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Cover photo from INBEL. Breughelian bewilderment at the incoherence of society...

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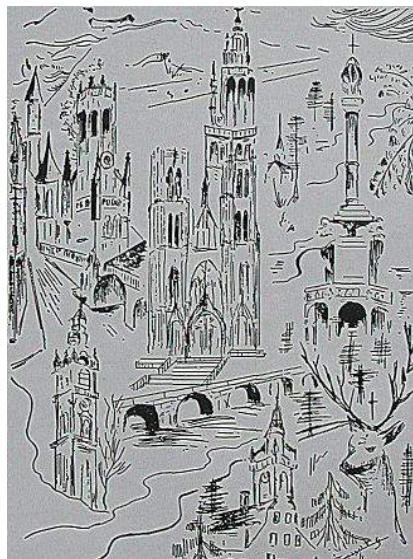
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Editorial

Un impératif de l'action internationale et transnationale.

LES LIMITES DE LA SOUVERAINETE DES ETATS



* Le Secrétaire Général se trouve périodiquement devant un dilemme chaque fois qu'un conflit militaire étendu ou des luttes civiles à grande échelle à l'intérieur d'un Etat, où que ce soit, provoquent le massacre d'un grand nombre de civils innocents. En pareil cas il doit concilier le paragraphe 7 de l'article 2 de la Charte (le domaine réservé à la souveraineté des Etats) avec les principes moraux et en particulier ceux qui concernent le caractère sacré de la vie humaine, lesquels sont implicites dans la Charte. Quels que soient les critiques et les échecs qu'il peut essuyer, le Secrétaire Général a une responsabilité morale non écrite qui ne lui permet pas de fermer les yeux lorsque la vie d'un grand nombre de civils innocents est en péril ».

Kurt Waldheim

(Rapport à rassembleée de 1972)

La souveraineté nationale, conquête de la révolution démocratique, va-t-elle devenir la raison d'Etat de notre temps, le manteau des gouvernements en défaut, par défi jeté aux exigences internationales, universelles et régionales ?

La question nous semble à propos en voyant le sens absolu que beaucoup d'Etats donnent à leur droit à l'indépendance, comme s'ils prétendaient recommencer l'histoire ancienne des souverainetés princières dans un monde désormais solidaire. On souhaiterait que les comités juridiques et politiques de l'organisation internationale établissent les distinctions nécessaires.

S'agit-il du droit des peuples à disposer intégralement d'eux-mêmes, dans l'ordre économique aussi bien que politique ? Rien de plus légitime, dans l'esprit même de la Charte et de la Déclaration universelle des Droits de l'Homme.

Ainsi, quand M. Salvador Allende, chef du gouvernement chilien, se (ait l'avocat de l'Amérique latine et plus généralement du tiers monde à l'Assemblée des Nations-Unies, pour dénoncer les atteintes de certaines sociétés multinationales aux intérêts économiques des pays souverains, il n'y a rien à redire dans le principe. M. H. Jaspar qui relate ses entretiens avec Péron, dans le second tome de ses souvenirs (1) nous instruit que c'était déjà la position du « justicialisme » à ses débuts, avant que le président argentin ne se voie obligé de composer avec le pouvoir économique yankee.

Mais autre chose est la prétention de certains Etats d'interdire l'accès de leur territoire à toute autorité internationale, fût-elle de simple secours, en cas de « guerre intérieure », de catastrophe naturelle ou encore d'aide nécessaire pour la protection de l'environnement humain. Nous avons déjà fait ici écho à la campagne d'information menée par le Bureau international catholique de l'enfance (le BICE) sur le thème : « Aide humanitaire et souveraineté des Etats ». Nous avons cité dernièrement le président Hambo qui a reçu l'appui de M. Kurt Waldheim dans son dernier rapport à l'assemblée de l'ONU. Le Secrétaire Général a dit en substance que le texte du paragraphe 7 de l'article 2 de la Charte (le domaine réservé à la souveraineté des Etats) ne dispensait pas la fonction internationale d'une « responsabilité morale non écrite » dès lors qu'il était en cause

« le caractère sacré de la vie humaine » et, partant, les obligations mêmes de la Charte des Nations Unies. M. Waldheim a reçu des appuis à l'assemblée sur ce point. M. René Cassin a rappelé dans une récente conférence que la rédaction de l'article 2, § 7, de la Charte avait été une des faiblesses de San Francisco. C'est une raison de plus pour ne

pas lui donner un sens plus restrictif encore que celui des constitutifs de l'organisation des Nations Unies en 1945.

Sait-on qu'il se trouve de nouveaux Etats de faible développement pour refuser le concours des institutions internationales pour la protection de l'environnement humain et la conservation de la terre qui les nourrit, en revendiquant une sorte de droit à la pollution ? C'est insensé, mais vrai. Un grand jurisconsulte français, Capitant, a défini la souveraineté : « Caractère d'un Etat ou d'un organe qui n'est soumis à aucun autre organe, alors même qu'il est lié par des règles supérieures ».

Il y a en effet des « règles supérieures » aux Etats, en particulier dans le cas des Droits de l'Homme. L'action internationale gouvernementale et non gouvernementale pourrait être littéralement paralysée dans tous ses programmes si les Etats membres des Nations-Unies se retranchaient derrière l'argument de leur souveraineté. Cela n'est pas possible et cela ne tiendra jamais sous la pression des faits.

Certes, une certaine limitation de la souveraineté nationale peut donner lieu à divergences de vues entre juristes, mais c'est affaire de mesure plutôt que de principe. Le point est en tous cas d'intérêt commun à toutes les OING. Nous aurons à y revenir.

Robert FENAUX.

(1) M.H. Jaspar, Souvenirs Tome II. Changement de décors. Ed. Fayard,

IISA - IIAS

Jacques Stassen

Professeur à l'Université de Liège
Directeur général de l'IISA.

I. Origines et objectifs

L'Institut international des Sciences administratives compte probablement parmi les plus anciennes organisations internationales non-gouvernementales qui existent aujourd'hui. Ses origines remontent en effet à 1910, lors du premier Congrès international des Sciences administratives qui s'est tenu à Bruxelles — au cours duquel il fut décidé de créer un mouvement de collaboration internationale ayant pour objet « l'étude de tous les problèmes d'administration centrale nationale, voire internationale et la promotion des sciences administratives dans le monde ». Mais c'est en 1930 que, conformément à une décision prise au cours du Congrès de Madrid, l'Institut fut créé dans sa forme actuelle : une association internationale à but scientifique, répondant aux conditions fixées par la loi belge du 25 octobre 1919.

Les objectifs de ses fondateurs étaient de rassembler tous ceux qui, de quelque horizon qu'ils soient et sans aucune distinction, s'intéressent aux problèmes d'administration publique, afin de faciliter les contacts personnels et les échanges d'idées et d'expériences.

Le siège-dé l'association nouvelle fut fixé à Bruxelles.

II. Les membres

Cette association est composée de sections nationales et internationales, de membres à titre personnel, de membres collectifs, mais — et c'est, pensons-nous, ce qui constitue son originalité pour une organisation internationale non-gouvernementale — elle compte aussi parmi ses membres des Etats. Ceux-ci y sont représentés par un délégué dénommé mandaté. Aujourd'hui sont membres de l'Institut : 44 Etats, répartis comme suit : 20 en Europe, 10 en Asie, 10 en Afrique et 4 en Amérique latine, un nombre plus important de Sections nationales et bien entendu de membres collectifs et individuels. En d'autres termes on peut dire qu'aujourd'hui l'Institut entretient des contrats avec une certaine de pays, soit qu'ils aient adhéré à ses statuts en qualité d'Etat membre, soit que leurs ressortissants aient formé des Sections nationales ou participent à ses activités comme membre à titre personnel ou comme membres de l'un ou l'autre de ses comités.

III. Les organes de l'Institut

Ses services permanents

Les organes statutaires de l'Institut sont : le Président, les Vice-Présidents, le Comité Exécutif, le Conseil d'Administration, l'Assemblée générale et le Directeur général.

- a) Le Président est élu, parmi ses membres, par le Conseil d'Administration pour un terme de trois ans, renouvelable une fois. Le Président en fonction est le Professeur Nikola Stjepanovic, de nationalité yougoslave. Depuis sa fondation, l'Institut a été présidé par des personnalités de réputation internationale, comme le ministre Albert Devèze, le Président René Cassin et le Professeur Herbert Emmerich notamment.
- b) Le Président est assisté d'un certain nombre de Vice-Présidents élus par le Conseil d'Administration parmi ses membres et choisis en fonction du facteur géographique et du facteur représentativité du système administratif. *
- c) Président et Vice-Présidents, ainsi que les présidents des Comités permanents, dont il sera question plus loin, composent le Comité Exécutif dont la mission est de mettre en œuvre le programme de l'Institut. Un certain nombre de suppléants, désignés eux aussi par le Conseil d'Administration sont invités à assister avec voix consultatives aux réunions du Comité. Cette mesure a été adoptée pour permettre aux représentants d'un plus grand nombre de pays d'être associés plus étroitement à la gestion de l'Institut. Le Comité Exécutif se réunit une ou deux fois, l'an.



d) Le Conseil d'Administration comprend les représentants des Etats membres — un par pays — ceux des Sections nationales et des Sections internationales — un par section — ainsi que les cinq Présidents des Comités permanents (dont il sera question

M se réunit en session ordinaire à l'occasion des Congrès et des Tables Ronde : c'est-à-dire deux (ou trois ans). Il a pour mission de déterminer l'orientation générale des activités de l'institut, de voter le budget et d'arrêter les comptes. Il élit en son sein le Président, les Vice-Présidents et les suppléants. Il nomme le Directeur général et fixe le statut du personnel permanent.

e) L'Assemblée générale est composée des délégués officiels des Etats membres, des membres des Sections nationales et internationales, des délégués des membres collectifs, des membres individuels et des membres d'honneur. Elle se réunit tous les trois ans, à l'occasion des congrès, pour entendre le rapport général sur les activités de l'institut que leur présente le Comité Exécutif. Les statuts se sont montrés parcimonieux quant au rôle qui lui est dévolu. Elle n'a pas de pouvoir de décision.

f) L'institut dispose enfin de services permanents placés sous la direction d'un Directeur général. Ce dernier, nommé par le Conseil d'Administration, assiste avec voix consultative aux réunions de ce Conseil à celles du Comité Exécutif. Il collabore étroitement avec le Président. Il a la responsabilité du bon fonctionnement des différents services de l'institut, de la coordination de ses activités et de son rayonnement à l'extérieur.

Les services permanents comprennent quatre services, celui de la direction générale, celui d'étude et documentation, celui de la gestion et de la comptabilité et celui de traduction. Chacun de ces services est placé sous la responsabilité d'un chef de service. L'institut occupe un personnel qui varie entre 15 et 20 personnes.

g) Signalons enfin l'existence de Comités permanents et de Comités ad hoc qui, de composition internationale, jouent un rôle important dans les activités de l'institut soit comme comité d'administration, comme le Comité de la Revue et le Comité des Contrats, soit sur le plan des études et de la recherche, comme le Comité Scientifique, le Comité des Pratiques administratives, le Comité des Ecoles et des Instituts, le Comité ad hoc d'Etudes comparées des procédures et méthodes administratives. Les Presidents des comités permanents sont nommés par le Conseil d'Administration sur proposition du Comité Exécutif.

IV. Les missions principales de l'institut

Bien que la réalisation des objectifs qui ont été assignés à l'institut implique une action très diversifiée et nécessairement complexe, on peut cependant considérer que son activité se meut principalement dans le cadre des missions suivantes :

- a) mission d'information et de documentation
- b) mission d'études et de recherches
- c) mission de collaboration avec d'autres organismes
- d) mission de coopération internationale.

Pour les réaliser, il dispose des moyens suivants :

1. un service d'étude et de documentation

L'institut a un service d'étude de documentation qui est à même de traiter les nombreuses demandes de renseignements ou d'informations bibliographiques ou autres qu'il reçoit. Il dispose pour ce faire d'une bibliothèque importante qui est peut-être unique en son genre, dans le domaine des sciences administratives. Elle rassemble non seulement les principaux ouvrages consacrés aux questions en rapport avec ces sciences au sens le plus large mais aussi une collection de périodiques en provenance de plus de soixante pays et un grand nombre de documents, la plupart inédits, recueillis notamment à l'occasion des réunions de l'institut. Par des achats et des échanges, elle est alimentée en ouvrages publiés dans toutes les langues. Elle reçoit la plupart des revues spécialisées du monde entier. Par les multiples contacts qu'il entretient avec les correspondants qu'il possède dans la plupart des pays, par les relations qu'il a avec d'autres centres poursuivant des objectifs similaires, le service d'étude et de documentation et de recherche peut ainsi répondre rapidement et adéquatement à toutes les demandes qui lui sont adressées tant par les gouvernements ou les administrations que par les institutions d'enseignements ou les spécialistes.

Le service accueille chaque année de nombreuses personnes de toute nationalité : professeurs, fonctionnaires, chercheurs, étudiants, stagiaires.

2. Les publications

L'action dans le domaine de la documentation et de la recherche est complétée par des publications parmi desquelles il importe de citer en premier lieu la « Revue internationale des Sciences administratives ». Cette revue, née en 1928 aura bientôt quarante-cinq d'existence. Paraisant tous les trois mois, elle est publiée en trois langues : anglais, espagnol et français — chacune faisant l'objet d'une édition distincte. On y trouve notamment des articles de fond sur des sujets de droit administratif et de science administrative. En un mot, sur des sujets qui sont susceptibles d'intéresser tous ceux qui portent intérêt aux problèmes d'administration publique. Ces articles sont écrits par des spécialistes de toutes nationalités : professeurs, juristes, sociologues hauts fonctionnaires, techniciens, etc.

La Revue publie des comptes rendus d'activités importantes dans le domaine de l'administration publique, de la coopération technique, des exposés de réalisations concrètes effectuées dans des administrations nationales ou internationales, publiques ou privées. Enfin, chaque livraison contient une bibliographie de la littérature spécialisée de sciences administratives publiée dans le monde ainsi qu'un compte rendu des principaux ouvrages.

Son Comité de Rédaction, composé d'éminentes personnalités du monde scientifique spécialisé en matière administrative veille tout particulièrement à ce qu'elle suive de très près l'actualité.

par sa tenue, cette Revue a acquis un renom international.

L'institut a en outre, à son actif la publication d'ouvrages divers, ouvrages consacrés tant à des études générales qu'à des travaux comparatifs touchant des problèmes d'administration publique, ouvrages consacrés à l'administration du développement comme des manuels, des recueils de textes, etc. A quoi il faut ajouter la publication en français et en anglais des rapports généraux présentés aux Congrès.

3. Les Tables Ronde et Congrès.

Tous les trois ans, l'institut organise un congrès international. Les sujets traités sont en principe des sujets de caractère général susceptibles d'intéresser tous ceux qui se préoccupent d'administration publique.

Le dernier congrès qui s'est tenu à Rome, avait ainsi à son ordre du jour les trois sujets suivants :

— L'organisation gouvernementale et administrative de la recherche scientifique



Une séance de l'IISA tenue à Barcelone en 1969,
à l'occasion d'une Table Ronde.

- Les conséquences du progrès technique sur les procédures, les méthodes et les structures de l'administration
- La participation des usagers ou des personnes directement intéressées à l'administration, y compris l'administration de l'éducation nationale.

Le prochain congrès qui se tiendra à Mexico en 1974 s'occupera également de trois sujets :

- Les aspects administratifs de la régionalisation à l'intérieur des Etats
 - Les aspects de l'évolution de l'administration dans les pays en voie de développement au cours des vingt dernières années : expériences et leçons à en tirer
 - Méthodes et institutions administratives utilisées pour prévoir les effets du changement économique et social
- Les Tables Ronde ont lieu, elles aussi tous les trois ans. Elles sont destinées à préparer les congrès. Elles rassemblent les rapporteurs généraux et les rapporteurs nationaux des différents thèmes qui doivent être étudiés au congrès en vue de déterminer leurs limites et la manière dont ils seront traités. La dernière Table Ronde s'est tenue à Caracas (Venezuela) en septembre 1972. Le prochain congrès se tenant en 1974, les différents rapporteurs disposent d'un temps raisonnable pour préparer leur travail. Les Congrès et Tables Ronde sont des lieux privilégiés de rencontres, de contacts et d'échanges d'information fructueux pour tous ceux qui s'intéressent à l'administration publique.

4. Les Groupes de Travail

Au cours du Congrès de Rome, les participants, qui s'étaient intéressés aux travaux relatifs aux problèmes que suscitent l'introduction des ordinateurs dans l'administration publique ainsi que le recours aux systèmes intégrés (PPBS - RCB), ont considéré que les sujets étaient loin d'être épuisés et qu'il serait utile de les reprendre en profondeur. Ils avaient formulé le souhait de voir les travaux de l'Institut s'orienter dans cette voie.

Par ailleurs, le Comité Exécutif de l'Institut était saisi d'un projet de réforme de ses méthodes de travail qui allaient précisément dans le sens de la création de groupes de travail de caractère international constitués pour l'étude approfondie de problèmes d'actualité de l'administration publique. Dans l'esprit de ce projet, les travaux et les conclusions auxquels les groupes seraient arrivés auraient été publiés. De la sorte, les pays confrontés avec les mêmes problèmes pourraient y trouver de précieux enseignements pour les résoudre.

C'est ainsi qu'aujourd'hui deux groupes de travail sont entrés en action. L'un s'occupe des problèmes de l'information dans l'administration. L'autre, les systèmes intégrés pour la planification budgétaire. Ils sont formés de spécialistes de réputation internationale. Les travaux sont menés en coordination avec les organisations internationales gouvernementales et non-gouvernementales qui s'intéressent à ces problèmes.

5. Les Ecoles et Instituts d'Administration publique

Un groupe international d'écoles et d'instituts d'administration publique, placé sous la direction du Comité permanent des Ecoles et Instituts, déploie ses activités par la diffusion d'informations et d'instruments de travail, l'organisation de réunions et diverses activités connexes. Ce groupe, connu sous le nom d'Association internationale des Ecoles et Instituts, est constitué d'environ trois cents correspondants, dirigeants d'institutions, éminents spécialistes, représentants d'organisations nationales ou internationales portant un intérêt à la formation des agents des services publics. Bon nombre d'entre eux marquent un appui spécial au programme de l'IISA en la matière par une participation financière annuelle. C'est parmi ces derniers que sont choisis les membres du Comité permanent, auquel revient la mise au point du programme de travail, mise au point qu'il effectue avec le concours et les conseils des services administratifs permanents de l'IISA.

V. L'Institut et la coopération internationale

L'Institut jouit du Statut consultatif auprès du Conseil Economique et Social des Nations Unies et auprès de l'Unesco en tant qu'organisation internationale non-gouvernementale.

Pour lui permettre de remplir convenablement son rôle, il a un représentant permanent à New York auprès des Nations Unies et un autre à Paris au siège de l'Unesco. Ces deux personnalités assurent la continuité des contacts avec ces deux organisations; elles servent d'informateurs et d'agents de liaison.

a. L'Institut collabore d'ailleurs étroitement avec les Nations Unies et tout particulièrement avec la Division d'Administration publique. C'est ainsi que dans le passé par autorisation spéciale de l'Assemblée générale, le Secrétaire général a conclu avec l'Institut un accord touchant la préparation d'une série de documents et rapports destinés à aider les Nations Unies dans leurs programmes d'assistance aux Etats membres en matière d'administration publique et qu'il a coopéré avec elles à la mise sur pied de plusieurs séminaires d'administration publique. Tout récemment, le programme de travail pour l'administration du développement dans la prochaine décennie proposait la collaboration de l'Institut dans différents domaines, notamment en matière de documentation, de recherches et de formation. Cette collaboration se réalise sous la forme de contrat.

Les Nations Unies participent d'ailleurs par l'intermédiaire de leur représentant à des travaux d'études entreprises par l'institut, comme en matière de régionalisation, en matière d'informatique, etc.

b. Avec l'Unesco, l'institut entretient des relations suivies. Il a effectué pour son compte plusieurs enquêtes; nous citerons notamment celle sur les possibilités d'échanges internationaux de personnel administratif, celle sur l'étude des relations entre les administrations nationales et les organisations internationales, celle sur l'enseignement supérieur des sciences administratives. Il a aussi été chargé par elle de la préparation de recueils de textes commentés, dont l'un d'eux, celui consacré à la Fonction publique, est considéré comme un modèle du genre.

c. L'institut coopère de même de façon suivie avec de nombreuses organisations internationales non gouvernementales. Citons notamment le Conseil international pour l'organisation scientifique (CIOSS), l'Union internationale des Villes et Pouvoirs locaux (UIV - IULA), l'Association internationale des Sciences juridiques (AISJ - IALS), la Fédération internationale de Documentation (FID), l'International Bureau of Informatics - International Center of Computers (IB - ICC), la Fédération internationale pour l'Habitation, l'Urbanisme et l'Aménagement des Territoires .FIHUAT). Il s'honneure de faire partie de l'Union des Associations internationales (UAI-UIA).

d. Sur le plan régional international, l'institut collabore également, soit sous la forme d'échanges de services, soit sous la forme d'une coopération à des travaux, recherches communes ainsi qu'à l'organisation de colloques, de séminaires. Il a aussi des contacts avec le CAFRAD en Afrique, le Centre maghrébin de sciences administratives, l'Organisation arabe pour les Sciences administratives, en Afrique du Nord et au Moyen-Orient, l'EROPA en Asie, l'Association latino-américaine d'Administration publique, en Amérique latine, etc.

Au cours des années 1971 /1972, l'institut a été, entre autres, représenté en août, à Berlin, à un Séminaire organisé par la Deutsche Stiftung für Entwicklungsländer, à Speyer, au Colloque organisé par la Hochschule für Verwaltungswissenschaften, à Bangkok, à un Groupe de travail sur la formation des fonctionnaires supérieurs (EROPA), à Milan, au Colloque de l'UAI sur la Philosophie des Organisations internationales, à Tanger, au Colloque organisé par le CAFRAD sur la gestion du développement urbain et rural en Afrique.

e. Relation avec les Etats (échelon national)

L'institut joue un rôle important au plan des Etats eux-mêmes par l'intermédiaire de ses Sections nationales. Ces Sections groupent dans les Etats où elles existent des personnalités qui jouent souvent un rôle important dans l'administration de ces pays. Les recherches, les études, les travaux qu'elles font ont, dès lors, un impact sur elle. D'ailleurs, il est fréquent qu'une Section nationale se voit officiellement chargée d'une mission de recherches, voire même de la préparation d'avant-projet de réforme. Ajoutons enfin que sa structure met l'institut particulièrement à même d'effectuer des enquêtes et donne à ses interventions un poids considérable. De plus, ses relations étroites avec les milieux administratifs de tous les pays lui permettent d'identifier, à l'intention des Gouvernements et des organisations internationales, les experts susceptibles de remplir les missions de coopération technique dans le domaine de l'administration publique.

Nous espérons avoir donné, dans les lignes qui précèdent, une image aussi fidèle que possible de l'institut international des Sciences administratives. Nous nous rendons compte cependant que beaucoup de choses encore auraient pu être dites à son sujet. De plus, si l'institut a à son actif des réalisations dignes d'intérêt sur le plan de la coopération internationale, il n'en reste pas moins que ses activités pourraient encore être accrues dans ce domaine. Une institution n'a de raison d'être que dans la mesure où elle rend des services à la Communauté dans laquelle elle vit et pour autant que ces services soient fournis de la manière la plus efficace possible. Cela veut dire que ses dirigeants doivent toujours être attentifs à remettre en question ses méthodes de travail et ses moyens d'action. C'est ce qu'ont bien compris les membres du Comité Exécutif de l'IISA. Au cours de l'année 1972, ils ont constitué une Commission qui a été chargée de leur présenter des propositions concrètes de réforme en vue de mieux adapter son action aux problèmes auxquels l'administration publique doit faire face dans le monde d'aujourd'hui et devra faire face dans un proche avenir.

L'objectif poursuivi est, en effet, de rendre cette action aussi efficiente que possible dans un esprit de solidarité et de coopération internationale par l'utilisation de méthodes et de moyens mieux en rapport avec les circonstances de temps et de milieu.

Qu'il nous soit permis en terminant de remercier l'Union des Associations Internationales de nous avoir donné, en nous ouvrant les colonnes de sa Revue, la possibilité de faire mieux connaître cette institution à laquelle déjà tant de personnes ont donné tout leur dévouement.

Briefing by Ambassador Faruk Berkol.

Under Secretary-General
UN Disaster Relief Co-ordinator

New York, November 1972.



Mr. Faruk Berkol, Under Secretary General UN Disaster Relief Coordinator was kind enough to give us the following unpublished text of his briefing on the goals and activities of his new Office last month at a New York Press Conference. Readers will appreciate the recognition that the Coordinator gave to NGOs. It appears, once more, that for catastrophes as for the human environment, for development, for any other programme of an intergovernmental organization, nothing can finally be accomplished without the cooperation and participation of the world network of international associations.

I suggest, in this briefing, that first of all, and before discussing the work of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator, we make a short reference to some of the reasons which have lead to the creation of the Co-ordinator's Office. I suggest, furthermore, that we also spend a moment in retrospect, as the United Nations' concern with matters such as disasters is not, of course, really new. But, firstly : Why this office ? Why was it created ? Well, this is because Member States felt that recent disasters had shown that unco-ordinated assistance was not enough. Recent past disasters such as those in Peru, Nigeria and other countries had shown a need for co-ordination in the introduction of foreign relief supplies and personnel into the afflicted country and a need to avoid waste and duplication of these supplies and to ensure efficient distribution of available resources.

We also ought to remember that we live in a time when science and technology play a prominent role in public life, and by analogy, in international relations. Finished are the days when, except for death, natural disasters are accepted with a certain fatalism and resignation. Disasters are nowadays deeply affecting the conscience of the world community, leading it to the initiation and adoption of preventive and defensive measures in order to mitigate the impact of disasters. The United Nations work in this type of field can perhaps be said to have begun with the United Nations Relief

and Rehabilitation Administration which was set up in the closing years of the Second World War. This was followed by the International Refugee Organizations which cared for and succeeded in moving between 1 1/2 and 2 million displaced persons and refugees from camps and temporary accommodations in various parts of Europe to new permanent homes during the years 1947-51. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and the Inter-governmental Committee for European Migration have continued this work. The High Commissioner's Office did indeed exist ever since the end of the First World War when Dr. Nansen began one of the earliest of international organizations which worked on behalf of refugees. Recently the High Commissioner's Office has been particularly active, as you probably know, with the problems of refugees in India and refugees being repatriated to the Sudan, though it has to deal with many other groups of refugees also. Since the end of the Second World War UNICEF has carried on effective work for children and mothers and there are other organizations such as the World Health Organization, the International Labour Office, the World Food Programme and Food and Agriculture Organization, UNESCO, to mention but a few, which are also members of the UN family working in the social and humanitarian sphere, generally with a considerable effect on economic well-being also.

The creation of the United Nations

Disaster Relief Co-ordinator's Office by General Assembly resolution 2816, dated 14th December 1971, constitutes, therefore, the most recent manifestation of the Member States' concern in the impact of disasters which - have inflicted heavy loss of life and property, affecting every people and every country ». Shortly before that, the Economic and Social Council had made a series of recommendations in the same sense. In January of this year, the Secretary-General appointed me to the post of Co-ordinator, a post which the General Assembly decided should be set at the Under-Secretary-General level normally for a term of five years. The Co-ordinator's Office is the focal point in the United Nations system for disaster relief matters and constitutes a distinct element within the United Nations Secretariat.

The Co-ordinator reports, therefore, directly to the Secretary-General. During 1972, a small staff was assembled, numbering in all about a dozen people. Its headquarters are in the Palais des Nations, Geneva. Besides establishing and maintaining the closest co-operation with all organizations concerned for the purpose of ensuring the most effective assistance, the Co-ordinator is authorized on behalf of the Secretary-General to mobilize, direct and co-ordinate the relief activities of the various organizations of the United Nations system in response to a request for disaster assistance from a stricken state and also to co-ordinate United Nations assistance - with assistance given by inter-governmental organizations, in particular by the International Red Cross.

From the outset the importance of close relations with other bodies already very active in the field of relief was clearly recognized and with this in mind the Red Cross and UNICEF were each asked to provide — and did provide — one professional member of UNDRO's staff.

UNDRO's essential function is that of co-ordination and the mobilization of aid provided by other bodies. The responsibilities laid upon the Office by the General Assembly call upon it to take action in disaster-prone and disaster-stricken countries, both before and when a disaster strikes. It is concerned at all times with the prevention, control and prediction of disasters and with preparedness and contingency planning in disaster-prone countries; when disasters strike, it is, of course, concerned with disaster relief itself. To do its job effectively it must also work closely with donors — governments and organizations — so that by advance planning, the most effective use can be made of their generosity. In practice the different phases of UNDRO's work cannot really be separated and its staff see themselves essentially as an interdependent team. One important principle which runs through UNDRO's approach to its job is

« The contribution of the world network of NGO's to international action is manifesting itself as an imperious necessity of our times ».

that it has not been created either on the one hand to limit or restrict the excellent work already being done by other bodies in connection with disasters, or, on the other hand, to duplicate such work. Its purpose is to act as a catalyst to stimulate others and to co-ordinate and act as a link between the many governments and institutions which are active or which could become active in disaster situations. In countries which historically have been found to be prone to different types of natural disasters such as earthquakes or hurricanes, it is necessary to create or develop an effective national machinery to limit the damage and bring relief to those suffering the consequences of disasters. UNDRO's job is to help to strengthen such national machinery to the fullest extent possible. It is also important to encourage joint action between the national authorities and others concerned in confining or relieving disasters. They need to be brought together before the event and not only after it. This should involve the creation of a group or committee consisting of the national relief co-ordinator (who himself brings together government departments and often regional and local authorities also); the national Red Cross or Red Crescent society; representatives from Embassies of countries which have traditionally given relief assistance when disasters strike the state to which they are accredited; voluntary agencies with significant relief potential represented in the country, and the United Nations bodies and agencies such as UNICEF, WHO, the World Food Programme/FAO, and UNESCO, among others, which may have representatives on the spot. UNDRO itself is represented in some 90 developing countries by the Resident Representatives of the United Nations Development Programme, part of whose task consists of encouraging advance measures to ward off or deal with disasters, and to co-ordinate relief and reconstruction. The General Assembly formally recognized the key role which these Resident Representatives have to play and this role can be of the greatest importance both in encouraging measures of disaster prevention and preparedness and in actual relief operations. It means that UNDRO is already represented on the spot and as time goes on it is hoped that these Resident Representatives' offices will assume an increasingly effective role. These groups or committees in disaster-prone countries will seek to reach an agreement on the tasks which each member of the committee should undertake. They should be aware of national measures and resources available for dealing with disasters" and should plan to play their part in support of the national disaster relief co-ordinator. One particular function of this group will be to agree on the nature and amount of relief services or relief supplies which, in a particular disaster situation, cannot be provided from the country's internal resources and which, therefore, must be sought from outside. This is where so much confusion has arisen in the past with different bodies appealing to their several headquarters for different quantities of supplies or different types of services without any joint agreement. This has meant in many cases that a need has been fulfilled many times over. It has also meant that important needs have not been met. When a disaster happens, what we do hope is that there will be agreement on the spot in the disaster-stricken country as to what external relief supplies and services should be sought from what sources and that UNDRO will be kept informed by the Resident Representative of all bids or requests made for outside assistance. All this shows that UNDRO sees co-operation as taking place primarily

and essentially in the disaster country itself. After all that is where the action is.

Resident Representatives' offices differ in the degree to which they are staffed, trained and equipped at the present time to carry out their role. It is likely that, if and when necessary, and at least in serious disaster situations, UNDRO will send a representative to the spot by the first available aircraft who will assist the Resident Representative in the task of surveying and assessing the situation, in formulating any external aid requests and possibly in distributing relief. As news of external aid requirements begins to flow into UNDRO's Geneva office it will be recorded on a 24-hour basis in UNDRO's clearing house, which will issue a series of disaster relief bulletins by Telex and possibly by other means. To those governments, international organizations and relief agencies which have expressed a wish to receive reports on the situation and on relief needs as they become known this clearing house will be an « open house », in the sense that any recognized institution actively concerned with disaster relief will be able to obtain these bulletins subject only to its agreement to provide UNDRO in return with a series of up-to-date bulletins on the aid requests which it receives and the response which it proposes to make or has made to these requests.

Thus UNDRO should progressively become a world information and action centre on disaster situations and on measures that are being taken to help relieve them.

This clearing house will, of course, be in Geneva and will operate in the closest possible contact with the League of Red Cross Societies and when appropriate with the International Committee of the Red Cross. The presence in Geneva of UNICEF's European Office, which has among other things an important supply and procurement office, of the World Health Organization, the World Meteorological Organization, the International Telecommunications Union and many other international organizations and non-governmental organizations concerned with relief should give this centre much added strength.

The General Assembly invited governments to say what kind of facilities and services they may be in a position to provide for emergency relief operations. Such assistance may take the form of food supplies, medical supplies, personnel, means of transportation and communications. On a year-round basis UNDRO will be building up such information through contacts with the governments and in other ways. It is hoped to build up a catalogue of the broad types of supplies and services which might be made available. Governments have made it clear that it is difficult for them to pledge certain

specific items, e.g. aircraft or helicopters, in advance as these may at the time already be employed on government work and not, therefore, be available. However, UNDRO will seek to build up a catalogue in broad terms of what might be available and on particular occasions if it is found that a particular item cannot be provided by one government it can then be sought from another.

Under the General Assembly's Resolution, the Co-ordinator is authorized to accept contributions. If they are in cash he will normally arrange for the money to be spent through existing relief agencies and organizations. However, the co-ordination of appeals is as important as other aspects of co-ordination and usually the Co-ordinator will consult with other relief agencies before issuing any appeal. He is unlikely to appeal to the general public — this is already the practise of other UN bodies such as UNICEF and of the non-governmental relief agencies. He is more likely to go to governments when needs outstrip help from other sources.

As UNDRO compiles information on what governments can make available, so the Co-ordinator will be better able to - press the button » and ask particular governments for supplies and services which he believes from previous contacts with them that they will probably be able to supply. The Secretary-General has a small amount of money (\$ 200,000 currently per year) on which he can draw, upon the recommendation of the Co-ordinator, for immediate aid. But this is largely symbolic in character — in any serious disaster the Co-ordinator will have recourse to other donors, informing them (a) of the needs (b) of what others are already doing to meet them and (c) of what special contribution in cash, supplies, transportation or personnel the particular donor being approached might hopefully make.

Thus our clearing house is simultaneously an information centre and a centre for encouraging needed further action.

It will take time to build up the preventive measures, the contingency plans and the national disaster relief machinery in disaster-prone countries; to bring the local groups or committees to work together and to agree on their estimates of needs and their requests for outside help. It will take time to approach all possible donor governments and organizations and to catalogue their potential contributions. It will take less time — we hope — to set up the UNDRO clearing house in Geneva, in the closest collaboration with the League of Red Cross Societies and other bodies concerned, whether they are governmental, international or non-governmental, so that our first co-ordinating bulletins can go out to keep all concerned informed of what is needed.

But these are the directions in which we hope to move — and to move others — and from our many consultations with governments and organizations, we believe that in moving towards these objectives we shall be doing what those who proposed the creation of our office intended us to do, and be helping in our modest way to increase the effectiveness of the assistance brought to many unfortunate people.

We live in an era wherein the concept of international society tends to become more and more receptive and open to the manifestations of public opinion. Even though sovereign states alone have the last say in ensuring international order, it is a fact that when useful and necessary they proceed to consultations with non-governmental organizations and often take their views into consideration, especially where humanitarian and scientific issues are concerned. It is, therefore, by no means a coincidence that General Assembly Resolution 2816 which has created the Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator requires the Co-ordinator's cooperation with all organizations concerned, in the exercise of this functions. As I pointed out earlier, it directs him to co-ordinate the United Nations assistance with assistance given, inter alia, by non-governmental Organizations, in particular by the International Red Cross.

The contribution of the world network of non-governmental organizations to international action is, therefore, manifesting itself as an imperious necessity of our times. This contribution whether under the form of mobilization of public opinion, a scientific participation or the attribution of financial resources, constitutes the framework of the universal society in the face of the governmental machinery. This network of non-governmental organizations covers not only the unions, the churches, the cooperatives, but also the scientific, intellectual, educational, industrial organizations, the humanitarian leagues, the women's organizations and also the youth organizations. It is a network which may perhaps be described, in line with an expression used from time to time, as an ensemble of trans-national forces.



Pour les besoins d'une étude qui n'a rien à voir avec le sujet des présentes réflexions, nous avons parcouru un livre déjà ancien. Son orientation générale autant que certains passages nous ont fait penser à l'action à mener pour la 2e Déennie de Développement. Nous avions examiné ce livre de 900 pages, publié en 1843, en raison du fait que son auteur était indiqué par John W. Follows, dans son ouvrage "Antecedents of the International Labour Organisation" (Oxford, 1951), comme étant, parmi les réformateurs sociaux de son époque : les Robert Owen, Charles Hindley, Villermé, Blanqui, Daniel Legrand, Christoph Ulrich Hahn, etc... le premier qui ait suggéré l'établissement de conventions internationales du travail et d'une sorte d'organisation internationale du travail. Le livré, contenant cette suggestion, a pour titre : « De la condition physique et morale des jeunes ouvriers et des moyens de l'améliorer » (Bruxelles, Meline, Cans et Compagnie, 1843, 2 volumes 444 et 423 pages). Son auteur, Edouard Dupréaux (1804-1868) après avoir été un des artisans de l'indépendance belge allait dès celle-ci, consacrer toute son activité et sa vie à de multiples réformes sociales sur le plan national et international. Il divise son ouvrage en trois parties : la première partie a pour sujet la condition physique des jeunes ouvriers; la deuxième partie, leur condition intellectuelle et morale; la troisième partie, les moyens d'amélioration. C'est dans cette troisième partie qu'il préconise entre autres : « l'avènement d'une politique humaine, généreuse, propre à relier les peuples divisés aujourd'hui, et qui conduirait certainement à l'adoption de conventions internationales favorables à l'émancipation des travailleurs blancs comme elles le furent naguère à l'émancipation des noirs » (t. II, p. 320), faisant ici allusion

sion au Traité de Vienne de 1815 relatif à l'abolition de la traite. Dans l'introduction de son ouvrage, qui visait principalement, notons-le, à obtenir des réformes sur le plan de son pays, Dupréaux souligne la nécessité d'une action internationale : « S'il est nécessaire de s'organiser à l'intérieur, il ne l'est pas moins d'aviser aux

tion impie de l'homme par l'homme en s'occupant presque exclusivement des faits sans tenir compte des individus. Elle s'est attachée à expliquer le mécanisme de la production et de la consommation, sans presque parler des producteurs et des consommateurs... Empruntant le masque de la liberté, se retranchant derrière le paradoxalement

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moyens de rattacher, autant que possible, à cette organisation les pays étrangers. La loi de la solidarité doit relier les peuples comme les individus... Il est indispensable que les nations et les gouvernements se concertent et s'entendent... Au lieu d'être les représentants des cours, les diplomates doivent être désormais les missionnaires de l'humanité... » (t. I, pp. XI et XII).

Il est certainement remarquable que Dupréaux ait ainsi souligné, dès 1843, la loi de la solidarité des peuples ainsi que la nécessité de la coopération internationale pour hausser les niveaux de vie nationaux.

Il ne l'est pas moins, nous semble-t-il, que Dupréaux ait eu le souci de s'occuper non seulement de la condition physique des jeunes ouvriers, mais tout autant de leur condition intellectuelle et morale.

Il est remarquable aussi que Dupréaux ait choisi de consacrer son étude et projet de réforme aux jeunes ouvriers plutôt qu'aux adultes. Le travail doit être organisé, dit-il, en fonction des droits de chaque homme, mais cette organisation doit être préparée graduellement et, « l'amélioration de la condition des jeunes ouvriers doit conduire à l'amélioration de la condition laborieuse en général » (t. I, p. VI). Nous voudrions enfin rappeler une autre idée maîtresse énoncée dans son livre et qu'il résume comme suit dans l'introduction :

« L'économie politique a malheureusement donné les mains à cette exploitation

sez faire, laissez passer des économistes, l'exploitation continue et continuera son cours jusqu'à ce que l'on se demande enfin d'une commune voix si la route que l'on suit est bien la meilleure et si elle ne conduit pas à l'abîme ceux même qui en apparence la parcourent avec le plus de sécurité » (t. I, p. II).

Ces fortes paroles furent écrites en pleine période du manchesterisme, par un homme alors d'appartenance politique libérale, qui avait déjà des responsabilités administratives importantes puisqu'il était depuis 1831 inspecteur général des prisons et des établissements de bienfaisance; par un homme d'étude et grand publiciste qui allait être élu, le 16 février 1856, membre correspondant de l'institut de France; mais aussi par un homme d'action, qui fut le promoteur et le réalisateur d'une série de réformes sociales et éducatives, facilitées sans doute par le fait que la Belgique, sans ambition politique, s'était immédiatement, dès son indépendance, attachée à un programme de développement économique, social et culturel. Les dernières pages de ce livre contiennent la proposition de la création et les projets de statuts de deux organismes : une « Société belge d'utilité publique ayant pour but le développement de la civilisation et l'amélioration physique, intellectuelle et morale des diverses classes de la population » et une « Association internationale pour le progrès des sciences morales et sociales » (t. II, pp. 414-423).

Toutes ces idées que nous venons de rappeler ont comme objectif l'avenir de l'humanité et comme point de départ une constatation analogue à celle que formulait M. de Tocqueville, lorsqu'il disait : « Nous nous endormons sur un volcan ».

On peut se demander ce qu'écrirait et ferait aujourd'hui Edouard Ducpétiaux, si le destin l'avait fait naître cent trente ans plus tard et l'avait confronté avec le problème du développement. Ne répéterait-il pas, en soulignant l'insuffisance des mesures prises par les Nations-Unies et la distance qui les sépare d'une véritable volonté de solidarité, ses paroles de 1843 : « Il n'y a que l'avènement d'une politique nouvelle qui puisse lui venir en aide... On peut résumer cette politique par ces deux mots : association, progrès; association entre les nations comme entre les individus, dans chaque nation en parti-

culier... Unis dans l'intérêt de leur commune prospérité, les peuples pourront dans ce concert le stimulant et la persévérance nécessaires pour réformer les abus et effectuer les améliorations... » (t. I, pp. IX et X). Ne dirait-il pas que l'on s'occupe trop des institutions mais pas assez des individus ?

Ne demanderait-il pas que l'on donne, dans les programmes d'aide aux pays en voie de développement, une attention plus grande à la jeunesse de ces pays, le relèvement économique de ceux-ci ne pouvant réussir sans l'accroissement de la formation de celle-ci ? Ne soulignerait-il pas à nouveau qu'il faut se préoccuper non seulement de la condition physique, mais aussi de la condition intellectuelle et morale des jeunes ? Ne ferait-il pas ressortir la nécessité de

conjurer tous les efforts possibles et les avantages qu'il y aurait à associer la capacité des organisations internationales non gouvernementales à la capacité des Etats, et cela pleinement, même sur le plan opérationnel, et surtout pour la promotion de la science, de l'éducation et de la culture dans les pays en voie de développement ?

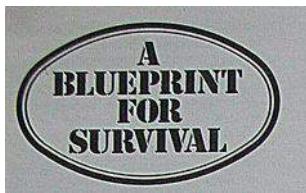
Ne rappellerait-il pas que la création de nombreuses organisations intergouvernementales résulte de l'action lucide et tenace de groupements internationaux d'individus ? N'insisterait-il pas sur le cas de l'extraordinaire instrument tripartite de progrès — l'organisation internationale du travail — et sur le fait que les articles de la Partie XIII du Traité de Versailles, qui forment actuellement sa charte constitutive, furent élaborés par une Commission dont les membres étaient du point de vue juridique purement formel des représentants de Gouvernements, mais qui parlèrent et agirent en réalité comme les représentants des organisations ouvrières auxquelles ils appartenaien et en fonction précisément desquelles ils avaient été choisis. (Citant dans ce rappel l'ouvrage classique d'Alexandre Berenstein, *Les organisations ouvrières. Leur compétence et leur rôle dans la Société des Nations*. Paris, Pédone, 1936, pp. 24-32) ?

Convaincu sans doute qu'il est vain d'espérer un prompt progrès du niveau de vie des pays en voie de développement, par des discours, des conventions, des contrats, ou du financement, qui ne soient pas fondés sur un véritable esprit de compréhension internationale et un vouloir de coopération entre les peuples, le Ducpétiaux de 1972 ne répéterait-il pas son injonction de 1843 : « Au lieu d'être des représentants de gouvernements, les délégués des Etats membres doivent être désormais des missionnaires de l'humanité ».

Sans nul doute, il exprimerait alors le voeu d'une large fraction de l'opinion • publique et surtout des jeunes, de tous ceux qui ne partagent pas l'opinion de Schlozer, de Göttingen, que « L'histoire est la statistique en mouvement et que la statistique est l'histoire en repos; de tous ceux qui espèrent être « les peuples des Nations-Unies »; de tous ceux qui veulent que les nations, enfin effectivement unies, procurent, par la mise en œuvre d'une authentique justice sociale internationale, à tous les individus sans distinction de race, de sexe, de langue ou de religion, un bonheur qui ne soit pas politique, juridique, administratif, statistique, mais humain. Et on verrait, peut-être, le programme de la deuxième ou de la troisième Décennie contenir un vaste chapitre intitulé - De la condition physique et morale des jeunes travailleurs et des étudiants dans les pays en voie de développement et des moyens de l'amélio-



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As a follow-up to our environment issue, we reprint here key paragraphs from the controversial "Blueprint for Survival" which was launched as an internationally-significant action programme in the United Kingdom. A reaction to it is given on pages 93-96.

Reprinted from The Ecologist, January 1972.

Towards the stable society: Strategy for change

Introduction

210. The principal conditions of a stable society—one that to all intents and purposes can be sustained indefinitely while giving optimum satisfaction to its members — are: (1) minimum disruption of ecological processes; (2) maximum conservation of materials and energy—or an economy of stock rather than flow; (3) a population in which recruitment equals loss; and (4) a social system in which the individual can enjoy, rather than feel restricted by, the first three conditions.

211. The achievement of these four conditions will require controlled and well-orchestrated change on numerous fronts and this change will probably occur through seven operations: (1) a control operation whereby environmental disruption is reduced as much as possible by technical means; (2) a freeze operation, in which present trends are halted; (3) asystemic substitution, by which the most dangerous components of these trends are replaced by technological substitutes, whose effect is less deleterious in the short-term, but over the long-term will be increasingly ineffective; (4) systemic substitution, by which these technological substitutes are replaced by "natural" or self-regulating ones, i.e. those which either replicate or employ without undue disturbance the normal processes of the ecosphere, and are therefore likely to be sustainable over very long periods of time; (5) the invention, promotion and

application of alternative technologies which are energy and materials, conservative, and which because they are designed for relatively "closed" economic communities are likely to disrupt ecological processes only minimally (e.g. intermediate technology); (6) centralisation of polity and economy at all levels, and the formation of communities small enough to be reasonably self-regulating and self-supporting; and (7) education for such communities.

212. As we shall see when we examine how our four conditions might be achieved, some changes will involve only a few of these operations, in others a number of the operations will be carried out almost simultaneously, and in others one will start well before another has ended. The usefulness of the operation-concept is simply to clarify the orchestration of change.

213. In putting forward these proposals we are aware that hasty or disordered change is highly disruptive and ultimately self-defeating; but we are also mindful of how the time-scale imposed on any proposal for a remedial course of action has been much-abbreviated by the dynamic of exponential growth (of population, resource depletion and pollution) and by the scarcely perceived scale and intensity of our disruption of the ecological processes on which we and all other life-forms depend. Within these limitations, therefore, we have taken care to devise and synchronise our programme so as to minimise both unemployment and capital outlay. We believe it possible to change from an expansionist society to a stable society without loss of jobs or an increase in real expenditure. Inevitably, however,

there will be considerable changes, both of geography and function, in job availability and the requirements for capital inputs—and these may set up immense counter-productive social pressures. Yet given the careful and sensitive conception and implementation of a totally integrated programme these should be minimised, and an open style of government should inspire the trust and co-operation of the general public so essential for the success of this enterprise.

214. One further point should be made before we consider in more detail the various changes required. As each of the many socio-economic components or variables of industrial society are changed or replaced, so various pressure-points will be set up. It is easy to imagine, for example, a situation in which 25 per cent of the socio-economic variables are designed for a stable society and therefore by definition are ill-suited to one of expansion. This situation may create more problems than it solves. When we reach the point at which 50 per cent of the variables are adapted to stability and the other 50 per cent to expansion, the difficulties and tensions are likely to be enormous, but thereafter each change and replacement will assist further change and replacement, and the moulding of a sustainable, satisfying society should be that much easier. It is difficult for the human mind to imagine the temporal sequence of complex change, and no doubt impossible for it to visualise the precise interactions of the various components. While bearing in mind the folly of expecting computers to do our thinking for us, we believe they have an important role to play in demonstrating

the consequences throughout social and ecological systems of a great number of changes over a given period of time.

Minimising the disruption of ecological processes

220. Ecological processes can be disrupted by introducing into them either substances that are foreign to them or the correct ones in the wrong quantities. It follows therefore that the most common method of pollution "control", namely dispersal, is not control at all, but a more or less useful way of playing for time. Refuse disposal by dumping solves the immediate problem of the householder, but as dumping sites are used up it creates progressively less soluble problems for society at large; smokeless fuels are invaluable signs of progress for the citizens of London or Sheffield, but the air pollution from their manufacture brings misery and ill-health to the people near the plants where they are produced; in many cases the dispersal of pollutants through tall chimneys merely alters the proportion of pollution, so that instead of a few receiving much, many receive some; and lastly, in estuarine and coastal waters—crucial areas for fisheries—nutrients from sewage and agricultural run-off in modest quantities probably increase productivity, but in excess are as harmful as organochlorines and heavy metals.

221. Thus dispersal can be only a temporary expedient. Pollution control proper must consist of the recycling of materials, or the introduction of practices which are so akin to natural processes as not to be harmful. The long-term object of these pollution control procedures is to minimise our dependence on technology as a regulator of the ecological cycles on which we depend, and to return as much as possible to the natural mechanisms of the ecosphere, since in all but the short-term they are much more efficient and reliable. In the light of these remarks then, let us consider some contemporary pollution problems and how they might be solved.

222. *Pesticides.* There is no way of controlling the disruption caused by pesticides save by using less, and progress towards this end will probably require three operations: freeze, asystemic substitution, and systemic substitution. The freeze operation consists of the ending of any further commitment

to pesticides, particularly the persistent organochlorines. For the developed countries this is a relatively simple procedure, and already the use of Dieldrin, DDT, and so on, is beginning to decline. For the undeveloped countries, however, it would be impossible without an undertaking from the developed ones to subsidise the supply of much more expensive substitutes. In the malaria control programme, for example, the replacement of DDT by malathion or propoxur would raise the cost of spraying operations from US \$60 million a year to \$184 million and \$510 million respectively¹.

223. Once such an undertaking is given, the undeveloped countries could proceed to the second operation. (There is no conceivable reason why the developed ones should not formally do so now.) This consists of the progressive substitution of non-persistent pesticides (organophosphates, carbamates, etc.) for the organochlorines. The third operation, the substitution of natural controls for pesticides in general could follow soon after. Two important points should be borne in mind: (a) it is most unlikely that the third stage could ever be complete—we will probably have to rely on the precision use of pesticides for some considerable time as part of a programme of integrated control; and (b) the second and third operations would proceed in harness until all countries had fully integrated pest control programmes. The drawback with integrated control (the combination of biological control, mechanical control, crop-species diversity and the precise use of species-specific pesticides) is that as yet we do not know enough about it, so that a full-scale research programme is urgently required. The agro-chemical industries should be encouraged to invest in integrated control programmes though plainly, since the profits cannot be so great as from chemical control, research will need public finance—as will the training of integrated control advisory teams to assist farmers, particularly in the undeveloped countries. Such an investment, however, will appear modest once integrated control is fully operational, in comparison with the vast sums of money currently being spent annually on pesticides. A typical operational procedure for the transfer from chemical to integrated control might be as follows: organochlorines phased out, substitute pesticides phased in; in some cultivations these substitutes would be phased out almost immediately, to be replaced by integrated control; in others the time-table would be somewhat longer, depending on our understanding of the relevant agro-ecological processes and the availability of trained personnel.

224. *Fertilisers.* While on many occasions the use of inorganic fertilisers is valuable, their overuse leads to two intractable problems: the pollution of freshwater systems by run-off, and diminishing returns due to the slow but inevitable impoverishment of the soil (see appendix on food supply). Again the solution will come through three operations: freeze, asystemic substitution, and systemic substitution. The first operation requires there to be no further increment in the application of inorganic fertilisers, and hence the removal of subsidies for them. Again this is relatively easy for the developed countries (although there may be some drop in yield per acre), but next to impossible for the undeveloped countries, which are now being introduced to the new genetic hybrids of rice and wheat. Since the remarkable responsiveness of these hybrids is contingent on massive fertiliser inputs (up to 27 times present ones), the undeveloped world is faced with an unavoidable choice: either to keep alive its expanding population over the next ten years at the price of considerable damage to soil structure and long-term fertility; or to improve soil structure so that a good proportion of the population can be fed indefinitely, but in the knowledge that the population will probably be reduced to that proportion by such natural processes as famine and epidemic. In the long-term, of course, the solution lies in population control; but in the intervening period there seems to be no alternative to concentrating on agricultural methods that are sustainable even at the expense of immediate productivity. The consequences of not doing so are likely to be much worse than any failure to take full advantage of the new hybrids. In the meantime, an emergency food-supply must be created by the developed prime-producers (USA, USSR, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) so that as much as possible of any short-fall can be met during this difficult period.

225. The second operation involves the gradual substitution of organic manures for inorganic fertilisers—though occasionally the latter will be used to supplement the former—and the return to such practices as rotation and leys; this would merge into the third operation: the adoption of highly diversified farming practices in place of monocultures. It is necessary to emphasise that this is not simply a return to traditional good husbandry: it is much more a change from flow fertility (whereby nutrients are imported from outside the agro-ecosystem, a proportion being utilised by food-plants, but with a large proportion leaving the agro-ecosystem in the form of run-off, etc.) to cyclic fertility (in which nutrients in the soil are used and then returned to it in as closed a cycle as possible). The great advantage of nutrients in organic form is that the soil appears much better adapted to them. The nitrogen in humus, for example, is only 0.5 per cent inorganic, the rest being in the form of rotting vegetation, decomposing insects and other animals, and animal manure. A high proportion of organic matter is essential for the soil to be easily workable over long periods (thus extending the period in which cultivations are timely), for it to retain water well without becoming saturated, for the retention of nutrients so that they remain available to plants until they are taken up by them (thus reducing wastage), and for the provision of the optimum environment for the micro-organisms so vital for long-term fertility. The rotation of leguminous plants and of grass grazed by animals are the most effective ways of adding organic matter

to the soil, while at the same time allowing livestock to select their own food in the open has the double advantage that they are bred with a healthy fat-structure and their wastes enrich the soil instead of polluting waterways or overloading sewage systems. By diversifying fanning in these and other ways we are taking advantage of the immense growth of knowledge about agricultural ecology, which plainly will increase with additional research.

226. *Domestic sewage.* The volume of sewage is directly proportional to population numbers and can only be stabilised or reduced by stabilising or reducing the population. However, sewage can and should be disposed of

much more efficiently. It is absurd that such valuable nutrients should be allowed to pollute fresh and coastal waters, or that society should be put to the expense of disposing of them in areas where they cannot be effectively utilised. Unfortunately, in developed countries, their disposal as agricultural fertiliser is not generally feasible, largely for two reasons: (a) they are contaminated by industrial wastes; (b) transportation costs are too high. Both difficulties can be overcome—in the first case by ensuring that there is no (or negligible) admixture of industrial domestic effluents, which depends on better industrial pollution control (see below); and in the second case by decentralising so that there is an improved mix of rural and urban activities. This will be explored in the section on social systems. In undeveloped countries, the problem of domestic sewage could be overcome by the provision of aid to pay for sewage plants that yield purified water and usable sludge.

227. *Industrial wastes.* Reduction of industrial effluent should proceed by two operations: a control operation, and an alternative (materials and energy conservative) technology operation. We have already suggested that the key to pollution control is not dispersal but recycling, and since recycling is a most important element in resource management it will be discussed in the section on stock economics. The alternative technology operation will be considered in the section on social systems.

Conversion to an economy of stock

230. The transfer from flow to stock economics can be considered under two headings: resource management and social accounting.

231. *Resource management.* It is essential that the throughput of raw materials be minimised both to conserve non-renewable resources and to cut down pollution. Since industry must have an economic incentive to be conservative of materials and energy and to recycle as much as possible, we propose a number of fiscal measures to these ends:

(a) A raw materials tax. This would be proportionate to the availability of the raw material in question, and would be designed to enable our reserves to last over an arbitrary period of time, the

longer the better, on the principle that during this time our dependence on this raw material would be reduced. This tax would penalise resource-intensive industries and favour employment-intensive ones. Like (b) below it would also penalise short-lived products.

(b) An amortisation tax. This would be proportionate to the estimated life of the product, e.g. it would be 100 per cent for products designed to last no more than a year, and would then be progressively reduced to zero per cent for those designed to last 100+ years. Obviously this would penalise short-lived products, especially disposable ones, thereby reducing resource utilisation and pollution, particularly the solid-waste problem. Plastics, for example, which are so remarkable for their durability, would be used only in products where this quality is valued, and not for single trip purposes. This tax would also encourage craftsmanship and employment-intensive industry,

232. The raw materials tax would obviously encourage recycling, and we can see how it might work if we consider such a vital resource as water. The growing conflict between farmers, conservationists and the water boards is evidence enough that demand for water is conflicting with other, no less important, values. At the moment, the water boards have no alternative but to fulfil their statutory obligation to meet demand, and accordingly valley after valley comes under the threat of drowning. Clearly, unless we consider dry land an obstacle to progress, demand must be stabilised, and since demand is a function of population numbers *X per capita* consumption, both must be stabilised, if not reduced (and we have seen that for other reasons they must be reduced). To this end therefore, while a given minimum can be supplied to each person free-of-charge, any amount above that minimum should be made increasingly expensive. As far as industry is concerned, the net effect would be to encourage the installation of closed-circuit systems for water; total demand would be reduced, and there would be less pressure on lowland river systems.

233. Despite the stimulus of a raw materials tax, however, it is likely that there would be a number of serious pollutants which it would be uneconomic to recycle, and still others for which

recycling would be technically impossible. One thinks in particular of the radioactive wastes from nuclear power stations. Furthermore, recycling cannot do everything: there will always be a non-recoverable minimum, which as now will have to be disposed of as safely as possible. This limitation can be made clear if we postulate a 3 per cent growth rate, and the introduction of pollution controls which reduce pollution by 80 per cent throughout—it would then take only 52 years to bring us back where we started from, with the original amount of pollution but with a much greater problem of reducing it any further; if we had a 6 per cent growth rate, we would reach this position in a mere 26 years. It is also worth mentioning that recycling consumes energy and is therefore polluting, so that it is necessary to develop recycling procedures which are energy conservative.

234. The problem of uneconomic recycling can be resolved by the granting of incentives by government. Indeed, in the short-term, the entire recycling industry should be encouraged to expand, even though we know that in the long-term industrial expansion is self-defeating. This brings us to the intractable problem of the disposal of the undisposable, which can only be resolved by the termination of industrial growth and the reduction of energy demand. Again fiscal measures will be supremely important, and we propose one in particular: (c) A power tax. This would penalise power-intensive processes and hence those causing considerable pollution. Since machinery requires more power than people, it would at the same time favour the employment intensification of industry, i.e. create jobs. It would also penalise the manufacture of short-lived products. In addition to this tax, there should be financial incentives for the development and installation of total energy systems, a matter to which we shall return in the section on social systems.

235. Finally, industrial pollution can also be reduced by materials substitution. The substitution of synthetic compounds for naturally occurring compounds has created serious environmental damage since in some cases the synthetics can be broken down only with difficulty and in others not at all. The usage rate of these synthetics has

increased immensely at the expense of the natural products, as can be seen from the following examples:

- (a) In the US, *per capita* consumption of synthetic detergents increased by 300 per cent between 1962 and 1968. They have largely replaced soap products, *per capita* consumption of which fell by 71 per cent between 1944 and 1964.
- (b) Synthetic fibres are rapidly replacing cotton, wool, silk and other natural fibres. In the US, *per capita* consumption of cotton fell by 33 per cent between 1950 and 1968.
- (c) The production of plastics and synthetic resins in the US, has risen by 300 per cent between 1958 and 1968. They have largely replaced wood and paper products.

AH of these processes consume the non-renewable fossil fuels, and their manufacture requires considerable inputs of energy. On the face of it, therefore, a counter-substitution of naturally occurring products would much reduce environmental disruption. However, it is possible that such a change-over, while it would certainly reduce disruption at one end, might dangerously increase it at the other. For example, many more acres would have to be put under cotton, thus increasing demand for pesticides, more land would have to be cleared and put under forest monocultures, and so on. This problem can only be solved by reducing total consumption.

236. *Genetic resources.* Before leaving the subject of resources, it is appropriate that we consider the world's diminishing stock of genetic resources. Genetic diversity is essential for the security of our food supply, since it is the *sine qua non* of plant breeding and introduction. The greater the number of varieties, the greater the opportunities for developing new hybrids with resistance to different types of pests and diseases, and to extremes of climate. It is important that new hybrids be continually developed since resistance to a particular disease is never a permanent quality. The number of plant varieties to be found in nature is infinitely greater than the number we could create artificially. Most of them are to be found in the undeveloped countries either as traditional domesticated plants or as wild plants in habitats relatively unaltered by man. There is a real danger that the former will be replaced by contemporary high-yield varieties, while

the latter will disappear when their habitats are destroyed. An FAO conference in 1967 concluded that the plant gene pool has diminished dangerously, for all over the world centres of diversity, our gene banks as it were, are disappearing, and with them our chance of maintaining productivity in food³.

237. Such centres-areas of wilderness—are often destroyed because their importance is not understood. Because they seem less productive than fields of waving corn, or because they are not accessible or attractive to tourists, they are considered in need of "improvement" or development, or simply as suitable dumping grounds for the aetius of civilisation. This is particularly true of wetlands—estuaries and marshes—where pollution, dredging, draining and filling are looked on almost with equanimity, certainly with scant regard for what is being lost. Yet the complex of living and decomposing grasses, and of phytoplankton, characteristic of wetlands, supports vast numbers of fish and birds and makes it one of the world's most productive ecosystems. Estuaries are the spawning grounds of very many fish and shellfish and form the base of the food-chain of some 60 per cent of our entire marine harvest. Should they go we can expect a substantial drop in productivity.

238. It is vital to the future well-being of man that wilderness areas and wetlands be conserved at all costs. This cannot be a matter simply of taking seed and storing it, since to be valuable genetic stock must continue to be subject to normal environmental pressures, and besides we have scarcely any idea of what plants we shall find useful in the future. For these reasons we must not only conserve large areas of natural habitat, we must also draw upon the knowledge and experience of the hunter-gatherers and hunter-farmers who gain their livelihood from them.

239. We therefore have recommended to the UN Human Environment Conference that⁴:

(1) Certain wilderness areas of tropical rain forest, tropical scrub forest, and arctic tundra be declared inviolate, these being the least understood and most fragile biomes;

(2) the hunter-gatherers and hunter-farmers within these areas be given title to their lands (i.e. those lands in which

traditionally they have gained their living) and be allowed to live there without pressure of any kind;

(3) severe restrictions be placed on entry to these areas by anyone who does not live there permanently (while allowing the indigenes free movement);

(4) sovereignty over the areas remain with the countries in which they lie; who should also be responsible for the policing of their boundaries;

(5) funds for administration of these areas and payments in lieu of exploitation (to the host country) be collected from UN members in proportion to their GNP;

(6) an international body be appointed as an outcome of the Stockholm Human Environment Conference to supervise an ecological programme of research, the results of which should be freely available to participating countries.

240. *Social accounting.* By the introduction of monetary incentives and disincentives it is possible to put a premium on durability and a penalty on disposability, thereby reducing the throughput of materials and energy so that resources are conserved and pollution reduced. But another important way of reducing pollution and enhancing amenity is by the provision of a more equitable social accounting system, reinforced by anti-disamenity legislation. Social accounting procedures must be used not just to weigh up the merits of alternative development proposals, but also to determine whether or not society actually wants such development. Naturally, present procedures require improvement: for example, in calculating "revealed preference" (the values of individuals and communities as "revealed" to economists by the amount people are willing and/or can afford to pay for or against a given development), imagination, sensitivity and commonsense are required in order to avoid the imposition on poor neighbourhoods or sparsely inhabited countryside of nuclear power stations, reservoirs, motorways, airports, and the like; and in calculating the "social time preference rate" (an indication of society's regard for the future) for a given project, a very low discount should be given, since it is easier to do than undo, and we must assume that unless we botch things completely many more generations will follow us who will not thank us for exhausting resources or blighting the landscape.

241. The social costs of any given society such as ours, which to a large development should be paid by those extent ignores the long-term consequences of its actions, there is a substantial differential between accepted who propose or perpetrate it—"the polluter must pay" is a principle that must guide our costing procedures, cost and real cost. An industrial town, Furthermore, accounting decisions should be made in the light of stock pollute the air and water systems around economies: in other words, we must judge the health of our economy not by the number of increasingly intensive monocultures, not only has no way of leads to waste, resource depletion and environmental disruption, but by the distribution, quality and variety of the stock. At the moment, as Kenneth Boulding has pointed out⁵, "the success of the economy is measured by the amount of throughput derived in part from reservoirs of raw materials, processed by factors of production", and passed on in part as output to the sink of pollution reservoirs. The Gross National Product (GNP) roughly measures this throughput". Yet, both the reservoirs of raw materials and the reservoirs for pollution are limited and finite, so that ultimately the throughput from the one to the other must be detrimental to our well-being, and must therefore not only be minimised but be regarded as a cost rather than a benefit. For this reason Boulding has suggested that GNP be considered a measure of gross national cost, and that we devote ourselves to its minimisation, maximising instead the quality of our stock. "When we have developed the economy of the spaceship earth", he writes, "in which man will persist in equilibrium, with his environment, the notion of the GNP will simply disintegrate. We will be less concerned with income-flow concepts and more with capital-stock concepts. Then technological changes that result in the maintenance of the total stock with less throughput (less production and consumption) will be a clear gain". We must come to assess our standard of living not by calculating the value of all the air-conditioners we have made and sold, by someone, somewhere, sometime, but by the freshness of the air; not by it is important that our accounting the value of the antibiotics, hormones, feedstuff and broiler-houses, and the accept, however, that ecological cost of disposing of their wastes, all of which put so heavy a price on poultry so far in space and time, that this will be production today, but by the Saviour exceptionally difficult. Nonetheless, and nutritional quality of the chickens given the truism that a satisfactory themselves, and so on. In other words, accounting system is one which accepted value must reflect real value, ports and helps perpetuate the social just as accepted cost must reflect real cost.

242. It is evident however, that in a

anthropocentric pipe-dream that we can do what we will to all species, not excepting, it seems, future generations of our own. It is worth recalling Prof. Commoner's dictum that since economics is the science of the distribution of resources, all of which are derived from the ecosystem, it is foolish to perpetuate an economic system which destroys it. Ideally (and as befits the etymology of the two words), ecology and economics should not be in conflict; ecology should provide the approach, the framework for an understanding of the interrelationships of social and environmental systems; and economics should provide the means of quantifying those interrelationships in the light of such an understanding, so that decisions on alternative courses of action can be made without undue difficulty.

244. One of our long-term goals, therefore, must be to unite economics and ecology. The specific measures we have proposed are we believe, necessary steps in this direction, albeit crude ones. A raw materials tax, an amortisation tax, a power tax, revised methods of calculating revealed preference, social time preference rate, and so on, with legislative provision for their enforcement, a set of air, water and land quality standards enforceable at law and linked with a grant-incentive programme—these and other measures will have to be introduced at an early stage. Naturally, the full force of such measures could not be allowed to operate immediately: they would have to be carefully graded so as to be effective without causing unacceptable degrees of social disturbance. Plainly the social consequences will be great, and these will be considered in the section on social systems. The key to success is likely to be careful synchronisation, and this too will be considered in a separate section.

Stabilising the population

250. We have seen already that however slight the growth rate, a population cannot grow indefinitely. It follows, therefore, that at some point it must stabilise of its own volition, or else be cut down by some "natural" mechanism—famine, epidemic, war, or whatever. Since no sane society would choose the latter course, it must choose to stabilise. To do this it must have some idea of its optimum size, since again it is unlikely that any sane society would choose to

stabilise above (or indeed below) it.

251. The two main variables affected by population numbers, as opposed to *per capita* consumption, are the extent to which the emotional needs and social aspirations of the community can be met (i.e. the complex of satisfactions which has come to be known, as the quality of life), and the community's ability to feed itself. In our opinion there is good social and epidemiological evidence that Britain and many other countries in both, the developed and undeveloped worlds are overcrowded. However, since this is impossible to prove, and since there is immense variation in individual emotional requirements, it would be unwise in the present state of our knowledge; to rely on quality of life judgements when calculating the optimum population. Fortunately, we know much more about feeding ourselves, and assessment of the optimum becomes a realisable task if we base it on the simple ecological concept of the carrying capacity of the land.

252. Carrying capacity is usually defined as the amount of solar energy potentially available to man via food-plants in a given area. This definition must be accompanied by a caveat to the effect that if carrying capacity is considered in terms of energetics alone, a number of essential ecological and nutritional variables are in danger of exclusion. For example, it would be easy to assume that land used for a combination of purposes (mixed farming, woodland, etc.) would be better employed and could support a larger population if it were exclusively given over to the intensive production of food-plants high in calories (e.g. wheat). We know, however, that protein and the other nutrients are no less vital to us than calories, while there is evidence that we are more likely to get the proper nutritional components from meat if it comes to us from free-living animals. This requirement alone demands a certain diversity, both of species and habitat, and we have seen too (in the appendix on ecosystems) that diversity is essential if fertility and stability are to be maintained over the long-term.

253. As we have seen Britain supports a population well in excess of the carrying capacity of the land owing to its ability

to import large amounts of food, especially the cheap protein required to feed our poultry and pigs. As world population grows, and with it global agricultural demand, so will it be increasingly difficult for us to find countries with exportable surpluses, surpluses which in any case will become progressively more expensive. Unless we are willing (and able) to perpetuate an even greater inequality of distribution than exists today, Britain must be self-supporting. We have stated already our belief that on the evidence available it is unlikely that there will be any significant increase in yield per acre, so that there is no other course open to us but to reduce our numbers before we stabilise. Since we appear capable of supporting no more than half our present population, the figure we should aim for over the next 150 to 200 years can be no greater than 30 million, and in order to protect it from resource fluctuation probably less.

254. Not every country is in such a difficult position as Britain. A few will be able to stabilise at or relatively near present levels. But taking world population as a whole, and using *per capita per diem* protein intake as the key variable in assessing carrying capacity, we believe the optimum population for the world is unlikely to be above 3,500 million and is probably a good deal less. This figure rests on three assumptions: (a) that the average *per capita per diem* requirements of protein is 65 grams⁶; (b) that present agricultural production *per capita* can be sustained indefinitely; and (c) that there is absolutely equitable distribution, no country enjoying a greater *per capita per diem* protein intake than any other—which compared with today's conditions is absurdly Utopian. Utopian though they may be, unless these assumptions are realised, we are faced either with the task of reducing world population still further until it is well below the optimum, or with condoning inequalities grosser and more unjust than those which we in the developed countries foster at present.

255. While they cannot grow indefinitely, populations can remain above the optimum—indeed above the sustainable maximum—for some time. The fact that the global population, including that of Britain, is above both levels, means only that our numbers are

preventing the optimisation of other values. It means that while most people receive the bare minimum of calories necessary for survival, a large proportion are deprived of the nutrients (especially protein) essential for intellectual development. They are alive, but unable to realise their full potential—which is the grossest possible waste of human resources. An optimum population, therefore, may be defined as one that can be sustained indefinitely and at a level at which the other values of its members are optimised—and the fact that we are above this level does not justify despair, but does justify a great sense of urgency, in working towards our long-term goal of the optimum. For it is obvious that given the dynamic of population growth, even if all nations today determined to stabilise their populations, numbers would continue to rise for some considerable time. Indeed the Population Council has calculated (Annual Report 1970) that "... if the replacement-sized family is realised for the world as a whole by the end of this century—itself an unlikely event—the world's population will then be 60 per cent larger or about 5.8 billion, and due to the resulting age structure it will not stop growing until

near the end of the next century, at which time it will be about 8.2 billion (8,200 million) or about 225 per cent the present size. If replacement is achieved in the developed world by 2000 and in the developing world by 2040, then the world's population will stabilise at nearly 15.5 billion (15,500 million) about a century hence, or well over four times the present size". Clearly we must go all out for the "unlikely event" of achieving the replacement-sized family (an average of about two children per couple) *throughout the world by the end of this century*, if our children are not to suffer the catastrophes we seek to avoid.

256. Our task is to end population growth by lowering the rate of recruitment so that it equals the rate of loss. A few countries will then be able to stabilise, to maintain that ratio; most others, however, will have to slowly *reduce* their populations to a level at which it is sensible to stabilise. Stated baldly, the task seems impossible; but if we start now, and the exercise is spread over a sufficiently long period of time, then we believe that it is within our capabilities. The difficulties are

enormous, but they are surmountable.

257. First, governments must acknowledge the problem and declare their commitment to ending population growth; this commitment should also include an end to immigration. Secondly, they must set up national population services with a fourfold brief:

(1) to publicise as widely and vigorously as possible the relationship between population, food supply, quality of life, resource depletion, etc., and the great need for couples to have no more than two children. The finest talents in advertising should be recruited for this, and the broad aim should be to inculcate a socially more responsible attitude to child-rearing. For example, the notion (derived largely from the popular women's magazines) that childless couples should be objects of pity rather than esteem should be sharply challenged; and of course there are many similar notions to be disputed.

(2) to provide at local and national levels free contraception advice and information on other services such as abortion and sterilisation;

(3) to provide a comprehensive domiciliary service, and to provide contraceptives free of charge, free sterilisation, and abortion on demand;

(4) to commission, finance, and co-ordinate research not only on demographic techniques and contraceptive technology, but also on the subtle cultural controls necessary for the harmonious maintenance of stability. We know so little about the dynamics of human populations that we cannot say whether the first three measures would be sufficient. It is self-evident that if couples still wanted families larger than the replacement-size no amount of free contraception would make any difference. However, because we know so little about population control, it would be difficult for us to devise any of the socio-economic restraints which on the face of it are likely to be more effective, but which many people fear might be unduly repressive. For this reason, we would be wise to rely on the first three measures for the next 20 years or so. We then may find they are enough—but if they aren't, we must hope that intensive research during this period will be rewarded with a set of socio-economic restraints that are both *effective* and *humane*. These will

then constitute the third stage, and should also provide the tools for the fourth stage—that of persuading the public to have average family sizes of slightly less than replacement size, so that total population can be greatly reduced. If we achieve a decline rate of 0.5 per cent per year, the same as Britain's rate of growth today, there should be no imbalance of population structure, as the dependency ratio would be exactly the same as that of contemporary Britain. Only the make-up of dependency would be different: instead of there being more children than old people, it would be the other way round. The time-scale for such an operation is long of course, and this will be suggested in the section on orchestration.

Creating a new social system

260. Possibly the most radical change we propose in the creation of a new social system is decentralisation. We do so not because we are sunk in nostalgia for a mythical little England of fêtes, olde worlde pubs, and perpetual conversations over garden fences, but for four much more fundamental reasons:

261. (a) While there is good evidence that human societies can happily remain stable for long periods, there is no doubt that the long transitional stage that we and our children must go through will impose a heavy burden on our moral courage and will require great restraint. Legislation and the operations of police forces and the courts will be necessary to reinforce this restraint, but we believe that such external controls can never be so subtle nor so effective as internal controls. It would therefore be sensible to promote the social conditions in which public opinion and full public participation in decision-making become as far as possible the means whereby communities are ordered. The larger a community the less likely this can be: in a heterogeneous, centralised society such as ours, the restraints of the stable society if they were to be effective would appear as so much outside coercion; but in communities small enough for the general will to be worked out and expressed by individuals confident of themselves and their fellows as individuals, "us and them" situations are less likely to occur—people having learned the limits of a stable society would be free to order their own lives

within them as they wished, and would therefore accept the restraints of the stable society as necessary and desirable and not as some arbitrary restriction imposed by a remote and unsympathetic government.

262. (b) As agriculture depends more and more on integrated control and becomes more diversified, there will no longer be any scope for prairie-type crop-growing or factory-type livestock-rearing. Small farms run by teams with specialised knowledge of ecology, entomology, botany, etc., will then be the rule, and indeed individual small-holdings could become extremely productive suppliers of eggs, fruit and vegetables to neighbourhoods. Thus a much more diversified urban-rural mix will be not only possible, but because of the need to reduce the transportation costs of returning domestic sewage to the land, desirable. In industry, as with agriculture, it will be important to maintain a vigorous feedback between supply and demand in order to avoid waste, overproduction, or production of goods which the community does not really want, thereby eliminating the needless expense of time, energy and money in attempts to persuade it that it does. If an industry is an integral part of a community, it is much more likely to encourage product innovation because people clearly want qualitative improvements in a given field, rather than because expansion is necessary for that industry's survival or because there is otherwise insufficient work for its research and development section. Today, men, women and children are merely consumer markets, and industries as they centralise become national rather than local and supranational rather than national, so that while entire communities may come to depend on them for the jobs they supply, they are in no sense integral parts of those communities. To a considerable extent the "jobs or beauty" dichotomy has been made possible because of this deficiency. Yet plainly people want jobs *and* beauty, they should not in a just and humane society be forced to choose between the two, and in a decentralised society of small communities where industries are small enough to be responsive to each community's needs, there will be no reason for them to do so.

263. (c) The small community is not

only the organisational structure in which internal or systemic controls are most likely to operate effectively, but its dynamic is an essential source of stimulation and pleasure for the individual. Indeed it is probable that only in the small community can a man or woman be an individual. In today's large agglomerations he is merely an isolate—and it is significant that the decreasing autonomy of communities and local regions and the increasing centralisation of decision-making and authority in the cumbersome bureaucracies of the state, have been accompanied by the rise of self-conscious individualism, an individualism which feels threatened unless it is harped upon. Perhaps the two are mutually dependent. It is no less significant that this self-conscious individualism tends to be expressed in ways which cut off one individual from another—for example the accumulation of material goods like the motor-car, the television set, and so on, all of which tend to insulate one from another, rather than bring them together. In the small, self-regulating communities observed by anthropologists, there is by contrast no assertion of individualism, and certain individual aspirations may have to be repressed or modified for the benefit of the community—yet no man controls another and each has very great freedom of action, much greater than we have today. At the same time they enjoy the rewards of the small community, of knowing and being known, of an intensity of relationships with a few, rather than urban man's variety of innumerable, superficial relationships. Such rewards should provide ample compensation for the decreasing emphasis on consumption, which will be the inevitable result of the premium on durability which we have suggested should be established so that resources may be conserved and pollution minimised. This premium, while not diminishing our real standard of living, will greatly reduce the turnover of material goods. They will thus be more expensive, although once paid for they should not need replacing except after long periods. Their rapid accumulation will no longer be a realisable, or indeed socially acceptable goal, and alternative satisfactions will have to be sought. We believe a major potential source of these satisfactions to be the rich and variegated interchanges and responsibilities of community life, and that these are possible only when such communities are on a human scale.

264. (d) The fourth reason for decentralisation is that to deploy a population in small towns and villages is to reduce to the minimum its impact on the environment. This is because the actual urban superstructure required per inhabitant goes up radically as the size of the town increases beyond a certain point. For example, the *per capita* cost of high rise flats is much greater than that of ordinary houses; and the cost of roads and other transportation routes increases with the number of commuters carried. Similarly, the *per capita* expenditure on other faculties such as those for distributing food and removing wastes is much higher in cities than in small towns and villages. Thus, if everybody lived in villages the need for sewage treatment plants would be somewhat reduced, while in an entirely urban society they are essential, and the cost of treatment is high. Broadly speaking, it is only by decentralisation that we can increase self-sufficiency—and self-sufficiency is vital if we are to minimise the burden of social systems on the ecosystems that support them.

265. Although we believe that the small community should be the basic unit of society and that each community should be as self-sufficient and self-regulating as possible, we would like to stress that we are not proposing that they be inward-looking, self-obsessed or in any way closed to the rest of the world. Basic precepts of ecology, such as the interrelatedness of all things and the far-reaching effects of ecological processes and their disruption, should influence community decision-making, and therefore there must be an efficient and sensitive communications network between all communities. There must be procedures whereby community actions that affect regions can be discussed at regional level and regional actions with extra-regional effects can be discussed at global level. We have no hard and fast views on the size of the proposed communities, but for the moment we suggest neighbourhoods of 500, represented in communities of 5,000, in regions of 500,000, represented nationally, which in turn as today should be represented globally. We emphasise that our goal should be to create *community feeling and global awareness*.

rather than that dangerous and sterile compromise which is nationalism,

266. In many of the developed countries where community feeling has been greatly eroded and has given way to heterogeneous congeries of strangers, the task of re-creating communities will be immensely difficult. In many of the undeveloped countries, however, although it will not be easy, because the process of community collapse and flight to the city has begun only recently there is a real chance that it can be halted by such means as the abandonment of large-scale industrial projects for the development of intermediate technologies at village level; and the provision of agro-ecological training teams so that communities can be taught to manage the land together, rather than encourage farmers to turn to expensive and dangerous procedures like the heavy use of pesticides and fertilisers, which tend to reduce the number of people needed on the land.

267. At home, industry will play a leading role in the programme to decentralise our economy and society. The discussion of taxes, antidisassembly legislation, and enforceable targets for air, land and water quality in the section on stock economics might lead some to believe that we are willing to bring about the collapse of industry, widespread unemployment, and the loss of our export markets. It is therefore worth emphasising that we wish strongly to avoid all three, and we do not see that they are necessary or inevitable consequences of our proposals. It is obvious that for as long as we depend on imports for a significant proportion of our food, so we must export. And since we are likely to require food-imports for the next 150 years, we are left with the question of whether it is possible to develop community industries, dedicated to the principles of maximal use/recycling of materials and durability of goods, and at the same time to earn an adequate revenue from exports.

268. We believe that the answer is yes, if the change-over is conducted in two stages. The first stage is to alter the direction of growth so that it becomes more compatible with the aims of a stable society. We have already mentioned that the recycling industry must be encouraged to expand, and it is

obvious that willy-nilly it will do so as over the years taxes and quality targets become more stringent. To give a clearer idea of how the direction can be altered we will consider briefly the question of transport.

269. There are more than 12 million cars in Britain today, and according to the Automobile Association this figure will rise to 21 million by 1981. About half the households in Britain own a car today, and presumably the car population is expected to rise in response to a rise in this proportion, though presumably too, more households will own more than one car. At all events we have sufficient experience of traffic congestion in our towns and cities and the rape of countryside and community by ring-roads and motorways to realise that the motor-car is by no means the best way of democratising mobility. Indeed, if every household had a car, we would be faced with the choice of leaving towns and country worth driving to and thereby imposing immobility on the motorist, or of providing him with the vast expanses of concrete which are becoming increasingly necessary to avoid congestion at the expense of the areas they sterilise and blight.

270. No-one can contemplate with equanimity the doubling of roads within this decade necessary to maintain the *status quo*, and we must therefore seek sensible transportation alternatives. It is clear that broadly-speaking the only alternative is public transport—a mix of rapid mass-transit by road and rail. Rail especially should never have been allowed to run down to the extent that it has. The power requirements for transporting freight by road are five to six times greater than by rail and the pollution is correspondingly higher. The energy outlay for the cement and steel required to build a motorway is three to four times greater than that required to build a railway, and the land area necessary for the former is estimated to be four times more than for the latter. Public transport whether by road or rail is much more efficient in terms of *per capita* use of materials and energy than any private alternative. It can also be as flexible, provided it is encouraged at the expense of private transport.

271. This is the key to the provision of a sound transportation system. First the

vicious spiral of congestion slowing buses, losing passengers, raising fares, losing more passengers, using more cars, creating more congestion, etc., must be broken. A commitment to build no more roads and to use the capital released to subsidise public transport would be an excellent way of doing this. The men who would normally live by roadbuilding could be diverted to clearing derelict land and restoring railways and canals as part of a general programme of renewal. From there, the progressive imposition of restrictions on private transport and the stimulation of public transport so that it could provide a fast, efficient and flexible alternative would be a matter of course. Within the motor industry, the decline in production of conventional private vehicles would be compensated for by the increased production of alternative mass-transit systems. There would also be a switch of capital and manpower to the re-development of railway systems. In the long term, however, decentralisation will bring a diminished demand for mobility itself. As Stephen Boyden has pointed out⁷, people use their cars for four main reasons: to go to work, to go to the countryside, to visit friends and relations, and to show off. In the stable society, however, each community will provide its own jobs, there will be countryside around it, most friends and relations will be within it, and there will be much more reliable and satisfying ways of showing off.

272. This brings us to the second stage of the change-over, in which industry turns to the invention, production, and installation of technologies that are materials and energy conservative, that are flexible, non-polluting and durable, employment-intensive and favouring craftsmanship. Progress as we conceive of it today consists in increasing an already arbitrarily high, ratio of capital to job availability; but if instead this ratio were to be reduced, then our manpower requirement would go up, while at the same time the pollution which is the inevitable by-product of capital growth would be cut down. The switch in emphasis from quantity to quality will not only stimulate demand for manpower, it will also stabilise it and give much greater satisfaction to the men themselves. Instead of men being used as insensate units to produce increasing quantities of components,

they should be trained and given the opportunity to improve the quality of their work. The keynotes of the manufacturing sector should come to be durability and craftsmanship—and such a premium on quality should assure us an export revenue large enough for us to continue buying food from abroad, while providing our manpower with more enjoyable occupations. In the case of industries like the aircraft industry, which would naturally have a greatly reduced role in the stable society, their engineering expertise could be turned to the development of such things as total energy systems—designed to provide the requirements of a decentralised society with the minimum of environmental disruption.

273. Industry can completely fulfil its new role only in close harmony with particular communities, so that the unreal distinction between men as employees and men as neighbours can be abandoned, and jobs then given on the basis that work must be provided by the community for the sake of that community's stability and not because one group wishes to profit from another group's labour or capital as the case may be. As industry decentralises so will the rest of society. The creation of communities will come from, the combination of industrial change and a conscious drive to re-structure society.

274. The principal components of this drive are likely to be the redistribution of government and the gradual inculcation of a sense of community and the other values of a stable society. Over a stated period of time, local government should be strengthened and as many functions as possible of central government should be transferred to it. The redistribution of government should proceed on the principle that issues which affect only neighbourhoods should be decided by the neighbourhood alone, those which affect only communities by the community alone, those which affect only regions by the region alone, and so on. As regions, communities and neighbourhoods come increasingly to run their own affairs, so the development of a sense of community will proceed more easily, though we do not pretend that it will be without its problems.

275. Those regions which still have or are close to having a good urban-rural

mix will be able to effect a relatively smooth transfer, but highly urbanised areas like London, the Lancashire conurbation, and South Wales will find it much more difficult to re-create communities. Nevertheless, even in London the structural remains of past communities (like the villages of Putney, Highgate, Hackney, Islington, etc.) will provide the physical nuclei of future communities—the means of orienting themselves so that they can cut themselves away from those deserts of commerce and packaged pleasure (of which the most prominent example is the Oxford Street, Regent Street, Piccadilly complex) on which so much of London's life is currently focused.

276. It is self-evident that no amount of legislative, administrative or industrial change will create stable communities if the individuals who are meant to comprise them are not fitted for them. As soon as the best means of inculcating the values of the stable society have been agreed upon, they should be incorporated into our educational systems. Indeed, it may not be until the generation of 40-50 year olds have been educated in these values (so that as far as possible everybody up to the age of 50 understands them) that stable communities will achieve sufficient acceptance for them to be permanently useful.

Orchestration

280. A cardinal assumption of this strategy is that it will not succeed without the most careful synchronisation and integration. We cannot say of a particular section of these proposals that it alone is acceptable, and therefore we will go ahead with it immediately but consider the rest later on! This section, therefore, is devoted to a schematic, annotated outline of how change might be orchestrated. It is necessarily unsophisticated and oversimplified, but we hope it will give some idea of how change in one quarter will aid change in the others.

281. Variables included in schematic outline:

- (a) establishment of national population service
- (b) introduction of raw materials, amortisation and power taxes; anti-disamenity legislation; air, land and water quality targets; recycling grants ; revised social accounting systems

(c) developed countries end commitment to persistent pesticides and subsidise similar move by undeveloped countries

(d) end of subsidies on inorganic fertilisers

(e) grants for use of organics and introduction of diversity

(f) emergency food programme for undeveloped countries

(g) progressive substitution of non-persistent for persistent pesticides

(h) integrated control research programme

(i) integrated control training programme

(j) substitution of integrated control for chemical control

(k) progressive introduction of diversified farming practices

(l) end of road building

(m) clearance of derelict land and beginning of renewal programme

(n) restrictions on private transport

and subsidies for public transport

(o) development of rapid mass-transit

(p) research into materials substitution

(q) development of alternative technologies

(r) decentralisation of industry: part one (redirection)

(s) decentralisation of industry: part two (development of community types)

(t) redistribution of government

(u) education research

(v) teacher training

(w) education

(x) experimental community

(y) domestic sewage to land

(z) target date for basic establishment of network of self-sufficient, self-regulating communities.

282. Notes:

(1) should be operating fully by 1980; review in 1995—if replacement-size families improbable by 2000, bring in socio-economic restraints; UK population should begin to slowly decline from 2015-2020 onwards; world population from 2100; little significant feedback expected in UK until about 2030.

(2) progressive; ironing out run to eliminate inconsistencies up to 1980; thereafter revise and tighten every five years ; increasingly significant feedback from 1980 onwards, stimulating materials-energy conservation, employment-intensive industry, decent-

tralisation, and progress In direction off(p),(q),(r)and(s).

(3) limited substitution of integrated control can begin quite soon, but large-scale substitution will depend on (h) integrated control research programme; naturally (h), (i) and (j) will run in parallel and are therefore represented as one; (g) will also continue for some time.

(4) diversified farming practices (k) and integrated control (j) will link up and form an agriculture best-suited for small, reasonably self-sufficient communities, so stimulating their development : significant feedback, therefore, will occur from this point.

(5) likely to be necessary at least until 2100.

(6) labour released from road building can go to (m) clearance of

derelict land, which should be completed by 1985; thereafter there may be other renewal programmes such as canal restoration, while agriculture will increasingly require more manpower.

(7) development of alternative technologies (q) and redirecting of industry (r) will proceed in harness; progressively significant feedback between (b) and (t).

(8) target date for maximum redistribution of government 2030 to coincide with 45 years operation of (w); see note (9).

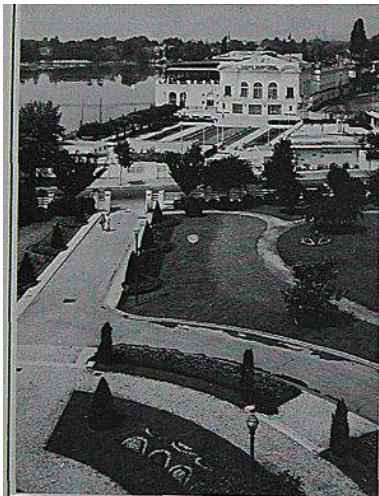
(9) five years only allowed for preliminary organisation and research, since it can proceed in harness with teacher training (v) and also with the education programme itself (w).

(10) an experimental community of

500 could be set up to clarify problems; feedback, to (u).

(11) as soon as communities are small enough, domestic sewage can be returned to the land ; there should be the firm beginnings of a good urban-rural mix by then.

(12) by this time there should be sufficient diversity of agriculture, decentralisation of industry and redistribution of government, together with a large proportion of people whose education is designed for life in the stable society, for the establishment of self-sufficient, self-regulating communities to be well-advanced. At this point taxation, grants, incentives, etc, could be taken over by the communities themselves. A further generation is allowed until target date, however.



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VIEWPOINT

The left's Reaction to « The Blueprint for Survival »

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I write this anonymously as a Leftist suffering from grumbling ecology! I presume everyone knows what the « Blueprint for Survival» is. It was a broad analysis of the general eco/resource/population etc. CRISIS and what we ought to do about it, backed up by a phalanx of Concerned Academics, all wrapped up with a blue cover in a special issue of *The Ecologist*. The PR behind the document was pretty efficient and the whole thing was very successful in stimulating discussion. The general response has been favourable. The scientific community didn't take to it very heartily – an excellent sign, other things being equal; but the environmentalists just lapped it up. Meanwhile back on the Left, there were a few guarded greetings.

Socialist Worker, for instance, thought it 'a welcome sign that many people outside socialist circles are realising that it is first of all a political problem'. This might have been an early editorial indiscretion, for as time went on, attitudes to the document from the Left have become uniformly antagonistic. This trend is perfectly understandable, for reasons I'll get to later, but comrades, I don't think blanket condemnation is the most useful response at the moment. We are in danger of leaning too heavily on the tactic of polarisation, and losing our capacity to pinch other people's good ideas, wherever they may come from. We need to find a balanced critique of the environmental challenge, perhaps like that adopted by Hugh Saddler in *7 Days*, in which he picked out the nasty bits and criticised them (hiss!), picked out the good bits and praised them (hooray!), then proposed some really new ideas about where we go from here to use ecological ideas in the future development of radical thought. Sadly, most other Left-wing responses have been less creative. Why? I think it's something to do with the er... let's say... socio-religious aspects of Radical culture. It seemed that the Blueprint had a certain smell about it which had

a greater determining effect on its reception than its actual content. We seemed to read between lines that were never there in the first place. Nosing around various Leftists' circles with my ear to the ground (what?) I couldn't help noticing that different groups could read in mutually exclusive interpretations of the same passage. Many critics seized hold of phrases with a Rightish sort of flavour, but completely ignored passages whose content, but not phraseology, clearly supported their own ideological position. It seemed they were judging the document not by its 'real' intentions, but by the presence or absence of various key words and phrases traditionally used to discriminate ideological sheep and goats. This tendency of labelling is a venerable sport of course, and not to be laughed at, but Vladimir Ilyich notwithstanding, I think perhaps it should now be opposed as a barrier to 'freedom of thought'. Perhaps I should be more specific. I found it remarkable for example that the document could contain what appeared to be clear indictments of capitalist imperialism without ever mentioning these words. I was disappointed not to see such old friends, of course, and I realised that from the viewpoint of many Leftists, the omission of certain words is as bad as to say nothing at all: the words are holy anathemas that must be pronounced in the right way or they don't 'work' properly, for the sacred overtones and historic memories are not suitably awoken. While I would personally prefer these 'proper formulae' to be used, I am unconvinced that the value of the document is wholly destroyed by not using them. The effect can be compared to that of Gramsci's prison notebooks, in which he was forced by the conditions of censorship to avoid obviously overtone-laden or identifiably 'political' words. For those with the right noses, this is OK because the background knowledge of who is writing creates a kind of correct 'smell' which permits confident reading and interpretation, whereas the 'smell' of

the Blueprint (which, let's face it, is pretty pungent in places, *vide infra*) prevents one seeing what it really has to offer. We know they are a bunch of reformist liberals, but I don't think the reformist, liberal, or even 'fascistic' elements of the Blueprint are essential to it. This may seem an odd thing to say, but I think that structurally the Blueprint could be a revolutionary document. Its faults lie not so much in what it does include as in what it (to our minds conspicuously) leaves out.

To illustrate some of these points, I have dug out two lots of quotations. Those with a finely-tuned sense of Leftist demonology will read the first like a chamber of horrors. But don't get carried away by these gut reactions. It may not be that the *content* is as wrong as the *context*. Many of these authoritarian passages could be found in official documents of socialist states, in which circumstance they would not be so upsetting. There are good reasons for this effect, but think about it again. Why? Similar remarks apply to the second list. Is it content or context? Are these bits really radical? What is really radical? *Chacun à son goût...*

It's all a fascist plot!

For the benefit of those who wish to attack the Blueprint as counter-revolutionary, but who do not wish to actually read it, the following quotations may be helpful. The annotations are for liberal ecologists who can't think what all the fuss is about.

Reformism:

If we plan remedial action with our eyes on political rather than on ecological reality, then very reasonably, very practicably, and very surely, we will muddle our way to extinction.

In putting forward these proposals we are aware that hasty or disordered change is highly disruptive and ultimately self-defeating...

Liberal-consensual view of the actors in the 'political drama':

We do not need to utterly destroy the ecosphere to bring catastrophe upon

ourselves : all we have to do is to carry on as we are, clearing forests, 'reclaiming' wetlands, and imposing sufficient quantities of pesticides, radioactive materials, plastics, sewage, and industrial wastes upon our air, water and land systems...

(Who are 'we' ? Who is doing the destroying ? When did you last cut down a forest ?)

Accommodation with capitalist economics:

The agro-chemical industries should be encouraged to invest in integrated control programmes... (and of course we can trust them like we did before to put the public interest first...)

The problem of uneconomic recycling can be solved by the granting of incentives by government, (to those same public-spirited, faithful old industrialists)

... in the short-term, the entire recycling industry should be encouraged to expand, even though we know that in the long term, industrial expansion is self-defeating.

(Invest in recycling and pollution control — it's a red-hot investment !)

Authoritarianism :

While bearing in mind the folly of expecting computers to do our thinking for us, we believe they have an important role to play in demonstrating the consequences throughout social and ecological systems of a great number of changes over a given period of time.

(Whose computers ?)
To commission, finance and coordinate research not only on demographic techniques and contraceptive techniques and contraceptive technology, but also on the subtle cultural controls necessary for the harmonious maintenance of stability.

(Wow ! Controls by whom ?)

Legislation and the operations of police forces and the courts will be necessary to reinforce this constraint...

(They sure will)

...external controls can never be so subtle or effective as internal controls.

(No comment)

As soon as the best means of inculcating the values of the stable society have been agreed upon, they should be incorporated into our educational systems.

(And the tiny handful of troublemakers that disagree ? — lobotomy ?)

Women's rights :

Also, many labour-saving devices are now necessary because with the disintegration of the extended family there is no one about to do the household chores.

(Who's gonna do them ?)

Sheer bloody fascism ?

...the underdeveloped world is faced with an unenviable choice : either to keep alive its expanding population over the next ten years at the price of considerable damage to soilstructure and long-term fertility; or to



improve soil structure so that a good proportion of the population can be fed indefinitely, but in the knowledge that the population will probably be reduced to that proportion by such natural processes as famine and epidemic.

In the long-term, of course, the solution lies in population control; but in the intervening period there seems to be no alternative to concentrating on agricultural methods that are sustainable even at the expense of immediate productivity.
Our task is to end population growth by lowering the rate of recruitment so that it equals the rate of loss. A few countries will then be able to stabilise, to maintain that ratio; most others, however, will have to slowly reduce their populations to a level at which it is possible to stabilise.
(Which countries?)

First, governments must acknowledge the problem and declare their commitment to ending population growth; this commitment should also include an end to immigration.

{Enoch was here}

On the other hand...
Some of the following quotations could have come from standard left-wing sources; others clearly imply radical values or programmes without explicitly drawing the full conclusions or using Leftist terminology.

The problem is systemic, not a temporary aberration:

By now it should be clear that the main problems of the environment do not arise from temporary or accidental malfunctions of existing economic and social systems.
Instability of capitalist economics: Were confidence to fall, stock values would crash, drastically reducing the availability of capital for investment and hence further growth, which would lead to further unemployment. This would result in a further fall in stock-market values and hence give rise to a positive-feedback chain-reaction, which under the existing order might well lead to social collapse.

Equitable distribution :
The developed nations consume such disproportionate amounts of protein, raw materials and fuels that unless they drastically reduce their consumption there is no hope of the undeveloped nations markedly improving their standard of living.

...a given minimum can be supplied to each person free-of-charge...

(guaranteed basic services)

...to avoid the imposition on poor neighbourhoods or sparsely inhabited countryside of nuclear power stations, reservoirs, motorways, airports and the like.

(So who should they be imposed on?)
The social costs of any given development should be paid by those who propose or perpetrate it — 'the polluter must pay' is a principle that must guide our costing procedures.

(And then who pays the raised prices ?
Who loses his job after a factory closure?)

...we must judge the health of our economy not by flow or throughput,, but by the distribution, quality and variety of the stock.

(So excessive wealth is to be abolished.

How ?)

(from J.S. Mill) I know not why it should be a matter of congratulation that persons who are already richer than anyone needs to be, should have doubled their means of consuming things which give little or no pleasure except as representative of wealth... It is only in the backward countries of the world that increased production is still an important object; in those most advanced, what is economically needed is a better distribution. Imperialism :

... the hunter-gatherers and hunter-farmers... be given title to their lands (i.e. those lands in which traditionally they have gained their living) and be allowed to live there without pressure of any kind:...

severe restrictions are placed on entry to these areas by anyone who does not live there permanently (while allowing the indigenes free movement);

...sovereignty over the areas remain with the countries in which they lie... Unless we are willing... to perpetuate an even greater inequality of distribution than exists today, Britain must be self-supporting.

Fishery vessels are operating in deeper and more remote waters and owing to high levels of investment in ships and processing plant the developed countries, which are also the major fishing nations, are irrevocably committed to increasing yields by a large factor within a very short space of time. In their efforts to do so there is little reason to suppose that they will not so deplete fish stocks that within a decade or so the contribution of fisheries to world supplies will reduce rather than increase. If there is a temporary increase, little of this will benefit the developing countries which by and large cannot afford to participate in such a heavily capitalised operation. At present less than 20 per cent of the world's total catch of sea and fresh water fish is consumed within the third world.

(and so...)

Alienation; workers' control,

production for use :

... it will be important to... avoid waste, overproduction, or production of goods which the community does not really want, thereby eliminating the needless expense of time, energy and money in attempts to persuade it that it does.

(and so...)

If an industry is an integral part of a community, it is much more likely to encourage product innovation because people clearly want qualitative improvements in a given field, rather

than because expansion is necessary for that industry's survival or because there is otherwise insufficient work for its research and development section. (How do you achieve total community control ? The shareholders might be a bit upset.)

Today, men, women and children are merely consumer markets, and industries as they centralise become national rather than local and supranational, so that while entire communities may come to depend on them for the jobs they supply, they are in no sense integral parts of those communities. To a considerable extent the 'jobs or beauty' dichotomy has been made possible by this deficiency. Yet plainly people want jobs *and* beauty, they should not in a just society be forced to choose between the two... (Right on !)

... this self-conscious individualism tends to be expressed in ways which cut off one individual from another — for example the accumulation of material goods like the motor-car, the television set, and so on, all of which tend to isolate one from another, rather than bringing them together. Industry can completely fulfill its new role only in close harmony with particular communities, so that the unreal distinction between men as em-

ployees and men as neighbours can be abandoned, and jobs given on the basis that work must be provided by the community for the sake of that community's stability and not because one group wishes to profit from the other group's labour...

(the owners of capital will of course gladly relinquish their privileges...) instead of men being used as insensate units to produce increasing quantities of components, they should be trained and given the opportunity to improve the quality of their work, (for whose benefit ?) A society... in which people work near their homes, have the responsibility of governing themselves, running their schools, hospitals and welfare services...

(abd their jobs... ?)

So what then ? Well, the Blueprint is not the last. The Club of Rome's *Limits to Growth* is already blundering about the world doing its well meaning (?) but totally premature thing, and there'll be lots more. We have to subject them to coherent criticism from the Left and provide what we regard as proper interpretations. This will not be achieved by an attitude of blind hostility. We have to construct a clear and broad radical line on the kinds of questions the eco-lobby is bringing to

public attention, and show that they make radical change an urgent necessity. In the case of Britain, *Socialist Worker* has it : 'To do anything effective about the growing menace of pollution means to challenge the power of big business, it is yet another reason to join the struggle for socialism'. Well, somehow the Blueprint never gets round to saying that, but how far away is it? Seems to me that all the reformist and liberal phraseology is just a red herring : it is completely inconsistent with the description presented of the current situation. That is an error they have committed for the usual liberal reasons, which needn't go into. I think that in spite of themselves, the authors of the Blueprint have done us a service. They have analysed the ecological crisis and found it not to be an accidental malfunction, but a product of the very fabric of the society — something to do with over production. Sounds familiar. Yep, it's Uncle Karl, right on. They are stumbling, without knowing it, towards socialism as a solution. The Marxian crisis of capitalism and the ecological crisis are the same. It's here at last, and they won't get away with it this time. The ecology movement must be radicalised. The Left must be ecologised.

Photo LO



Vient de paraître

**annual international
congress calendar
13th edition
1973 - 1985**

Renseignements complémentaires et/ou commandes à adresser à
Union des Associations Internationales
1 rue aux Laines, 1000 Bruxelles, Belgique



M. André SCHREURS, directeur du Palais des Congrès de Liège, M. Joseph Viller, chargé des Relations extérieures du Palais et M. Roland Lauvrey, directeur de l'hôtel Holiday Inn de Liège.

Etre disponible, soit être prêt à satisfaire n'importe quel organisateur, en toutes circonstances, a toujours été la hantise des promoteurs des centres de congrès. Il n'y a plus de saisons précises pour les réunions humaines. Il y a peu, parler d'organiser un

Maintenant, cela n'est plus vrai, l'organisateur cherche et trouve le lieu qui lui convient le mieux, selon la date qui correspond

Liège a compris cette évolution depuis très longtemps, son Palais des Congrès est ouvert douze mois sur douze et l'on constate que de grands congrès sont organisés dans la plus mauvaise saison(11) comme le Congrès international de Psychologie appliquée (1971) qui a été un congrès de juillet réunissant à Liège près de 3.000 participants et accompagnants. Ce fut un grand congrès de vacances.

Dans un proche avenir, ce phénomène sera d'autant plus perceptible que Liège a réussi à marquer des points dans un domaine directement concerné : l'hôtellerie moderne.

Près d'un millier de lits supplémentaires seront disponibles à Liège dès 1973. Déjà en janvier un hôtel de la chaîne Holiday Inns — chaîne américaine mondialement connue — d'une capacité de 300 chambres, sera opérationnel, à côté du Palais des Congrès auquel il sera relié par une galerie vitrée. Ramada Inn ouvrira, également en 1973, en plein centre des affaires de Liège, une unité de 100 chambres de très grand luxe. Travelodge et G-B. Motor Hotels construisent, dans un rayon de 10 kilomètres, deux unités situées sur les grands axes reliant Liège aux autres grandes villes d'Europe.

L'implantation du Holiday Inn à Liège ouvre des perspectives précises aux autorités liégeoises en matière promotionnelle car Liège devient extrêmement compétitive sur le marché des congrès.

Le Palais des Congrès ajoute à son image de marque actuelle (colle d'être un des Palais des Congrès les mieux équipés et les mieux situés d'Europe) le fait de pouvoir - loger - tout un contra fois les avantages d'un congrès organisé dans un hôtel et les garanties de réussite que cristallisent les références d'un Palais des Congrès l'organisation, sur le plan scientifique et technique que sur celui de l'organisation,

Pour Le Palais des Congrès de Liège,

l'avenir est tout trace. Ce sera celui d'être on des glés où les hommes vont et viennent pour échanger des idées et se rencontrer pacifiquement.

INTERNATIONAL N.G.O. CONFERENCE ON DISARMAMENT
Palais des Nations, Geneva, September 25-29, 1972
Preparatory Paper No 4

In 1940, Hitler said that the U.S. was invulnerable to military attack from any quarter, or by any enemy, however strong.

In 1972, every citizen of the U.S. knows that his city, town or village could be destroyed at any moment, if a Soviet General went off his head : and that, if the Soviet Stockpiles were used in war, all life in the U.S. could be extinguished in a few hours' time. This technological miracle has been accomplished by new «weapons systems» — missiles with nuclear warheads — first developed in the United States.

Its cost : In his post-war search for «security», the U.S. taxpayer has spent, since 1945, three trillion dollars (\$ 3 million million) on what is called «defence».

Meanwhile, social evils —slums, preventable sickness and disease, racial tension — have been endured because they were no government funds to end them.

**« National Interests »
and World Anarchy**

This strange paradox is symbolic of what the arms race is doing to the world society of states.

Since science and engineering destroyed the barriers of time and space, it has made no sense to talk of conflicting national interests; the vital interests of all nations are common interests : peace, justice, good government, the equitable exploitation of the earth's resources, the ending of world hunger and want.

These common interests can only be promoted by common international action through world institutions founded on world law.

In 1920, the League of Nations was created to fulfil this task. It had great successes in its first twelve years. But in 1932, the militarists of the major Powers brought its Disarmament Conference to failure. None of the authors of the Covenant — Robert Cecil, Woodrow Wilson, Lloyd George, Fridtjof Nansen — believed that the League could last unless the world disarmament promised in the Covenant could be brought about. History proved them right — the failure of 1932 was the true end of the League of Nations, and the true beginning of the Second World War.

In 1945, before that War was over, the United Nations was created, with the same purpose, roughly the same institutions, the same basic law, and a no less binding obligation on its Members to disarm. The militarists had postponed the League Disarmament Conference for 12 years, during which various propitious opportunities were missed. They have been more successful still since 1945. In spite of constant meetings of Preparatory Commissions, no General U.N. Conference has yet been held.

In consequence, the arms race has continued, with a momentum never known before.

are honourable and patriotic men defending the interests of their nations, as they understand those interests. They usually believe that the lasting peace is an idealistic dream, and that

their country and/or its influence in world affairs.

Manufacturers of Arms tend to hold militarist views.

**The Basic Facts About
the Present Arms Race**

The basic facts are these :

(1) At constant prices, world expenditure trebled in twenty years (1949-1968).

(2) At constant prices, it was ten (10) times as great in 1968 as it had been in 1913, at the peak of the arms race which led to the First World War.

(3) More than 50 million men, in armed forces and arsenals, are now working full-time on preparation for war.

(4) The stocks of «modern» weapons (nuclear and chemical) could exterminate all life on earth, if they were used in war.

(5) The developing (hungry) nations spent £ 600 million in 1970 on importing four classes of sophisticated weapons — missiles, aircraft, warships and tanks; and more on other arms. The developed «donor» nations gave ludicrously small contributions to economic aid, using defence needs as their excuse.

Thus the arms race defeated the first U.N. Development Decade — the «gap» between the rich and the poor grew wider.

(6) It has been accompanied by wars in which more than 5 million people have lost their lives. (Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Biafra, Bangla Desh, Middle East, etc.)

Five million is half the number of killed in the First World War.

(7) These wars have undermined the Charter which forbids the threat or use of force.

(8) The major arms-producing governments give or sell arms to other nations to help these other nations «to defend the free world» or to «combat imperialism».

But the arms have led in many countries to military dictatorships, which usually become both oppressive, and corrupt.

(9) There is now one usable fire-arm for every male adult in the world. In some countries, the ready availability of guns is a threat to internal law and order, and a root cause of other evils.

(10) The international traffic in arms is open to grave objections, whether conducted by Governments or private profiteers.

(11) What the inventor of radar, Sir Robert Watson-Watt, called « Habituation to Horror » has produced weapons of appalling cruelty. Air bombs the blast from which is fatal to all life within a circle 2000 yards across.

White phosphorous bombs, fragments of which burn the flesh of their victims at 3000°C, and from which the victims cannot free themselves. Fragmentation bombs with plastic bullets, which X rays cannot detect, and which, therefore, the surgeon cannot remove.

Defoliants and herbicides which destroy forests, orchards, and crops and change the whole environment of territory attacked.

There is no torture known in human history which nuclear weapons and nerve gas would not inflict. In general the arms race has lead to tension, waste, corruption, wars, and unmeasurable human suffering. One lesson of the years since 1945 is that the new militarism is as barbarous as that of « Attila the-Hun ». The basic facts about the present competitive preparation for war should be burnt into the mind of every citizen of every country in the world.

Restoring world order : law and institutions

The is nothing unknown or mysterious about the international machinery required for the abolition of war. It has all been worked out, written down and accepted by the Governments twice — in the League Covenant and the U.N. Charter. In both the League and the U.N., the machinery proved that it would work, if it were honourably used. But it has been so much neglected in recent years, that it is necessary to recall its major points. If there is to be stable order in the society of nations :

(1) The obligations of Article 2 (iv) of the Charter must be observed (renunciation of the threat or use of armed force) in international disputes — making war an international crime.

(2) The International Court of Justice must regain its authority, it should be given obligatory jurisdiction in all justiciable disputes. Half a century of

of how the arms race works.

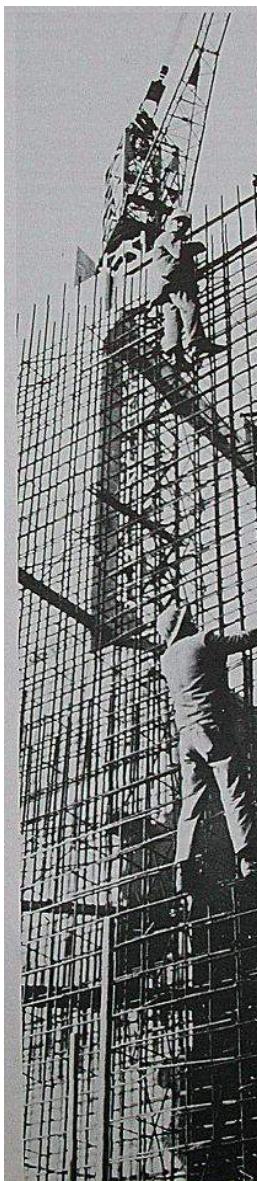


Photo Culture and Life

experience has shown that no nation need fear political bias from the Court.
(3) The Security Council must deal with non-justiciable disputes. The Member Governments must not leave everything to the Secretary General, but must do their duty under Article 34 to bring dangerous situations before the Council.

Senior Ministers should attend the Council, and should work by public debate. World opinion behind the law is the greatest of all instruments for peace.

(4) The U.N. Observer Corps should be increased in numbers and given higher pay and status.

(5) A permanent Peace-Keeping Force should be created, with a long-term "General Staff" from non-« Great Powers », and national contingents and troops in accordance with Article 43 of the Charter.

(6) There must be drastic disarmament by all states with significant armed strength.

This should be carried out in stages, and must cover all armed forces and all armaments.

(7) There must be a system of complete and effective Inspection and Control. International Teams of U.N. Experts should be stationed in each country, and should report to the General Assembly through the Secretary General on how the disarmament obligations are observed.

(8) If the Inspectors report a violation of these obligations, the other Members of the U.N. should at once apply full economic sanctions against the offending nation (rupture of all trading and financial relations; blocking of all communications by railway, ship, aircraft, post, telegraphy, etc.)

(9) If the offending state resorts to armed force, all Members of the U.N. should unite in taking all the necessary action to end its aggression. In thinking of this operation if it should ever be required, it must be remembered that all states will have disarmed. All the above measures should be included in the Treaty to be agreed to by the World Disarmament Conference. It should be entitled "A Treaty (or Peaceful Settlement of Disputes, Collective Security and World Disarmament under International Control)". The three parts must be accepted as one whole, since each part depends on the rest. All are needed to bring the Charter back to life."

Restoring world order : burying dead fallacies of long ago

The experience of the First World War killed the hoary fallacies of militarist

The U.S./Soviet Moscow Declaration of May 29th, 1972, said: "The USA and USSR regard as their ultimate objective, in their efforts the achievement of general and complete disarmament and the establishment of an effective system of international security in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United

dogma. In the 1920s, the Establishments did not venture to urge them as the basis for policy; too many people had learnt from the catastrophe of 1914 that they were false. Today the militarists have given them new currency both with Governments and the public.

The Balance of Power : The Secretary General of NATO said recently that a European Security Conference • would not change the present security system, which is so firmly based on the proven concept of the balance of power . National leaders have talked for 300 years about the balance of power; but they have always striven, as they are still striving, to upset the balance in favour of their own country and its allies. That is the whole purpose of Military Research; nuclear military research is now aimed at a first-strike capability, i.e. not balance, but total supremacy.

So far, this « proven concept » has produced two World Wars in the 20th century, and bids fair to produce a third. It is grotesque that armament policy, and the expenditure of vast resources, should be based on such « proven » folly.

True security can only come from the collective action of all loyal nations against an aggressor. The purpose must be not a « balance » of mutually hostile forces, but the overwhelming strength of many forces cooperating against any nation that resorts to war.

« Deterrence » is the modern version of the ancient Roman slogan : « Si vis pacem, para bellum », « More armaments will prevent war ». This was preached by self-styled « realists » before 1914 and 1939; similar prophets of illusion sometimes urge it today. All history has proved it false. Those who put their trust in the « balance of terror » to prevent war rely either on the fears or on the reason of their potential enemy. But neither fear nor reason will operate in the most probable causes of nuclear war : what President Kennedy termed « madness, accident or miscalculation ». Deterrence is thus irrelevant to all these causes. And while the nuclear stocks exist, the danger of holocaust from these causes will remain.

« Defence » : Every national War Department now calls itself a « Ministry of Defence ». But the General Staffs talk about « deterrence » precisely because, against the modern weapons, there is no practicable defence. In other words, the use of the word « deterrence » is an admission that it is the armaments themselves which create the dangers against which they are supposed to guard.

'The Protection of National Interests' Many militarists sub-consciously reproduce the fallacies about military power and national economic advantage which Norman Angell destroyed 60 years ago.

The most urgent task of those who want to abolish war is to break the dogmatic sleep » of the average citizen, who does not question these sophistries, and who accepts military service, heavy taxation for armaments, and the constant recurrence of wars, as part of God's ordering of the world.

The lesson of the past

« It is easy to be wise after the event », wrote Norman Angell. « It is also wise ».

It is wise, it is vital, to understand what happened between the Wars, if we want to know what to do about the Armaments problem now. How did the Conference of 1932 come so near to success ? Because great world figures used the N.G.O.s, to create a tide of world opinion which demanded that the Conference should succeed. Their plan was simple and easy to understand — abolishing all round the weapons of offence forbidden to Germany by the Treaty of Versailles, with correspondingly large reductions of their manpower. Their case was unanswerable : « If we don't give Germany equality by disarming, she will take it by very dangerously re-arming ».

The Government were obliged to discuss it, in public debate, all the way from 1920 to 1932, in Preparatory Commissions, in the League Council and Assembly. World public opinion in favour of disarmament became extremely strong.

Why, then, did it fail ? Because the militarists, « The military-industrial complexes », the vested interests, the « patriotic » societies, true to their sincerely held beliefs, fought it with ferocious animosity at every stage. They spent vast sums on propaganda; they bought up many organs of the Press; they put Hitler and Mussolini into power. Year by year, they used their great opportunity and capacity for obstruction to secure delay. And by delay, in the end, they won — they had secured delay till Hitler was Chancellor and President of the Reich.

The militarists have more influence in the Establishments in 1972 than ever before. There are great forces on their side — in Europe, in China, in India, in the United States. The N.G.O.s must unite and use their power. They must ask one question, and must hammer it home. In Moscow, President Nixon and Chairman Brezhnev said in their « Declaration » : « The USA and USSR regard as the ultimate objective of their efforts the achievement of general and complete disarmament ».

Why « ultimate » ? If, in the end, the armaments are to go, and if, when they are gone, the world will be better and safer without them, why can't we do it now ? What benefit or advantage will accrue from delaying further, as we have delayed, with the terrible results, since 1945 ?

And let us hammer home what happened in 1932 — the delays, the death-knell delays, the death-knell for 50 million souls, that happened then.

A revolution in international affairs

A World Agreement for Disarmament, based on a compromise between the two Draft Treaties put forward by President Kennedy and Chairman Kruschev in 1962, would effectively de-militarize the world. It would break the corrupting power of the military-industrial complexes. It would release vast forces, scientific, technological, financial, to work for the betterment, instead of the degradation and destruction, of mankind. It would bring a revolution in the conduct of international relations — no more secret diplomacy based on concepts of power and conflicting interests, but the open dealing of statesmen co-operating to promote the common interest of their peoples. This revolution will only come about when Presidents and Prime Ministers and Ministers of Foreign Affairs make the U.N. and armaments the first claim on their time. Of course these questions are incomparably more important than the matters on which at present they spend their days. They are what the U.N. General Assembly called them in 1959: «The most important questions facing mankind today». But these top Ministers will only take this view and act upon it, when their peoples demand that they shall. President Eisenhower said long ago: « The people want peace so much that the Governments had better get out of the way and let them have it ». No one doubts that the people want peace. But their demand must be organized and expressed in an irresistible flood of world opinion. That is what our Conference of N.G.O.s. is for.

Conclusion

Clemenceau, the Tiger, is reported to have said on his deathbed : « Les imbeciles ont raison »; « the fools are right ». He had spent his life in public service, and ended it by asking :

« What's the good » ? It is the Conference must capture. It must find new methods of education and propaganda : satire, exhibitions, the theater, a study of popular thinking, psychological war for peace. But at bottom, it is an appeal to reason that must be made. Monsieur René Maheu, the Director-General of UNESCO, wrote in a recent book : « UNESCO seeks to organize international relations in the intellectual sphere with a view to promoting human rights and helping to establish just and lasting peace... Underlying the purpose is the belief in the power of the mind to shape the course of history ».

That belief inspires those who seek to de-militarize the world. They challenge the half-avowed « determinism » of « historians » who excuse or justify the crimes, the cowardice and the folly which brought the Second War — as Winston Churchill called it, « the unnecessary war ».

They deny that present dangers result from inexorable « trends » in human affairs.

They demand that reason, the power of the mind, shall now prevail. History is not a pre-determined drama in which the human will can play no part. Our generation have now to make a choice : Shall we drift on, the Governments and peoples sleep-walking to oblivion in ignorance and sloth? Or shall we make a conscious, long-sustained and world-wide effort to master the forces that oppose us, and so to shape the ordered and beneficent society that lies within our grasp ?

*



— from the Yearbook of International Organizations
1973 edition

Year	Africa		America (N)		America (S/C)		Asia		Pacific		Europe		Total	
	HQ	Sec	HQ	Sec	HQ	Sec	HQ	Sec	HQ	Sec	HQ	Sec	Total HQ	Total Sec
1850											6	6	6	
1870		2									32	34	34	
1880	1		7								59	67	67	
1890	1		1		1						104	117	117	
1895	1		7		2		2				186	208	208	
1905	-1		18		3		2				270	294	294	
1912*	1		5		3		1				417	437	437	
1921*	1	—	9	—	2	—	2	—	—	—	297	—	321	—
1926*	—	—	24	—	3	—	1	—	—	—	369	—	397	—
1930*	1	—	26	—	5	—	4	—			669	—	705	—
1951*	10	—	12	—	25	—	12	—	1	—	772	—	941	—
1954	13	11	145	36	37	30	19	29	5	6	971	117	1190	229
1958	10	21	133	155	47	69	(27)	(67)	2	8	036	306	1255	626
1960	12	29	158	164	56	110	(35)	(91)	3	3	203	378	1467	785
1962	25	40	170	79	58	94	42	77	4	4	469	363	1768	667
1964	39	64	192	65	77	106	56	82	3	4	627	326	1994	677
1966	50	64	231	62	107	97	71	87	7	6	986	281	2452	607
1968	73	81	277	65	143	103	98	105	19	4	2326	316	2930	684
1970	77	85	288	74	147	116	100	108	17	6	2348	332	2977	731
1972	87	95	299	86	152	123	116	110	10	8	2523	362	3187	796
														3983

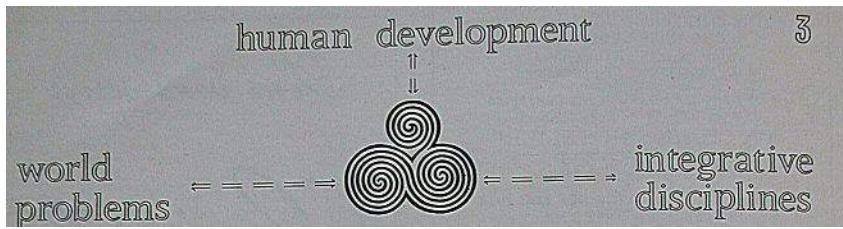
Table 5: -Location of international organization headquarters and secondary offices by continent (1850-1972)

Countries	1960	1972	Cities	1960	1972
France	424	645	Paris	374	520
Belgium	206	583	Brussels	148	480
United Kingdom	273	442	London	199	283
USA	266	351	Geneva	T11	153
Switzerland	250	346	New York	85	94
Netherlands	104	183	Washington	43	80
Germany FR	49	172	Rome	48	79
Italy	75	134	Zurich	49	65
Sweden	28	66	The Hague	36	60
Denmark	—	55	Vienna	20	46
Austria	37	54	Stockholm	21	44
India	23	49	Copenhagen	22	34
Argentina	19	37	Buenos Aires	19	33
Canada	26	36	Berne	25	30
Mexico	25	34	Cairo	—	30
Japan	11	32	Mexico (DF)	25	30
Egypt	17	31	New Delhi	12	29
Norway	—	28	Tokyo	10	27
Philippines	—	25	Amsterdam	16	26
Thailand	—	25	Milan	—	25
			Bangkok	—	25

Table 15: Location of International organization offices: headquarters plus secondary (top twenty countries and cities. 1960/1972)

	HQ	Sec.		HQ	Sec.		HQ	Sec.
Africa								
Algeria	1	3	Peru	10	12	Bulgaria	3	
Botswana		1	Puerto Rico	2	2	Cyprus	1	
Burundi		2	Trinidad	4	5	Czechoslovakia	20	3
Cameroon	5	4	USA			Denmark		
Central African Rep.	4	1	Chicago	10		Copenhagen	24	10
Congo (Rep.)	2	2	Honolulu	9	1	Other	20	1
Egypt (Arab Rep.)	22	9	New York	62	32	Finland	11	3
Ethiopia	4	6	Washington	60	20	France		
Gambia	1		Other	132	25	Neuilly s/ Seine	10	4
Ghana	3	5	Uruguay	16	8	Paris	455	65
Ivory Coast	4	2	Venezuela	10	10	Strasbourg	11	3
Kenya	6	7	Virgin Islands	1		Other	84	13
Lesotho	1					Germany (Dem.Rep.))	3
Liberia						Germany (Fed.Rep.)		
Madagascar Republic	1	1	Asia			Bonn	16	5
Mali	2	1	Afghanistan			Düsseldorf	13	1
Morocco	1	2	Bangladesh			Frankfurt/main	16	1
Niger		1	Burma			Other	99	21
Nigeria	7	9	Ceylon	4	2	Greece	4	4
Rhodesia		1	China			Holy See	1	
Senegal	9	6	Hong Kong	1	4	Hungary	11	2
Somalia	1		India			Iceland	2	1
South Africa	2	4	New Delhi	14	15	Ireland	4	
Sudan	2	2	Other	12	8	Italy		
Tanzania	2	5	Indonesia	2	3	Milan	22	3
Togo		7	Iran	4	1	Rome	64	15
Tunisia	1	3	Iraq	1	1	Other	26	4
Uganda	3	1	Israel	12	3	Liechtenstein	1	
Upper Volta	3	1	Japan	18	14	Luxembourg	11	8
Zaire	3	4	Jordan	1	1	Malta	2	1
Zambia	2	2	Korea (South)	3	2	Monaco	5	1
			Kuwait	1		Netherlands		
America			Lebanon	7	7	Amsterdam	24	2
Argentina			Macao			The Hague	56	4
Buenos Aires	19	14	Malaysia	1	5	Leiden	10	1
Other	4		Mongolia			Rotterdam	19	3
Bahamas	1		Nepal	2		Utrecht	16	1
Barbados	1		Pakistan	4	4	Other	40	7
Bolivia	1	4	Philippines	12	12	Norway		
Brazil			Singapore	2	7	Oslo	18	2
Rio de Janeiro	5	11	Syria			Other	7	1
Other	5	1	Taiwan	1		Poland	7	1
Canada			Thailand	17	8	Portugal	3	1
Montreal	12	3	Vietnam (South)			Rumania	8	1
Other	14	7				Spain		
Chile	10	9	Australasia			Madrid	16	3
Colombia	10	8	Australia	6	13	Other	4	2
Costa Rica	5	6	Fiji	1		Sweden		
Cuba	2	2	New Caledonia	1		Stockholm	39	5
Curacao	1		New Zealand	2	3	Other	20	2
Dominican Rep.	2		Papua	1		Switzerland		
Ecuador	1	1	Tonga			Basle	15	2
El Salvador	4	2				Berne	29	1
Guatemala	9	3				Geneva	127	26
Honduras	5	2	Europe			Lausanne	13	1
Jamaica	3		Austria			Zürich	56	9
Mexico			Vienna	38	8	Other	54	13
Mexico (OF)	21	9	Other	8		Turkey	3	3
Other	4		Belgium			United Kingdom		
Nicaragua	1	2	Antwerpen	16	4	Cambridge	9	1
Panama	2		Brussels	444	36	London	255	28
Paraguay	1	4	Louvain	12		Other	138	11
			Liège	18	1	USSR	9	5
			Other	47	5	Yugoslavia	7	3

Table 16: Location of international organization headquarters and secondary offices (1972)



The purpose of this Newsletter is to maintain contact with the network of individuals and organizations interested in aspects of the project to produce a Yearbook of World Problems, Integrative Disciplines and Human Development (to be a sister volume to the 1200 page Yearbook of International Organizations).

Mankind 2000

Union of International Associations

Project address : 1 rue aux Laines, 1000 Brussels, Belgium (Tel. : 12.54.42)

Center for Integrative Studies

Troika

We are very pleased to announce that the Center for Integrative Studies, headed by Professor John McHale at the State University of New York (Binghamton), is joining the U.I.A. and Mankind 2000 to constitute an organizational troika corresponding to the tripartite nature of the project. Each body in the troika has a primary concern and competence although very much involved with the two other programme components. The Center is known world-wide as a highly dynamic academic force with considerable experience and ability in the processing of studies of an integrative nature.

Integrative disciplines

In the two preceding Newsletters the focus has been placed on the project as a whole, on world problems and on human development. The third component of the project concerns integrative disciplines. This section will be included in order to draw attention to the conceptual tools which are being developed to handle complex, multidisciplinary problem situations.

Definitions

As with "world problems" and "human development", no attempt will be made to provide a final definition of "integrative disciplines" prior to completion of the first edition of the Yearbook. The project as a whole is an exercise in the definition of a field of integrative thinking. Every discipline can of course be considered integrative, but it seems useful to isolate those disciplines or approaches which are not only integrative with respect to their own special subject matter but also have many implications for other areas.

The books, articles and research centres which are to be listed in this section are those which help to link or integrate other disciplines — less from a formal perspective (e.g. mathematics) and more in terms of content (i.e. across paradigm boundaries and modes of operation). Whenever possible the material should reflect an orientation towards decision-making or give a "panoramic" perspective across several conceptual schemes which permits more effective and sensitive response to the conditions detailed. It is clearly impossible to be comprehensive in the many fields involved. The aim is to draw attention to those few papers in each discipline which really clarify an integrative approach — not to list the many papers which explore the detailed basis for the integrative perspective.

Examples

There are a number of more or less well-defined academic fields which are rich in integrative papers. These include : general systems, cybernetics, policy sciences, information theory, brain research, ecology, organization management, paradigm studies, sociology of knowledge, biology of knowledge, etc. In most cases however the literature in each field tends to be swamped by the non-integrative papers which explore details essential to the development of the field. In some cases there is no adequate collecting point for the literature in the field. The often remarkable insights are therefore lost in

terms of application to the solution of world problems.

Assistance Required

Any contributions of the following type would be much appreciated :

1. Send suggestions concerning centers, libraries, journals or resource people which you think may be significant collecting points for integrative information, or which might otherwise assist the project.
2. Send information, and if possible, photocopies, reprints or reports, on the integrative disciplines in which you are specially interested, or which you think are rarely given adequate attention.
3. Send information on any published compendiums of integrative or multidisciplinary thinking in the domain of special interest to you.
4. Arrange for us to obtain use of materials, e.g.
 - access to special libraries (preferably the stacks)
 - use of subsidized photocopying facilities
 - free copies of relevant reports distributed by your centre
 - complimentary copies of relevant books which you have written.
5. Arrange for a student to collect material on integrative disciplines of special interest to you or which meet the student's requirements for a project — send photocopies of material to Brussels.
6. Arrange to inform other centres and individuals in your network about the project and the manner in which they might assist or ensure that their own view of the key integrative disciplines is reflected in the final publication.

1. Knowledge

It would seem necessary to remember that there are two principal kinds of knowledge. One is *objective* knowledge about the world and from one generation to the next. Such knowledge results in our growing ability to intervene and control the world and herein lies the key to the problems associated with 'world housekeeping'. The other kind of knowledge is *subjective* to the extent that it can only be arrived at by each individual person as a consequence of direct experience in life and reflection upon such experience. Such knowledge is the raw material of human development and contains the key to the problems of human relationship. It cannot be transmitted except as 'knowledge-about' — when it does aid intellectual awareness, but at the same time becomes the barrier to direct experience, if it precedes such experience. The promotion of these two different aspects of knowledge (*how to do* and *how to be*) requires different educational techniques. The education provided today accentuates the development of 'knowledge-about'. With the prospect of our being able to off-load much of the mental labour of the past onto the machine, the future of education in this field of 'how to do', must focus on developing those human abilities which the machine cannot reproduce — such as how to conduct research; how to apply the knowledge gained; how to develop and service the machinery of production, distribution and disposal; how to repair the fabric of life; and how to administer socio-political and economic structures. It would also seem very necessary that a more accurate method of aptitude-testing than exists to date, should be developed in order more effectively to match the occupation to the person.

The human development aspect of education, i.e., 'how to be', is that which really concerns Mankind 2000 today. This is the *sine qua non* of any humane future. The issues involved are perennially the most fundamental ones of identity, value, purpose, authority, responsibility, insight, development and health (wholeness) — the concentration and integration of the personality, in fact, upon which the cohesion and coherence of mankind ultimately depends.

The aim is not that of promoting the cult of personality, nor that of impersonality, but rather, through the provision of facilitating environments, 'condensed' experiential settings consonant with the life-stage of the individual, to lead forth (*e-dicere*) the potential of the person; to promote the expression of inner contents; to reflect the person back to himself and thereby encourage the withdrawal of projections, the elimination of 'blind spots' and the acceptance of necessary tension (peace), restriction (freedom), and anxiety/dis-ease (health). (It being

seen that life entails our suffering a degree of tension, restriction and anxiety, and this being so, an attitude of acceptance of the 'necessary' should be encouraged to prevail over that of avoidance).

The underlying purpose is to bring the person to himself and to become what he is. It is of the utmost importance in such education for life to heed the time of the person. Such education is an art, and it is the sense of timing that distinguishes art from scientific method.

2. Education

The purpose of education should be to promote the development of the person. If it is to do so the inherent developmental process needs to be more clearly understood. A facilitating environment must be 'provided' within which this process can develop, i.e., one in which the 'child' can risk changing — letting go of the safety of the 'known' and stepping out into those 'unknowns' which have to be experienced personally and immediately. What education does the 'child' receive today? For the most part, on the one hand, the development of a distended mental stomach and a capacity for regurgitation; adaptation to an imposed behavioral code, and code of loyalties; adaptation to a career system not primarily related to his own intrinsic needs and aptitudes. On the other hand, the preempting of direct experience through the interpolation of preconceived images and concepts which preclude the immediacy of his own experience and condition its interpretation.

Both of these aspects of contemporary education abandon the 'child' to undergo much of the frustration of his inherent development, in relative isolation and devoid of 'experimental' support. There is nothing new in what has been stated above. What is perhaps new is the prospect of men generally having more time at their disposal in the future — as distinct from the past, when this was only available to a few elite. This is an essential factor in human development — so it is becoming increasingly invalid for anyone to plead that he has no time to pay attention to such endeavors.

3. Development

In the developmental process there is posited a 'growing point' — the inherent innovative focus. This represents the 'child' in us throughout our lives. This 'child' (proceeding from within outwards) is inevitably very vulnerable to damage. However, if development is to take place, change has to occur — and exposure to the hazards associated with such change *must* be experienced. The holding back from change is a natural and necessary defense, and change must be timely if it is to be survived. Equally, life demands that change shall occur in due time if

healthy development is to continue, and it cannot be frustrated with impurity.

The peak periods of change in any life occur at the time of conception, birth, puberty, coming of age, change of life, grand climacteric and death, it is suggested that each of these periods marks a stage in the whole-life continuum. There can be little argument that the times of childhood, adolescence, middle-age and old-age are clearly discernable stages in life, each requiring special attention.

4. Health

There is considerable danger in supposing that all our ills — physical, mental and social — can (or will be) combated by manipulating the outer circumstances of our lives. Apart from reducing the subject to the status of an object to be 'fixed', whether the fix' be self- or other-administered, such an attitude of mind tends to undermine the responsibility of the individual for making any effort to change as a person.

It is suggested that a close correlation exists between health and maturity relevant to life-stage. This pre-supposes an inherent developmental process which must be realised in the course of time — this being one of the most basic needs of the person. Not only does this apply in the physical dimension of existence, but also in the psychic dimension, the interaction which is operative between the psychic and the physical being a very intimate one. Failure to develop « 3-dimensionally » may be expressed as breakdown in either the physical, « mental » or social (micro/macro) areas, and such incidence of breakdown is inter-related and inter-changeable to a degree. In all aspects of health the distinction must be made between curing, i.e. to repair, and healing, i.e. to become whole, otherwise health becomes too readily equated with the elimination of symptoms.

5. Mediation

Mediation is seen to be crucial to all aspects of relationship, and the role of the mediator — the agent between — is seen as one of the major roles in human relations in the future, requiring of those concerned, personal development and training. In present « conflict resolution » the tendency is to intervene on one side or the other, i.e., having designated one as « good/right » and the other as « bad/wrong ». This does not serve to develop a « modus vivendi », but rather to conquer what is considered undesirable. Such an attitude is in fact an extension of the power frame of mind. Present day anti-war activities often fall into this same dilemma in reacting against violence with more violence.

The task of the mediator is to come between that which is impacted but

should be separate, and to bring together that which is apart but should be related. The mediator is power-less and defence-less. If he is to be the agent of « peace », his influence depends on establishing relations with the conflicting forces and bearing the tension of relationship between them. It is precisely this tension of relationship which they themselves are not willing to bear, i.e., « my patience is exhausted ! ». He does not « takes sides », but remains on the side of life — which can only exist in relationship. His aim is to establish inter-relationship and communication which will continue without his intermediary agency. His motives, intentions and attitude of mind are quite other than those of the revolutionary, for example. His only interest is to be between — inter esse. In the future such mediators will become the representatives of mankind amongst men.

6. Representation and participation

The ordering of collective life requires that a certain number of individuals be selected to act on behalf of the community at large. With the increase in population and mobility of people from one area to another, and the increasingly global nature of many national issues (which leads to national boundaries becoming increasingly anachronistic) adequate representation on a democratic basis becomes manifestly more difficult to achieve. While the system of representation itself may be insufficient to some extent, the basic flaw would seem to be that of a breakdown in relationship between people and their representatives. Once elected, the representative tends to become « lobby fodder », giving precedence to the interests of party solidarity over the interests of those he has been elected to represent. There is a corresponding tendency on the part of the public, once having elected a representative, to charge him with the full obligation for settling their affairs to rights, thereby off-loading into him their own responsibility for supporting him and for involving themselves where appropriate in the decisions to be taken and the tasks to be accomplished.

Such schism inevitably leads to a degree of autocratic rule on the one hand, and to discontent, or even obstructive negativism on the other — both being aspects of « power out of relationship ».

It would seem, moreover, that the democratic system of representation requires of the individual members of the general population a relatively high degree of personal development.

In the absence of such development

where the necessary level of personal identity and of relational and institutional capacity has not yet evolved, other more centralised forms of govern-

ment may be viewed as viable transitional forms. Such provisional evolving institutional arrangements on the part of transitional governmental forms should be fundamentally participatory, and include viable and innovative action and response by all sectors of the society — whereas autocratic government which regards itself as the ultimate system can only become repressive and tyrannical in the course of time.

The aim must be to establish a socio-political and economic order that can both effectively hold society together and also serve to facilitate the development of the individual and his freedom to participate.

It would seem doubtful that new communications facilities can entirely dispose of the need for representation in the foreseeable future, but they may certainly aid in maintaining closer relationship/communication between people and their representatives.

7. Communication

Present day over-verbalisation tends to obscure rather than clarify any issue that becomes a topic of general concern. Other vehicles of communication such as images, symbols, indicators (rather than delineators), questions (rather than answers) should be explored.

Those concerned with reporting and commenting on the actions of others throughout the world should receive more adequate training as observers, and interpreters of their experience, if they are to fulfill the responsibilities inherent in « freedom of speech » and not contribute by omission or 'commission to misrepresentation. This becomes increasingly important as the media of communication become operational on a world-wide basis. Attention to the clarification of motivation and vision of writers, reporters, commentators, publishers, broadcasters, advertisers, parents and teachers is proposed, as the positive alternative to the imposition of restrictions upon freedom of expression. Research into the extent and effect of non-verbal, and subliminal, communication should be promoted, because of the adverse consequences deriving from ambivalence between what is said, what is felt, and what is done, and also bearing in mind the long-standing value attributed to the power of individual and group concentration.

8. Youth

Perhaps the really valid basis for the discontent of today's youth vis-à-vis the older generation, i.e., the « youth » who have preceded them, is to the extent that their predecessors have failed to develop fully as people. Consequently, they fail their successors as guides; present them with false value systems; and with inadequate

structures for regulating social interaction and promoting Community. They also tend to block the channels of involvement appropriate to the younger generation through their failure to develop their human capacities to the full and to keep pace with life and its changing processes and challenges.

Any attitude of self-righteousness, or a « wholler-than-thou » self-image on the part of today's young people, however, "must also be considered dangerous, for it reveals a blindness to their own inexperience and inadequacies as persons. Whether they will develop further as human beings than their predecessors remains to be seen, even if there is little doubt that they will be superior in scientific know-how and technological ability. If they are to become more human, they must come to know themselves more thoroughly and, so accept individual responsibility for their own self and social development. Only thus can they come to short-circuit the perpetuation of « avoidance » — of which their predecessors may be said to be past-masters — and thereby become masters of the future. Such an evolutionary change cannot be achieved by revolutionary indulgence in pendulum-swinging reactions. Innovation must evolve from within towards expression in new outer forms. Revolution, started from without, usually takes as its target the outer forms. If it is successful, « cyclical » change occurs. This may be very dramatic, but in the course of time it is seen that nothing has changed fundamentally, for most often only a substitution of external forms has taken place.

9. Employment and retirement

Both these aspects of present-day life are coming to present an increasing problem as the job-spectrum alters consequent upon the introduction of new technologies, and the person becomes redundant. The situation is aggravated by the increase in population, particularly in the older age ranges. We need, therefore, to keep in mind the distinction between occupation, vocation and jobs. Social and financial validation are still closely associated with a man occupying much of his time in a wage-earning capacity, i.e., in a job, and a woman occupying much of her time in family work, even though such activities may well be at cross-purposes with what is personally thought to be meaningful and felt to be worthwhile. It is suggested that the basic personal issues which perennially require resolution are those concerning identity, purpose, and value, determining as they do the nature and quality of relationship, commitment and preference. To the extent that the person is deprived of the more traditional occupations

and « raisons d'être », the more critical these issues become. However, it can equally well be seen that the technological developments responsible for this disruption, also promise to relieve us of the burden of physical and mental labor. This could free man to devote more time, attention and energy to those areas of action with which only the capacities of the human being can cope, such as — imagination, inventiveness, adaptation, sensitivity, receptivity, reflection of the tolerance of paradox and ambivalence, and all other aspects of human relationship.

It is particularly in the field of human relationships, and the understanding of the complexities of human development, that all people potentially have an unique contribution to make. This may be so, however, only to the extent that they themselves have gained experience in the differing dimensions of human existence and have reflected upon their experience.



San Francisco

Downtown San Francisco is being revolutionized by a dynamic development.

After years of detailed planning, San Francisco announces with great pride the construction of a precedent-setting convention complex to be known as Yerba Buena Center. Construction of the three-block, \$ 225 million downtown Center has started with completion scheduled for October 1975.

The Yerba Buena Center will cover every modern convention and exhibition contingency.

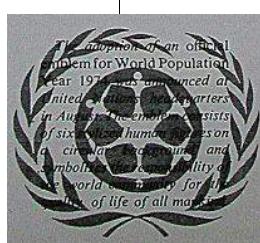
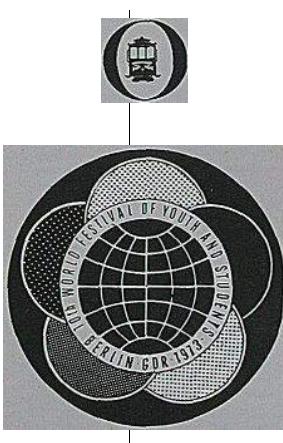
Bookings are now being accepted by the San Francisco Convention and Visitors Bureau. The interest and response have been spectacular.

Manchester

La huitième Assemblée générale de la WAY (World Assembly of Youth), s'est réunie récemment à Manchester et a permis aux 500 délégués des comités nationaux de jeunesse issus de 80 pays — où le Tiers-Monde détient une imposante majorité — de définir de nouvelles orientations pour l'avenir. Ce n'est pas par hasard que les responsables de l'organisation internationale avaient choisi pour thème de ce rassemblement : « Développement, lutte pour la justice ».

Warsaw

The 25th Congress of the international co-operative Alliance held in Warsaw in October, 1972 was preceded by meetings of the Executive and Central



Committees and meetings dealing with thrift and credit, banking, agriculture, fisheries, housing and the register of research on co-operatives in developing countries. Conferences dealt with workers' productive societies, housing, education, the press and women co-operators. A conference organised by the Insurance Committee was held after Congress. The annual meetings of the International Co-operative Housing Development Association, the International and Intercoop also took place during that time. All together 17 various meetings and/or conference.

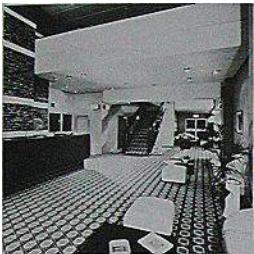
Joint congress in Ecuador

An encouraging Latin American trend toward greater inter-agency co-operation was demonstrated in Ecuador in October when the Pan American Medical Association and the Association for the Welfare of the Ecuadorian Family held a joint annual congress at the invitation of the Ecuadorian Medical Congress.

Angers

Fin novembre 72 a été inauguré le nouvel Hôtel Concorde en plein centre d'Angers. Le propriétaire exploitant est la Société extension hôtelière

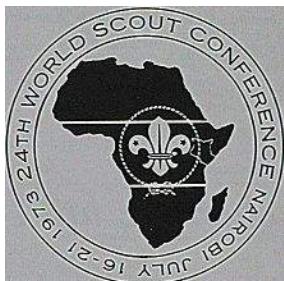
et immobilière Louvre, filiale de la société du Louvre dépositaire de la marque « Chaîne des Hôtels Concorde ». Le montant des investissements a été de 7.500.000 FF H.T. Les 72 chambres de l'hôtel comportent entr'autre radio, télévision, etc. L'hôtel est également équipé pour l'organisation de réunions et congrès (maximum 350 personnes).



Le hall de l'Hôtel Concorde Angers



II Comitato Organizza-



Savez-vous...

que la plupart des réseaux ferroviaires peuvent accorder aux participants à vos congrès, symposiums, séminaires et tables rondes d'importantes réductions sur le prix du voyage ?

Conditions :

- réunir au minimum 150 participants dont 50 au moins en provenance de l'étranger.
- organiser une manifestation à caractère économique, touristique, social, culturel, scientifique, sportif ou artistique.
- demander l'obtention du tarif « Congrès Internationaux », deux mois à l'avance, à la Direction Commerciale des chemins de fer du pays où la manifestation a lieu.
- faire usage des « Fichets de Congressiste » du modèle imposé.

Bénéficiaires :

- le congressiste,
- son conjoint,
- ses enfants.

Réductions :

- 20 % Italie - Maroc - Turquie.
- 25 % Belgique - Bulgarie - Danemark - Espagne - Finlande - France - Grèce - Hongrie - Luxembourg - Norvège - Portugal - Suisse - Tchécoslovaquie - Yougoslavie.

— 35 % Suède.

Pour toutes informations complémentaires, adressez-vous à l'administration ferroviaire du pays où a lieu le congrès.

tore con la scelta del David di Michelangelo quale simbolo del XI INTERNATIONAL CANCER CONGRESS ha inteso rendere un particolare omaggio alla tradizione rinascimentale della città di Firenze.



Paris

En même temps que s'édifie le Centre International de Paris, la Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris procéde à la mise en place des structures commerciales du Palais des Congrès, élément principal de l'ensemble qui constitue le CIP avec un hôtel, des restaurants et salons, une galerie marchande «les Boutiques de Paris», un centre d'affaires, une aérogare et des équipements annexes (gare routière, parking, etc.). C'est dans ce but qu'a été constituée la Société d'Exploitation du Palais des Congrès dont l'objectif est de rechercher à travers le monde les associations, les sociétés de toutes natures susceptibles de tenir à Paris leurs réunions et de les recevoir dans les conditions les meilleures. Des Bureaux de représentation du Centre International de Paris ont été créés au sein des Chambres de Commerce françaises à New York, à Bruxelles, à Londres et à Milan. Parmi les marchés étrangers les plus importants la priorité a été accordée aux Etats-Unis : le Président de la Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris, Monsieur LAUBARD s'est rendu à New York en septembre dernier pour l'inauguration du Paris

Convention Center. Des résultats importants sont déjà enregistrés et parmi les 60 manifestations attendues au Centre International de Paris à partir du printemps 1974, plusieurs proviendront d'Outre-Atlantique. Le Directeur du Paris Convention Center est :

— Monsieur André LEFEVRE

of Commerce
1350 Ave. of the Americas
NEW YORK - NY 10019 USA.

C'est dans le même esprit qu'ont été inaugurés le bureau de Bruxelles dont la responsable est :

— Madame FRANCKEN

Délégation pour la Belgique
Chambre de Commerce et d'industrie
Française
62, rue Belliard
1040 BRUXELLES.

Le bureau de Londres dirigé par Madame SALAMA :

— Centre International de Paris
A department of the French chamber
of Commerce
196 Sloane Street
London SW1 (Angleterre).

et celui de Milan dirigé par Madame BORIN :

— Centre International de Paris
Delegazione per l'Italia
Via Meravigli 19
20123 Milan (Italie)

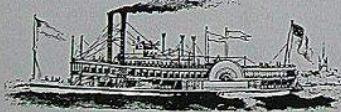
L'ouverture du Centre International de Paris, en même temps que de nombreux hôtels de classe, amènera à Paris de nombreux congress qui hésitent à venir jusqu'à présent en raison des difficultés d'hébergement et de l'absence de centre de réunions adapté à leurs besoins.



Vous cherchez un AUTRE Restaurant?

Ne cherchez plus cet AUTRE — nous l'avons trouvé pour vous.

Sur la Péniche "ILE DE FRANCE" qui vogue, immobile, entre le Pont d'Iéna et la Passerelle Debilly, vous attendent la table réputée du chef REBUCHON (Prix Taittinger 1970), une salle à manger que des buissons de fleurs transforment en un véritable jardin et dont les larges baies, ouvrant sur la Seine, vous livrent le spectacle unique du fleuve et de ses ponts, de la Tour Eiffel, des quais de la rive gauche — décor unique où chaque repas est véritablement l'Aventure qu'il vous tardera de renouveler.



TÉLÉPHONE : PASSY 60.21 ET 22
PARKING SUR LE QUAI — GRATUIT
(DURÉE ILLIMITÉE)

INTERNATIONAL
CONVENTION
BUREAU Belgium s. a.



Bruxelles et Liège

Liste des Congrès organisés
avec la collaboration d'ICB en 1973

• Mars

50e anniversaire de l'école de kinésithérapie Charles-Hubert Strainchamp.
Journée d'études le 24 mars - Palais du Centenaire, Bruxelles.
Monsieur Pulinckx - Directeur.

• Avril

Congrès de la Fédération Royale des Notaires de Belgique.
2 au 6 avril - Palais des Congrès, Bruxelles.
M. notaire Noteris.

Congrès International : Les Loisirs dans la Société Industrielle -
5 au 7 avril - Palais des Congrès, Bruxelles.
Fondation Van Cleé.

• Mai

2e Congrès de l'Association européenne des gaz de Pétrole liquéfiés.
3-5 mai - La Royale Belge, Bruxelles.
Monsieur J.M. Van Hoof - Président.

Congrès de l'Union des Conseils en brevets européens.
3-5 mai - Bruxelles.
Monsieur Bede - Président.

Meeting of the British Division of International Pathology.
11-12 mai - Gand.
Professeur Roels - Président.

Inauguration de la 2e Tour du World Trade Center.
15 mai - Bruxelles.
C.D.P.

Les ultrasons en ophtalmologie.
30 mai - 2 juin - Akademisch Ziekenhuis- Gand
Professeur François - Président.

• Juillet

8e Congrès int. du Diabète.
15 au 20 juillet - Université Libre de Bruxelles
Professeur Bastenie - Président

• Août

3e Congrès Médical de Droit Médical
19-23 aout-Gand
Professeur Dierkens

• Septembre

Congrès Mondial des Organismes familiaux.
3-6 septembre - Palais des Congrès - Liège.
Ligue des Familles : Secrétaire Général Adjoint : J. Zwick.

15, Boulevard de l'Empereur- 1000 Bruxelles
Tél. : 11.62.84-48 — Adresse télégraphique INCONBEL



The IAPCO held its General Assembly and Council meeting at the end of January 1973 in Buenos Aires. These meetings were followed by a seminar exclusively reserved for the members. The topics under discussion in this seminar concerned the facilities offered by computers for registration procedure, and the organization of meetings with audio visual shows.

Further information regarding these meetings will be published in the next « IAPCO NEWS » in the March issue International Associations.

Some of the International congresses organized between 1970-1972 with the assistance of IAPCO Members :"

Reso Stockholm-Sweden
— 9th International Congress on Combustion Engines
— 23rd Meeting of the International Society of Electrochemistry
— 4th International Conference of the International Society for Terrain-Vehicle Systems
— 7th World Congress of International Organization of Consumers Unions
— UN Symposium on the Long-Term Prospects of the Electric Power Supply Situation.

Centra de Eventos Nacionales e Internacionales Buenos Aires Argentina.

— IV reunion de la comisión técnica de hidrología de la organización mundial meteorológica
— conferencia especializada interamericana sobre educación integral de la mujer (OEA)
— conferencia regional de organizaciones no gubernamentales (naciones unidas)
— VIM congreso de la federación mundial de la hemofilia
— XVII congreso internacional de medicina del trabajo.

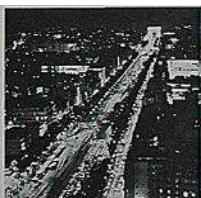
— A further listing of congresses organized by IAPCO members was produced in the December 1972 issue of International Associations.

FRANCE terre d'élection des congrès

Une tradition culturelle, artistique et scientifique, une vocation diplomatique dans le concert des nations, une situation géographique exceptionnelle enfin, au cœur de l'Europe, ont fait de la France le point de rencontre privilégié des hommes.



Pour satisfaire à cette demande et offrir à ces rencontres un cadre optimal, les principales villes de France se sont dotées de salles et palais de congrès, parfaitement équipés dans les techniques modernes de l'électro-acoustique, de l'audio-visuel, de la traduction simultanée et susceptibles d'accueillir jusqu'à 5.000 personnes.



Autant de villes célèbres, autant de possibilités de choix, de cadres historiques ou ultramodernes, des plages de Normandie à celles de la Côte d'Azur, des forêts des Landes aux vignobles d'Alsace. Et puis il y a Paris, carrefour historique de l'Europe avec son Centre International (C.I.P.) ouvert au printemps 1974.

Plus de 50.000 réunions, 20.000 séminaires et quelque 5.000 congrès par an.



La France est la terre d'élection des congrès, cumulant capacité, variété et confort des structures d'accueil et la réserve inépuisable et variée de ses ressources en matière culturelle, touristique et gastronomique.



Pour toute information relative à l'organisation de vos prochains congrès, consultez :



- France - Congrès : 33 rue Gallié 75016 - PARIS.
- Le Centre International de PARIS : Porte Maillot - 75017 PARIS.
- Les Services Officiels du Tourisme Français dans chaque pays.
- Le Commissariat Général au Tourisme : 8, av. de l'Opéra 75002 - PARIS.



INTERVIEW de M. Michel Malherbe,

chef du service
publicité et
promotion
du Commissariat
général au
tourisme français



M. Malherbe, vous qui êtes le responsable de que le Congrès soit une des activités parrainée par le Commissariat au Tourisme ?

Si je comprends bien, vous voulez savoir si l'homme -qui se rend à un congrès peut-être ou non considéré comme un tourist. Je ne chercherai pas à faire un travail d'académicien ni à définir le vocabule « Touriste ». Je vous affirme tout d'abord que pour moi sans conteste possible le congressiste est un tourist. Le congrès est une des motivations du tourisme. Une des plus importantes.

Le touriste au début du siècle n'était pas généralement un estivant à la recherche du soleil et de la mer. Il s'agissait plutôt d'un homme curieux qui voulait connaître d'autres manières de vivre et de penser. Le voyage était considéré comme une source de connaissance plus que comme un moyen de détente. Voyageait celui qui avait le temps, les moyens financiers et le désir de parfaire son éducation. C'était le touriste honnête homme. Puis peu à peu le niveau de vie moyen de l'homme occidental s'est amélioré, les grandes masses ont eu accès au voyage. Elles ont d'autres besoins, d'autres désirs que le voyageur solitaire et curieux. Une industrie des loisirs est née dont vous connaissez le développement et le caractère avant tout distractif. De même que s'organisait le tourisme de loisir où les individus prenaient l'habitude de se grouper pour se distraire, s'organisaient aussi un tourisme d'affaire. Les entreprises ont souvent des dimensions multinationales, les techniques sont en évolution

constante. Le congrès répond à ces motivations de plus en plus contraintantes. Il faut rassembler en un lieu donné des personnes exerçant les mêmes activités pour les tenir au courant. Les chercheurs, les industriels, les commerçants se retrouvent pour s'instruire ensemble. Le personnel des grandes entreprises internationales a besoin de se réunir, ne serait-ce que pour se connaître. C'est la raison pour laquelle nous voyons des congrès de plus en plus nombreux. Les participants sont bien des touristes. Comme leurs prédecesseurs du début du siècle ils voyagent pour s'instruire, la différence est qu'il ne s'agit plus d'individus mais de groupes. Comme les vacanciers, ils sont les clients de l'industrie hôtelière, des transporteurs, des restaurateurs. Toutes ces professions, étant sous notre tutelle, il est donc évident que les Congrès doivent retenir tout mon intérêt. D'autant plus, et cela est très important, que nous nous trouvons là devant une activité qui n'est pas saisonnière. Les congressistes relaient les vacanciers. C'est un de mes grands souhaits que l'échelonnement des congrès dans le temps. Dans ce domaine je dois chercher à collaborer au maximum avec les professionnels de l'organisation de ces réunions : colloques, séminaires, et congrès pour obtenir l'utilisation optimum de notre infrastructure réceptive : hôtels, salles de réunions, moyens de transport etc... Je dois aussi être en contacts permanents avec les organisateurs de congrès pour les informer de tout

ce que nous pouvons mettre à leur disposition, leur révéler toutes les ressources de la France.

de congrès ? La France n'est-elle pas un pays de tourisme plus classique, de loisir, de culture au sens strict.

Vous venez de le dire vous-même, la France est avant tout un pays de culture. Une densité de culture plus élevée qu'ailleurs — que ce soit du point de vue agricole ou du point de vue de l'esprit. Pour des raisons historiques, nous sommes dans un pays dont l'unité est déjà ancienne où, à l'abri des lois, la culture et le bien-être, la pensée pure et la technique ont pu se développer. Des civilisations aussi brillantes que la nôtre se sont épanouies autour de la Méditerranée par exemple, mais bien auparavant. Elles ont laissé des traces mais ce ne sont plus généralement que des ruines et des habitudes de pensée qui ne sont plus que des références. La France est encore très près de son point optimum de puissance et d'imagination, de pensée et de technique. Elle a énormément à donner parce qu'elle est à la fois un passé et un présent, ce qui est profondément rassurant.

Le Congrès, nous l'avons dit, est une assemblée d'individus ayant des activités ou des curiosités communes et qui se réunissent dans le but de s'instruire, d'échanger des idées, de faire le point. Vous conviendrez que le congrès est un lieu de culture. Si l'organisateur de congrès choisit un pays étranger c'est pour ouvrir déjà par le

voyage la curiosité des congressistes pour les éveiller, les sortir de l'ordinaire. Vous admettrez avec moi que pour les tenir en éveil, en état de réceptivité pendant la durée de la rencontre, il faut qu'en dehors de la réunion, autour d'eux, régne une atmosphère propice à l'excitation de l'esprit. Il faut aussi que l'environnement offre des motifs de satisfaction, des moyens de favoriser l'épanouissement des congressistes. Il y a en France de quoi satisfaire toutes les curiosités. En marge du congrès un organisateur éclairé peut proposer des visites de musées commentées par les meilleurs spécialistes, des conférences par des hommes très divers qui illustrent les différents courants de pensée de notre époque. Il peut faciliter les rencontres avec tel ou tel artiste. Dans le domaine des techniques et pour les congressistes que cela passionne on peut obtenir la visite de tel laboratoire ou de tel atelier où sont mises au point les techniques de pointe, où s'élaborent les moyens de vivre de demain. Pour ceux qui s'intéressent à la naissance de l'industrie, à l'histoire du monde industriel, nous offrons à leur curiosité un choix très vaste, j'allais presque dire complet.

Comprenez moi bien, je ne cherche pas à vous faire croire que toutes les bases de la vie moderne sont en France, loin de là, mais tout de même, l'époque industrielle est née à la fin du XVIII^e siècle et surtout au XIX^e, époques très fastes pour la France. Dispersion sur tout notre territoire, nous avons des musées de l'automobile ou du rail. Nous pouvons montrer aux curieux les premiers appareils de photo, les premiers avions ou les métiers à tisser que les artisans de Lyon voulaient détruire. Et vous savez bien que chacun de nous a une manie. Vous aussi sûrement. Si l'organisateur du congrès peut offrir en prime à chacun une expérience, une rencontre avec son hobby, il y a là un gage de succès. Un congrès c'est une agglomération d'humours, c'est aussi l'émission d'un message quel qu'il soit. Pour que le message passe, il faut que les esprits soient ouverts, réceptifs. Ceci n'est obtenu qu'en offrant une récréation aux esprits, soit par la satisfaction de toutes ces curiosités, dont nous avons parlé, soit plus simplement encore en offrant des amusements, en prévoyant des manifestations purement récréatives. Et alors là j'ai presque pudeur à vous rappeler nos possibilités dans ce domaine. Elles sont si connues, si évidentes. Mais après tout vous savez comme moi l'importance de l'intendance pour le succès d'un congrès. Après une matinée ou une après-midi d'étude, un bon repas s'apprécie. L'éloge de notre gastronomie n'est plus à faire. C'est une motivation du choix du lieu de congrès qui en vaut une autre, que de savoir que les invités garderont un bon souvenir des déjeuners ou des dîners. Peut-être

n'avaient ils jamais bu auparavant d'aussi bons Bordeaux, Bourgogne ou Champagne, ni mangé d'aussi bons foies gras. Et puis vous le savez, on peut nous faire confiance pour organiser des soirées. Depuis le temps qu'on vient ici pour se distraire nous sommes devenus imbattables. L'accueil est-ce la peine que je le mentionne y est une tradition fort ancienne. Rappelez-vous ces étrangers célèbres qui ont tant contribué au rayonnement de la France : peintres, musiciens, écrivains, il y a bien une raison qui leur fait choisir notre pays. Je crois que c'est parce qu'ils y vivent heureux. Pourquoi les congressistes ne le seraient ils pas eux aussi ?

Vous êtes très convaincant et vous me persuadez que la France a des arguments très forts pour

vous possédez les moyens de répondre à une demande variée et importante. Il y a des congrès de toutes tailles qui nécessitent une infrastructure adaptée. Est-ce le cas ?

Je suis très heureux que vous me posiez cette question et surtout heureux que vous me la posiez aujourd'hui. Car depuis cinq ou six ans un effort immense a été fait pour offrir une gamme très complète de salles et de moyens techniques. En 1972, par exemple, deux hôtels de très grande capacité se sont ouverts à Paris, le St Jacques du groupe P.L.M., 812 chambres et le Méridien d'Air France, 1.000 chambres. Ces hôtels possèdent des salles de congrès où peuvent se tenir des réunions de travail de 1.000 à 35 personnes. Ces salles sont équipées de procédés audiovisuels les plus complets et le plus modernes. D'habiles agencements permettent d'accroître ou de réduire à volonté la capacité des salles. Juste à côté de l'hôtel Méridien, Porte Maillot, c'est à dire à cinq minutes de l'arc de triomphe, un énorme ensemble sera terminé l'an prochain. Il s'agit du Centre International de Paris couplé avec un hôtel de mille chambres. Le Lafayette, du groupe Concorde. Ce Centre International de Paris offrira pour les Congrès des possibilités je crois, uniques au monde. Une grande salle de congrès de 1.500 à 4.300 places équipée pour le cinéma, les concerts et les spectacles, 18 salles complémentaires d'une capacité de 60 à 750 places. En plus de cela, on y trouvera 5.000 mètres carrés de salles d'exposition, et 100 bureaux d'affaires avec bureaux annexes. Pour répondre aux besoins d'hébergement suscités par cet énorme complexe on trouvera dans le complexe même les 1.000 chambres du Lafayette et de l'autre côté de la rue les 1.000 chambres du Méridien. Vous avouerez qu'il s'agit là d'une réalisation pleine de promesses. D'autant plus qu'en 1973 deux autres hôtels de grande capacité équipés de salles de congrès vont ouvrir, le Sofitel Sèvres et le Novotel Bagnolet.

Il ne faut pas oublier à côté de ces grandes réalisations immédiates, l'énorme travail qui a été fait par les grands palaces classiques. Le Grand Hôtel, Le Meurice, Le Grillon offrent aujourd'hui au Centre même du Paris classique de très larges possibilités pour des congrès de taille normale ou grandes conférences. Au Grand Hôtel pour prendre un exemple, vous trouverez 14 salles de réunions équipées -en audiovisuel et 650 chambres.

Je ne veux pas oublier les réalisations des grandes chaînes internationales comme le Hilton et l'Intercontinental qui ont à Paris des établissements à la hauteur de leur réputation. Mais je tiens avant tout, à mettre en évidence que dans le domaine de l'industrie réceptive, hôtels ou salles de congrès, nous sommes entrés en France dans une ère nouvelle. Cette rénovation n'est pas le fait seulement de Paris, elle a porté sur tout le territoire. Une expérience significative est celle de Novotel, chaîne hôtelière née à Lille en 1966, il y a donc six ans. Elle compte aujourd'hui 45 établissements neufs, tous équipés pour réunions, séminaires ou congrès et répartis sur tout le pays près des grandes villes. Les grandes villes elles-mêmes se sont équipées pour recevoir des congrès. Cannes, Nice, Biarritz, Strasbourg, Lyon, Deauville, Grenoble, Vichy, Vittel, Le Touquet, Versailles ont abritées l'an passé avec Paris 50.000 rencontres - 20.000 séminaires et 4.000 congrès. Ce chiffre sera sûrement dépassé en 1972. Et c'est bien compréhensible, quel attrait de pouvoir accueillir des congressistes dans la galerie des glaces à Versailles aussi bien que dans les salles les plus futuristes, quelle variété d'offrir en prime la Mer du Nord au Touquet, la Manche à Deauville, l'Atlantique à Biarritz ou à la Baule, la Méditerranée à Nice ou Cannes. Ou bien encore la neige à Grenoble, les volcans à Vichy ou les châteaux du Rhin à Strasbourg.

Et puis il y a encore un facteur qui joue en notre faveur : la France est au cœur des grandes artères de communication de l'Europe, elle est le centre nerveux du réseau de liaisons aériennes entre l'Europe et le Nouveau Monde. Elle est un grand carrefour. Je crois que c'est Hemingway qui disait que, tout homme a deux patries, la sienne et la France.

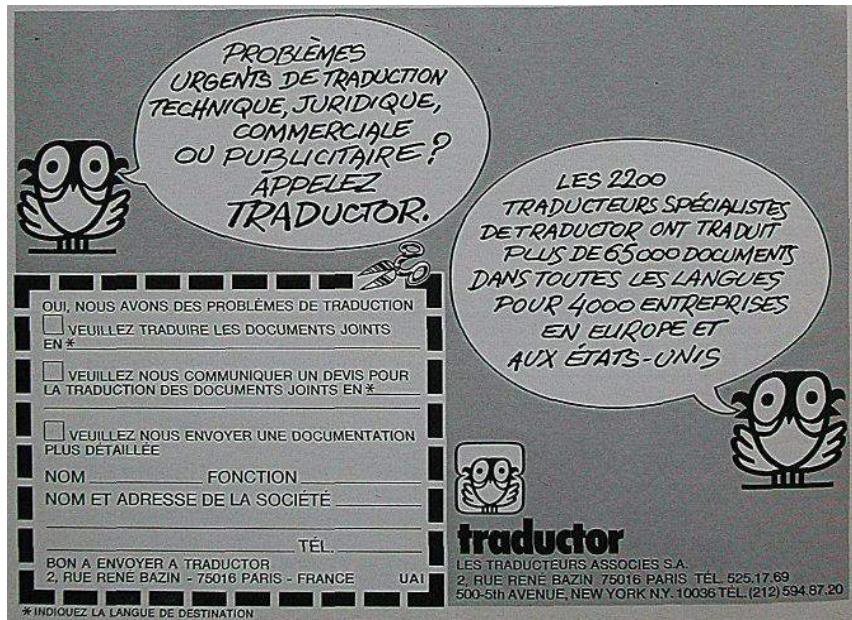
New International Meetings Announced

Information listed in this section
supplements details in the Annual
International Congress Calendar
published in January 1973.

Les informations faisant l'objet de
cette rubrique constituent les sup-
pléments au Calendrier Annuel des
Congrès Internationaux publié en
janvier 1973.

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|---|---|
| <p>1973 Feb 16 European Confederation of Agriculture. Assurance agricoles et questions sociales. Meeting. (YB n°686) <i>Union des caisses centrales de la mutualité agricole, 8-70 rue d'asfol, 75 Paris 8e, France.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb 18-20 World Federation of Jewish Fighters and Camp Inmates and Nazi Victims. 2nd world council. P : 150. Ex. (YB n°3938) <i>P O B 2660, Tel Aviv, Israel.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb 19-23 South Pacific Commission. Regional education seminar. (YB n°3260) <i>BP D5, Noumea Cedex, New Caledonia.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb 19-23 Tokyo (Japan) Int Union for Health Education. Regional seminar. (YB n°2659) <i>Dr L P Aujoulat, 20 rue Creuze, 75 Paris 16e, France.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb 20-22 Columbus (Ohio, USA) Computer Science conference. <i>Marshall C Yovits, Computer Science Conference, 101 Caldwell Laboratory, 2024 Neil Avenue, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210, USA.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb 22-23 London (UK) The Royal Society. Meeting for discussion : The structure and function of haemoglobin. <i>Executive Secretary, The Royal Society, 6 Carlton House Terrace, London SW1Y SAG, UK.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb 25-Mar 1 Geneva (Switzerland) Int Project of the Association for Voluntary Sterilization. 2nd int conference on voluntary sterilization. <i>708 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017, USA.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb 25-Mar 1 Ste Marguerite (Que, Canada) Int Union of Biochemistry /Chemical Institute of Canada, Biochemistry Division/Canadian Biochemical Society/Pan American Association of Biochemical Societies. 4th biennial symposium on biochemical control mechanisms. (YB n°2697) <i>C/C, 151 Slater Street, Room 906, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H3, Canada.</i></p> <p>1973 Feb London (UK) The Institute of Physics. Meeting : Semiconductor low light level detectors. <i>Meetings Officer, Institute of Physics, 47 Belgrave Square, London SW1X 8QX, UK.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 6-8 London (UK) Institution of Electrical Engineers. Conference on diagnostic testing of H.V. power apparatus in service. <i>The Manager, Conference Department, IEE, Savoy Place, London WC2R 0BL, UK.</i></p> | <p>1973 Mar 8 London (UK) The Royal Society. Meeting (or discussion) : Proton-proton scattering at very high energies. <i>Executive Secretary, The Royal Society, 6 Carlton House Terrace, London SW1Y 5AG, UK.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 12 London (UK) The Institute of Physics, Electron Microscopy and Analysis Group. Information meeting : Electron sources for microscopy and related techniques. <i>Meetings Officer, Institute of Physics, 47 Belgrave Square, London SW1X 8QX, UK.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 12-15 Tutzing (Germany, Fed Rep) European Federation of Chemical Engineering. Symposium über Grenzflächenphänomene in flüssigen Systemen. (YB n°725) <i>DECHEMA, Postfach 970146, 6 Frankfurt/M, Germany, Fed Rep.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 21 Toronto (Canada) Chemical Institute of Canada, Protective Coatings Division. Pollution symposium. <i>C/C, 151 Slater Street, Room 906, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H3, Canada.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 22 Montreal (Canada) Chemical Institute of Canada, Protective Coatings Division. Pollution symposium. <i>C/C, 151 Slater Street, Room 906, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H3, Canada.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 22-23 London (UK) The Royal Society. Meeting for discussion : Agricultural productivity in the 1980s. <i>Executive Secretary, The Royal Society, 6 Carlton House Terrace, London SW1Y SAG, UK.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 25-30 Strobl (Austria) Association for Eastern and Southeastern Research. 6th int special Eastern trade seminar : The socialist states' five-year-plan and their impact on East-West trade; Opening, extension and intensification of long-term economic cooperation between East and West; Large and medium-sized enterprises and their part in East-West trade. <i>Bismarckstraße 5, 4020 Linz, Austria.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 26-28 Cambridge (UK) European Federation of Chemical Engineering. Congress : Conserving our resources, the contribution of chemical technology. (YB n°725) <i>Society of Chemical Industry, 14 Belgrave Square, London SW1X 8PS, UK.</i></p> <p>1973 Mar 31-Apr 8 Brussels (Belgium) EUROPOLASTICA 73 : studydays, colloquia, Exhibition. <i>Palais du Centenaire, 1020 Brussels, Belgium.</i></p> |
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- 1973 Mar 31-Apr 8 Mexico (Mexico)
World Association of Women Executives. Congress. (YB n°3476)
25 bis, rue de Mouzaia, 75019 Paris, France.
- 1973 Easter Lausanne (Switzerland)
Association of French-Language Countries Nationless Esperantist
Workers. 28th congress. (YB n°134)
J K L Rivière, 26 Rue du Simplon, 1006 Lausanne, Switzerland.
- 1973 Apr 3-4 Manchester (UK)
Corrosion and Protection Association, Institute of Corrosion
Technology, North-West Branch. Meeting on corrosion fatigue.
Dr R P M Procter, Corrosion and Protection Centre, University of Manchester, Institute of Science and Technology,
Sackville Street, Manchester M60 1QD, UK.
- 1973 Apr 3-5 Ebeltoft (Denmark)
European Federation of Chemical Engineering/Jydske Teknologisk Institut, Food Technology Department. Symposium on emulsions and foams in food technology. (YB n°725)
(L) Mr Ole Tolboe, Head of Food Technology Department,
Jydske Teknologisk Institut, 135 Marselis Boulevard, 8000
Aarhus C, Denmark.
- 1973 Apr 5-7 Zurich (Switzerland)
Association of Scientific Public Law Assistants. Int. meeting. P :
100. George M Ganz, Inst für Völkerrecht, Hirschengraben 40,
8001 Zurich, Switzerland.
- 1973 Apr 6-10 Zurich (Switzerland)
American Central Soya Association. Congress. P : 500.
Reisebüro Bank Leu AG, Bahnhofstr 32, 8001 Zurich,
Switzerland.
- 1973 Apr 10-11 Brussels (Belgium)
North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Committee on the Challenges
of Modern Society. Meeting. (YB n° 3005)
1110 Brussels, Belgium.
- 1973 Apr 10-12 Keswick (UK)
Int symposium on vibration problems in industry.
Dr J R Wakefield, AEA Windscale, Seascate CA20 IPF,
Cumberland, UK.
- 1973 Apr 11-18 Paris (France)
Société Française de Physique. Int congress MESUCORA 73
and 64th physics exhibition.
Commissariat Général, MESUCORA-Physique, 20 rue
Carpeaux, 92 Puteaux, France.
- 1973 Apr 13-18 Rome (Italy)
G Bude Association. 9th congress : A l'origine de la culture
Européenne, rencontres de la Grèce et de Rome.
Prof Alain Michel, 95 Bld Raspail, 75 Paris 6e, France.
- 1973 Apr 24-May 5 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, Trade
and Development Board. 5th special session. (YB n°3381)
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland.
- 1973 Apr 25-May 8 Geneva (Switzerland)
Int Labour Organization. 2nd technical meeting on wood industry.
(YB n°2183)
1211 Geneva 22, Switzerland.
- 1973 Apr 26-May 2 Huntsville (Ala, USA)
Int Association of Educators for World Peace. General chapter
meeting. (YB n°1276)
Dr Charles Mercieca, Alabama A & M University, Alabama
35762, USA.



1973 Apr 29-30 Beirut (Lebanon)
Int Association for Medical Research and Cultural Exchange.
Séminaire médico-chirurgicale : Les transplantations rénales.
4 rue de Séze, 75009 Paris, France.

1973 Apr 29-May 4 Boroko (Papua, New Guinea)
7th Waigani seminar : Law and development in Malenesia.
c/o South Pacific Commission, BP D5, Noumea Cedex,
New Caledonia.

1973 Apr 30-May 9 Kingston (Jamaica)
FAO, Technical Commission on coconut. Meeting. (YB n°971)
Viale delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy.

1973 Apr 30-May 11 New York (USA)
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Executive
Board. P : 200. (YB n° 3380)
Unicef, United Nations, New York, 100017, USA.

1973 May 1-2 Varna (Bulgaria)
Int Summer School. Congress : Modelling and optimization
of mass processes and chemical reactors.
Int Summer School, Bulgarian Academy of Sciences,
Sofia 13, Bulgaria.

1973 May 6-17 Paris (France)
Int Civil Aviation Organization. 2e conférence sur les accords
de financement collectif conclus en 1956 avec le Danemark et
avec l'Islande. (YB n°1505)
ICAO, 3bis villa Emile Bergerat, 92 Neuilly sur Seine, France.

1973 May 7-10 and not 1973 Mar 7-10 London (UK)
2nd Int conference on electricity distribution.
CIRED British National Committee, IEE Conference De-
partment, Savoy Place, London WC2R OBL, UK.

1973 May 9-11 Torino (Italy)
3rd int fluid power symposium.
The Org Seer, British Hydromechanics Research Associa-
tion, Cranfield, Bedford, UK.

1973 May 10-11 Malmö (Sweden)
Int Lime Association. Meeting. P : 50-70.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7306, 10385 Stock-
holm 7, Sweden.

1973 May 13-16 Chicago (Ill, USA)
Chemical Specialities Manufacturers Association. Congress.
CSMA, 50 East 41st Street, New York, NY 10017, USA.

1973 May 13-17 Philadelphia (Pa, USA)
Int conference on fatigue in the creep range.
Mr J B Bidwell, American Society for Testing and Materials,
1916 Race Street, Philadelphia, Pa 19103, USA.

1973 May 13-18 Brussels (Belgium)
Int emergency conference and exhibition.
Mr R W Boardman, 8 Leicester Street, Leicester Square,
London WC2H 7BN, UK.

1973 May 17-18 Stockholm (Sweden)
Int Social Security Association. Colloquium. P : 200. (YB n°2468)
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7306, 10385
Stockholm 7, Sweden.

1973 May 21-22 Liège (Belgium)
Journées int d'étude des eaux du Cébedeau.
Prof Leclerc, Directeur Général du Cébedeau, rue A Stévert,
4000 Liège, Belgium.

1973 May 22-28 Manila (Philippines)
World Health Education. 1st regional seminar on environmental
pollution : Air pollution. (YB n° 3548)
1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland.

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- 1973 May 23-25 Ajaccio (Corsica, France)
Int Technical Centre of Bottling. 9th congress : Techniques d'emballage, de manutention et de transport de liquides conditionnés en bouteilles verres et plastiques. (YB n° 2616)
7 rue la Boëtie, 75000 Paris, France,
- 1973 May 23-26 Gothenburg (Sweden)
European Pancreatic Club. 6th symposium. P : 200.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7306, 10385 Stockholm 7, Sweden.
- 1973 May 27-30 Zurich (Switzerland)
Meeting : Financing in Europe. P : 80.
Management Centre Europe, 4 avenue des Arts, 1040 Brussels, Belgium.
- 1973 May 28-Jun 1 Tallin (USSR)
European Physical Society. 11th European congress on molecular spectroscopy. (YB n° 834)
I Kovacs, Dept of Atomic Physics, Polytechnical University, Budafooki Iit 8, Budapest 112, Hungary.
- 1973 May 28-Jun 2 Montreux (Switzerland)
Federation of Int Furniture Removers. Congress. (YB n° 947)
J Henrard, rue de la Loi 81 A, 1040 Brussels, Belgium.
- 1973 May 28-Jun 8 Guam (USA)
South Pacific Commission. Regional seminar on conservation education. (YB n° 3260)
BP D5, Noumea Cedex, New Caledonia.
- 1973 May 29-31 Zurich (Switzerland)
Int symposium on industrial roboters. P : 300.
Xavier B Ghali, Robotronics & Techn AG, Rathausgasse 29, 5000 Arau, Switzerland.
- 1973 Jun 1-3 Lund (Sweden)
« Round Table », European congress. P : 130.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7306, 10385 Stockholm 7, Sweden.
- 1973 Jun 4-6 Montreal (Canada)
Chemical Institute of Canada. Chemical conference. Ex.
CIC, 151 Slater Street, Room 906, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H3, Canada.
- 1973 Jun 4-7 Strasbourg (France)
European Parliament. Session. (YB n° 667)
Centre Européen, Plateau du Kirchberg, Luxembourg.
- 1973 Jun 4-8 Aulanko (Finland)
3rd int specialized symposium on yeasts metabolism and regulation of cellular processes.
Mrs C Waller, c/o Alko, Box 350, 00101 Helsinki 10, Finland.
- 1973 Jun 4-8 Dusseldorf (Germany, Fed Rep)
3rd world congress on the prevention of atmospheric pollution. Ex.
NOWEA, P O B 10203, 4 Dusseldorf 10, Germany, Fed Rep.
- 1973 Jun 6-8 Stockholm (Sweden)
European conference on environmental care : Keep Europe beautiful. P : 50.
Bo Nyflet, Rikskommittén Hall Sverige Rent, Statens Naturvårdsverk, Pack, 171 20 Solna, Sweden.
- 1973 Jun 7 Brussels (Belgium)
North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Defense Planning Committee. Ministerial session. (YB n° 3005)
1110 Brussels, Belgium.
- 1973 Jun 8-9 Zurich (Switzerland)
Int Association of Christian Businessman. Annual convention. P : 400.
Dr A Guggenbuhl, Rämistr. 8, 8001 Zurich, Switzerland.

1973 Jun 11-19 New York (USA)
Int Special Committee on Radio Interference. Plenary assembly.
(YB n°2579)

British Standards Institution, 2 Park Street, London W1Y
4AA. UK.

1973 Jun 13-15 Stockholm (Sweden)
European Undersea Biomédical Society. 1st Int scientific conference. P : 300.
*Dr Dag Linnarsson, Secretary, 1st Annual Scientific Meeting,
European Undersea Biomédical Society, Dept of Naval
Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, 104 01 Stockholm 60,
Sweden.*

1973 Jun 12-16 Unieux Firminy (France)
Research Center of the Creusot-Loire Company of France/
Research Committee of the National Association of Corrosion
Engineers. Int conference on stress corrosion cracking and
hydrogen embrittlement of iron base alloys
*M A Desestret, Centre de Recherches d'Unieux de la Société
Creusot-Loire, 42 Unieux, France.*

1973 Jun 13-15 Stockholm (Sweden)
European Insulation Manufacturers. EURISOL congress. P :
100.
*Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7305, 103 85
Stockholm 7, Sweden.*

1973 Jun 14-15 Copenhagen (Denmark)
North Atlantic Treaty Organization, North Atlantic Council.
Ministerial session. (YB n° 3005)
1110 Brussels, Belgium.

1973 Jun 14-16 Zurich (Switzerland)
European Information Center for Washing Techniques, 2nd
congress. P : 250.
*Interconvention Ltd, Hirschengraben 82, 8001 Zurich, Swit-
zerland.*

1973 Jun 14-19 Umea (Sweden)
2nd int conference of Nordic and general linguistics : The
Nordic language and modern linguistics. P : 150.
*Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7306, 103 85 Stock-
holm, Sweden.*

1973 Jun 15-21 Zurich (Switzerland)
European Furniture Association. Congress and 13th fair.
*Messidirection, J F Sauter AG, Kirchweg 39, 81020 Berenbergstrin-
gen, Switzerland.*

1973 Jun 17-23 Burgenstock/Lucerne (Switzerland)
Int Institute of Refrigeration. 6es cours int conférences de
lyophilisation : Progrès en sciences alimentaires, génie chimi-
que et techniques biologiques. (YB n°2159)
*Cours Int de Lyophilisation, Case Postale, 1814 La Tour-de-
Peilz, Switzerland.*

1973 Jun 18-21 Kingston (Rhode Island, USA)
The Law of the Sea Institute. 8th annual conference : The emerg-
ing regime of the oceans.
*Law of the Sea Institute, 19 Upper College Road, University
of Rhode Island, Kingston, Rhode Island 02831, USA.*

1973 Jun 18-22 Uppsala (Sweden)
5th int conference on high energy physics and nuclear structure.
*G Tibell, The Gustave Werner Institute, University of
Uppsala, Box 531, 751 21 Uppsala 1, Sweden.*

1973 Jun 24-30 Las Vegas (Cal, USA)
American Library Association. Annual conference.
ALA, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611, USA.

1973 Jun 27-Jul 1 Norrkoping (Sweden)
Int symposium for 200 and wild animal diseases. P : 200.
*Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7306, 10385 Stock-
holm, Sweden.*

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1973 Jul 1-4 Uppsala (Sweden)
6th int congress (or hypnosis and psychosomatic medicine.
P : 1000.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7305, 10385
Stockholm, Sweden.

1973 Jul 2-7 Strasbourg (France)
European Parliament Session.
(YB n°667)
Centre Européen, Plateau du Kirchberg, Luxembourg.

1973 Jul 3-13 Geneva (Switzerland)
United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, Com-
mittee on Invisibles and Financing related to Trade. 6th session.
(YB n°3381)
Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland.

1973 Jul 4-7 Zurich (Switzerland)
Europa Nostra. Congress. P : 400.
Schweizer Heimatschutz 3, « Heimethus », Rud Brun-Brücke,
8023 Zurich, Switzerland.

1973 Jul 7-8 Sunne (Sweden)
The Big Bear meeting, int meeting of radio amateurs. P : 150.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7305, 10385
Stockholm 7, Sweden.

1973 Jul 8-9 Stockholm (Sweden)
Meeting : Energy-transdnoting membrane functions. P : 100.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7305, 10385
Stockholm 7, Sweden.

1973 Jul 9-10 Stockholm (Sweden)
Meeting on reaction mechanisms of cytochrome, P : 450, and
related enzymes. P : 150.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7305, 10385
Stockholm 7, Sweden.

1973 Jul 9-11 Stockholm (Sweden)
1st int symposium on alcohol and aldehyde metabolizing
systems. P : 100.
Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7305, 10385 Stock-
holm 7, Sweden.

1973 Jul 10-13 San Diego (USA)
Int Academy of Astronautics. 4e colloque int sur la dynamique
des gaz des explosions et des systèmes réactifs. (YB n°1125)
250 rue Saint-Jacques, 75005 Paris, France.

1973 Jul 22-28 Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)
Interamerican Confederation of Chemical Engineering /Canadian
Society for Chemical Engineering. 5th Interamerican congress
of chemical engineering.
Jean-Michel Charrier, Dept of Chemical Engineering,
McGill University, Box 6070, Montréal 101, Canada.

1973 Jul 23-27 Freiburg/Breisgau (Germany, Fed Rep)
Committee on Data for Science and Technology. Symposium on
Mass-machine communication for scientific data handling.
(YBn°319)
CODATA, Westendstrasse 19, Frankfurt/Main, Germany,
Fed Rep.

1973 Jul 30-Aug 4 London (UK)
World Federation for Mental Health. Regional workshop : The
mentally ill and handicapped in the community.
(YB n°3514)
The Secretary, 1973 Regional workshop, NAMH, 39 Queen
Ann Street, London W1M OAJ, UK.

1973 Aug 1-8 Nairobi (Kenya)
World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession.
Delegate assembly.
(YB n°3491)
3 chemin du Moulin, 1110 Merges, Switzerland.



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J.P. MARCUS, Directeur

1973 Aug 5-10 Nordic Association (or Physiological Botany. Congress. P 250. Swedish Tourist Traffic Association, Box 7306, 10385 Stockholm 7, Sweden.	Ronneby (Sweden)	Mrs A Pugh, General Secretary, A M A House, 88 L'Estrange Terrace, Kelvin Grove, Qld 4059, Australia,
1973 Aug 8-11 17th Scandinavian congress of psychiatry, P O Box 1429, Reykjavik, Iceland.	Reykjavik (Iceland)	1973 Aug 20-24 Luxembourg (Luxembourg) North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Conférence : Le rôle et l'efficacité des théories de décision en pratique. (YB n°3005) 1110 Brussels, Belgium.
1973 Aug 14-17 Int Association of Physical Education and Sports for Girls and Women. Jerusalem workshop on Israeli folklore and dance. P : 300. (YB n°1326) Kopel Tours Ltd - Convention Dept, P O B 4374, Tel Aviv, Israel.	Jerusalem (Israel)	1973 Aug 22-26 Bogota (Colombia) Latin American Confederation of Societies of Anesthesia. 12th Latin American congress of anesthesiology and 11th Colombian congress of anesthesiology : Respiratory physiology and anesthesia; new drugs in anesthesia; clinical problems in relation to anesthesia and education of anesthesiology. P : 400. Ex. (YB n°2870) Jaune Herrera, Calle 118 20-48, Bogota, Colombia.
1973 Aug 19-25 World Confederation (or Physical Therapy. Australian Physiotherapy Association. Biennial congress. P : 250. (YB n°3489) Australian Physiotherapy Association (Qld Branch), c/o	Brisbane (Australia)	1973 Oct 4-6 Berlin (West) European Funeral Directors' Association. 5th general meeting. C: 10- (YB n°768) Charaggasse 8, 1030-111 Vienna, Austria.

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FB 350,— FF 40,— FS 32,—

- Guide pratique des services linguistiques (traduction, comptes rendus analytiques, édition) à l'exclusion de l'interprétation, par l'Association internationale des traducteurs de conférences
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- Répertoire des Périodiques publiés par les organisations internationales. 3e édition, complète les informations de l'Annuaire des Organisations Internationales - 1734 périodiques décrits dont 1475 publiés par 1.071 organisations internationales non gouvernementales (sciences, médecine, éducation, jeunesse, arts, religion, technologie, économie, etc...).
- Bibliographie des ouvrages et documents reçus par l'UAI, trimestriellement dans «Associations Internationales».
- Bibliographie des comptes rendus des réunions internationales
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- Yearbook of International Congress Proceedings, 1re édition (épuisée) (congrès tenus de 1960 à 1967).
- Yearbook of International Congress Proceedings, 2e édition (congrès tenus de 1962 à 1969).

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