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activities - congresses - publications

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INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

23e ANNEE 3-1971 23rd YEAR
MARS MARCH

ASSOCIATIONS INTERNATIONALES

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A propos d'un livre réédité du Pr. Merle.

De l'International au Transnational

« Notre monde de plus en plus complexe dans sa solidarité serait en péril de grande confusion s'il était sans moyens. d'orientation, de liaison, de contacts.

C'est précisément à ce besoin de cohésion et de connexion qu'à répondu l'Union des Associations Internationales dont la mission propre est à la fois : appréhension universelle des relations humaines, étude et impulsion de la fonction internationale privée à laquelle va se joindre désormais la fonction transnationale; rassemblement des connaissances et diffusion des données chaque jour plus nécessaires aux services publics et aux entreprises privées. »

Pierre Harmel
Ministre des Affaires Etrangères de Belgique.

Au commencement était l'Etat souverain et la diplomatie des temps modernes a longtemps servi — et suffi — à régler les « relations internationales ». Hors le réseau des transactions commerciales, seule l'autorité spirituelle de l'Eglise ne connaissait pas de frontières.

Actuellement c'est toujours de l'Etat souverain qu'il s'agit, malgré la venue de l'organisation internationale. Certes, de grands changements sont intervenus dans les faits, révolutionnant l'ordre économique et social, bouleversant les valeurs scientifiques et culturelles, mais, juridiquement, la société internationale est demeurée à peu près la même qu'autrefois et les institutions intergouvernementales, d'apparence supranationale, ne sont encore que l'accord fragile d'une coopération volontaire. Nul n'a peut-être jamais mieux mis en relief cet étrange retard de la structure internationale sur les faits, que M. Marcel Merle, professeur à la Faculté de droit de Paris, dans « La Vie internationale », son ouvrage de 1963 dont il vient de publier une troisième édition entièrement revue et mise à jour (1). Toute loi doit encore être préalablement admise par les Etats auxquels elle est destinée : « Aucune autorité supérieure aux Etats et capa-

Message à l'UAI lors de son 60e anniversaire (1970).
ble de leur imposer ses vues n'a jamais été instituée depuis l'effondrement de la chrétienté médiévale ».

* * *

Cependant les faits se font si pressants qu'ils ont contraint notre auteur à remanier substantiellement la partie de son livre-manuel qu'il nomme avec bonheur « les forces en action » et singulièrement « les forces transnationales » (2). Des forces qui ignorent elles-mêmes leurs propres virtualités et auxquelles le fier pouvoir des Etats condescend trop souvent encore à n'accorder qu'une considération de compétence technique.

Notre auteur dit quelque part : « Le brassage universel des hommes et des idées soulève de nombreux problèmes et appelle des solutions neuves ». Il est vrai que le phénomène contemporain de la solidarité oblige les Etats autant que les associations privées.

(1) Marcel Merle. « La Vie internationale ». 3ème édition. Paris, Armand Colin, 381 p.

(2) Nous publions plus loin un premier extrait du chapitre « Les forces transnationales ».

M. Merle, dans son avant-propos, nous promet un autre manuel qui constituerait l'étude de ces problèmes de « relations internationales » en *discipline autonome*, en vue d'« atteindre à une compréhension globale des phénomènes » et il conclut par une phrase essentielle : « Les structures ne peuvent indéfiniment masquer les dysfonctions du système, ni contenir la poussée du nombre ». Cet avertissement ne vise certes pas seulement le secteur des organisations non gouvernementales, mais il s'applique parfaitement à la crise actuelle des relations entre les Etats et les associations internationales. Une crise qui tient à un défaut d'information de l'opinion et plus encore des cadres de la fonction publique, nationale et internationale, donc à une carence des études — enseignement et recherches.

*
* *

Or voici que surgissent des initiatives heureuses. A Paris la Faculté de droit, à l'inspiration de M. Merle, prépare un important séminaire consacré à la solidarité transnationale et notamment à un essai de définition des « internationales ». A Louvain, la vénérable université belge a récemment confié une chaire nouvelle de « sociologie de l'organisation "internationale" » à un ancien, directeur des services de l'Information au Conseil de l'Europe, le Professeur M. G. Lévy.

Ainsi, après une longue indifférence, l'Université se penche enfin sur les nouveaux aspects de la vie internationale et, notamment de la coopération internationale et transnationale privée. Cela vient à point au moment où les dernières avanies essayées par les OING dans leurs rapports avec les Nations Unies ont fait déborder le vase des malentendus.

*
* *

On remarquera l'entrée en scène des sociologues après les moralistes de la fraternité humaine, les juristes du droit international et les documentalistes de la paix par le savoir. La tendance est désormais de transférer aux sciences humaines une bonne part des problèmes de la paix et de la solidarité longtemps réservée aux disciplines de la philosophie, de la morale et du droit. Les études de polémologie, cette nouvelle science de la guerre, de ses causes et de ses remèdes, soulignent cette tendance : on ne vise plus tant, de nos jours, à la paix par le droit qu'à la connaissance de ce qu'Henri Bergson appelait déjà « les motifs rationnels » qui déterminent l'instinct de

guerre, des motifs très variés dans l'Histoire qui se réduisent aujourd'hui, disait-il, à des causes démographiques et économiques. Les jeunes juristes du droit international se veulent sociologues, comme on l'a vu à leur conférence de Bangkok il y a deux ans.

* * *

Les mots eux-mêmes changent avec la chose. Le mot « international », à peine né au siècle dernier en 1802, ne répond déjà plus au fait transnational. Mais l'habitude est résistante et il pourrait être dommage de la brusquer. L'UAI y a réfléchi pour elle-même avant de s'en tenir à sa vieille enseigne. M. Merle, sous son titre de « forces transnationales » mélange les concepts d'internationalité et de transnationalité en traitant successivement des « internationales » politiques et syndicales, des « forces religieuses », des « groupements d'intérêts privés » et de l'« opinion publique internationale ». Il est vrai qu'un grand nombre d'associations sans but lucratif et même les principales d'entre elles, sont composées de *sections nationales*, bien que les intégrations régionales, comme celle de l'Europe insèrent un nouvel échelon entre le national et l'universel. Les groupements d'intérêt, au sens lucratif du mot, réunissent aussi des sociétés dotées d'une nationalité, d'un siège social situé sur un territoire d'Etat et dont les capitaux proviennent d'apports nationaux divers. Ainsi le veut la structure juridique du monde actuel. Mais, en fait, les sociétés multinationales, qui croissent avec le mouvement rapide de la concentration des affaires, traversent continuellement les frontières, du moins dans le monde de la libre entreprise, sans autres entraves que les lois nationales.

*
* *

Concluons pour l'instant que dans notre univers en pleine transformation, l'information pénètre partout par le miracle des ondes, n'en déplaie à ceux qui voudraient l'entraver et ne le peuvent plus. L'information instruit les ignorants, éveille les consciences, crée l'opinion, modère les puissants et protège les faibles. Le progrès est là et les forces transnationales y prennent une part de plus en plus influente sans laquelle, comme le soleil de Rostand, les choses ne seraient que ce qu'elles sont.

Robert FENAUX.

LA COORDINATION DANS LE CADRE DE L'ELEP*

La voie entre l'intérêt commun des associations
et le respect absolu de leur autonomie.

P. Van den Wijngaert,
Secrétaire Général de la
Fédération Européenne des Associations
contre la Lèpre.

I Le problème de la lèpre

La lèpre est une maladie vieille comme le monde et elle constitue un problème social autant que médical. Nous connaissons tous le « concept lépreux » qui confère à la lèpre le caractère d'une malédiction divine et qui, pendant des siècles, a provoqué les pires excès : ségrégation barbare, mise au ban de la société etc... Ce n'est que depuis 25 ans que, grâce aux sulfones, une thérapeutique efficace a pu être appliquée. Il n'en reste pas moins vrai que sur 15 millions de lépreux qui, d'après les estimations les plus courantes, vivent surtout dans les pays du Tiers-Monde, seulement 1 sur 5 est en traitement.

L'éradication de la lèpre, vue sous cet angle uniquement — mais elle compte beaucoup d'autres aspects complexes —, constitue déjà un objectif difficile à atteindre et qui, par conséquent, n'est pas près de se réaliser.

Aussi, est-ce le souci de donner une plus large extension, un meilleur développement et une plus grande efficacité à leurs activités qui a poussé les associations bénévoles, s'occupant de la lèpre, à coordonner leurs efforts — tout en conservant leur autonomie — et à se grouper au sein de la Fédération Européenne des Associations contre la Lèpre (ELEP), à l'occasion d'une réunion, tenue à Berne en 1966, sous la présidence de Raoul Follereau.

II Le problème de la coordination

Comment se présente ce problème dans l'organisation de la campagne contre la lèpre entreprise par les associations-membres de l'ELEP ? Voici une vue schématique qui permet de se faire une première idée, aussi superficielle soit-elle, de l'envergure du problème.

D'une part, il y a une vingtaine d'agences bénévoles, ayant leur siège en Europe principalement, qui récoltent des fonds en faisant appel — presque exclusivement — à la générosité du public, et qui organisent à cet effet une campagne d'information, particulièrement à l'occasion de la « Journée Mondiale des Lépreux », fondée en 1954 par Raoul Follereau.

(*) European Federation of Anti-Leprosy Associations.

La coordination sous toutes ses formes est à l'ordre du jour, particulièrement au niveau des organismes internationaux, tant privés que publics. Partout on essaie de mettre au point une stratégie générale de la coordination et de dégager les principes et les critères qui doivent la commander. Il nous paraît utile aujourd'hui de soumettre à l'appréciation de nos lecteurs un exemple concret de coordination, conçue et en voie de réalisation dans une association internationale non-gouvernementale qui se consacre à un problème bien précis : l'éradication de la lèpre. Cet exemple pourra inspirer peut-être ceux qui sont confrontés avec des problèmes analogues de coordination ; ils se rendront compte des difficultés à surmonter mais aussi des résultats obtenus et qui pourraient les encourager à tenter une expérience similaire.

D'autre part, il y a quelque 75 pays endémiques qui bénéficient de ces fonds, lesquels sont répartis entre plus de 500 centres et projets de lutte contre la lèpre.

III Les étapes de la coordination

Il va sans dire que la coordination de ces activités pose une série de problèmes à la solution desquels il a fallu procéder par étapes.

En voici les principales :

Liste coordonnée des centres et des projets

En premier lieu, il a fallu délimiter le terrain d'action des différentes associations, et localiser le mieux possible les 500 centres et projets soutenus par elles. Quand on songe que les léproseries se trouvent bien souvent au fond de la brousse, là où les noms géographiques n'existent plus guère, on constate que le problème est de taille. Il a fallu aussi éviter le double emploi dans les noms des centres à orthographe compliquée ou à adresse inextricable, comme c'est le cas dans certains pays d'Extrême-Orient. La solution a été trouvée dans un classement décimal, comportant sept chiffres par centre ou projet. Ces sept chiffres se décomposent comme suit : le premier chiffre indique le continent, les deux suivants le pays, les deux suivants la province, région ou Etat et les deux derniers représentent le numéro d'ordre de chaque centre.

Exemple : POLAMBAKKAM — 4.25.07.29 —

4 = Asie
25 = Inde
07 = Etat de Tamil Nadu
29 = numéro d'ordre du centre

Exemple : PERAMIHO — 1.85.12.02 —

1 = Afrique
85 = Tanzanie
12 = Région de Ruvuma
02 = numéro d'ordre du centre

Ce système de localisation a mis fin à toute confusion et permet dans les échanges entre le Bureau de Coordination et les membres, de préciser avec exactitude le centre ou le projet dont il est question. De plus, ce système a été conçu pour être utilisé en ordinateur. A ce point de vue, il constitue un premier jalon dans la mécanisation de l'information.

La liste est mise au point et régulièrement tenue à jour par le Bureau de Coordination. Elle est rééditée tous les ans et envoyée aux membres de l'Elep. Petit à petit, ceux-ci utilisent cette numérotation dans leur propre classement.

Budget Coordonné

Le problème du classement des centres résolu, il a été possible de s'attaquer au problème qui, dès le début, s'était posé aux membres de l'Elep : celui du double emploi des fonds. On peut facilement imaginer que cinq associations qui ne se connaissent pas, donnent, sans le savoir, des fonds à un même centre, pour couvrir peut-être les mêmes dépenses ! etc...

L'élaboration d'un Budget coordonné de l'Elep a résolu ce problème. Chaque association communique en temps voulu ses prévisions budgétaires au Bureau de Coordination. Celui-ci, en utilisant le classement décimal, établit la liste des centres aidés et place en regard de chaque centre les dons que lui destinent les différents membres de l'Elep. Ainsi, d'un coup d'œil, on peut se rendre compte de ce que reçoit chaque centre et d'où proviennent les fonds. On a de même une vue d'ensemble sur ce que reçoit chaque province, pays ou continent, etc... (voir figure n° 1). La mise au point du budget coordonné se fait en trois étapes. Il n'est pas inutile de donner ici quelques détails. Vers la mi-décembre, les associations, membres de l'Elep, se réunissent en Session de Travail. Les échanges qui s'y font permettent à chaque association d'élaborer ses propres prévisions budgétaires, lesquelles constituent l'information de base qui permet au Bureau de Coordination d'éditer le Projet de Budget Coordonné de l'Elep.

Au printemps, au cours d'une nouvelle session de Travail, est examiné le « Projet de Budget Coordonné » pour passer en revue tous les centres aidés et spécialement pour supprimer les doubles emplois qui subsisteraient. Paraît alors le * Budget Coordonné Prévisionnel ». Enfin, au début de l'année suivante, les associations communiquent au Bureau de Coordination la liste des dons qui ont effectivement été distribués l'année précédente. Ces données permettent de publier le « Budget Coordonné Définitif ».

Techniquement, les trois versions du Budget Coordonné de l'Elep sont réalisées par un seul petit programme pour ordinateur, élaboré à partir d'une analyse faite par le Bureau de Coordination de toutes les données descriptives, opérationnelles et financières du Centre. Il a ensuite suffi de prendre contact avec un quelconque centre d'informatique travaillant à façon sur ordinateur. Ce Centre a conçu le programme requis.

La programmation en a été facilitée grâce au classement décimal des centres. Le programme, une fois mis au point, le coût de chaque édition, y compris l'impression, ne dépasse pas 200 dollars, pour une plaquette de 20 pages avec couverture, tirée à 140 exemplaires. Ce qui revient à 600 dollars par an. L'amortissement en deux ans des frais de programmation représente 100 dollars par édition. Ce qui fait, pour les deux premières années, un budget de 800 dollars au lieu de 600 dollars. Il est difficile pour ce prix de réaliser manuellement le même travail, celui-ci comprenant la frappe, les innombrables calculs, les conversions monétaires (le budget coordonné est établi en dollars, alors que le budget de chaque association est souvent présenté en monnaie locale). Par ailleurs, les données d'ordinateur sont toujours réutilisables, ce qui n'est pas le cas lorsque le travail est fait manuellement. Enfin, le travail par ordinateur est beaucoup plus rapide.

Comme on peut s'en rendre compte aisément, ces trois Budgets Coordonnés constituent pour les associations, membres de l'Elep, un instrument de travail et de référence, exceptionnel et peu coûteux.

Formulaires

Il va sans dire que l'utilisation des Budgets Coordonnés ne se limite pas à la suppression du double emploi dans les fonds. Très vite s'est posée la question de l'utilisation judicieuse de ces fonds. Ce qui plaçait l'Elep devant un autre problème : celui de l'information provenant des centres et de l'évaluation des projets.

Sur le plan de l'information, il était nécessaire de

- trouver le moyen d'obtenir les renseignements, autant que possible précis et complets, sur les
- activités des centres et leurs projets. Il fallait, de plus, trouver un système pour communiquer

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4	COUNTRIES, CENTRES	* APD *	* TLM *	MEMB ALES	ASSOCIA DAW *	* * *	DIVERS	*TOTAL *ELEP *	* *
42507	TAMIL NADU	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
4250701	ARISIPALAYAM	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
4250702	ARNT	13140 *	*	*	*	*	*	13140*	*
4250703	CHETPUT	*	*	63*	47076*	*	*	47139*	*
4250704	CHINGLEPUT	*	120	*	*	* OC	996*	120*	*
4250705	DHARMAPURI	43198*	*	*	18750*	* FO	1000 * FL	2500* SC	35000*
4250706	DINDIGUL	3000*	*	*	*	* FL	1000 *	*	106444*
4250707	ERAYUR	*	*	205*	*	*	*	*	4000*
4250708	FATIMA NAGAR	*	*	*	5397*	* SC	320 *	*	205*
4250711	KARIGIRI	*	60000*	*	*	*	*	*	5717*
4250712	KARUR	*	360*	*	*	*	*	*	60000*
4250713	KATPADI/CHES	*	*	*	3567	*	*	*	360*
4250714	KILANJUNAI	*	2400*	*	*	*	*	*	35067*
4250715	KOVILOOR	*	*	*	363*	* CL	2000*	122*	2400*
4250716	KUMBakonam	15000*	*	56560*	19999*	2384 * SC	10000* OC	*	2363*
4250717	MADRAPAKKAM	*	420*	*	542*	*	*	*	109065*
4250718	MADRAS/BEATIT	*	*	*	5243*	*	*	*	420*
4250720	MALAVANTHANGA	4000*	*	5382*	*	* OC	1200*	*	542*
4250721	MANAMADURA	*	7800*	*	*	*	*	*	15825*
4250722	MUTTATHUR	*	360*	*	*	*	*	*	7800*
4250724	NEYYOOR	*	2160*	*	*	*	*	*	360*
4250725	ODDANCHATRAH	*	480*	*	*	*	*	*	2160*
4250726	PANMAI	*	144*	*	*	*	*	*	480*
4250727	PEIKULAM	*	2880*	*	5271*	*	*	*	144*
4250729	POLAMBAKKAN	7850*	*	*	*	* CL	50*	*	8151*
4250730	PULIAMBADI	*	*	61*	6210*	*	*	*	7900*
4250731	RAJATHANI	*	*	2102*	*	*	*	*	6707*
4250732	RANIPET	*	600*	*	*	*	*	*	2102*
4250733	SETTIPATTY	1161*	*	*	55261*	* OC	192*	*	600*
4250734	SRIVILLIPUTTUR	440*	*	*	*	*	*	*	56868*
4250735	THALAVADI	*	9757*	13750*	*	*	*	*	440*
4250737	THIRUPATTUR	*	1250*	*	*	*	*	*	22507*
4250738	TITTURJIN	1040*	*	2691*	3231*	910*	*	*	1250*
4250740	VADATHORASSAI	*	27600*	*	*	*	*	*	7872*
4250741	VELLORE CMC	*	4932*	3889*	375*	*	*	*	27600*
4250743	VALLORE / AROKIA	*	*	558*	*	*	*	*	9196*
4250744	MANDIWASH	*	360*	*	*	*	*	*	558*
4250748	VELLORE MSU	*	*	6272*	*	*	*	*	360*
4250750	TAL ARBET	*	*	*	*	* CL	3200*	*	6272*
4250799	TAMIL NADU V	*	*	*	*	* CL	1000*	*	3200*
39	CENTRES*	88829*	110616*	80710*	193502*	2384* CL	6258* FO	1000* FL	3500*
*	*	*	*	*	*	* NL	* SC	45320* SF	* SL
*	*	*	*	*	*	*	* RD	* OC	* FP
*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	2510*	546584*

Figure 1.

Voici un extrait du « Budget Coordonné Définitif »> de 1969. Il concerne l'Etat de Tamil Nadu (Madras) en Inde. A gauche paraît le nom du centre, précédé de son chiffre. Une colonne est attribuée à chacune des six associations les plus importantes. Les autres associations figurent sous la rubrique « Divers ». La dernière colonne fait ressortir les totaux des dons accordés à chaque centre par les membres de l'Elep.

Après la liste des centres, apparaissent horizontalement les totaux des dons distribués par chaque association, le total de tous les dons faits par l'Elep au Tamil Nadu ainsi, que le nombre de centres de cet Etat.

facilement ces informations et les faire circuler parmi les associations. Enfin, les informations recueillies devaient permettre aux associations d'évaluer le mieux possible les demandes d'aide et les projets.

Les efforts conjugués de la Commission Médicale de L'Elep et du Bureau de Coordination ont abouti à l'élaboration de formulaires standardisés à l'usage de tous les membres de l'Elep.

Ces formulaires ont été conçus de façon à faciliter le travail des centres qui doivent les remplir. Les questions sont posées de telle sorte que la réponse puisse être exprimée par un oui, un non ou un chiffre. Les informations recueillies dans les formulaires rendent possible une évaluation du centre au point de vue valeur et efficacité du travail et au point de vue du coût. Par ailleurs, toutes les données fournies par les formulaires peuvent être codées et utilisées en ordinateur; ce qui offre des possibilités immenses.

Deux formulaires sont utilisés :

- La Demande d'Aide. Ce formulaire comprend quatre rubriques :
 1. Informations générales (fiche d'identification) en 13 questions.
 2. Activités du centre (données sommaires) en 5 questions plus un tableau récapitulatif des différentes catégories des malades.
 3. Financement (coût du centre ? origine des dons ? etc...) en 13 questions.
 4. Demande proprement dite (description détaillée du projet, fonds requis, etc...)
- Le Rapport Annuel. Celui-ci comprend quatre chapitres :
 1. Description détaillée des activités-lèpre du centre en 22 questions plus 5 tableaux explicatifs.
 2. Installations et équipement du centre en 8 questions.
 3. Description des activités non-lèpre en 6 questions qui permettent de constater le degré d'intégration dans les services médicaux généraux.
 4. Rapport financier (voir figure N°2).

Les associations, membres de l'Elep, adressent, six mois à l'avance, le formulaire de Demande d'Aide. Au cours du premier trimestre de l'année, elles envoient le Rapport Annuel sur les activités de l'année écoulée.

Une copie de toutes les réponses, accompagnée d'un avis de transmission, est adressée au Bureau de Coordination. Le Bureau se charge de communiquer les copies aux associations concernées. Ainsi, chaque membre de l'Elep reçoit les informations qui l'intéressent.

Par ce moyen, le Bureau de Coordination est à même de constituer une documentation complète sur tous les centres.

Coordination des Centres

Les informations provenant du Budget Coordonné, et surtout des formulaires-Elep, ainsi que des échanges de vues qui ont lieu au cours des Sessions de Travail, ont multiplié les possibilités de coopération sur le terrain entre les associations, membres de l'Elep.

Certaines de ces possibilités ont été codifiées comme, par exemple, « la Coordination des Centres ». Il s'agit d'un système de coordination, appliqué lorsque plusieurs associations aident le même centre. Dans ce cas, un des partenaires peut être nommé « coordonnateur ». A ce titre, il se charge d'obtenir tous les renseignements désirés d'un centre, de coordonner les aides et de superviser l'exécution du programme, au nom des partenaires et en accord avec eux. Ce système de coordination est parfois étendu à tout un pays. Lorsqu'un projet comporte un programme très important, surtout sur le plan financier, il est parfois fait appel aux membres de l'Elep pour participer librement au financement du « Projet en Commun ». La gestion complète d'un tel projet est confiée à un des partenaires. C'est ainsi que le projet de Dharmapuri, dans l'Etat de Madras (Inde), dont le programme est de contrôler médicalement une région comportant 40.000 malades de la lèpre, est financé par sept associations dont l'une d'elles gère le projet. La « Coordination des Centres » et les « Projets en Commun » constituent déjà des résultats appréciables de la coordination dans le cadre de l'Elep.

Répertoire ELEP

La prochaine étape, envisagée actuellement, est l'élaboration d'un Répertoire où figureraient tous les centres aidés par les membres de l'Elep, et qui, pour chaque centre, fournirait — eh guise de fiche d'identification — des informations chiffrées sur les malades, le personnel et les activités. Ce répertoire, mis à jour chaque année, permettrait d'établir des statistiques sur les activités globales de l'Elep. Il serait possible, par exemple, de savoir, au niveau de la Fédération, combien de malades sont en traitement, combien sont guéris, combien de médecins, d'infirmières et de paramédicaux sont au service de l'Elep etc...

Les formulaires fourniraient les informations nécessaires à l'élaboration de ce Répertoire. Celles-ci pouvant être codées, il ne serait pas impossible de l'établir mécanographiquement. Les formulaires, aussi bien remplis soient-ils, ne sont pas toujours faciles à analyser. Ils représentent

9. FINANCEMENT

9.

Prière de nous faire parvenir une copie de votre Rapport Financier pour 19..
 Si celui-ci répond aux questions posées ci-dessous, inutile de remplir le chapitre 9.
 Relevé des dépenses de votre centre pour l'année civile 19..

/ Dépenses d 'Investissement /		Fonds reçus	
d		de nous	d'autres
9.1 Bâtiments neufs			
(voir 6. - page 6)			
9.2 Equipement nouveau			
Equipement médical (voir 5.1 - page 5)			
Equipement général (voir 5.4 - page 6) (mobilier)			
Matériel de transport (voir 5.3 - page 5)			
Matériel pour la réhabilitation (voir 5.2 - page 5)			
(machines, outils, instruments, etc..)			
TOTAL :			
/ Dépenses de Fonctionnement /		Fonds reçus	
C		Le nous	d'autres
9.3 Personnel			
Médecins			
Infirmières			
Physiothérapeutes			
Paramédicaux			
Techniciens (laborantins , cordonniers, tailleurs, etc..)			
Autre personnel (administratif, entretien, chauffeurs, etc..)			
TOTAL :			
9,4 Frais de formation			
(cours, stages, bourses d'étude, etc..) (voir 4.6 - page 5			
9.5 Fournitures			
médicales (médicaments, pansements, accessoires,			
fournitures de laboratoire)			
générales (nourriture, vêtements, couvertures, etc..)			
TOTAL :			
9.6 Entretien et réparations			
Bâtiments			
Equipement			
Matériel de transport (essence, huile, assurances, etc..)			
Entretien général (eau, électricité, nettoyage,			
chauffage, etc..)			
TOTAL :			
9.7 Administration			
(fournitures de bureau, frais de poste, expéditions, etc.)			
9.8 Divers			
			
TOTAL GENERAL:			

Figure 2.

bien souvent une sorte de radiographie qu'il convient d'interpréter judicieusement. Le Répertoire constituerait pour chaque centre, une première interprétation, une première synthèse.

Evaluation des Projets

Ce qui amène tout naturellement à se poser la question : comment évaluer les projets à la lecture d'un formulaire ? Il est évident que le formulaire ne constitue qu'un moyen, en soi incomplet, parmi d'autres — contacts directs, visites, etc... — pour connaître un centre et évaluer ses besoins. Il n'empêche qu'il contient déjà des données appréciables permettant de faire une bonne évaluation et que, bien souvent, il en demeure l'unique moyen. Aussi, le Bureau de Coordination étudie-t-il les possibilités d'évaluation d'un centre, à partir du formulaire qui le concerne. Cela suppose, au préalable, la fixation des critères et l'élaboration des formules de calcul requises. Travail de longue haleine, qui ne peut être le fruit que de très nombreux tests sur les formulaires et le résultat que de consultations répétées d'experts dans le domaine médical, social, économique et mathématique. Ces différents éléments techniques trouvés et expérimentés, l'évaluation du coût/efficacité doit être possible mécanographiquement pour chaque centre ou projet.

A ce stade, les Associations qui le désirent pourront disposer de certaines données objectives qui les aideront à prendre les décisions qui s'imposent. Il est difficile, dès à présent, de mesurer l'impact d'un système uniforme d'évaluation sur la coordination pratique des activités. Il est certain que cette coordination sera grandement facilitée, que le coût des projets baissera sensiblement et que leur efficacité s'accroîtra. Ce qui est en fait le but de l'Elep. On comprendra aisément que cette dernière étape de la coordination ne pourra être franchie que progressivement et qu'elle suppose une certaine mutation de la part des associations.

IV. Repercussions de la coordination sur les structures et la vie de l'Elep

Il va sans dire que les différentes étapes de la coordination qui ont déjà été franchies, ont eu des répercussions sur les activités de l'ELEP et qu'elles ont modifié profondément ses structures. Au cours de cet article, il a été question à plusieurs reprises du Bureau de Coordination et de la Commission médicale, deux organes vitaux de l'ELEP qui ont joué un rôle de premier plan dans la coordination.

Le Bureau de Coordination est en quelque sorte le cerveau et le moteur de la Fédération, son bureau d'études, et son dispatching. C'est lui qui essentiellement a élaboré et mis en œuvre les moyens de coordination. Son action ne se fait sentir directement qu'au niveau des associations-membres, et

encore cette action est-elle souple, laissant toute liberté à celles-ci. Le Bureau de Coordination n'est pas opérationnel et il n'entre pas en contact avec les centres. Toutes les décisions dans le domaine opérationnel sont prises par les associations, qui jouissent d'une autonomie absolue. Aussi, les rencontres, telles que les Sessions de Travail sont-elles primordiales pour le bon fonctionnement de l'Elep. Les associations y ont appris à se connaître parfaitement et à traiter librement entre elles, le plus souvent, en dehors du Bureau de Coordination. Le budget du Bureau représente 1/2, % des fonds distribués annuellement. Le Secrétaire Général dispose d'une secrétaire plein temps et d'une coordinatrice à mi-temps.

La Commission Médicale qui se compose de léprologues éminents dont l'expérience couvre l'ensemble des pays endémiques, joue également un rôle vital dans l'Elep. Bien que simple organe consultatif, elle a pour tâche d'élaborer les lignes de conduite dans la lutte contre la lèpre et de fixer ainsi une politique commune de l'Elep, ce qui, sur le plan des motivations, constitue la base de toute coordination. Par ailleurs, les associations ont la liberté de consulter la Commission Médicale pour leurs projets et leurs programmes. Le bon fonctionnement des structures que nous venons d'analyser succinctement, a rendu possible l'application sur le terrain des divers systèmes de coordination dont les effets se font sentir de plus en plus par la suppression de tout double emploi dans les fonds, le personnel et les activités, par une distribution plus judicieuse des ressources aux projets les plus valables et par le respect des grandes priorités dans l'organisation de la campagne contre la lèpre.

La coordination a permis aux associations de travailler plus étroitement ensemble, soit dans des projets en commun (au nombre de 5 actuellement) où l'un des partenaires devient le gestionnaire, soit dans les centres (au nombre de 97) où un membre de l'Elep devient le coordonnateur au nom des autres. Dans 23 cas, la coordination s'est faite au niveau d'une province ou de tout un pays. Toutefois, pour bénéficier pleinement des possibilités de coordination que leur offre l'Elep, les associations doivent elles-mêmes harmoniser petit à petit leurs propres structures. Tâche ardue, s'il en est !

Il est néanmoins permis de conclure que la voie de la coordination est exaltante par les possibilités qu'elle offre, mais qu'elle s'avère souvent très étroite, car il faut se frayer un chemin entre l'intérêt commun de toutes les associations et le respect absolu de l'autonomie de chacune d'elles. C'est au niveau de l'action, tout le problème de la coordination.

COORDINATION WITHIN THE EUROPEAN OF FEDERATION ANTI-LEPROSY ASSOCIATIONS

— The path between the common interest of associations and the absolute respect for their autonomy.

Coordination in all its forms is a topical issue, particularly at the level of international organizations, whether public or private. Everywhere attempts are being made to elaborate a general strategy together with the principles and criteria which underlie it.

The ELEP is concerned with the problem of relating the contributions of some 20 benevolent agencies to the needs of some 500 leprosy centres in 75 countries.

The first move was the production of a systematic list of the centres. The second was to attack the problem of two or more agencies contributing funds to the same centre — in some cases to cover the same expenses.

The solution was to produce a Coordinate Budget (see Fig. 1). This done with the aid of a computer programme which enables the annual budget to be produced at a cost of S 200 (plus printing costs for 140 copies making a total of S 600 per year). It is difficult to produce the same result manually for the same cost. It is also possible to produce trial budgets for the examination of the member agencies.

The third move was to set up a system of standard « aid request » and « annual report » forms to be filled in by the 500 centres in order to evaluate the funds required by each centre.

Now that such information is available several agencies assisting the same centre may group themselves loosely and name one of their number « coordinator ». The coordinator is responsible for obtaining all the information from the centre, coordinating aid, supervising the execution of the programme in the name of the other partners, etc. — in some cases this system may extend to cover a whole country. For expensive province or country-wide programmes, member agencies are sometimes requested to group themselves to finance a « joint project ». Management of such a project is delegated to one of the partners.

Editorial note : The ELEP system in effect functions as the sort of « potential association » described in the article on page 148.

CONGRESS SCIENCE

The following volumes give solutions to the practical problems of organizing an international meeting. They form part of the International Congress Science Series. Most volumes are available in English or French.

- 165 — International Congress Organization - Theory and Practice. (2nd Congress of International Congress Organizers and Technicians, Lausanne, 1960). 120 p., Price : US \$ 2.00; £ 0.90; BF 100.
- 168 — (French only)
- 168a — Congress Organizers' Manual, by Lucien R. Duchesne, Administrative Director of International Chamber of Commerce. 100 p., Price : US \$ 4; 24/- : BF 150. (French, n°167).
- 185 — Programming wall chart (120 x 80 cm). Price for 3 copies : US \$ 0.60; £ 0.25; BF 25.
- 198 — Proceedings of the 3rd Congress of International Congress Organizers and Technicians, Rome 12-15 November 1962 — Audio-Visual Equipment — Associated Exhibitions — Public relations, 115 p. illus., Price : US \$ 4; £ 1.20; BF 150. (French n°184)
- 200 — Practical Guide for Users of Conference Interpreting Services, by the International Association of Conference Interpreters. 24 p., illus., Price US \$ 1; £ 0.40; BF 50. (French n°197)
- 207 — The Various Types of International Arrangements; of Rooms, Equipment and Services, by G.P. Speeckaert, 76 p., illus., Price : US \$ 4; £ 1.20 ; BF 150. (French n°199)
- 208 — 4th International Congress on Congress Organization, Copenhagen, 1966. Proceedings : Types of international meetings and material arrangement for them. 84 p., illus., Price : US \$ 4; £ 1.20 BF 150. (French, n°206)
- 204 — Handbook on the Organization of International Medical Meetings, by the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences. 123 p., Price : US \$ 5; £ 2.40; BF 225. (French, n°209)
- 900 — How to take part in International Meetings : 82 ideas. 12-page pocket-sized handbook for all participants at international congresses. Price : US \$ 2.50 per 50 copies/Available in French (n°203), German (n°216), Spanish (n°217).
- 218 — Location and Economic Consequences of International Congresses, by Ejler Alkjaer and Jørn L. Eriksen, published in Copenhagen in cooperation with the Union of International Associations. Price : US \$ 5.00 : £ 2.05; BF 250.
- 5th International Congress on Congress Organization, Barcelona, 1970. Proceedings : International organizations and the budgetary and economic aspects of their congresses, ca. 120 p., illus. Price : US \$ 7.00; £ 3.00; BF 350. (French, n°222).

WANTED : New Types of Social Entity

Part 1 : The Role of the « Potential Association »

This article is reproduced from a new UAI Study Paper entitled : « The Next Step in Inter-Organizational Relationships; the use of information, rather than organization, as the foundation for the inter-organizational activity of the future. »

The fragmentation, suspicion, duplication, unnecessary competition for limited resources and conscious or unconscious opposition to change and new patterns of activity which is increasingly characteristic of interorganizational relations, suggests the need for a new type of social entity.

Federations of organizations or even groupings of individuals - as the current solution to this malaise - are considered a potential threat to the autonomy and freedom of action of the proposed members, unless the grouping has a highly specific function (in which case its coordinative power is limited). Members do not want to have things said in their name except on very specific issues with their approval.

Is it not time that we examined the assumption that « organizations » as we have known them - and they do not differ fundamentally from the first associations and limited liability companies that were created several centuries ago - are the only possible form of organizing social activity. This is an incredible absence of development in a society characterized, by change in all domains.

Perhaps we could bypass the impasse in inter-organizational relations and the legal recognition of such entities by creating a new type of social entity (*).

As a first suggestion, why do we not « create » (or, really, « think in terms of ») what might be called a « potential association » (« société

potentielle » in French, as opposed to « société anonyme »). Such an association would, as such, not have « members » in the sense of people subscribing in common to a particular set of views or being represented in any way via any election procedure. The relationship would be loose - almost to vanishing point - to avoid any threat to autonomy. The bodies brought into relationship via a potential association would be held, or, strictly speaking, would hold, themselves, in this relationship simply by the fact that they received information, whether on a paying basis or as some form of subsidized service, from a central point on topics of interest to them. Such centres, each functioning as the secretariat for a potential association, could take any existing organizational form - the fact that each made available information (on a subscription basis, for example) to a list of people or organizations implies no membership relationship whatsoever.

But, and here lies the difference from the multitude of information distribution operations, the secretariat would also ensure that that each « potential associate » or « subscriber » was regularly and rapidly informed of the identity and degree of « interest » or « desire to act » of other associates, with respect to each new subject or issue (falling within the domain of that particular potential association) on which he had also registered his interest (or desire : to act, to commit funds, etc.). Each associate therefore has a comprehensive picture, updated weekly for example, of what new opportunities for joint action are open to him.

On such particular issues contact between a group of associates, self-selected from the total « pool » of associates, is facilitated by the

(*) Equally urgent, if less obvious, is the need for equivalent new structures or processes to relate, « potentially », the activity of autonomous disciplines and as a device for catalyzing individual integration.

secretariat. This could take the form of a list (of the names and addresses of all associates who had registered the same degree of interest in a given topic) sent to each person on the list - or this could be extended so that a willing contact person was appointed and indicated on the list. Such a restricted « transient » group (*) may then decide quite independently on the organizational form or joint action it has to take, if any, (i. e. whether formal or informal, profit or nonprofit, one-off meeting, organization, joint letter, delegation, etc.) for the period of duration of common interest in the subject. The potential association's central secretariat may, in some cases, then prove to be the most appropriate administrative structure to carry out the secretariat function of the specialized transient group. In other cases" a separate secretariat may be created.

In this way the existence of the central secretariat is continually facilitating and catalyzing the creation and crystallization of a multitude of transient groups - self-selected from the total pool of autonomous associates and dissolving back into the pool on completion of the activity for which they were created. Clearly at any one time a given associate may be, be becoming, or coming to be, a « member » of a number of such transient groups with different : constitutions, degrees of formality, governmental character, continuity, degrees of permanence, binding power over members, types of programme, etc. Such specialized groups may result, in the normal way, in the creation of their own information systems or administrative apparatus - and associates may in fact have no further relationship with the potential association from which the transient group « gelled ». Associates may even then constitute themselves into a more specialized potential association but at no time is the autonomy of the associate infringed upon without his direct consent on the specific issue. The potential association constitutes a development which is a « hair's breadth » beyond current practice. This is encouraging in that it indicates that the novelty would not be so

(*) See : Alvin Toffler, *Future Shock*, London, 1970, p. 133 (transient organizations), p. 340-3 (situational groups).

great as to jeopardize its use. Some organizational techniques which are related to it are : ad hoc committees and working parties, use of mission oriented « task forces » in complex organizations in order to get collaboration across jurisdictional boundaries (this is highly developed in the International Telephone and Telegraph Corporation for example), « invisible colleges » of scholars, natural disaster or crisis contact groups, « situational groups » advocated for people passing through the same life situation at the same time (*), and working groups of NGOs in consultative status with ECOSOC (**).

The differences from these techniques are however highly significant. Firstly, the potential association is given social recognition, it becomes a social phenomenon which can be labelled, discussed and improved upon. At present the processes encompassed leading to the crystallization of such groups occur in a very haphazard, change-dependent, inefficient way (to the horror and despair of members when they finally make contact and realize the effort they have wasted). No information system has yet been designed to facilitate this type of contact - the closest approaches are the high-volume, high-cost, highly specialized, profile-based, journal-abstract systems. Secondly, as a distinct organizational technique it can be active between hitherto partially or totally isolated organizations - as such it

(**) « Due to the increasing desire on the part of a number of NGOs to combine for consultation on specific matters under the consideration of the Economic and Social Council or its subsidiary bodies, slowly a new approach has been gaining ground. Without changing the basic concept, the Conference agreed that it or its Bureau may act as a convenor of meetings of consultative NGOs who wish to meet, consult and cooperate on specific matters. The conference or its Bureau : should however not bear any responsibility for the actions of the, groups thus formed. This method which is certainly" capable of further and wider application is not objectionable, provided that there is always a clear distinction defining the competence, the action and the responsibility of the Conference and the Bureau on the one hand, and the competence, action, and responsibility of the cooperating groups or ad hoc committees of NGOs on the other hand. »

(A review of the Aims and Objectives and the Structural Organization of the Conference of NGO's in Consultative Status with ECOSOC. 11th General Conference of NGO's in Consultative Status with ECOSOC, Geneva, 1969, 11/GC/19. p. 9-10)

The Coming Adhocracy

« We are, in fact, witnessing the arrival of a new organizational system that will increasingly challenge, and ultimately supplant bureaucracy. This is the organization of the future. I call it « Adhocracy ».

Man will encounter plenty of difficulty in adapting to this new style organization. But instead of being trapped in some unchanging, personality-smashing niche, man will find himself liberated, a stranger in a new free-form world of kinetic organizations. » (p. 113)

« Organizations now change their internal shape with a frequency - and sometimes a rashness. that makes the head swim. Titles change from week to week. Jobs are transformed. Responsibilities shift. Vast organizational structures are taken apart, bolted together in new forms, then rearranged again. » (p. 113-4)

« Gardner referred to the «crises of organization» in government and suggested that, in both the public and private sectors, « Most organizations have a structure that was designed to solve problems that no longer exist ». The « self-renewing » organization he defined as one that constantly changes its structure in response to changing needs ». (p. 118 citing John Gardner, author of Self-Renewal. Harper, 1963; a similar view is expressed by Donald Schon who says that some organizational structures are very much « a series . of memorials to old problems »).

« Transient teams, whose members come together , to solve a specific problem and then separate, are particularly a characteristic of science and help account for the kinetic quality of the scientific community. » (p. 121)

« Clearly, there is nothing new about the idea of assembling a group to work toward the solution of a specific -problem, then dismantling it when the task is completed. What is new is the frequency with which organizations must resort to such temporary arrangements. The seemingly permanent structures of many large organizations, often because they resist change, are now heavily infiltrated with these transient cells. » (p. 121)

«...we need to create « self-destroying organizations... lots of autonomous, semi-attached units which can be spun off, destroyed, sold... when the need for them has disappeared. » (p. 122 citing Donald Schon, President of the Organization for Social and Technical Innovation).
« What is now within our grasp... is a kind of

productive capability that is alive with intelligence, alive with information, so that at its maximum it is completely flexible; one could completely reorganize the plant from hour to hour if one wished to do so. » And what is true of the plant is increasingly true of the organization as a whole. » (p. 122 citing a management consultant).
« This typically bureaucratic arrangement is ideally suited to solving routine problems at a moderate pace. But when things speed up, or the problems cease to be routine, chaos often breaks loose. It is easy to see why... It takes more information to cope with a novel problem than one we have solved a dozen or a hundred times before. It is this combined demand for more information at faster speeds that is now undermining the great vertical hierarchies so typical of bureaucracy. » (p. 125).

« You no longer have the strict allegiance to hierarchy. You may have five or six different levels of the hierarchy represented in one meeting. You try to forget about salary level and hierarchy, and organize to get the job done. » (p. 126 citing the Director for Personnel Planning for International Telephone and Telegraph Corporation).

« Quite possibly... the only truly effective methods for preventing, or coping with problems of coordination and communication in our changing technology will be found in new arrangements of people and task, in arrangements which sharply break with the bureaucratic tradition ». (p. 126 citing Professor Read of McGill University).
« Information surges through society so rapidly, drastic changes in technology come so quickly that newer, even more instantly responsive forms of organization must characterize the future. What, then, will be the characteristics of the organizations of super-industrial society ? « The key word... will be « temporary »; there will be adaptive, rapidly changing temporary systems ». Problems will be solved by task forces composed of « relative strangers who represent a set of diverse professional skills ». (p. 129 citing sociologist Warren Bennis).

« Once again, there is nothing new about people seeking advice from one another. What is new is our ability, through the use of computerized systems, to assemble situational groups swiftly, to match up individuals with counselors, and to do both with considerable respect for privacy and anonymity. » (p. 343).

Extracts from : Future Shock; a study of mass bewilderment in the face of accelerating change, by Alvin Toffler (London, Bodley Head, 1970; Chapter 7 is entitled « Organization : the Coming Ad-Hocracy »).

increases the whole pace, potential and flexibility of organized activity. Thirdly, by objectifying the tenuous concept of a group of bodies or persons which **could** link together in different transient patterns under different appropriate conditions, the need to centre attention on **existing** organizations (with their tendency to self-perpetuate and constitute obstacles to social change) is diminished in favour of recognition of the range of **potential** patterns into which the component entities could « gel » in response to new conditions. A meaningful and dynamic social framework for ordinary organizations is thus supplied.(*). Fourthly, at a time when the need for greater participation is being felt, the « société anonyme » can be seen as crystallized out of a system of potential relationship between associates known (i.e. non-anonymous) to one another. Namely the transient bodies in which a given associate does not participate are not totally alien to him (provided they arise from the

(*) Thus whilst society may, with the use of a technique of this type, form a highly ordered (low entropy) complex at any given time - satisfying short term, stability requirements - the high probability of switching to completely different high order patterns at later points in time supplies the « randomness » (high entropy) condition essential to the facilitation of social change and development in response to new conditions. In this connection, note Professor Johan Galtung's view on the importance of high entropy for world peace :

« Thus the general formula is : Increase the world entropy, i.e. increase the disorder, the messiness, the randomness, the unpredictability - avoid the clear-cut, the simplistic blue-print, the highly predictable, the excessive order... Expressed in one formula, this seems to capture much of what today passes as peace thinking, particularly of the associative variety. »

(Johan Galtung. Entropy and the general theory of peace. Proceedings of the International Peace Research Association, Second Conference. Assen, Van Gorcum, 1968; also published as Chapter 5 of Theories of Peace, prepared for Unesco under a contract with IPRA.) In other words we have a means of ensuring high social stability at each point in time with low predictability over time, or alternatively, and paradoxically, we can think of it as a potentially (i.e. unrealizable) highly ordered situation over time which « contains » a sequence of very disordered situations. An advantage of this is that people and power groups cannot take up feudalistic roles in potential structures. (In this connection see : Johan Galtung Feudal systems, structural violence and the structural theory of revolutions. Proceedings of the IPRA Third Conference. Assen, Van Gorcum, 1971.)

same potential association) - the alienating effect of an ordinary organization is thus reduced.

Note that there is no limit to the number of associates of a potential association - nor to the degree of sub-division or over-lapping between such associations. (Limits worth a moment's reflection are perhaps constituted by the total world population or the total number of groups.)

Two other thorny problems are bypassed :

- (a) legal status is irrelevant since the association as such, does not « exist » in the present in any tangible form - it only exists **potentially** (hence « potential association ») as a future possibility, and then only partially, through any of an infinite (or a least very large) combination of possible sub-patterns called into existence by particular conditions - it is these sub-patterns which **may** take on forms which could usefully acquire some form of legal status for their usually limited duration - there is however no need for them to « recognize » one another or be recognized by non-member associates.
- (b) control of the central secretariat is not the critical problem it is in the creation of a normal organization. Its operation could even be carried out under contract or be carried out by an organization totally dissociated from the transient groups which « gel » out of the potential association. Control could be in the hands of a few or all of the associates by their constituting themselves **for that administrative purpose only** into a limited liability group or even some form of « Committee of the Whole » (a technique used by the United Nations General Assembly). Alternatively, the minimum administrative operations could be carried out as a normal subscriber-service by periodicals - overlap between such services to common associates would merely confirm then effectiveness.

By implication, both governmental and nongovernmental, and profit and nonprofit, bodies at any level could be associates of the same potential association. The feasibility of a given pattern gelling into some effective ad hoc, formal or informal, joint operation would be determined by negotiation as part of the « life »

of the potential association in terms of the political and other constraints valid for the proposed pattern over the period in question. (It could be instructive to speculate on the results of constituting the many thousands of bodies which make up the UN into a potential association. The same applies to the whole intergovernmental system, the nongovernmental system and could be equally interesting at the national and local levels).

It should be clear that it is precisely this type of method of ensuring a constant, very high and flexible **interaction** rate which would ensure generation of the maximum amount of self-coordinated new activity, commitment and involvement by associates of potential associations. It is this sort of approach which could be **catalyzed** by the UN to increase the amount of activity related to development, peace and other UN programme objectives. This could -be done for the local and national levels, where the centres of interest lie, to strengthen grass-roots interaction, with the recognition that this will build up and overflow **naturally** and of its own accord onto the international level and from the developed to the developing countries. This can be achieved **without** the need for the UN to be responsible for the **organization, control** or political implications of whatever

joint activity gels out - except where Specialized Agency departmental participation, as an associate in a given activity, is appropriate. It is the increase in the, absolute amount of such interaction which will ensure maximum collaboration with, and support for, the sub-set constituted by UN programmes. What social processes, pressures or bodies cause new UN programmes to be evolved (i.e..voted) in recognition of. new problems ? Does the UN believe that-non-UN joint activity can contribute to the achievement of UN long-term objectives without necessarily being tied to the UN definitions of methods and priorities - if so, what needs to be done to facilitate such activity (as a striking opportunity for accelerated development rather than as a politico-administrative problem of selective « recognition » of appropriate organizations ?) (*)

A.J.

(*) For specific proposals for the use of computers to facilitate high inter- and intra- organizational interaction, see A.J.N. Judge. Information systems and inter-organizational space. In : Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science Association, Special Issue on Social Intelligence (for Development), Winter 1970-71. See also : International Organizations and the Generation of the Will to change; information systems required. Brussels, Union of International Associations, 1970 (INF/5).

Resume français de l'article (p. 148) :

ON DEMANDE : UNE NOUVELLE ENTITE SOCIALE

— le rôle de « l'association potentielle »

Pour faire face aux problèmes de coordination des programmes des organisations qui se veulent indépendantes et craignent tout lien qui risquerait de nuire à leur autonomie, il y a lieu de considérer la possibilité de concevoir une nouvelle forme de liaison entre personnes ou organisations — une nouvelle entité sociale qui éviterait ces problèmes.

L'auteur suggère la création d'une « société potentielle ». Une telle société n'aurait pas de membres, simplement des « associés » qui recevraient l'information d'un service central quelconque, ressemblant peut-être à un abonnement à une revue. Une différence cependant dans l'action supplémentaire du secrétariat de cette « société ». Celui-ci réunirait de la part de chaque associé des indications sur les questions qui l'intéressent et distribuerait à chacun des listes mentionnant l'identité des autres associés ayant indiqué un intérêt pour le même sujet que lui. Cette technique faciliterait la formation de groupes spécialisés qui

pourraient se réunir sur une base ad hoc pour se dissoudre leur travail une fois terminé dans le pool général de la société potentielle.

Une telle société potentielle serait ainsi le catalyseur de la création de sociétés au sens habituel du terme, mais n'aurait pas une « existence » organisationnelle qui pose toute une série de problèmes bien connus, d'ordre juridique ou autres.

Les lecteurs français remarqueront que l'article intitulé « La Coordination dans le cadre de l'ELEP » (page 141) décrit l'opération d'un système d'information qui fonctionne d'une manière similaire à celle d'une société potentielle.

Nous signalons qu'un article en français paraîtra prochainement au sujet des « associations momentanées » entre les OINGs. Une société potentielle est le cadre « fictif » qui pourrait faciliter la création de telles associations.

Part 2 : Matrix Organization and Organizational Networks

...turbulent environments require some relationship between dissimilar organizations whose fates are, basically, positively correlated. This means relationships that will maximize cooperation and which recognize that no one organization can take over the role of « the other », and become paramount. We are inclined to speak of this type of relationship as an organizational matrix. Such a matrix acts in the first place by delimiting on value criteria the character of what may be included in the field specified — and therefore who. This selectivity then enables some definable shape to be worked out without recourse to much in the way of formal hierarchy among members.

(F.E. Emery and E.L. Trist. The Causal Texture of Organizational Environments.)

The potential association technique is closely related to a technique used to handle complex multidisciplinary projects, such as the effort to get a man on the moon. Projects of equivalent complexity are the essence of development and the regeneration of urban areas, for example. This new technique, of proven worth, is known as the project or matrix organization.

The success of the program to get a man on the moon is not only a technological triumph. « Apollo 11 has been referred to as the most complicated piece of hardware ever conceived by man. The mind boggles when one tries to envision the total configuration of this undertaking from the millions of hardware parts through to the actual mission flight encompasses a world-wide communications network. The managerial dimensions of the task are staggering The administrative-management segment is perhaps less glamorous, and is prone to be overshadowed during the elation of accomplishment, but it is one that plays a vital role in achievement » (*).

Development, peace and environmental problems are coming to be perceived as enormously complex — whether they are as complex as the task of getting a man to the moon is not yet clear. Many people would have wished that the resources devoted to the Apollo project could have been diverted into development type programs. But whatever one's views of the significance of the Apollo project and criteria of success, there is no reason why the technique used to manage this complex multidisciplinary program should not be examined for relevance, as a technique, to the problem of relating the many organizations working to solve different aspects of the population-food-health-environment-peace crisis.

The management techniques developed by NASA are unorthodox because they must tie together : fundamental research on new approaches, development of research insights into realistic projects, contracting out aspects of the research , development

or manufacturing programme (to industry, universities, governmental agencies, professional associations, etc.) programme initiation, programme implementation, coordination of the programmes of a maze of semiautonomous departments and institutions, human relations of a high order to blend together creative talent, highly individualistic and sensitive to restrictions to their autonomy in their area of expertise, and external relations (with the

The points made here concerning the NASA management concepts are based on the article by W. Litzinger, A. Mavrinac and J. Wagle entitled « The Manned Spacecraft Center in Houston; the practice of management » (Revue internationale des sciences administratives, 1970, 36, p. 2-8). The criticism of traditional models of the dissemination of policy and other information is based on the 1970 BBC Reith Lectures given by Donald Schon, President of the Organization for Social and Technical Innovation (« The Listener », November-December 1970, BBC Publications, 35 Marylebone High street, London W1M 4AA; a book by Donald Schon « Beyond the Stable State », London, Maurice Temple Smith Ltd, May 1971, will develop the points made in the lectures). We strongly recommend that anyone concerned with the future of international organization study Donald Schon's views. They seem to be a key to the solution of the problems of the relationship between international governmental and nongovernmental organizations. It is only to be regretted that so many people of his calibre concentrate primarily on the problems of national organizations. Why are the views of such people never evident in the « Jackson Reports » ? This article is reproduced from a new UAI Study Paper entitled « The Next step in Inter-Organizational Relationships; the use of information, rather than organization, as the foundation for the inter-organizational activity of the future ».

(*) W. Litzinger, A. Mavrinac, and J. Wagle. The Manned Spacecraft Center in Houston; the practice of management. Revue Internationale des Sciences Administratives 1970, 36, p. 2-8.

Figure 1	1 INGO A	2 INGO B	3 INGO A	4 INGO B	5 INGO A	6 Multinat. corp.	7 Govt. A	8 Govt. A	9 Foundation A	10 Foundation B
Phase 1	X		X	X					X	
Phase 2	X	X	X		X					X
Phase 3			X			X			X	X
Phase 4		X		X	X				X	X
Phase 5	X			X		X	X			X

general public, the press, government, industry, the academic community, and special interest groups). At the same time priorities and organizational patterns are constantly changing. To succeed in this complex situation necessitates the abandonment of most of the standard rules of management practice. Each of the features noted above is present in the elaboration of development-peace-environment-food programmes. It is therefore probable that the NASA techniques may contain important clues for the improvement of such programmes. But programmes depend for their final success (in problem-solution rather than administrative performance terms) on the participation of many people from different backgrounds, organizations (e.g., government, industry, universities, professional associations, youth groups, etc.), and disciplines (economics sociology, psychology, management, statistics, agriculture, communications, etc.) within programme frameworks which are as unrestrictive on decentralized initiative as is feasible. Consider some of the elements of the NASA philosophy. NASA decided that it would act as technical manager of a government-contractor-university-team rather than be the designer and manufacturer of its various requirements — namely a team effort between essentially different types of organization. This meant an emphasis on contracting out work to non-NASA controlled bodies (whether government, industry, university or professional association).

Matrix Organizational Structure.

A very important decision was the switch to the concept of a « matrix organizational structure » in contrast to the traditional hierarchical, one-man-one-boss structure. Within this new structure, each participating body — whether controlled by NASA or not — is considered to be at the intersection of influences from other parts of the structure and itself in turn influences several others. It is a system which tends to diminish the visibility of

authority and to emphasize consensus as an operative mode. Every participating organization or department is therefore at the point of intersection of competing forces with each part giving particular expression to the overall system's goal. Operating decisions are part of the give and take of specialized units struggling for a share of the system's total resources.

A key part of matrix management is the presence of elements with the power of precise decision, able to freeze the dialogue of decisionmaking at ad hoc points. In place of a rigid hierarchy and the pressure to conform to directives from the top, matrix management tries to substitute operating unit drive for expression within a climate of mutual respect united around fundamentals.

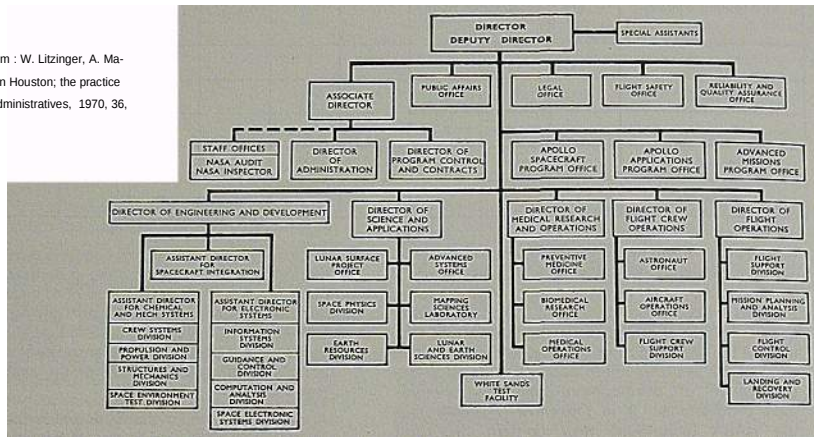
Why the expression « matrix » organization ? Consider a simple example in Fig. 1.

The project is divided into 5 Phases and requires the participation of 10 organizations of various types. Organizations participate to a different degree at different Phases. At each Phase there is a problem of coordination between the participating bodies. Between Phases there is the problem of ensuring continuity. Phases may of course overlap one another or run in parallel. In a real case several departments from each organization might be involved at different Phases, and there would probably be many more Phases. The matrix would be very much larger. In a matrix organization each Phase has its own coordinating body which exists only for the duration of the Phase. The manager of the coordinating body has no formal line of authority over the participating functional units — but he does have deterministic authority over the units which do participate. Within the project as a whole, therefore, the activities of one participating body are coordinated by several such bodies — the one-man, one-boss approach is dropped — with the result that the span of control becomes very large.

NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION
MANNED SPACECRAFT CENTER
Houston, Texas

Figure 2.

Reproduced from : W. Litzinger, A. Mac-
craet Center in Houston; the practice
des sciences administratives, 1970, 36,
p. 2-8.



« Issues like human relations, trust, people understanding one another — which we used to think of as the frills of a business organization — now become absolutely central. When TRW Systems was running the Minuteman project, the heads of each of the resource pools and of the projecting group met together for an hour at eight o'clock every morning, every day of the week. Not because they were nice fellows or thought that human relations were a good thing, but because the informational complexity of running a matrix was so great that without that sort of meeting they couldn't manage at all. »

(Donald Schon. BBC Reith Lectures 1970. The Listener, 3 December 1970, p. 774).

Each organizational unit can therefore be seen as an area of tension between the forces of integration and fragmentation which cut through the system. Matrix management attempts to enhance both these tendencies.

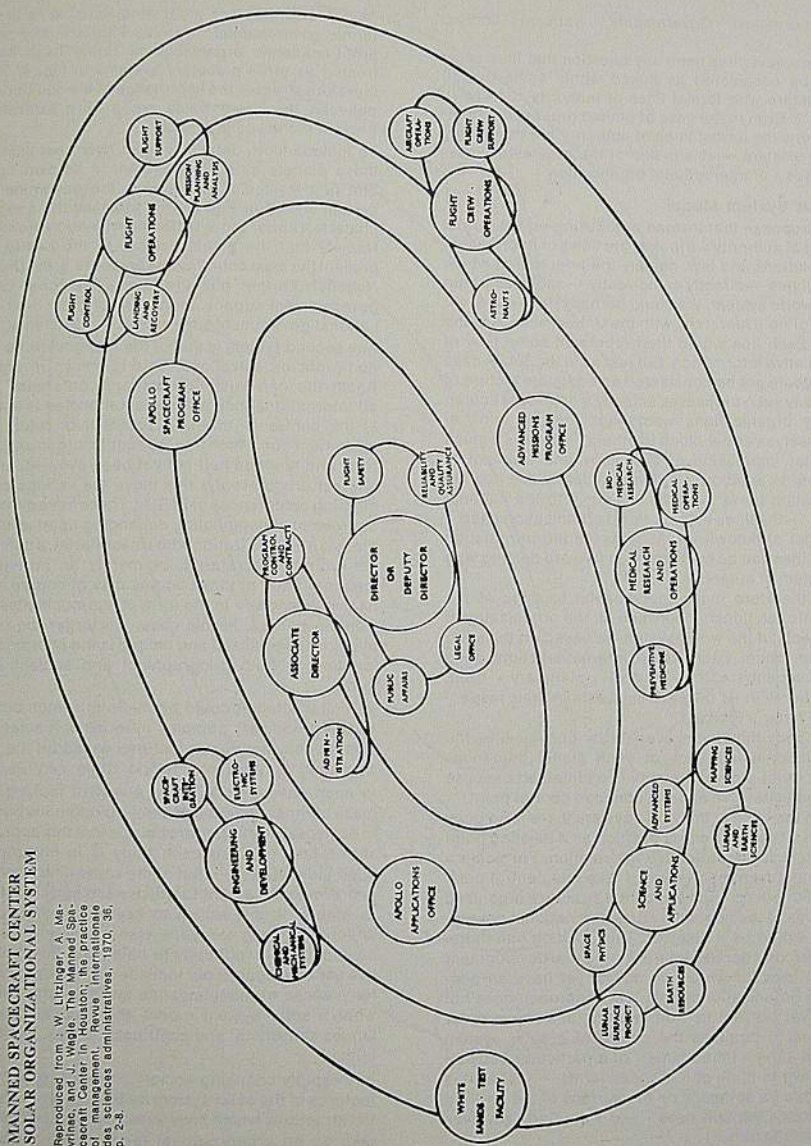
Disintegration tendencies derive, in a development-environment-food problem example, from : the « economists » responsibilities to propose mechanisms to improve the availability of funds to developing countries. Similarly « human rights NGOs » must focus on the social aspects and consequences of development. The « peace researchers » must attempt to isolate factors which hinder moves towards the reduction in international tensions and an increase in world stability.

The « medical organization » must attempt to stress the importance of health in relation to development, pollution and malnutrition. The « pure science bodies » must stress the importance of new understanding of ecology, control of natural phenomena, etc. The « mass media bodies » must stress the importance of informing and educating the general public on their responsibilities. And so on.

Each such autarky — and it is as such that NASA views many of its sub-systems — is however related to the others. Certain unifying techniques are provided. These have been well illustrated by the contrast between the traditional formal organization (one-man-one-boss) structure as shown in Fig. 2 and the new diagrammatic representation as in Fig. 3. In the NASA case, the first is judged as no longer reflecting the reality of the matrix environment. The second is considered to be a closer approximation to the management dynamics. This is more than a « space age » portrayal of a structural-functional system. Just as the components of our own social system are held in juxtaposition by the forces of nature, so also does each « planet » in the matrix organization owe its position to more than just gravitational interaction with the « sun » or its « moon(s) ». Each planet interacts with all components of the system to bring about a balance or stability which serves to maintain the system. But is this solar system diagram relevant to the problems of interrelating IGOs, INGOs, Multinational

Figure 3
MANNED SPACECRAFT CENTER
SOLAR ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEM

Reproduced from: W. Litzinger, A. Marvinic, and J. Wagle. The Manned Spacecraft Center in Houston: the practice of management. *Revista Interamericana de Ciencias Administrativas*, 1970, 68, p. 2-8.



corporations, Governments, National bodies, etc. ?

There never has been any question that they could all be considered as linked within some overall structure with formal lines of authority such as in Fig. 2. Even in the case of limited groups of organizations the formal lines of authority are practically non-existent — this is one of the greatest « weaknesses » of international organization.

Solar System Model

But suppose that instead of focusing on the formal lines of authority we look at the flows of information, resolutions and law, namely the information which regulates — directly or indirectly — activities within the world system. We could perhaps draw out some sort of rigid hierarchy with the United Nations at the top. Each line would then represent some flow of regulative information. But just as in the NASA case this could not be considered an adequate picture of the way such processes actually work. In particular, many organizations would not wish to think of themselves as beholden to others — there is a much greater impression of autonomy and freedom of action. In addition, we can not clearly see how information flows from the UN down to the national level — the lines in the « world organization chart » are not all known. In many cases the information flow lines can be only dotted in. We are dealing with a system of autarkies.

It is therefore much more useful to think of the organic relationship between all the organizational elements of the world system as based on the solar system model. Each area of interest functions quite independently within its own « planetary » orbit, together with its own sub-interests in their respective « lunar » orbits.

Each body influences every other body, just as the gravitational influence of each planet influences every other planet. Stability is maintained because all bodies revolve about a common central point. But in the case of the world system there is no body which sits at the central position as a meeting point or origin for coordinative information. For some a « world government » would take this central position. For others a governmental structure organized in terms of the concepts current in national government would be a disaster. This position can therefore be considered a future or potential development — an idea for which we do not yet have an adequate organizational form. This approach does not however prevent us from treating this common (or « virtual ») point as the centre of a solar system model. (The « inhabitants » of a particular body do not have to think of it in these terms — just as it is possible for someone on the surface of the Earth to say both « the Sun rises » and « the Earth revolves around the Sun ».)

As a first attempt at organizing thinking in these terms, governmental, business-industry, and non-profit-academic organizational forms have been treated as three planetary systems in Fig. 4. This therefore stresses the importance of the equilibrium between the three basic types of organization present in the social system.

To include more details, we can now treat each of these planets as a solar system in its own right. The first treated in this way is the governmental system shown in Fig. 5. This stresses the geographical territorial aspect of the coordination problem. Namely that the planets closer to the centre represent the most coordinative bodies (e.g. the United Nations). Further out, the smaller regional inter-governmental organizations are shown, then the national governments, then local governments.

The second system is that of the non-governmental, non-profit organizations. This is shown in Fig. 6. Again the non-existent « plenary conference » of all international nongovernmental bodies is shown at the centre — this is a potential or future development for which the adequate organizational form and function had not yet been evolved. In the nearest orbits around this move the various coordinating conferences of INGOs. These have different degrees of substantiality, depending upon whether there is an organization with a secretariat, a committee with no secretariat, or merely an infrequent meeting. Each of these bodies may of course have its own « moons » in the form of sub-committees or working parties. In this case, the larger the orbit, the more specialized and limited is the coordinative function in both geographical and subject area terms.

A similar attempt could be made to sketch out the business-industry complex in terms of a solar system model. Significant features would be the multinational corporations, world trade centres, etc. In each case we now have a way of looking at a maze of independent and semi-autonomous bodies. In each case the important point is that this approach shows how justified each body is in considering itself independent — but at the same time attention is drawn to the extent to which each body is related to others. It is a truism to say that everybody is dependent upon everyone else in society, but we have enormous difficulty in balancing this integrative concept against our individually felt justification for a sense of independence and freedom. This is what a solar system model accomplishes. It balances centrifugal and centripetal forces, justifying both.

In a rapidly changing society one must expect the features of the solar system model to evolve. Potential structures which have acted as focal points may take on an organizational form. Existing planets

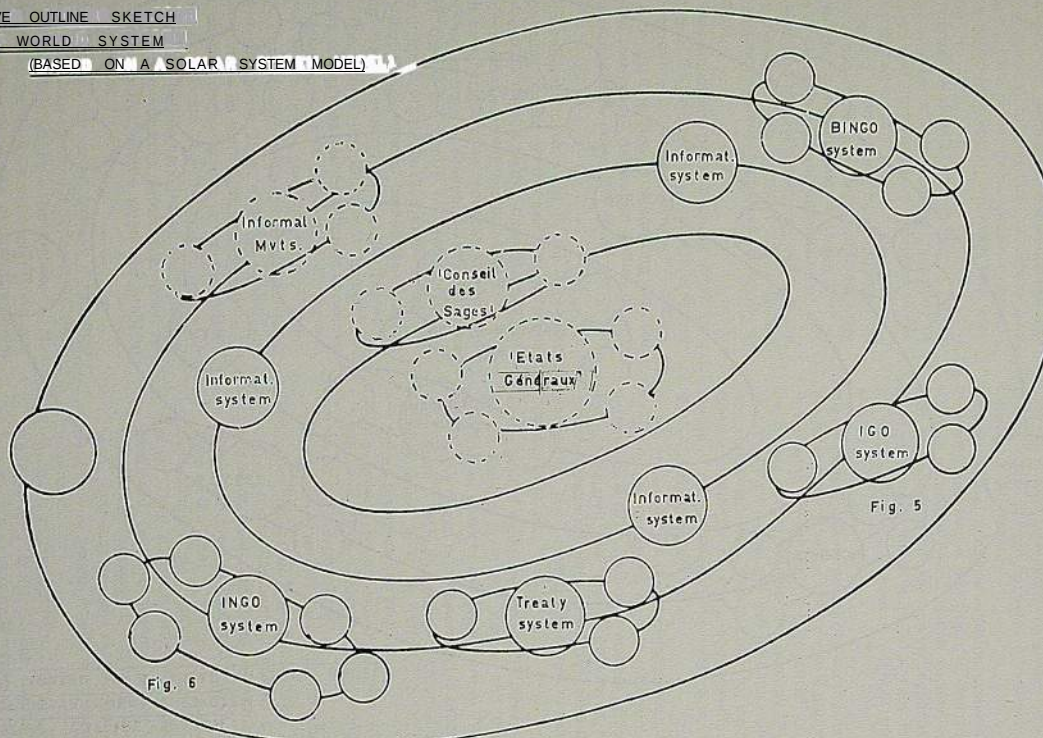
Figure 4.

SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE SKETCH

MAP OF WORLD SYSTEM

(BASED ON A SOLAR SYSTEM MODEL)

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, 1971.



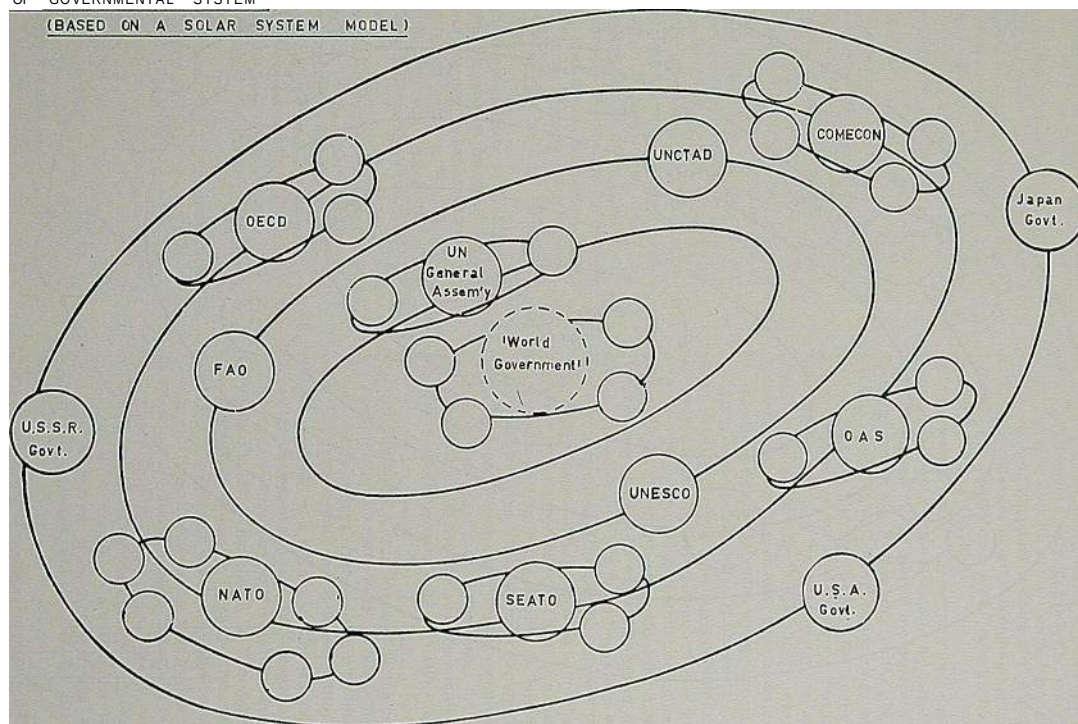
IGO = Intergovernmental organization,
INGO = International nongovernmental organization (non-profit).
BINGO = Business INGO (Multinational corporation).

Figure 5.

SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE SKETCH

MAP OF GOVERNMENTAL SYSTEM

(BASED ON A SOLAR SYSTEM MODEL)



cease to be considered useful and may disintegrate — « releasing » any dependent bodies (which retain their usefulness) to gravitate into some new orbit. A solar system model can * contain » conceptually and portray such social dynamism in a very adequate manner.

Another important feature of the model is that it can suggest or draw attention to the possibility of new structures and thus speed up evolution of the social system to new forms.

The solar system model can be interpreted in another way. If two bodies are placed close together on the model, then communication between them — the transfer of new concepts and information on new problems — will be relatively easy compared to the case where the bodies are far apart on the model. Increased distance means increased difficulty in communication.

This is a very important point because there is a tendency to treat the centre of any such social system as the « controller » of all « dependent » bodies. From this it is just one step to suggesting that the centre should instruct all dependent bodies on the action they should take under any given set of circumstances.

This view completely loses sight of the fact that precisely because bodies on the periphery are not at the centre they have a better understanding of problems developing in their sector. And it is because such peripheral bodies feel that they should modify their own actions to respond to the problems they detect, before the centre has registered the importance of these problems (due to the communication lag) that the peripheral bodies feel justified in stressing the importance of a high degree of autonomy. The centre just does not respond to crises quickly enough, on top of which it is usually so over-burdened — when attempting to control everything — that it is not sensitive to information on « minor » (from its own perspective) crises. These are therefore allowed to grow, until the centre can recognize the crisis as worthy of its attention with disastrous consequences to the peripheral bodies in the sector in question. A more organic approach sees the peripheral bodies handling all the problems to which they can respond effectively, only referring to more central bodies when the problem overflows their sector.

The centre-periphery or solar system model has recently been criticized by Donald Schon (BBC Reith Lectures, 1970. Published in « The Listener », November-December, 1970.) in a very interesting way which throws much light on the direction in which forms of organization can expect to develop.

He is concerned with social changes and changes in institutions, as a consequence of the spreading of

something, whether it be a new product, a new concept, a new technology, or a new type of institution. Social change becomes a by-product of the diffusion of information.

He argues that society's diffusion systems change over time and evolve and that this evolution is absolutely critical to how it is that society works and that management of the society depends on our ability to spread things in it, for novelty to arise at points and then to spread throughout the rest of society.

He takes as a classic model of the diffusion process the solar system with a centre and a periphery to it. In following his criticism it is important to note that he is only concerned with the analogy to the diffusion of « light » from the sun as centre point. He is not concerned with the analogy to the « gravitational » influence of each body (whether at the centre or not) on every other body, as is the case in the NASA solar system model.

In the case of international organizations, the centre in the following argument could represent either the international NGO (with its members or its public as the periphery), the United Nations system (with national organizations and the general public as the periphery). The « novelty » is peace or development-oriented thinking.

In the limited model, which he criticizes, the novelty to be spread is at the centre and the potential adapters or users of the novelty are at the periphery. This is the model of diffusion that is practised in the classroom. It rests on a series of assumptions :

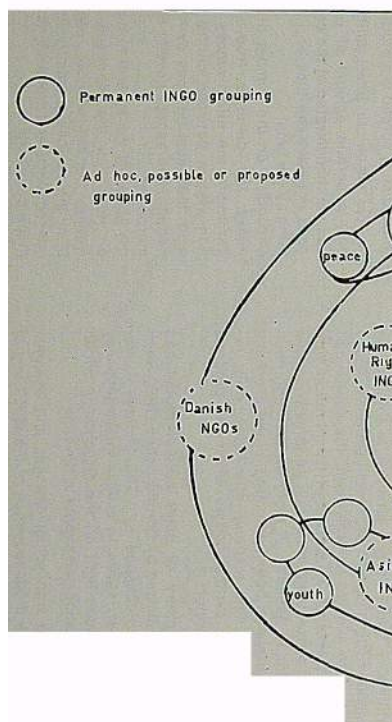
- that which is to be diffused or spread exists before the spreading begins
- the growth or spreading of new things takes place by the movement of these things out from the centre to a periphery
- that which is spread is a product or a technique

The model has certain limits built into it :

- only a certain amount of energy or resources can be concentrated at the centre (i.e., the centre does not have the time and energy to do everything all the time)
- depending on the number of points on the periphery, the distance from the centre to the periphery, the effectiveness of the communication system between centre and periphery, the work that must be done by the centre to get the periphery to accept novelty may be considerably increased
- the ability of the system to function is dependent on how well the feedback mechanism works. Namely the centre must respond to information from the periphery, modify its own behaviour in consequence and transmit new information back to the periphery.

Figura 6.

SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE SKETCH



HAP OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL SYSTEM

(BASED ON A SOLAR SYSTEM MOPED

INGO = International
nongovernmental
organization.

NGO = National nongovernmental
organization.

« Proliferation of Centers » Model.

A modification of the simple centre-periphery model has been developed in response to these limitations. Schon calls this the proliferation-of-centres model. In this case the original primary centre is replicated so that a new kind of centre is now created in the middle and a series of miniature centre-periphery models now operate on the periphery. He cites as an example the Roman Army in which the primary centre in Rome trains and develops the capability of the colonies to function as secondary centres. In this way the scope of operation is enormously increased. Whereas previously activity was bounded by the distance to the periphery and the resources of the centre, now new centres can be replicated at convenient distances from the periphery, pushing the limiting boundary further away from the original centre.

The replication is not perfect, however, and such social structures tend to fail when the periphery and secondary centres get out of control — the traditional conflict between the centre and the region or branch. But as Schon says :

« Perhaps the major source of failure in the proliferation-of-centres model has to do with the rigidity of central doctrine in relation to what's going on at the periphery. You have what looks, after the fact, like the stupidity of the Third International with respect to revolution according to the likes of each country, the stupidity of the Church, for example, in the delays they practised before allowing the liturgy to be Chinese in China, the stupidity of Coca-Cola which for a long time insisted on providing brown liquid for Africans when Africans didn't like brown liquid : they liked orange liquid. The need to modify the central message according to the requirements and the lights of the periphery poses great problems for the proliferation-of-centres system, because the whole structure of the system, its effectiveness, depends upon the simplicity and the uniformity of that message.

It is apparent that such systems were not organized to be sensitive to change. Schon notes however that they did adapt, and « learn », but only in spite of forces opposing such adaptation :

« The great proliferation-of-centres models of the late 19th and early 20th centuries turn out to have been learning systems in spite of themselves. That is to say, when change occurred which was responsive to the special conditions which obtained at the periphery, the centre always found it necessary to disengage, to react against that change, no matter how adaptive the change may have been. The overall pattern runs roughly this way. A primary centre emerges, it develops a diffusion system, it replicates itself in many secondary centres. The primary centre specialises in the creation and management of secondary centres and in the management of the overall network, and then the diffusion system fragments, the centre loses control, the network

disintegrates, the secondary centres gain independence, or they decline, or they themselves assume the role of primary centre. The reasons for that decline or for that disintegration may be several. They may have to do with the limits of the infrastructure, the limits of the technology for the flow of information if the centre can't reach the outposts adequately. They may have to do with a constraint on the centre's ability to manage that complexity. They may have to do with the motivations of the agents of diffusion. »

Schon contrasts this model which is currently used in most large organizational systems, whether governmental, business or nonprofit, with a model which he describes as being pioneered by certain types of « business-system » corporations and the youth-peace-civil rights movement in the U.S.A. In the latter case, for example, there is no clear centre — or rather a shifting centre, and no stable message. Theories arise spontaneously, modify themselves and bear only a family resemblance to one another. Nothing is radiating out from one centre to a periphery.

« It's a kind of amoeba, with very unclear boundaries, with no clear centre, with no clear structure, but with a very powerful, informal, interpersonal network that pulls the whole thing together. And not only does it survive, but it turns out to be darn near invulnerable, and its invulnerability in part depends on precisely those ways in which it is different from the centre-periphery model. There is no clear, stable centre, nothing to strike at. »

Such social organization depends very heavily upon the existence of a highly effective communications system but also upon the « strange and wonderful networks of interpersonal connection stretching over the entire nation which enable the pieces of this system to connect together. »

The movement and the business-systems firm are therefore highly able to transform themselves without disruption and to modify their behaviour in response to the requirements of changing situations — despite the fact that they are apparently the most antithetical to one another, their methods of organization appear to be converging upon a common organizational structure :

« The classical models for the diffusion of innovation took a product or a technique as the unit to be diffused. The business systems firm and the youth movement are biased toward a functional system of thought and action as the unit to be diffused. The classical model is a centre-periphery one; the business-systems firm and the social movements associated with youth and Vietnam have a pattern of systems-transformation which is not centre-periphery. The classical model has a fixed centre and clearly defined leadership; the youth movement and the business-systems firm both tend to have shifting centres and ad hoc leadership as the requirement arises. The earlier system had relatively stable messages and a pattern of application of a

A NEW ECUMENICAL GEOMETRY PROPOSED

Whilst preparing the article on « Matrix Organization and Organizational Networks » for print the editors were delighted to discover that one international nongovernmental organization was already applying the solar system type model described in the article to its own area of special concern. Meeting in Addis Ababa in January, the 120-member 24th Central Committee meeting of the World Council of Churches « countered the institutional and financial crises of the Church with speeches, statements and declarations that should usher in a new chapter of the modern ecumenical movement. »

The report of the Chairman of the Central Committee, Dr. M.M. Thomas, Director of the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society

At Uppsala and since, we have been discussing the relation between the horizontal and vertical dimensions in the work of the World Council of Churches. I think the horizontal work has all been done now.

But it seems to me that another figure from geometry which has been employed from time to time in WCC discussions is more meaningful — that of the centre and the other parts of the circle, such as for example the radii, which extend from the centre and are kept in place by the centripeta, pull of the centre, and at the same time express or define the centre, and the periphery where everything is seen as marginal. So the questions we would ask are :

- (i) *What is the centre or central concern of the fellowship in thought, life and activities of the World Council ?*
- (ii) *Do the many aspects of the life of the Council radiate from and express this central concern, and if so how ?*
- (iii) *Do some activities of the Council give undue importance to things which are marginal ?*

These are questions which are being raised by the world outside the World Council constituency and sometimes, as in the recent past, by parts of the WCC membership itself. We should be grateful to them, for these are questions the Central Committee must ask itself as it seeks to evaluate the policies it lays down and the programmes it asks the Executive Committee and the staff to implement.

in Bangalore (India) is of particular interest. Extracts (including the heading above) are produced below from the Ecumenical Press Service's « This Month ».

We leave it to readers to judge the problems of the approach mentioned by Dr. Thomas in the light of the views on the solar system model examined in the article. The WCC is concerned with the progressive definition of a « centre » as a concept around which everything revolves, the diffusion of the message from the centre, the relationship of its member organizations to that centre, the need to permit them full autonomy and freedom to explore and respond to the problems that they detect, and the need to establish relationships with organizations « beyond the periphery ».

The distinctions between the centre, the radius and the periphery become, increasingly important as the Council seeks, under the mandate of the Uppsala Assembly, to enlarge the circle, on the one hand, and to become more militant on the other.

The Council, which began with an overwhelming predominance of churches of the established Protestant traditions from Western Europe and North America, has now in its fold not only most of the Orthodox churches and many of the churches of Africa, Asia and Latin America related to established Protestant missions but... churches which are deeply oriented toward indigenous African culture and for Pentecostal spirituality. This expansion of membership has brought into the circle of the World Council the human hopes and despair of the countries and cultures in all parts of the wide world in the midst of which the churches struggle to witness to their faith and life in Christ. This is what I mean by the enlargement of the circle. Along with this has come to the World Council membership, as expressed through the assemblies, a new sense that the Council should not merely be engaged in the study of comparative ecclesiology, comparative theologies of mission and comparative social ethics as in the, churches, but also must seek together to define more precisely in the light of common faith their common goals with regard to unity, witness and service, and within certain limits make the Council itself an instrument of the churches for mutual help and efforts to realize these goals...

The Centre

Obviously, the centre of the Council is given in its Basis, according to which the WCC is « a fellowship of churches which confess the Lord Jesus Christ as God and Saviour according to the Scriptures and therefore seek to fulfill together their common calling to the glory of the one God, Father, Son and Holy Spirit ». The fellowship of churches which we are is centred in our common confession of faith in Jesus Christ and our glorification of the Triune God... The central concern is theological — not in the sense of a reality apart from our total life, but of one which expresses itself in the pull which it exerts on the totality — Christ-centred and therefore seeking and action. The new theological advance here is that the principle of catholicity is offered as criterion not only of the life of the the Christian community but also of the life of all mankind. Thus the WCC sees that it is committed, in its central confession of Christ and his Church and as one of its essential constituent aspects, to a new ethics of catholicity by which « we must judge and repudiate tragic distortions of humanity in the life of mankind ».

It is this faith-ethics commitment that Uppsala considered the very centre of the Council's fellowship, because the unity of mankind is « part and parcel of God's own revelation ». This is behind the suggestion mooted at Uppsala that churches which deny the ethics of world community should be considered guilty of heresy — not just of moral heresy but of clear theological heresy. And it seems to me that some Christians and probably some member churches may be finding it difficult to understand the centrality of this theological focus... All the programmes of study and action in the World Council today are attempts to clarify the nature of this dialectical theological centre to which we are committed...

The Radii

Recently many parts of the constituency of our member churches have been in serious dialogue with traditional or emerging cultures and religions. The Asian and African churches, as they have grown to maturity and become new united churches or come together in regional councils, have been awakened to the need for shaking loose from the Western confessions and for finding new ways of confessing and communicating the faith and of

expressing their common life in terms of the thought-forms and life-forms of indigenous cultures, which have been traditionally shaped by religious visions other than that of Christianity, and which are now being reshaped by the impact of secular ideologies and Christian ideas. These churches are also called upon to participate in the building of their nations and to work for common social and political goals in active cooperation with people organised in other religious communities and with parties and groups formed around secular ideologies.

Similarly in Europe and the Americas the churches have been compelled to enter into dialogue not only with the growing secular culture but also with the secular humanistic faiths of both liberal and Marxist persuasions which infuse it...

Beyond the Periphery

Recently the World Council has organised under its own auspices conversations on faith and politics with world Jewry, Muslims and Marxists. And as authorised by Canterbury, a consultation of Christians with representative Hindus, Buddhists and Muslims was organised at Ajaltoun to explore questions of inter-religious dialogue on Man and his temporal and ultimate destiny in the context of the struggle for world community and increasing inter-religious contacts. Following it, a consultation of theologians at Zurich evaluated Ajaltoun and explored the Christian theology of dialogue.

...I would say that the only effective answer to syncretism (understood as confusion between the living God and idols at the spiritual centre) is a proper positive theological approach to indigenisation, cooperation and dialogue. And here more than in any other field we need to define the centre of our faith, where Jesus Christ as God and Saviour is alone ultimate and excludes all other gods and saviours and schemes of salvation whether religions or secular, at the same time distinguishing the ultimate Centre from the penultimate area of symbols, ideologies, values, institutions and experiences of Christianity, other religions and secular ideologies where interpenetration is necessary and possible and where our concern is to see how they may be redeemed from the spirit of idolatry and selfrighteousness and from the inhumanity arising from them and transformed into expressions of the Humanism and the common humanity of all men in Christ and bearers of the faith, life and message of the Church...

central message; the latter ones have evolving messages. The earlier systems were limited in their scope by resources and energy at the centre and by the capacity of the spokes; the latest systems are limited only by the qualities of the technological infrastructure of the time. The reason I dwell at such length upon this development is that I think it contains within it the seeds of what it means to be a learning system in our time. »

Schon then uses these ideas about organizational structures as learning systems to look at governmental structures, namely the third basic type of organization. He first notes that one negative but not entirely inappropriate way of looking at government agencies is as a series of memorials to old problems. As a general rule agencies come into being around problems that are perceived as critical problems and then go on living long after those problems have been solved or become insignificant.

The « learning » system

Public organizations have proved singularly inept at responding to new situations — in functioning as a learning system. Any problem that can be named has a number of very interesting ideas for its solution. The difficulty has been that of carrying out any policy for social change to respond effectively in terms of such solutions. Schon scotches the idea that inability to respond has been due to the lack of commitment to the needed programmes in that one could equally well argue that the failure of these policies and our inability to implement them, rests on a radically inadequate theory about the process of implementing any policy. The current theory of public learning is based on the following :

- that the issues and problems are given, that we know what they are, and although we may investigate them, the investigation does not usually take into account the process by which the issues came to be perceived as important in the first place;
- that it is possible to make a radical distinction between the formation of a policy and its implementation;
- that the process by which a policy comes to be implemented is a centre-periphery process with government disseminating policy from its centre point;
- that policy, once developed, can remain steady over a long period of time which permits aspects of the policy to be handled by compartmentalized units which correspond to the departments and agencies of government, namely one-agency-one-policy;

Against this theory he raises three questions :

- how do ideas come into good currency, how do issues come to be powerful for action, how do we decide what needs to be worked on ?

- how can government change in response to a new problem ?
- how can government go about developing and carrying out a policy solution to a new problem when it is clear that the problem has to be worked on but it is not clear what the solution is, and when no solution is going to be adequate for more than a short time ?

As an example he cites the problem of the cities and notes that no governmental agency in the U.S.A. is not involved in this problem. Namely the problem fragments the existing pattern of agencies with each agency tackling that aspect of the problem relevant to its own concerns. The same is true of development and intergovernmental agencies. Another example is the current problem of the environment. The current solutions to this difficulty are :

- to form inter-agency committees, which according to Schon have never been known to work and quickly fall victim to the baronial instincts of the various agencies so coordinated;
- to reorganize and consolidate the system of agencies, which again falls victim to the temptation for each modified agency to continue to function in the old way but under new headings, each with the support of its traditional constituency;
- to create a new agency, but if the number of new problems found to be serious each year is increasing this will lead to a proliferation of agencies, particularly if there is only an ineffective mechanism for dissolving them;
- to create a series of pools of competence which are relevant to the implementation of policy in a broad sense. These would be drawn upon on a temporary basis by project organizations such that people and resources move effectively backwards and forwards between their pools of competence and project organizations as they are created and dissolved for the life-cycle of a problem. This is in effect a description of one variety of the matrix organization described earlier.

It has the advantage that it permits loyalty to and identity with government at a very high level of aggregation or generality, i.e., not to a department but possibly to the national government per se. The movement of people in and out of specific projects helps to avoid over-identification with a given organization with all its consequences for the creation of organizational memorials to dead problems. This is a problem for the UN to consider.

The information system which Schon points out would be necessary to help identify the new problems and draw together the appropriate team makes this type of social organization

resemble the potential association described earlier. There is one important difference however. In this case the information system is still controlled from the centre. It is the centre which identifies which problems are critical and then decides which competence pools should be drawn upon. In the case of the potential association, no such centre exists.

Schon notes that the centre can disseminate policy in a number of ways :

- the policy may be promulgated;
 - the policy may take the form of a law that is enforced;
 - resources may be made available which encourage the actual implementation by agencies wishing to obtain funds;
 - government may formulate policy and invite participation — funding the regions or agencies which do and depriving those that do not.
- Schon noted that this is the principal method used in the U.S.A.

The weakness of the centre-periphery model as used by government and the United Nations is illustrated by Schon's example of a U.S. Federal Government programme to ensure the dissemination of the latest medical expertise to practising physicians in 55 regions, are :

- the actual goals of the regional agencies are in fact different from these of the central -agency and they therefore used the allocated funds in their own ways with some degree of conscious or unconscious subterfuge on the part of the regional agencies;
- it was discovered that the effects of large-scale medical insurance might not be to assure care but to increase medical cost;
- no region was found to be like any other region and it was difficult to modify the programme administration to handle each case on its own terms;
- each region had to be regarded as open-ended, namely there was no model of medical care that could be imposed and could last for any region.

There could therefore be no central policy.

« All one could say was that there were certain themes of policy — themes, for example, like the shortage of medical manpower. The generation of central policy had to be inductively derived from the regions, and regions became developers of variations upon policy themes. The centre couldn't therefore go out and evaluate what the regions were doing according to any central model. They could only press the regions to develop evaluation systems of their own which were appropriate to their own policies. The centre could pull the regions together in a kind of learning network so that they could learn from one another in their own efforts to carry out transformations of the system of medical care.

Now the regional medical programme — not as it was conceived but as it developed — has begun to be a learning system for government in the mode of implementing policy. It isn't in the centre-periphery model but looks more like the network model of the business-systems firm or the student movement. It stands in contra-distinction to the idea of government as an experimenter for the nation, of government as a trainer of the nation. It fits the notion of loss of the stable state. It fits the notion of change as the foreground condition against which governmental action must work. Where the public problem is new, there is no established policy solution or institution corresponding to it. The centre's role is to announce themes of policy to the periphery, to initiate facilitate and support learning efforts: the movement is then as much from periphery to periphery, from point to point on the periphery, as it is from centre to periphery. It is an inductive rather than a deductive process, and it is a process comparable, in its overall character, to the learning systems which we have seen in the evolution of business firms and of different systems for technological innovation. »

From this we see the need for the additional requirement that the regions be able to adapt central policy themes. Schon does not go so far as to describe a system which would :

- assist regions to detect problems to which they could respond by initiating policy which might later be generalized by the centre;
- assist bodies not previously within the system to signal problems to it and to facilitate any joint programme formulation and implementation.

1NGO Policies

This is an even looser concept which would permit many more organizations to be interrelated in society's response to problems whilst making maximum use of the fact that unknown and unrecognized bodies may in fact be more able to detect problems before they develop to unnecessarily critical proportions. It is this concept of an organization which is foreshadowed in the potential association which permits the creation of transient organizations (whether matrix organizations or not.) It is this sort of approach which can be used by international non-governmental organizations to relate themselves and their programme within a loose network of « INGO policies. » INGOs must be able to collaborate effectively with UN and UNDR programmes when they take on a matrix form as they are bound to do in order to master the multi-disciplinary and multi-agency problems. Hopefully the United Nations will develop its own approach to permit its agencies to relate through such an information system to the activities and problems of INGOs.

Whilst the United Nations should expect to be able to formulate central policy themes, the INGOs (as

secondary centres) should be able to develop detailed policies and introduce variations for their own sectors, just as the governments develop policy for their own countries. Once the United Nations or any other such centre (e.g., the OECD) can respond to peripherally developed policy variations, it will have Resumé français de l'article paru dans : of necessarily, out-of-date policy and will have adapted to the role of catalyzing the organizations in matrix » ET LES RESEAUX D'ORGANISATION

Schon summarizes his views as follows :

Les conceptions du management mises au point par la NASA (U.S.A.) permettent, et même exigent une grande flexibilité et une grande autonomie de la part des divers organismes (sociétés industrielles, agences gouvernementales, centres de recherches, facultés universitaires, associations professionnelles etc.) qui participent au programme. Ceci est essentiel au rassemblement des connaissances nécessaires pour réussir la tâche complexe de mettre un homme sur la lune. De telles conceptions créent une tension fructueuse entre la fragmentation résultant du besoin d'autonomie des organismes spécialisés et l'intégration nécessaire à tous les niveaux pour réussir l'exploit. L'image de ces relations est plus clairement donnée par un modèle de l'organisation basée sur celle du système solaire (Fig. 3) que par l'organigramme traditionnel (Fig. 2). Partant de ces idées, on peut envisager l'utilisation de ces nouvelles possibilités de relations entre organisations indépendantes pour mettre en évidence une solution aux

« The map of organizations or agencies that make up the society is, as it were, a sort of clear overlay against a page underneath it, which represents the

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reality of society. And the overlay is always out of phase in relation to what's underneath: at any given time there is always a mismatch between the organizational map and the reality of problems that people think are worth solving... There's basically no social problem such that one can identify and control within a single system all the elements required in order to attack the problem. The result is that one is thrown back on the knitting together of elements in networks which are not controlled and where the network functions and network roles become critical... That means that the inside of the system is a temporary system which is fluid and able to shift. Change becomes the foreground condition rather than the background condition...functional systems must be able to provide security for their members at the level of functional systems and not at the level of specific organizations within them... We have young radicals who would like to create community organizations which are separate economic, political and social units, and we have young people who would like to go off into the woods and form communes. All these efforts towards decen-

tralization are reactions against the repressive and dehumanizing character of central government and of central institutions. But this response is not an adequate one : the same technological changes that produced the loss of the stable state connect every piece of society to every other and no separate enclaves can survive. If decentralization is a response, it must be connected decentralization. »

NGOs, in particular, should not be deterred from looking at the current ideas emerging from business management research for clues to new methods of organizing their own activities. The fact that the business system's, the youth-peace-civil rights movement, and possibly even the Mafia, are all converging on the same flexible structure in response to similar problems clearly illustrates that it is the operating advantages of these new structures which should be considered and not the objectives for which they are used. Unfortunately many NGOs tend to imitate the UN's organizational structure, with its built-in inter-Agency coordination problems, rather than experiment with flexible evolving structures adapted to the new understanding of problem complexity and the need for organizational networks.

The solution to the problem of inter-organizational relationships lies not in a monolithic centralized organization of coordination but in an adequate world-wide information system in which all can participate freely to determine with which groups and problems they should temporarily concern themselves — namely a network of social activity coordinated by information and not by organization.

problèmes de relations entre les grands groupes d'organisations (Fig. 4), entre les groupements gouvernementaux (Fig. 5), et finalement entre les organisations internationales non-gouvernementales elles-mêmes (Fig. 6). Le modèle « solaire » de la NASA s'appuie sur les relations — multiples et multilatérales entre organisations illustrées par les forces de gravité entre les corps célestes en mouvement continu dans un tel système dynamique. Par contre, la tradition bureaucratique et étatique est basée sur des relations unilatérales, et ainsi beaucoup moins complexes, illustrées par la diffusion de la lumière à partir du centre d'un tel modèle solaire — un modèle qui reprend ainsi les caractéristiques de l'organigramme traditionnel. Un résumé d'une analyse des limitations de ce dernier modèle fait par Donald Schon montre clairement la direction de l'évolution des systèmes d'organisation vers une conception basée sur des réseaux d'organisations interdépendantes sans centre principal bien défini.

LES FORCES TRANSNATIONALES

Si les Etats demeurent les principaux acteurs du jeu international, il existe d'autres forces et d'autres courants qui ne dépendent pas d'eux et qui les dépassent. La solidarité nationale peut en effet être concurrencée ou supplantée par d'autres formes de solidarité qui s'exercent par-dessus les frontières. Il peut s'agir de solidarités politiques (les internationales de partis), professionnelles (les internationales syndicales), confessionnelles (les Eglises), scientifiques ou humanitaires (les innombrables associations créées dans ce but), etc. Toute activité sociale et toute démarche intellectuelle ou spirituelle peuvent avoir leur prolongement au-delà des frontières et susciter la formation de groupements privés qui pourront exercer une certaine influence sur le comportement des responsables de la politique extérieure. C'est exclusivement sous cet angle que le problème sera envisagé ici.

L'importance du rôle joué par ces organisations dépend essentiellement de deux séries de facteurs. Le premier a trait au statut juridique de ce genre de groupements. On sait que les Etats disposent sinon d'un monopole absolu, au moins d'un privilège en ce qui concerne l'exercice de la compétence internationale. Les autres sujets de droit ne peuvent disposer que d'une compétence spéciale, dans les limites fixées par les Etats eux-mêmes; c'est la solution qui prévaut (cf. première partie) pour le statut des organisations internationales fondées par les Etats. Or le droit en vigueur ne comporte aucune disposition générale qui permette aux diverses catégories d'organisations non gouvernementales de jouir de la personnalité juridique et de la capacité internationale.

Les rares exceptions ne font que confirmer la règle : si l'Eglise catholique apparaît comme une institution internationale, c'est parce que, à la différence des autres confessions religieuses, elle a été recon-

Le professeur Marcel Merle de la Faculté de Paris a mis à jour une nouvelle et troisième édition de son ouvrage paru en 1963 « La Vie internationale ». Le remaniement apparaît surtout au chapitre que l'auteur intitule avec bonheur « Les forces transnationales ».

Nous en extrayons les passages suivants :

nue comme telle par un certain nombre d'Etats. La solution adoptée par les accords du Latran (1929) présente d'ailleurs cette particularité d'offrir à l'Eglise catholique les attributs, au moins symboliques, d'un Etat traditionnel : un territoire (la Cité du Vatican), un gouvernement indépendant et souverain (le Saint-Siège) et une population (constituée par « les personnes ayant une résidence stable dans la Cité du Vatican »). C'est en s'appuyant sur ces caractéristiques, empruntées pour les besoins de la cause au statut des Etats, que le Saint-Siège peut exercer les compétences d'une puissance souveraine : droit de traiter (les Concordats), droit de légation actif (les nonces apostoliques) et passif, et, par extension, accès aux organisations internationales. Mais il est évident que les accords du Latran, conclus entre le Pape et l'Italie, seraient vidés, de toute signification si les autres Etats refusaient d'entretenir des relations diplomatiques avec le Saint-Siège, de conclure des traités avec lui ou de l'admettre dans les organisations internationales. Cela confirme la spécificité d'une situation qui dépend, dans son principe comme dans ses applications, de l'accord des autres Etats. L'autre exception notoire est celle de la Croix-Rouge, institution privée fondée en 1863 par un citoyen suisse, Henri Dunant, pour venir en aide aux blessés, puis, par extension aux prisonniers et aux victimes de la guerre. Cette institution exerce effectivement des fonctions internationales délicates et du plus haut intérêt en cas de conflit. Mais cela ne peut intervenir que dans la limite des pouvoirs qui lui ont été accordés par les Etats dans le cadre des conventions internationales en vigueur. La capacité d'agir, attribué au Comité international de la Croix-Rouge et à ses filiales nationales, est directement fonction de l'accord préalable entre les Etats.

On peut évidemment imaginer que de nouveaux accords reconnaissent l'existence de telle ou telle institution privée et lui confèrent le droit d'exercer des fonctions déterminées. Mais cela ne résoudrait pas le problème d'ensemble posé par l'existence des organisations non gouvernementales. Aussi longtemps que les Etats n'auront pas convenu d'élaborer un statut à leur usage, ces organisations n'auront, dans la société internationale, qu'une existence de fait. C'est pourquoi, faute de pouvoir obtenir une personnalité internationale et une capacité appropriée à leur vocation, ces organisations sont obligées d'emprunter au droit national les éléments indispensables à l'exercice de leurs activités : elles n'ont d'autre ressource que de fixer leur siège sur le territoire de l'un des Etats et de solliciter, l'octroi du statut que cet Etat accorde aux personnes morales de droit privé (loi sur les associations ou sur les sociétés commerciales), sans pouvoir bénéficier d'un régime particulier, sauf en Belgique où une législation spéciale a été édictée en leur faveur. Qu'un organisme privé international ne puisse avoir d'existence légale qu'à travers les formes et les règles du droit national constitue une anomalie, mais confirme bien la situation de monopole dont les Etats bénéficient dans l'aménagement des rapports juridiques internationaux.

Il convient cependant d'introduire ici une distinction importante : certains de ces groupements (ceux qui poursuivent des objectifs non lucratifs comme les syndicats ou les diverses associations) bénéficient, depuis la seconde guerre mondiale, d'un statut consultatif auprès des grandes organisations intergouvernementales, universelles ou régionales. A défaut d'un régime juridique approprié, ces groupements voient au moins reconnaître leur existence et peuvent exercer leur influence officiellement. On peut donc suivre le développement de leurs activités et mesurer, d'une façon assez précise, l'efficacité de leurs interventions sur la scène

internationale. Les organismes à but lucratif (essentiellement les sociétés commerciales) demeurent, par contre, officiellement ignorés. Leur identification et l'observation de leur conduite sont donc beaucoup plus difficiles à effectuer. Le silence et l'obscurité qui les entourent prêtent naturellement aux accusations les plus graves (le complot des trusts, l'internationale des marchands de canons etc.) qu'il est aussi difficile de démontrer que de réfuter. La différence de statut juridique n'implique pas forcément une hiérarchie d'influences; mais elle affecte sérieusement les conditions dans lesquelles cette influence peut être appréciée et évaluée.

Le second facteur qu'il faut prendre en considération tient à la nature des groupes en question. Aux yeux d'une grande partie de l'opinion, toute initiative privée dans les affaires internationales se trouve entourée d'une sorte de défiance instinctive. La seule existence d'un groupe ne permet cependant pas de conclure à l'efficacité et encore moins à la nocivité de son action. Certains groupements privés ne sont que le paravent d'entreprises gouvernementales. La puissance des autres dépend de nombreuses conditions : nombre mais aussi cohésion des adhérents; rigidité ou souplesse de l'organisation interne. Enfin, il ne faut jamais oublier que les forces transnationales sont rarement en mesure, par suite de la structure actuelle de la société internationale, d'exercer directement leur action au plan des relations internationales; elles se trouvent le plus souvent obligées d'agir en faisant pression sur les détenteurs du pouvoir de décision, c'est-à-dire sur les dirigeants des Etats. C'est pourquoi le rendement de leurs démarches demeure subordonné, dans la plupart des cas, au dynamisme et à la docilité de leurs sections nationales. L'affrontement des idéologies ou des intérêts, qui peuvent naître des initiatives privées, passe encore par l'intermédiaire des Etats.

THE FUNCTIONS AND FORMS OF INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES OF PSYCHOLOGY ⁽¹⁾

Harold P. Van Cott

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Since the first international scientific congress held in 168V the congress has become a major medium of scientific information exchange. As a part of the total system of scientific communication, the international congress is one of the first of a series of filters through which acts of communication pass into the archival record of science. At this filter point ideas and findings are evaluated, modified and sometimes discarded. The congress is also an important part of the social system of science, for it is a point at which the contacts that occur and the ideas that are exchanged transcend national, cultural and language barriers. International congresses directly relevant to psychology have been held since 1889.³ At least ten major psychology congresses were held in 1969 alone. These congresses are large, frequently involving hundreds of participants, and they appear to be increasing in size and number. As a result, they exert increasing demands on scientists not only to attend them but also to organize and finance them, and even to justify their value. (Garvey 1968).

One of the most important psychological congresses is the International Congress of Psychology. Its importance derives from its size, its distinguished history, and the role it plays in the international exchange of information on psychology as a science, as distinct from psychology as a technology or profession.

The Functions of an International Scientific Congress.

Although a congress serves many purposes, from an escape from routine to the chance to claim priority of

discovery, there is general agreement on the main objectives (Garvey 1968; Noyes 1968; et al) ;

1. The exchange of information - about research in progress, completed research, plans for research, and unpublished research techniques.
2. The formulation of agreements - on symbols, units nomenclature, and other standards.
3. The provision of an organizational framework for international scientific cooperation.
4. The establishment of personal contacts - as a basis for subsequent exchanges, as a means of identifying active scientists in one's own field, and for comparing the approach and quality of one's research with that of other countries.
5. The reduction of the technological gap between countries - by making research in scientifically advanced countries available through the international community.
6. The continuing education - of the increasingly narrow and specialized scientist who has difficulty in maintaining a current awareness of general developments in his discipline.

Of these objectives, there is agreement that the most important is the exchange and filtering process and the accompanying confirmation of information about research that is currently in progress - research at the leading or cutting edge of science.

What We Know About the International Congress of Psychology.

In a noteworthy study of information exchange at the 1966 International Congress of Psychology, Garvey (1968) uncovered a wealth of data that dispels popular myths about congresses and identifies areas in which the congress can be improved in the future. Garvey found, for example, that while most authors do report at a congress, work that has previously been reported, less than a third of the attendants are aware of this information. In that sense, reported work is new work. He found that many participants

(1) Presentation made to the Executive Committee of the International Union of Psychological Sciences, October 15, 1970; Washington, D.C. Director, Office of Communication Management and Development, American Psychological Association.

(2) International Medical Congress, Rome.

(3) International Congress of Physiological Psychology, Paris.

indicated that they had made important contacts which had helped in their work, and that they planned to follow-up on the contacts through correspondence and travel.

In asking for comments and suggestions on the congress, Garvey found that a desire for better methods of distributing copies of presentations was frequently cited. The need for more time for discussion was stressed by a third of the respondents. Half of the participants felt that the general congress format and organization should be changed, and a variety of suggestions were given. Among other frequently made suggestions were the need for small meetings of persons working in specific areas, and the very great importance of increasing opportunities for informal communication. Suggestions of this kind are not unique to the 1966 congress or to psychology congresses. They occur repeatedly in the literature on congresses and were stated many times in the interviews the author had with psychologists and congress organizers. Thus, there does appear to be some basis for perceiving the needs and desires of the participants of a congress as well as observing their information exchanging behavior.

What We Don't Know About Congresses

While there is ample evidence that scientists are spending more time in informal communication, bypassing increasingly the massive and often impenetrable written record, we know nothing about the effectiveness of formal and informal oral meetings. There is no accepted measure of the effect on research quality or productivity of any communication technique, oral or written.

Since informal communication normally precedes publication, we should also know how efficiently oral information is transformed into the documents that become part of the scientific record. We do not. In fact, there is no general agreement on the value or ethics of publishing the proceedings of a convention or congress, or even separate publication of a paper given at a congress.

The largest gap in our knowledge is our lack of understanding of the conditions under which acts of oral communication lead to acts of creativity. Thus, although we might manipulate the mechanical arrangements under which communication occurs, until we better understand the creative process, we cannot fully exploit the potential of the congress as a medium of information exchange (Orr, et al, 1964).

Factors Affecting the Quality of an International Congress,

Since time precluded an examination of the innumerable factors that affect the quality of a scientific congress, only a few of the most important and the seemingly most tractable are discussed here. They

are : (a) program format, structure and content, (b) selection and scheduling of presentations, (c) session chairmen and speakers, (d) discussion and informal contacts, and (e) language.

Program Format, Structure and Content. While the traditional congress format has imitated the lecture approach of many universities, it has obvious limitations both as a medium of instruction and as a stimulus to group discussion. Within the last 20 years there has been a trend away from the lecture and toward the use of a variety of other formats : the symposium, seminar, workshop, and leaderless discussion group. We recommend that this trend be encouraged and accelerated, and that a variety of new formats be tried out at future meetings with particular emphasis on formats that permit and stimulate the widest possible group participation and discussion. Several special formats appear to merit specific mention. The first, the discussion model, requires that papers be distributed to attendants from 2 to 3 weeks in advance of a congress. The author, rather than reading his entire paper, gives a summary, and the remaining period is used for discussion. This technique has been acclaimed a success whenever it has been used, and despite the problems of acquiring, translating and distributing papers in advance of the congress, we recommend its use be encouraged.

Another format worthy of attention is the action-oriented session. Most scientific meetings are designed to facilitate the exchange of information, but the process is usually a passive one - the pouring of information by a speaker into the heads of an audience. However, another function of the congress is to foster international cooperation, and this objective provides a rationale for the action-oriented group. In the opinion of several of our interviewees, cooperation is enhanced when participants at a meeting must work together to achieve a common goal or objective, such as the solution of a mutual problem : for example, the adoption of a standard. The fact of attempting to achieve a solution, rather than its attainment, is beneficial in stimulating information exchange as well. We recommend that one or two problem- or action-oriented sessions, small in size, and diverse with respect to participants, be considered for future programs, and we would propose that the Executive Committee select the problem topics.

With respect to program content, we recommend the exploration of a variety of formats and media.

Interviewees, both congress organizers and psychologists, suggested that one of the most valuable contributions of an international congress was the exchange of information about the research in rapidly developing areas. Therefore, we recommend that several sessions be devoted to review papers. These papers may be of two types : highly specialized papers for specialists in a particular area and more general,

broad and « vulgarized » review papers for the psychologist interested in becoming aware of current activity outside of his own specialty. There is ample evidence that it is difficult to impose a rigid or detailed structure on a congress, for like other social institutions a congress has its own subculture and ethic. Different persons, from different cultural backgrounds, respond differently to the same format or subject matter presentation. Therefore, we recommend as a general principle that the congress program provide a variety of choices of topic and program format to the author and the attendant. You may recall the cafeteria feeding studies done with young animals in the 20's. These studies demonstrated that given a variety of nutrient substances, animals chose diets that equal or surpass the best man-made diets. We believe the analogy may apply to the congress, and that a potential speaker and the participant, by the choices they make, can provide useful information for structuring future congresses. Therefore, we propose that an attempt be made to record session attendance and attendant reactions at the next congress in order to provide data for the evaluation of the various formats employed at that congress.

One of the most frequently cited problems regarding national and international congresses is the lack of opportunity for discussion following formal presentations. Session times are often short and speakers often stray beyond their allotted time. While an effective session chairman can sometimes limit a speaker to a given time period, this can be awkward and embarrassing.

To insure ample time for discussion, we recommend a proposal suggested by Professor Fraisse, Professor Nuttin, and several congress organizers. Formal sessions, either symposia or free and invited papers, are scheduled in the morning. The sessions may vary in length from 1 to 2 hours depending on the format used. The allotted time period is used for the presentation of material by speakers. During the presentations attendants are invited to submit written questions for a later discussion period and are invited to return after coffee or lunch for that purpose. The participants and audience then break and meet together informally for the lunch or coffee break. They reconvene as a discussion group. This controlled, pre-programmed separation of presentation from discussion insures ample time for each. The chairman of the presentation session is the chairman of the corresponding discussion session. We believe that this technique would be most effective if the two parts are separated by lunch, during which time the participants can become more familiar with one another and can select from among the questions submitted in the morning those to be discussed later. We further suggest that discussion following lunch is a more

likely deterrent to the soporific effects of food than the equally soporific effects of a dull speaker.

Selection and Scheduling of Presentations.

No factor is as important in determining the quality of a congress as the quality of the papers and the manner of their delivery. Being sensitive to this factor, there is a normal tendency for congress program committees to select papers on the basis of the author's name and reputation as a scientist and speaker. While this is a relatively safe procedure in assuring quality, it tends to recycle the same faces and material from congress to congress and denies opportunities for participation by younger psychologists and those working in newly established areas. In order to overcome the bias of selecting papers submitted by well-known authors, one international medical congress organized by the Holland Organizing Center used an anonymous selection procedure. Papers were invited from anyone in the discipline, thus insuring a large and representative input. When a paper arrived for evaluation, it was assigned a code number, and the author's name and all other identifying information was removed. Papers were then classified into subject categories and presented to panels of subject-matter experts for evaluation according to a series of weighted rating scales. In this manner a figure of merit was assigned to each paper within each category. Judgments were then pooled and final selections were made.

While this method does add objectivity to the selection process, it is complex and does not insure that there will be a balanced distribution of papers by country or that the papers selected will be well presented. Despite these disadvantages, we suggest that the method be adopted on a limited scale for free papers of from 15 to 20 minutes in length. We further recommend that the same panels, chosen to obtain a representative array of international interests, be used to select the subject categories and subdivisions within which papers will be invited. We wish to place particular emphasis on the recommendation, stemming from Garvey's research (1968) on the 1966 international congress, that distribution of a program of the meeting with abstracts of all papers be made well in advance of the meeting, and that from 2 to 3 weeks before a meeting participants who have requested a paper in selected areas be sent the full paper. While this program calls for the exertion of considerable planning and effort by congress organizers, we believe that it can lead to a greatly improved congress.

It is standard practice to program the routine meetings and plenary sessions early in a congress, permitting the participants to adjust to their new environment and time schedule, and gradually build up the intensity and pace of the program as the week

progresses. We recommend that this practice be continued. We also recommend that early in the congress week opportunities be provided for two types of informal contacts at receptions or similar social occasions. The first, comprising all attendants, would provide an opportunity for attendants to meet the congress organizers. The second would permit individuals within a given specialty area to meet with persons from other countries working in the same area.

Session Chairmen and Speakers.

The importance of the chairman is often overlooked in organizing a congress: yet, an effective chairman can be the key to a successful session. It is recommended that an attempt be made to assemble all session chairmen early in the congress for the purpose of recommending and discussing procedures for running sessions. It is further suggested that chairmen be encouraged to meet in advance with the speakers on the session for which they are responsible.

This meeting might be held at breakfast of the day on which the session is scheduled. Here, the chairmen would discuss the use of audio-visual aids, and how to work with translators. He would request that each speaker spend 5 minutes before his presentation describing his special interests and research plans. This procedure, widely used by some engineering societies, is particularly effective in producing a more coherent, better integrated symposium.

Nothing is as deadly as the speaker who reads his paper. While there is universal agreement on this fact, the practice continues, much to the detriment of information exchange and audience morale. There are of course several good reasons why papers are read. It does appear to ease the task of simultaneous translation if the speaker keeps to his text. It is a comfort to the novice speaker stage-struck with his first international debut. Despite these reasons, we urge that the call for papers encourage speakers to refrain from the monotonous reading of pre-prepared text, and we believe that the prior distribution of papers will tend to discourage this trend, for sessions will emphasize discussion rather than presentation. Unless a specially equipped congress facility is available, poor audiovisual equipment or aids can mar an otherwise effective presentation. Tables that are densely packed with data, slides with poor contrast, characters that are too small to be legible, are frequent problems. Considering the high probability that either equipment or aids will be ineffective, we recommend that congress speakers be encouraged to prepare their own visual aids in the form of reproducible hand-outs. Thus, the speaker would prepare his tables, graphs, and other pictorial material as a part of his paper, bring the masters of these to the congress for reproduction and distribution, or have them

reproduced in quantity himself before attending the congress.

Discussion and Informal Contacts.

Of all the factors affecting congress quality, none is more important to participants and attendants than providing increased opportunities for discussion and for informal contact. And while there is recognition of this need, and data to support it, much can still be done to encourage and facilitate more and better discussion and more frequent and less awkward informal contacts.

We have already suggested methods for improving discussion: the use of pre-prepared questions and the separation of the discussion of a paper from its presentation. In addition, we recommend that pre-prepared critiques of selected papers be solicited in advance of a congress and incorporated into a discussion session. Thus, one or two persons would be invited to prepare a critique of a paper, which they would receive in advance, and to present the critique as an opening for the discussion period. The critique could be returned to the author before the meeting so that he could prepare a rebuttal. We believe this would be a stimulus to the careful preparation of papers as well as to wider, more accelerated audience participation during the discussion session.

At previous congresses opportunities for informal contact and exchange at social hours, coffee breaks, and special discussion lounges have been tried out. We recommend that these informal events be encouraged and expanded at future congresses. We recommend that, whenever possible, congress attendants be housed by their area of interest and specialization, and that special rooms or lounges be designated at the congress quarters where individuals with common interests can gather and meet with one another.

For stimulating the accidental but highly productive contacts that occur at a congress, we suggest the use of a coded name badge. This technique, first tried out by the Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology, has been widely adopted because of its effectiveness. Each attendee is provided with a name badge containing color codes that designate one or more languages in which he has conversational proficiency and a numerical or symbolic code indicating his area of interest. The codes are printed in the congress program. Thus, an individual seeing the badges of others can identify individuals with a common interest and a common language. We might also mention that one congress used an embosser to create a badge with the above characteristics plus an embossed name and address. The badge not only identified its wearer but could be

inserted into a standard paper stamping machine (of the type used with credit cards) to create an up-to-date address list of congress registrants, an address label for exchange with other attendants, and to register for literature at the congress exhibit area. Opportunities for informal contact also facilitated by a centrally located, highly visible message center, a complete and up to date list of congress attendants, and a team of roving interpreters. The interpreters with color coded hat bands at the London Congress provided an effective mechanism for meeting with other psychologists, and we recommend the continuation of this practice.

Language.

Allowing for the great difficulties and considerable cost of simultaneous translation as well as for the everlasting difficulty of finding interpreters and translators with adequate scientific knowledge, we propose that simultaneous translation be either abandoned or supplemented with the projection, during formal sessions, of manuscript texts in different languages (Morf, 1961). Second, we propose that where translation does appear necessary or desirable conference participants be invited to participate. This works reasonably well in small meetings of an informal nature where the burden on the volunteer is not great.

Conclusions.

Our recommendations for improving the quality and program of an international congress can be summarized as follows :

1. Recognition of the important role of discussion and informal contact and in planning for these activities.
2. The adoption of a variety of program formats, providing a choice to participants of content and structure from which data can be obtained for future planning.
3. The distribution of programs with abstracts and the distribution upon request of complete papers prior to the congress.
4. The careful selection of papers to insure quality and representativeness.
5. The choice of chairmen and speakers based on their qualifications to stimulate and guide discussion.

We recommend that the Executive Committee, in consideration of the size of the International Congress, discuss ways in which the impact of size might be reduced, for as size increases, the opportunities for stimulating informal contact diminish. Finally, we recommend that an attempt be made to continue and expand the solicitation of comments and suggestions on the congress after each congress is held.

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OPERATION : MAN TO MANKIND

— 4th Annual Conference on General Systems Education,

The Center for Interdisciplinary Creativity (directed by Professor Jere W. Clark who is Systems Education Editor for International Associations) is organizing the 4th Conference on General Systems Education (Hartford-Windsor, Connecticut, USA, April 29-30th 1971). The conference is co-sponsored by the Union of International Associations and the Task Force on Systems Education of the Society for General Systems Research. Key speakers include : Glenn Seaborg of the US Atomic Energy Commission), Elwood Murray (Chairman Emeritus of the Institute for General Semantics), Sidney Parnes (President of the Creative Education Foundation), Julius Stulman (President of the World Institute Council), and Bertrand Chatel (Chief of the Science Applications Section of the UNOffice of Science and Technology). The conference is funded by the Calvin K Kazanjian Economics Foundation.

Conference Keynotes.

The next thirty-odd years will see us engaged in what may be the most crucial struggle of mankind's existence — the struggle to prove that one « mankind », as a physical entity and not just as a glorious idea, can be created and survive. In this sense I am talking about mankind as a global civilization — men and nations not only coexisting with each other and nature but essentially living and acting as an organic whole. This is more than a Utopian dream. It is the new imperative — the goal toward which we must all move. Though they may each phrase it somewhat differently, this seems to be the consensus of most of the thoughtful philosophers, scientists and educators speaking, writing and thinking today. And there seem to be few if any viable alternatives to moving in this direction.

(Glenn T. Seaborg, « Mankind as a Global Civilization », The United Church of Christ JOURNAL, May, 1968). *Mankind itself must become part of the system. What is needed is a methodology of integrated thought and action in which there is a continuing feedback and flow forward to deal with changes at all levels.* (Julius Stulman, Fields Within Fields... Within Fields, Vol. 3, N° 2, 1970).

// there is any way of adjusting to change, it must include... the development of a metalanguage and « metaskills » for dealing with continuity in change. (Toward a Theory of Instruction, Harvard University Press, 1966).

If self-centered, provincial man is to become the organic, global mankind required for survival in a technetronic world, he is obviously going to have to hurdle many formidable barriers in short order. While the political and technological barriers to global democracy are getting most of the attention of researchers and planners, the main barriers are those residing in the mind

of man. These mental barriers are : (1) fragmented patterns of knowledge about the world in which he lives; (2) limited perspectives concerning his place and potential in that world; and (3) rigid attitudes toward change and toward his fellowman. Without solving to a certain degree these conceptual and attitudinal barriers, the political and technological solutions tend to be both impossible and meaningless.

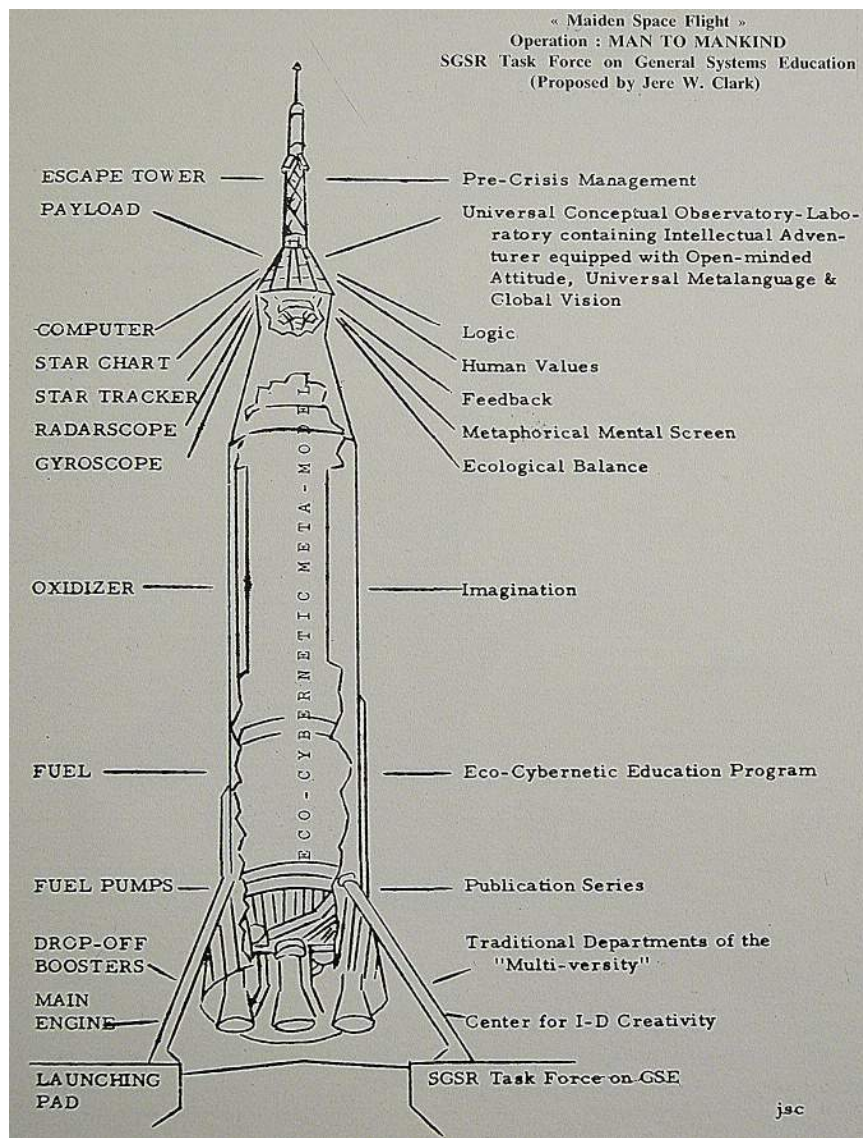
In an effort to crystallize interest in these conceptual and attitudinal barriers, and in order to identify and nurture the embryo of a blueprint for hurdling them, this international conference is being held.

Considerable progress has been made in recent experimental efforts to apply various of systems planning to complex social problems. Yet one key lesson has come from that experimentation. That is that unless the average citizen is personally involved in the process of designing the solutions — regardless of how « brilliant » these solutions may appear to be — these proposals will not be likely to work.

Furthermore, because most of the experience with modern forms of systems planning has been limited largely to the work of a relatively few technically oriented persons, this general approach is thought to be too complex, abstract, and technical for the average person. Hence, most of the research and planning for the historical march of self-centered, provincial man toward organic, global democracy has been limited largely to the intellectual elite.

It will be suggested that the metalanguage is a key to quantum leaps in simplifying, vitalizing, and dramatizing curriculum patterns. These innovations in education in turn will be portrayed as possible means of changing the attitudes and perspectives of not only technical and professional persons,, but also laymen throughout the world.

As a result of the type of educational and scientific innovations sketched above, we may be approaching the threshold of the greatest advance toward the « democratization » of science since the concept of the free public school. The new developments in the fields of practical creativity and common-sense systems education are ready to be combined on a large scale, within the next few years, to help millions of culturally-deprived children and adults by-pass the traditional educational programs and move right into the educational opportunities afforded by the educational systems of the space age. These developments should help people generally to become masters — rather than victims — of the emerging technological systems which are shaping our society. (The Journal of Creative Behavior, Fall, 1969).



News from International Associations

A l'écoute des associations internationales

Au cours de ces dernières années, le monde international des affaires a été, le témoin de l'apparition d'une nouvelle sorte d'entreprise que l'on pourrait appeler société multinationale d'investissement. Ces sociétés groupent un grand nombre d'entreprises qui s'associent entre elles pour opérer des investissements dans les pays en voie de développement. Elles comprennent notamment la PICA pour l'Asie (cf. Informations nos. 3-4, 1969), l'ADELA pour l'Amérique latine (Atlantic Community Development Group for Latin America) et, enfin, un groupe semblable pour l'Afrique. Chacune de ces sociétés est financée par un large éventail d'institutions manufacturières ou bancaires parmi les plus importantes du monde, qui constituent les actionnaires. De grandes compagnies de l'industrie alimentaire (Unilever, Nestlé, Nabisco, etc.) soutiennent, parmi d'autres, la PICA et l'ADELA, qui elles-mêmes ont des investissements dans des entreprises de l'alimentation et des branches connexes.

La société multinationale LAAD (Latin American Agribusiness Development Corporation) s'occupe plus particulièrement de l'industrie alimentaire en Amérique latine. Elle a été constituée, selon les termes employés par le conseil d'administration, pour accroître la production alimentaire, ainsi que le revenu agricole, grâce à l'investissement profitable de capitaux dans les entreprises existantes, ainsi que dans les nouvelles entreprises. La LAAD investira dans des entreprises qui produisent, transforment, transportent, distribuent et commercialisent les produits agricoles. L'ADELA même est un des actionnaires. Tous les autres actionnaires sont des compagnies des Etats-Unis qui ont des intérêts à l'étranger, notamment la Castle & Cooke (Asie orientale), Ralston Purina (mondiale), Gerber (Canada, Amérique latine), Borden (produits laitiers, mondiale), Cargill (mondiale, céréales) et la CPC International (auparavant produits du blé, mondiale). Parmi les actionnaires se trouvent également les entreprises de machines agricoles, telles que la Caterpillar et la Deere, les maisons de produits chimiques, Monsanto et Dow, enfin la Banque d'Amérique.

L'on tend vers des sociétés d'investissement encore plus puissantes. En effet, il a été suggéré aux Etats-Unis de créer une compagnie d'investissements privés pour les pays d'outre-mer (OPIC) qui serait établie par le gouvernement et s'occuperait de canaliser le capital privé des Etats-Unis vers les pays en voie de développement. L'OPIC remplacerait l'actuelle section de l'entreprise privée de l'Agence pour le développement international (AID), qui a pour but de coordonner les investissements des Etats-Unis dans les pays en voie de développement. Le développement des sociétés multinationales d'investissement représente un grand pas en avant pour les compagnies géantes qui cherchent à s'étendre dans de nouvelles régions. Des associations telles que la PICA, l'ADELA ou la LAAD, sont si puissantes que leur capitaux sont aisément supérieurs à ceux des pays dans lesquels elles décident d'investir. La collaboration de la classe possédante des pays en voie de développement leur est assurée grâce à leur politique qui consiste à attirer les capitaux locaux.

Le caractère à la fois multinational et régional de ces sociétés tend, d'une part, à les rendre moins vulnérables au nationalisme, qui risquerait de pousser les gouvernements locaux à opérer des nationalisations et, d'autre part, à accroître l'esprit de concurrence entre les différents pays qui cherchent à attirer les investissements. Par ailleurs, le fait qu'elles soient la propriété d'un grand nombre d'entreprises, rend la tâche encore plus difficile pour les travailleurs dans leurs revendications auprès de la direction. Quant à l'OPIC, si toutefois elle est créée, elle montrera très clairement le lien qui existe déjà entre l'investissement privé et l'aide étrangère. Cependant, vu qu'en apparence elle créerait une société multinationale, elle aurait un net avantage sur des associations semblables qui seraient réalisées par une compagnie ou un pays particulier. En effet, elle persuaderait plus aisément les pays en voie de développement que des investissements privés étrangers accrus sont dans leur intérêt.

(UITA Informations)

*

The International Business world has, in recent years, witnessed the emergence of a new enterprise which can be called the multinational investment Company. Consisting of ventures in which a large number of firms join to make investments into developing countries, these companies include PICA (News Bulletin 3-4, 1969) in Asia, ADELA (Atlantic Community Development Group for Latin America) and a similar one directed toward Africa. Each is financed by a wide sample of the world's prominent manufacturing and banking institutions, who are its stockholders. Major food companies (Unilever, Nestle, Nabisco, etc.) are among the backers of PICA and ADELA, whose own investments include enterprises in the food and related industries.

More specifically directed toward the food industry is the multi-company LAAD (Latin American Agribusiness Development Corporation), formed, according to its board of directors, to increase food production and rural income by the profitable application of investment capital in new and existing enterprises. LAAD will invest in firms that produce, process, transport, distribute and market agricultural products. One of its shareholders is ADELA itself. All others are US firms with interests abroad. They include Castle and Cooke (Eastern Asia), Ralston Purina (World-wide), Gerber (Canada, Latin America), Borden (world-wide dairy), Cargill (world-wide grain) and CPC International (formerly Corn Products, world-wide). Other stockholders are the agricultural engineering firms Caterpillar and Deere, the chemical firms Monsanto and Dow and the Bank of America.

That the trend is toward even more powerful investment firms is shown by the proposal in the United States to create a publicity funder Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC) which would be charged with the channeling of private US capital toward developing countries. OPIC would replace what is now known as the

Private Enterprise Section of the Agency for International Development (AID), which seeks to coordinate US investment in developing countries.

The development of multinational investment companies is a significant step for the giant corporations that are trying to expand into new regions. Alliances that make up the likes of PICA, ADELA or LAAD are so powerful that they easily overwhelm with their wealth any single country in which they decide to invest. The companies' policy of involving local capital in their ventures insures them of the collaboration of the moneyed elite in developing countries. Their multinational and regional aspect tends to minimize nationalism, an insurance against takeovers by local governments, while at the same time increasing the competition among countries to attract the investments. Finally, by being owned by a large number of firms, they make it even more difficult than usual for the workers to confront management with their demands.

As for OPIC, should it ever come into being, it would make crystal clear the connection which already exists would create a seemingly multinational firm, however, it between private business and foreign aid. Because it would have a considerable advantage over similar ventures being undertaken by single companies or countries in persuading developing countries that increased private foreign investment is in their interest.

(IUF News Bulletin)

La 8e Conférence internationale des services de signalisation maritime tenue à Stockholm — et à laquelle était

jointe l'exposition « Pharos 70 » — a confié à M. L. Hallengren, de Suède, la présidence de l'Association internationale de signalisation maritime. Celui-ci a fait la déclaration suivante :

« Depuis sa constitution, en 1957, le nombre de pays représentés au Comité Exécutif de l'AIISM est passé de quatre à huit. Ainsi ce Comité est maintenant deux fois plus international qu'à ses débuts. Au bout de cette même période de treize années le nombre des membres atteint maintenant 40 membres « A », 27 membres « B », 17 membres associés et 56 membres industriels. C'est un nombre très satisfaisant pour une association prospère. Je suis parfaitement conscient de l'honneur qui m'est fait d'être Président de cette organisation vraiment internationale. J'ai l'intention, au cours des cinq années à venir, d'essayer de consolider le travail fait par mes distingués prédécesseurs et par mes collègues du Comité Exécutif en faisant tout ce que je pourrai pour encourager les perspectives internationales de notre Association et pour chercher à faire reconnaître notre travail par les autres organisations internationales. Il est indubitable que les Services membres de notre Association, dont certains ont déjà de longues années d'existence, ont accumulé des connaissances techniques et une expérience absolument sans égales.

Notre Association doit être prête à faire bénéficier de ces connaissances toutes les autres organisations s'occupant de la sécurité en mer, qu'elles soient nationales, internationales ou intergouvernementales, et jouer pleinement son rôle dans le domaine de la Signalisation Maritime. »

(Bulletin de l'AIISM)

Avec 50 % de réduction désormais les épouses de vos congressistes seront du voyage. Les congressistes pourront profiter de la traversée pour faire un voyage à deux, car la TRANSAT fait une proposition : elle accorde 50 % de réduction aux épouses des congressistes qui empruntent le paquebot "FRANCE" pour se rendre avec leur mari à un congrès international. Renseignez-vous auprès de votre Agent de voyages ou à la Compagnie Générale Transatlantique. 	Now the wives of your convention delegates can travel with their husbands at a 50 % reduction. Executives can now get a bargain when they take their wives with them on business trips, for the French Line has a proposition : they give a 50% reduction to wives to accompany their executive husbands travelling on the/s FRANCE to international conferences. Ask for details at your travel agent or the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique French Line. 
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Melbourne

The Dallas Brooks Hall, newest congress centre of Melbourne, was completed in 1969. The building offers the finest possible facilities for conventions, as well as for smaller meetings.

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within 400 yards.

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The entire building is completely air-conditioned.

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As of January 1st 1971 the reduced fares for wives of convention delegates (50 %), granted by the Atlantic Passenger Steamship Conference are applicable. Details are available from the office of the Secretary General, Folkstone, Kent, U.K.

Bruxelles

Le Belgian Organizing Centre, s'étant assuré le concours de nouveaux actionnaires, a décidé de modifier sa dénomination, laquelle est devenue : International Convention Bureau, Belgium, s.a.

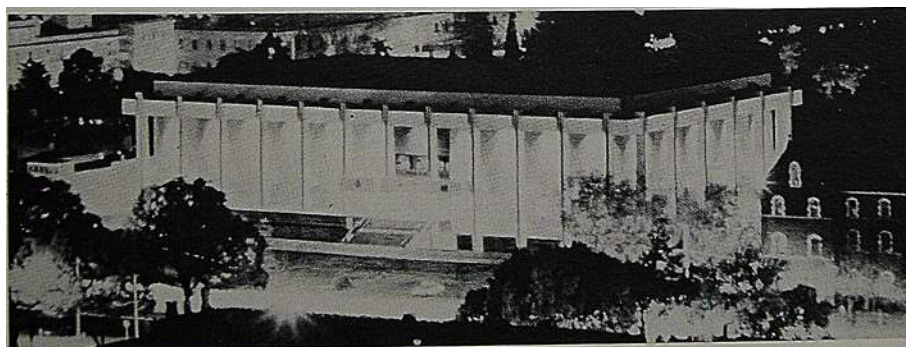
Organisateur de congrès et de toutes manifestations exceptionnelles, l'I.C.B. Belgium conserve la même direction et la même équipe. Boulevard de l'Empereur 15 - 1000 Bruxelles.

Paris

L'Hôtel Inter-Continental Paris, s'est vu attribuer le premier prix pour la brochure descriptive de ses Salles de Congrès et Banquets, lors du 14ème Concours International de Publicité Hôtelière de l'Association des Directeurs Commerciaux d'Entreprises hôtelières, qui s'est tenu à New York fin 1970.

156 hôtels, de tout premier ordre, des cinq continents, participaient à cette épreuve.

Cette distinction contribuera à mettre en valeur l'hôtellerie de grand prestige, ainsi que les éditeurs publicitaires français.



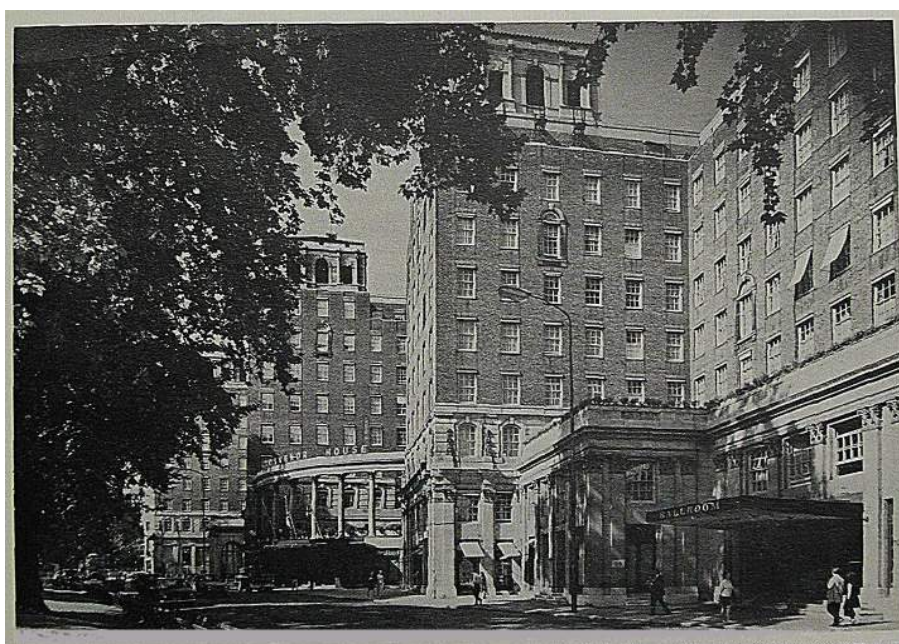
The Dallas Brooks Hall, newest congress centre of Melbourne (Australia).

Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Iles Canaries (Espagne). 2 pays étaient représentés au XI^e Congrès de la Fédération Européenne des Fabricants de Carton Ondulé (FEFCO).

Environ 900 participants s'étaient réunis. C'est le plus grand nombre de participants atteint jusqu'à présent aux Congrès FEFCO et ceci indique l'importance que cette manifestation a

prise pour l'industrie du Carton Ondulé et ses fournisseurs. Les détails concernant la participation figurent dans le tableau ci-dessous (état peu de temps avant l'ouverture du Congrès) :

Messieurs 573	Di	Dames 338						
TOTAL PAR PAYS					Total 911			
Allemagne	Mess. 95	Dames 49	Total 144	Irlande	Mess.	Dames	Total	
Argentine	6	2	8	Israël	1	1	2	
Australie	3	1	4	Italie	1	1	2	
Autriche	19	12	31	Japon	19	13	32	
Belgique	10	6	16	Liban	2	—	2	
Canada	5	5	10	Maroc	1	—	1	
Danemark	9	7	16	Norvège	2	1	3	
Espagne	63	30	93	Pays-Bas	10	8	18	
Finlande	17	14	31	Portugal	20	15	35	
France	83	41	124	Suède	7	4	11	
Grande-Bretagne	70	43	113	Suisse	40	20	60	
Grèce	2	1	3	Tunisie	35	23	58	
Iran	1	—	1	U.S.A.	1	—	1	
					51	41	92	



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Montreal

No matter how measured, the International Road Federation's Sixth World Meeting in early October was an outstanding success.

For those who look to statistics, the figures told this impressive story :

—A total of 4,212 delegates from 90 nations. This made it the largest highway gathering ever held.

—A total of 334 program participants from 46 countries.

—Opening session attended by 3,178 persons.

—IRF open house hospitality center served more than 2,700 cups of coffee during one morning from 10 :15 to noon.

As to intangible benefits, U. S. Federal Highway Administrator Francis C. Turner voiced the feeling of many when he said he wouldn't trade anything for the opportunity he enjoyed of talking with other highway officials from around the world and discussing common problems.

Berlin

Les 29 et 30 mars 1971 se tiendra à Berlin la 3e réunion du groupe de travail mis sur pied pour donner suite aux travaux de la commission technique du 5e congrès international sur l'organisation des congrès (Barcelone mai 1970). Ce groupe est composé de fabricants de matériaux audio-visuel, de

techniciens, d'interprètes, d'architectes et d'organiseurs de réunions.

Les buts poursuivis par ce groupe sont les suivants :

— établissement d'un cahier des charges type pour les installations d'interprétation simultanée;

— entretien et modernisation des installations existantes;

— établissement des normes pour cabines d'interprétation;

— importance d'une coopération suivie entre les différentes professions représentées au sein du groupe de travail. Pour tous renseignements complémentaires prière de s'adresser au Département congrès de l'UAI, 1, rue aux Laines, 1000 Bruxelles.

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REFERENCES EN EUROPE, AFRIQUE ET OCEANIE



The International Association of Professional Congress Organisers held its Council Meeting and second general assembly in Copenhagen on the 15th January 1971. The following organisations were represented :

RESO Kongrestjanst, Stockholm, Christer Carlsson; Holland Organizing Centre: The Hague, Albert Crohheim; International Convention Bureau, Belgium, Jean Destree; DIS Congress Service, Copenhagen, Erik Friis, Alette Thykier; Scandinavian Conventions AB, Stockholm, Donald Hellstedt, Anette Heldlund; Conference Services Limited, London, Fay Pannell; Geigy Pharmaceuticals, Macclesfield, A. J. Ruff.

In accordance with the statutes the President, Mrs. Fay Pannell, Managing Director of Conference Services Limited retired and Mr. Erik Friis, DIS Congress Service of Copenhagen was elected the new President. Mr. A.J. Ruff of Geigy Limited was elected a second Vice President, representing the associate members.

The full members are companies or free-lance individuals engaged exclusively or principally in the organisation of all services required for the preparation and running of international meetings, whereas associate members are individuals attached to the congress or convention departments of large organisations and companies. A Company in Argentina was admitted as a full member. The membership now covers the following countries : Denmark, Sweden, Holland, Belgium, The United Kingdom, France, Spain and Argentina. On the 16th of January the members of the International Association of Professional Conference Organisers held a seminar to study the following subjects :

co-operation with Hotels,
co-operation with Travel Agents and Airlines, relationship with Conference Interpreters and the possibility of an exchange of personnel between members.

This was a most interesting exercise and the members found it of great value. A further Seminar will be held in Brussels in October 1971 to discuss general administrative procedures and budgeting. The International Association of Professional Conference Organisers hopes that in the future Seminars will be held with the servicing organisations with whom they work, thus establishing a good solid basis for co-operation, which will enable them to give a better service to their clients and to spread the standards of good organisation.

VIENT DE PARAÎTRE :

— Volume 8 de la collection « La Science des Congrès Internationaux »

« LES ORGANISATIONS INTERNATIONALES FACE A L'ASPECT BUDGETAIRE ET ECONOMIQUE DE LEURS CONGRES »

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Ce volume représente le compte rendu
5e Congrès International sur l'Organisation des Congrès (Barcelone, 6-10 mai 1970).

Contenu :

Rapports généraux —

Les organisations internationales non gouvernementales face aux aspects budgétaire et économique de leurs congrès. Les implications financières de l'équipement technique utilisé dans les congrès, ainsi que sur le budget modèle d'un congrès, vu par les responsables de palais de congrès.

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English edition also available.

New International Meetings Announced

Information listed in this section supplements details in the Annual International Congress Calendar (published as the December 1970 issue of the magazine) as well as details in earlier 1971 issues

1971 Apr 1-4 Paris (France)
Int Social Science Council. Workshop on computer programming systems for social science.
C / S S, Unesco, 1 rue Miollis, 75 Paris 15e, France.

1971 Apr 7 London (UK)
European Federation of Office Machines Importers. General assembly.
Bockenheimer Landstrasse 79, 6 Frankfurt/Main, GFR.

1971 Apr 13-15 Salonika (Greece)
Balkan Medical Union. 6e cours int de perfectionnement : « Actualités en médecine ».
10 rue Progresul, Bucarest, Rumania.

1971 Apr 19-23 The Hague (Netherlands)
European Federation of Chemical Engineering. Int solvent extraction conference 1971.
SCI, 14 Belgrave Square, London SW1, UK.

1971 Apr 19-24 Dar Es Salaam (Tanzania)
African Adult Education Association. Conference : « Adult education and national development ».
AAEA Conference, Institute of Adult Education, University of Dar es Salaam, P O Box 20679, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

1971 Apr 21-25 Harrogate (UK)
Scottish Rock Garden and the Alpine Garden Society. 4th int rock garden plant conference.
E M Upward, 58 Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1, UK.

1971 Apr 26-29 Wageningen (Netherlands)
Int symposium : Circadian rhythmicity.
Int Agricultural Centre, P O B 88, Wageningen, Netherlands.

1971 Apr 28-30 The Hague (Netherlands)
Institute of Mechanical Engineers. Meeting : Steamplant group ».
1 Birdcage Walk, Westminster, London SW1, UK.

1971 May 1-2 Spa (Belgium)
Int congress of the road carriers federation.
Office du Tourisme, rue Royale 2, 4880 Spa, Belgium.

1971 May 4-7 Amsterdam (Netherlands)
Int symposium freight traffic models.
Planning and Transport Research and Computation Co Ltd, 40 Grosvenor Gardens, Victoria, London SW1, UK.

1971 May 8-12 Zurich (Switzerland)
European Society for Pédiatrie Endocrinology. 10th scientific meeting.
Pr A Prader, Kinderspital, Steinwiesstrasse 75, 8032 Zurich, Switzerland.

1971 May 8-12 Zurich (Switzerland)
Int Shopfitting Organisation. 13th congress.
E Cutler, Lennig House, Mason's Avenue, Croydon, CR9 3LL, UK.

1971 May 9-15 Marioka (Japan)
Int Astronomical Union. Symposium : « The earth's rotation.
Prof P Melchior, Observatoire Royal de Belgique, 3 avenue Circulaire, 1180 Brussels, Belgium.

1971 May 10-13 Brussels (Belgium)
12th « European guide » conference.
M Verdin, Soc de Mécanographie, avenue Gribaumont 115, 1050 Brussels, Belgium.

1971 May 10-13 Liège (Belgium)
Association des Ingénieurs de Montefiore. Symposium int sur les réseaux électriques.
M Craise, rue St Gilles 31, 4000 Liège, Belgium.

1971 May 10-19 Hamburg (Germany, Fed Rep)
Int Atomic Energy Agency / Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization/Government of the Federal Republic of Germany.Symposium on nuclear ships.
Dr J Scholvin, Kernenergi-Studiengesellschaft, Neuer Wall 34, 2000 Hamburg 36, Germany Fed Rep.

1971 May 10-20 Moscow (USSR)
Int Social Science Council. Meeting of experts on automation.
European Coordination Centre for Research and Documentation in Social Science, P O Box 974, 1010 Vienna, Austria.

1971 May 18-21 Caracas (Venezuela)
Inter-American Association of Industrial Property. 3rd congress.
Carrera 7a No 16 / 56, Bogota, Colombia.

1971 May 24-28 Sofia (Bulgaria)
Int Federation for Documentation, C 3. Meeting on social sciences.
7 Hofweg, The Hague, Netherlands.

1971 Jun 1-4 Helsinki (Finland)
European Association against Poliomyelitis and other Viral Diseases. Symposium.
Dr P Recht, Boulevard General Jacques 30, 1050 Brussels, Belgium.

1971 Jun 8-11 The Hague (Netherlands)
European Work Study Federation. Meeting.
c/o NIVE, Parkstraat 18, The Hague, Netherlands.

1971 Jun 10-12 Scheveningen (Netherlands)
Pharmaceutical symposium.
Th Reuter, Frans Halsstraat 4, Utrecht, Netherlands.

1971 Jun 11-16 Scheveningen (Netherlands)
Kongress arbeitgemeinschaft Europaischer chorverbande
(AGEC).
A J W Janmaat, Postbus 496, The Hague, Netherlands.

1971 Jun 14-18 Albany (USA)
Int Astronomical Union. Symposium : « Evolutionary and
physical problems of meteoroids ».
Dr C L Hemenway, 140 S Lake Avenue, Albany, New
York, USA.

1971 Jun 14-18 Madrid (Spain)
Int Cargo Handling Co-ordination Association. 10th biennial
conference : « Transport co-ordination in the seventies ».
Spanish National Section ICHCA, Ruiz de Alarcón,
Madrid 14, Spain.

1971 Jun 21-Jul 2 Seattle (USA)
Committee on Space Research. 14th plenary meeting.
55 Boulevard Malesherbes, 75 Paris 8e, France.

1971 Jun 24-26 Budapest, (Hungary)
Federation of the Int Donau-Symposia. Symposium on dia-
betes mellitus.
A B der Ungarischen Akademie der Wissenschaften,
V Roosevelt ter 9, Budapest, Hungary.

1971 Jun 24-26 Seattle (USA)
Committee on Space Research / Int Astronomical Union.
Meeting : «High resolution astronomical observation from
space ».
Z Niemirowicz, 55 Boulevard Malesherbes, 75 Paris 8e,
France

1971 Jun 28-30 Liège (Belgium)
Int astrophysical symposium : « Astronomical spectra in
the infrared and microwave regions ».
IAU, c/o Space Research Laboratory, Beneluxlaan 21,
Utrecht, Netherlands.

1971 Jun 29-jul 6 Warwick (UK)
1st int congress on farm business management.
Conference Services Ltd, The Conference Centre, 43
Charles Street, Mayfair, London W1, UK.

1971 Jul 1-2 London (UK)
British Nuclear Energy Society. Int conference on the effect
of environment on material properties in nuclear systems.
1-7 Great George Street, Westminster, London SW1, UK.

1971 Jul 3-10 Herceg-Novi (Yugoslavia)
4e conference int « Science et société » : « La science,
l'homme et son environnement ».
Konferencija « Nauka i Društvo », P O Box 163,
11001 Beograd, Yugoslavia.

190 ASSOCIATIONS INTERNATIONALES, 1971, No 3



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1971 Jul 5-10 Nice (France)
Colloque int : Les méthodes d'enquête et de description
des langues sans tradition écrite.

*Mlle J Thomas, Maître de Recherche, Central National
de la Recherche Scientifique, 15 Quai Anatole France,
75 Paris 7e, France.*

1971 Jul 5-24 Athens (Greece)
World Society for Ekistics. Athens Ekistics Month. P : 400.
Ex.

Athens Center of Ekistics, Bos 471, Athens, Greece.

1971 Jul 13-16 Cambridge (UK)
2nd int symposium on synthesis in organic chemistry.

*Dr J F Gibson, The Scientific Affairs Officer, The
Chemical Soc, Burlington House, London W1V 0BN,
UK.*

1971 Jul 15-17 Paris (France)
Colloque int : La diffusion de la lumière par les fluides.

*P Lallemand, Maître de Recherche, Centre National de
Recherche Scientifique, 15 Quai Anatole France, 75
Paris 7e, France.*

1971 Jul 15-18 Strasbourg (France)
Organisation de l'Aviation Civile Int. Conférence Ré-
gionale Européenne-Méditerranéenne sur la navigation
aérienne.

*H S Marzusch, 3 bis, Villa Emile-Bergerat, 92 Neuilly-
sur-Seine, France.*

1971 Jul 18-23 Durham (UK)
6th int symposium on fluorine chemistry.

*Dr J F Gibson, The Chemical Society, Burlington
House London W1V 0BN, UK.*

1971 Jul 19 Cali (Colombia)
Int Weightlifting Federation. Pan American congress.

*Oscar State, 4 Godfrey Avenue, Twickenham, Midd-
lesex, UK.*

1971 Jul 19-23 Paris (France)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Physics. Int conference on
light scattering in solids.

*Prof C C Butler, Physics Department, Imperial College,
London SW7, UK.*

1971 Jul 19-24 Toronto (Canada)
Int Union of Local Authorities. 20th int congress. P : 800.
*IULA, 45 Wassenaarseweg, 2018 The Hague, Nether-
lands.*

1971 Jul 23-28 San Francisco (USA)
6th int pharmacological congress.

*Prof ft M Featherstone, Univ of California, San Francis-
co Medical Center, San Francisco, Cal, USA.*

1971 Juli 26-31 Amsterdam (Netherlands)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Physics. 7th int conference
on the physics of electronic and stomic collisions.

*Prof CC Butler, Physics Department, Imperial College,
London SW7, UK.*

192 ASSOCIATIONS INTERNATIONALES, 1971, No 3

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1971 Jul 26-Aug 3 Montreal (Canada)
Syndicat Int des Auteurs. 3rd congress.

1971 Jul 31-Aug 6 Brussels (Belgium)
Int Federation of Shorthand and Typewriting. Central Committee.
rue de l'Association 6, 1000 Brussels, Belgium.

1971 Jul Washington (USA)
Committee on Space Research /Int Union of Radio Science
/Int Astronomical Union/Int Association of Geomagnetism
and Aeronomy. Meeting : « 1970 Solar eclipse ».
*Dr E R Dyer, National Academy of Sciences, 2101
Constitution Avenue, Washington, D C 20415, USA.*

1971 Aug 1-7 Bellagio (Italy)
Int Social Science Council / Bureau d'Analyses Sociologiques
Int. Symposium on int comparative analysis of industrialized
societies : Concepts and methods.
CISS, Unesco, 1 rue Miollis, 75 Paris 15e, France.

1971 Aug 3-5 Prague (Czechoslovakia)
Int Union of Physiological Sciences. 25th world congress on
physiology.
*V Seliger, M D, Dr Sc, O Skranc, M D, CSc, Ujezd 450,
Praha 1, Czechoslovakia.*

1971 Aug 3-7 Leipzig (Germany, Dem Rep)
Int Union of Physiological Sciences. 3rd int symposium on
biocybernetics theory, general principles, from automatic
and sensorimotor systems.
*Prof R W Hunspeyer, Physiologisches Institut, Rami-
strasse 69, 8001 Zurich, Switzerland.*

1971 Aug 8-13 Ann Arbor (USA)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Physics. Int conference on
amorphous and liquid semiconductors.
*Prof C C Butler, Physics Department, Imperial College
London SW 7, UK.*

1971 Aug 9-Nov 15 Wageningen (Netherlands)
Int course on fruit and vegetable growing.
*Int Agricultural Centre, P O B 88, Wageningen, Nether-
lands.*

1971 Aug 10-14 Budapest (Hungary)
Int Geographical Union. European regional conference.
*Prof C D Harris, Dept of Geography, University of
Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637, USA.*

1971 Aug 12-21 La Plata (Argentina)
Int Astronomical Union. Symposium : « Wolf-Rayet High
Temperature Stars ».
Dr J Sahade, 47-849 (9A), La Plata, Argentina.

1971 Aug 13-22 Goteborg (Sweden)
Int Coordinating Committee for the Presentation of Science
and the Development of Out-of-School Scientific Activities.
Exhibition of youth science projects and seminar on water
pollution.
*Mr G Ekegard, Stiftelsen Unga Forskare, Box 752,
101 30 Stockholm, Sweden.*



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1971 Aug 15-20 Kyoto (Japan)
Int conference on mechanical behavior of materials. P : 800.
c/o Kyoto Int Conference Hall, Takara-ike, Sakyoku,
Kyoto, Japan.

1971 Aug 16-20 Richland (Wash. USA)
USAEC. 3rd int symposium on the packaging and trans-
portation of radioactive materials.
Mr C L Brown, Battelle Northwest, Box 999 /PO,
Richland, Wash 9933, USA.

1971 Aug 16-25 Hobart (Tasmania)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Physics. 12th int conference
on cosmic rays.
Prof C C Butler, Physics Department, Imperial College,
London S W 7, UK.

1971 Aug 18-26 Budapest (Hungary)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Physics. 7th int conference
on acoustics.
Prof CC Butler, Physics Department, Imperial College,
London SW 7, UK.

1971 Aug 21-26 Moscow (USSR)
Int Federation of Surgical Colleges. Annual meeting in
association with the biennial meeting of the Int Society of
Surgery.
Ft S Johnson-Gilbert, Royal College of Surgeons, Lin-
coln's Inn Fields, London WC 2, UK.

1971 Aug 22-27 Tel Aviv (Israel)
Société Israélienne des bibliothèques et centres d'informa-
tion spécialisés (ISLIG). Conférence int de science de
l'information.
ISLIG, PO B 16.271, Tel Aviv, Israel.

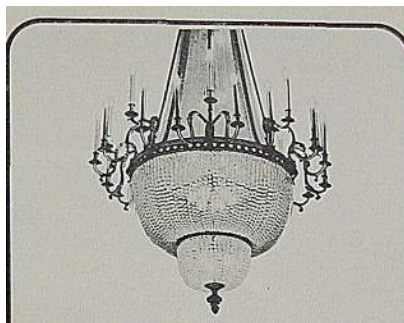
1971 Aug 23-11 Heidelberg (Germany, Fed Rep)
Int Union of Geological Sciences. 8th int sedimentological
congress.
Dr van der Heyde, P O B 378, Haarlem, Netherlands.

1971 Aug 23-28 Ithaca (USA)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Physics. Int conference on
electron and photon interactions at high energies.
Prof C C Butler, Physics Department, Imperial College,
London SW 7, UK.

1971 Aug 23-28 Krefeld (Germany, Fed. Rep)
Int Union of Geological Sciences. 7th int carboniferous
congress.
Dr van der Heyde, P O 8 378, Haarlem, Netherlands.

1971 Aug 23-30 Trondheim and Tromsø (Norway)
Int conference on part and ocean engineering under
arctic conditions.
Dr Per Bruun, Dept of Port and Ocean Engineering,
Technical University of Norway, 7034 Trondheim,
Norway.

1971 Aug 24-26 Utrecht (Netherlands)
Int Astronomical Union. Symposium : « Ultraviolet and
X-ray spectroscopy in astrophysical and laboratory plas-
mas »,
Pf D De Jager, Space Research Laboratory of the
Astronomical Institute, 21 Beneluxlaan, Utrecht, Nether-
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1971 Aug 26-29 Liège (Belgium)
European congress of the former pupils of Jesuits.
R P Lefebvre, Prof au collège St Servais, rue St Gilles
92, 4000 Liège, Belgium.

1971 Aug 28-Sep 4 Caracas (Venezuela)
Int Federation of Landscape Architects. General assembly.
Miss J Rochus, Centro de Estudos de Arquitectura
Paisagista, Tapada da Ajuda, Lisbon, Portugal.

1971 Aug 28-Sep 6 Bucharest (Rumania)
Int Union of the History and Philosophy of Sciences. Congress and general assembly.
Prof R Taton, 12 rue Colbert, 75 Paris 2e, France.

1971 Aug 30-Sep 1 Prague (Czechoslovakia)
Int Society for Biochemical Pharmacology. Symposium on pharmacology of bacterial toxins.
K. Masek, M D, CSC, Institute of Pharmacology, Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences, Albertov 4, Praha 2, Czechoslovakia.

1971 Aug 30-Sep 2 Helsinki (Finland)
Int symposium on safety and health in shipbuilding and ship repairing.
Institut of Occupational Health, Haartmaninkatu 1, Helsinki 25, Finland.

1971 Aug 30-Sep 2 Prague (Czechoslovakia)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry. 8th microsymposium on macromolecules : « Polymer morphology ».
Institute of Macromolecular Chemistry, 1888 Petřín, Prague 6, Czechoslovakia.

1971 Aug 30-Sep 2 Tokyo (Japan)
Int Union of Pure and Applied Physics. 3rd int conference on vacuum UV radiation physics.
Prof C C Butler, Physics Department, Imperial College, London SW7, UK.

1971 Aug 30-Sep 4 Ronneby (Sweden)
Int Association for Research in Income and Wealth. 12th general conference.
BOX 2020, Yale Station, New Haven, Conn, USA.

1971 Aug 31-Sep 3 Bamberg (Germany, Fed Rep)
Int Astronomical Union. Symposium ; « New directions and frontiers in variable star research ».
Pr W Strohmeier, Direktor der Remeis Sternwarte, Sternwarstrasse 7, Bamberg, Germany (Fed Rep).

1971 Aug 31-Dec 10 Wageningen (Netherlands)
10th int course on land drainage.
Int Agricultural Centre, P O B 88, Wageningen, Netherlands.

1972 Sep Brussels (Belgium)
Int Federation of Landscape Architects. 13th world congress.
Miss J Rochus, Centro de Estudos de Arquitectura Paisagista, Tapada da Ajuda, Lisbon, Portugal.



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1971 Oct-Nov New Delhi (India)
Colombo Plan Council for Technical Co-operation in South East Asia. 22nd meeting of the Colombo Plan Consultative Committee. Meeting of senior officials and ministers of member governments, and observers from APO, IBRD, ECAFE, UNDP, Commonwealth Secretariat, ILO, ADB, CATT/UNCTAD and Fao.

Government of India, c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs,
New Delhi, India.

1971 Dec 28-30 New Orleans (USA)
Econometric Society. Conference.
Box 1264, Yale Station, New Haven, Conn 06520, USA.

1971 End Cairo (UAR)
Afro-Asian Organisation for Economic Co-Operation. 1st Afro-Asian conference on tourism.

AFRASEC Special P O Bag, Calm Chamber of Commerce Building, Midan El Falaki, Cairo, UAR.

1972 Jan 17-21 (Netherlands)
European Conference of Postal and Télécommunications Administrations. Extraordinary meeting of the telecommunications commission.

Kortenaerkade 12, The Hague, Netherlands.



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