

INTERNATIONAL
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« Nous vivons une période où s'opère une véritable mutation des sociétés humaines de la civilisation, sous reflet du développement scientifique ».

Louis Armand et Michel Drancourt
« Plaidoyer pour l'avenir »

* Ce que nous voulons ce n'est pas deviner l'avenir probable mais préparer revenir souhaitable, et même peut-être aller plus loin, tâcher de rendre probable l'avenir souhaitable ».

Jacques de Bourbon-Busset

LE TEMPS DU CHANGEMENT

Carpe diem. Mets à profit le temps présent. Le conseil du poète latin appartient à une antiquité dite classique, où la vie était courte, l'égoïsme avouable, l'avenir laissé aux oracles, et la sagesse dans la hâte de jouir modérément des biens à portée de soi, sans trop de remords du malheur d'autrui. Ce doux humanisme a longtemps suffi à la satisfaction d'un petit nombre, disons jusqu'à la révolution technique de notre siècle qui a opéré plus de changement en cinquante ans, qu'auparavant dans l'espace d'un millénaire.

L'idée de solidarité a marché de pair avec l'idée de démocratie. Les phénomènes sociaux sont maintenant observés d'un œil savant. Le prophète de jadis est devenu le « futurologue ». M. Jean Fourastié a écrit * l'Histoire de demain ». M. Gaston Berger a inventé le mot « prospectif ». Le créateur du premier Centre international de « Prospective » a dit de la chose qu'elle n'était ni une doctrine, ni un système mais « une réflexion sur l'avenir, qui s'applique à décrire les structures les plus générales et qui voudrait dégager les éléments d'une méthode applicable à notre monde en accélération ».

Un autre maître français, trop tôt disparu l'an dernier, Louis Armand, a défini la prospective « une démarche de pensée, une attitude courageuse et constructive de l'esprit qui consiste à faire un très large inventaire de tout ce qui risque de se passer, demain ou dans dix ans, dans un sens favorable ou défavorable, afin de permettre à l'homme de s'adapter à l'avenir qui l'attend ».

Plus récemment M. Henri Janne, cofondateur de l'Association internationale des sociologues de langue française, promoteur du « Plan 2000 pour l'Éducation » de la Fondation européenne de la Culture, nous a donné une image de la société en mutation, dont nous avons emprunté la légende : le temps du changement.

A la vérité tout change et vite. La vieille cité close perd ses murailles. Les barrières nationales s'ouvrent aux courants trans-nationaux. Un nouveau type de société s'ébauche. L'État n'est plus le seul agent des relations - extérieures » encore appelées *internationales* par l'acquis d'un concept déjà dépassé. Nous publions à ce propos un article du professeur Marcel Merle, d'une brûlante actualité. Comment, dès lors, l'organisation non gouvernementale échapperait-elle à ce grand bouleversement des idées

et des faits ? Plus encore, comment les OING — cet immense réseau universel des « intérêts humains », largement entendus — ne seraient-elles pas les premières concernées par la transformation d'un monde de plus en plus effectivement solidaire ?

Devant cette évidence, l'UAI a cru de sa mission de donner l'occasion aux dirigeants responsables des OING de faire réflexion sur les mutations intervenues ou prévues dans l'organisation non gouvernementale en général et dans le fonctionnement de leurs propres organisations en particulier.

Ainsi notre prochain séminaire de Milan (17 au 19 mai 1972) organisé en collaboration avec la Société italienne pour l'organisation internationale et qui fait suite à celui de Turin sur la formation des cadres des OING (1969), aura-t-il pour premier thème « la philosophie de l'organisation non gouvernementale » et pour second thème « le fonctionnement des OING ». Avant de fixer ce programme, l'UAI a cru bon de procéder à une consultation sous la forme d'une table ronde qui a réuni dans les locaux hospitaliers de la Ligue des Sociétés de la Croix-Rouge, un choix de personnes venues d'organisations intergouvernementales et non gouvernementales établies à Genève. Nous publions dans le présent numéro de notre Revue les conclusions de ce travail préparatoire ainsi que l'ordre du jour du Séminaire.

Nous sommes conscients de l'ampleur de notre dessein et il nous apparaît bien qu'un séminaire de trois jours ne pourra prétendre qu'à l'introduction des problèmes posés. Mais cette introduction est essentielle et urgente. Elle requiert du reste des études auxquelles l'UAI va s'appliquer tous ces prochains mois. Tous les avis qui nous viendraient des institutions et des personnes intéressées par nos travaux seront bien accueillis, faut-il le dire. Notre revue ouvrira, généreusement ses colonnes à la préparation du Séminaire.

« Associations Internationales » se présente à ses lecteurs sous une forme nouvelle qui annonce un effort de développement. Qu'on veuille bien voir dans cette modification le signe extérieur d'une adaptation nécessaire au temps qui change, suivant le bon exemple de nos prédécesseurs.

Robert FENAUX

LA TRANSFORMATION DES RELATIONS INTERNATIONALES



Marcel MERLE

Professeur à l'Université de PARIS I
**Les facteurs
de changement**

L'année 1971 aura été marquée par une série d'événements qui semblent de nature à changer le cours des relations internationales : l'entrée de la Chine à l'O.N.U., l'annonce d'entretiens au sommet entre les dirigeants chinois et américains, l'admission de la Grande-Bretagne au sein du Marché commun, le succès de l'Ost-Politik du Chancelier W. Brandt et la conclusion d'un accord sur Berlin sont autant de bouleversements qui affectent l'équilibre des forces et ouvrent de nouvelles perspectives par rapport à la situation héritée de la guerre et prolongée par l'équilibre de la terreur. Les experts s'accordent généralement pour penser qu'on est en train de passer du stade de la bipolarisation à celui de la multipolarisation, mais ils se divisent sur le point de savoir si cette évolution est favorable ou néfaste à la paix. Ce débat ne manque évidemment pas d'intérêt. Mais beaucoup d'indices conduisent à se demander si nous ne sommes pas victimes d'une certaine illusion d'optique en continuant à privilégier l'examen des rapports de forces entre Etats, au moment même où un autre type de société internationale surgit sous nos yeux. La raison qui nous incite à la prudence et nous empêche de déchiffrer les signes du temps tient à la pesanteur des habitudes mentales qui nous fait penser le réel en termes de dichotomie (la paix ou la guerre) et qui ne nous laisse d'autre alternative, face au problème international, que l'acceptation du désordre anarchique ou l'évasion dans les utopies mondialistes. Si l'on veut bien faire l'effort de dépasser ces antinomies, on peut accéder à une toute autre vision des choses et tenter, par là, de mieux comprendre les problèmes auxquels nous aurons à faire face dans les 15 ou 20 années qui viennent. Pour opérer une nouvelle lecture du phénomène international, le test le plus révélateur que l'on puisse utiliser actuellement est sans doute l'examen du vieux problème posé par les rapports entre politique intérieure et politique extérieure.

Contrairement à ce que peuvent suggérer de fréquentes présentations pédagogiques, la politique intérieure et la politique extérieure n'ont jamais été complètement séparées. Qu'il s'agisse

de la Cité antique, du Prince de l'Ancien Régime ou de l'Etat moderne il y a toujours eu quoique interaction entre les deux faces de l'activité politique ; mais il y a eu aussi changement par alternance, selon les périodes et selon les pays, entre des phases où la politique extérieure l'emporte sur la politique intérieure et des phases où les préoccupations internes l'emportent sur les visées étrangères. Pour ne prendre qu'un seul exemple, il est évident que le monde a traversé, depuis 1939 jusqu'à nos jours, une phase dans laquelle la priorité absolue était accordée à la politique extérieure : la guerre elle-même, puis la guerre froide, la peur de la catastrophe nucléaire, la constitution des « blocs », les divers épisodes de la décolonisation enfin les rivalités économiques ont provoqué un climat d'extrême tension qui a relégué à l'arrière plan, dans la plupart des pays, les débats de politique intérieure.

La tentation est forte d'interpréter la conjoncture actuelle (passage de la bipolarité à la multipolarité) comme un renversement de l'ordre des priorités, c'est-à-dire comme un repli des Etats-nations sur la solution de leurs problèmes intérieurs. Une interprétation de ce type méconnaît cependant le phénomène essentiel ; plutôt que d'une nouvelle phase de l'alternance traditionnelle, il s'agit d'un changement de nature, sans doute irréversible dans les rapports entre politique intérieure et politique extérieure : l'une et l'autre sont désormais étroitement imbriquées, et c'est à la jointure des deux systèmes, national et international, que se situe le nœud de toutes les difficultés à résoudre. C'est sans doute ce que veut dire Stanley Hoffmann quand il écrit, dans la Préface à l'édition française du livre magistral qu'il a consacré à l'étude de la politique extérieure américaine : « le message — partiellement implicite, partiellement involontaire — de l'ouvrage, c'est que le problème le plus important n'est pas, en fait, l'étude du « comportement diplomatico-stratégique » selon les schémas classiques des intérêts nationaux en compétition, c'est l'étude, à peine ébauchée, des rapports entre la politique intérieure et l'action des Etats sur la scène mondiale, l'analyse d'interactions fort complexes et des chocs en retour enchevêtrés » (1). Quels sont les facteurs susceptibles d'expliquer cette mutation Stanley Hoffmann invoque très légitimement le fait que « les instruments traditionnels de la puissance ont perdu de leur efficacité » (2). Il est exact que les grandes puissances ont dû renoncer, au moins dans leurs rapports mutuels, à l'usage de la force qui constituait jusqu'ici le caractère spécifique des relations internationales par rapport au jeu politique interne. Du fait de la

(1) Stanley HOFFMANN : *Gulliver empiété*, Paris, Seuil, 1971 p. 8-9.
(2) *Id.*

neutralisation réciproque des puissances atomiques, sous le régime de l'équilibre de la terreur, les forces sous-jacentes à la domination exclusive des facteurs stratégiques se trouvent libérées : les petits pays recouvrent une autonomie d'action inconcevable à l'époque de la guerre froide ; les facteurs autres que politico-militaires remontent à la surface et commencent à faire sentir leur poids. Mais on peut faire appel à d'autres éléments d'explication, non moins significatifs : la pression démographique, l'intensification des échanges économiques, la diffusion universelle d'idéologies concurrentes et, surtout, les progrès fantastiques accomplis dans le domaine des communications (qu'il s'agisse des missiles ou des réseaux d'information) tendent à soustraire beaucoup de problèmes à l'initiative des acteurs traditionnels qui avaient jusqu'ici la responsabilité exclusive des relations internationales et à « globaliser » d'autant plus facilement le champ de ces relations que le système international coïncide désormais avec les limites de la planète et ne comporte plus de zones d'expansion ou de secteurs géographiques d'influence par l'entremise desquels les grandes puissances avaient toujours, jusqu'alors, soldé leurs différends mutuels. Pour ces différentes raisons, se trouve créée une situation internationale radicalement nouvelle, qui ne peut plus être appréhendée à travers les concepts traditionnels d'équilibre, de puissance ou de solidarité. D'une part, les rapports internationaux, considérés au niveau des Etats, tendent à se stabiliser, à tel point qu'on peut considérer la société internationale comme une société bloquée ; d'autre part chacune des unités nationales, qui se trouve consolidée de l'extérieur par le nouvel équilibre des forces, se trouve aux prises avec d'innécessables difficultés internes et beaucoup d'entre elles traversent des crises redoutables et sont menacées d'explosions aux conséquences imprévisibles.

Le blocage de la société internationale

Du côté du système international, on constate une tendance à la stabilisation. Celle-ci est évidente dans les rapports entre les deux grandes puissances nucléaires ; mais elle affecte aussi les autres compartiments du système. Il faut noter, tout d'abord, la consolidation du *statu quo* territorial : depuis la fin de la décolonisation, les transferts de territoires et les déplacements de frontières sont devenus exceptionnels. Si l'on excepte le conflit du Moyen-Orient, où l'existence d'un Etat se trouve en jeu, les autres revendications frontalières qui peuvent subsister (Cachemire, litige somato-éthiopien) restent très localisées et ne paraissent pas susceptibles de dégénérer en conflit mondial. En second lieu,

le recours à la force reste soigneusement contrôlé. Jamais les grandes puissances ne se sont affrontées directement par les armes ; là même où elles sont engagées militairement soit directement (Vietnam) soit par personnes interposées (Moyen-Orient), elles ont toujours pris garde de ne pas franchir les limites au delà desquelles se situe le risque d'une conflagration générale. On peut même supposer que leur « connivence » joue pour contenir le recours à la force par les petits Etats qui seraient tentés d'en user pour régler leurs différends. Enfin, si les zones d'influence subsistent, comme il est inévitable dans un monde divisé entre des unités de force très inégales, on doit constater que : 1) les zones de conflit sont en voie de résorption (Ost-Politik, Accord sur Berlin), 2) la normalisation des rapports l'emporte de plus en plus sur le déchaînement des rivalités idéologiques (ouverture des Etats-Unis en direction de la Chine), 3) le maintien de l'influence des grandes puissances dépend de moins en moins de leur présence militaire (l'exception de l'intervention en Tchécoslovaquie ne faisant que confirmer la règle), et se fonde de plus en plus sur un arsenal de moyens « pacifiques ».

Il en résulte qu'on voit mal, dans les circonstances actuelles, quels sont les facteurs internationaux qui pourraient conduire à bouleverser cet équilibre dans lequel les grandes puissances se trouvent effectivement de plus en plus concurrencées par les initiatives des petites, mais parviennent tout de même à garder le contrôle des règles essentielles du jeu.

Le paradoxe de l'Etat-Nation

Si cet équilibre venait à être mis en question, ce serait plutôt sous l'effet des crises de plus en plus graves qui affectent les unités constitutives de la société internationale. Nous sommes ici en présence d'une situation paradoxale. En apparence, notre époque marque le triomphe universel de l'Etat-nation. Celui-ci constitue l'infrastructure de la société internationale parce qu'il demeure la forme la plus achevée du groupe social organisé. Ce n'est pas un effet du hasard si le nombre des Etats s'est considérablement accru depuis 30 ans et si l'Etat a été instinctivement considéré comme la structure d'accueil idéale non seulement par les peuples soucieux d'assurer leur indépendance mais encore par les régimes socialistes qui professent officiellement le dogme du dépérissement de... l'Etat. Cependant, au moment même où l'Etat-nation semble triompher, il paraît dangereusement menacé. Cela se manifeste d'abord par les crises sanglantes qui ont affecté beaucoup de jeunes nations aux

prises avec des conflits raciaux ou religieux (Nigeria, Soudan, Pakistan) et aussi par la déplorable instabilité qui affecte la conduite des affaires dans la plupart des pays neufs — même lorsque l'unité nationale n'est pas en cause. Mais il ne s'agit peut-être là que de crises de croissance, reproduisant, à l'échelle du XXe siècle, les secousses qui ont marqué, en Europe, la gestation des vieux Etats-Nations. Mais le fait nouveau est que la contestation intérieure gagne maintenant les sociétés politiques considérées comme les plus stables et les plus solides; le mouvement de révolte, même s'il s'exprime ici ou là de manière très différente, n'épargne ni les Etats-Unis, ni les démocraties d'Europe occidentale, ni même les pays socialistes, au sein desquels commencent à se manifester des remous caractéristiques. Tout se trouve simultanément remis en question : la forme du gouvernement, le statut de la bureaucratie, les modalités d'appropriation des biens et de répartition de la richesse, le système éducatif et les valeurs culturelles. Bref, le consensus dont pouvaient s'enorgueillir ces régimes est menacé (sinon partout, dans l'immédiat, au moins à terme) et les gouvernements sont assaillis et paralysés par une masse considérable de revendications contradictoires et impossibles à satisfaire. Les structures traditionnelles de l'Etat-nation sont donc prises comme dans un étau entre la pression que continue d'exercer sur elle la concurrence (militaire, économique, idéologique) d'origine internationale et la poussée des demandes de tous ordres qui émanent de l'intérieur des sociétés nationales.

Une crise globale

Le jeu des solidarités nationales continuera-t-il, dans ces conditions, à prévaloir et à servir de fondement à l'équilibre international — ou bien est-il condamné à disparaître pour faire pla-

ce à des formes inconnues d'organisation des rapports sociaux, sinon à une sorte de grande éruption anarchique ? Personne ne peut répondre à cette question, mais la question doit être posée. Dès lors que les facteurs de changement (démographiques, technologiques, idéologiques) qui jouent à l'échelle mondiale ne peuvent plus se traduire par des mutations au sein des rapports internationaux, consolidés dans un relatif équilibre, ils risquent de faire éclater les structures traditionnelles sur lesquelles repose l'équilibre en question. Autrement dit, et pour résumer brutalement les données du problème, l'alternative à la situation présente pourrait bien être non pas, comme on le croit généralement, la guerre, mais la révolution. Et si la guerre demeure un danger réel, c'est surtout parce qu'elle risque, à un certain stade, d'apparaître comme le seul moyen d'éviter la révolution. En tout état de cause c'est bien désormais à l'intérieur de chaque unité composante, plutôt qu'au niveau des rapports entre ces unités, que se posent les problèmes les plus urgents. Mais le maintien inévitable, dans un monde concurrentiel, de la compétition internationale risque de compliquer et de compromettre la solution des problèmes intérieurs : la crise monétaire suffit à le montrer. C'est en cela que l'imbrication des problèmes intérieurs et des problèmes extérieurs n'a jamais été portée à un si haut point. On peut même dire que la distinction entre ces deux secteurs de l'activité politique est de plus en plus académique, arbitraire et même dangereuse. Le problème politique est devenu un problème global, qui ne trouvera de solution qu'à l'échelle globale.

De la réflexion à l'action

Si cette analyse est exacte, ses conclusions ne sont manifestement pas optimistes, mais elles ne sont pas non

plus décourageantes, puisqu'elles permettent de circonscrire les problèmes à résoudre.

A une crise globale de la société ne peuvent répondre que des mesures globales. Puisque la distinction des problèmes intérieurs et extérieurs est dépassée, il faut admettre que toutes les activités sociales sont solidaires les unes des autres et que le sort de la paix se joue partout et à tout instant. Puisque l'Etat n'est pas le seul acteur des relations internationales, il faut prêter une grande attention à tous les mouvements, nationaux ou transnationaux, qui sont porteurs de solidarités nouvelles et dont les initiatives peuvent, à défaut de fournir une solution de rechange tout à fait illusoire actuellement, contribuer à débloquer les rouages de coopération grippés par la rivalité des Etats souverains. Puisque les facteurs diplomatico-militaires sont de moins en moins déterminants, il faut étudier le fonctionnement des autres « claviers » sur lesquels se déroule la compétition, le clavier techno-économique, le clavier psycho-idéologique, dont les règles sont encore mal connues et dont la caractéristique commune est d'échapper de plus en plus au contrôle des gouvernants. Ce ne sont pas là seulement des thèmes de réflexion, mais des incitations à l'action pour ceux qui ne se résignent ni au scepticisme facile ni au fatalisme morbide. L'effort d'anticipation requis de ceux qui entendent peser sur l'avenir exige, plus que de la bonne volonté, une réflexion critique sur le contenu des « données immédiates de la conscience » et le dépassement des évidences trompeuses. On a souvent dit que les militaires étaient en retard d'une guerre. Il ne faudrait pas que, faute d'une analyse appropriée, ce soient les pacifistes qui se trouvent aujourd'hui en retard d'une paix.

*(Resume of the article of Prof. Merle, p.6.)
Certain recent events indicate — and experts agree — that the post-war world is passing from a state of « bipolarism » to one of « multipolarism » ; there is great debate, however, on whether this evolution is good or bad for the prospects of peace. One approach to the study of this phenomenon is to examine the problem of the relationship between internal and external politics, which are not isolated from each other. To see the new multipolarism as a return to the old « nation-state » concept with its emphasis on internal politics fails to recognize the phenomena as a (probably) permanent change in the relationship of external and internal politics. At this juncture of national and international systems is the crux of all problems to be solved. What has caused this change ? Per-*

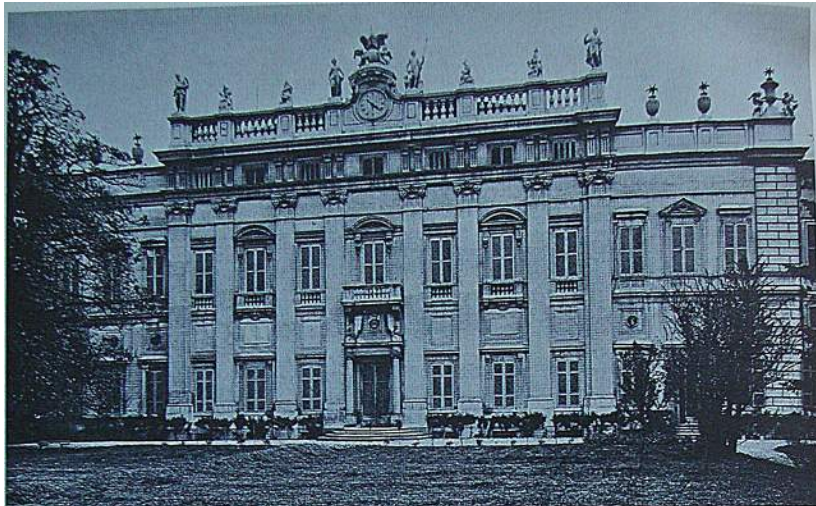
haps the « neutralization » of the Cold War, with its liberating of smaller countries from the East or West bloc ; perhaps also the population explosion or the « globalization » of the world by ever-increasing world trade and impact of communications advances. At once the relations between states are stabilized and internally the states are going through crises.

On the international scene, there is an unheard of territorial status quo, and the use of military force is being kept firmly under control. Furthermore, the maintenance of influence by the superpowers is depending less and less on force, and relations between ideological enemies are being « normalized ».

At the same moment that the independent nation-state appears triumphant. It also appears dangerously menaced. A great instability affects nations —

not only the newer ones, but also those countries considered the most stable and solid. The traditional structures of the nation states are being pressed vice-like between international economic, military, and ideological demands on one side and the international needs of the nation on the other.

If nations can no longer respond to the factors of change — technological, demographic, and ideological, on an international level, what is risked is not war but revolution. The problem of politics has become a global problem which can only be solved on the global level. Since the State is not the only actor in international relations, it is necessary to pay great attention to all movements, national or international, governmental or nongovernmental, which could lead to a new solidarity or to the smoother movement of the mechanism of international relations.



Le Palais da Sormani a Milan, où se tiendra du 17 au 19 mai le Séminaire organisé par l'UAI, en collaboration avec la Société italienne pour l'organisation internationale. (Photo : Touring Club Italiano).

Pourquoi un Séminaire

sur les mutations intervenues ou prévues dans les fonctions des organisations internationales non gouvernementales ?

Les conclusions d'un travail préparatoire

A part quelques institutions, de grandes dimensions ou très politisées, les organisations internationales gouvernementales et non gouvernementales, donnent à l'observateur — et surtout ont elles-mêmes — l'impression de ne pas être ébranlées par tout ce qui bouge autour d'elles. Peut-on cependant considérer qu'une organisation internationale, dans son propre réseau interne de membres et d'activités ou dans le réseau externe auquel elle appartient, est * comme l'axe au sein de la roue tournante * ? Certes, elles participent de près, chacune dans son secteur ou sa discipline de travail, aux évolutions actuelles et souvent même les provoquent, les favorisent ou tout au moins les constatent. Mais dans leurs structures ou leurs méthodes aussi bien que dans leurs relations mutuelles, elles paraissent se trouver dans un état d'immobilisme, surtout comparativement au bouleversement des organisations industrielles, ministérielles et même universitaires, si fortement souligné par Alvin Toffler, dans la vingtaine de pages du chapitre « L'Organisation : l'ad-hocratie montante » de son livre « Le choc du futur ». Les organisations internationales —

et limitons-nous à présent à celles de caractère non gouvernemental — se trouveraient-elles, dans notre monde en pleine mutation, dans la situation exceptionnelle d'échapper aux effets de cette mutation, par le fait qu'elles n'auraient jamais eu de structures rigides, hiérarchisées, bureaucratiques ? Il est vrai, sans doute, que les dirigeants des OING ont toujours été en quelque sorte des « citoyens du futur » imaginatifs et audacieux ; que dans leurs fonctions au sein de leurs organisations, ils n'ont guère été sclérosés par la préoccupation * de leur propre sécurité, qu'ils s'y sont comportés davantage comme des « spécialistes » attachés par des liens corporatifs avec des confrères éparpillés un peu partout, et comme des * entrepreneurs » de projets, que comme des tenants d'organigrammes permanents. Mais ce qui est assez généralement vrai pour les hommes qui œuvrent dans les OING, est-il nécessairement vrai pour les organisations elles-mêmes ? L'accélération de l'évolution de la société dans son ensemble est un fait évident et il serait étonnant qu'il n'y ait pas eu, dans le domaine des rela-

tions internationales, des éléments de transformation qui exercent une influence importante sur le rôle et les compétences des OING, leurs liens avec leurs branches nationales, leur fonctionnement, leur coopération mutuelle, et surtout peut-être sur leurs relations avec les institutions intergouvernementales. L'Union des Associations Internationales a estimé nécessaire de procéder à un examen global du problème en recherchant quelles sont les mutations intervenues ou prévues dans les fonctions des OING et dès lors quelles sont les adaptations qui s'imposent aux OING sur le plan de leurs relations extérieures, de leurs programmes et celui de leur gestion. Elle s'est proposée de confier la première étape d'un tel examen au 2^e Séminaire pour les dirigeants d'OING, qu'elle prévoyait d'organiser en 1972, comme suite au 1^{er} Séminaire qu'elle avait tenu du 6 au 11 octobre 1969 à Turin, au Centre international de formation professionnelle et technique du BIT, sous les auspices de la Commission Européenne d'Agriculture de la FAO.

G. P. Speckaert

L'UAI a cru utile de consulter au préalable à ce sujet quelques dirigeants d'OING en demandant aussi l'opinion de quelques fonctionnaires d'organisations intergouvernementales. Cette consultation eut lieu sous la forme d'une table ronde tenue le 22 octobre 1971, à Genève, au siège de la Ligue des Sociétés de la Croix-Rouge, qui avait eu l'amabilité de mettre sa salle de réunion à la disposition de l'UAI. On trouvera, en annexe, la liste des personnes qui participèrent à cette table ronde.

Comme il avait été convenu de ne pas donner un compte rendu nominatif des interventions, voyons simplement les principales idées qui y furent formulées et ensuite les contusions que l'UAI en a tiré au sujet du programme de travail du 2e Séminaire. Tout d'abord, l'UAI tient à remercier tous les participants d'avoir répondu à son invitation et d'avoir immédiatement et constamment placé l'échange de vues à un niveau très élevé de considérations.

La première constatation qui peut s'en dégager est une approbation complète et unanime de l'opportunité de l'initiative envisagée par l'UAI. Une seconde constatation concerne les relations des OING avec les Nations Unies. Les OING ont leurs propres problèmes. Elles n'en pas été créées par les Nations Unies, dont elles ont au contraire favorisé l'établissement. Il est fort juste que les OING coopèrent avec les Nations Unies et y fassent part de leurs expériences et de leurs aspirations respectives. Malheureusement, les efforts des OING ne sont pas pris en considération, comme il le faudrait, par les organisations intergouvernementales, à quelques exceptions près. Dans quelle mesure, ceci est-il dû à l'insuffisance de la qualité de la représentations des OING, dû à l'insuffisance de leurs moyens ? De toute façon, il s'impose d'entreprendre une action pour restaurer la confiance et de reconsidérer les relations des OING avec les Nations Unies et avec les gouvernements.

D'une façon plus générale, ne doit-on pas relever un certain sentiment d'insécurité chez les OING. Beaucoup ne se posent-elles pas la question : • qu'est-ce que nous sommes, qu'est-ce que nous pouvons faire » ? Un des participants exprime à ce sujet l'avis que l'on se trouve à un tournant. La situation était assez facile aux débuts de racions des Nations Unies, influencée par la prédominance des Etats européens et de la culture européenne. A la sortie de la guerre, les aspects logiques ont prévalu. Puis la situation a changé avec le développement quantitatif de l'organisation internationale et la création d'un plus grand nombre d'OING spécialisées. Pour celles-ci, la situation n'est pas mauvaise et le dialogue existe avec les Institutions spécialisées des Nations Unies. Per contre, les OING de caractère idéologique se sentent davantage

en dehors du circuit, malgré l'apport positif qu'elles ont fait, par exemple dans le domaine des Droits de l'Homme.

Au sein des Nations Unies, qui sont passées de 51 Etats membres à 131, les nouveaux Etats ne connaissent guère ce que sont les OING et se méfient des OING au niveau national. Il faut qu'une action d'information soit faite à leur intention. Une autre intervention émet l'opinion que le problème du statut consultatif vient de la crise des OING, dû à l'évolution technologique. Il y a une tension entre le concept juridique existant aux Nations Unies et la prise de conscience de l'individu. Il se crée un écran entre l'individu et l'Etat, le quel est en même temps en train de perdre sa consistance. Les OING sont au cœur du conflit entre la réalité juridique et la réalité psycho-sociologique, dont elles sont plus proches. Il y a désaccord entre les structures et il faudrait analyser cette crise ainsi que le passage de l'international au transnational. De plus, il faut tenir compte du fait que les jeunes aiment ce qui est concret. Toutes les OING sont restées au niveau des abstractions et leur paraissent jouer aux organisations. Les jeunes souhaitent la coordination sans l'organisation. Ceci aussi crée une tension. Nous vivons actuellement au « temps du changement », fait-on remarquer, et nous nous distançons d'un passé de traditions et de permanence. Les faits vont vite. D'où la nécessité vitale, pour l'organisation non gouvernementale, de se préparer dès maintenant aux transformations de ce qui n'est déjà plus à strictement parler la vie internationale. Les faits, c'est le glissement de la société fermée des souverainetés nationales à la société ouverte des associations transnationales. Jusqu'ici, au plan international, on n'a conçu de droit que celui des Etats, et de décision que celle venant de l'autorité des gouvernements et de leurs délégués. Tout le reste (à l'exception des solidarités du travail et de l'emploi intégrées à l'OIT), c'est-à-dire l'immensité des initiatives non gouvernementales a été laissé à la fortune des influences morales et politiques, à l'expédient des groupes de pression, économiques et sociaux, avec pour seul moyen de participation internationale la consultation.

La consultation est actuellement le sujet de beaucoup de travaux universitaires et de publications, d'un point de vue national il est vrai, et en considération de la crise de l'institution parlementaire. Mais les mêmes arguments et les mêmes hypothèses valent souvent, mutatis mutandis, pour l'organisation intergouvernementale.

Quelque chose est en train de bouger dans les rapports des OING avec l'organisation intergouvernementale. On était parti timidement des dispositions de l'article 71 de la Charte pour instituer un statut consultatif dont le rendement a été faible pour les raisons poli-

tiques et autres que l'on sait. Aujourd'hui le besoin d'une coopération plus effective se fait sentir. L'importante résolution du 3 juin 1971 de l'Ecosoc dépasse son objet apparent et fournit l'occasion d'une véritable révision de la consultation. Il faut que les OING y répondent par des suggestions positives.

Si le climat entre certaines OIG et les OING s'est quelque peu détérioré, ajoute-t-on, et s'il arrive aussi que des gouvernements soutenant les OING à l'échelon international ne les soutiennent pas à l'échelon national, les OING devraient cependant éviter de se replier dans leur indépendance ou dans l'opposition systématique. Elles devraient prendre leur place dans une collaboration intelligente, quitte à refuser de répondre aux questions représentant une atteinte à leur dignité, que leur poseraient des OIG qui croient pouvoir s'ériger en tribunal des OING. Deux interventions soulignent la diversité des OING ainsi que la différenciation entre les divers objectifs d'organisations telles que l'ONU et ses institutions spécialisées d'une part et les OING d'autre part. Ne faudrait-il pas répartir les OING en plusieurs groupes pour l'étude de leurs problèmes et puis dégager une perspective générale. . Au sujet de la classification, il est rappelé que l'une des Institutions spécialisées a voulu créer des familles d'OING. La remarque est aussitôt faite qu'il faut s'opposer à une classification des OING de la part des Nations Unies, car il est important que chaque OING ait la liberté de choisir le ou les partenaires avec lesquels elle désire coopérer dans un même domaine d'activité. Un autre participant considère que les OING sont déjà cataloguées au niveau intergouvernemental, puisque on les y distingue de deux autres types d'organisations : les mouvements de jeunesse et les mouvements de libération, pour lesquels des procédures de consultation spéciale ont été prévues. Cependant il semble qu'une psychose s'est fait jour au sein de certaines OING dans leurs rapports avec les fonctionnaires des organisations intergouvernementales, rapports qui entraînent un certain complexe respectivement d'infériorité ou de supériorité. De plus les fonctionnaires des grandes OIG voient dans les OING un outil pour mettre en œuvre leurs objectifs, tels ta propagande pour divers programmes des Nations Unies ou même la recherche des fonds pour leur financement. De ce fait les OING ne savent plus si elles doivent apporter leur contribution originale ou exécuter ce qui est décidé par les OIG.

Un participant considère que la principale préoccupation des OING devrait être l'amélioration des échanges entre les membres nationaux. Il faut, avec leur concours, non plus avant tout établir entre eux une fédération internationale « faïtière », mais surtout agir. Pour promouvoir certaines activités, il faut repenser le style d'action des OING. Un autre croit que le problème

des OING où ce qu'on appelle leur crise, se situe plutôt au niveau de l'action concertée.

S'il est nécessaire d'étudier l'activité des branches nationales et le rôle qu'elles peuvent jouer dans le monde international, il faut aussi, est-il fait remarquer, se pencher sur l'individu qui, somme toute, forme la base des organisations nationales. Il faut aussi se pencher sur le problème de la jeunesse.

L'importance de l'information pour les OING est soulignée par un autre participant.

Un autre encore est d'avis que les ressources principales des OING sont l'intelligence et la bonne volonté, tandis que l'action d'information requiert des ressources financières qui manquent généralement aux OING. Mais celles-ci, déclare un participant, ne devraient-elles pas repenser certaines de leurs activités de relations extérieures ? Est-il opportun, sauf quelques exceptions, de conserver des représentants permanents auprès d'institutions intergouvernementales ? Les OING n'ont-elles pas trop peu de contacts par contre avec les délégations permanentes des Etats auprès des institutions intergouvernementales. Ne devraient-elles pas, de même que leurs branches nationales établies des contacts avec les services départements ministériels nationaux ? Il y a aussi le problème du rôle que les OING peuvent jouer à l'égard des sociétés multinationales à but lucratif, dans le cadre d'activités consultatives, normatives ou opérationnelles, avec comme tâche principale sans doute de leur faire mieux comprendre les aspects humains de la coopération entre les peuples, qui doivent les concerner comme toutes organisations internationales.

Un certain scepticisme à ce sujet est exprimé par un autre participant; car les OING ont un but désintéressé, alors que les sociétés multinationales se réfèrent au « management » pour atteindre des buts lucratifs. Il est vrai cependant que des sociétés multinationales commencent à se sentir concernées par des problèmes d'intérêt général, telle la pollution, et que d'autres, sous la pression des OING syndicales ont dû se préoccuper des problèmes humains du travail. La question du terme « non gouvernemental » est soulevée et deux participants expriment l'opinion qu'il s'agit d'un vocable malheureux, il ne correspond pas aux concepts des langues et des cultures non indo-Européennes et dans nombre de pays en voie de développement, ce terme risque d'être compris comme signifiant « anti-gouvernemental ».

La notion de lucratif ou non lucratif devrait elle-même être revue. Il existe des organisations intergouvernementales qui ont des buts lucratifs, tandis que les sociétés multinationales ayant des buts lucratifs sont considérées comme des organisations non gouver-

nementales, bien qu'il y en ait qui appartiennent à des actionnaires gouvernementaux.

Le concept « organisation » lui-même n'est pas sans poser des problèmes, car il ne tient guère compte des types, de groupements propres aux sociétés non occidentales. Il y a aussi un danger à vouloir faire une distinction rigide entre les organisations permanentes et des organisations de nature temporaire et des organismes ad hoc. Enfin on peut se demander la distinction qu'il faut encore maintenir entre le public et le privé.

Après avoir ainsi émis une série de remarques au sujet du premier thème que l'UAI se proposait d'inscrire au programme du 2^e Séminaire, à savoir « la philosophie de l'organisation non gouvernementale » à la lumière des mutations intervenues ou prévues dans les fonctions des OING, les participants procèdent à un échange de vues sur le deuxième thème proposé « La sociologie des organisations non gouvernementales ».

Des opinions diverses sont exprimées en ce qui concerne la terminologie qu'il conviendrait d'employer : gestion, management, administration, organization's development, stratégie de l'action.

Ensuite la Table ronde examina les sous-thèmes suggérés pour la seconde partie du Séminaire : a) problème de l'information ; b) gestion des fonctions opérationnelles des OING ; c) sélection, recrutement et formation du personnel des OING.

D'une façon générale, ces trois sous-thèmes sont considérés comme judicieux.

Enfin la Table ronde se penche sur le problème des méthodes de travail qui devraient être utilisées pour le Séminaire et sur la question des catégories de personnes qui devraient y participer.

On trouvera en annexe les conclusions que l'UAI a tirées de l'ensemble des remarques et suggestions faites au cours de la Table ronde, c'est-à-dire le programme du Séminaire, qu'elle a établi à la suite de la Table ronde. On trouvera aussi en annexe la liste de ses participants.

Table ronde du 22 octobre 1971
(siège de la Ligue des Sociétés de la Croix Rouge)
Genève

Parmi les opinions exprimées à Genève :

M. Szmikowski (Caritas Internationalis) est très en faveur des rencontres comme celle-ci, car elles permettent une réflexion et des échanges d'idées. Les OING représentent une grande variété de formules et de champs d'action. C'est une richesse, car cela donne un grand éventail d'expression de l'opinion publique ; mais c'est aussi une certaine faiblesse — du moins apparente — à cause de leur grande diversité qui ne facilite pas la mise au point des idées communes et la coopération (pourtant très désirée par nous tous) avec les Institutions internationales.

Cependant, en ce qui concerne les sujets qui touchent de très près les OING, comme par exemple la préparation d'un texte aussi important que la Déclaration universelle des Droits de l'Homme, les OING ont su fournir un apport très valable aux activités des Nations Unies, grâce à leur collaboration et grâce à leurs interventions qui ont permis d'établir une sorte de dialogue avec l'Institution internationale. D'ailleurs, parmi les délégués gouvernementaux qui ont préparé ce texte, il y en avait plusieurs, semble-t-il, qui venaient du milieu des OING.

En outre, en ce qui concerne les Institutions spécialisées, certaines OING dont les activités correspondent à cette « spécialisation », continuent leur collaboration, souvent intense, et parfois aussi leur soutien matériel (c'est par exemple le cas de l'action en faveur des réfugiés, du Fonds de l'Enfance, de toute l'action en cas de catastrophes naturelles, etc.).

En revanche, à l'ONU, vu une grande sensibilisation politique, vu aussi la présence de nouveaux Etats qui souvent n'ont pas encore de tradition bien établie dans le secteur non gouvernemental, des difficultés ont surgi, et c'est à leur intention qu'une démarche d'information devrait être faite.

Why hold a seminar on the changes which have already occurred or which are likely to occur in the activity of non-governmental organizations ?

Apart from some very large or very political organizations the governmental and nongovernmental international organizations give the observer the impression of not being affected by anything which happens around them and above all they seem to have this impression of themselves. However, can an international organization within its own internal system of members and activities or in the external system to which it belongs be considered as the axis at the heart of a revolving zone ?

Certainly each in its own sphere takes part in present day developments and often even provokes them, promotes them or at the very least records them. But in their structures or their methods just as much as in their mutual relations they seem to find themselves in a state of immobility — above all in comparison with the upheaval in industrial, ministerial and university organizations — a fact which is strongly underlined by Alvin Toffler in the chapter entitled « Organization : the rising adhocracy », of his book. Future Shock.

Could international organizations such as nongovernmental organizations find themselves in the extraordinary position of escaping the effects of the changes in our rapidly changing world because they have never had rigid structures, strict hierarchies or bureaucracies ?

Without doubt it is true to say that the leaders of the INGOs have in some ways always been citizens of the future; both imaginative and audacious; that preoccupations with their own security have not tended to make them inflexible in their organizations; and that they have behaved more as specialists attached by corporate ties to their widely scattered colleagues and as contractors of plans than as members of a permanent schema of organizations.

But is that which is true for the men who work in the INGOs also true for the organizations themselves ? The acceleration of the evolution of society as a whole is evident, and it would be surprising if there were not in the field of international relations elements of transformation which have an important influence on the role and competence of INGOs : their ties with their national branches, their functions, their mutual cooperation and perhaps above all, on their relations with the intergovernmental institutions.

The Union of International Associations considered it necessary to examine on a worldwide basis this problem, looking at the changes which have already taken place and those which are expected to occur in the functions of the INGOs, and from there to decide what adaptations will be necessary in the INGOs exterior relations programmes and administration.

It was decided to entrust the first stage of such an examination to the 2d Seminar for the executives of INGOs which was planned as a sequel to the

2n Seminar for the Executives of INGOs Which took place from 6 to 11 October, 1969 in Turin at the International Centre for Professional and Technical Training of ILO under the auspices of the European Commission for Agriculture of the FAO.

UAS believed it a useful preliminary to consult some of the heads of the INGOs on this subject and asked as well for the opinions of some officials of intergovernmental organizations. This consultation took the form of a Round Table held on 22 October, 1970 in Geneva at the headquarters of the League of Red Cross Societies which had been kind enough to place its conference chamber at the disposal of the UAL. Attached it a list of the people who took part in this Round Table. The first statement to emerge was a complete and unanimous approval, of the opportunity of the initiative envisaged by the UAL. The second point concerned the relations of the INGO with the United Nations. The INGOs have their own problems. INGOs were not created by the UN; rather they helped to promote its creation. It is very right that INGOs should co-operate ' with the United Nations and should make known their experiences and hopes. But the efforts of INGOs are not taken into consideration as they should be by intergovernmental organizations (with a few exceptions). To what degree is this due to the lack of quality in the INGOs' representation or the lack of means ? In any case, some action must be taken to restore confidence and to reconsider the relations of the INGOs with United Nations and with governments.

In a more general way, one should take note of a certain feeling of insecurity in the INGOs ; which manifests itself in questions such as « what are we ? what can we do ? »

One participant expressed the opinion that the INGOs were at a turning point. Their position was fairly clear in the early days of the UN's work, influenced as it was by the predominance of Western states and their cultures. But with the growth of international organization and the creation of a greater number of specialized INGOs, the position changed. The relationship is not poor for these specialized INGOs ; a dialogue exists with the specialized agencies of them UN. On the other hand, INGOs of an ideological nature feel more on the periphery, in spite of positive contributions they have made in such areas as human rights.

The United Nations has grown from 57 to 131 member states. The new non-western states hardly know what INGOs are and distrust IGOs at the national level. They must be better informed.

Another speaker expressed the opinion that the problem of consultative status comes from the technological-evolution-caused crisis of the INGOs. Tension exists at the UN between the

legal concept of the INGO and the conflict of conscience » of the individual. This forms a screen between the individual and the decreasingly stable state. The INGOs are at the heart of the conflict between the « legal » reality and the psychosociological reality to which they are closer. There is disharmony between the structures. This crisis should be analysed as well as that of the transition from the international to the transnational. The fact that youth appreciate the concrete must be taken into account : « all INGOs have remained at an « abstract » level and appear to be playing at being organizations ».

It has been remarked that we now live in a « time of change » and that we are getting further away from a traditional and permanent past. Things move fast, therefore it is vitally necessary for non-governmental organizations to be prepared for the transformation of what can not even now be strictly called the « international life ». The basic fact is the transition from the closed society of national sovereignty to the open society of transnational associations. Until now, at the international level, only law as the law of States, and decisions coming from the authority of governments and their delegates have been considered. All the rest, except for the solidarities of work and employment integrated in the ILO — these immense non-governmental efforts — have been left to chance moral and political influences and to the expedient of economic and social pressure groups, with consultation being the only medium of international participation. Today consultation is the subject of much work in universities and many publications, but only from a national point of view, and because of the crisis in the parliamentary institution. The same arguments and the same hypotheses are often valid, mutatis mutandis, for intergovernmental organizations.

There are movements afoot in the field of the relations of INGOs with intergovernmental organization. They began timidly in Article 71 of the Charter with the institution of a consultative statute — whose efficiency was limited by political and other reasons. Today, the need for more effective co-operation is making itself felt. The important ECOSOC resolution of 3 June 1971 went beyond its apparent objective and gave the opportunity for a real revision on consultation. The INGOs must reply with positive suggestions. Even if the relationship between certain IGOs and INGOs has deteriorated somewhat, and even should the governments supporting the INGOs at the international level not support them nationally, the INGOs must be careful not to retreat into independence or systematic opposition. They must take their place in intelligent collaboration, free not to answer questions attacking

their dignity when IGOs who believe themselves competent to judge the INGOs, ask such questions. Two speakers underlined the diversity of the INGOs as well as the distinction between various objectives of organizations such as the United Nations Specialized Agencies on one hand and the INGOs on the other. Should the INGOs not be divided up into several groups to study their problems and then outline a general view ?

On the subject of classification, one must recall that one of the specialized agencies wanted to create families of INGOs. The remark was also made that INGOs must oppose classification on the part of the United Nations, since each INGO should have the freedom to choose with which partners it wishes to cooperate in the same field of activity. Another participant thought that INGOs are already catalogued at the intergovernmental level since they are markedly distinguishable from two other types of organization — youth movements and liberation movements — for which special consultation procedures have been arranged. However, it seems that a psychosis has appeared in certain INGO's relations with IGOs — relations which introduce a certain inferiority, or conversely, superiority complex. The officials of large IGOs see in the INGOs an instrument to implement their own objectives, such as propaganda for various UN programmes, or even look to them for funds. As a result, INGOs no longer know whether to make original contributions or simply execute those programs decided on by IGOs. One speaker said that the principal preoccupation of the INGOs should be the amelioration of exchanges between national members. It is above all necessary to act and not to establish between INGOs an umbrella international federation. In order to promote certain activities, it is necessary to rethink the style of action of the INGOs. Another believed that the problem of INGOs, what is called their « crisis », is primarily a matter of concerted action.

If it is necessary to study the activity of the national branches and the role they can play in the international scene, it is also necessary to take an interest in the individuals who, when all is said and done, forms the base of the national organizations. INGOs must pay special attention to the problem of youth, as well.

The importance of information for the INGOs was underlined by another participant. Another felt that the principal resources of the INGOs are intelligence and good will, since the use of information requires financial resources which are often not available to INGOs. But should INGOs not rethink certain of their external relations ? Is it wise, with a few exceptions, to have permanent representatives in intergovernmental institutions and not in permanent delegations of their Member States ?

There is also the problem of (he role which the INGOs can play with regard to the multinational profit-making enterprises in the framework of consultative activities, both normative and operational. The principal task is to make them understand more fully the human aspects of cooperation between peoples, which must concern them as it does all other international organi' zations.

Another participant expressed a certain scepticism on this subject, because INGOs have a disinterested aim while multinational enterprises depend on « management » to attain profitable ends. It is true, however, that the multinational corporations are beginning to feel concerned about general problems such as pollution, and that others, under the pressure of Trade Union INGOs, have had to give their attention to human problems in working conditions.

The question of the term « non-governmental » was raised; it was felt that this was not a good choice. It probably does not correspond with the concepts and cultures of non-Indo-European countries and in a number of cases runs the risk of being understood as

* anti-governmental ».
The idea of profit-making and non profit-making should be reviewed also. Although intergovernmental organizations exist which have profit-making aims, multinational profit-making enterprises are considered as non-govern-

mental organizations, even if they are partly or wholly owned by government agencies.

The concept of « Organization » itself is not without its problems, because it does not take into account types of groupings proper to non-Western cultures. There is also a danger of wanting to make rigid distinctions between permanent organizations, organizations of a temporary nature, and ad hoc bodies.

Having thus expressed many opinions on the subject of the first theme the UAI proposed to put on the programme of the 2nd meeting — participants proceeded to exchange views on the second proposed theme, « the operations of non-governmental organizations ».

Differing opinions were expressed concerning the suitable terminology to be employed : administration, management, organizational development, action strategy. The Round Table next examined the suggested sub-themes for the second part of the Seminar : (a) the problem of information, (b) the management of the operational functions of INGOs (c) the selection, recruitment and training of the personnel of INGOs.

The programme of the Seminar which was set up as a result of remarks and suggestions made during the Round Table are to be found as an annex to this report.

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Liste des participants

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CENTRE DE LA PAIX MONDIALE PAR LE DROIT
M. STOSIC

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MM. CASADIO, FENAUJ, SPEECKAERT;
TSAN- JUDGE et TIBALDI
M. SOMERFELD

PROCES-VERBALISTE
Mme VORONOV

PARTICIPANTS :

Ce Séminaire réunira de quarante à cinquante personnes, dont une partie sera composée de secrétaires généraux ou directeurs d'organisations internationales non-gouvernementales et l'autre partie de délégués d'organisations intergouvernementales, de sociétés multinationales et de fondations et de représentants des milieux de la recherche (professeurs d'université, directeurs d'instituts de relations internationales) outre l'un ou l'autre dirigeant de branches nationales d'OING. Parmi les participants figureront des personnalités appartenant aux pays en voie de développement et des dirigeants de mouvements de jeunesse.

*

ORIENTATION GENERALE :

A l'inverse du premier Séminaire de Turin qui avait été consacré surtout aux problèmes d'administration des OING (formation des cadres) et dans une moindre mesure à un échange d'idées générales, le deuxième Séminaire de... sera principalement de réflexion sur les changements en cours ou à prévoir dans les relations internationales et transnationales, tout en comportant l'examen de certains problèmes particuliers de gestion, d'information et de personnel. Des documents de travail seront préparés et transmis aux participants avant l'ouverture du Séminaire.

*

DUREE :

La durée du Séminaire sera de trois jours.

*

THEMES :

Les travaux du Séminaire porteront, dans une proportion égale de séances, sur les deux thèmes suivants :

I. — La philosophie de l'organisation non-gouvernementale.

II. — La sociologie des organisations non-gouvernementales.

I. — La philosophie de l'organisation non-gouvernementale.

- a) les mutations intervenues ou prévues dans les fonctions des OING résultant ou pouvant résulter des changements intervenus ou prévus par rapport :
 - aux Etats
 - aux organisations interétatiques
 - à la technologie
 - aux systèmes ou processus décisionnels
 - aux organisations internationales non gouvernementales et à leurs styles d'action**
 - à l'action concertée ou au travail en commun des OING et des associations temporaires entre OING
 - à la distinction entre le public et le privé, le lucratif et le non-lucratif.

- b) les mutations internes des OING, en ce qui concerne :
 - leurs organes internationaux et leurs structures
 - leurs membres nationaux
 - leurs liaisons avec les membres nationaux au niveau de l'individu.

- c) les rapports qui existent ou pourraient exister entre les OING et les sociétés transnationales quant aux responsabilités de ces dernières à l'égard des individus aux activités consultatives, normatives et opérationnelles.

- d) la recherche d'une nouvelle formule de relations entre les OING et les OIG, en considérant notamment le conflit existant entre la réalité juridique et la réalité psycho-sociologique
- le conflit existant entre la fonction interne des OING et leur fonction envisagée du point de vue des OIG

les perspectives offertes pour la 2ème décennie de développement la modification de la terminologie concernant les OING les relations entre les branches nationales des OING et les Etats.

H. — La sociologie des organisations non-gouvernementales

(Gestion - management - administration - organisation's development ou change - stratégie de l'action).

- a) problème de l'information reçue et utilisée par les OING entre les secrétariats et les membres des OING entre les OING dans leurs autres relations extérieures.
- b) la gestion des fondions opérationnelles des OING
- c) la sélection, le recrutement et la formation du personnel des OING.



INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, 1972 17

During the 2nd Seminar at Milan, May 1972, part of the discussion will deal with new styles of organization management appropriate to the more complex social environment of the future. This article is a contribution to that discussion.

Interdépendance of Organizations

There is a widely prevalent tendency to think of organizations, particularly international organizations, as functioning within the social system like billiard balls on a table. In this view, they may « knock into » one another, but essentially they are completely unrelated to one another — there is no permanent organic relationship between them.

This view resembles that which lies at the base of current environmental problems, namely that each factory can function in its environment as though its products had no significant effect on other parts of nature. In the past two years, however, it has become widely recognized that man exists in a very delicate and complex equilibrium with his environment — any industrial activity may have consequences for any other. Each factory functions in a web or network of dynamic relationships with other factories, via the processes of the natural environment. To what extent is it recognized that every social activity of man — the domain of most INGOs — may have significant consequences for any other social activity ? It is, in fact, impossible to predict which organizations will give rise to problems by their actions, which other bodies will be affected, and which bodies will then be in the best position to undertake compensatory action. All social entities — INGOs, IGOs, groups, national or local bodies, movements, and individuals — are bound together in a delicate web of interdependent social relationships, in which each is autonomous and at the same time, dependent on the actions of others. It is a truism that « No man is an island unto himself » but it is not so widely recognized that none of man's organizations can function in isolation. This is clearly recognized for one field in the following extract from a speech by Henrik Beer, Secretary General of the League of Red Cross Societies, at the 15th International Conference on Social Welfare :

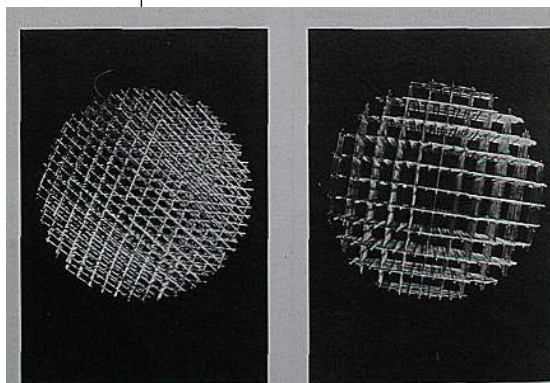
« One of the most important trends in the field of international voluntary service in recent years has been the recognition that social development cannot be pried loose from economic and political development and that the work of volunteer organizations cannot be isolated from other aspects of social

work. Prognostics for voluntary service must be seen as part of a whole. It is already outmoded to look on community social services as an entity in itself : it is part of a socio-economic whole... From now on U.N. programmes will not be considered individually. Priority will be given to a *total* approach by every country to their own development planning, with harmonised progress, and, hopefully, no competition between different agencies and ministries about priorities, people and money. The same will apply to our planning — we shall no longer promote only the programmes we favour »,

The excessive stress placed on the autonomy of organizations masks the links between them. Excessive focus on one type of link — the consultative relationship with UN agencies — de-emphasizes the many other links, formal and informal, between organizations of many types, thus rendering impossible any balanced understanding of the social system.

Can INGOs — recognized or unrecognized by the UN system — adopt any course of collective action which is so shortsighted and procedure-oriented as to expressly favor only isolated international organizations whilst ignoring the immensely complex world network of organizations of all types which stretches from the individual to local, national and international bodies to include the potentially highly-significant inter-INGO groupings ?

For that matter, can the UN agencies afford to encourage any action which



fragments INGOs into unrelated agency-oriented groupings at a point in time when the global crisis is completely multi-disciplinary and demands the utilization of every available resource ? Can the agencies and the many INGOs each treat the world network of organizations as an *administrative problem* when it clearly represents an unstudied *social phenomenon*? Is it not an unexplored global, network of organizational resources — of which the governmental and business worlds are an integral part — which has *not* yet been effectively related to the peace / population / food / development / education / environment crisis precisely because the functional relationship of all the parts to the social whole is repeatedly and systematically ignored in organizational decisions ?

Network of Organizations

It is no longer useful to concentrate on the problems of one * independent » organization or group of organizations (as though each operated as an autonomous frontier outpost surrounded by uncharted terrain). Not is it useful to focus on a single geographical region or subject area — it is now essential to look at the problems of the *network of interdependent organizations* and their *interrelated concerns*. (The terrain is now charted and populated so that the previously isolated frontier posts can now link together to survive as a community.) The nature and complexity of interdependence between plants and animals in nature has been the theme of the whole environment/ecology issue and the 1970 European Conservation Year. Perhaps this interdependence, still only recognized with great difficulty, between *extremely different organisms* can be used as a parallel to illustrate the nature of the interdependence between *organizations of different types and social function*. This social interdependence has yet to be recognized with precision despite frequent use of such terms as the « international community ». A century ago it was precisely this theme of interdependence between natural organisms which was forcefully stressed amid much controversy with texts such as the following :

Many cases are on record showing how complex and unexpected are the checks and relations between organic beings which have to struggle together in the same country... I am tempted to give one more instance showing how plants and animals, most remote in the scale of nature, are bound together by a web of complex relations ». (Charles Darwin. The Origin of Species, London, 1859).

The example showed how two species of flower were fertilized with the aid of humble-bees whose nests were attacked by field-mice, which were in turn preyed upon by cats.

« Hence it is quite credible that the presence of a feline animal in large numbers in a district might determine, through the intervention first of mice and then of bees, the frequency of certain flowers in that district... A corollary of the highest importance may be deduced from the foregoing * remarks, namely that the structure of every organic being is related, in the most essential yet often hidden manner, to that of all other organic beings, with which it comes into competition for food or residence, or from which it has to escape, or on which it preys. >

Organizational Ecology

With this perspective, what can be said of the relationship between such social structures as governmental, and nongovernmental, profit and non-profit, formal and informal organizations, movements, periodicals, mass media, etc ? Is enough yet known of *organizational ecology*, namely the chains of interdependence between social organizations of totally different types, to be able to determine which actions of one type of organization will directly affect the operations and even the survival of which other types of organizations responsible in society for other functions ?

* The program of a large organization, whether intended, or not... affects a wide sector of the organization's environment, one much wider than the organization may understand to be its surrounds... Organizations that wish to deal responsibly with their social surrounds must be capable of eliciting and evaluating responses from those who realize that they are affected but who are ordinarily silent, and from those who are affected but may not realize it... » (R.A. Rosenthal and R.S. Weiss, Problems of Organizational Processes.)

In view of the ignorance of these inter-organizational processes and of the ecological role of different categories of the social flora and fauna :

« We think that anybody who wished to sort out « necessary » and « superfluous » or - justified » and - unjustified » NGO's so as to prove the allegation that there is an inflation of international organizations (in the deprecatory sense) would find it rather hard to define his criteria and would have to claim for himself the foresight of a prophet before making his judgement in a great many cases, furthermore, even the smallest, lowliest, and oddest NGO's may well be regarded as an expression of the genuine longing of their members for more international contact, understanding and cooperation. Such longings should be taken seriously because human motivation and psychological fac-

TABLE 1	Traditional Style	Charismatic or Intuitive Style	Classical or Bureaucratic Style	Human Relations or Group Style	Systemic Style	Network Style
1. Focus	Maintaining a tradition	Pursuing an intuition	Running an administrative machine	Initiating and leading groups	Survival of a system in a hostile environment	Adapting to emerging conditions
2. Organization	Historical institution	Spontaneous creation	Mechanistic Structure	Network of personal relationships	System of flows of information and materials, developed	Dynamic evolving networks of personal and organizational units, living system or organization
2.2 Purpose of design	Preservation of status quo	Implementing intuition	Maximizing efficiency	Maximizing personal satisfaction	Maximizing survival potential and growth of system	Maximizing relevance to perceived problems
2.3 Source of momentum	Force of tradition	Dynamism of intuition	Leadership drive and allocated funds	Group synergism	Individual self-advancement through organizational unit success in achieving system milestones	Stimulus of individuals and organizational units by new problems and possibilities
2.4 Duration	< Permanent > through a historical period	<Permanent> for the lifetime of the leader and his immediate disciples	Undefined duration	Undefined short duration	For as long as is useful for owners and employees	For as long as is useful in term of problem relevance
3. Decision making process						
3.1 Main concerns	Recurrent items	Critical issues	Efficient performance of voted programs	Elaborating groups goals	Adapting system to changing conditions	Maintaining balance between adapting to
3.2 Goals	Unquestioned, possibly implicit	Highly explicit	Objective and evaluated quantitatively	Subjective and emergent	Outlined centrally; defined and refined by decentralized executant units	Defined interdependency
3.3 Degree of consciousness	Non-reflective	Spontaneous	Conscious;calculated	Articulation of feelings	Highly conscious of rational perspective	Conscious balance between value and rational perspectives
3.4 Type of decision	Affirmation of new custom	Proclamation of intuition	Production of orders	Formulation of consensus	Initiated by experts and evaluated team	Participative with representatives of all concerned bodies
3.5 Communication of decision	Transmission of heritage	Magnetic, persuasive influence	Detailed directions	Shared	Initiated by experts and evaluated by team	Outline directives
3.6 Response to decision	Implicit consent	Intuitive accord	Agreement under coercion	Participation consent	Team consent	Modified by team in response to local conditions
4. LEADERSHIP						
4.1 Dominant personality	Elders; wise, sacred	Enlightened	Aggressive, domineering	Sensitive, cultured	Expert; technician	Network link catalyzers, generalist
4.2 Functions of leaders	Voice of tradition; source of wisdom; nurturer; guardian	Prophetic, inspirational	Directive; organizing	Permissive, non-directive, creation of < atmosphere >; draws out	Interprets system environment; clarifies goals, monitors change	Interprets psychosocial environment, clarifies goals and organizational complexes required; coordinates change
5. CENTRAL PROCES						
5.1 Main features	Strength of tradition, little awareness of alternatives	Judgemental character of intuition; all of adherents	Specific standards set by top management	Individual sense of responsibility; answerability to constituents	Conscientiousness of expert; corrective of goals; threat of non-survival of system	Conscientiousness of those with network roles; counterbalancing objectives of organizational units; threat of non-survival of human society
6. ORGANIZED RELATIONSHIPS						
6.1. Intra-organizational	Coherent, stable traditional hierarchical structure	Emanations of the central intuition	Procedural routinized linkages based on document transfer; jurisdictional dispute	Fluid; informal based on mutual empathy	Interacting, constant evolution of new authority structures	Interdependent; dynamic emergence of cross-linking authority centers of short duration
6.2 Inter-organizational	Traditional contacts, other organizations are irrelevant; federations of organizations only stable under external supreme authority (eg. sovereign, government, etc.)	Contacts initiated and maintained if they can accept the superiority of the central message and will help to disseminate it; conferences of organizations only if they enhance the authority of the central intuition	Relations governed by policy of « recognition » in which the superiority of the recognizer is considered implicit; weak and unstable federations of organizations	Ad hoc unstructured contacts; organization for project level collaboration; organization groupings racked by fear of « organization »	Links between complementary or competing organizations committed so survival of same macro-system; dictated by cost	Interdependent, dynamic emergence of cross-linking authority centers of short duration, distinction between intra- and interorganizational links considered academic
7. RELATIONSHIP TO ENVIRONMENT						
7.1. Social environment	Component part of static society	Rejection of status quo; articulates change	Machine for managing extensive but uncomplex environment	Reflection of cultured democratic society	Attuned to those features of its environment which might constitute a potential threat to its continued growth	Attuned to those features of its environment which might constitute a potential activity and to those which might be threatened by its continued activity
7.2 Problem environment	Docile, isolated problems in an orderly environment	Identification of a problem underlying problems.	Docile problem groups characterized by their number and variety rather than their complexity and interrelationship	Dynamic interactive problems, the consequences of some	Aggressive interactive problems; considerable strategic skills required for central planning	Very aggressive interactive problems; centralized strategy abandoned in favor of decentralized response by a network of interdependent organizational units

tors of this kind are of considerable importance for the whole present and future development of international organizations ». (Alexander Szalai. The Future of international organizations. New York, UNITAR, 1970. Paper presented to a seminar on organizations of the future.)

Styles of Organization

Within the above context, it is useful to look at different styles of organization, how they function and how they respond to their environment. The Traditional, Charismatic, and Classical styles are quite familiar. The Human Relations style has recently appeared on the scene, together with the Systemic style. These five styles are described and compared in Table 1 (1). Each succeeding style reflects a progressively greater concern with interdependence, but in each case with compensating weaknesses. The relationship between the different styles of organizations can be usefully illustrated in Figure 1. There is a progressive convergence towards a subtler and more sensitive type of social action, with progressively smaller swings between the extremes shown in Figure 1. Each style of organization is of course the most appropriate in a certain type of environment. But what style of organization is most appropriate to the complex environment noted in the earlier sections of this article ? Most management literature is full of descriptions of "systems management" as applied to large corporations and even to governments. Peter Rudge (2) considers the Systemic style to be the most appropriate for complex organizations such as the churches with which he is especially concerned. And yet it is against the concept of a "system" that many left-wing and youth organizations are protesting. It seems certain that international nongovernmental organizations do not wish to conceive of themselves as being part of any system — there is too much suggestion of coordination without respect for autonomy, or of being a "cog in somebody else's machine".

Working with the ideas in the earlier section of this article, and with highly innovative books such as that of Donald Schon (3), it seemed possible to identify a style of organization that

combines some of the advantages of the Human Relations and Systemic styles and avoids some of their disadvantages. This can be termed the "Network Style". It is described in Table 1 and is shown as the next swing of the curve in Figure 1. There is of course a range of systems management styles, and some would claim to include the Network style, but it seems as though organizations can become systems without becoming networks (4). And it is the concept of a network of organizations which seems less constrictive and more fruitful.

Nature of the Network

In order for INGOs to survive and contribute effectively to social change in the 1970s there may be some advantage in attempting to define more clearly the nature of this new style of organization. It is as yet undefined because it is of less interest to business corporations for which inter-organizational relations are largely restricted to transactions which can be translated into financial terms. The case of nonprofit organizations is much more complex in many respects. INGOs need to work together to match the strength and demands of governmental and business programs. They also need to work together to ensure that the effects of their programs do not cancel each other out (e.g. in the case of environmental programs), or compete with one another unnecessarily (e.g. in the case of educational programs in a particular locality). But in working together, they do not want to be sucked into an uncontrollable relationship under which their autonomy is threatened.

In a sense we are moving towards the idea that INGOs are autonomous bodies which at any one time may each have working links with "neighbouring" INGOs — or may temporarily be working in isolation. As Figure 2 shows, this type of situation results in a "network" of organizations. It is not a frozen structure but a "dynamic" one. Each day new patterns of links are created some new links are formed, some links are terminated. Some patterns of links are more permanent than others — but all links have their part to play in the activity of the network :

Link	
+ 10 years	< permanent > working contacts
+ 5 years	links for long term programs (eg coordination of complementary programs)
+ 2 years	links for short term projects (eg organization of a large conference)
+ 1 year	links (or specific tasks (eg. joint publication of a book or brochure)

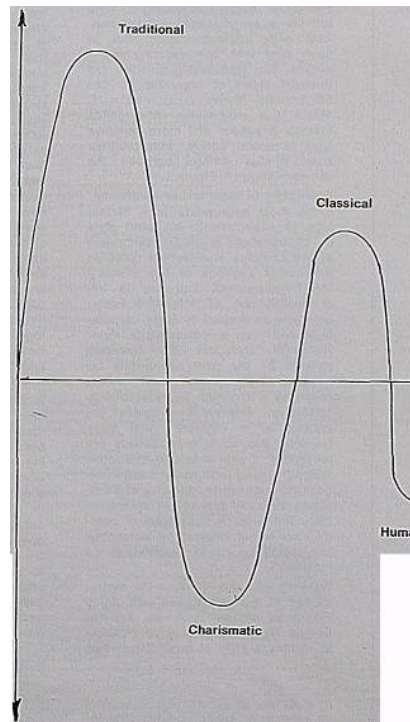
(1) These five styles and their descriptions are based on an excellent typology given in : Peter F. Rudge. Ministry and Management ; the study of ecclesiastical administration. London, Tavistock, 1968. Descriptions have however been much modified in a number of cases, the sixth style and some points have been added.
(2) op. cit.
(3) Donald Schon. Beyond the Stable State. (See article based on his book, by A.J.N. Judge Wanted : new types of social entity. . International Associations .. March, 1971 p.148-170).

(4) The Systemic style defined in Table 1 has been modified from that suggested by Peter Rudge to clarify this distinction.

* 1 month links for very specific points of common interest (eg. exchange of letters and documents following contact at meeting)

Figure 1. Indication of the succession of management style extremes and the convergence over time on a more balanced form

Excessively organized and «efficient»; impersonal, centralized; exclusive definition of relevance



Excessively disorganized and « inefficient »; personal, decentralized; over-sensitive to too many immediate problems

Network Action Strategy

The problem for INGOs is to develop a way of increasing the dynamism and strength of the network without retreating to the unsuccessful formula of the coordinating umbrella body — which is probably following the dinosaurs into social history. Clues to a new action strategy can be obtained by looking at the now well-developed Systemic style.

The Systemic style has been specifically developed for closed-systems; that is to say for an organization and those parts of its environment with which it thinks it should be in contact. Every other outside influence is systematically excluded. But the relations

between the parts of the organizational system are conceived as being very sophisticated and subtle. It would seem possible to « translate » these features of the closed-system into open-system features by thinking of the INGOs not as interlinked parts of a closed system but as autonomous interdependent organs within an open society — the social system as a whole. The Systemic style may then be said to be applicable to one organizational system, whereas the Network style is applicable to many interacting organizations. This might be considered a mere transposition of the Systemic style to a different level, but for one factor. In order for an organization to respond to the

network environment of the open society, it must become less introverted and exclusive in its concerns, and as such one can speak of the emergence of a new organization style both externally for the network as a whole and internally for the organization itself. The stress is on interaction and interdependence, however the choice of interactant and form of relationship is entirely autonomous. Peter Budge (5) has summarized the characteristics of the Systemic style. In the light of the above comments, we can attempt to translate and modify these for the inter-organizational setting. The Network style may therefore be characterized by :

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| <p>(a) emphasis on the contribution of special knowledge, competence and experience by any appropriate INGO to the common task of any ad hoc group of INGOs set up for a specific task</p> <p>(b) the « realistic » nature of the program of any INGO which is seen as set by its perception of the most significant problems for which it is competent, in terms of the information which it has managed to receive.</p> <p>(c) the adjustment and continual redefinition by each INGO of its programs through interaction with and in response to others ; the network is conceived as constantly changing and evolving, sub-networks of INGOs with a special interest in common come into existence for any required period ; INGOs may each be participating in any number of such partial networks; partial networks are deliberately terminated when no longer useful.</p> <p>(d) the shedding of «responsibility» as a limited field of rights, obligations and methods (e.g., world</p> | <p>problems may not be systematically ignored as being some other organizations sole responsibility)</p> <p>(e) the spread of commitment of an INGO to society as a whole beyond any technical definition of programs or legal definitions of constitution or statutes.</p> <p>(f) a network structure of control, authority, and communication ; the sanctions which apply to the individual INGO's conduct in its working role derive more from presumed community of interest with the rest of the network in the survival and evolution of the open society, and less from any temporary contractual relationship between the INGO and some body recognized as coordinator for the program in question.</p> <p>(g) omniscience no longer imputed to key organizations in the network ; knowledge about the economic, social, cultural, scientific, technical, etc. problems of the immediate task may be located anywhere in the organi-</p> | <p>zational network ; this location may, if appropriate, become the ad hoc centre of control, authority and communication for that task.</p> <p>(h) lateral rather than vertical direction of communication through the network, communication between organizations of different status ; consultative contacts are emphasized with each participant adjusting its programs in consequence if it perceives such adjustment to be warranted.</p> <p>(i) a content of communication between INGOs which consists of information and advice rather than instructions and decisions.</p> <p>(j) commitment to the problems of the development of the open society is more highly valued than loyalty and obedience to the individual INGO.</p> <p>(k) importance and prestige attach to affiliation of the INGO to professional, scientific or cultural networks not directly concerned with the INGO's immediate program tasks.</p> |
|---|--|---|

Each of these points concerning inter-organizational relations may require some adjustment in the internal organization of the INGO and more specifically to the way the organization conceives itself. Although comment has been restricted to the INGO network, this is clearly intimately related to the network of governmental agencies to that of business enterprises and to that of the academic community.

The organizational network is an « organic » form appropriate to today's rapidly changing conditions which constantly give rise to fresh problems and unforeseen requirements for action — requirements which cannot be rapidly and satisfac-

torily distributed to organizations working in isolation within rigidly defined programs. The network permits all the decentralization necessary to satisfy the need for autonomous organizational development and individual initiative. It also provides for very rapid centralization, canalization and focussing of resources the moment any complex problem (or natural disaster) emerges which requires the talents of a particular configuration or constellation of INGOs (or other bodies). The centralization is only binding on the INGOs concerned with the problem in question, and for the period during which they have a common cause » and in no way affects others in the network. The network is.

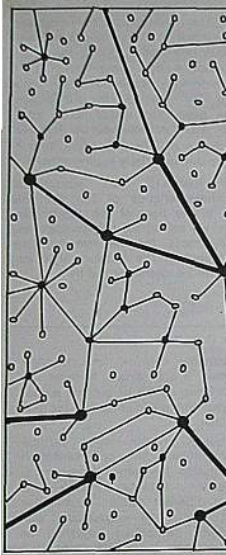
furthermore, multidimensional in character since INGOs may centralize themselves to different extents in many different partial networks and at the same time decentralize (or disassociate) themselves on other issues.

The network is not « coordinated » by any body : the participating bodies coordinate themselves so that one may speak of « auto-coordination » rather than coordination. Similarly the network as a whole is not « directed » or « controlled » by any body, rather it is « self-directing » and self-adap-

ting.

A.J.

(5) Op. Cit. p. 30.



Network with respect to Issue A
(same organisations as for Issue B,
but different pattern of links^(*))

	Organi- zations	Links
Primary	22	34
Secondary	33	8
Tertiary	147	228
Isolates	58	n.a.
Isolated groupe	4	n.a.

i.e. network is more integrated, with fewer isolates; but some primary coordinating bodies are only related via tertiary links.

Network with respect to Issue B
(same organizations as for Issue B,
but different pattern of links^(*))

	Organi- zations	Links
Primary	8	9
Secondary	12	0
Tertiary	140	130
Isolates	100	n.a.
Isolated groups	34	n.a.

i.e. network is less integrated, with more isolates; but all primary coordinating bodies are related via primary links.

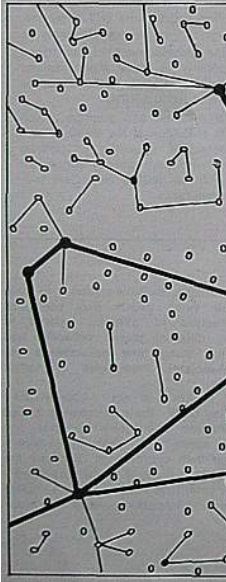


Figure 2. Illustration of how one part of the world network of organizations might appear with respect to two different issues (or, alternatively, at two different dates).

^(*) Organizations may be of primary, secondary or tertiary significance to the network in response to any given issue, or they may operate as isolates.

ASSOCIATIONS INTERNATIONALES, 1972

**RELATIONS
BETWEEN
ORGANIZATIONS**

**A CRITICAL REVIEW
OF THE LITERATURE**

Brian C. Aldrich*

Interorganizational relations constitute the primary basis (or understanding the linkage between major elements in the social system. Determination of the causes and consequences of such links provides clues to understanding the dynamics of both organizations and the larger society. Voluntary organizations, or those formal social units whose energies come principally from « free labor » and/or whose direction and control is without financial remuneration, are one such set of organizations. The encompassing term « interorganizational relations » is far from analytically precise, and part of the justification for the following review lies in the attempt to specify different classes of indicators, the variables they indicate, and some theoretical rationale used in connection with them. The remainder of the task is to examine, in the limited literature which is available, some causes and consequences such relations have for voluntary and other organizations.

There are two principal ways to conceptualize interorganizational relations :

1. As relations between subparts of a larger unit, such as the level of relations between organizations in a community (Aiken and Alford, 1970; Warren, 1967) ;
2. or, as relations between a particular organization or social unit and other social units, such as between selected voluntary organizations and other organizations (Aiken and Hage, 1968; Lef-ton and Rosengren, 1966).

In the first instance, relations between subparts are hypothesized (or examined) for the possible effect upon, say, performance or some other attribute of the entire unit, such as a community. In the second instance, relations between a focal organization and others are examined in order to understand yet another aspect of the organization, such as its innovation. Again, in the first instance, interorganizational relations are « intra » system or between subunits of a larger unit ; analogous to relations between departments in an organization, whereas in the latter they are relations between systems or units.

While the measurement in both instances may be similar, the level of analysis is very dissimilar. To suggest that the performance of an organization or of a community is in part a consequence of its links with the larger system, is quite different from arguing that the internal relations between community organization has consequences for the performance of the entire community. Furthermore, when examining the interunit links in social organization, it is not necessary to have an exhaustive set of the other units involved. Nor must we assume that the set is the same for all the organizations, or that different issues involve the same set.

TYPES OF INTERORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS

There is a great deal of latitude in the designation of relations between organizations. They can vary from generalized « industry tradition » (Cyert and March, 1963) and « domain consensus » (Levine, et. at 1963) to explicit « uncertainty-absorbing contracts » and other formalized relations (Parsons, 1960). The area of voluntary associations, where cooperative relations are a normative expectation, is a good arena for observation, in contrast to the negative evaluation of such relations in business and industry.

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Paper for the American Sociological Association Seminar
Session on « Volunteer Action Theory and Research : Steps
Toward Synthesis, » Washington, D.C., August, 1970.

Johns and Marche (1951) have provided a basic classification of relations between agencies in health and welfare. These involve :

1. Furthering acquaintances with other agency leaders ;
2. Those resulting in exchange of information ;
3. Specific consultation with agencies ;
4. Definite planning with representatives of other agencies ;
5. Definite operating responsibilities with representatives of other agencies.

Black and Kase (1963) overlap this list with one which includes :

1. Informal understandings between agencies ;
2. Formalized referral procedures ;
3. Functional coordination ;
4. Joint programs or sharing of forces ;
5. Interdisciplinary staff for pilot projects.

Most of these are involved in direct provision of services, while the Johns and Marche list includes planning as well.

Klonglan, et. al. (1969), in an examination of agency attempts to alter the care system for alcoholics, includes the representation of other agencies on the board of the agency and in-service, training of other staff. Levine, et. al. (1963) list the resources which agencies exchange, including referrals (clients), information and finances.

Others emphasize one or more of the above relations or exchanges (Reid, 1964 ; Aiken and Hage, 1968 ; E. Gumming, 1968 ; Eichhorn and Wysong, 1968 ; Warren, 1967). In a study of interrelations between municipal governments, Friesema (1968) lists the extent of cooperative agreements regarding the use of such municipal services as police, fire and libraries.

Two other studies, in a more sociometric orientation, measure the relations between organizations on the basis of the following questions :

(A) « What organization does your organization deal with in carrying out its business ? » (Anderson, 1967),

(B) « In carrying out its activity or work, how frequently, if ever, does your organization deal with each of the following organizations ? » (Sutton, undated).

These involve measures of interaction between two or more organizations in a designated field. A more sophisticated sociometric measurement was developed by Bernstein and Weldon (1968) involving diplomatic, military, economic and other kinds of relations between countries.

At the present time, these articles and studies constitute an adequate basis for indicating the nature of the relations between organizations in most institutional areas except business and industry. But it is unclear whether they constitute a scale of ascending degree of interdependency, or whether each of the items has independent explanatory values *vis-a-vis* other attributes (Johns and Marche, 1951 ; Bernstein and Weldon, 1968). One possible distinction which can be made along these lines is to distinguish between « institutional » relations, such as domain consensus, overlapping boards and committees, and other consensus and control-maintaining activities, - operational » ones. The latter would include information exchange, referrals, and shared resources of various kinds in joint or pilot projects. The former may be based upon common values and understandings, and the latter upon complementarities in task. Relations

on the operational level need not follow from those on the institutional, or vice versa. B. J. F. Mott (1965) points out that organizations may come together in a coordinating council to determine sources of common interest and cooperation, including both their internal programming and their relations with the larger society, such as legislatures and publics, while at the same time remain highly competitive at the operational level over new programs, target populations, or sources of funds. While this is only an instance, it does suggest a basis for differentiation along at least two dimensions.

THE BASIS FOR INTERORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS :

When examining particular organizations, what factors appear to be related to variations in relations with other organizations ? Again, the literature is sparse on this subject, but more and more material is becoming available. W. Reid (1964) argues that coordination (ad hoc case coordination, systematic case coordination, and program coordination) between organizations is based primarily upon the need for resources to achieve goals ; the level of coordination (value of goods and services exchanged) being a function of whether agencies share the same goals, have complementary resources, and need « efficient mechanisms for controlling whatever exchanges are involved. » Here it is the characteristics of both agencies which is necessary to predict relations between them. Walter Miller (1958) lists several factors leading to conflict between agencies concerned with juvenile delinquency, which when reversed, suggest bases for cooperative relations. These include :

1. Similar assumptions about how juvenile delinquency is viewed ;
2. Similar assumptions about the focus of deviant behavior ;
3. Similar methods of dealing with offenders ;
4. Similarity of priorities in program ;
5. Similarity in organizing preventative programs ;
6. Similarity in qualifications and status of personnel in program

Assuming these can be examined in variable form, they become predictors of cooperation among two or more organizations. Barth (1963) suggests dissimilarities akin to these, adding competition for resources and autonomous organizations in the same area of interest as additional factors — which concern for cooperative relations would also have to consider.

Form and Nosow (1958) conclude that similarity of structure and congruent expectations lead to cooperation between organizations in a disaster, while Douds and Rubenstein (1966) hypothesize that structural differences between organizations or unit is associated with low levels of interface communication. Russett (1968) in a study of alliances between nations suggests that the level of cultural, political, and economic bounds would be highly correlated with the extent of alliances. Bernstein and Weldon (1968), in the same area of study concluded that those nations which were highly differentiated externally would tend to articulate more extensively with nations at similar levels of differentiation.

Fewer studies exist specifying the relationship between particular attributes of organizations and the nature and extent of their interorganizational relations. Hage and Aiken (1968) have shown in a

study of sixteen health and welfare organizations how the number of joint projects an organization has with other organizations is related to its complexity, degree of innovation, decentralization and level of internal communication. MYTINGER, (1968), in a study of public health agencies, shows how size of staff, special training programs, etc., are related to contacts with other organizations, presence of health in the area plan, and other measures of the integration of health concerns into the community.

Bernstein (1968) concludes that the level of internal differentiation in nations is related to the extent of external articulation and external differentiation. Douds and Rubenstein (1966), in a similar vein, hypothesize that the level of internal communication and tolerance will be correlated with the level of communication and tolerance in relations with other project groups, and further, that the greater the number of levels between the unit and the liaison with other projects, the greater the conflict with these other groups. Lefton and Rosengren (1966) and Eichhorn and Wysong (1968) show that the broader the concerns of the organization for the client, the greater the extent of interorganizational relations.

In order to distinguish between the two different levels of analysis and the role of interorganizational links in each, it is necessary to examine some of the assumptions which underly them, and which provide the rationale for one strategy rather than another. There appear to be three different but overlapping sets of assumptions which would lead to the study of interunit relations. The first of these involves the implicit assumption that cooperative relations are « good, » i.e., have beneficial effects upon performance, through efficient use of resources (Warren 1967; Reid 1964; Douds and Rubenstein, 1966), coordination of efforts, and nonduplication of services. Gunning (1968), however, has documented how such relations may also be conceived of as a system of control over deviants ; variously defined. What, therefore, may appear to be highly efficient and cooperative relations from one perspective may from another be the basis for the negation of any far-reaching change. Experiences with government programs from urban renewal to Peace Corps should have alerted sociologists to both the problems of measuring performance in the arena of social change, and to the consequences such programs have at various levels within the system.

A second kind of rationale — which fits with the first in some respects, sees interorganizational relations as a means whereby organizations can maximize their use of resources in the interest of innovation and change (Hage and Aiken, 1968 ; Levine, White and Paul, 1963). The focus here is upon creating the conditions, in organizations or communities, for achieving higher levels of cooperative relations or joint programs which facilitate resource maximization. Again, it has been pointed out that maximization of resources vis-a-vis other social units can also be another form of dominance. Morris and Rein (1968) and Connery (1968) point out the way in which public welfare organizations have come to dominate the provision of social services as a result of increased nonlocal sources of income. Maximization of resources through joint programs may be a form of dominance as well as of efficiency. It is a question which needs further study.

A third area, and one which is relatively underdeveloped in the consideration of interorganizational relations, is the assumption that contracts, domain consensus, overlapping boards, joint planning and programs, are responses to environmental uncertainties (Cyert and March 1963) which center around problematic contingencies. Mott's (1968) study of a coordinating council suggests this. The organizations which were attended most regularly were those directly affected by the council's jurisdiction. And it became the basis for working out emerging problems between the agencies having to do with the implementation of federal and state legislation. The study suggests that interorganizational relations may fruitfully be examined from the standpoint of how they are related to particular kinds of problems and issues in the larger system, and the extent to which change or stability will affect its level of uncertainty.

Again, interorganizational relations are variables in the linkage of social units. The more we understand how these linkages work, the more we will understand about the dynamics of social organization. More precise, analytic, comparative, and inter-institutional work is needed before a clearer outline of these relations appears. Voluntary organizations, where such relations are more visible, and whose complexity and size is less extreme, are an ideal focus for the expansion of our knowledge.

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Developments Complicating the Classification of International Organizations

and some possible alternatives

by Richard Y. CHUANG

The nineteenth and twentieth centuries have seen the rapid development of, among other things, technology and communications. This development not only facilitates contacts, personal or by communications, between peoples and states but also accelerates their transactions across the national boundaries. This has been followed, as a consequence, by modifications in the method and organization of the international society, including the establishment of numerous public and private international organizations.

Prior to the nineteenth century, transactions¹ between states were usually conducted through diplomatic channels, i.e., communications between foreign offices, and treaties concluded with much formality. The complex structure of the modern international society has made it necessary that the corresponding departments of governments make contact from time to time. Agreements concluded directly between them are not unusual and many of the formalities have been dispensed with.¹ Organizations are also established as a result of an agreement concluded directly between them. For example, the African Telecommunications Union was established by the African Telecommunications Agreement, 1948, concluded between the Telecommunications Administrations of some African states and European colonies. The parties to the agreement are expressly designated as «The Administrations,» and the agreement is subject to the approval of their governments.

The activities of states transcending national boundaries are not confined only to the executive branch of the government. Organizations

I. Introduction : Developments Causing Complications

have been established by members of the national parliaments or by the parliament as a unit, such as the Nordic Council and the Inter-Parliamentary Union.

Agreements are concluded and sometimes organizations are established between municipalities of states such as the International Union of Local Authorities, the Council of European Municipalities and the Inter-American Municipal Organizations. Agreements are reported to have been concluded between member states of the United States and some foreign authorities.²

Another line of organizational development within the state since the nineteenth century has been the establishment of public corporations and mixed enterprises (corporations). While they may not be considered as departments proper of a government, they are certainly connected with the executive or the legislative branch of the government. Legally as well as structurally, they are in the boundary zone of governmental and private organizations. Many associations have been established by public corporations or authorities, usually together with private entities, belonging to different states, for example, the International Air Transport Association. Its members include B.O.A.C., B.E.A., Air France, SAS, etc., which are public corporations or mixed enterprises, and TWA, PAA, Nwa, etc., which are private companies.

These developments cause considerable problems for the classification of international organizations. This paper attempts to evaluate the existing methods of classification and to provide some possible alternatives.

International organizations have usually been classified into two broad categories : public international organizations and private international organizations, or inter-governmental organizations and non-governmental organizations.³ The purpose of making this distinction varies. First, it may be political rather than legal, such as importance and prestige. Second, it is concerned with their legal status in national and international law. Inter-governmental organizations (IGO's) may have international legal personality and may enjoy privileges and immunities and have the capacity to conclude treaties or bring international claims. The non-governmental organizations (NGO's), as a general rule, do not. Third, it may serve some special purposes, such as making consultative *arrangements*.

The Economic and Social Council of the United Nations adopted one negative test, although for the purpose of consultation only, that « any international organization which is not established

II. Some Existing Methods of Classification

by inter-governmental agreement shall be considered as a non-governmental organization for the purposes of these arrangements. » A casual look at the list given by the ECOSOC would dispel some doubt about the seriousness of this criterion since many organizations which are usually considered as inter-governmental organizations but are not established by « inter-governmental agreement » in its strict sense are not at all listed as non-governmental organizations with which it has made consultative arrangements. A number of organizations have been established in pursuance of a resolution or proposal adopted at a diplomatic conference, for example, the International Wool Study Group, the Asian-African Legal Consultative Committee and the Colombo Plan Council.⁴ Some others have been established in pursuance of a resolution adopted by a conference not even convened in the name of the state. For example, the International Criminal Police Commission was established as a result of a conference convened by the police president of Vienna.⁵ Some organizations are established by parallel decisions of the parliaments of several states without a constituent treaty among the states, such as the Nordic Council. Although most inter-governmental organizations are established by a treaty or international agreement, the latter is not a necessary condition. What is important is that international organs exist.⁶

The International Law Commission of the United Nations adopted, in another context, two negative tests for distinguishing organizations. Accordingly, an organization to be qualified as an international organization (inter-governmental organization) has, in addition to being established by a treaty, to consist of members which are states. The term « treaty » is even more restrictive than « inter-governmental agreement, » therefore, the same objections raised to the latter may also be applied to the former. The other criterion « members must be states » needs some further elaboration. First, it is not known whether members should be states exclusively. According to the Statute of the International Bureau of Education, non-state and non-territorial entities may be admitted into the Bureau as full members with rights and obligations equal to those of state members. Article 4 of the Statute reads : « the bodies named below shall be recognized as members of the International Bureau of Education : any government, public institution, or international organization, paying a minimum annual contribution of 10,000 Swiss francs, may, subject to the approval of the Council, also become a member. » It is to be noted that none of the seventeen articles of the Statute makes any distinction between the state members and non-state members with regard to their rights and obligations. It is unknown, however, whether the inter-governmental character of the Bureau would change if a non-state entity were admitted into it. Of course, one

could argue that the non-state entity's participation as a member in the Bureau is only possible when the provisions of the treaty expressly provide so. However, the point is that the membership of an inter-governmental organization does not have to be, intrinsically, composed of states exclusively. Likewise, an organization which is established initially by private individuals may later include state membership. Second, some of the international instruments expressly indicate that the parties to the instrument are administrations not the governments or states themselves, such as the African Telecommunications Agreement mentioned above. In this case the administrations should be able to represent the states, especially when the agreement is subject to the approval of the governments concerned. Thus the membership of the Union, the Administrations, can be imputed to states. In case there is no express provision to subject agreements to the approval of governments, whether the agreement is binding on states or the membership can be imputed to states is a question of evidence or of proper authority. It will ultimately depend on the public internal law of each state. Unfortunately, most laws of states are silent on this matter. It is submitted that inter-department or inter-authority⁷ agreements are probably the deliberate creation of inter-state practice. The agreements so concluded should be binding upon the states. In a recent case (*Loschetter v. Public Prosecutor, Luxembourg*, High Court of Justice, Dec. 3, 1960, reported in **International Law Reports**, Vol. 31, 1966, pp. 425-426) a court held that « notwithstanding that the Protocol had not been signed by the Luxembourg Head of State, as required by the Luxembourg constitution, it was a valid international agreement. The procedure used for the conclusion of these agreements matters little because the form of international agreements is determined freely by state practice ». Thus if an organization is established pursuant to the agreement, the membership should be imputed to the states themselves. Third, it is important to note here that it is not part of the criteria⁸ listed by Dr. Seyersted that an inter-governmental organization is to be constituted by, and composed of, any particular organs of the member states. The organization referred to is the Nordic Council, which is composed of representatives of parliaments of the five Scandinavian states. Obviously he considers that the representatives of parliaments can represent the states in the Council, but he did not give reasons why. It is presumably based on the authorizing act or decision passed by each parliament, and parliament, is one of the three branches of the government. This draws attention to the Inter-Parliamentary Union, whose members are composed of national groups constituted in parliaments in states recognized as subjects of international law. Statutory authority for United States participation is contained

in an act of Congress. According to Seyersted's criteria, it may also be considered as an inter-governmental organization. The relevant point seems to rest on who are the organs of the state and which one or ones can represent the state. Fourth, even though an international agreement is concluded between states, the members of the organization established pursuant to the agreement are not necessarily the states themselves. The Bank for International Settlements and a host of the so-called «treaty corporations» are cases in point. Presumably the central banks, as in the case of the BIS, may represent the states.

Despite the above criticisms about the criteria, several conclusions can be reached. First, the most important requirement for constituting an inter-governmental organization is that governments themselves, or a branch of the government such as the parliament, or departments or agencies which can represent the governments, participate in the organization. The agencies which can represent the governments are most likely to be the central agencies, i.e., on a national level, such as the central banks and national academies.⁹ Second, members of the IGO in most cases are states exclusively. Only occasionally does it admit non-state entities to membership. Third, a great majority of IGO's are established pursuant to a resolution or proposal adopted by an inter-governmental conference. Only occasionally are they established by parallel decisions of some organs of the states. Fourth, almost all IGO's, except some treaty corporations, are unincorporated, even though a headquarters agreement is usually concluded between the organization and the host state. Fifth, most IGO's enjoy immunity from the local jurisdiction in their member states. They may or may not have international legal personality. It is admitted that one may readily distinguish the IGO's by some or all of the characteristics described above from the INGO's, whose members are composed entirely of private individuals and entities. It may be relatively difficult to distinguish the IGO's from the organizations of a mixed type whose members are composed of either public corporations exclusively or together with private entities of with the participation of states.

III. Greyer Area : Organizations of the Mixed-type

There exist a number of organizations whose members are composed of private and public entities — public corporations or authorities — of different states. The legal status of the public corporations in municipal law varies from state to state and from type to type within the same state. Generally, a public corporation may belong to one of three categories : the depart-

mental administration, the joint stock company controlled completely or partly by government, and the public corporation proper, as a distinct type of corporation different from the private-law company.¹⁰ The first group enjoys some kind of privileges and immunities; the second, little, if any; and the third, a status in between. The general trend is to assimilate them to the status of ordinary commercial companies with the exception of those engaged in social services. However, when shifting from the national to the international sphere, it has been maintained by many states that public corporations or state trading companies are instrumentalities of the state, and therefore they should enjoy the rights of sovereign immunity, even though these corporations or companies are usually granted a separate legal personality in national laws. There is little agreement on the criteria for determining when they continue and when they cease to be sovereign organs. Professor Hyde once warned that « a state never acts in a private capacity, even when the activity in which it participates is one which is commonly confined to and carried on by the private individuals. » On the other hand, the mode of incorporation is no more decisive than the distinction *jure imperii* and *jure gestionis*. This problem cannot be solved automatically by analysis of either the legal status of the entity or its functions but only by appreciation of its political role.¹¹ If this is the case, what will be the legal status of an association whose members are composed of public corporations either exclusively or together with private entities, such as the International Broadcast Union. Those organizations whose members are composed of public and private corporations together with a number of governments pose further complications, since in this case the governments can and do represent the states. The Permanent International Association of Road Congress is a concrete example. These organizations can be called either « privately controlled mixed organizations » or « officially (government) controlled mixed organizations ».¹² Their legal status is difficult to determine.

From the fact that most of these organizations are incorporated in a certain state, it is theoretically possible to maintain that they are subject to the national laws of the place of incorporation. Thus legally they are national organizations. They are different from the treaty corporation in that the latter, if incorporated in a certain state, may be interpreted in such a way that the sovereign states merely incorporate the laws of a certain state into the treaty. Thus the treaty corporation is theoretically only subject to the provisions of the treaty.¹³ On the other hand, these mixed-type organizations are in principle subject to the laws of the forum unless the charter of associations provides otherwise. The fact that governments voluntarily participate in

IV. A Functional Approach to the Legal Status of « Non-governmental » Organizations

the association may imply they agree to conform with the laws of the forum and thereby give up sovereign immunity beforehand. However, the exact legal status of each of them may still depend upon the factual situation besides incorporation.

Taking again the Permanent International Association of Road Congress for example, the Association seems to be the result of a diplomatic conference convened by the French Government in 1908.¹⁵ Membership of the Association is mainly of three types : National governments, corporations, and individuals. The governing body is composed exclusively of government representatives. Among other powers, it can modify the rules of the Association, but rules only. The plenary organ is the congress, held every four years. Each member government is entitled to one delegate for each 250 francs of its annual subscription and each corporation one delegate for each 100 francs. Voting is by delegates of member governments and corporations and by individual members with decision by a majority of the votes cast. The congress may change the structure, policy and procedure of the Association. So far as the governing body is concerned, it amounts to an inter-governmental organization, except that it might be controlled by non-state members when their voting power is greater than all state members combined in the congress. While it is difficult to state the exact legal status, it is unconvincing to consider it as a French entity merely by the fact that it is registered under the French law. Lador-Lederer describes this kind of situation as a peculiar kind of functional federation.¹⁵

Certain writers object to « nationality by incorporation » since the only contact of these organizations with the national law of the host state is the accident of having a headquarters there or having incorporated there.¹⁶ Others maintain that as long as a formal link is believed to be necessary between these NGO's or INGO's and some municipal law there would be no satisfactory solution to the legal status of the former.¹⁷ Still others argue that if an organization is incorporated in State A and at the same time is also empowered to act abroad, then the organization is not to be considered as possessing the nationality of State A but is rather an international agency recognized by the law of State A.¹⁸ At present, the legal status of INGO's, at least in the mind of some writers, seems to be internationalized by means of « de-nationality ».¹⁹

From another angle, i.e., the functional²⁰ the international status of the INGO's may be greatly strengthened. It is maintained that « if it was once the personality which made a function international, it is now the function which confers legal internationality upon the entity which is engaged in such activity. »²¹ The immediate problem to this approach is whether this process, i.e., international function, confers legal internationality is automatic. In other words, is some kind of « recognition » by existing subjects of international law necessary ? While Lador-Lederer does not expressly state that « recognition » is necessary, he maintains that if certain conditions exist the community of states should « recognize » it and the character of recognition is nothing but declarative.²² This may be true of the recognition of non-territorial entities, the INGO's. Thus Dr Seyersted expresses the view, although in another context, that « if an organization does not fulfill the criteria (for objective international legal personality), it can be a subject of international law only if and to the extent that states have conferred international functions upon it, and only in relations to these states and to states which have expressly or by implication recognized these functions. »²³ This obviously is also a functional test, but the function is only one of the conditions. It goes along with the act of « conferring » and « recognizing. » Thus it represents the constitutive view. It is submitted that this view is consistent with the present practice of states. The most conspicuous way of recognition is by treaty, especially a multilateral treaty. The organization often mentioned is the International Committee of the Red Cross.²⁴ Several conventions, particularly the Geneva Convention of 1949, have acknowledged its humanitarian activities and have delegated certain powers to it in this field. The name of the ICRC is mentioned in more than sixty references and its international legal status within the limit of delegation is generally recognized.²⁵ Thus the agreements it concluded with states and inter-governmental organizations are considered as treaties and therefore are to be governed by international law.

The status of the ICRC is strengthened by some other factors which strictly speaking are not legal factors. First, its humanitarian activities are considered by some to be partially based on natural law. Second, it is the initiator of the Red Cross organizations. Third, Switzerland is a neutral country, therefore the ICRC is presumed to be, and in fact is, neutral too in exercising its functions. Otherwise there is not too much difference between it and other national Red Cross societies except that the ICRC is the only one mentioned by name in the 1949 Convention.

Some of the characteristics of the ICRC as a limited subject of international law appear to be also present in some other non-governmental

organizations. If the ICRC may have the capacity to conclude treaties, the Carnegie Foundation appears to have it too.²⁶ If the ICRC may enjoy immunity from local jurisdiction while performing humanitarian activities in other countries,²⁷ this is also true even of certain contractors when performing missions for the United Nations.²⁸ However, it must be admitted that perhaps no other non-religious,²⁹ non-territorial, and non-governmental organizations may have a general status of that sort.

To sum it up, a certain international status³⁰ is seen to exist if an NGO or INGO exercises international functions,³⁰ either conferred³¹ and/or recognized by the existing subjects of international law. The exercise of functions may be either operational or non-operational. The operational ones, such as exercised by the ICRC, national Red Cross Societies and other relief organizations, very often involve field activities. The organization itself usually acts. The non-operational ones, such as exercised by the Inter-Parliamentary Union, are usually of a deliberative type. They study, discuss questions and make recommendations. The recommendations are carried out through members individually. The organization itself usually does not act. Even if it acts, such as to bring the recommendation to the attention of certain international organizations, this does not usually involve field activities. Thus the necessary facilities, such as immunity from local jurisdiction, capacity to conclude treaties, etc., needed by each organization to perform its functions successfully, may differ.

Recognition may be either express, as by way of treaty,³² or by implication. The latter includes direct participation in the INGO's either in the name of the government³³ or in the name of public authorities or public corporations.³⁴ It is submitted that what is important is the international functions they perform rather than what their status is. Their status is still in the process of formation.³⁵

The criteria for classifying international organizations adopted by the UN International Law Commission, i.e., whether the organization is created by a treaty (in its broad sense) and whether members are states, are probably still the most useful and important ones since we have not found any organization possessing these two features which is not an inter-governmental organization. However, these two criteria are only « sufficient » conditions and not always « necessary » conditions. A number of other factors in addition to the above functional approach must be taken into account if an organization does not possess these two features.

V. Another Alternative :

A Partial Paradigm for Classification³⁶

In that case we usually cannot get a neat and clear category. Rather, the organization in question may be located anywhere along a continuum between the two extremes, i.e., purely inter-governmental and purely private organizations. The following is a partial paradigm for the classification of international organizations. Each variable is, as far as possible, arranged in the descending order of its governmental (or intergovernmental) character.

1. The legal source of its creation.

- (a) A formal international agreement or treaty which is also the constituent document of the organization : the UN, its specialized agencies, and most of the inter-governmental organizations.
- (b) A formal agreement or treaty which is not the constituent (or the sole constituent) document of the organization : Most of the so-called treaty corporations, such as the European Investment Bank, established in pursuance of Article -129 of the Rome Treaty, and the Bank for International Settlements.
- (c) A resolution or recommendation of an inter-governmental conference : the International Wool Study Group, the Asian-African Legal Consultative Committee, International Union of Railways.
- (d) Inter-departmental or inter-authority agreement : the Polish-Hungarian Mixed Commission of History, the African Telecommunications Union.
- (e) Parallel legislation of individual states : the Nordic Council.
- (f) Purely private contracts or agreements.

2. The legal source of the delegation of authority to non-governmental entities.³⁷

- (a) Multilateral treaty : the International Committee of the Red Cross, the Scandinavian Airways System.
- (b) Bilateral treaties or agreements : the IATA.
- (c) Parallel legislation of the individual states : the International Tea Agreement (Commission).

3. The nature of members.³⁸

- (a) Mainly inter-state or inter-governmental level.
 - 1. Exclusively sovereign states : most international organizations.
 - 2. Not-fully-independent political entities : UPU, ITO. However, they are usually associate members without the right to vote.
 - 3. Mainly sovereign states, but non-territorial entity can be admitted as a full member; the International Bureau of Education.
 - 4. A branch of government : the Nordic Council and to some extent the Inter-Parliamentary Union.
- (b) Mainly inter-departmental or inter-authority level.
 - 1. Exclusively organs, with a departmental or comparable status : The Polish-Hungarian Mixed Commission of History, the African Telecommunications Union.
 - 2. Mainly organs with a departmental or comparable status but with some private entities : the Bank for International Settlements, the International Union of Railways.
- (c) Sub-departmental level.³⁹
 - 1. Mainly public corporations : the International Broadcasting Union.⁴⁰
 - 2. Mainly public corporations as well as mixed enterprises ; IATA.

3. Mainly or entirely private enterprises : most of the shipping conferences.
- (d) Highly mixed : Government, corporation (public and private), and individuals.
The Permanent International Association of Road Congress, the Permanent International Association of Navigation Congress, the International Rice Research Institute,⁴⁰ the Pacific Area Travel Association,⁴² etc.
4. The degree of government control over the members.
- (a) Direct management of the enterprise,
(b) Legal and/or factual control.
(c) Only supervision and promotion.
5. Percentage of government ownership in the enterprise.
- (a) Complete.
(b) More than 50 percent.
(c) Minority holding.
- (d) in case (c), has the government any special rights ?
6. Is permission for the member to participate needed ?
- The participation of the United States in the Inter-parliamentary Union and the Permanent international Association of Road Congress are authorized by the United States Congress.
7. Does the organization enjoy certain diplomatic (or sovereign) immunity or privilege ?

⁴⁰ Professor Chuang is Assistant Professor of Political Science at Northern State College, Aberdeen, South Dakota.

This article was taken from Professor Chuang's recent book, *The International Air Transport Association*, (1972, Leiden, A.W. Sijthoff).

Résumé de l'article de M. Chuang (p.31)

A la suite des progrès de la technologie et des communications au cours du 20^e siècle, les moyens de diriger les relations entre les états ont changé. Les contacts ne se font plus par les seules « voies diplomatiques », ni exclusivement au niveau exécutif des gouvernements. Actuellement, les départements spécialisés des divers gouvernements, et même des organismes au niveau local peuvent correspondre directement entre eux. Cette complication, aussi bien que l'apparition des sociétés publiques et des organismes « mixtes » (semi-gouvernementaux et semi-privés) rend nécessaire une révision des méthodes de classement des OING. Le moyen le plus simple pour établir la distinction entre les OIG et les ONG est de relever les traits propres aux OIGs ; ceux-ci sont au nombre de trois ; i) les gouvernements eux-mêmes, ou les agences qui les représentent, participent à l'organisation ; ii) les membres de l'OIG sont presque exclusivement les états, et iii) l'organisation doit sa création à une conférence intergouvernementale.

Une zone moins facile à classer est celle des organisations « mixtes » — c.a.d. groupant des participations publiques et privées. L'Association internationale permanente des congrès de la route est un tel organisme, dont les membres sont des organismes publics et privés, ainsi que de nombreux gouvernements. Même si la plupart de ces organisations relèvent d'un statut national un certain pays, Us ne peuvent pas être correctement considérés comme de simples parties de cet état. On voit qu'une certaine position internationale existe si l'OIG ou l'OING exerce des fonctions internationales, soit en accord soit reconnues par des sujets existants des lois internationales. Cette exerce des fonctions peut être soit opérationnel soit délibératif. La reconnaissance de ces organismes peut être formelle, par les moyens d'un accord, soit impliquée. Au terme de l'article, l'auteur propose un paradigme de classement comme une alternative aux critères établis par les Nations Unies, conditions à ses yeux « suffisantes » mais pas * indispensables ». Les nouveaux critères de classement proposés comprennent : l'origine légale de l'organisme, la source légale du partage de l'autorité, le type de membres, le degré de contrôle gouvernemental sur les membres, et le pourcentage de propriété gouvernementale dans l'entreprise. En outre ; l'autorisation éventuelle à solliciter de l'autorité gouvernementale nationale pour la participation à l'OIG, les exemptions ou privilèges diplomatiques, M. Chuang pense que de tels critères pourraient présider efficacement au classement des organismes internationaux.

FOOTNOTES

1. Mervyn Jones, « International Agreements Other Than 'Inter-States Treaties' — Modern Developments. » 21 *British Yearbook of International Law* 110-120 (1949).
2. Raymond Spencer Rodgers, « The Capacity of States of the Union to Conclude International Agreements : The Background and Some Recent Development. » 61 *American Journal of International Law* 1021-1028 (1967).
3. The term « inter-governmental » is a misnomer. Governments being merely the representatives of the states, it should be « inter-state ».
4. Amos J. Peaslee, *International Governmental Organizations* (The Hague : Martinus Nijhoff, 1961), 2nd rev. ed., Vol. 2, pp. 1560-1562, Vol. 1, pp. 40-41, 262-263.
5. The participation of the United States was authorized by an act of Congress. The Attorney General of the Department of Justice was authorized to accept and maintain representation on behalf of the United States in the Commission. Cf. Department of State, *International Agencies in which the United States Participates*, 1947, pp. 211-215. (Hereafter to be cited as *International Agencies*.)
6. Finn Seyersted, *Objective International Personality of Inter-Governmental Organizations* (Copenhagen, 1963), pp. 51-52.
7. The term « inter-authority » has been used by Soviet writers to denote an organization whose members are composed of government institutions or agencies directly dependent on governments. See Peter Vas-Zoltan, «Aspects of Defining International Scientific Organizations, » *International Associations*, 1965, No. 4, pp. 198-205.
8. The criteria are used for the purpose of establishing the objective international personality of inter-governmental organizations, see Seyersted, op. cit., p. 47.
9. For instance, the Academy Sinica of the Republic of China is directly subordinate to the Office of the President of the Republic; immunity was granted by a N. Y. court to Hungarian National Museum [38 N.Y.S. 2d 419 (1942)]¹ on the ground that it was a government instrumentality exercising governmental functions and was administered by a ministry; an Italian court granted immunity to the Hungarian Academy in Rome after ascertaining that the Academy was an organ of the Ministry of Culture and Education according to Hungarian law (Hungarian Ecclesiastical and Pontifical Institute v. Academy of Hungary in Rome, 88 *Clunet* 837 (1961)).
10. Wolfgang Friedmann (ed.), *The Public Corporations* (Toronto, 1954), p. 547.
11. D.P. O'Connell, *International Law* (London N. Y., 1965), Vol. 2, pp. 946-951.
12. These terms are used by Lyman C. White, see his *International Non-Governmental Organizations* (Rutgers University Press, 1951), p. 8.
13. « Corporations Formed Pursuant to Treaty, » 76 *Harvard Law Review* 1403-1432 (1962-1963), p. 1437.
14. It is not known whether « an international Road Congress called by the French Government » is an inter-governmental conference. See *International Agencies* pp. 280-287.
15. J. J. Lador-Lederer, *International Non-Governments' Organizations* (Leyden : A. W. Sythoff, 1963), p. 330. He is actually referring to the Permanent International Association of Navigation Congress, which has similar structure as the Permanent International Association of Road Congress.
16. R. S. Rodgers, «A General Theory of International Organizations», *International Associations*, 1961, No 2 pp. 88-93, at p. 92.
17. Lador-Lederer, op. cit., p. 212.
18. C. H. Alexandrowicz, *World Economic Agencies : Law and Practice*, 1962, p. 272. The case he referred to is the International Air Transport Association.
19. This is certainly the case of most of the « treaty corporations » developed at a relatively later date. See footnote 13 above and Lador-Lederer, op. cit., p. 305.
20. C. Chaumont, « Les perspectives d'une théorie de Service public à l'usage de Droit International », In *La technique et les principes du droit public — études en l'honneur de Georges Scelle*, Paris, 1950; G. Scelle, *Précis de Droit de Gens*, Paris, 1932 : works cited in footnote 7 at p. 3 of J. P. Chamberlain, et. al. *International Organization* (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1954).
21. Lador-Lederer, op. cit., p. 14, p. 215.
22. Lador-Lederer, op. cit., pp. 210-221.
23. Seyersted, op. cit., p. 57.
24. ICRC is not even an INGO so far as its membership is concerned. It is composed of Swiss citizens exclusively.
25. J. Pictet, « La Croix-Rouge et les Conventions de Genève, » *Recueil des Cours*, 1950; Paul Ruegger, « The Juridical Aspects of the Organization of the Inter-Red Cross. » 82 *Ibid.*, 483-585 (1953/1); See especially Auguste-Raynald Werner, *La Croix-Rouge et les Conventions de Genève*, Imprimé, 1943.
26. See Seyersted, op. cit. footnote 138 at p. 55.
27. It is to be noted that despite the fact that several conventions have delegated certain powers to the ICRC, most of these powers (functions) cannot be exercised without the consent of the states concerned in each particular case. See, especially, J. Pictet, *Commentaire de la 1ère Convention de Genève de 1949*, Imprimé, 1952.
28. C. W. Jenks, *International Immunities* (New York : Oceana, 1961), pp. 142-144.
29. Thus the Order of Malta and the Holy See are excluded.
30. Necessary but difficult to define.
31. « Conferring » may also imply recognition.
32. Such as ICRC and IATA.
33. Such as the Permanent International Association of Road Congress and the Permanent International Association of Navigation Congress.
34. Such as International Union of Railways.
35. See Paul Ruegger, op. cit., p. 526.
36. See also R. S. Rodgers, « A General Theory of International Organizations, » *International Associations*, 1962, No. 2, pp. 88-93.
37. « Inter-governmental » here means the highest level, i.e., not departmental or sub-departmental.
38. It is to be noted that the signatories to an international agreement and the members of the organization thereafter created may not always be the same. For example, the members of BIS are central banks of the signatories except that of the United States. In this case, however, the central banks can be interpreted as representing the signatories. But the judges on the international courts are, at least theoretically, not representing the signatories of the instruments constituting the courts.
39. Public corporations are usually under the supervision of a department and therefore are sub-departmental.
40. Regarding the membership of the International Broadcasting Union please see *Yearbook of International Organizations* (Brussels : Union of International Associations, 1965), p. 993.
41. *Ibid.*
42. *Ibid.* p. 1056.

SLAVERY TODAY

statement by the Anti-Slavery Society for
the Protection of Human Rights.

concerning the Special Report by Mr. Awad

Discrimination and Protection of Minorities
of the ECOSOC Commission on Human
Rights (New York, 1971).

The Anti-Slavery Society wishes to pay its sincere tribute to the Special Rapporteur for this most valuable report. If it does not state in which countries those institutions survive which are forbidden under the Supplementary Convention there is a valid reason for this omission which can be found in paragraph 130 and in other paragraphs. If no estimate is made of the number of persons embraced by these institutions, this is for the same reason — governments are reluctant to admit to harbouring slavery but also because they do not know — and who should know better than they?

Implicit throughout the report, however, is a recognition of the survival of slavery in many different forms and in many parts of the world. This recognition sets and maintains the tone of the whole report, which, with the exception of one short section, is one of realism, yet of patient optimism. In the 140 years of its experience, the Anti-Slavery Society has learned the need for patience — the need to be realistic and gratefully to accept on behalf of its voiceless and anonymous clients whatever crumbs of social justice may be conceded to them. With your permission, Mr. Chairman, I would like to comment on several specific points in that report.

I do not propose to say anything about Apartheid beyond welcoming the distinctions drawn in paragraph 29 between Apartheid and Slavery. This should not be taken to imply that Apartheid is thought to be less obnoxious. Indeed, since its early days the Society has considered that contract labour often causes worse suffering than does chattel slavery. A slave is a valuable possession whose health is worth caring for; contract labour is expendable. The Anti-Slavery Society has been denouncing Apartheid and the lesser evils which in Southern Africa preceded it since 1910, but we regret that, since 1966, because of the introduction of Apartheid, the vast and intractable problem of slavery has not been treated by the Council as a separate item.

In response to the Secretary-General's invitation to provide information the Anti-Slavery Society submitted a memorandum in May 1970. In paragraph 110 the report states « The Anti-Slavery Society has reason to believe that chattel slavery, serfdom, debt bondage, the sale of children and servile forms of marriage survive today to the extent that they constitute a recognizable element in the pattern of society in some African countries. »

We do not wish a wrong impression to be given and will be grateful if this passage could be corrected. The Society's carefully-worded statement read : * The Anti-Slavery Society has reason to believe that either chattel slavery or serfdom or debt bondage or the sale of children or servile forms of marriage survive today to the extent that they constitute a recognizable element in the pattern of society in seventeen African countries, fifteen Asian countries and six Latin American countries.

The fate of Mr. Awad's previous report, which was debated in the Social Committee of the Council from 6 to 15 July 1966, is referred to in paragraphs 22-24 and again, significantly, in paragraph 165. The Special Rapporteur had been asked to suggest remedies. He made one strong recommendation, that machinery be set up to implement the Convention. The reasons why this should be done were stated in debate. None of them was answered. Yet it was decided to refer the whole question of slavery to a subordinate body of the Council,

Five years have passed and many more children have been both born and sold into slavery in the meantime. The Anti-Slavery Society trusts, Mr. Chairman, that before another report on slavery is commissioned, the knowledge, the vision and the insight which characterize this report may be put to good use and that real progress in eradicating slavery and towards effective implementation of the Convention be made.

In paragraph 29 we read - Naturally there can be no question of imposing sanctions to eradicate the vestiges of slavery.... » Later, in paragraph 130 we read of « the reluctance of governments to request technical assistance for the purpose of dealing with the eradication of slave-

ry.... » and of « a lack of general interest in the immediate eradication of institutions and practices which exist for the most part only clandestinely and without legal sanction. » This is in spite of repeated efforts by the Council to induce Member States to make use of the available technical assistance resources, and in paragraph 140 under the heading « The need for land reform », we read that « in some countries, where land reforms have been undertaken, political power is in fact in the hands of those who themselves exploit the tenants and it is rare for Governments to make a real effort to enforce the land reform legislation they have passed. »

It is true, perhaps, as we read in paragraph 29, that no official sanction can be imposed. But those who feel that they have a responsibility to uphold the Universal Declaration of Human Rights will be understood if they resort to the only sanction left — appeal to public opinion. The Anti-Slavery Society regrets that no request has yet been made to the Secretary-General for the Services of any of the 36 experts recommended by Governments and accepted by the Secretary-General as being competent to advise on the elimination of slavery.

As the report states, much of the surviving slavery exists in inaccessible places. Moreover, it is protected by the vigilance and the violence of the employees of those whose wealth and power are derived from it. An example of this has recently been studied by the Society. This reveals that in one country, and it is not the only one, the peasants are required to grow opium, most of which is sold illicitly. For disobedience, or if they fail to produce their stipulated quota, they may be flogged, branded, mutilated or, eventually, turned out of their houses. No one dares employ one who has been evicted in this way. He and his family will starve. In the same country chattel slavery too survives and children of both sexes are both sold and given as gifts and used both as domestic help and for sexual gratification.

But, though such widespread servitude is only likely to survive in remote areas today, other customs are openly practised. Only last week I was given evidence by a doctor concerning an influential family in a Middle Eastern country which had recently bought some African boys for domestic service. This custom is common throughout the region and may be regarded as of benevolent origin and intent. My informant told me, however, that most of those he had seen were treated « as kindly as unwanted animals » and were kept at work from dawn until after dark. Returning to the report, paragraph 39 describes the excellent machinery whereby the I.L.O. supervises the implementation of its Conventions. It is machinery of this kind which the Anti-Slavery Society has repeatedly advocated for the Supplementary Convention. Indeed provision was made for it in the original first draft of that Convention. But the I.L.O. machinery presupposes that either the aggrieved persons will be literate and able to make their appeal or that the members of the Committee of Experts will be well-informed either from their own experience or by having access to reliable intelligence from within regions where the Convention is being infringed. Neither of these conditions obtains in many of the regions where slavery persists today and some of these are within States which have ratified the Supplementary Convention. The Anti-Slavery Society is grateful therefore to Mr. Kettani for emphasizing to the Sub-Commission, in the debate on communications on Friday, that if communications from independent sources were to be inadmissible if they reported only violations which were against the law, this would amount to an invitation to governments to condone such violations with impunity. It is difficult and may be both dangerous and expensive for independent sources to obtain, verify and present evidence of such violations but this is a function which it seems will long remain the responsibility of non-governmental organisations.

From the very valuable section of the report which deals with the possibility of adapting to the reduction of slavery the techniques used in the control of narcotics certain significant points arise.

The Anti-Slavery Society has long felt that these techniques could be adapted. There are, however, differences between the two problems. The production and sale of narcotics are not illegal. Governments can without embarrassment accept and welcome the services of U.N. experts to help them to fulfil their obligations under the Single Convention. Slavery, on the other hand, is against the law of every country. To admit expatriates to help to end it would be too much to expect. The traffic in narcotics is a traffic and needs to be controlled. Slavery is mainly static and it needs to be eliminated.

But the Anti-Slavery Society does not suggest that there is an appreciable traffic in persons across national frontiers. Trickle exists. The Anti-Slavery Society has received reports in varying degrees of detail of such traffic in nine different directions. But by far the bigger problem is that which governments would claim to be their own domestic affair.

Another reason why the analogy between slavery and narcotics is not a true one is that in the case of narcotics there are more obvious and pressing reasons why governments should wish to eliminate an illicit traffic. A few governments cannot see why they should eliminate slavery or serfdom. Their attitude is « après nous le déluge ». Just one year ago an example of this was in the news. The autocratic ruler of an independent monarchy was deposed and his place was taken by his very enlightened and courageous son. The ruler had set his face against any kind of social or economic reform in spite of having recently acquired ample means to introduce them. Conditions in his kingdom had remained unchanged since the Tenth Century.

This state of affairs had been permitted, to continue thanks to the military support of a powerful ally which felt no obligation beyond diplomatic propriety until the position of both the ruler and his allies was challenged by insurgent guerrillas. When the first journalists were admitted, it transpired that the descriptions of slavery which had reached the Anti-Slavery Society were no exaggeration though they had been hotly denied. Slaves, for years forbidden to speak, had lost the power of speech. The Anti-Slavery Society had maintained that, so long as investigation on the spot remained impossible, credence would be lent to the sensational stories of slavery.

The Society cannot agree with the suggestion contained in paragraphs 133 to 137, namely that the problem of eliminating these institutions should be approached on a regional basis.

Another of our informants told me recently of a particularly distressing sight he had seen when in company with government officials of a Middle Eastern country last year. Two young girls, their wrists chained, were being dragged behind camels to their purchaser. Our informant insisted on stopping the car and tried to intervene. Finally he offered to buy the girls. This was refused: The officials, who had at first shown neither surprise nor concern, were embarrassed. An official complaint was made but no action was taken. The impression was given that this was a custom and no interference could be considered. If the few examples of conditions I have described — and there is not time to describe more — are to be tolerated and perpetuated because they are customs of the region, this seems to the Anti-Slavery Society a good reason why this subject should not be reserved for regional discussion. But other influences outside that country bear a share of responsibility for the social and economic conditions within it. I shall mention three which are of special importance. First there is the government of any country which persuades the government of a developing country to accept, in payment for the raw materials it exports, armaments instead of the means of raising the subsistence level of its people. Second, there are the influences which, in defiance of the writing on the wall and in disregard of overwhelming human suffering and degradation hinder the acceptance of the more merciful method of population control. Third are those donors of aid to developing countries which give aid with strings attached. These strings have in cer-

tain cases required that interest on loans be paid in the purchase of labour-saving machinery. This is reported to have resulted in unemployment in certain developing countries reaching 30 percent.

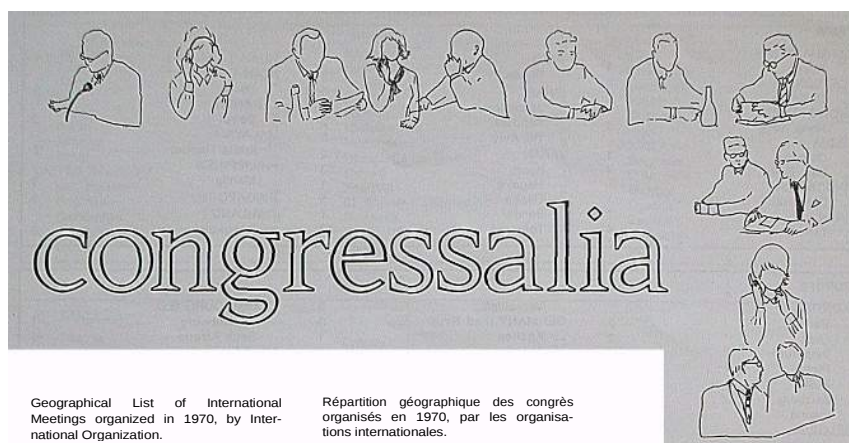
And so in the elimination of slavery there is an opportunity for all to make a contribution.

To sum up, Mr. Chairman, I am bound to say that, while the Anti-Slavery Society will be greatly encouraged by Mr. Awad's excellent report, progress towards the elimination of slavery will depend on the existence of a genuine desire and determination at government level to achieve this reform. To expect such reform would be unrealistic, as the Special Rapporteur has said in paragraph 72, without social, education and economic reorientation. It will also require courage at governmental level — as it always does — to insist upon a change in the social attitude of one's own electorate. And the attitude in which change is vital in the countries where the most unpleasant violations are most prevalent is one on which the criticism of outsiders is most hotly resented — the attitude of men towards womankind.

The Anti-Slavery Society looks forward to the acceptance by governments of the measures advocated in Mr. Awad's report.

I thank you, Mr. Chairman, for giving me the floor.

17 August 1971



AFRICA					
ALGERIA	1	KENYA		SOUTH AFRICA	
CAMEROON					
Buea	1	Nairobi	3	Cape Town	1
Yaounde	1	MAJI	1	Johannesburg	2
CONGO		MAURITANIA		SUDAN	
Bamako	1	Nouakchott	1	Karthoum	1
ETHIOPIA		MOROCCO		UAR	
Addis- Ababa	1	Rabat	1	Cairo	3
GHANA		Marrakech	1	TUNISIA	
Accra	1	RWANDA	1	Soussa	2
IVORY COAST		SENEGAL		Tunis	2
Abidjan	2	Dakar	1	WEST AFRICA	1

AMERICA					
ARGENTINA		MEXICO		Detroit (Mich)	2
Buenos Aires	9	Mexico City	13	Gaithersburg (Ma)	1
Jose C Paz	1	NETHERLANDS ANTIL.	1	Harward	1
BRAZIL		NICARAGUA		Hollywood Beach	1
Brasilia	1	Managua	1	Honolulu (Hawaii)	2
Porto Alegre	1	PANAMA		Houston (Texas)	3
Rio de Janeiro	8	Panama City	3	Las Vegas (Nev)	1
Sao Paulo	4	PARAGUAY		Long Beach (Cal)	1
CANADA		Asuncion	1	Los Angeles (Cal)	1
Edmontp	2	PERU		Madison	1
Guelph	1	Lima	4	Marfa	1
Kitchener-Waterloo	1	PUERTO RICO		Miami Beach (Fla)	3
Montreal	9	San Juan	2	Minneapolis	1
Ottawa	5	SALVADOR		New Jersey	2
St Catharines	1	Bahia	1	New Orleans (La)	1
St John's	1	SANTO DOMINGO	1	New York (NY)	34
Toronto	1	USA	1	Oxford (Ohio)	1
Vancouver	1	Anaheim (Cal)	1	Philadelphia (Pa)	2
CHILE	3	Atlanta (Ga)	3	Princeton (NJ)	1
Santiago	4	Atlantic City (NJ)	2	St Louis (Mo)	6
COLOMBIA		Berkeley (Cal)	1	Salt Lake City	1
Bogota	6	Boston (Mass)	5	San Francisco (Cal)	5
Medellin	1	Boulder (Col)	1	Washington (DC)	24
ECUADOR		Cambridge (Mass)	3	URUGUAY	
Quito	1	Chicago (Ill)	4	Piriapolis	1
JAMAICA		Dallas (Tex)	1	Punta del Este	1
Kingston	1	Denver (Col)	1	Montevideo	4
Ocho Rios	1	Columbus (Ohio)	1	VENEZUELA	
		Davis (Col)	1	Caracas	10
				Maracaibo	1

ASIA					
AFGHANISTAN	1	IRAQ		KUWAIT	1
Kabul		Bagdad	2	KOREA SOUTH	
Colombo	2	ISRAEL	1	Séoul	5
HONG KONG		Jerusalem	8	LEBANON	
Hong Kong	3	Rehovot	2	Beirut	2
INDIA		Tel Aviv	5	•MALAYSIA	
Calcutta	1	JAPAN	2	Kuala Lumpur	2
New Delhi		Kyoto	23	PHILIPPINES	
INDONESIA		Nagoya	1	Manila	9
Djakarta	1	Osaka	5	SINGAPORE	3
IRAN		Sendai	1	THAILAND	
Teheran		Tokyo	29	Bangkok	6

EUROPE					
AUSTRIA		Versailles	5	LUXEMBOURG G.D.	
Baden	2			Luxembourg	7
Graz	2			Esch Alzette	1
Innsbruck	1	GERMANY (Fed Rep)	5	MALTA	
Pichl	1	Aachen	1	Malta	2
Rust	1	Augsburg	2	MONACO	
Salzburg	3	Bad Godesberg	1	Monte Carlo	10
Vienna	32	Bad Wimpfen	1	NETHERLANDS	3
BELGIUM		Bad Liebenzell	1	Amsterdam	27
Brussels	40	Berlin (West)	7	Bergen	/ 1
Gembloux	1	Bonn	3	The Hague	17
Ghent	1	Calw	1	Lisse	1
Knokke	2	Cologne	3	Noordwijk	1
Liege	11	Dusseldorf	5	Rotterdam	6
Louvain	2	Constance	3	Scheveningen	1
Namur	1	Erlangen	1	Texel	1
Ostend	3	Essen	1	Utrecht	4
BULGARIA		Frankfurt	1	NORWAY	3
Varna	3	Hamburg	4	Bergen	1
CYPRUS	1	Freiburg	1	Oslo	11
CZECHOSLOVAKIA		Hanover	1	POLAND	
Bratislava	1	Heidelberg	4	Cracow	1
Brno	1	Koblenz	1	Warsaw	9
Prague	21	Königstein	2	Zakopane	1
DENMARK		Mainz-Rhein	1	PORTUGAL	3
Aalborg	1	Munich	18	Estoril	1
Copenhagen	24	Rinteln	1	Lisbon	8
Gammel Praestegaard	1	Saarbrücken	1	RUMANIA	
Helsingor	3	Stuttgart	2	Bucharest	3
Odense	1	Trèves	1	Poiana Brasovului	1
Viborg	1	Walthenstephan	1	SLOVAKIA	1
EAST GERMANY		GREECE		SPAIN	1
Dresden	5	Athens	6	Alicante	1
Leipzig	1	HUNGARY		Barcelona	17
FINLAND		Budapest	11	Gandario	1
Helsinki	6	Eger	1	Madrid	14
Tampere	1	Kegskomet	1	Palma -de Majorque	4
Turku	1	IGELAND		Salamanque	1
FRANCE	6	Reykjavik	7	Santa Cruz de Teneriffe	2
Antibes	1	IRELAND		Seville	M
Aix-en-Provence	1	Dublin	11	Torre Molinos	1
Besançon	1	ITALY		SWEDEN	1
Bordeaux	3	Bari	1	Goteborg	3
Cannes	3	Capri	1	Lund	1
Evian-Bains	1	Catania	1	Sigtuna	1
Granville	1	Ferrara	1	Stockholm	18
Grenoble	4	Florence	3	Uppsala	1
Lille	1	Genoa	1	SWITZERLAND	2
Lyon	1	Milan	6	Bad Ragaz	1
Marseilles	3	Naples	1	Basle	1
Menton	1	Palermo	1	Berne	8
Mezières-Charleville	1	Pavia	1	Caux	3
Montpellier	2	Pescara	2	Davos	1
Nice	3	Pisa		Geneva	88
Paris	65	Pistoia		Interlaken	1
Pont à Mousson	1	Rimini		Lausanne	5
Rennes	1	Rome	3	Locarno	2
Sèvres	2	San Remo		Lucerne	1
Strasbourg	15	Simione		Macolin	1
Toulouse	2	Stresa	2	Montreux	7
		Turin	2		
		Venice	8		

(cont.)

St Gallon	1				
St Moritz	1	Ditchley Parks	1	USSR	
Sion	2	Edinburgh	6	Klew	3
Zurich	14	Huntingdon	1	Krivoi Rog	
TURKEY		Leicester	1	Leningrad	15
Ankara	2	Liverpool	2	Minsk	
Bursa		London	42	Moscow	10
Istanbul	13	Macclesfield	2	Riga	
Izmir	1	Manchester	2	YUGOSLAVIA	
UNITED KINGDOM		Newcastle-on-Tyne	1	Belgrade	5
Birmingham	2	Oxford	4	Dubrovnik	2
Brighton	4	Reading	2	Maribor	1
Cambridge		St Andrews (Scotland)	3	Opatija	
Canterbury	1	Swansea	1	Zagreb	
Cardiff	1	Truro	1	Primosten	1
		Windsor	1	Split	1

AUSTRALASIA					
AUSTRALIA		Sydney	10		
Canberra	7				
Melbourne		NEW ZEALAND			
Newcastle	1				
Perth	1	Auckland	1		
Surfers Paradise	1	Napier	1		
		Wellington	2		

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L'Ordre des Architectes de Belgique vient d'organiser à Bruxelles du 22 au 25 septembre 1971 les «journées internationales de réflexions et d'échanges». Il paraît intéressant de présenter et de commenter dans ces colonnes la façon assez révolutionnaire dont les travaux étaient structurés — le nombre de thèmes étudiés, les contacts organisés entre les orateurs et les participants etc. En effet, rompant avec les traditions bien connues des organisateurs de congrès, l'Ordre des Architectes, conçu le plan suivant :

1. au cours des 3 journées d'études, six thèmes seront proposés aux participants
2. chaque thème est discuté chaque jour par 5 groupes, chaque groupe invitant un conférencier et un animateur.
3. à certaines heures des réunions « inter-groupes » réunissant des groupes de thèmes différents permettent des communications «inter-thèmes»
4. chaque jour une des séances « inter-groupe » sera accessible au public.

Un bref calcul indique donc que 5 groupes de travail par thème, et ceci pour 6 thèmes, produit un nombre de 30 groupes de travail nécessitant la présence de 30 animateurs et de 30 orateurs de renom.

Un organisateur réalise rapidement à cette simple énumération les difficultés à vaincre afin de réussir à faire «tourner» ce plan de travail. Tour d'abord un pareil nombre de locaux n'existe pas, groupés ainsi qu'il convient, la signalisation des locaux pose aussi des problèmes ainsi que l'organisation parfaite de l'information aux participants.

De plus, les communications soit inter-groupes d'un thème, soit de plusieurs thèmes nécessitent une stricte organisation.

Passons sur la difficulté qui consiste à réunir 30 animateurs bien au fait ainsi que trente orateurs capables de donner une imulsion et un style propre à chaque groupe de travail. Ajoutons que le désir des organisateurs était de conserver à ces réunions un caractère de spontanéité — attachant une importance extrême aux possibilités de « communicabilité ». Ce qui revient à dire qu'une organisation classique devait exister, mais se devait d'être peu apparente afin de permettre aux atmosphères détendues — certaines réunions bien que prévues devaient se faire « spontanément », etc., etc.

C'est dire combien l'organisateur professionnel qui s'était vu confier ces journées se trouvait devant des problèmes nouveaux et combien les solutions qui ont dû être trouvées ont été souvent peu orthodoxes. Désorganiser, apparemment seulement, l'ordre conçu — atteler ensemble le conçu et le spontané, voilà quel était le paradoxe permanent.

Conclusion

On peut estimer que de plus en plus la forme classique de travail en congrès, soit la séance magistrale, a vécu. Peu à peu le travail en commissions prévaut. De là à adopter une structure de travail telle que celle décrite plus haut, il y a du chemin à faire. Néanmoins, nous pensons que bien des réunions gagneraient en valeur productive, si elles permettaient plus de contacts.

Les formes classiques d'organisation administrative devront s'adapter et tenir compte de tous les nouveaux impératifs imposés par ces réunions plus « sauvages ».

Jean DESIREE
Secrétaire Général de l'IAPCO



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Israël. Un séminaire sera organisé en 1972 à l'intention de responsables de bibliothèques scolaires dans les pays en voie de développement.

Tanzanie. En tête de la liste des activités suggérées pour l'AIL par le Service des bibliothèques figure un cours national de formation destiné aux assistants-bibliothécaires et sanctionné par un diplôme. Les besoins de la Tanzanie en bibliothécaires croissent en effet si rapidement que l'Ecole de bibliothéconomie de l'Afrique orientale ne permet plus d'y répondre de manière adéquate. On espère que le cours, dont le programme sera conçu en fonction des conditions locales, pourra être assuré par des bibliothécaires professionnels et un poste de coordinateur du projet a déjà été créé à cette fin. Il est d'autre part suggéré de présenter une bibliothèque modèle lors de la foire commerciale annuelle « afin que les Tanzaniens aient l'occasion de voir comment devrait être conçue une bibliothèque idéale ».

U.S.A. Une initiative prise à l'occasion de l'AIL mais qui pourrait très bien devenir une institution permanente, concerne le jumelage de bibliothèques américaines et étrangères en vue de l'échange de bibliographies, de matériel et, éventuellement, de personnel. Il est prévu de confier l'exécution de ce projet à l'ASSOCIATION des BIBLIOTHECAIRES AMERICAINS et à l'INTAMEL, organisation internationale des bibliothèques publiques métropolitaines.

A BRUXELLES, une CHARTE DU LIVRE approuvée lors d'une réunion sur l'Année internationale du livre, le 22 octobre 1971.

Cette CHARTE, qui est la première déclaration sur les livres approuvée au niveau international, souligne l'importance de la libre circulation des livres à travers les frontières. Notant le rôle capital du texte imprimé dans le domaine de l'éducation, le document indique comment les livres peuvent promouvoir la compréhension pacifique et favoriser l'épanouissement de l'individu.

Le comité était présidé par M. Herman Liebaers, directeur de la Bibliothèque Royale de Belgique, président de la FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DES ASSOCIATIONS DE BIBLIOTHECAIRES. Ce comité rassemblait les représentants de la Communauté internationale des Associations de Libraires, de la Confédération internationale des Sociétés d'Auteurs et de Compositeurs, de la Fédération internationale de documentation, de la Fédération int

des PEN Clubs, de l'Union int des éditeurs, ainsi que de la Fédération int des Associations de bibliothécaires et des pays grands producteurs de livres.

1972 ANNEE INTERNATIONALE DU LIVRE

Echos et projets.

Quelle est la place du livre dans un monde où les nouveaux moyens d'information jouent souvent un rôle plus spectaculaire que lui ? Dans un monde où les progrès de l'alphabétisation sont sans cesse remis en question par la croissance démographique ? Dans un monde où les connaissances humaines peuvent se trouver périmées du jour au lendemain et où des montagnes d'éphémères matière imprimée disparaissent avant même d'aboir été lues ? La situation du livre demeure-t-elle inébranlable ? cette préoccupation se reflète dans plusieurs projets relatifs à l'AIL.

En HONGRIE: outre la production d'une publication sur le « livre dans un monde en évolution » le Ministère de la culture a annoncé que le Conseil des Editeurs se propose d'organiser en 1973, une conférence internationale sur les « problèmes du livre dans le monde ». 1973 marquera, en outre, le 500e anniversaire de la parution du premier livre hongrois.

A CUBA: les activités prévues par le gouvernement cubain pour l'AIL font notamment ressortir le rôle des livres comme facteur de transformation sociale et de développement culturel et leur importance en tant que dépositaires de l'histoire et de la culture des peuples. Outre des manifestations destinées à marquer l'Année en tant que telle, le programme comporte de nombreuses activités visant à faire mieux prendre conscience à l'opinion publique de la nature et de la valeur particulières du livre. Il prévoit également des mesures propres à encourager la production du livre, tant du point de vue de la création intellectuelle que des techniques de fabrication. Il sera centré autour d'une exposition nationale du livre, qui montrera le développement de l'édition cubaine et en fera ressortir les aspects culturels.



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collaborateur d'une importante
maison d'édition belge

Union internationale pour les livres de jeunesse (IBBY). La section brésilienne de l'IBBY a élaboré un plan d'activités au nombre desquelles on relève notamment: l'organisation d'un cours-laboratoire de littérature enfantine et de brefs séjours d'auteurs et d'illustrateurs dans des imprimeries et des maisons d'édition ; l'installation et la modernisation, avec le concours d'entreprises privées, de salles de lecture dans des écoles et d'autres institutions culturelles ; des expositions itinérantes de livres pour enfants ; une campagne de promotion de la lecture chez les jeunes.

Union des républiques socialistes soviétiques. Un stage d'études destiné à des bibliothécaires de pays en voie de développement d'Asie et d'Afrique est annoncé dans le cadre de l'AIL. Il aura pour thème: « Les bibliothèques publiques - leur rôle dans le développement socio-économiques et culturel ».

L'UNISIST

L'UNISIST est le résultat des travaux menés en commun par le CONSEIL INT DES UNIONS SCIENTIFIQUES (CIUS) et l'UNESCO, qui représen-

tent l'une la communauté scientifique mondiale, l'autre les gouvernements. Lors de la conférence internationale d'octobre à Paris se trouvaient réunis 240 délégués venus de 83 pays ainsi que des observateurs de 39 organisations internationales.

Le but de cette conférence : déterminer les bases d'un système mondial d'information scientifique et technique destiné à permettre aux hommes de science et aux ingénieurs d'accéder plus facilement aux quelques deux millions d'articles paraissant chaque année dans 70.000 revues spécialisées. M. Harrison Brown, de la National Academy of Sciences (USA), souligna la nécessité d'une étroite collaboration entre l'Est et l'Ouest, laquelle était clairement apparue tout au long de la préparation de l'UNISIST. Par ailleurs, a-t-il fait remarquer, la question se pose de façon différente selon qu'il s'agit de pays en voie de développement ou de pays développés, puisque 5% seulement des écrits scientifiques ont les premiers pour origine à l'instant présent. L'un des objectifs de l'UNISIST est précisément de permettre aux hommes de science du Tiers-Monde de puiser dans le stock mondial d'information. La Conférence a également défini la structure de l'UNISIST en recommandant qu'il soit géré par un comité directeur de 13 à 23 membres, et que soit créée au sein du Secrétariat de l'UNESCO une unité qui servirait de secrétariat permanent du nouvel organe. Elle a demandé que le nouveau système couvre, pour le moment, la science et la technologie, en attendant de s'étendre aux sciences sociales et humaines.

The centres of decision in matters concerning international trade are now changing with inexorable rapidity. To an ever increasing extent, responsibility for even the most detailed regulations is passing into the hands of inter-governmental organizations, both at world and regional levels. *The establishment of the system of general preferences in favour of developing countries* and the regulations for the transport of goods by containers, to take two random examples, are instances where the conditions of international trade are being changed day by day. Private enterprise must accordingly take account of the decisions taken at international level both for its immediate reactions and for its long term strategy, as these decisions will sooner or later be ratified by national governments. The INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE has fully realised this evolution and has become the privileged intermediary with the main organizations, which not only consult it before the decisions are taken but also allow it to participate right from the beginning in the preparation for their con-

ventions and agreements, as is well shown by several items in this issue. This policy, which the ICC is pursuing with the help of its National Committees, is however always in need of greater resources and of more experts and leaders from the private sector ready to take an active part in the meetings of the organizations which associate the ICC with their work. It remains to convince a larger number of business leaders that amidst the manifold pre-occupations that dominate world affairs, *only concerted action can make their voices heard, to the greater benefit of all*. Surely it is on them that responsibility rests in the main for the development of a world trade to an ever greater extent controlled and regulated by the inter-governmental organizations with which the ICC is conducting a permanent dialogue.

Inter-Contact is the name given to UAI's (Union of International Associations) computer-based information system on internationally significant organizations, programmes and persons. It is based on the data supplied for the «Yearbook of International Organizations» and other publications on international organization activities. The system is organised to show links between bodies across geographical, disciplinary and jurisdictional boundaries, as well as the characteristics of the bodies themselves, Inter-Contact is used as follows:

- Preparation of directories. Different types of directories may be produced directly from the data bank. The Yearbook is produced by selecting certain items of information which are arranged into lines of text and converted to offset film plates by computer, different language versions of the same information are also available.
- Mailing. The UIA journal and research questionnaires are distributed in this way.
- Research. The information collected constitutes a research aid for international studies of all types. Work is scheduled on methods of detecting key points in the organizational network, areas of imbalance, communication and coordination gaps, etc. It is hoped that the system will be used as a transfer device between research models, policy implications, and the needs of decision makers.

(FID News Bulletin, 1971, no. 6)

Le CIR (Centre international de Recherche sur le Cancer), lors de sa neuvième session du Conseil de Direction, à Lyon ce 20 octobre, approuve une résolution sur les cancérogènes du milieu.

Compte tenu de l'opinion exprimée par son conseil scientifique selon laquelle «les gouvernements prennent de plus en plus conscience de l'importance de la pollution du milieu et sont amenés à adopter des mesures de contrôle ou d'interdiction plus strictes, fondées sur des considérations biologiques», le conseil a estimé que le CIR devait jouer un rôle consultatif dans le domaine des cancérogènes du milieu, car il est souhaitable que les autorités responsables appelées à prendre des décisions en la matière puissent disposer d'un avis scientifique compétent et indépendant. Le CIR a décidé de poursuivre l'élaboration de monographies sur l'évaluation de la cancérogénicité pour l'homme des substances chimiques. Il a été également convenu que le CIR mettrait à la disposition des gouvernements toute la documentation réunie sur les substances faisant l'objet de demandes d'avis ainsi que les conclusions tirées de cette documentation. Le cas échéant le CIR donnera des avis concernant la méthodologie des études expérimentales et épidémiologiques.

Les neuf états membres du CIR (Australie, Belgique, Etats-Unis, France, Italie, Pays-Bas République fédérale d'Allemagne, Royaume-Uni et Union Soviétique) ont élu Président du Conseil de Direction le Dr John Gray, Secrétaire du Conseil britannique de la Recherche. C'est sous les auspices de l'OMS que fut créé le CIR en 1965, dont le Directeur est le Dr John Higinson.

Europa Nostra which was founded in 1963 on the initiative of the Council of Europe, is an international federation of non-governmental organizations for the protection of Europe's natural and cultural heritage. Its main goals are:

1. to awaken the pride of Europeans in their common artistic, architectural and natural heritage ;
2. to draw attention to the dangers which imperil this heritage and press for action to protect it ;
3. to encourage quality architecture and planning and the application of measures to improve the urban and rural environment ;
4. to arouse the public by publications, films and information through all appropriate media ;
5. to initiate study projects, organize conferences and offer a forum for discussion ;
6. to assure that these matters receive due attention in schools and universities ;
7. to make recommendations to the Council of Europe, governments, regional and local authorities, and other official groups ;

8. to support the action of member associations and promote by all other means the attainment of its own goals.

Europa Nostra members include many and varied national organizations which pursue the same goals in the following countries :

Austria, Belgium, Britain, Denmark, Finland, France, Federal Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland.

Europa Nostra organized a conference in Brussels from June 24 to 27, under the following three general headings:

- Co-operation between Europa Nostra and youth organizations.
- Excessive, inadequately controlled outdoor advertising in the urban and rural scene.
- Participation of elected representatives in the protection of sites and monuments, in conjunction with Europa Nostra associations.

All these themes gave rise to resolutions whose contents are summarized below.

This congress — enjoyed very concrete, immediate success. During a study trip the delegates made to his city, the burgomaster of Ghent offered an impressive reception in the city hall and pledged to ward off the very real danger of seeing covered the canals which pass along 18th-century mansions and owing to which Ghent is known as the Northern Venice. The Human Rights of Peasants must prevail in Latin America: it is one of the objectives of the VI Latin American Meeting of Rural Managers. Under the auspices of UNIAPAC (Int Christian Association of Business Executives) and organized by the Christian Association of Entrepreneurs of Uruguay, this event took place in Colonia Suiza. Farmers from Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, and Paraguay took part in an international meeting. The central theme: PARTICIPATION IN THE RURAL ENTREPRISE was broken into three parts: analysis of the true situation of the peasantry, exchange of experience inside and outside the farming enterprise and future perspectives that participation is likely to offer. The meeting was helped by the active collaboration of the Uruguayan Rural Association, the Rural Federation and Uruguayan Federation of CREA Groups (Regional Consortiums for Agricultural Experimentation). IPS, INTERNATIONAL PEACE BUREAU, organise a conference on the 26-27 August 71, near Stockholm. Besides the organisers and specially invited speakers and experts, other NGOs such as ISMUN, WFUNA, World Federation of Trade Unions, International Council of Women, International Commission of Jurists, Amnesty International, World Peace Council and Friends World Committee for Consultation, Present also representatives

and experts from the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, the International Committee of the Red Cross and the Polemological Institute in the Netherlands.

Chairman of the Conference: Mr Sean MacBride, former Foreign Minister of Ireland and President of both Amnesty Int and IPB. In his speech Mr MacBride include proposals for further action for IPS and other NGOs. He proposed the setting up of an independent body in the frame of the UN to investigate the violations of the Geneva Protocol of 1925, Hague Conventions and Genocide Convention. It would consist of persons of high moral authority, independent of their governments, who would investigate all complaints of organisations and individuals on violation of above agreements. Bernelen, Netherlands: 16th Meeting of the Catholic Committee for INTRA EUROPEAN MIGRATION, June 1971. Catholics Organisations and representatives from Int. Organizations studied an inquiry carried out among the same migrant workers. This inquiry revealed the lack of social services adapted to the special needs of young people who emigrate alone. It was decided to send a report to the President of the EEC and to the Secretary General of the COUNCIL OF EU-

ROPE, asking to devote special attention to the problems of people between 18 and 25 years old, with regard to the Housing, Social Services, Recreation and Vocational Training. The young Migrant Worker represent approximately one third of the European Migrants.

United Nations conference on human environment. Scheduled to be held in Stockholm, Sweden on 5-16 June 1972, the Conference, whose official slogan is «Only One Earth», will be the first world meeting of Governments convened to take action on the complex environmental problems faced by mankind.

The main agenda subjects will be:

1. Planning and Management of Human Settlements for Environmental Quality ;
2. Environmental aspects of Natural Resources Management ;
3. Identification and control of Pollutants and Nuisances of Broad International Significance ;
4. Development and Environment ;
5. International Organisational Implications of Action Proposals.

Some 1,200 senior government officials and their advisers are expected to attend the Conference.



New International Meetings Announced

Information listed in this section supplements details in the Annual International Congress Calendar published in December 1971.

1972 Jan 10-12 . Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe. Committee on housing, building and planning; group of experts on methodology for int comparisons in the construction field. (YB 3377)
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland.

1972 Jan 10-14 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe, Timber Committee. Symposium on wood as a competitive and versatile material. (YB 3377)
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland.

1972 Jan 11-16 Pont-à-Mousson (France)
Council of Europe. Symposium sur les facteurs qui dans les scolarités élémentaire et secondaire conditionnent les perfectionnements ultérieurs. (YB 435)
Avenue de l'Europe, 67 Strasbourg, France.

1972 Jan 11-21 Bangkok (Thailand)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East. Population Division/Social Development Division. Regional seminar on population aspects of social development. (YB 3377)
Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, Sala Santhitham, Bangkok, Thailand.

1972 Jan 13-14 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe. Committee on Housing, Building and Planning. Preparatory meeting for the 4th seminar on the building industry. (YB 3377)
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland.

1972 Jan 13-15 Strasbourg (France)
Société Universitaire Européenne de Recherche Financière. Colloque.
c/o avenue de l'Europe, 67 Strasbourg, France.

1972 Jan 17-21 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe. 2nd meeting of government officials responsible, for standardization policies.
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland. (YB 3377)

1972 Jan 17-21 Lyon (France)
Centre Européen de Dermopharmacologie. 6e semaine int : la peau qui vieillit, dermopharmacie et cosmétique.
Melle Meunier, 33 cours Eugénie, 96 Lyon 3, France.

1972 Jan 18 Geneva (Switzerland)
World Health Organization. 49th Executive Board.
Via Appia, 1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland. (YB 3548)

1972 Jan 18-24 Bangkok (Thailand)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East. Specail meeting on Land-Locked countries. (YB 3377)
Sala Santhitham, Bangkok 2, Thailand.

1972 Jan 19-21 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe, Committee on the Development on Trade. Group of experts on the simplification and standardization of external trade documents.
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland. (YB 3377)

Les informations faisant l'objet de cette rubrique constituent les suppléments au Calendrier Annuel des Congrès Internationaux publié en décembre 1971.

1972 Jan 19-21 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe, Inland Transport Committee. Group of experts on transport statistics.
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland. (YB 3377)

1972 Jan 23-27 New Delhi (India)
Indian Medical Association /Government of India. Int conference on family planning.
India Medical Association, Indraprastha Marg., New Delhi 1, India.

1972 Jan 24-27 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe, Committee on Housing, Building and Planning. Group of experts on the financing of housing. (YB 3377)
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland.

1972 Jan 24-28 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe, Inland Transport Committee. Group of rapporteurs on braking problems.
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland. (YB 3377)

1972 Jan 31-Feb 2 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Europe. Inland Transport Committee meeting.
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 11, Switzerland. (YB 3377)

1972 Jan Auckland (New Zealand)
Pan Pacific and Southeast Asia Women's Association. Conference : the family in modern society. (YB 3081)
54 Hillside Road, Auckland 6, New Zealand.

1972 first quarter Nicosia (Cyprus)
Civil Engineers and Architects Association. Int seminar: Foundationing on clay soils.
Mr J H Antonas, Secretary of the Association of Civil Engineers and Architects, Municipality, Nicosia, Cyprus.

1972 Feb 1-3 Nicosia (Cyprus)
European Commission for the Control of Foot-and-Mouth Disease. Executive Committee meeting : Foot-and-Mouth Disease. P: 15-20. (YB 626)
Director General, Ministry of Agriculture and National Resources, Nicosia, Cyprus.

1972 Feb 1-7 Bangkok (Thailand)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East. Asian industrial development council, 7th session. (YB 3377)
Sala Santhitham, Bangkok 2, Thailand.

1972 Feb 5-10 Cairo (UAR)
World Intellectual Property Organization. Séminaire Arabe sur les traités en matière de propriété industrielle. (YB 2670)
32 Chemin des Colombettes, Place des Nations, Case Postale 18, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland.

1972 Feb 6 Geneva (Switzerland)
Int Savings Banks Institute. Réunion du Comité de propagande.
18 rue du Marché, 1204 Geneva, Switzerland. (YB 2428)

1972 Feb 8-14 Bangkok (Thailand)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East.
Committee on Industry and Natural Resources, 24th session.
Sala Sanitham, Bangkok 2, Thailand. (YB 3377)

1972 Feb 14-28 Montreal (Canada)
Int Civil Aviation Organization. Sous-comité juridique chargé du
projet de convention relative au transport int combiné des mar-
chandises. (Projet de convention TCM). (YB 1505)
*Int Aviation Building, 1080 University Street, Montréal (LOI).
Que. Canada.*

1972 Feb 15-21 Bangkok (Thailand)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East.
Committee on Trade, 15th session. (YB 3377)
Sala Sanitham, Bangkok 2, Thailand.

1972 Feb 17-18 Bangkok (Thailand)
United Nations, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East.
Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning, Gover-
ning council. (YB 3377)
Sala Sanitham, Bangkok 2, Thailand.

1972 Feb 18-21 Yaounde (Cameroon)
Int Federation of Association Football. Conférence médicale pour
les médecins d'équipe Africaine ou les médecins dirigeant les
services médicaux des associations nationales. (YB 1856)
11 Hitzigweg, 8032 Zurich, Switzerland.

1972 Feb 21-25 Melbourne (Australia)
Int nephrology symposium. P : 200.
*Or P Kincaid-Smith, Dept of Medicine, University of
Melbourne, Royal Melbourne Hospital, Post Office, Melbour-
ne 3050, Australia.*

1972 Feb 22-27 Cologne (Germany, Fed Rep)
Europäischer Kongress für Sportpsychologie. P : 300.
*Bundesinstitut für Sportwissenschaften, Herstrabe, 5023
Lövenich, Germany, Fed Rep.*

1972 Feb 26-Mar 5 Berlin (Germany, Fed Rep)
World-wide tourism meeting.
*AMK Berlin, Company for Exhibitions, Fairs and Congresses,
Messedamm 22, 1000 Berlin 19, Germany, Fed Rep.*

1972 Feb 28-Mar 2 Melbourne (Australia)
Life Offices' Association of Australasia/U.S. Life Assurance
Agency Management Association. Joint seminar. P : 35.
*Mr G D Browne, Secretary, Life Offices' Association for
Australasia, 330 Collins Street, Melbourne 3000, Australia.*

1972 Feb 28-Mar 2 New Delhi (India)
World University Service. Int seminar : population overgrowth,
a challenge to young doctors.
*Mr V N Thiagarajan, Executive Secretary, World University
Service, P 19 Green Park Extension, New Delhi 16, India.*

1972 Feb 28-Mar 4 Udine (Italy)
Ligue Int pour la Sauvegarde de la Main. 9e cours int de chirur-
gie de la main.
*Mel/e M Adjouri, Hôpital de Nanterre, 403 avenue de la Ré-
publique, 92 Nanterre, France.*

1972 Mar 1-8 Roma (Italy)
Italian-Latin American Institute/Organization of American States/
Inter-American Development Bank. Meeting : Promocion de las
exportaciones y el turismo Latinoamericanos. P : 100.
(YB 2837/3030/1069)
*Vicesecretaria Economico-Social, Institute Halo Latinoameri-
cano, Piazza Guglielmo Marconi, 00144 Roma, Italy.*

1972 Mar 2-4 Lisbon (Portugal)
Int Marketing Federation /Sociedade Portuguesa de Comercia-
lizacao. 1st world-wide seminar : the marketing and the long
term development strategy. (YB 2244)
*Sociedade Portuguesa de Comercialização (Marketing),
Avenida Elias Garcia, 172-20 Esq, Lisboa 1, Portugal.*

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persons.

1972 Mar 4-6 **Nairobi (Kenya)**
East African Dental Association. 2nd int dental seminar,
POBox 1871, Nairobi, Kenya. (YB 473)

1972 Mar 6-11 **(Norway)**
European Baptist Federation. North European conference on
evangelism. (YB 581)
Baptist Church House, 4 Southampton Row, London WCI,
UK.

1972 Mar 8-9 **Brussels (Belgium)**
European Society of Corporate and Strategic Planners. Seminar :
Strategic planning in Europe's future consumer good market,
rue de Is Lot 71, 1040 Brussels, Belgium.

1972 Mar 9-30 **Cotonou (Dahomey)**
Boy Scouts World Bureau. 1st Africa community development
service seminar : Scouting and community development. (YB 194)
The Regional Executive Commissioner, Boy Scouts World
Bureau, Africa Region, P O Box 3510, Lagos, Nigeria.

1972 Mar 13-17 **Geneva (Switzerland)**
World Intellectual Property Organization. Comité d'experts pour
la protection des caractères typographiques. (YB 2670)
32 Chemin des Colombettes, Place des Nations, Case
Postale 18, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland.

1972 Mar 12-15 **Barcelona (Spain)**
Int Paediatric Association. 8th Middle-East Mediterranean
paediatric congress. (YB 2336)
Dr Sophocle Hadjidakis, 18 rue Kardeadou, Athens, Greece.

1972 Mar 15-27 **Bangkok (Thailand)** ,
United Nations, Economic Commission for Asia and The Far
East. Commission, 28th session. (YB 3377)
Sala Santhitarn, Bangkok 2, Thailand.

1972 Mar 20-22 **Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)**
United Nations/Int Union of Local Authorities. Instituto Brasileiro
de Administração Municipal. Workshop on municipal develop-
ment in Latin America. (YB 3375/2736)
Wassenaarseweg 45, The Hague, Netherlands.

1972 Mar-Apr **Watford**
(UK)
Int Council for Building Research Studies and Documentation.
Working Commission W45. Symposium on thermal comfort :
human requirements. (YB 1723)
Dr Langdon, Building Research Station, Bucknall's Lane,
Garston, Watford WD2 7JR, UK.

1972 Apr 1-9 **Chalon-sur-Saône (France)**
Council of the Professional Photographers of Europe. Sympos-
ium EUROPHOT pour professeurs de photographie : regard sur
le futur de la communication audio-visuelle et rôle joué dans
son développement par la photographie professionnelle et les
photographes professionnels de demain. (YB 456)
rue Lincoln 67, 1180 Brussels, Belgium.

1972 Apr 3-9 **Bauge (France)**
Organization of Young French Esperantists. Youth meeting. P :
50.
JEPO, c / o D Despiney, 43 Quai de Champagne, 94 Le Per-
reux, France.

1972 Apr 3-9 **Yaounde (Cameroun)**
Association of Secretaries General of Parliaments. Preparatory
Session, P : 52. (YB 160)
Overseas Office, House of Commons, London SW1, UK.

1972 Apr 5-7 **Sevres (France)**
Int Bureau of Weight and Measures. Comité Consultatif pour les
Etalons de Mesure des Rayonnements Ionisants, section 3.
Réunion « close » : mesures neutrotriques. P : 20-25. (YB 1440)
Pavillon de Breteuil, 92 Sèvres, France.

1972 Apr 10-11 **Florence (Italy)**
Int Association of Congress Centres. General meeting. (YB 1268)
AIPC, Palais de Beaulieu, 1002 Lausanne, Switzerland.



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- 1972 Aug 13-17 (Israel)
Int Committee (or the Standardization of Physical Fitness Tests.
Asian Committee meeting. (YB 1593)
c/o Toshihiro Ishiko, School of Health and Physical Education,
Juntendo University, Narashino, Chiba, Japan.
- 1972 Apr 26 Strasbourg (France)
Central Commission for the Navigation of the Rhine. Central
Commission, ordinary session. YB 241)
Palais du Rhin, Place de la République, 67 Strasbourg,
France.
- 1972 Apr 27-29 Washington (D C, USA)
American Society of Int Law. Meeting, Ex.
ASIL Exhibit, 705 Prince Street, P O Box 298, Alexandria
Virginia 22314, USA.
- 1972 Apr London (UK)
Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization. 28th
Council session. (YB 1117)
IMCO, 101-104 Piccadilly, London W1V OAE, UK.
- 1972 May 1-3 Tokyo (Japan)
Permanent and Int Committee of Underground Town Planning
and Construction. 5 th int symposium : shopping centres.
CPITUS, 94 rue St Lazare, 75 Paris 9e, France. (YB 3089)
- 1972 May 3 Quito (Ecuador)
Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission. Executive
Committee, Meeting. P : 25. (YB 1056)
a/c Camara de Comercio de Quito, Guayaquil 1242, Quito,
Ecuador.
- 1972 May 3-6 Freeport (Bahamas)
Junior Chamber Int. Freeport JCI, conference. (YB 2853)
c/o Michael Pinder, P O Box, 388, Freeport, Bahamas.
- 1972 May 1st week Sevres (France)
Int Bureau of Weight and Measures. Comité Consultatif pour les
Etalons de Mesure des Mayonnements. Ionisants, section 1.
Réunion « close » : rayons X.P. : 20-25. (YB 1440)
Pavillon de Breteuil, 92 Sèvres, France.
- 1972 May 7-11 Johannesburg (S. Africa)
World Airlines Clubs Association, Executive Committee, working
session. (YB 3451)
Hanns H Proksch, Nordendstr 39, 6070 Langen, Germany.
- 1972 May 11-14 De Koog (Texel Island, Netherlands)
Esperantist Ornithologists' Association. Meeting. P : 30. (YB 534)
A De Smet, Wilgendreef 14, Heide, Kalmthout, Belgium.
- 1972 May 21-25 San Francisco (USA)
European Industrial Space Study Group (EUROSPACE). 5e con-
férence U.S.-Europe : L'espace au service du public. (YB 784)
10 rue Cognacq-Jay, 75 Paris 7e, France.
- 1972 May 22-Jun 2 Montreal (Canada)
Int Civil Aviation Organization, Comité juridique. 19e session.
(YB 1505)
Int Aviation Building, 1080 University Street, Montreal (101),
Que, Canada.
- 1972 May 23-26 London (UK)
Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization. Council,
28th session. (YB 1117)
101-104 Piccadilly, London W1V OAE, UK.
- 1972 May 23-26 Stuttgart (Germany, Fed. Rep.)
European Industrial Research Management Association. Annual
conference. P : 150. (YB783)
EIRMA, 36 Cours Albert 1er, 75 Paris 8e, France.
- 1972 May or Jun Washington (DC, USA)
Int Federation of Forwarding Agents Associations, Airfreight
Institute. Meeting. (YB 1916)
29 Brauerstrasse, POB 342, 8026 Zurich, Switzerland.

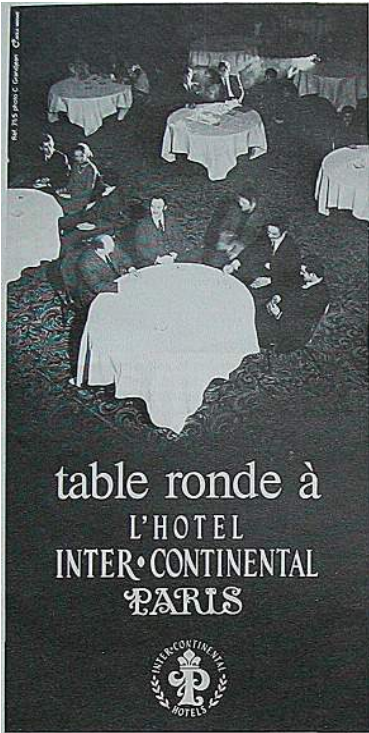


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Junior Charter Int. Mar del Plata JCI conference, (YB 2853)
c/o Raul Andres Bel, Veracruz 476, Lanus, Buenos-Aires,
Argentina.
- 1972 Jun 12-17 Paris (France)
Int Federation of Automatic Control, 5th world congress.
(YB 1862)
AFCET, Centre Universitaire Dauphine, Place du Maréchal
de Lattre de Tassigny, 75 Paris 16e, France.
- 1972 Jun 19-20 Geneva (Switzerland)
Int Wholesale and Foreign Trade Center. General assembly. P :
35. (YB 2813)
26 avenue Livingstone, 1040 Brussels, Belgium.
- 1972 Jun (UK)
European Committee on Milk-Butterfat Recording. 18th Commit-
tee session. (YB 659)
Corso Trieste 67, 00198 Rome, Italy.
- 1972 Jul 9-20 Sofia (Bulgaria)
League of Red Cross Societies/Bulgarian Red Cross Society.
European red cross youth conference. P : 150. Ex (YB 2907)
1 Boulevard S S Biruzov, Sofia, Bulgaria.
- 1972 Jul (2nd week) Strasbourg/Paris (France)
World Organization of Young Esperantists, External Relations
Committee. Seminar on language and culture. P : 40. (YB 3566)
TEJO, External Relations Committee, Kastelenstraat 231,
Amsterdam Z, Netherlands.
- 1972 Jul 17-19 London (UK)
Int Bureau for Epilepsy/Int League against Epilepsy/British
Epilepsy Association. 5th European symposium on epilepsy. P :
400 Ex (YB 1413/2193)
Kurt Fleischman and Associates, Chesham House, 136
Regent Street, London W1, UK.
- 1972 Jul 18-22 Guatemala City (Guatemala)
Junior Chamber Int. Guatemala JCI conference. (YB 2853)
c/o Mario Rosemberg, Apartado Postal 2479, Guatemala
City, Guatemala.
- 1972 Jul 22-Aug 5 Portland (Oreg, USA)
World Organization of Young Esperantists. Int conference. P :
70. (YB 3566)
TEJO, Nieuwe Binnenweg 176, Rotterdam 3002, Netherlands.
- 1972 Jul 24-27 Buenos-Aires (Argentina)
World Federation of Hemophilia. 8th congress. (YB 3523)
Dr Miguel de Tezanos Pinto, Academia Nacional de Medici-
na. Institute de Investigaciones Hematologicas, J P de Melo,
3081, Buenos Aires, Argentina.
- 1972 Jul 25-28 London (UK)
Int Federation of Teachers' Associations. Congress P : 90.
F I A I, 94 rue de l'Université, 75 Paris 7e, France. (YB 2021)
- 1972 Jul (3rd week) Torun (Poland)
World Organization of Young Esperantists. 28th int youth con-
gress. P : 500. (YB3566)
TEJO, Nieuwe Binnenweg 176, Rotterdam 3002, Nether-
lands.
- 1972 Jul Dar-es-Salam (Tanzania)
Boy Scouts World Bureau. 3rd Eastern Africa professional scou-
ters conference. (YB 194)
The Executive Secretary, Tanzania Boy Scouts Association,
P O Box 945, Dar-es-Salam, Tanzania.
- 1972 Jul (Latin America)
World Movement of Christians Workers. Executive Council
meeting. P : 17. (YB
3559)
MMTC, 201 rue Belliard, 1040 Brussels, Belgium.
- 1972 Jul (Latin America)
World Movement of Christian Workers. Int conversations. P : 50.
MMTC, 201 rue Belliard, 1040 Brussels, Belgium. (YB 3559)

1972 Aug 14-18 Sydney (Australia)
Int Planned Parenthood Federation, South East Asia and Oceania
Regional Office. 1st South East Asia and Oceania medical and
scientific congress. (YB 2361)
246 Jalan Ampang, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

1972 Aug 17-20 Cologne (Germany, Fed Rep)
Int Committee for the Standardization of Physical Fitness Tests.
Meeting. (YB 1598)
c/o Toshihiro Ishiko, School of Health Physical Education,
Juntendo University. Narashino, Chiba, Japan.

1972 Aug (end) Belgium (Netherlands)
World Organization of Young Esperantists. External Relations
Committee. 7th int training seminar. P : 30. (YB 3566)
TEJO, External Relations Committee, Kastelenstraat 231,
Amsterdam 2, Netherlands.

1972 Aug (Iraq)
Boy Scouts World Bureau. 10th Arab Jamboree and conference.
CP 78, 1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland. (YB 194)

1972 Sep 5-7 Stockholm (Sweden)
Int Council for Building Research Studies and Documentation.
Symposium « Teaching the teacher » : a confrontation between
meteorologists, building researchs and those who teach ar-
chitecture and building, for optimal use of meteorological in-
formation in building. (YB 1723)
Mrs H Flyd, National Swedish Institute for Building Research,
Dept of Building Climatology, Valhallavägen 191, Box 27163,
10252 Stockholm 7, Sweden.

1972 Sep 7-12 Oxford (UK)
Pugwash Conference on Science and World Affairs. 22nd
pugwash conference. (YB 3148)
Prof J Rotblat, 9 Great Russell Mansions, 60 Great Russell
Street, London WC1, UK.

1972 Sep 21-24 IGLS (Austria)
Int Society of General Practice. 14th congress of general medi-
cine : Present situation of teaching and research in general
medicine. Early diagnosis of chronic disease. Rehabilitation and
long lasting treatment in general practice. (YB 2544)
Lange Sir 21a, Oelde / Westphalia, Germany, Fed Rep.

1972 Sep 21-29 Rome (Italy)
Association of Secretaries General of Parliaments. Plenary
Session. P : 52. (YB 160)
Overseas Office, House of Commons, London SW1, UK.

1972 Sep 25-28 IGLS (Austria)
Int Society of General Practice/Austrian Society of General
Practice. 6th Autumn-Refresher-Course for general practice :
Practical course in topical fields of daily general practice.
(YB 2544)
Lange Sfr 21a, Oelde / Westphalia, Germany, Fed Rep.

1972 Sep Addis Ababa (Ethiopia)
Boy Scouts World Bureau. 1st all Africa professional scouts
course 1972 : Youth service for development. (YB 194)
The Administrative Secretary, The Scouts Association of
Ethiopia, P O Box 650, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

1972 Autumn Paris (France)
Int Association of Rolling Stock Builders. General assembly
(members only). (YB 1335)
12 rue Bixio, 75 Paris 7e, France.

1972 Oct 4-20 London (UK)
Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization. Int con-
ference on revision of the regulations for preventing collisions
at sea. (YB 1117)
101-104 Piccadilly, London W1V 0AE, UK.

1972 Oct 8-15 Vienna (Austria)
Int Astronautical Federation. 23rd congress : space for world
development. (YB 1381)
Mr Michael Sartori, President Österreichische Gesellschaft
für Weltraumforschung und Flugkörper technik (OGFT),
Theresianumgasse 27, 1040 Vienna 1V, Austria.



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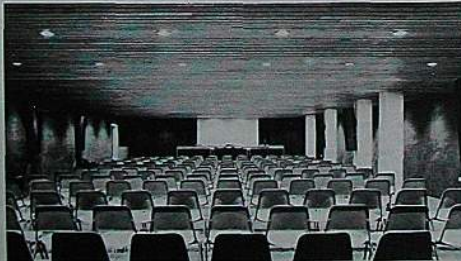


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1972 Oct 10-11 Int Bureau of Weight and Measures. Groupe de travail pour les grandeurs électriques aux radiofréquences. Réunion - close », P : 20-25. Pavillon de Breteuil, 92 Sevrés, France.	Sevrés (France) (YB 1440)	1972 Centre de Recherches Métallurgiques/Centre d'Information du Cobalt, 2nd int session on the applications of cobalt. Centre d'Information du Cobalt, 31 avenue des Arts, 1040 Bruxelles, Belgium.	Brussels (Belgium)
1972 Oct 17-20 Int Bureau of Weight and Measures, Comité Int des Poids et Mesures. Réunion « close », P : 20-25. Pavillon de Breteuil, 92 Sevrés, France.	Sevrés (France) (YB 1440)	1972 Int. Society for Clinical Electrorretinography. 10th int. symposium. J.T. Pearlman, Jules Stein Eye Institute, UCLA Center for the Health Sciences, Los Angeles, 800 Westwood Plaza, Cal. 90024 U.S.A.	Los Angeles (U.S.A.) (YB 2479)
1972 Oct 23-28 Int Veterinary Association for Animal Production. 2nd world congress on animal nutrition. P : 1500. Ex. (YB 2801) Facultad de Veterinaria, c/o Prof Dr Carlos Luis de Cuenca, Ciudad Universitaria, Madrid 3, Spain.	Madrid (Spain) (YB 2801)	1973 May 21-25 Int Federation of Park and Recreation Administration. 4th world congress. P : 1200. Ex. The Grotto, Lower Basildon, Reading, Berkshire, UK.	(UK) (YB 1971)
1972 Oct (prob) Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization. 29th Council session. (YB 1117) Secretary General IMCO, 101-104 Piccadilly, London W1V OAE, UK.	London (UK) (YB 1117)	1973 Jul 1-6 Int Society of Urology. 16th congress. 63 avenue Niel, 75 Paris 17e, France.	Amsterdam (Netherlands) (YB 2574)
1972 Nov 12-18 Int Union for the Protection of Industrial Property. Congress. 32 Chemin des Colombettes, Place des Nations, Case Postale 18,1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland.	Mexico City (Mexico) (YB 2669)	1973 Jul 2-6 Int Colour Association. Congress COLOUR 73. P : 500. Prof W D Wright, Applied Optics Section, Imperial College of Science and Technology, London SW7 2BZ, UK. (YB 1515)	York (UK)
1972 Nov 20-24 Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization. Council, 29th session. 101-104 Piccadilly, London W1V OAE, UK.	London (UK) (YB 1117)	1974 May Int Grassland Congress. 12th congress. (YB 2085) Dr V Iglovitok, All-Union Research Forage Institute, Moscow Region, Ingovaya, USSR.	Moscow (USSR)
1972 Nov 20-25 World Airlines Clubs Association. 5th annual general assembly. Mr Jal Daroowalla, 2B J Tata Road, Churchgate, Bombay 20, India.	Bombay (India) (YB 3451)	1974 Sep 29-Oct 5 Int Paediatric Association. 14th Int congress. (YB 2336) Prof Dr Gustavo Berri, Sociedad Argentina de Pediatria, Coronel Diaz 1971, Buenos-Aires, Argentina.	Buenos-Aires (Argentina) (YB 2336)
1972 Nov Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission. 4th conference. P : 200. a/c Camara de Comercio de Guatemala, Edificio Cruz Azul, 5th Ave 8-24, 7th Floor, Guatemala, Guatemala.	Guatemala City (Guatemala) (YB 1056)	1974 Int Seed Testing Association. 17th congress. P O Box 68, 1432 Vollebakk, Norway.	(Poland) (YB 2452)
		1975 Oct 8-13 World Federation for Mental Health. Conference : Culture in collision, mental health in a world of change. Mrs J Anderson, 47 Bridge Street, Sydney 2000, Australia.	Sydney (Australia) (YB 3514)

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