions by Senate Elections subcommittee arising from the revelation by Senator Francis Case, Republican of South Dakota, that he had been given \$ 2,500 to influence his vote on the natural gas bill. New York Times, Feb. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13 and 14, 1956.
- 18) *The American Government : Democracy in Action*, Charles E. Merriam and Robert E. Merriam, Boston, Mass., Ginn and Co., 1954, pp. 240-241.
- 19) *Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act* : Title III of the Legislative Reorganization Act of Aug. 2, 1946, 60 U. S. Stat. 839.
- 20) "The Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act", Belle Zeller, *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 42, No. 2, Apr. 1948, pp. 239-271.
- 21) *Congressional Quarterly Almanac*, 84th Cong., 1st Sess., Vol. II, Washington, D. C., Congressional Quarterly News Features, 1955, pp. 678-9.
- 22) Baker, *op. cit.*, Chap. 7.

UNITED STATES PARTICIPATION

in International Scientific Organizations ⁽¹⁾

by Wallace W. ATWOOD, Jr.

*Director,
Office of International Relations,
National Academy of Sciences
National Research Council.*

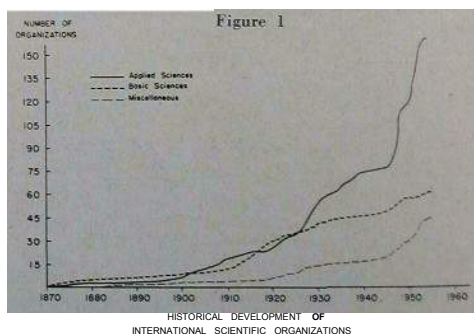
FOR the past five years it has been my privilege as Director of the Office of International Relations of the Academy-Research Council to work with the scientists of my country in furthering United States participation in international science. It has been a rewarding experience and one which have enjoyed thoroughly. For this reason, it is a pleasure for me to discuss with you some of our activities, particularly those pertaining to participation in international scientific organizations.

In way of background for this discussion, I shall sketch briefly the historical development of international scientific organizations which have provided and will continue to provide most of the opportunities for United States participation in international science.

To tell this story I have prepared a simple graph showing the growth in number of these organizations from 1870 to 1955 (see figure 1). Before 1870, international scientific organizations were essentially non-existent, but today

they number nearly 300. With few exceptions these organizations grew from the joint spontaneous needs and efforts of working scientists and groups of scientists. This is the way it should be, if significant areas of science are to receive the genuine support of those who are in its vanguard.

Several important international organizations



(1) Vice Presidential address delivered before Section E of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Atlanta, Georgia, December 27, 1955.

were formed late in the 19th century, but it was not until the opening of the 20th century that rapid growth commenced. Organizations concerned with the applied sciences took the lead followed closely by those in the basic sciences. Although activities of these new international organizations were curtailed temporarily during World War I, the number continued to grow until the opening of World War II, when there were approximately 130 international organizations concerned with science in one form or another.

World War II effectively halted the development of international scientific organizations. Although most of the organizations continued to exist on paper very few of them were able to function. When the war was over, the urge to re-establish international cooperation among scientists was very great and the number of international organizations increased rapidly. Those which had been inactive during the war years suddenly came to life and many new ones were formed, particularly in the areas of applied science.

For the purposes of this discussion I have chosen to deal only with those international organizations concerned with research in the natural sciences. According to recent figures there are 55 such organizations. This figure, of course, does not include the medical and engineering organizations or those concerned primarily with applied science and technology.

These are very important organizations, and the United States participates in many of them but I will not discuss them here.

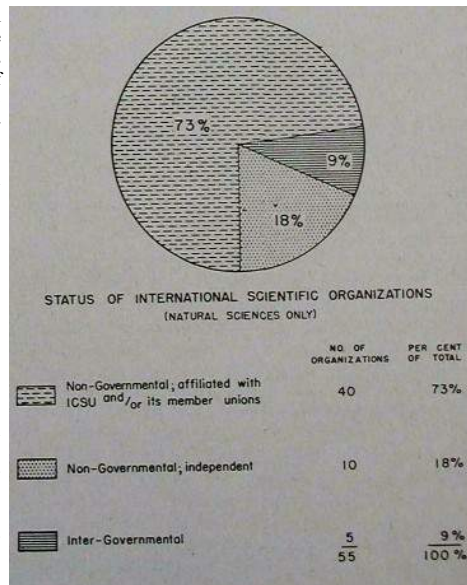
The status of the 55 international scientific organizations which deal primarily with the natural sciences is shown in figure 2. Please note that 50, or over ninety per cent, of this select group are non-governmental. I am sure that this is no accident but instead reflects the very nature of science and the wish of scientists to be free from political and other governmental directive influences. However, it does *not* mean that these organizations are out of touch or out of harmony with the governments of their member countries. On the contrary, they work closely with governmental groups and in many instances receive substantial financial and other support from national governments.

If we examine figure 2 further we see that 40 of the 50 non-governmental organizations are affiliated with the International Council of Scientific Unions, commonly referred to as ICSU. Interestingly enough, 7 of the 10 which have remained outside the ICSU family of scientific organizations are concerned with the geological sciences.

The 5 inter-governmental organizations concerned with the natural sciences are the International Bureau of Weights and Measures, the International Hydrographic Bureau, the International Council for Exploration of the Sea, the World Meteorological Organization (WMO), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (Unesco). For the purposes of our discussions we are concerned, of course, only with the "S" in Unesco.

Having examined the status of international scientific organizations, let us turn to the important question of how the scientists of the United States participate in these organizations.

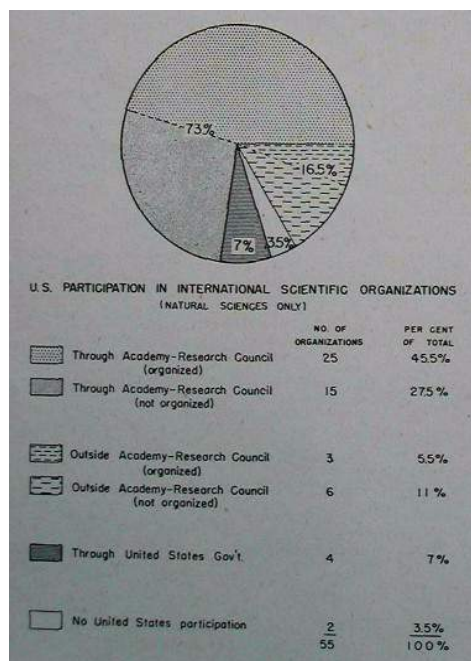
Figure 2



If you look at figure 3 you will see that participation is achieved through government and through private mechanisms. However, since there are only five inter-governmental organizations on the list and the United States adheres to only four of these, the role of the United States Government as an adhering body is relatively small, at least percentage-wise.

If our figures are correct, and I believe they are, United States participation in 40 of the 55 organizations is achieved through the Academy-Research Council. In 25 cases the Academy-Research Council has established national committees or divisional committees to effect United States adherence and to plan United States participation. However, in 15 cases participation is not organized and is achieved only through *ad hoc* groups of scientists called together by the subject matter divisions of the Research Council.

Figure 3



While the national and divisional committees function effectively and are representative of the scientists of the country, the *ad hoc* groups are seldom satisfactory. Here there is much room for improvement and efforts are being exerted in this direction.

For a moment let us look at the 9 cases where United States participation is achieved outside of the framework of the Academy-Research Council. In 3 cases participation is organized through national committees established for this purpose in cooperation with national scientific societies. This method can be very effective, but in practice the system occasionally breaks down. In the remaining 6 cases participation is not organized; no national committees have been formed, and no national scientific societies have assumed responsibility for adherence. As a consequence of this situation, United States participation in these organizations is irregular and ineffective.

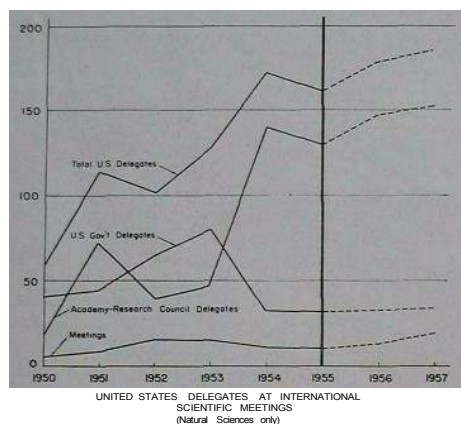
Experience thus indicates that United States scientists participate most effectively in international scientific organizations when they are linked with them through the Academy-Research Council and when they can function through national committees.

An indication of the extent of United States participation in international scientific organizations is revealed in part by the record of United States delegates attending international scientific meetings. For the past 6 years this record has been kept (see figure 4). Of course, the attendance of United States scientists at international meetings is much larger than the number of delegates indicated in figure 4. The total attendance probably exceeds 1,000 annually.

The 6-year record commencing in 1950 is too brief to justify careful analysis. Several interesting observations might be made but they would mean very little. The only significant development revealed in the graph occurred between 1953 and 1954 when the number of United States Government delegates dropped from 80 to 32, while the Academy-Research Council delegates increased from 47 to 140. The drop was occasioned by a change in Department of State policy relative to appointment of delegates to meetings of international non-governmental organizations. The increase in Academy-Research Council delegates reflects a counter move to provide scientific representation at internation-

al meetings formerly covered by Government appointed delegates and a concerted effort to strengthen United States participation generally. The level of delegate participation established in 1954 is likely to increase only slightly in the years immediately ahead.

Figure 4



Somewhat over a year ago I became interested in the broad pattern of international cooperation in science which I saw developing. It took me nearly 4 years to see that there was a pattern and I'm afraid it will take as many more years for me to understand all of its ramifications. Nevertheless, I tried to describe the pattern as I saw it and came up with the chart shown in figure 5. Don't for a minute believe that the whole story is represented here and don't imagine that the whole story can be told in one simple chart. All I have attempted to do is to identify some of the major actors in a continuing world drama. Each national and international group plays its part in furthering cooperation among scientists and among nations. For the most part the cast has been well chosen and the performance is excellent. However, what we are seeing is really only a rehearsal; each member of the cast is still studying his part and is still seeking new and better ways to enact his role.

The Academy-Research Council is an impor-

tant member of this cast because it is responsible for guiding and facilitating United States participation in many international scientific programs. In other countries, similar functions are performed by the leading academies of science or national research councils. In the United Kingdom, it is the Royal Society which assumes primary responsibility; in the Netherlands, it is the Royal Academy of Sciences; in Germany, it is the Forschungsgemeinschaft; and in Japan it is the Science Council. Sometimes these scientific organizations are governmental and sometimes they are private.

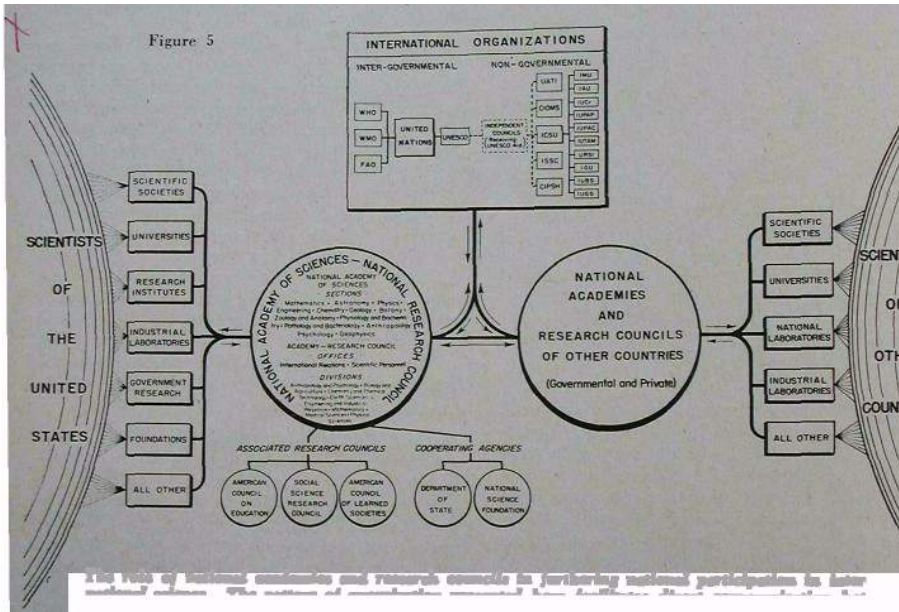
The chart shows the position of the Academy Research Council in the overall picture. Scientists from universities, government agencies, industry and from the various national scientific societies, research laboratories, and foundations actively participate in the work of the organization. These people, more than 3,000 annually, serve on committees, boards and panels established within the framework of the Academy-Research Council. Duly appointed representatives of societies and of government agencies are members of the Divisions and take part in the formulation of policy. Through the widespread participation of the scientists of the United States, the Academy-Research Council obtains the advice and counsel required to guide its many programs, including national participation to international science.

At first glance this pattern might appear adequate because it provides the best scientific guidance which the nation can supply. However, there are other factors to be considered such as the harmonizing of international scientific activities with our nation's foreign policy and the coordination of national science programs with those undertaken through international cooperative effort. Because these factors are important and because United States participation in international science serve the nation as well as science, the Academy-Research Council has encouraged joint consideration of all international scientific matters by a Policy Committee composed of representatives from the Department of State, the National Science Foundation, and the Academy-Research Council. The Policy Committee, under the chairmanship of the Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, is concerned with such policy questions as the nature and extent of United States participation

in international scientific organizations; the methods to be employed in providing financial support for international scientific programs; the organization of international science through non-governmental and inter-governmental bodies, etc.

If we look for a moment at the right side of the chart we see that the scientists of other countries participate in international scientific organizations in much the same way as we do. The chief difference is that academies of science

and research councils in other countries are frequently governmental. This difference poses no difficulties to the scientists unless governmental control of science is exercised. Most of the governmental academies and research councils provide the same freedom which we ourselves enjoy leading scientists serve on the national delegations to international meetings and they are free to express their views and to offer co-operation in the furtherance of scientific undertakings.



The role of national academies and research councils in furthering national participation in international science. The pattern of organization presented here facilitates direct communication between scientists and scientific groups. Arrows indicate the movement of people and ideas in the continuous process of achieving cooperation and coordination.

So far I have sketched the origin and status of international scientific organizations. And, I have given you a glimpse of the worldwide pattern into which our participation fits. On this background, I should like to describe briefly three specific activities illustrating United States participation in international science: (1) The International Council of Scientific Unions (ICSU), (2) The International Geophysical Year (IGY), and (3) The Science Program of Unesco.

The first activity represents the backbone of international science; the second constitutes the largest international scientific program yet undertaken, and the third illustrates an inter-governmental approach to science.

The International Council of Scientific Unions is not a large organization. It is essentially an administrative body composed of representatives of 13 unions and 40 member nations. The governing body is the General Assembly

which meets every three years. Between assemblies business is carried on by the Executive Board and the Bureau.

The 13 unions which constitute the scientific membership of ICSU are autonomous organizations, each of which has several Sections or Associations dealing with special fields of science. For example, the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics is composed of 7 autonomous international associations, the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry is composed of 6 sections, and the International Union of Biological Sciences has 12 sections grouped under 3 divisions. The other unions have similar patterns of organization. Activities of these unions include the holding of international congresses, publication of scientific papers, and the organization of symposia at which specialized scientists get together to discuss specific and exciting subjects. These symposia are vital to the progress of science.

Although ICSU has a very important coordination function it has no control over the unions. In fact, it exists at the wish of the unions and of the member nations which sponsor national membership in the unions. Occasionally, this fact is not recognized and someone refers to ICSU as a dictator in the field of science. Whoever makes such a statement is completely uninformed because this is not true and never could be true. Any attempt to dictate to the unions, and thus to the scientists of the world, would result in dissolution of the ICSU organization.

Let us see now how the United States participates in ICSU. First, and perhaps the most important point to remember, is that national adherence to ICSU as well as to all of its member unions is almost always accomplished through the leading academy of science or national research council in the country concerned. In the United States it is the Academy Research Council which adheres to ICSU on behalf of the scientists and the Government. This adherence goes back to 1918 when the National Academy of Sciences joined with other academies of science in forming the International Research Council later to become the International Council of Scientific Unions. Since that time 13 scientific unions have become members of ICSU.

As indicated before, in order that the United

States may participate effectively in the international scientific unions the Academy Research Council forms U.S.A. National Committees for each of the unions to which it adheres. Each committee, with one or two exceptions, has drafted his own constitution which states the purposes of the committee, establishes a system of rotation of membership which will insure at all times appropriate representation from national scientific societies, educational institutions, industry and government, and prescribes general by-laws to govern its operation. The principal functions of these national committees are to keep their scientific colleagues informed concerning programs sponsored by their respective unions, to arrange for adequate representation at international meetings, and to implement United States participation in union activities. These national committees have functioned extremely well. Whenever such committees do not exist, as is the case with some of the non-ICSU organizations, United States participation is relatively ineffective and the benefits to the United States from membership in such organizations is reduced accordingly.

United States participation in ICSU is guided by a Committee on International Scientific Unions composed of the chairmen of U.S.A. National Committees of all ICSU unions. In recent years this committee has met at least once a year and sometimes twice. Last year it held a joint meeting with the Bureau of ICSU when it met in Washington.

In my opinion ICSU is performing a very valuable service by coordinating international scientific activities and by stimulating important research. To accomplish these objectives it not only has worked through its member unions but it has established relations with the governments of the adhering countries. These relations have been arranged through the academies and research councils which serve as the national adhering organizations. In this manner ICSU has obtained the assistance of governments in the furtherance of scientific investigations.

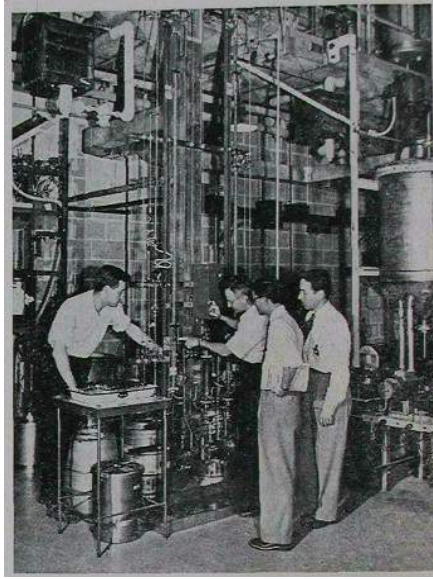
It has been my good fortune to serve on the United States delegation to the last two General Assemblies of this organization and I can confidently state that it recognizes its important responsibilities to international science and is shouldering them. The United States is highly honored that ICSU has chosen to hold Us next

General Assembly in Washington, D. C. in 1958, and that it has selected one of our leading scientists, Dr. Lloyd V. Berkner, to serve as its President for the next three years.

I shall now say a few words about the International Geophysical Year, referred to as the IGY. I am sure that most of you have heard of this important enterprise involving over 40 nations and extending over the period July 1, 1957-December 31, 1958. However, I wonder how many of you know how and when this ambitious research program was conceived?

In July 1952 the Joint Commission of the Ionosphere, meeting in Australia at the same time as the General Assembly of the International Union of Radio Science, came up with the idea that in 1957-58 the scientists of the world should make simultaneous observations of certain geophysical phenomena which would be well displayed at that time. The plan was conceived as a follow-up of the first and second Polar Years held in 1882-83 and 1932-33. The Joint Commission passed a resolution outlining the proposal and forwarded it to ICSU. At the next General Assembly of ICSU held at Amsterdam in October 1952, the resolution was considered and a special committee was formed to plan an international geophysical year to be carried out in 1957-58.

A few months later, December of 1952 to be exact, the President of the Academy received a letter from the Secretary of ICSU inviting the United States to establish a national committee to plan a program of geophysical investigations which the United States would be willing to carry out as its part of an international geophysical year. At this juncture the Office of International Relations took over. A memorandum describing the proposal was prepared and sent to the chairmen of all national committees concerned with geophysical matters. I had no idea what response I might receive but I knew that this was the first step to be taken. A few weeks later I had a sufficient number of replies to know that the scientists of this country would take part. I then called upon the chairman of our Committee on International Scientific Unions; I visited the Science Office in the Department of State; and I consulted the chairman of the National Research Council. On February 10, 1953, a U.S.A. National Committee was formed with a membership of 16 scientists, most of them



Thirty scientists from 19 nations are in the United States attending the initial seven-month training course in the world's first international School of Nuclear Science and Engineering at Argonne National Laboratory.

directly concerned with research in geophysics. From this point on things began to hum: a United States program was drafted, a delegation was selected to attend a meeting of the Special Committee for the IGY established by ICSU, and we were on our way.

Today the International Geophysical Year is a multi-million dollar affair with hundreds of scientists in the United States alone, actively participating in planning a worldwide program of geophysical observations. The Academy Research Council sought the cooperation of the National Science Foundation in securing funds for this undertaking and today \$ 12,000,000 have been obtained from the United States Congress. It is quite likely that this sum will be materially increased before the end of this session of this Congress. Not only the United States was interested in this wonderful adventure into the study of the earth, the oceans and the upper

atmosphere, but 43 other countries, including the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Japan, and the U.S.S.R., were equally excited. Each of these countries has planned a national program and all are working together to achieve a fully coordinated program to which all nations can contribute.

The net results of this huge cooperative undertaking are difficult to estimate. One thing is certain : scientists throughout the world will obtain valuable data which will help them to unravel some of the mysteries of man's environment. We certainly will learn more about weather and weather forecasting, about communications through the upper atmosphere, about the oceans, and about the size, and peculiarities of the earth itself.

Quite aside from any scientific knowledge which may be obtained from the IGY there is the valuable experience of 44, and probably more nations working together. Never before have so many scientists from so many countries joined hands in search for the truth. The experiences gained during this worldwide exercise should contribute to world understanding and help to break down the barriers of ignorance and distrust which keep the peoples of the world apart. I feel sure that the IGY will furnish new opportunities for better relations among civilized peoples and their governments.

In support of my high regard for ICSU I should like to observe that the launching of the International Geophysical Year would have faced almost insurmountable difficulties if there had been no ICSU. It was the unions and the national members of ICSU which gave immediate life to this undertaking and were able to obtain the scientific and financial support required for its successful implementation.

Finally, I should like to say a word about the natural sciences program in Unesco. By virtue of my position in the Academy Research Council, I have been privileged to learn much about this work.

When I joined the Academy Research Council staff I found a Committee on Science in Unesco. It was a very active Committee composed of nationally known scientists deeply interested in international affairs. It was formed in 1946 when Unesco was established, and ever since that time has served as an advisory committee to the U. S. National Commission for

Unesco on all aspects of the Unesco Natural Sciences Program. This Committee periodically reviews the program and budget documents relating to the natural sciences prepared by the Unesco secretariat and reports its findings and recommendations to the Department of State. In this manner and in other ways the Committee has sought to guide the Unesco science program and to effect appropriate United States participation in the world organization. To aid in bringing the work of Unesco to the attention of scientists and the general public the Committee publishes a quarterly bulletin entitled " Science in Unesco ".

Despite the efforts of this Committee and the full cooperation of the Department of State, portions of the Unesco Natural Sciences Program have not developed along lines acceptable to the scientists of the United States. Interestingly enough the same dissatisfaction voiced by our scientists is echoed by the scientists of most other countries. What is the cause of this dissatisfaction ? The answer is very simple : Unesco has at times sought to organize and direct international scientific activities and in so doing has trespassed on the inalienable rights of the scientists. Although proposed with good intent, some of the efforts of Unesco have emphasized organization from the top and have favored action by governments rather than private voluntary participation, which has characterized international scientific cooperation from the very beginning.

It is not surprising that scientists object to this direction. Science cannot flourish under government control and the scientists know this. Several international organizations including ICSU, although staunch supporters of Unesco objectives, are seeking financial independence of Unesco with respect to all administrative matters. This does not mean that scientists and scientific organizations do not welcome Unesco support of science or do not appreciate the very important role that Unesco can perform, but it does mean that scientists prize freedom, need freedom, and will fight for freedom in the conduct of their scientific programs.

The current United States member of the Executive Board of Unesco is a scientist, Dr. Athelstan F. Spilhaus, Dean of the Institute of Technology at the University of Minnesota. He, perhaps better than anyone else in the United

States, senses the problems which Unesco faces in the area of the sciences. In November 1955 at the Fifth National Conference sponsored by the U. S. National Commission for Unesco he stated :

" Science cannot be organized from the top ; research cannot be directed; and in the whole history of scientific activity between nations our experience is that it is generated in the minds of scientists and grows best through their joint spontaneous action. Unesco should not attempt to provide ideas to scientists or to over-organize them, but should seek ways to strengthen and build existing international non-governmental scientific organizations to the point where their independent continuance is ensured. "

At this point I wish to state for the record that Unesco's support of the International Council of Scientific Unions and its member unions during the past 9 years has given strength to these international non-governmental organizations far beyond anything they could have achieved independently. Generous financial assistance from Unesco, amounting to nearly \$200,000 annually, has permitted these organizations to re-establish themselves following World War II and to greatly extend their important functions of furthering international cooperation in science. It is my sincere hope that these scientific unions will continue to receive support from Unesco and that they will be called upon more than at present to help Unesco achieve its objectives in the field of science.

I have reported certain dissatisfaction in the Unesco program. I should be remiss if I did not do so. However, I must make clear that this dissatisfaction does not extend to all elements of the Unesco Natural Sciences Program. Many of the activities are well conceived and are proceeding along lines fully endorsed by the scientists. Furthermore, the basic differences in the philosophy of assistance which have caused concern to the scientists may be ironed out.

There are indications on the horizon that this will occur.

From the foregoing account of ICSU, the IGY, and Unesco, it should be apparent that the task of achieving adequate and appropriate United States participation in international scientific activities is no small assignment. It is one that cannot be performed by any one organization. Instead, it is one that must be accomplished through cooperation and coordination among all interested parties.

It is a pleasure for me to report that major progress has been made in effecting this cooperation and coordination. The first step was taken three years ago when the Academy-Research Council formed the Policy Committee for the Office of International Relations and included among its members the Science Adviser in the Department of State and the Director of the National Science Foundation. One of the important functions of this Committee has been to harmonize the interests of governmental and private scientific groups in international scientific activities.

The second step was taken in 1955 when the Academy-Research Council decided to expand its program in international relations and was supported in this move by the Ford Foundation, the Department of State and the National Science Foundation. Financial assistance for an initial period of five years has been provided. This means that the national committees for the various international organizations can carry forward their work with greater effectiveness, a larger staff can be provided to deal with the steadily increasing number of problems associated with international science, and attendance of scientists at important international meetings can be aided. It means much more than this because it establishes for the first time a well-rounded program to further United States participation in international science, a program which will be guided by the scientists of the country and supported by both private and governmental funds.

These Yugoslav refugees receive two of the almost 900 visas for immigration to the United States delivered by the Consulat General of Antwerp, Belgium, since the coming into force of the Refugee Relief Program. Among the non-governmental organizations making requests for visas on behalf of emigres desiring to settle in the United States are : Church World Service, International Rescue Committee, Secours International de Caritas Catholica, the Tolstoy Foundation, United Hias Service, and United Ukrainian American Relief Committee.



UNITED STATES IMMIGRANT AID AGENCIES

*How they work to
relieve world refugee problem*

by Edward CORSI, Prudent.

American Federation of International Institutes,

PROBABLY nowhere else have voluntary citizen-agencies played the same educational, constructive, and effective role in public affairs that they have played, in the United States in modern times. Perhaps also in no other country have these organizations, by virtue of their composition, aims, and motivations, received the degree of recognition or status accorded them by our

municipal, state and federal governments. The American voluntary agency has exerted a significant influence in shaping governmental policy and administration in those areas in which individual human welfare was involved. It also has become an effective consultative body to all government branches in city, state, and nation. In international activity these agencies have been generally less active and effective, except

for the field of migration and resettlement in which they grew rapidly after the end of the last century in response to changing national and international circumstances affecting the welfare of the world's migrants.

Until 1882 when the United States Congress assumed control over immigration as a federal function, there had been little immigration legislation, and such laws as were enacted by some states of the American Union were almost exclusively connected with the promotion of migration to the United States. Before the first world war, European migration to our country was a voluntary activity largely in response to population pressure, economic distress, and occasional political upheavals, and with a whole continent to open up and develop, these immigrants were more than welcomed by American farmers, industrialists, and railroad builders.

Up to nearly the end of the nineteenth century, therefore, there was little need for assistance or protection services for our immigrants. However, the exercise of its immigration authority by the United States Congress coincided with the change of the type of immigration into the United States from northwestern Europe to southern and eastern Europe, and a steady increase in the number of immigrants seeking entrance. The "unfamiliar" nationality types and the upsurge in numbers combined to produce at first qualitative restrictions, such as the literacy test and later, in the 1920's quantitative restrictions (although Orientals had actually been barred before World War I), followed by still further restrictive measures based upon the so-called National origins principle — a discussion of which is not germane to this article other than to say that the writer believes it to be discriminatory, based upon fallacious racist theories, and not in the best interests of the United States. Most of the voluntary agencies cited in this article concur with this opinion.

Development of Immigrant Aid Agencies

In any event, when the United States Congress first exercised its authority over immigration, it failed to enact legislation creating machinery to protect and provide assistance to immigrants and aliens in our population, or for the development of a national program to foster the integration of newcomers into American life. It was only natural, therefore, that this social vacuum

should be filled by voluntary welfare organizations. The first immigrant-aid agencies were largely concerned with easing the emotional ordeal of arrival, providing initial shelter and minimizing the exploitation of contract-labor immigrants. Among the pioneers in the immigrant-aid movement in the United States prior to the first world war were the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society (HIAS) and the Protestant home mission boards. Language specialists of both agencies met the immigrants at Ellis Island and other American ports, helped with practical problems, arranged for contacts with relatives and friends, and gave spiritual comfort. HIAS also sheltered homeless Jewish immigrants and sought jobs for them.

Other groups with a protective interest in immigrant women were the Immigrant Protective League and the Council of Jewish Women in Chicago. Both agencies visited the newcomers in their homes, provided follow-up services, and helped them learn English. The League was an outgrowth of the early trade union movement in the United States and was forced into language teaching in order to reach prospective members, while the work of the Council acquired such importance that its activities eventually spread to several cities.

In this era of immigrant social-service growth, religious bodies and voluntary organizations were largely responsible for the establishment in our large cities of religious or nationality immigrant homes. Outstanding among the voluntary organizations concerned with some aspect of migration before the first world war was the International Institute established first in New York in 1910, as a specialized department of the Young Women's Christian Association. Although its staff followed the home-visiting example set by earlier agencies, its conceptual approach was different. Not simply humanitarian, it was broadly psychological in its systematic effort to grasp the essential interests and needs of immigrants and foreign-born communities.

Except for the International Institute movement which remained small and under the direction of the YWCA, during the period of heavy immigration into the United States (*up* to its entrance in World War I) there was a dearth of assistance to the foreign born by private organizations for purposes of social and cultural adjustment.

Increased Attention to Adjustment

After world war I, partly as a matter of post-war hysteria and partly out of genuine concern for the immigrant's welfare the American people wrestled with the concept of adjustment and in the course of this self-examination developed half a dozen theories of the nature of the adjustment process in American society. Some were extreme and held that only "Nordic" types could become adjusted. Others were metaphysical and believed that by some mystic alchemy the "Melting Pot" would take care of everything. Both of these views were in effect negative, the one holding that the "right" type could adjust easily, the other that all types automatically adjusted by transmutation.

Only the "Americanization" drive in the 1920's had a positive phase in its emphasis on the teaching of English to the foreign born and on the development of a broader adult education program. As a good result, night classes for adults were inaugurated, citizenship instruction became widespread, and some social agencies such as the International Institutes — the Settlements and some of the churches — promoted Americanization activities that had social as well as educational value. A negative result was a naive and sometimes dangerous belief that adjustment could be accelerated almost at will, that naturalization was synonymous with integration and that true Americanization lay in completely divesting oneself of one's original nationality background and culture. Fortunately this compulsory Americanization drive gradually wore off and a sounder course was eventually followed.

The approach to the immigrant and the foreign born in our communities through the medium of the English language, initiated by the early immigrant-welfare organizations, was one part of the picture. Another part was filled in by the establishment in 1920 of the Foreign Language Information Service (now the Common Council for American Unity) which was successful in reaching the minds of millions of the foreign born in American communities through the use of their own language via the mass media of communication, the foreign language press and radio. The agency's informative and educational material aids the foreign born in understanding American customs and the

rights and duties of American citizenship and at the same time helps interpret newcomers and naturalized Americans to the older native population.

Another aspect of the problem was the development of our immigration laws in a complex, and sometimes discriminatory fashion — and the ease with which they were narrowly and occasionally arbitrarily interpreted. This raised a host of technical immigration, citizenship, and social problems calling for expert legal aid and social casework by non-governmental organizations. To meet these needs new agencies were organized and programs of immigrant-aid were expanded to include new services ranging from pier reception to legal aid and intercultural activities.

During this expansion of immigrant assistance increasing emphasis was placed on the question of cultural and social adjustment by the non-governmental organizations involved in migration, especially by the American Federation of International Institutes which played a leading role as the only non-sectarian social service agency embracing all nationalities in its activities and devoting its entire resources to the process of adjustment to American life. Voluntary agencies have also helped keep alive the pride of the immigrant in his traditional culture during his initial adjustment to American urban living. Among them the International Migration Service (now the International Social Service) introduced migration aid for relatives overseas and concentrated on inter-country casework.

The Early Refugee Movement

The refugee crisis created in Europe before and during the second world war posed a special challenge for the existing immigrant-aid organizations concerned with the problem of adjustment. Prior to the end of the war, and particularly in its later phases, the framework of a comprehensive and well integrated program of service to immigrants was developed which was far broader than the range of activities that had evolved before. Existing immigrant-aid agencies extended their services to refugee immigrants, and new agencies were created. Outstanding in the former group were such Jewish organizations as the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society (which at the pre-world war II peak of

refugee immigration in 1939 gave shelter to thousands of refugees), and the National Council of Jewish Women, whose earlier functions were integrated into the refugee-service program.

The new agencies arose because in many ways the refugee era presented new problems. A large portion of the refugees were penniless on arrival in the United States and had undergone severe hardships, and therefore needed at least temporary financial assistance. Others represented professional groups not generally found among regular immigrants. Finally, the refugee experience itself and family separations it had brought about had increased a number of personal and family problems that often impeded adjustment. So it was that new types of refugee-service organizations were finally evolved to meet these special needs, organizations that combined the casework techniques of social welfare agencies with the approach of the older immigrant-aid groups. The new organizations sponsored organized social-service programs of guidance and financial support on a nation-aid scale.

Jewish philanthropy was perhaps at the vanguard of the movement to rescue and aid the victims of Nazism and Fascism, but Catholic Welfare agencies and almost all the denominations of the Protestant Church in the United States also created committees or other organizations to assist in obtaining the essential immigration affidavits and transportation funds. The Quakers likewise made important contributions to refugee aid both in the United States and in Europe, while numerous groups sponsored projects to provide assistance to special categories of refugees : scholars, artists, physicians, children, and anti-Fascist labor and political leaders. Among some of the outstanding refugee-service organizations of the 1930's were the National Refugee Service (which merged with the foreign-born service division of the National Council of Jewish Women to form the United Service for New Americans), a multi-function agency with a system of highly centralized and integrated services; the American Christian Committee (now integrated into Church World Service) ; the Catholic Committee for Refugees (whose work, along with War Relief Services of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, was geared into the National Catholic Resettlement

Council) ; the Refugee Division of the American Friends Service Committee which sponsored extensive overseas activities and provided aid and guidance to refugees in the United States; and the National Lutheran Council.

The broad program of refugee aid provided directly or indirectly by refugee-service agencies included financial assistance, rehabilitation, employment services, self-support loans to professionals, retraining, special services to children, resettlement away from large urban centers, migration-information services, and aid toward social and cultural adjustment. In the migration-counseling field the work of the National Refugee Service was most comprehensive and that of the International Institutes was also significant. In the field of social and cultural adjustment the Institutes, with their psychological approach to the individual, their acceptance of cultural patterns as conditioning factors of human personality and their casework methodology, made a unique contribution not only to the process of adjustment to American life but to promote social and cultural understanding between the older American and the newcomer.

The Displaced Persons

During the years of the second world war and during the early postwar period the most important migration problem was that part of the world refugee problem represented by the " Displaced Persons ".

Throughout world war II the United States government took a leading position among Allied nations in an attempt to find an orderly and humanitarian solution to the problem of refugees from Nazi Germany and German-occupied territories. Paradoxically, however, the United States Congress showed no disposition to admit larger numbers of refugees. American non-governmental organizations nonetheless continued their efforts to find permanent homes for individuals and families forced to migrate. In January 1944 the President of the United States created a Cabinet-rank agency, the War Refugee Board, which enhanced the effectiveness of private agencies engaged in rescue and relief work by providing a specialized channel for all their governmental relations. Working in cooperation with the board, some non-governmental organizations undertook cloak-and-dagger operations



A large-scale naturalization ceremony. Seven thousand six hundred people from 68 different countries take oath and become citizens of the United States. Many of these new Americans have been helped by immigrant aid agencies.

in enemy-occupied areas through which thousands of adults and children were rescued from the Nazis and moved to safety through underground channels. In other instances money contributed by United States organizations and individuals helped save thousands of Jewish children in Christian homes, schools, and convents until the end of the war. Equally important, the tenacity and indefatigable spirit of the voluntary agencies associated with the work of the War Refugee Board kept alive until the end of the war the will to resistance of hundreds of thousands of men of women who rejected Nazi barbarism.

After world war II the problem of "displaced persons" became quantitatively an even greater issue in the United States, affecting the activities of all non-governmental migration organizations. The care and planning for the future of a vast number of people who had been uprooted all over Europe by the war and by the political upheavals that followed in its wake and become

an international responsibility, and the International Refugee Organization (IRO) and its predecessor agencies were formed to resettle the homeless. The pressure of American public opinion during the pre-war period of refugee activity had carried over into the post-war era, and the American people, continuously concerned with the solution of the overall refugee problem, were the largest contributor to the budget of the International Refugee Organization.

This international agency had inherited from its forerunners in the international migration field many operating relationships with United States voluntary agencies concerned with the welfare of migrants. When public opinion persuaded the American Congress to enact the Displaced Persons Act in 1948 which permitted the admission of some 300,000 DP's in excess of yearly quotas, newly created religious or nationality agencies joined the older groups in the common task of rescue, relief, and resettlement of those with whom they shared a bond of common reli-

gions faith or nationality. Indeed the participation of United States voluntary agencies in almost every aspect of its migration operations was vital to its success and is written large on the records of the International Relief Organization.

The passage of the Displaced Persons Act put a tremendous load upon the shoulders of American non-governmental organizations. They were made responsible, in cooperation with the IRO and federal authorities, for the implementation of the program. The majority of the refugees going to the United States emigrated on the basis of guarantees by these agencies that jobs and housing would be forthcoming. In addition the agencies bore the sole responsibility for reception, planning for resettlement, transportation, and adjustment aid for the DP's. Despite this burden, which was gladly assumed, the voluntary agencies measured up superbly. They had, after all, an intimate personal knowledge in many cases of the wishes, needs, and capabilities of individual refugees. They had links of common religious or nationality background. And so they were closer to the migrants than the staffs of governmental or inter-governmental organizations could have been. This relationship of sympathy and common understanding helped the DP's immeasurably during their period of integration into a new social and cultural environment.

The Refugees from Communism

With the resettlement of virtually all the DP's the world and the United States for a brief period thought the refugee problem had been resolved. To their dismay this was not the case, and by 1952 it was clear that a new group had been created. Most had fled or been expelled from communist dominated lands. Others had been made homeless by natural catastrophes of were "surplus population" for other reasons.

In partial answer to this need the United States passed the Refugee Relief Act of 1953 permitting the non-quota entry of 209,000 refugees, escapees, expellees, and orphans (and by subsequent amendment certain relatives of American residents). The Act forbade agency assurances, however, and required individual citizen assurers. It also contained other regulations making it difficult for both sponsors and

immigrant agencies to assist in the goal of obtaining visas for refugees, and initially it was ineptly and unenthusiastically administered. Nevertheless old and new national agencies concerned with migration and resettlement and local branches of churches employed their technical and human resources fully in a desperate effort to realize the basically human objectives of the Refugee Relief Act. A large number of them were recognized by the government to serve as national endorsing agencies, backing up the individual citizen sponsorships and assurances of employment and housing. The Refugee Relief Act thus in effect made national voluntary agencies and their branches and cooperating agencies instrumentalities of the law. Certainly without their deep interest and unstinting efforts this special legislation could not have been implemented even in the degree presently foreseeable.

Among the major officially recognized agencies in the United States that have worked effectively in facilitating immigration, resettlement, and integration of European, Asian, and Arab refugees and the adoption of foreign-born orphans are Church World Service Catholic Relief Services (formerly Catholic War Relief Services), the Tolstoy Foundation, the American Foundation of International Institutes, Lutheran Refugee Service, United Hias Service, International Social Service (American Branch), and a number of active nationality organizations.

In addition to their service activities, American voluntary organizations directly concerned with migration and resettlement have since the end of the world war II, been associated with national and international "councils" or "conferences" for the purpose of self-analysis, cooperation, and coordination in policy and effort. Most of them are members of the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service and participate in the work of that agency's committees on migration, relief, resettlement, integration, and other migration fields. A semi-official body working closely with the United Nations and the International Labor Organization, the Conference of Non-Governmental Organizations interested in migration, which has branches in a number of nations including the United States, has been largely concerned with studies of specific migration pro-

blems calculated to improve or increase services offered to migrants and help provide more efficient methods of protection. More recently, there has been established in the United States an " American Immigration Conference " which promises to be an effective medium for consultation and coordination among United States organizations concerned with immigration and immigration policy. These councils and conferences are also making a significant contribution to the improvement of migration procedures under United States immigration law.

United States voluntary organizations have also been concerned with shaping the climate of American public opinion concerning immigration, helping through various means to develop a tolerant and sympathetic attitude toward im-

migrants and the foreign-born. Within the halls of Congress they have been called to provide expert knowledge and testimony concerning proposed legislative changes. They have constantly stood for immigration and naturalization policies that are not only humane and rational but in consonance with the interests of our national security and our international responsibilities. Many of them have vigorously opposed the more onerous and discriminating features of the McCarran-Walter Immigration and Nationality Act. And many of them have recommended changes in the law and administration of the Refugee Relief Act which would made it work so that under it the people of the United States might effectively bear their equitable share of the world's heartbreaking refugee problem.



In the spring and summer the Capitol, seat of the Congress of the United States, attracts visitors from all parts of the country. From balconies in the Senate and in the House chambers the country's elected representatives may be seen holding sessions. It is here that pressure groups try to influence the nation's legislation and policies.

LABOR, INDUSTRIAL AND AGRICULTURAL GROUPS COOPERATE WITH COUNTERPARTS ABROAD

by Phillips BRADLEY

*Professeur of Political Science
Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship
and Public Affairs, Syracuse University.*

A century and a quarter ago, the most acute observer of American life noted the "habit of association" among the people of the young republic. Since Tocqueville wrote, that "habit" has multiplied many types of organization devoted to as varied interests as society itself includes. The United States Department of Commerce has recently estimated that there are over 4,000 national organizations in the United States: economic, social and cultural, religious, racial, patriotic and military (veterans), professional, agricultural, and many others. A census of the "locals" of these national organizations would run to the hundreds of thousands. They cover the country geographically and so include members often with limited and specific, although generally similar, interests from every section of the nation.

Two points about the practical activities of these groups at the international level may be noted briefly. First, the same individual may belong to several groups (or to a national organization with several or many components, such as the unions and employers' organizations) which pursue divergent policies. Thus, the individual may be confronted — as to international affairs — by conflicting viewpoints which may lead to inaction or action contrary to his own views. Second, a national organization, reflecting as it must the varied section attitudes of its membership, may not be in a position to pursue a very precise policy on specific issues, at home or abroad. The very size of the country makes for heterogeneity of outlook and so slowness of action within national organizations in the United States.

This aspect of American organizations may be analyzed further — especially as to agricultural, industrial, and union groups. National organizations in these three fields of economic activity are composed of thousands of local membership groups, large and small, from Maine to California, from Minnesota to Texas. The general political climate in the different regions affects the attitudes of nearly all local groups in each. These varying outlooks on foreign policies, especially economic policies, influence the international policies and programs of the national organizations in several ways.

First, the range and intensity of cooperation by American organizations with their counterparts in other countries will reflect to a considerable degree by general popular attitudes on international cooperation. Regional divisions on the question will affect the ability of a national organization (in agriculture, industry, or labor) to initiate or continue active participation in an international organization in its field.

Second, concerted action on specific organizational programs or on aspects of United States foreign policy of concern to counterpart organizations in other countries, may be conditioned by only remotely related factors. Domestic policies or general regional attitudes may dilute wholehearted or effective collaboration. Third, internal conflicts of interests between different segments of the national organization (often present in all three groups) may limit or postpone their ability to cooperate internationally. None of the three major groups considered here is immune from influences inhibiting posi-

live action at the international level. Despite the implicit identities (or at least similarities of interest within each group, without regard to national boundaries, cooperation is often difficult to achieve, for domestic often as much as for international-organizational reasons.

With these general considerations in mind, we may trace briefly the actual course of cooperation by United States labor, industrial, and agricultural organizations with those of other countries. Although there have frequently been widespread contacts across national boundaries among leaders in all three areas, the emphasis here will be on organizational relations.

Labor

Among the three groups, international cooperation by United States labor organizations is the oldest as well as the most comprehensive. Contacts among European labor groups began in the mid 1850's; the first meeting of workers from several countries occurred in London in 1864. The International Workingmen's Association [First International] emerged from this meeting. The National Labor Union (United States) expressed sympathy with it in 1870, although it took no active part in it while its headquarters were in New York City (1872-76).

From about 1895, the American Federation of Labor (AFL) maintained fraternal relations with the British Trades Union (TUG). Samuel Gompers, the first truly national labor leader in the United States, made several trips to Europe during this early period and became interested in the idea of international labor cooperation. He was, however, strongly opposed to the socialist-anarchist views of some European labor movements and did not encourage the AFL to associate closely in the growing collaboration among them.

The emergence of the international trade secretariats, of which there were seventeen by 1900, led to the creation of the International Secretariat of Trade Secretariats (ISTUC) at the Dublin Conference in 1903. In 1910, the AFL joined the ISTUC and took part in the next two conferences at Budapest and Zurich (1911 and 1913). The name of the organization was changed on the recommendation of the AFL, to the International Federation of Trade Unions (IFTU) in 1913.

The First World War strongly affected the emerging internationalist trend among labor groups. In all countries, organized labor reflected increasingly the nationalist spirit. The AFL became sharply patriotic and anti-socialist. Since many labor unions in European countries (on both sides of the struggle) were wholly or partially socialist in complexion, Gompers withdrew AFL participation in the revived Second International and even the IFTU. Although negotiations between the AFL and the IFTU continued throughout the 1920's, the AFL did not formally reaffiliate until 1937.

Three reasons may be noted for the reaffiliation. First, events in Europe, especially the suppression of free labor unions by the totalitarian regimes (both Right and Left), led Gompers and the AFL closer to the position of the IFTU. Both strongly opposed totalitarian attacks on unionism. Second, the United States had joined the ILO in 1934 and the AFL was designed to select the official United States labor delegate. Thus, the AFL representatives were inevitably brought into closer contact with their European colleagues, in the Workers Section at ILO conferences. Third, the emergence of the CIO posed a challenge to AFL leadership of American labor. The CIO might develop contacts with the European labor movements if the AFL continued to hold aloof.

The Second World War was, of course, a major setback to the development of a single international labor movement. Further, the rise of Communism, with new types of unions, posed new problems in establishing unity among groups, some of which (like the AFL) were strongly anti-socialist. It is unnecessary to trace in detail here the wartime negotiations of the AFL and the CIO with British, European, and Russian unions. The growing cleavage in the American labor movement over collaboration with the Russian unions increased rapidly. The AFL, adhering to its traditional anti-socialist position, refused to collaborate, even to the extent of joint meetings. The CIO, on the other hand, was willing to join with the British and other labor movements in dealing with the Russian unions. It was, of course, seeking ways to achieve international recognition of its status as a representative American labor organization.

From these wartime negotiations emerged the London World Trade Union Conference of

February 6-17, 1945 and the World Federation of Trade Unions (WFTU). In the former, the IFTU and ITS were represented by observers; the AFL refused to participate but the CIO played an active role.

The creation of the WFTU meant almost inevitably the destruction of the IFTU. Too many of its erstwhile members joined the new organization. The idea of worldwide labor unity was, of course, attractive to labor leaders and rank-and-file alike. It seemed the logical outcome of the world struggle for the Four Freedoms. But the ideological struggle within the WFTU, manifest almost from its start, made a genuinely inclusive international labor organization impracticable. The growing cleavage between East and West was reflected here as elsewhere.

One evidence of this cleavage was the breakdown in the negotiations to incorporate the ITS in the WFTU during 1946-48. Without reviewing the story in detail, it may be noted that the AFL, which had ignored the WFTU, now took an active part in several of the largest ITS. A number of AFL unions became active members in their ITS and led them to reject WFTU overtures to become the administrative organs of its International Trade Departments. Negotiations between the two groups were finally broken off in 1948.

Another evidence was the withdrawal of the CIO from the WFTU in 1949. Several of the largest CIO unions had themselves been under strong international Communist influence, even control, during the immediate postwar period. Only after the pro-democratic forces had won their intra-union struggle and the national leadership of the CIO had become convinced of Communist domination of the WFTU was formal membership rescinded. A major factor on the world front was the unsuccessful effort of the WFTU unions in democratic countries to obtain discussion of labor's role in the Marshall Plan in WFTU organs. On the United States side, the participation of the CIO in the London conference (March 9-10, 1948) of union representatives from eleven of the sixteen European Marshall Plan countries marked a historic turning point in CIO-AFL relations. The AFL had been a principal organizer of the conference for the first time on any issue, domestic or in-

ternational, its representatives recognized CIO delegates on the basis of complete equality.

The London conference was important for another reason. A permanent organization, the European Recovery Program Trade Union Advisory Committee (and Conference), was established by the unions from the Marshall Plan countries. Out of this meeting and the new organization, the widening gulf between the Communist-controlled and free labor unions became more than ever evident. It was, indeed, the embryo of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU).

In a sense, the manoeuvres from 1945 to 1949 within the United States labor movement had resulted in complete vindication of the AFL's major objective: disruption of the WFTU. Its support of the ITS had prevented their incorporation by it. Its creation of the Free Trade Union Committee (FTUC) in 1944 had kept alive its contacts with democratic European labor leaders. Its acceptance of equality for the CIO in the London Conference of 1948 has bridged the gulf between the two major US labor organizations — and set the stage for CIO withdrawal from the WFTU.

It is unnecessary here to trace in detail the creation, organization, and history of the ICFTU. Established at another conference in London, Nov. 28 - Dec. 9, 1949, the ICFTU claimed 48,000,000 members. Its membership has, of course, grown considerably since, to an estimated 54,000,000. Structurally, the ICFTU was closely integrated from the start with the ITS. Although the ITS were separate organically, their programs were closely coordinated with ICFTU policies. Non-voting consultative membership in the governing bodies of each was accorded representatives of the other. U.S. influence in ICFTU was, indeed, apparent in the amendment of the ICFTU constitution in 1953. To allow a leading ITS representative (Becu) to be elected President, although not eligible under the existing constitutional requirement, the amendment was voted on the floor (1).

The influence of the U.S. Labor movement in ICFTU is obviously great. Its very size and economic strength gives it a paramount position. Both the AFL and the CIO are keenly aware of the problems created by this position. Both are committed to promoting the interests of the



Labor and management cooperate to see that as many eligible U.S. voters as possible exercise their franchise. Here workers at a manufacturing plant in New Jersey register at a center set up by management.

smaller, younger, and sometimes weaker labor movements in other countries. The union of the AFL and CIO (December 1955) is not likely to alter this pattern of support to other movements inside the ICFTU (2).

This attitude is especially strong in the AFL and may be illustrated from recent events. First the AFL continues to support the Free Trade Union Committee, its wartime effort to extend support and aid to European labor leaders. Second, its interest in the development of unionism in Latin American countries, in which its role has been substantial, is unabated. (Recently, the AFL, CIO, and other labor unions in the U.S. are cooperating more actively in ICFTU's regional organization in that area, ORIT (3). Third, the AFL continues its independent representatives to European labor movements (which the CIO had abandoned by 1953).

The union of the AFL and CIO will undoubtedly strengthen the international cooperation of the U.S. labor movement. Increasing participation in ITS is evident: as of May 1954, 35 international unions, of which 20 were affiliated with the AFL, were members of various ITS, several of more than one (4). Joint action within the orbit of ICFTU as well as through other

channels, will almost certainly enhance the effectiveness of collaboration toward common ends.

One other aspect of AFL interest in international affairs requires notice. During the First World War, Samuel Gompers took the lead in pressing for the international protection of labor. His influence in promoting the international Labor Organization was considerable. It was the support of the AFL for the idea which gave it substance. When the U.S. became a member in 1934, the AFL was designated to select the U.S. labor delegate and has continued to do so since. The CIO has recently selected technical advisers to the official labor delegate. With the AFL-CIO union a reality, the CIO may be expected to exert greater influence in ILO conferences and committees within the framework of the new organization.

The merger of the AFL and CIO (December, 1955) is a major landmark in the U.S. labor movement. The united front, which will undoubtedly include most of the so called "independent unions" (e. g. United Mine Workers, Railroad Brotherhoods outside the AFL), will continue, even expand, international cooperation (5). At home, a single, rather than a dual, organization of international services will help to create greater unity of purpose and momentum of action. Abroad, U.S. labor will speak with one voice and conduct a more concerted program of cooperative activities (6).

Industry

Chambers of Commerce date, in most of the industrial countries, from the latter part of the 19th century. The first international Congress of Chambers of Commerce and Commercial and Industrial Associations met in Liege, Belgium, in 1905. Biennial conferences were held till the sixth in Paris (1914), just before the outbreak of the First World War. The 1912 conference was held in the U.S.

Immediately after the war, private business interests in Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, and the U.S. took the initiative in organizing an International Trade Conference. It met in Atlantic City, Oct. 20-24, 1919, and marked the initial stage in the creation of the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) in 1920. The Permanent Organization Committee of the pre-

war Congress had met in Paris in the spring of 1919, in which U.S. business representatives participated. The Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. took part in this meeting and served as host to the Atlantic City Conference.

The ICC was created at a conference of business representatives of the five countries who met in Paris in June, 1920. The national groups were called Sections (since 1949, the U.S. Section is called U.S. Council of the ICC). Each section was to be represented by three members on the board of directors. (The U.S. Section immediately appointed an advisory committee of 50 leaders of business, commerce, and industry.) An international headquarters and secretariat was established in Paris. The board of directors was to guide the policies of the Chamber in the interim between the biennial conferences. By 1938, national membership had grown from five to 32, with organization members in 15 other countries.

Membership in the ICC was established at the start on a dual basis, and has remained so since. " Organization " members were defined as " national and local commercial, financial, and industrial organizations ". " Associate " membership was to include " corporations, firms, and individuals ".

The U.S. Council has almost from the beginning been composed primarily of the latter category. The Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. and similar business, and commerce, or industry groups (national or regional) have not become firms and individuals have predominated in its membership. This gives the American Section a quite different complexion from many other national Sections (7). In 1937, more than 800 chambers of commerce, industrial associations, banking, shipping and other national or local entrepreneur groups, and more than 2,000 corporations and individuals were affiliated with the ICC.

The ICC was born in the midst of the intense feelings engendered by the War of 1914-18. That war created international economic and fiscal problems of a character and on a scale hitherto unknown. To a large extent, economic response to the war's dislocations in Europe. Participation by U.S. leaders in business, commerce, and industry in the Chamber's program during the two decades after the war was unusually active.

The ICC held biennial conferences during these critical decades. Several coincided with or closely paralleled governmental conferences dealing with the recurring reparations, trade, and other economic crises of the period. In these conferences, the U.S. representatives often were the leaders in supporting the trend toward co-operative relations between private economic groups. European reconstruction demanded mutual concessions in every sphere of economic nationalist policies. The ICC was the major voice which advocated closer economic collaboration across national boundaries, tariff walls, and exchange controls.

The ICC's influence on national and international governmental policies during this period was significant. The two reparations agreements (Dawes and Young Plans) were nurtured in discussions of the Chamber's conferences and of its committees of experts — before they were launched on the political level. Perhaps its most significant impact at the international level was demonstrated by its role in the International Economic Conference of 1927.

The very idea for such a conference was, indeed, inspired by the ICC in its 1923 and 1925 conferences. Economic leaders from erstwhile enemy countries, faced by the deterioration in economic stability in Europe, sought to reconcile their conflicting viewpoints. The one common denominator on which some agreement could be achieved was on the lowering of trade barriers. The ICC initiated a worldwide study of this problem through its national Sections — perhaps the most thorough analysis of trade and trade barriers ever undertaken. Again, U.S. members of the Chamber, took an active part. The resulting documentation, including the reports and recommendations of the ICC, became the principal basis for the Conference discussions of this question. The ICC held, in fact, a consultative status at the conference: many of the official governmental representatives were drawn from its leaders (8).

In the postwar period (1945-56) the ICC has continued to play a major role in international economic affairs. It holds Category A status among private consultative agencies to the United Nations (Economic and Social Council). It is thus the only spokesman for U.S. business, commerce, and industry capable of circulating proposals and participating in debates at rele-



More than 1,500 farm boys and girls, members of 4-H Clubs throughout the United States, are shown in the parade which highlighted the twenty-seventh annual Congress of their organization held recently in Chicago, Illinois. There are 80,286 4-H Clubs in the United States and 203,200 men and women volunteers serve without pay as local Club leaders.

vaut U.S. agencies. Although, of course, the ICC does not speak solely or directly for U.S. private economic organizations, it is through the Chamber that their views receive official recognition in the UN and some of its agencies.

The ICC continues to present a vigorous position on the freedom of private enterprise from governmental controls and the extension of trade opportunities. Thus, the Chamber supports the implementation of GATT and, in general, a libera rather than a restrictive international trade program.

Although the Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. was active in formulation of the ICC, it has not been an organization member. Many firms belong, of course, to the U.S. Council of the ICC, and to the U.S. Chamber. The U.S. Chamber has been particularly active, however, as to international affairs.

The Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. was organized in 1912, as a national focus — a central research secretariat and overall policy-formulating agency — of the already widespread development of local and state chambers. Its

membership includes over 2,300 local and state chambers, 540 national and local trade associations and 20,000 individuals and firms (9).

The U.S. Chamber is representative of all segments of business, commerce, and industry. Among the 19 specialized " departments " of the national organizations are : Foreign Commerce, Economic Research, and Legislative. Each contributes to membership information and action on international affairs. On matters which are considered issues of sufficient importance in governmental policy, the U.S. Chamber conducts " referanda " through all local chambers and then presents the results to Congress, through letters, printed documents, and testimony before House and Senate committees. Since it is representative of often diverse economic interests, the U.S. Chamber (like every national interest-organization to some extent) must generalize its stated positions on specific issues.

The U.S. Chamber, more than any other national level in two ways. First, it stimulates the sends a progressive and liberal policy. A review of its recent resolutions, passed by its annual



Here a member of the U. S. House of Representatives, the larger branch of Congress, talks with one of his farmer constituents on the latter's farm near Columbus, Ohio. The representatives of the American people must keep informed of the feelings and wishes of their constituents back home.

conventions, indicates a pro-UN, pro-freer trade (stable and lower tariffs, increased U.S. imports, trade agreements, limited but expanding East-West trade), anti-Communist program.

The U.S. Chamber functions at the international level in two ways. First, it stimulates the creation of and provides services to American Chambers of Commerce in other countries. There are at present (1954) 32 American Chambers (including branches) in 20 countries. In addition, there are 19 foreign chambers of commerce in the U.S. In each type, membership generally includes representatives of American and foreign firms, thus making for exchange of views on foreign and domestic policies.

The U.S. Chamber has developed particularly close ties with Latin America. The U.S. Inter-American Council was established in 1941, sponsored jointly by the Chamber, the National Association of Manufacturers (NAM, established 1895), and the National Foreign Trade Council (NFTC, established 1914). Its membership in-

cludes firms and banks in 20 Latin American countries. The U.S. Chamber also supports international commercial arbitration, in Latin America through the American Arbitration Association, elsewhere through the ICC.

The second major aspect of international action by the U.S. Chamber is through the ILO. The U.S. Chamber is recognized by the government as the most representative employers' organization, and thus selects the official employers' delegate to ILO conferences.

The U.S. Chamber has played an active role in ILO committees. Its strong anti-Communist position had led to its first steps (1955) to recommend withdrawal of the U.S. from the ILO. This action (as yet not finally decided) has resulted from its refusal to accept as genuinely-representative of employers and workers (in the western sense) the U.S.S.R. delegates for these groups.

The U.S. Chamber also holds a Category B status before the UN Economic and Social Council. Its viewpoints on international affairs can, therefore, be presented in printed form but not orally.

Passing mention may be made of other U.S. business-commerce-industry groups with at least indirect international interests. The NAM maintains a committee on international economic relations. The NFTC serves as a focus of import-export group. It is estimated that there are over 350 foreign trade associations (organized by different industries) in the U.S., and about 1,000 national and local organizations which maintain foreign trade committees. Although none of these groups may be closely affiliated with counterpart groups abroad, they exert more or less direct influence on Congress regarding foreign-trade policy. Some, at least, do establish personal and a few working relations with similar associations in other countries (11).

On the entrepreneur side, active international collaboration has, among private groups perhaps, been less inclusive than on the labor side. Within the international entrepreneur movement, however, as typified by the ICC, the influence of U.S. representatives has been more permeative. In stimulating international cooperation through ICC and in guiding its development, the role of the U.S. Section (Council) has been, if not paramount, certainly of major significance.

Agriculture

Agriculture is traditionally an individualistic occupation. Farmers are, perhaps, the least susceptible of organization of the three groups considered here.

In the U.S., farmers were concerned, until after the First World War, primarily with domestic policies. The nation was a large net exporter of farm products. Farmers were not interested in foreign affairs. The tariff was supported as a means for protecting and increasing domestic purchasing power. The great impetus to agricultural production created by the war led to a postwar agricultural depression. Recovery was, however, still thought of in terms of domestic policies, not foreign trade. Only after the Second World War did farm groups in the U.S. turn special attention to international affairs.

Three major farm groups exist in the U.S. The oldest, the Grange (Patrons of Husbandry) dates its organization from 1867 and now includes over 800,000 members. The National Farmers Union was organized in 1902 and has a membership of over 450,000 families mostly in the dry West Central States. The largest, the American Farm Bureau Federation, grew slowly from its beginnings in 1914 and is now the largest farm group, with over 1,250,000 farm-family members in every state (12).

The influence of the major agricultural groups is still directed primarily toward domestic affairs. Each maintains a "lobby" in Washington and seeks to bring farm opinion to bear on the major issues confronting Congress and the executive.

The most significant shift in farm-group policies since 1945 has been its steady trend toward international cooperation on many fronts, e. g. economic aid, technical assistance, the UN (and its specialized agencies, especially FAO and WHO). The Farm Bureau Federation (FBF) has been particularly active during the postwar period in promoting broader international contacts and cooperation. Its leaders have visited European and Southeast Asian countries, established personal contacts with leaders in all fields in these countries. The farm organizations (in varying degrees, with the FBF in the lead; have been active in promoting food gifts by the U.S. to underdeveloped countries. Their

members have contributed heavily to their own privately initiated international food-seed-live-stock projects. The increasing awareness among farm groups of the importance of bearing of U.S. foreign policies on their interests has been an important factor in the national attitude toward international cooperation (13).

The U.S. government played an active role in the creation of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the UN specialized agency which succeeded the International Institute of Agriculture (1905). It was planned at the Hot Springs international conference in 1943 and was formally organized in 1945. The FAO functions through numerous committees and commissions, some geographical, some functional. As an international governmental "entity", the FAO carries out its program through national governments. National committees are, however, provided for, governmentally appointed but representative of various agricultural interests and organizations in each member state. Several international non-governmental agricultural organizations, in which U.S. groups are members, hold, moreover, consultative status with the FAO.

It is through several of these organizations that various segments of U.S. agriculture are related to farm groups in other countries. Of the 32 non-governmental organizations in the agricultural field, the U.S. is represented in 15, five of which have their headquarters in the U.S. Some of these organizations are scientific in purpose and organization; several are closely although unofficially related to governmental agencies concerned with their interests — from seed-testing and bird protection to sugar-beet and forest research.

Among the more important of these international organizations in the agricultural field, in which major U.S. farm producer groups participate directly or indirectly, are the Dairy Industries Society International and the International Federation of Agricultural Producers. Three other organizations bringing U.S. farm organizations (and individual farmers) into contact with similar groups in other countries may be noted. The International Cooperative Alliance and its offshoot, the International Cooperative Women's Guild, include both farm and non-farm member groups. The Associated Country Women of the World is composed of countrywomen's and home-

maker's organizations in 19 countries; over one-half the membership is in the U.S. It is of interest to note that several of these organizations have consultative status not only with the FAO but, in some cases, with ECOSOC, UNESCO, or UNICEF (14).

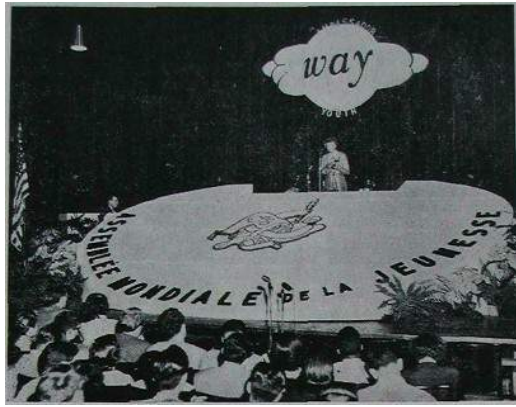
In the agricultural field, as contrasted with the areas of labor and industry, relatively few international conventions as such have been developed. Many bilateral and some unilateral treaties regarding agricultural trade have been agreed to particular countries. International sanitary conventions have affected agricultural products directly or indirectly. The ILO has drafted a few conventions relating to agricultural working conditions. The U.S. government has not been active in these movements and farm groups in the U.S. have not been particularly interested in these fringe developments in international agricultural legislation.

Rather, U.S. farm groups have exerted influence on international affairs along other lines. First, they have displayed increasing interest in all aspects of U.S. foreign policy (as have the other major groups). Second, they have initiated various projects in international aid and established informal consultation with farm leaders abroad. Third, perhaps as a result of their new contacts and experiences, they have participated more actively since 1945 in non-governmental agricultural organizations.

This brief review cannot, of course, present more than an overview of the development and present extent of the international programs and cooperative activities of U.S. labor, industry, and agriculture. It may, perhaps, suggest the increasing interest which these three segments of the U.S. economy have evidenced in closer ties with counterpart groups in other countries.

These ties have only become closer and more collaborative. From collaboration among private groups there has emerged also a more effective concern with the economic and social policies and programs of government. The international contacts of these U.S. groups has been reflected in two ways. First, interest in international government has been quickened. Second, the approach of these groups to their own government on specific domestic and international policies has been influenced by their associations with their confreres in other countries.

- 1) The ITS is now represented by two delegates on the Executive Board, one on the Emergency Committee, and others on the Consultative Council of ICFTU. The ITS also send delegates to ICFTU World Congresses. There are now 19 ITS working in association with ICFTU. See *Free Labour World* (No. 59, May 1955) 8ff.
- 2) See Windmuller, J. J., *American Labor and the International Labor Movement, 1940-53*, (Ithaca, Cornell, 1954) 7 ff.
- 3) See *Free Labour World* (No. 64, Oct. 1955) 30 ff.
- 4) See Segal, M. J., "The International Trade Secretariats", *76 Monthly Labor Review* (April, 1953), 372.
- 5) For a list of US unions, see US Department of Labor, *Directory of National and International Labor Unions in the U.S. 1955* (US Dept. Labor, Bulletin No. 1185, 1956).
- 6) See also, Hardman, J. B. S. and Neufeld, M. F., *The House of Labor*, especially, "Labor's International Relations" by Val R. Lorwin (N. Y., Prentice-Hall, 1951); *Industrial and Labor Relations Review* (Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.) passim; Schuyler, J., ed., *International Labor Directory and Handbook* (N. Y., Praeger, 1955).
- 7) See League of Nations, *Handbook of International Organizations 1937*, XII, B. 4 (Geneve, League of Nations, 1938), 337 (Ridgeway, G. L., *Merchants of Peace* (N. Y., Columbia, 1938) 250, states that by 1927, there were 829 organizations and 2,130 associate members).
- 8) The ICC collaborated in numerous other conferences and conventions of the League of Nations.
- 9) See Chamber of Commerce of the U.S., *Organization Members of the Chamber...* (Washington, The Chamber, annual).
- 10) Chamber of Commerce of the U.S., *Policy Declarations* (Washington, May, 1955).
- 11) For all types of organizations in the U. S., see U. S. Department of Commerce, *National Associations of the U. S.* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1949).
- 12) Some efforts have been made by the AFL and CIO to organize farm workers (as opposed to farm owners and tenants). No widespread unionism exists in this area, although several agricultural-processing industries are at least partially organized. See 160 *Economist* (Jan. 13, 1951) 78; U. S. Department of Agriculture, *Yearbook* (1940) 255-60, 945-54 (National Grange) 954-60 (National Farmers Union) 960-64 (Farm Bureau Federation). See also 28 *Current History* (No. 166, June 1955).
- 13) An indication of this trend among farm groups may be found in the growing attention to international affairs in the farm press generally as well as in the official publications of the three major farm organizations. The increase in coverage has been more consistent — and larger — than for any other field of farmer interest.
- 14) For a more complete account, see Union of International Associations, *Yearbook of International Organizations, 1954-1955* (Brussels, the Association, 1954), especially Nos, 615, 616, 672-703, 1114.



Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, addressing the World Assembly of Youth delegates at Cornell University in 1951. About 400 delegates from 63 countries attended a two-week meeting of the first triennial General Assembly of the World Assembly of Youth, a non-governmental organization formed to united the efforts of young people of the world to improve their work, liberty and culture. The theme of the 1951 WAY meeting was "Youth and Human Rights".

Because of the quantity of material in this issue, our regular surveys (given below) have had to be carried over to the next issues. The calendar of forthcoming international meetings has, however, been included in this issue.

*Programmes of Future Congresses.
News about Non-Governmental Organizations.
Inter-Governmental Decisions of Interest to NGOs.
New International Periodicals.
New International Organizations.
Plans for New International Organizations.
Bibliography.*

The August 1956 issue will present a complete calendar of international meetings scheduled for dates up to and including 1962 plus a subject index of these meetings.



Nous donnons en face des annonces de congrès le numéro sous lequel l'organisation est décrite dans notre **Yearbook of International Organizations**, 1954-55.

Les adresses des comités ou secrétariats locaux d'organisation des congrès ont été données dans le numéro de mars de « Associations Internationales ». Elles seront également indiquées dans le numéro de mai.

Les informations nouvelles non encore publiées dans la Revue ni dans le « Supplément au Calendrier » sont marquées d'un *. Le signe * indique qu'il s'agit d'une modification à une annonce publiée antérieurement.

*We are inserting opposite the announcements of congresses the number under which the organization is described in our **Yearbook of International Organizations**, 1954-55.*

Addresses of the local organizing committees or secretariats were given in the March issue of "International Associations". They will be published again in the May issue.

*New information not yet published in either the Review or the "Supplement to the Calendar" is distinguished by an asterisk *. The symbol * indicates an alteration in an announcement already published.*

JUIN 1956 JUNE

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|--|---|
| <p>1 Jun — Inter-American Commission of Women - 11th Assembly. Ciudad Trujillo 58</p> <p>1 Jun — Int. Association of Clothing Designers - Convention. Not fixed 449</p> <p>1-3 Jun — Comité National de l'Organisation Française - 10^e Congrès int. des problèmes sociaux de l'organisation du travail. Thème : Les progrès accomplis au cours des dernières années dans le perfectionnement des chefs d'entreprises et des cadres supérieurs dans les divers pays et leurs conséquences sociales. Royaumont (France)</p> <p>1-4 Jun — 4^e Congrès int. pour l'étude des marécages. Lindau (Allemagne)</p> <p>3-9 Jun — Int. Musicological Congress - Mozart Memorial Year 1956. Vienna</p> <p>3-10 Jun — Int. Federation of Cotton and Allied Textile Industries - Meetings. Munich (Germany) 625</p> <p>3-10 Jun — Société Int. pour la Musique Contemporaine - 30^e Festival int. de la musique. Stockholm 1039</p> <p>4-8 Jun — Association Int. du Congrès des Chemins de Fer - Congrès. La Haye 715</p> <p>4-9 Jun — 6^e Congrès int. des fabrications mécaniques. Thème : Le traitement des</p> | <p>surfaces pour l'amélioration des propriétés mécaniques et pour la protection contre la corrosion. Paris 637</p> <p>4-9 Jun — Int. Seed Testing Association - Int. Seed Testing Convention. Paris 697</p> <p>4-14 Jun — Int. Red locust Control Service - Ordinary session of the Council. Abercorn (Northern Rhodesia) 87</p> <p>5 Jun — * Association Int. Permanente des Congrès, de Navigation - Commission Int. Permanente - Assemblée annuelle. Bruxelles 728</p> <p>5 Jun — Int. Chamber of Commerce - Commission on advertising. Paris 609</p> <p>5-7 jun — Int. Shoe and Leather Worker's Federation - 15th Congress. Freudenstadt, Schwarzwald (Germany) 508</p> <p>5-8 Jun — 5^e Conférence générale des représentants des Organisations Internationales Non-Gouvernementales bénéficiant des arrangements consultatifs auprès de l'Unesco. Paris 279</p> <p>5-8 Jun — Union Int. des Transports Routiers - Congrès. Thème : Transports routiers internationaux (par autocars et camions). Stockholm 718</p> |
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1956	June	Yearbook n°	1956	June	Yearbook n°
6-28	Jun — OIT - Conférence Int. du Travail - 39 ^e session. Genève	7	13-23	Jun — * Unesco - Meeting of experts for the establishment of an International Centre of educational, scientific and cultural films for television. Paris	14
7	Jun — Commission du Danube - Session ordinaire. Budapest	44	14-17	Jun — World Federation of Trade Unions Int. Conference of Working Women. Not fixed	528
7-9	Jun — Association Henri Capitant pour la Culture Juridique Française - Congrès. Berne, Fribourg, Neuchâtel (Suisse)	356	14-20	Jun — Fédération Int. des Cheminots Anti-alcooliques - Congrès. Oslo	187
7-9	Jun — Fédération Européenne du Génie Chimique - 9 ^e manifestation. Francfort s/M. (Allemagne)	732	14-21	Jun — World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union - 20th Convention. Bremen and Bad Sulzuffen (Germany)	222
7-9	Jun — 3rd Int. Light Metals Convention. Loeben (Austria)		15-20	Jun — Int. Council of Scientific Unions - Executive Board - 8th meeting. Bagnères-de-Bigorre (France)	804
7-9	Jun — Fédération Int. des Bureaux d'Extraits de Presse - Congrès Int. Stuttgart (Allemagne)	137	17-22	Jun — Int. Congress of Medical Laboratory Technologists - 1st North American conference. Quebec (Canada)	
7-13	Jun — * Commission Int. de Police Criminelle - Assemblée générale - 25 ^e session. Vienne	374	17-22	Jun — Confédération Int. des Betteraviers Européens - Congrès. Scheveningen (Pays-Bas)	674
8	Jun — Int. Chamber of Commerce - Commission on distribution. Paris	609	17-23	Jun — Int. Union of Pure and Applied Physics. Colloquium on physical and biological acoustics and 2nd meeting of the Int. Commission on Acoustics. Cambridge (Mass., USA)	83Z
8-9	Jun — Fédération Européenne de la Manutention - Assemblée Générale. Wiesbaden (Allemagne)	579	17-23	Jun — World Confederation for Physical Therapy - 2nd Congress. Theme : Health, a strong force for world understanding - The role of the physical therapist. New York	944
9-11	Jun — European Organization for Research on Fluorine and Dental Caries Prophylaxis - Congress. Marburg Lahn Kasel (Germany)		17-23	Jun — World Power Conference - 5th Plenary Meeting. Theme : World Energy Resources in the Light of Recent Technical and Economic Developments. Vienna	765
10-15	Jun — • Rencontre int. des journalistes. Helsinki		17-29	Jun — The Institute of Welding - Commonwealth Welding Conference. London	
10-17	Jun — Comité Int. Olympique - 16 ^e Jeux Olympiques - Jeux équestres. Stockholm	1090	18-21	Jun — 2nd Int. Conference on Plant Protection. Fernhurst (Sussex-UK)	
11-12	Jun — Unesco - Meeting of representatives of international organizations for libraries, documentation and archives. Paris	14	18-22	Jun — Int. Organization for Standardization - Standing Committee for the study of scientific principles of standardization. Cambridge (UK)	752
11-15	Jun — Int. Council of Scientific Unions - Joint Commission on Spectroscopy - 4th meeting. Columbus (Ohio, USA)	804	18-23	Jun — Institut Int. des Châteaux Historiques - 6 ^e congrès int. castellologique. Montagnana (Italie)	1021
11-15	Jun — Fédération Lainière Int. - Congrès Zurich (Suisse)	653	18-23	Jun — Association Int. de la Distribution des Produits Alimentaires - 3 ^e Congrès int. Rome	600
11-16	Jun — Int. Organization for Standardization - ISO/TC 22 - Automobiles / Illuminating and indicating lights Section. London	752	18-30	Jun — * Confédération Int. des Syndicats Libres - Comité consultatif européen de l'éducation - Ecole d'été. Innsbruck (Autriche)	491
11-23	Jun — Conseil Européen pour la recherche nucléaire - Symposium sur la physique des hautes énergies. Genève	46			
12-15	Jun — Fédération Int. Motocycliste - Congrès. Oslo	1089			
12-15	Jun — Union Int. des Organisations de Détaillants de la Branche Alimentaire - Congrès. Suisse	465			
12-15	Jun — Fédération Int. des Administrateurs de Biens Conseils Immobiliers - Congrès. Vienne	627			

Organizers of congresses are requested to keep the UIA informed of any meetings or changes in the date and place of meetings already scheduled. If you do not find your forthcoming congress listed, please notify one of the UIA secretariats accordingly.

- 19 Jun — ICAO - Assembly - 10th Session.
Caracas 6
- 20-22 Jun — Ligue Européenne de **Coopération Economique** - 3^e Conférence. Thème : Le marché commun, facteur de prospérité sociale. Bruxelles 543
- 20-26 Jun — Int. Union for the **Protection of Nature** - 5th General Assembly and 6th Technical Meeting. **Edinburgh** (UK) 824
- 21 Jun — Int. Federation of Importers' and Wholesale **Grocers'** Associations - General Assembly.
- Rome**
- 25 Jun — Int. Confederation of Free **Trade Unions** - Executive Board. Brussels 491
- 25-30 Jun — UN - ECE - Conference of European statisticians. Geneva 1
- 25-30 Jun — * Unesco - Intergovernmental **Copyright** Committee. Paris 14
- 25 Jun - 6 Jul — World's Woman's Christian **Temperance** Union - 2nd European Seminar for Alcohol Study. **Geneva** 222
- 26-28 Jun — * Int. Conference on Chemical Engineering - " Chemical Engineering in the **Coal Industry**".
Cheltenham (Glos - UK)
- 26-29 Jun — Int. Organization for Standardization - ISO/TC 24 - **Sieves**.
Düsseldorf (Germany) 752
- 26-29 Jun — * Congrès int. de **cybernétique**,
Namur (Belgique)
- 26-30 Jun — Int. Standing Committee on **Physiology and Pathology of Animal Reproduction** - 3rd Int. Congress.
Cambridge (UK) 698
- 26 Jun - 6 Jul — Int. **Electrotechnical** Commission - General meeting.
Munich (Germany) 747

- 27 Jun - 4 Jul — Int. Union of Biological Sciences Symposium on Comparative **Biology of Aquatic Species**. **Roscoff** (France) 825
- 28 Jun - 1 Jul — 3rd Int. Conference on **Rheumatism**. **Aix-les-Bains** (France)
- 28 Jun - 2 Jul — Int. Association for **Bridge and Structural** Engineering - 5th Int. Congress. **Lisbon** 737
- 28 Jun - 4 Jul — * Conférence int. des **écrivains** catholiques.
- Vienne**
- Jun — Union européenne des commerces des grains, graines oléagineuses, aliments de bétail et dérivés - 4^e congrès. **Allemagne** 664
- Jun — Int. Federation of **Actors** - Congress.
Brussels 460
- Jun — * Int. Conference of the Faculty of **Actuaries**. **Edinburgh** (UK)
- Jun — Int. **Credit Insurance** Association - General Assembly.
Hamburg (Germany) 547
- Jun — Fédération Int. du Bâtiment et des **Travaux Publics** - Assemblée générale. **Helsinki** 621
- Jun — Union mondiale des Organisations **Féminines Catholiques** - Journées d'information. Thème : La vie internationale.
Lucerne, Lausanne, Londres, Dublin 1130
- Jun — Union Européenne du Commerce de Gros des **Pommes de terre** - Congrès.
Rome 667
- Jun — Fédération Int. des Sociétés Artistiques et Intellectuelles de **Cheminots** - Congrès. Thème : Développement des échanges culturels et l'action artistique éducative.
Vienne
- Jun — FAO - Latin American **Forestry** Commission - 6th session.
Not fixed 2

JUILLET 1956 JULY

- 1-8 Jul — Institut Int. de la **Soudure** - Assemblée annuelle. **Madrid** 750
- 2-7 Jul — Union Int. de Physique Pure et Appliquée - Colloque sur la **physique nucléaire**. **Amsterdam** (Pays-Bas) 832
- 2-7 Jul — Int. Commission on **Glass** - 4th Int. Glass Congress. Theme : To promote collaboration between the scientist and the technician. **Paris** 739
- 2-9 Jul — Int. Council of **Museums** - 4th Triennial Conference.
Zurich-Bale (Switzerland) 1028
- 3-6 Jul — FAO/Union Int. des Instituts de Recherche Forestière - Joint Committee on **bibliography**.
Oxford (UK) 2/700
- 3 Jul - 4 Aug — UN - ECOSOC - 22nd Regular Session. **Geneva** 1
- 4-8 Jul — World Alliance of **YMCAs** - Meeting of YMCA European national Presidents and Secretaries. **Mainau** (Germany) 998
- 4-8 Jul — Fédération Mondiale de la **Jeunesse Démocratique** - Rencontre des Jeunes Filles d'Europe. **Paris** 995
- 5-9 Jul — Association Int. des Educateurs de **Jeunes Inadaptés** - 3^e Congrès int.
Fontainebleau (France) 958
- 6-23 Jul — British Friends Service Council - Int. Seminar. Subject : Issues that divide the world : A search for **common ground**.
Bewdley (Worcs.-UK) 448

- 7-14 Jul — Union Int. des Instituts de Recherche Forestière - 12^e Congrès. **Oxford** (Grande-Bretagne) 700
- 8-13 Jul — Int. Federation of Business and Professional Women - 7th Congress. **Montreal** (Canada) 1119
- 8-13 Jul — Int. Society of Christian Endeavor - Convention. **Portland** (Ore, U.S.A.)
- 8-15 Jul — Inter American Society of Philosophy - 1st Congress and 4th Inter-American Congress of Philosophy. **Santiago**.
- 9 Jul — Association des Ecoles Int. - Congrès. Sujet : L'étude des problèmes pédagogiques et administratifs des écoles int. **Genève**
- 9-14 Jul — Soroptimist Int. Association - Quadrennial Congress. **The Hague** 1125
- 9-17 Jul — Unesco/Int. Bureau of Education - 19th Int. conference on Public Education. **Geneva** 14/66
- 9-26 Jul — Commonwealth and Empire conference on the human problems of industrial communities. **Oxford** (UK)
- 10 Jul — World Zionist Organization - 25th Zionist Congress. **Jerusalem** 193
- 10-14 Jul — Réunion scientifique int. **Belgrade**
- 11 Jul — Int. Lawn Tennis Federation - Annual general meeting. **Copenhagen** 1087
- 11-15 Jul — * Fédération Int. Catholique d'Education Physique - Rencontre sportive. **Graz** (Autriche) 1051
- 11-18 Jul — World Alliance of YMCAs - Executive Committee. **Geneva** 998
- 12-14 Jul — 7th int. astrophysical symposium on molecules in cosmic sources. **Liège** (Belgium)
- 12-14 Jul — Int. Organization for Standardization - ISO/TO 30 - Measurement of fluid flow. **Munich** (Germany) 752
- 13 Jul — Int. Organization for Standardization - ISO/TC 67 - Material for pipe lines and other fixed installations in the field of the petroleum industry. **Geneva** 752
- 15-22 Jul — Imperial Society of Teachers of Dancing - Congress. **London** 447
- 16 Jul — Int. Commission on Whaling - 8th meeting. **London** 73
- 16-20 Jul — Union Int. des Avocats - Congrès. **Paris**
- 16-21 Jul — int. Organization for Standardization - Council meeting. **Geneva** 752
- 17-22 Jul — Semaine Sociale de France. Sujet : Les exigences humaines de l'expansion économique. **Marseille** (France)

- 17-26 Jul — Int. Society of Photogrammetry - 8th Int. Congress. **Stockholm** 82t
- 18-21 Jul — Association of National European and Mediterranean Societies of Gastroenterology - 5th European Congress. **London** 852
- 18-21 Jul — Pilot Int. - Int. Convention. **Miami Beach** (Fla. USA)
- 18-26 Jul — Int. Transport Workers' Federation - 24th biennial congress. **Vienna** 509
- 19-21 Jul — * Fédération Int. des Associations d'Etudes Classiques - Assemblée générale. **Amsterdam** 1032
- 19-23 Jul — Conseil Œcuménique des Eglises - Comité de Travail du Département des Laïcs. **Suisse** 211
- 20-24 Jul — Union Int. des Espérantistes Catholiques - 26^e congrès. **Saragosse** (Espagne) 192
- 20-29 Jul — The Int. Order of Good Templars - Int. camp in connection with celebration of 50 years of Templar Youth Work in the Netherlands. **Netherlands** 18a
- 20 Jul - 9 Aug — * Fondation des Universités des Pays-Bas pour la Coopération Int. - Session d'été. **Delft** (Pays-Bas)
- 22 Jul (opens) — Int. Friendship League - Conference. **Oslo** 301
- 22-25 Jul — Commission of the Churches on Int. Affairs - Annual meeting of the Executive Committee and celebration of 10th anniversary. **Switzerland** 273
- 22-27 Jul — 8^e congrès int. de pédiatrie. **Copenhagen** 902
- 22-28 Jul — 8^e congrès int. de radiologie. **Mexico** 918
- 22-29 Jul — Union Catholique Int. de Service Social - Semaine d'étude des travailleurs sociaux catholiques. Thème : Les possibilités catholiques dans le travail social moderne. **Londres** 392
- 22-29 Jul — Int. Federation for Housing and Town Planning - Int. Congress. **Vienna** 748
- 23-25 Jul — FAO Conference on Inland Fisheries. **Helsinki** 2
- 23-27 Jul — * 2nd Int. Symposium - " The Metabolism of the Nervous System ". **Aarhus** (Denmark)
- 23-27 Jul — Int. Homeopathic League - Congress. Theme : The world's present day need of homeopathy. **London** 895
- 23-29 Jul — Women's Int. League for Peace and Freedom - Congress. **Birmingham** (UK) 330
- 23-31 Jul — Int. Union of Biological Sciences / Int. Institute of Embryology - General Assembly and Symposium on cytodifferentiation. **Providence, R.I. (USA)** 825

1956 **Juillet**

Yearbook n°

- 23 Jul - 1 Aug — Int. Union of Students / Norwegian Union of Students - Int. seminar of **agricultural students**. Norway 987
- 24-30 Jul — Sennacieca Asocio Tutmonda - Congrès. Beograd
- 25-27 Jul — Int. Federation of Secondary Teachers - Congress. Theme : The development of the social sense in **secondary teaching**. Montreux (Switzerland) 974
- 25-31 Jul — Int. Folk Music Council - General Assembly. Trossingen/Stuttgart (Germany) 1033
- 26-29 Jul — Fédération int. des **intellectuels latins**. - Congrès. Brive (France)
- 26 Jul - 8 Aug — The New Education Fellowship - 14th Int. Conférence. Thème : Constructive education and mental health in home, school and community. Utrecht (Netherlands) 988
- 27-31 Jul — Royal Empire Society - **Empire Summer school**. Balliol College (Oxford) (UK)
- 27 Jul - 7 Aug — Int. Association of Theoretical and Applied **Linnology** - 13th Int. Congress. Helsinki 786
- 28 Jul - 2 Aug — Union Int. de Protection de l'**Enfance** - Conseil Général. Bonn (Allemagne) 423
- 28 Jul — 4 Aug — **Kristana Esperantista Ligo Internacia** - Int. Conférence. Thème : Kristano en la mondo. Jönköping (Sweden) 155
- 28 Jul - 5 Aug — Conseil Œcuménique des Eglises - Réunion du Comité Central. Budapest 211
- 29 Jul - 4 Aug — Centro de Exploro Kaj Dokumentado - Conférence des membres. Thème : Le problème des **langues** dans les **organisations internationales**. Frostavallen (Suède) 147
- 29 Jul — 4 Aug — Int. Union of Social Democratic Teachers - 6th conference. Theme : **Adult education**. Roskilde (Denmark) 349

1956 **July**

Yearbook

- 30 Jul - 2 Aug — Fédération Int. des **Settlements** - Conférence et Assemblée Générale. Thème : L'essor et le développement des activités sociales au service du voisinage. Berlin (Ouest) 412
- 30 Jul - 2 Aug — Young World Federalists - 10th Annual congress. Manchester (UK) 344
- 30 Jul - 2 Aug — * World's Christian Endeavor Union - Pacific Area Conference. Tokyo 218
- 30 Jul - 4 Aug — Int. Union of Physiological Sciences - 20th Congress. Brussels 928
- Jul — Fédération Int. des Associations des **Etudiants en Médecine** - Assemblée générale. Beograd 971
- Jul — Congress of **Esperantists** from Danubian Countries. Bratislava (Hungary)
- Jul — FAO - Int. Poplar Commission - Permanent Committee. Brussels 86
- Jul — Commission Int. des **Industries Agricoles** - Symposium sur la répercussion des conditions de production, de transformation, de conservation, de conditionnement et d'emballage sur la valeur hygiénique des aliments. Danemark 70
- Jul — Int. North Pacific **Fisheries Commission** - 6th Meeting. Halifax 1138
- Jul — UN - Technical Assistance Committee. New York 1
- Jul — Société de St **Vincent de Paul** - Assemblée plénière. Paris 430
- Jul — * Bureau Interafricain des **Epizooties** - Symposium. Pretoria (Union Sud-Africaine) 53
- Jul — Scandinavian **Pacifist** Congress. Telemarken (Norway)
- Jul — Int. Federation of **Free Teachers' Unions** - General Council and Summer School. Theme : The teaching of languages. Tunis 498
- Jul — FAO **Desert Locust Control Committee** - 3rd Session. Not fixed 2

AOUT 1956 AUGUST

- 1-6 Aug — Int. Union of Biological Sciences - 1^{er} congrès int. de **génétique humaine**. Copenhague 825

- 1-8 Aug — World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession - Assembly. Theme : The Teacher and the Well being of Society. Manille (Philippines) 994

Nous sommes reconnaissants aux organisateurs de congrès de bien vouloir nous informer des réunions prévues et des changements de date ou de lieu de congrès déjà annoncés. Si vous remarquez que votre prochain congrès n'est pas mentionné dans le présent calendrier, veuillez faire parvenir toutes informations utiles à l'un des secrétariats de l'UAI.

1956 Août	Yearbook n°
1-15 Aug — Latin American Union of Societies of Phthisiology - 11th Pan American Tu-berculosis Congress. Medellin and Bogota 930	
3-10 Aug — Int. Federation of University Women - 12th Conference. Paris 1120	
3-12 Aug — Fédération Int. de Camping et de Caravanning - 17 ^e congrès et rallye. Barcelone (Espagne) 1075	
3-16 Aug — Fédération Int. de Jeunesse pour l'étude et la protection de la nature - Camp int. et inauguration de la Fédération int. Gross Venediger (Autriche)	
4-6 Aug — Int. Society of Naturopathic Physicians - Int. Council of Botanic Medicine Conference. Colorado Springs (Col.-USA) 916	
4-11 Aug — Universala Esperanto Asocio - 41 a Universala Kongreso de Esperanto. Copenhagen . 324	
4-11 Aug- — Skolta Esperantista Ligo - Congress. Copenhagen	
4-11 Aug — Int. Ligo de Esperantistaj Instruistoj - 3 meetings. Copenhagen 979	
4-11 Aug — World Movement for World Federal Government - Int. study conference. Lyme Hall (Disley) (UK) 341	
4-25 Aug — American Friends Service Committee - Int. seminar. Subject : The changing role of Asia and Africa in world affairs. Kranj (Yugoslavia)	
5-10 Aug — 8th Int. Conference of Social Work . Theme : Men and machines : industrialization and its effect on social work for family and community. Munich (Germany) 411	
7-12 Aug — Federation of Mazdaznan Women - Int. Summer Gahanbar. Hannover (Germany) 161	
8-12 Aug — Union Int. du Notariat Latin - 4 ^e Congrès. Thème : L'institution notariale - Sa place dans la société juridiquement organisée. Rio de Janeiro 388	
8-14 Aug — 32nd Int. Congress of Americanists . Copenhagen 242	
9-18 Aug — Int. Geographical Union - 18th Int. Geographical Congress. Bio de Janeiro 808	
10-18 Aug — Int. Youth Hostel Federation - Rally and conference. Subjects : How can youth hostels meet the needs of today's youth ; How to increase usage of youth hostels in the off-seasons. Loch Lomond and Carbisdale (Scotland, UK) 1106	
11-18 Aug — Int. Council of Social Democratic Women - Socialist Women's Study Week. De Born, Bennekom (Netherlands)	

1956 August	Yearbook n°
11 Aug - 1 Sept — American Friends Service Committee - Int. seminar. Subject : New nations and emerging peoples in a divided world. Hilleröd (Denmark)	
12-17 Aug — World Federation for Mental Health - 9th Annual Meeting. Berlin 945	
14-19 Aug — • Inter-American Municipal organization - 6th Meeting. Subject : Extension and development of urban areas. Panama City 364	
14-25 Aug — World Assembly of Youth - Council meeting. Berlin 945	
15 Aug — Union Int. de Chimie Pure et Appliquée - Réunion de la Division des matières grasses. Copenhagen 831	
16-21 Aug — Alliance Réformée Mondiale - Assemblée régionale. Emden (Allemagne) 216	
17-25 Aug — Permanent Committee of the Int. Congress of Entomology — 10th Int. Entomological Congress. Montreal (Canada) 839	
19-23 Aug — American College of Chest Physicians - 4th Int. Congress of diseases of the chest . Cologne (Germany) 848	
19 Aug - 8 Sept — American Friends Service Committee - Int. seminar. Subject : National development and int. responsibility . Puidoux (Switzerland)	
20-24 Aug — Int. Federation of Physical Medicine - 2nd Int. Quadrennial Congress. Copenhagen 893	
20-26 Aug — • Fédération Int. des Architectes Paysagistes - Congrès. Zurich (Suisse)	
20 Aug - 14 Sept — Unesco - Conseil Exécutif 44 ^e Session. Paris 14	
21-24 Aug — Int. Landworkers' Federation - Congress. Frankfurt (Germany) 506	
22-23 Aug — Int. Chiropractors Association - 30th anniversary convention. Davenport (Iowa, USA)	
22-29 Aug — Int. Sociological Association - 3rd World Congress of Sociology. Theme : Problems of Social Change in the 20th century. Amsterdam (Netherlands) 252	
22-29 Aug — World Alliance of YMCAs - Int. Young Men's Conference. Winchester (UK) 998	
23 Aug - 27 Sept — Int. Radio Consultative Committee - 8th Plenary Assembly. Warsaw 13	
24-26 Aug — Fédération Naturiste Int. - 5 ^e congrès mondial. Hanovre (Allemagne) 900	
24 Aug - 29 Sept — Int. Alliance of Women - A Social Study for Women from the East. Sweden 1117	

- 26 Aug - 2 Sept — Int. Law Association - 47th Conference. **Dubrovnik** (Yugoslavia) 380
- 27-30 Aug — Commonwealth of **World Citizens** - Constituent Assembly. **Cardiff** (UK) 275
- 27-31 Aug — Union Int. de Physique Pure et Appliquée - Colloque sur la **thermodynamique** des phénomènes de **transport** et réunion de la commission sur la thermodynamique. **Bruxelles** 832
- 27-31 Aug — Ordre Souverain Constantinien - Congrès int. **San Marino**
- 27-31 Aug — Int. Astronomical Union - Symposium on **electromagnetic phenomena** in cosmical physics. **Stockholm** 790
- 27 Aug - 1 Sept — Int. Organization of **Old Testament Scholars** - Congress. **Strasbourg** (France) 185
- 28 Aug - 1 Sept — Union Int. de Physique Pure et Appliquée - Colloque sur les **semi-conducteurs** et le **phosphore**. **Garmish-Partenkirchen**
- (Allemagne) 832
- 28 Aug - 2 Sept — Int. Institute of **Philosophy** - Symposium on Responsibility. **Amersfort** (Netherlands) 179
- 28 Aug - 3 Sept — Int. Federation of **Ironmongers and Iron Merchants** Associations - Congress. **Interlaken** (Switzerland) 624
- 29 Aug - 2 Sept — Int. Society of **Blood Transfusion** - 6th Int. Congress. **Boston** (Mass-USA) 907
- 29 Aug - 8 Sept — Int. Society of **Soil Science** - 6th Int. Congress. **Paris** 822
- 31 Aug - 2 Sept — Conférence Int. de Sociologie **Religieuse** - 5^e Conférence int. de sociologie religieuse. Thème : La paroisse - les vocations sacerdotales et religieuses. **Louvain** (Belgique) 241

SEPTEMBRE 1956 SEPTEMBER

- 1-9 Sept — Int. **Foundry** Congress. **Düsseldorf** (Germany)
- 1-9 Sept — 5th Int. Congress of anthropological and **ethnological** sciences. **Philadelphia** (USA) 256
- 2-6 Sept — 1^{er} congrès int. pour le **Latin vivant**. **Avignon** (France)
- 2-8 Sept — Fédération mondiale des associations pour les **Nations Unies** - 11^e assemblée plénière. **Genève** 338

- Aug — Association Int. de la Sécurité Sociale - Commission permanente de la **Mutualité**. Sujets : 1. Organisation de mutualités dans les régions insuffisamment développées. - 2. Problèmes particuliers des mutualités en tant qu'organismes gestionnaires de la sécurité sociale. **Copenhague** 420
- Aug — World **University Service** - General Assembly. **Indonesia** 436
- Aug — Int. Mathematical Union - Colloquium on Algebraic Topology. **Mexico City** 814
- Aug — Fédération Int. des Travailleurs Sociaux - Congrès. **Munich** (Allemagne) 413
- Aug — * **Int. Social Service** - Staff meeting. **Munich** (Germany) 421
- I Aug — Int. Union of **Students** - 4th World student congress. **Prague** 987
- Aug — **Int. West African** Conference - Meeting. **São Tomé** 259
- Aug — Fédération Int. de **Gymnastique** - 35^e congrès. **Vienne** 1081
- Summer — Int. Union of Students - Int. Conference of **Architectural students**. **Budapest** 987
- Eté — * Fédération Int. des Associations des **Etudiants en Médecine** - Congrès clinique int. d'Etudiants. **France** 971
- Summer — Scandinavian Sales and Advertising Federation - 8th Nordic Congress of **advertising**. **Gothenburg** (Sweden)
- Summer — The **Socialist Int.** - 4th Int. Socialist Seminar : Problems of Co-existence. **La Breviere** (France) 353
- Eté — Confédération Int. des Associations **d'Anciens Elèves de l'Enseignement commercial** supérieur - 15^e congrès. **Rome** 962
- Summer — Int. Union of Students - Int. seminar of students of **economics**. **Sofia** 987
- Summer — Int. Union of Students - Int. **medical students seminar**. **Soviet Union** 987
- Summer — World Association of **Parliamentarians for World Government** - Confer-

- 3-6 Sept — Int. Union of Family Organizations - Int. **Family** Conférence. Thème : La culture et la famille rurale. **The Hague** 424
- 3-7 Sept — Int. Association of **Logopedics and Phoniatics** - 10th Int. Congress for **speech and voice therapy**. **Barcelona** (Spain) 874
- 3-7 Sept — Congrès des **Médecins Aliénistes et Neurologistes** de France et des Pays de Langue Française. **Bordeaux** (France)

Yearbook

- 3-7 Sept — Conference of Representatives from the Engineering Societies of Western Europe and the United States - 3rd Int. Conference on **Engineering Education and Training**. **Paris** n°
- 3-8 Sept — Société Int. d'**Hématologie** - 6^e congrès. **Boston (USA)** 912
- 3-8 Sept — Institut Int. des **Sciences Administratives** - Congrès. **Madrid** 978
- 3-8 Sept — Int. Association of **University Professors and Lecturers** - 9th University Conference. **Munich (Germany)** 957
- 3-9 Sept — Int. Union of History of Sciences - 4th General Assembly and 8th Int. Congress for **history of sciences**. **Florence (Italy)** 829
- 3-9 Sept — Académie Int. d'**Histoire des Sciences** - Assemblée générale. **Florence** 777
- 3-10 Sept — Association **Littéraire et Artistique** Int. - Congrès. **Amsterdam (Pays-Bas)** 381
- 3-15 Sept — L'Institut Néerlandais «L'Homme et la Société» - Conférence int. sur les **relations humaines**. Thème : L'examen des facteurs portant influence sur les relations humaines. **Berg-en-Dal** (près Nimègue, Pays-Bas)
- 3-15 Sept — ILO - 6th Regional Conference of American States Members. **La Havana** 7
- 4-7 Sept — * European Committee on **Milk-Butterfat Recording** - Meeting. **Vienna**
- 4-9 Sept — Conseil Parlementaire du **Mouvement Européen** - Congrès. **Vienne** 316
- 4-11 Sept — Int. Paleontological Union / Int. Geological Congress - Joint meeting on **paleontology**, micropaleontology and stratigraphy. **Mexico (D.F.)** 809
- 4-11 Sept — 20th Int. **Geological** Congress. **Mexico City** 809
- 4-14 Sept — **Unicef** - Executive Board. **New York** 22
- 5-7 Sept — Int. Union of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics - Colloquium on **fluid mechanics**. **Göttingen (Germany)** 833
- 5-7 Sept — Int. Association of **Milk and Food Sanitarians** - Meeting. **Seattle (Wash., USA)**
- 5-13 Sept — German Society for Applied Mechanics - Int. Congress on **Mechanics**. **Brussels**
- 5-13 Sept — Int. Union of **Theoretical and Applied Mechanics** - 9th Int. Congress on theoretical and applied mechanics. **Brussels** 833
- 5-15 Sept — 1st Pan American Conference of **Gerontology**. **Mexico City**

Yearbook

- 6-9 Sept — Pax Romana - Fédération Int. des Pharmaciens Catholiques - 4^e congrès int. Thème : La **pharmacie** est-elle nécessaire ? **Freiburg** 1. **Breisgau** (Allemagne) 319
- 6-9 Sept — 8^e Congrès des Sociétés de **Philosophie** de Langue Française. Thème : L'homme et son prochain. **Toulon** (France)
- 6-11 Sept — Association Int. des **Sciences Economiques** - 1^{er} congrès. **Rome** 548
- 6-12 Sept — Int. Union of Biological Sciences - Symposium on **genetics**. **Tokyo and Kyoto** 825
- 8-13 Sept — Centre Européen de la Culture - Congrès **pédagogique** européen. **Brème** (Allemagne) 1011
- 8-13 Sept — Association Int. des **Skai Clubs** - Congrès. **Interlaken** (Suisse) 1044
- 9-13 Sept — Int. College of **Surgeons** - 10th Biennial Congress. **Chicago (Ill. USA)** 878
- 9-13 Sept — Int. Association of **Chiefs of Police** - 63rd Annual Conference. **Chicago (Ill-USA)** 367
- 9-14 Sept — Int. League of **Antiquarian Booksellers** - Congress. **London** 635 A
- 9-14 Sept — Int. Congress of **Clinical Chemistry**. **New York**
- 9-16 Sept — Int. Union of Pure and Applied **Chemistry** - 15th Int. Congress. **Lisbon** 831
- 10-14 Sept — Institution of Mechanical Engineers - Int. Conference on **Fatigue of Metals**. **London**
- 10-14 Sept — Int. Union of **Marine Insurance** - Congress. **Monte-Carlo** 720
- 10-14 Sept — Int. Union of Pure and Applied Physics - Symposium on **electron transport in metals and solids**. **Ottawa** 832
- 10-14 Sept — Int. Congress on **Catalysis** - Sponsored jointly by the National Science Foundation, the Catalysis Clubs of Philadelphia and Chicago, and the University of Pennsylvania. **Philadelphia, Pa. (USA)**
- 10-14 Sept — 2nd Int. **Dietetics** Congress. **Rome**
- 10-14 Sept — European Society of **Cardiology** - 2nd Congress. **Stockholm** 859
- 10-15 Sept — Int. Bureau against **Alcoholism** - 25th Congress against alcoholism. **Istanbul** 189
- 10-15 Sept — World **Prohibition** Federation - Congress. Theme : Legislative Aspects of the Liquor Problem. **Istanbul**
- 217
- 10-15 Sept — 3rd Int. Congress on High-Speed **Photography**. **London**
- 10-16 Sept — Pax Romana - Association Int. des Médecins Catholiques - 7^e Congrès int. de médecins catholiques. Thème : La **médecine et le droit**. **La Haye - Nimègue** 319

Yearbook n°

- 10-17 Sept — Association Int. des Sciences Juridiques - Congrès int. de **droit comparé** - Assemblée plénière et 4 colloques.
Barcelone (Espagne) 373
- 10-17 Sept — Commission for Technical Cooperation in Africa South of the Sahara - Inter-African Angola **Nutrition** Conference 3rd meeting.
Loanda (Angola) 38
- 12-14 Sept — Int. Federation of **Workers' Educational** Associations - Congress.
Vienna 976
- 12-15 Sept — • 3rd European Congress of **Allergology**.
Florence (Italy)
- 13-15 Sept — Int. Organization for Standardization - ISO/TC 32 - **Splines and serrations**.
Geneva 752
- 13-15 Sept — Institut Int. de Finances **Publiques** - 12^e session. Thème : Les aspects économiques et sociaux de dépenses publiques du point de vue de l'analyse qualitative.
Rome 378
- 14-18 Sept — Société Int. d'Hydatidologie - 6^e congrès int. **d'hydatidologie**.
Athènes 913
- 15-20 Sept — Int. Bureau of **Differential Anthropology** - 4th Int. Congress. Theme : Differential anthropology and education.
Bologna (Italy) 238
- 16-20 Sept — Int. **City Managers' Association** - 42nd Conference.
Banff (Alberta, Canada)
- 16-22 Sept — Confédération Int. des Sociétés **d'Auteurs et Compositeurs** - Congrès.
Hambourg (Allemagne) 456
- 16-22 Sept — Union Int. du **Cinéma d'Amateurs** - Congrès.
Zurich (Suisse) 1041
- 17-19 Sept — 4th Int. Congress of **Alpine Meteorology**.
Chamonix (France)
- 17-19 Sept — Unesco - Liaison committee of International organizations in the field of **arts and letters**.
Paris 14
- 17-20 Sept — Int. Institute for the Unification of **Private Law** - General assembly.
Barcelona (Spain) 80
- 17-20 Sept — British Road Federation - Int. conference to discuss urban **motorways**.
London
- 17-21 Sept — *if* Int. Air Transport Association - Conference.
Edinburgh (UK) 710
- 17-21 Sept — * Union féminine **artistique** int. - Congrès.
Nice (France)
- 17-22 Sept — FAO - General Fisheries Council for the Mediterranean - 4th Session.
Istanbul 2
- 17-22 Sept — Association Catholique Int. des Œuvres **de Protection de la Jeune Fille** - 13^e Congrès. Thème : Jeunes filles hors du foyer.
Mexico 406
- 17-22 Sept — Int. **Astronautical Federation** - 7th Congress. Subject : Space-flight problems.
Rome 789
- 17-23 Sept — European Confederation of Agriculture - 8th General Assembly.
Scheveningen (Netherlands) 678
- 17-29 Sept — * Conference of British Commonwealth **Statisticians**.
- London**
- 18 Sept — UN - General Assembly - 11th Session.
New York 1
- 18-21 Sept — Comité Int. de la **Rayonne** et des **Fibres Synthétiques** - Conférence Int. - « Qualité et Labelling Textiles ».
Goeteborg (Suède) 641
- 19-23 Sept — Int. Society of Internal Medicine - 4th Int. Congress of **internal medicine**.
Madrid 914
- 20-30 Sept — Int. Technical Committee for the Prevention and Extinction of **Fire** - General Assembly.
Rome 754
- 21-23 Sept — Association Int. des **Femmes Médecins** - Assemblée générale extraordinaire. **Burgenstock** (Suisse) 931
- 22-25 Sept — Union Mondiale des **Organisations Féminines Catholiques** - 4 réunions régionales de travail sur « La personnalité chrétienne de la femme ».
Bogota, Mexico, Santiago, Rio de Janeiro 1130
- 24 Sept — Confédération Int. de la **Coiffure** - Congrès.
- Vienne**
- 24-27 Sept — Int. Federation of Photographie Art - Int. Conference on the Science of **Photography**.
Cologne (Germany)
- 24-28 Sept — Int. **Dairy Federation** - 14th Int. Dairy Congress.
Rome and Milan 690
- 24-28 Sept — * Banque Int. pour la reconstruction et le **développement** - 11^e assemblée annuelle.
Washington 5
- 24-29 Sept — WHO - Regional Committee for Africa - 6th meeting. Subject : Practical public health as a means of tuberculosis **control** in the African region.
Luanda. (Angola) 16
- 24-30 Sept — Comité Int. Permanent de la **Conserven** - 3^e congrès.
Rome 660
- 25-29 Sept — Conseil Int. des **Archives** - 3^e Congrès int.
Florence (Italie) 130
- 25-30 Sept — Int. Federation of Masseurs, Medical Gymnasts and Physiotherapists - 8th Int. Congress of **Kinesitherapy**. **Paris** 891
- 26-28 Sept — National Physical Laboratory - Int. symposium on the direction of **re-search** organizations.

Teddington
(Middlesex, UK)

1956 Septembre

Yearbook

- 28-29 Sept — Int. Professional Union of **Gynecologists and Obstetricians** - 1st Congress. **Madrid**
- Sept — PAO - Regional Latin American **Poplar** Conference. **Argentina** 2
- Sept (last week) — Int. Union of Pure and Applied Physics - Colloquium on X-ray **microscopy**. **Cambridge (UK)** 832
- Sept — Int. Council for **Building Research** Studies and Documentation - General Assembly. **Geneva** 746
- Sept — * « Rencontres de Genève » on Unesco. Theme : " The role of the **humanities** in contemporary culture ". **Geneva** 14
- Sept — Institut Int. Catholique de **Recherches Socio-Ecclésiiales** - Congrès. Theme : Le développement religieux et social de l'Afrique, en particulier de l'Afrique Centrale. **La Haye**
- Sept — Confédération Int. du **Lin** et du **Chanvre** - Congrès. **Madrid** 636
- Sept — Société Int. d'Histoire de la **Médecine** - 15^e congrès int. **Madrid** 920

1956 September

Yearbook n°

- Sept — Int. Union of Biological Sciences - Symposium on **immunomicrobiological standardization**. **Milan (Italy)** 825
- Sept — * Association Int. des **Etudiants Dentaires** - 5^e congrès annuel. **Newcastle on Tyne (UK)**
- Sept — Mouvement Int. de la **Jeunesse Agricole Rurale Catholique** - Assemblée générale. Theme : La situation religieuse de la jeunesse rurale devant la technisation progressive de la terre. **Pays-Bas** 968
- Sept (mi-septembre) — Int. **Rorschach Society** - Congress. **Rome** 820
- Sept — Int. Labour **Film Institute** - 2nd labour film festival. **Vienna** 472
- Sept — Int. **Monetary Fund** - Assembly. **Washington** 8
- Sept — * Comité int. des transports par **chemins de fer** - Comité directeur. **Yougoslavie** 716
- Sept - Oct — Société Int. de Criminologie - 6^e Cours int. de **criminologie**. Theme : Prévention du crime. **Lausanne (Suisse)** 250

OCTOBRE 1956 OCTOBER

- 1-5 **Oct** — Int. **Fiscal** Association - 10th Congress. **Rome** 549
- 1-5 **Oct** — 2nd Int. Congress on **Medical Records**. **Washington**
- 1-6 **Oct** — FAO - 9th hybrid **maize** meeting. **Cairo** 2
- 1-6 **Oct** — Int. **Music Council** - 6th General Assembly. **Paris** 1036
- 1-6 **Oct** — World Touring and Automobile Organisation - 1956 Int. Study Week in **Traffic Engineering**. **Stresa (Italy)** 1110
- 1-9 **Oct** — Int. Council for the **Exploration** of the Sea - Congress. **Copenhagen** 77
- 1-10 **Oct** — Bureau Int. des **Poids et Mesures** - Session bisannuelle. **Sèvres (France)** 67
- 2-4 **Oct** — Pax Romana - 2^e congrès int. des **juristes catholiques**. Theme : Le respect de la personne humaine dans l'application du droit pénal. **Rome** 319
- 4-11 **Oct** — **Jeunesse Ouvrière Chrétienne** Int. - Congrès. **Santiago** 1002
- 8 **Oct** — American Institute of Geonomy and Natural Resources - Int. conference on **science and human welfare**. **Washington**
- 9-15 **Oct** — World **Medical Association** - 10th General Assembly. **Havana** 489
- 10-13 and 24 **Oct** — • Unesco - Advisory Committee on **Arid Zone Research** - 11th Session. **Canberra and Melbourne** 14
- 10-20 **Oct** — European **Passenger Time-Table** Conference. **Lisbon** 708

- 11 **Oct** — **GATT** - 18th session of the Contracting Parties. **Geneva** 4 bis
- 11-14 **Oct** — Fédération Int. d'Associations Nationales d'**Ingénieurs** - 2^e Congrès int. Theme : L'ingénieur et l'Europe. **Zurich (Suisse)** 733
- 15-25 **Oct** — Int. Commission on Rules for the Approval of **Electrical Equipment** - General Assembly. **Naples (Italy)** 743
- 17-20 **Oct** — Fédération **Abolitioniste** Int. - Assemblée générale statutaire et 20^e congrès int. **Francfort (Allemagne)** 164
- 22-23 **Oct** — * Unesco - Meeting of representatives of **marine institutes** in Latin America. **Lima** 14
- 24 **Oct** — **United Nations Day**. **I**
- 29-31 **Oct** — * Unesco - Meeting of the International Advisory Committee on **Marine Sciences**. **Latin America** 14
- 29 **Oct - 3 Nov** — Unesco - Executive Board - 45th session. **New Delhi** 14
- Oct** — Int. Union of Pure and Applied **Chemistry** - Colloquium on purity of substances by determination of solidification points. **Amsterdam (Netherlands)** 831
- Oct** — Académie Int. d'Histoire de la **Pharmacie** - Congrès. **Berne** 846
- Oct** — Confédération de la **Droguerie** Européenne - Congrès européen de la droguerie. **Düsseldorf (Allemagne)**

1956 Octobre

Yearbook n°

- Oct — UN - Economic Commission for Europe
- **Timber** Committee. **Geneva 1**
- Oct. — World Association of **Travel** Agencies
- Assembly. **Göteborg- Helsinki 670**
- Oct — FAO Regional Conference in the Par
East. **Indonesia 2**
- Oct — Int. Commission for the Scientific Ex-
ploration of the **Mediterranean** Sea - 15th
Plenary Assembly. **Istanbul 71**
- Oct — Comité Européen des Associations de
Fabricants de **Peintures et d'Encres d'Im-
primerie** - 5^e Assemblée Générale. **Madrid 573**
- Oct — Pan American Federation of **Engi-
neering Societies** - 4th Convention. **Mexico 758**
- Oct — UN - Commission on Int. **Commodity**
Trade. **New York 1**
- Oct — UN - **Economic and Social Council** -
22nd Session resumed. **New York 1**
- Oct — Union Int. de **Thérapeutique** - Congrès.
Sujet : Traitement de l'ulcère gastro-duo-
dénal. **Paris**

1956 October

Yearbook

- Oct — Union Européenne des techniciens du
film et de la télévision - Congrès annuel. **Paris**
- Oct — FAO - World **eucalyptus** conférence. **Rome 2**
- Oct — Inter-American Seminar on **physical**
education, nutrition and education for the
home. **Santiago**
- Oct — Int. Union of **Aviation Insurers** - An-
nual general meeting. **Torquay (UK) 719**
- Oct — Int. Union of Official **Travel** Orga-
nizations - General Assembly. **Vienna**
1101
- Oct — Fédération Européenne des Associa-
tions d'Ingénieurs et de Chefs de service
de **sécurité et d'hygiène** - 3^e réunion an-
nuelle. **Vienne 443**
- Oct — * **Int. Travel** Research Institute - Ge-
neral conference. **Not fixed 1085**
- Oct — Unesco / Conseil Int. des Musées - Cam-
pagne int. des **musées**.

14/102a
- Oct/Nov — FAO - Int. rice commission - 5th
session. **India 2**

ALITALIA

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*POUR TOUS VOS DÉPLACEMENTS,
CHOISISSEZ*

RAPIDE — CONFORTABLE — SYMPATHIQUE

ITALIE - EUROPE - MOYEN ORIENT - AFRIQUE ORIENTALE
ET DU SUD - AMÉRIQUE CENTRALE - AMÉRIQUE DU SUD

NOVEMBRE 1956 NOVEMBER

5 Nov - 5 Dec — • Unesco - General Conference - 9th session, 14	New Delhi	22 Nov - 8 Dec — Comité Olympique Int. - Jeux de la 16 ^e olympiade.	Melbourne (Australia) 1090
6-15 Nov — 7th Int. Grassland Congress, Palmerston (New Zealand)	694	22 Nov - 8 Dec — Int. Amateur Swimming Federation - Congress.	Melbourne 1062
10 Nov — Fédération Mondiale de la Jeunesse Démocratique - Journée mondiale de la jeunesse.	995	Nov — Int. Federation of Cotton and Allied Textile Industries. Management Committee and Sub-Committees.	Alexandria (Egypt) 625
11-17 Nov — Inter-American Society of Cardiology - 5th Congress.	Havana 865	Nov — Association Int. de la Sécurité Sociale 1 ^{er} Congrès int. des actuaires et statisticiens de la sécurité sociale.	Bruxelles 420
12 Nov — Int. North Pacific Fisheries Commission - 3rd annual meeting.	Seattle (Wash., USA) 1138	Nov — FAO/European Association for Animal Production - Meeting on pig testing methods.	Copenhagen 2/677
12-23 Nov — • FAO - Regional Conference.	Santiago 2	Nov — * The Hansard Society - Youth meeting about Parliament.	London 229
14-23 Nov — Caribbean Commission - Conference on town and country development planning.	Port of Spain Trinidad 35	Nov — * Australian Physical Education Association - World congress.	Melbourne (Australia)
15 Nov — Interparliamentary Union - 45th annual plenary conference.	Bangkok 309	Nov — * World's YWCA - Seminar.	New Delhi 999
18-21 Nov — Int. Hotel Association - Congress.	Washington 634	Nov — FAO - Committee on Commodity Problems - 28th session.	Rome 2
18-24 Nov — • Société de Chimie Industrielle - 29 ^e Congrès int. - 1 ^{er} congrès européen de la corrosion - Conférence européenne de génie chimique.	Paris 762	Nov - Dec — UN - Technical Assistance Committee.	New York 1

vient de paraître

LA MONTAGNE

dans la collection in-quarto
LAROUSSE

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	Yearbook		
3-14	Dec — * UIT - Comité consultatif int. téléphonique - 18 ^e (et dernière) Assemblée plénière.	Genève 12	Dec — Permanent Int. Bureau of Analytical Chemistry of Human and Animal Food - 3rd symposium on food additives. Copenhagen 114
5-8	Dec — School of Inter-American States of the University of Florida - 7th Caribbean Conference.	Gainesville (Fla. USA)	Dec (début) — Conseil des Fédérations Industrielles d'Europe - 3 ^e conférence int. des industriels. Etats-Unis 569
8-14	Dec — • UIT - Comité Consultatif Int. Télégraphique - 8 ^e (et dernière) Assemblée plénière.	Genève 11	Dec — World Alliance of YMCAs - Asia Leadership Conference. Indonesia 998
10	Dec — UN - Journée des droits de l'homme.	1	Dec — Int. Union of Pure and Applied Physics - Colloquium on magnetism. New Delhi 832
15-22	Dec — Comité Consultatif Int. Télégraphique et Téléphonique - 1 ^{re} Assemblée plénière du Comité fusionné.	Genève 11-12	Dec — Conseil Int. des Sciences sociales - 3 ^e Assemblée générale. Paris 247
Dec	— Associated Country Women of the World - Triennial Conference.	Ceylon 1114	Dec (1 week) — Caribbean Commission - 23rd Meeting. Not fixed 35
			Dec — World Alliance of YMCAs - Asia Rural Work Conference. Not fixed 998

JANVIER 1957 JANUARY

7-11	Jan — Int. Union against Tuberculosis - 14th Congress. Subject : Chronic suppuration of the temporal bone; collagen disorders of the respiratory tract; papilloma of the larynx.	New Delhi 924	Rouge - 19 ^e Conférence Int. de la Croix Rouge. Nouvelle Delhi 409/425
14-31	Jan — FAO - Insulation, harbor and particle board conference.	Geneva 2	Jan — Int. Association of Clothing Designers. Boston 449
21 Jan - 2 Fevr	— • Comité Int. de la Croix Rouge et Ligue des Sociétés de la Croix		Jan — FAO - Regional conference in Near East. Iraq 2
			Jan — Southern Society of Cancer - Pan American Cancer Cytology Congress. Miami (Fla - USA)

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FEVRIER 1957 FEBRUARY

	Yearbook n°		Yearbook n°
Fevr — Int. Vegetarian Union - 15th World Conference.	Bombay (India) 929	Fevr — Assemblée Mondiale de la Jeunesse - Session d'études pour l'Amérique Latine et la région des Caraïbes.	Trinidad 991
Fevr — Federation of Mazdaznan Women - 15th world congress.	Bombay (India) 161		

MARS 1957 MARCH

Mar — FAO - Asia Pacific Forestry Commission - 4th session.	Indonesia	Fevr - Mar — Organisation Int. de Radiodiffusion - Assemblée Générale - 15 ^e session et Conseil d'Administration - 28 ^e session.	Sofia 1020
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AVRIL 1957 APRIL

Avr — Association des Auditeurs et Anciens Auditeurs de l'Académie de Droit Int. de La Haye - Congrès.	Grèce 358	21 Avr — Int. Federation of Agricultural Producers - 9th ordinary general meeting.	Not fixed 692
Avr — Int. Convention : Science Days - 7th session.	Milan (Italy)	Avr - May — Int. Commission on Irrigation and Drainage - 3rd Congress - 8th meeting of Int. Executive Council.	San Francisco (Calif - USA) 741
Avr — Conference of Internationally - Minded Schools ,	Paris 950		

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