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PART I

THE SECOND WORLD CONGRESS OF SOCIOLOGY, LIÈGE, 1953

INTRODUCTION

The International Sociological Association held its Second World Congress of Sociology at the University of Liège from 24 to 31 August 1953, under the auspices, and with the support, of Unesco and the Belgian Government. There were 281 registered participants from 34 countries; among them 65 from Belgium, 34 from the United States, 32 from France, 28 from Germany, 23 from the United Kingdom, 22 from the Netherlands, 8 from Italy, 7 from Denmark, and 7 from India. Smaller contingents came from Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Ecuador, Finland, Gold Coast, Greece, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Lebanon, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Panama, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Union of South Africa, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslavia.

The opening ceremony was attended by His Excellency the Minister of Public Instruction, Mr. P. Harmel; by Mr. Giraud, representing the United Nations; by Mrs. Alva Myrdal, representing Unesco; by the Rector of the University of Liège, Mr. F. Campus; by members of the provincial and municipal governments, and by leading representatives of cultural and commercial organizations in Liège.

Professor J. P. Haesert, of the University of Ghent, chairman of the Belgian Organization Committee and honorary president of the congress, opened the session by welcoming the delegates and the representatives of governmental and international bodies to Liège. He expressed the hope that the congress would be fruitful, not only in contributing to the body of sociological knowledge, but also in strengthening the personal contacts between sociologists of different countries.

Professor Georges Davy, Dean of the Faculty of Letters of the University of Paris and Member of the Institut de France, vice-president of the International Sociological Association, spoke of the loss which the association had suffered since its first congress, held in Zürich in 1950, through the deaths of Professor Louis Wirth, the association's first president, and of Professor Theodor Geiger, a member of its Executive Committee and chairman of its Research Committee. Professor Davy referred to the outstanding energy and ability which the late Professor Wirth had devoted to the affairs of the association; the striking progress of the past three years was an indication of the association's indebtedness to his endeavours. He spoke of the scientific contributions of the late Professor Geiger, especially in the field of social stratification and social mobility, which continued to be one of the main research interests of the association. Finally, Professor Davy stated his view of the function of the sociologist, who no longer made vast claims to absorb or replace the other social sciences, and philosophy, but who tried to bring his

own contribution to the solution of urgent practical problems, such as the problems of conflict between classes, nations and cultures, problems which would have an important place in the discussions of this Second World Congress.

Professor Morris Ginsberg, of the London School of Economics, vice-president of the International Sociological Association, spoke of the important contribution to sociology made by Belgian scientists, which was often neglected in English textbooks; he referred to the pioneer work of Quetelet in the domain of social statistics, and to the valuable research carried out for many years by the Institut de Sociologie Solvay. Professor Ginsberg emphasized the truly international character of the congress, and contrasted it with pre-war congresses which, though called international, actually brought together representatives of relatively few countries. The present congress was also international in another sense, that is, in the content of the scientific papers. For example, in the section devoted to social stratification and mobility, there were reports of research which had been done in various countries on similar problems and using similar techniques, in accordance with the recommendations of an international working conference on problems of research in this field. It was a great step forward to get sociologists investigating similar problems and trying to collect comparable data. In conclusion Professor Ginsberg mentioned some of the difficulties connected with the professional activities of sociologists in a situation where they were increasingly required to give advice to governmental and industrial organizations, and stressed the importance of the section of the congress devoted to this question of professional activities and responsibilities.

Mrs. Alva Myrdal, Director of the Social Sciences Department of Unesco, read a message addressed to the congress by the Director-General of Unesco, in which he drew attention to the importance of the social sciences, and particularly sociology, to the work of Unesco, in its Technical Assistance Programme, and complimented the association for placing on its congress agenda the difficult problem of intergroup conflicts, thus tackling courageously 'the vital problem now facing mankind in its anxiety to find some way for the nations to live together in peace and prosperity'. The Director-General, recalling the valuable co-operation between the association and the Social Sciences Department of Unesco, concluded, 'I am convinced that this congress will give a fresh impetus to sociological research and that Unesco, in its work for science and peace, can only benefit from such progress'.

Mr. Giraud, of the United Nations Secretariat in Geneva, conveyed the good wishes of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, and expressed his pleasure in finding that the congress proceedings gave such a large place to that part of sociology concerned with political questions and able to provide knowledge of great value to the statesman.

In his address to the congress, Mr. Harmel, Minister of Public Instruction, said that the Belgian Government considered it an honour to welcome the sociologists of so many different countries. Belgium, a meeting place or different civilizations, had remained faithful to its mission of encouraging the great currents of ideas, and the town of Liège, in particular, had long been a crucible of profound social changes. In his opinion the objective study of social phenomena was of supreme importance in the contemporary world, and many organizations, governmental and others, would be particularly interested in the discussions of social stratification and of the recruitment of different professions.

The scientific sessions of the congress were organized in four sections; (a) Social Stratification and Social Mobility; (b) Intergroup Conflicts; (c) Recent Developments in Sociological Research; and (d) Professional Activities and Responsibilities of Sociologists. The papers and discussions in these sections are reported in four articles in this issue of the *Bulletin.*

Interest in the discussions was not confined to the congress delegates. The discussions, particularly those on social stratification, and on industrial and international conflicts, were widely reported in the Belgian press, and during the week Radiodiffusion Belge broadcast a recorded interview with a group of the leading participants in the congress, including Mrs. Myrdal, Professors Clémens, Davy, Ginsberg and König, and Mr. Stein Rokkan, executive secretary of the ISA.

The Belgian Organization Committee did not forget that sociologists are also social beings. The indefatigable secretary of this committee, Professor René Clémens, with the generous collaboration of municipal and cultural bodies in Liège, Spa, Chaudfontaine, and Maestricht (Holland), arranged an impressive variety of receptions and excursions. The hospitality of their Belgian hosts will be long remembered by those who attended the Second World Congress. At the end of the congress a resolution was passed expressing the gratitude of the council of the ISA to all the members of the Belgian Organization Committee for their devoted efforts on behalf of the Second World Congress of Sociology, in particular to Professor J. P. Haesert, the chairman of the committee, and above all to Professor René Clémens, its most efficient secretary-general.

ORGANIZATION AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE ISA

During the congress a number of meetings of the Council and the Executive Committee of the association took place. One of the first duties of the Council was to elect a new president, and new members of the Executive Committee, to replace those retiring in 1953. Professor Robert C. Angell, University of Michigan, was unanimously elected president for the term 1953-56. In his presidential address Professor Angell thanked the Council for the honour it had bestowed on him, and expressed the hope that he would be able to serve the ISA as ardently and effectively as its first president had done.The Council then elected five new members to the Executive Committee, which is now composed as follows. *President:* Prof. Robert C. Angell, University of Michigan. *Vice-presidents:* Dean Georges Davy, University of Paris, and member of the Institut de France; Prof. Morris Ginsberg, London School of Economics; Prof. Leopold von Wiese, University of Cologne. *Members at large:* Professors Pierre de Bie, University of Louvain; K. S. Busia, University College of the Gold Coast; L. A. Costa Pinto, University of Brazil; G. S. Ghurye, University of Bombay; Kunio Odaka, University of Tokyo; T. T. Segerstedt, University of Uppsala; H. Z. Ulken, University of Istanbul.

The Council appointed a Research Committee of 24 members under the chairmanship of Professor David Glass, London School of Economics, and a Committee on Teaching and Training, of 20 members under the chairmanship of Professor Gabriel Le Bras, University of Paris. A small Administrative Committee was also appointed, to be responsible for the day-to-day administration of the ISA, comprising the president and vice-presidents (*ex officio*),

Professor Pierre de Bie, from the Executive Committee, and Professors Georges Friedmann, René König and David Glass from the Research Committee.

The Executive Committee discussed the reorganization of the ISA secretariat consequent upon the resignation of the executive secretary, Mr. Stein Rokkan, who was unable to continue in this office after 31 August 1953, owing to his obligations to the University of Oslo and to the Institute for Social Research in Oslo. The Executive Committee appointed Mr. T. B. Bottomore, assistant lecturer in sociology at the London School of Economics and Political Science, as executive secretary of the ISA for the term 1953-56, and gratefully accepted the offer of the London School of Economics to provide accommodation for the secretariat in its research building, Skepper House, 13 Endsleigh Street, London, W.C.1. Miss Betty Kilbourn, assistant secretary of the ISA, also offered her resignation, and the Executive Committee approved the appointment of Miss Elizabeth Adorno as assistant secretary for the term 1953-56. The Executive Committee, and subsequently the Council, accorded a vote of thanks to Mr. Rokkan and Miss Kilbourn for their excellent work on behalf of the ISA, especially in the preparation of the Second World Congress.

The executive secretary's review of membership showed that the ISA had, at 1 August 1953, 43 regular members (26 national associations and 17 institutes), 7 associate members, and 53 individual members. At its sessions in Liège the Council admitted to membership one national association, three institutes, and one individual. The Council also discussed the relations between the ISA and the Institut International de Sociologie, and agreed to offer to the latter organization a choice between affiliation as a regular member of the ISA and informal collaboration, involving the exchange of scientific documents and consultation on the timing of congresses. The Institut International de Sociologie subsequently accepted the second alternative, and an exchange of documents has been arranged.

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION PROGRAMME

The activities of the ISA in promoting research co-operation were concentrated during the period 1950-53, on studies of social stratification and social mobility. The value of these activities is shown by the large number of papers presented in Section I (Social Stratification and Mobility) of the congress, and by the growing amount of research in this field which is now being done in many different countries. It is proposed to hold, during 1954, a third working conference on social stratification, to discuss the present state of research, problems of cross-national comparisons, and an extension of the scope of this research.

The Council also considered new proposals for research collaboration, some of them in connexion with the Unesco programme. It was agreed that more research was needed on the recruitment of élites, particularly in underdeveloped countries, and that such research could be related to studies of the educational system, educational opportunity and the problems of youth.

In the period 1953-56 the ISA, in collaboration with the Social Sciences Department of Unesco, will give particular attention to the problems of underdeveloped countries, and it is hoped to organize in 1954 or 1955 a round-table conference of sociologists and administrators from such countries with Western sociologists to discuss these problems. It was also agreed by the Council that the third world congress (to be held in 1956) should have as its

general theme 'problems of social change' and that within this framework the problems of underdeveloped countries should receive special attention.

The Council received a report on *Current Sociology*, published by Unesco in collaboration with the ISA and the International Committee on Documentation in the Social Sciences. The first volume (1952-53) has now appeared, and the first two numbers of the second volume are in print. *Current Sociology* will continue to be published three times a year, numbers 1 and 4 containing trend reports, and a double issue (numbers 2 and 3) containing a classified bibliography. Among the subjects of trend reports already prepared or planned are urban sociology, the assimilation of immigrants, the impact of industrialization on underdeveloped countries, electoral sociology, sociology of the family, sociology of religion, criminology, industrial sociology, and rural sociology.

SOCIAL STRATIFICATION AND SOCIAL MOBILITY

D. V. GLASS

Of the topics considered at the Liège congress, the broad field of social stratification and social mobility claimed the largest share of time and was responsible for the largest number of prepared papers. Four formal sessions were given over to the discussion which, since there were fifty or more papers, was nevertheless all too brief, and there were also two informal meetings of members of the congress most directly concerned with the problems involved in comparative research.

Interest in encouraging such comparative research had led the ISA to select social stratification and social mobility as a major theme for the 1953 congress. Under the chairmanship of the late Professor Geiger, the Research Committee of the ISA had in 1951 convened two small working conferences to discuss the needs and possibilities of new documentary and field studies of social stratification (see in particular, *First International Working Conference on Social Stratification and Social Mobility*, ISA/SSM/Conf. 1/1-8). And those conferences had envisaged a long-term programme which, beginning with inquiries by national groups, would lead to cross-national reports drawing together old and new material on the main aspects of stratification, comparing the situation between countries and examining trends over time. It was hoped that preliminary reports on some of the new studies might be available for the 1953 congress and be of importance not only in their own right, but also as providing a basis for the evaluation of current methodology and for the development of further and more adequately designed studies. But the initiation of comparative research inevitably meets unanticipated theoretical and practical problems, and the programme proceeded rather slowly. The largest proportion of the papers presented to the 1953 congress represents the results of work other than that sponsored by the ISA. Nevertheless, ISA interest in this central area of sociology was itself a factor in encouraging individual sociologists to examine the problems from a fresh point of view. And even though few papers actually reported the results of new studies carried out as part of the ISA programme, there were many other papers which dealt with the methodology of stratification research. It was in fact this kind of question—from what bases should such research begin and with reference to what criteria should it be elaborated—which aroused most interest and provoked most discussion.

The actual distribution of the various papers between the four sessions was somewhat capricious—unavoidably, because the papers often dealt with several aspects of the general topic. In the present report, therefore, some regrouping of the papers has been done to make for a rather more systematic account, and the relevant discussion has been linked to the papers rather than to the sessions in which they were considered. The 53 papers have been

divided into the following groups: (a) general surveys of the social stratification of whole countries; (b) sectional studies dealing (i) with regions, and (ii) with particular occupations or sectors of the social structure; (c) papers discussing avenues and obstacles to social mobility; (d) studies of characteristics of stratification; (e) contributions on general or specific methodology. The papers reporting results of research carried out under the auspices of the ISA have been included under the last heading for, at the time of the Liège congress, the interest in them was methodological rather than substantive, and it was from such a viewpoint that, in the main, they were discussed. In preparing the account which follows, the commentaries of the three *rapporteurs* who opened the discussion at successive sessions—Professor R. Bendix (U.S.A.), Mr. T. B. Bottomore (U.K.) and Mr. A. Touraine (France)—proved particularly helpful.

Five papers have been listed under the first heading—over-all surveys of national stratification systems. Two of these deal with social structures which for centuries preserved powerful elements of continuity: India, whose caste system was examined by Professor R. Mukherjee (India), and China, in respect of which Dr. Shu-Ching Lee (U.S.A.) studied the role of the bureaucracy in maintaining social equilibrium. In India the caste system, reinforced rather than disrupted by the economic developments of the nineteenth century, has been found bearable not only through religious conviction, but also because outward-directed prejudice and discriminations provide psychological compensation within a given caste, and because of a wide, if specified, sharing in religious and local civic activities, so that, as Mukherjee puts it, 'in some measure even the watertight compartments leave the door open for participation in the more comprehensive goals and interests of the society'. In China, on the other hand, stability and hierarchy were facilitated by the system of bureaucratic recruitment. That even in good times the chances of becoming an administrator were very small was less important than the seeming opportunity to rise, regardless of social origins, on the basis of talent.

Distant though such structures may seem from our Western world, they nevertheless offer interesting comparisons and show how in both Asian and Western types of society the myth may be far more potent than the reality in maintaining 'peace' within the social system. The term 'myth' is perhaps less applicable to Uruguay, whose social structure was described by Professor I. Ganon (Uruguay). 'Nobody is better than anybody' is the phrase which, he said, is widely used in his country to epitomize general convictions regarding interpersonal and intergroup relations. That may be true of Professor Ganon's country, dominated by the middle class, and providing 'free secular education for all age levels, trades and professions'. But Uruguay, as Professor Olivier Brachfield (Venezuela) commented, is unique among South American countries. And so far as North America is concerned, Professors Lipset and Bendix (U.S.A.) made it clear in their survey of social mobility in the U.S.A. that ideological equalitarianism was in part a myth, often contradicted by a rather harsh reality, especially in the case of immigrant groups and of the coloured population. Yet the belief in equalitarianism itself facilitates social mobility. Individual ascent in social status becomes part of the aspirational pattern of the community, and there is no question of 'treason to one's class' —one of the points which, thinking of French syndicalists, Mr. Touraine (France) no doubt had in mind when he later criticized the use of occupational prestige scales as postulating a 'conservative' sociology—which the combination

of equalitarian ideology and the mobility resulting from the increasing dominance of tertiary, white-collar occupations in the U.S.A. helps to maintain the image of 'openness' in a society in which, as elsewhere, there are substantial differences in the degree of self-recruitment at the various levels of the status hierarchy.

The question of the 'openness' of a society was raised explicitly in the last contribution to this section. Mr. S. V. Utechin (U.K.), concerned with recent trends in social stratification and social mobility in the U.S.S.R., argued that, although there is still considerable opportunity for upward movement, the barriers are increasing and the society has become rather rigidly divided into three main 'classes', with numerous subdivisions. Mr. Utechin did not, however, draw attention to the fact that, as Professor John Hazard has shown elsewhere, the Soviet Union continues to prevent property ownership from becoming a primary source of power. As he put it, 'the faithful will be rewarded by many things, wealth, position, medals and privileges, but they will not be accorded an opportunity to become a new generation of landlords and industrialists'. Moreover, some of the subdivisions to which Mr. Utechin referred are of a rather special kind—created, for example, by awarding such titles as 'excellent quality worker'. In Western Europe, the use of comparable symbols might have the reverse effect of that inferred by Mr. Utechin—that is, lessen the rigidity of the society by providing alternative avenues to status as a supplement to the more customary and less widely available means of achieving social prestige.

Attempts to characterize the social structure of an entire country are, of course, fraught with difficulties, one of the most common being, as Professor Lipset (U.S.A.) defined it, that we often lack the 'simple book-keeping' information which should form the indispensable preliminary to any more detailed study of the causes or consequences of social mobility. Much of the material now obtainable only through (relatively costly) random sample inquiries should be provided, on a national basis, by censuses, or by other periodic governmental inquiries—material on the occupations of fathers and sons, on changes in the distribution of prosperity and income, on disparities in educational attainment, and on the differences in fertility, morbidity and mortality between the various socio-economic divisions of the population. Yet the effort to generalize must be made, for the sectional studies will be of relatively small value unless they can be set in a wider context. Moreover, sectional studies by themselves tend to get away from the fundamental notion of social class, of which, as Mrs. Floud (U.K.) emphasized in the subsequent discussion, stratification and mobility represent but one aspect.

The second group of papers, dealing with 'sectional' studies, covers a wide variety of topics and areas. Under the heading of regional or local inquiries, Professor G. Mackenroth (Germany) submitted an outline of the research now being carried out in Schleswig-Holstein, into changes in German social structure. The research is focused primarily upon the question of whether there is evidence of a shift from a class society to a 'levelled', middle-class community. But an extensive range of information is being collected, bearing upon many other aspects of stratification, including the question of the role of the family in the system of stratification.

Two other papers dealt with specifically rural areas or aspects. Professor E. W. Hofstee (Netherlands) considered the changing relationship, in Dutch rural society, between the small farmers and the agricultural labourers—a

problem which, though here set in a rural context, has its urban counterpart in the relation between the clerical and other relatively low income grades of white-collar workers, and the 'new rich' among the skilled manual workers. The Dutch agricultural worker now often has a larger income than the small farmer and no longer suffers from irregular employment. The agricultural worker thus begins to regrade his own social status, while the small farmer tries to maintain the previous hierarchy. The conflict may have important consequences both for the social structure and the economic organization of agriculture in the Netherlands. Somewhat similar problems were noted by Mr. H. Mendras (France) in his study of peasant society in a region of the south of France. Mr. Mendras was concerned chiefly with the bases of the social hierarchy, finding them (leaving aside the peasant aristocracy) primarily economic—linked to the number of oxen and horses possessed—though also related to the moral value attributed to particular families. But he noted that large proprietors with recently acquired prosperity do not fit into the traditional scale of values and tend to escape from the community, and that this is also the case of the small peasant proprietors. Many of the latter tend to fall into the lower group of landless agricultural workers and, like them, try to escape from the community.

A third local study, by Mr. S. Sariola (Finland), covered one industrial and one rural community in Finland. The object of this study is not to establish the present social structure of the communities, but to assess the criteria by which various judges rate the status of members of the communities. Yet perhaps the most stimulating part of the contribution is not the analysis of the rating approaches so much as the historical sketch of political development in Finland, and the reference to the wide incompatibility of norms in present Finnish society. This incompatibility is itself reflected in the approaches used in the two localities in classifying individuals, and especially by the tendency of some of the judges to use political affiliation as an immediate criterion. Perhaps this is not surprising in a society in which social transformation has largely been a product of the past 50 years.

The remaining local studies—of which there are five—attempt to deal with some of the questions with which Professors Lipset and Bendix were concerned on a national scale, namely the amount and direction of social mobility in the community. The papers might equally be considered in the section on methodology, for in some respects it is their methods which are of greater interest than their results. This is explicitly so of the pilot study by Professor G. Boalt and Dr. C. G. Jansson (Sweden) of social mobility in Stockholm, for the actual analysis of mobility is here largely confined to a comparison of the occupations (classified in three broad groups) of 24-year-old men in 1949 with the occupations held by their fathers in 1936. The special feature of the study is the use of I.Q. tests, so that achieved status may be looked at in terms of a cross-classification by father's status, and by education and I.Q. of the subjects. But from the substantive point of view, perhaps the most interesting, indirect, finding (apart from the general finding of almost all Western mobility studies, that there is considerable movement) is that migrants to Stockholm appear to be a primary source of recruits to the lowest status level. Having regard to the quantitative importance of internal migration in Western countries, far more attention should be given than hitherto to the specific social role of such migration, and it is thus worth emphasizing this particular point in the Boalt-Jansson study. It is also relevant to note that the

obverse of this question is dealt with by Dr. K. V. Müller in his study of selective migration from the Soviet zone of Germany. He finds that, compared with the native population of Western Germany, both the expellees and the self-selected migrants from the Soviet zone are higher in social status, and that their children are more 'able' than those of the native population. These results are certainly of interest, but perhaps Professor Bendix, in the discussion, placed too much emphasis on their special character. In particular, comparable differences in I.Q. between migrant and resident populations have been observed elsewhere—as, for example, in the second volume of analysis of the 1947 Scottish Mental Survey.

Evidence of considerable mobility—and of some of the disadvantages it may entail in present circumstances—was also given in two studies carried out in the Netherlands. A paper by Dr. W. A. Luijckx outlined the results of an inquiry among individuals engaged in retail trade and in certain crafts, while Dr. Ida van Hulten reported on her study of the employees of the Philips factory at Eindhoven. These Dutch studies were complemented by a paper by Dr. A. Lehner, reporting the preliminary results of an investigation, carried out under the direction of Professor L. Livi, into social mobility in Rome. The particular interest of Dr. Lehner's paper lies in the method employed to estimate the amount of mobility. Following Professor Livi's previous work in this field, actual self-recruitment within broad occupational categories is measured against a theoretical norm calculated by assuming that the probability of arriving at any point in the social hierarchy is the same for all members of the community. There is room for discussion of the specific method of calculation used by Professor Livi, but it is evident that some approach of this kind is necessary if a distinction is to be made between social mobility which is the result of total changes in the structure of a society, and the different chances which individuals of diverse social origins have of reaching a particular status level. Dr. Lehner's paper is the only one in which this distinction is taken into account.

The studies of particular groups of occupations, included here in the broad group of 'sectional' contributions, are by their very nature more immediately in line with the expressed interest of the ISA in comparative research. The operative word is 'immediately', since local studies, if undertaken to illuminate specified problems, would also be closely relevant. But inquiries into the professions, the main concern of the five papers discussed here, at once offer cross-national comparisons. Three of the papers give evidence of changes in the social origins of members of certain professions in Iceland, Britain and France. Different time periods are involved, and the professions treated in the study of Iceland exclude the higher civil servants from separate examination, while the papers on Britain and France are exclusively concerned with them. But there is nevertheless solid evidence in each case of a greater equality in recent years, as between the various social strata, in entry to the professions. Mr. R. K. Kelsall (U.K.), in his study of the higher civil servants of Great Britain, shows that in 1950 some 17 per cent were the sons of manual workers, as compared with only 9 per cent in 1929. Mr. T. B. Bottomore (U.K.), in a comparable study of the French higher civil service, suggests a similar, if less marked, trend since the 1945 reforms. Taking the liberal professions as a group, the study carried out by Mr. J. Nordal (Iceland-U.K.), dealing with developments in Iceland during the past century, provides statistics of substantial changes. Of professional men born in 1840-59, 48 per cent came

from professional families and only 4 per cent from the families of manual workers (excluding agriculture); the comparable figures for professional men born in the present century are 23 per cent and 13 per cent. Such statistics do not of themselves give any indication of the causes of change, which may differ significantly between countries. But the papers mentioned, and still more the larger reports of which they are brief abstracts, emphasize the historic context of the development. Mr. Bottomore, for example, examines the fall in the prestige of higher civil servants in France, suggesting as an explanation the use of alternative occupations, the change in social values, associating status more closely with wealth, and the absolute and relative fall in the incomes of the civil servants themselves. In Iceland, a decline in the relative prestige of the professions, as compared with business, is also adduced by Mr. Nordal.

The prestige of a profession, and the factors influencing it, are the focus of a study of the schoolteacher in England, presented by Mr. A. Tropp (U.K.). This is an example of the way in which government can influence the status of a profession by a deliberate policy of recruitment. On the supply side, at least, the British Government specified the status of the elementary schoolteacher in the nineteenth century by offering scholarships and grants, reducing the minimum educational qualifications, and drawing directly upon the children of artisans as recruits for the newly expanded profession. Circumstances have changed, and the responsibility and training of teachers have been raised persistently; yet certain stereotypes still remain and condition the prestige of the teacher, especially as viewed by members of other professions.

The last contribution in the group, that by Mr. Mattei Dogan (France), arrived too late for discussion. It deserves special mention here, however, for as an essay in the study of the social origins of parliamentary representatives in France, Britain and Rumania, it is an example of comparative research in its own right. Mr. Dogan is not simply interested in social origins as such, but in the different roles which apparently similar occupational groups play in various countries. Lawyers, for example, occupy an important position in the parliaments of the three countries considered. But in Eastern Europe, prior to World War II, they were the sons, sons-in-law or nephews of the landed proprietors whom, superficially, they appeared to replace. There is, indeed, much scope for further comparative research of this kind, examining the political roles of the various professions with reference to changing social origins and to the changing objectives and structure of political parties.

The third broad category of contributions mentioned at the beginning of this report relates to avenues of, and obstacles to, social mobility. Of the six papers listed under this heading, one, that of Professor E. O. Smigel (U.S.A.), is a general survey of post-war U.S. literature in the field of occupational sociology, two sections of the survey relating respectively to occupational choice and the factors affecting it, and to occupational status and mobility. The remaining papers deal with substantive questions and report the results of documentary and field research, mainly on the role of education.

The basis of the paper presented by Dr. P. C. Glick (U.S.A.) is the information on education and occupation collected by the 1950 U.S. census. As is almost invariably the case with census material, only a one-way analysis is possible, for paternal occupation is not recorded. But within those limits—excluding, that is, consideration of the differential access to various stages of

education—the census data confirm the fact that the probability of achieving white-collar as well as professional status increases with high school and university education. On the question of differential access to education, the paper by Mrs. Floud, Dr. F. Martin and Mr. A. H. Halsey (U.K.) provides an interim account of a continuing study of the process of educational selection in one area in England (in south-west Hertfordshire). The authors show how, since the 1944 Education Act and with the use of I.Q. tests as a primary criterion, the social composition of grammar school populations has changed very markedly. Nevertheless there still remain major problems of differentiation—for example, of the influence of parental aspirations and pressures upon the achievements of their children, and of the very low representation of the children of unskilled workers even after the 1944 Act.

The question of obstacles to social ascent via education is raised explicitly by Professor S. de Coster (Belgium). Drawing upon the results of investigations carried out by Mrs. A. Graffar-Fuss, Professor de Coster points to the strains caused by the process of social ascent and to the need for intensive psychological investigations to complement the more broadly sociological study of mobility. Further contributions from Belgium to this section include Mr. P. Minon's summary of research into the social origins of certain categories of students and of the factors influencing occupational choice. In addition to social origins, narrower occupational factors also play their part, and there are considerable differences between urban and rural families and, for the working-class groups, between different industries. Mrs. Graffar-Fuss, whose previous work has been referred to, presented another Belgian study, on the effect of family disorganization on the social status of the families concerned.

Though limited in scope, the papers in this third group focus upon some of the most important aspects of social mobility. They give precision to the difficulties involved in individual ascent and suggest the positive contributions which research can make to practical policy here. They also raise by implication the much broader question of the consequences of social mobility, a question taken up explicitly by Dr. S. N. Eisenstadt (Israel) in the examination of social mobility and intergroup leadership. The problem of intergroup tensions is involved here, and of the relation of the mobile individual to his group of origin. Without necessarily agreeing with Dr. Eisenstadt's generalizations, it is evident that he raises a series of points of practical as well as of theoretical interest, bearing, as in the case of some of the other papers in the section, on the need to overcome some of the personal and social disadvantages which individual mobility may entail, and the importance of considering group as well as individual mobility.

Studies of the characteristics of social strata form the smallest group of contributions to the congress and in the main they are notes on research rather than full studies. Mr. L. Brams (France) outlines a project for studying the working-class family in France, and Miss N. Xydias (France) gives a brief evaluation of the answers to questions on 'class-consciousness' asked in connexion with the Unesco study in the town of Vienne. A pilot study of class 'representation' and 'identification' is summarized by Mr. Chombart de Lauwe (France). Mr. F. A. Isambert (France) provides an interesting and cogent discussion of some of the difficulties involved in studying the relation between religious practice and social class in France—and points out the difficulties of using the results of public opinion studies. The obverse question, that of the historical relation between social class and religion, was discussed

by Mr. N. Birnbaum (U.S.A.) in a brief report on his continuing research in such contrasting German cities as Augsburg and Lübeck.

Two rather more extensive studies may also be referred to here. Professor Bendix (U.S.A.) presented a fairly elaborate paper on the legitimation of the entrepreneurial class, taking nineteenth century England as his case study—a paper relevant to this section in that the entrepreneurial class in question presented a constructed image of itself for imitation, in some respects at least, by the working classes. This documentary survey, on a national scale, does not in itself offer many new views. Yet many more contributions of this kind are needed, examining the nature of old and new ruling groups, and the behaviour patterns which they assume or hope the 'ruled' will accept. There is, indeed, a promising field of comparative research here. At the other end of the scale, there is also need for the kind of inquiry reported by Mr. T. Brennan (U.K.), studying social class behaviour in politics and social affairs at the local level. His own inquiry was carried out in an area in South Wales, predominantly working class in character and having strong traditions of religious activity and a long record of voluntary association activity in general. Leadership of 'cultural' organizations was largely middle class in character—a finding matched in other studies, not reported at the congress, which have recently been carried out in Britain. But leadership in political associations, especially of a more than local influence, was markedly working class. Whether this is a feature peculiar to South Wales, and reflecting the special character of inter-war economic developments in that area, is a question which calls for further study.

We come finally to the fifth group of papers, relating to the bases and methodology of research into social stratification and social mobility. For convenience in discussion here, those papers may be divided into two categories, the first consisting of reports on research in progress or plan—primarily research linked directly to the ISA programme—and the second, of contributions bearing more specifically on problems of methodology as such.

Under the first heading, reports were presented for the four countries in which new empirical research, linked to the ISA programme, has been or is being initiated. The most substantial report, in terms of sheer results, was that of Professor K. Odaka (Japan) who, speaking for the Japan Sociological Society, gave an account of the progress of the co-operative investigation in his country. So far the studies have been confined to a sample of some two thousand adult males drawn from the six largest cities, but the inquiries will be extended to smaller towns and to the rural population as soon as the necessary funds are available. The speed with which the first investigations were carried out is rather remarkable; the decision to initiate the research was taken in mid-June 1952 and the first results were available for discussion by the end of October of the same year. Equally striking is the wealth of information collected in the interviews and in the associated ranking inquiries, which include scaling by such objective indices as education, income and property; prestige ranking of occupations by respondents in the social sample investigation; and ranking by sociologists on the basis of a combination of 38 occupations, 3 educational categories and 4 income groups. The questionnaire proper covers the educational and occupational life histories of the subjects and their wives, and much information on the fathers and grandfathers—on certain aspects, considerably more material than was obtained by the studies in Britain. Professor Odaka's report did not go much beyond a presentation of certain

raw results—scarcely surprising, for the detailed analysis of this type of material is, as has been found in the British studies, extremely time-consuming. It should indeed be emphasized that in empirical studies of social mobility, the collection and initial tabulation of the basic data represent a very preliminary stage of research. At the same time, Professor Odaka had some interesting observations on the practical problems encountered in the Japanese study, especially as regards self-rating. There was a strong tendency for individuals to rate themselves as belonging to the 'lower class', and to describe their grandfather's generation as being 'better-off' than their own. In both cases, these expressed views reflect traditional behaviour rather than reality—the tradition of modesty, requiring a denial from the interviewer (not given, of course); and the tradition of filial piety, which prevents a man from slighting his ancestors. The general result which clearly emerges from the raw results is the very high occupational and substantial social mobility—in both cases higher than would have been expected. Certain regional differences in the prestige of occupations are also apparent and suggest the way in which inquiries of this kind may help to show variations in values within a community.

Professor F. van Heek (Netherlands) presented two papers on new research in his country, the first relating to the programme which is being undertaken through the Netherlands Institute for Social Research, and the second relating to a special type of investigation, the study of extremes of mobility. The main programme, which is directly linked to the ISA proposals, consists of three stages: a study of occupational prestige, already carried out on a sample of 500 individuals; a national sample investigation of mobility, comparable to the studies undertaken in Japan and Britain; and a series of studies of recruitment in specific occupations, chosen to cover a wide range of prestige levels and types of employment. The study of extreme types, referred to above, is intended as a complement to the major programme and would be particularly useful for inquiries in small communities. One such type, a highly immobile population, has already been studied in the town of Enschede, and it is proposed now to choose a socially highly mobile community and to examine the major factors—ecological, sociological, economic and political—which have facilitated this mobility.

At the time of the congress, the study of occupational prestige was the only one in which the field work had been completed, and in the discussion Professor van Heek indicated some of the main results which had so far been obtained. In the first place there was, as in Britain, substantial agreement between various individuals as to the social prestige of given occupations. Secondly, some occupations were placed at a lower level than might have been anticipated—civil servants and higher military personnel, for example, and the managers of large enterprises. On the other hand, skilled manual workers were placed above routine office workers. There were also some interesting differences between religious groups. Individuals holding positions of authority were given a higher ranking by Calvinists than by Catholics, the reverse being the case for workers in the catering trades, such as innkeepers and waiters. At the same time, comparison with the results obtained in Japan shows strong general similarities, of the kind also found in a number of other countries. This is the case, for example, in New Zealand, where a study was carried out by Mr. A. A. Congalton, who submitted a paper outlining the general research in his country in the field of social stratification.

The progress of new empirical research in Denmark was outlined by Profes-

sor K. Svalastoga both in a paper submitted to the congress and in the discussion itself. The paper deals primarily with methodology of a somewhat technical character, based on small pilot studies of occupational prestige. Apart from the technical questions, however, concerned with the development of prestige scores and with the 'double logistic' hypothesis on the relation between occupational prestige and income, certain points brought out have a more general bearing on criticism levelled against the use of prestige scales. Thus, as Professor Svalastoga observes, the element of 'artificiality' involved in ranking an occupation of which one has little if any personal experience may not in fact be more 'artificial' than the many decisions an individual is called upon to make in real life. Mr. Touraine suggested that the greater discriminating power of a question on the acceptability in marriage of an individual in a given occupation was due to the fact that this is a more 'concrete' question of a kind which an individual has probably encountered in his own experience. But the question is, in fact, not less artificial. Moreover, acceptability in marriage would not show a perfect positive correlation with the prestige of an individual's occupation, assuming that the latter could be established definitively.

In the discussion, Professor Svalastoga described his plans for substantive research. At least two main inquiries will be undertaken. The first, a stratified random sample inquiry among 2,000 men and 1,000 women, will cover prestige ratings, other attitudinal aspects of stratification, as well as the basic objective information on education, occupation, and marriage comparable with that obtained in Britain and Japan and included in the Netherlands programme. An attempt will also be made to ascertain the behaviour patterns acceptable in the various social strata. We may mention, in this connexion, the paper submitted by Dr. S. Lysgard (Norway) which, under the title of the 'deferred gratification pattern', deals with behavioural differences relevant here. In addition, it is proposed to take up some of the mobility aspirational questions which have been studied in the U.S.A. and in Britain. For this particular study, however, the subjects will be Danish conscripts, and it is hoped that the study will be a longitudinal one—that it will be possible later to compare achieved occupations with previous aspirations.

As in the case of Denmark the programme of research in France was reported both in a prepared paper and in the discussion at the formal sessions, Mr. A. Touraine acting as the channel of communication. There was a difference, however, in that the paper was prepared at a much earlier stage (September 1952) and for rather different purposes, so that it was Mr. Touraine's spoken contribution which was more indicative of the position and of the direction of interests of the French sociologists who are concerned with the ISA proposals. A second paper by Mr. Touraine, on the concept of social status in relation to comparative research, provides the theoretical background for the French projects.

It may be observed, to begin with, that French participation in the comparative research is still mainly at the planning stage. This is in part accidental. But it is also in considerable measure due to a desire to proceed in a somewhat different order and in a rather more comprehensive way. Social status is not regarded as a simple point of departure in the inquiries —as may seem to be the case in studies which start with a scale of occupational prestige—but as a social attitude or evaluation which has to be explained and which can only be explained as *the result* of comprehensive study. Hence

projected research is envisaged as simultaneously studying a wide series of characteristics and of observing the distributions obtained for each as well as the interrelationships between them. Or, to put it in a slightly different way, the aim is to establish a series of socio-professional categories as a point of departure for a sample investigation, the categories so constructed that each is homogeneous in respect of the hypotheses to be examined. It would then be possible to see the variations in social evaluation and social attitude in relation to such criteria (either separately or in combination) as income, education, power, position in the process of production and so on. Coupled with this objective is the desire to combine both extensive but inevitably rather superficial sample investigations with much more intensive studies, preferably to be carried out among sub-samples of the main sample, and to link together explicitly the analysis of territorial and of social mobility. Preparation on these lines has been undertaken during the past year, along with the collection of descriptive material which is not only of interest in itself but is also necessary for the formulation of the relevant categories in the main inquiries.

In addition to the basic investigations, certain supplementary researches are being, or have been initiated. These include a study of medical students, having regard not only to social origins as such but also to the way in which those origins influence the professional careers of the individuals. The teaching profession will be the subject of a separate study, especially because previous research has shown that teachers act as intermediate stages in the process of social mobility in France. It is probable, too, that before the main inquiry is finally launched, there will be a series of smaller, more intensive, local studies of an ethnographic character, utilizing both questionnaires and direct observation. Such studies would make it possible to examine individuals in their family and local community setting, and would also help in the design of the more extensive inquiry.

The theoretical and methodological contributions to this final group of papers vary considerably in generality and in direct applicability to the proposals made by the ISA for comparative inquiries. In the present report, however, attention is focused on communications most immediately relevant to those proposals, for it was a major purpose of the discussion to provide an opportunity for criticism and evaluation of what was being planned or undertaken.

Two papers from the U.S.A. examined the general theoretical problems of research into social stratification and social class. Professor H. W. Pfautz was concerned with the general relation of social stratification to sociology as a whole, the different types of social strata, and the implications of those different types for the ways in which social stratification operates in society. Professor Kurt Mayer, criticizing both Marxists who do not take status structure into account and present-day sociologists who define social class in terms of local prestige differences, argued that social stratification is multidimensional and must be studied from at least three viewpoints—class in the classical sense, status structure, and the distribution of power. A paper by Professor H. Schelsky (Germany) suggested that the notion of status, while not solely a methodological concept, corresponded perhaps only to a certain type of social structure, to the class-society of the nineteenth century. In present-day Western Germany—perhaps in contemporary society in general—there has been a levelling of classes and a domination of the structure by a middle class

which no longer has the character of a class of the earlier period. The groups which may be defined do not correspond to levels in a hierarchy; they exist in a society in which, in principle, there is full mobility and absolute insecurity of status. What used to be regarded as the problem of the middle classes, the inability to reconcile a bourgeois ideology with a proletarian type of income has, according to Professor Schelsky, become a problem of society as a whole. Yet, as Mr. Touraine pointed out, it might be rather unwise to construct a new theory of stratification (or its absence) on impressions which, in many Western societies at least, do not seem to be confirmed by the facts. Certainly there is little evidence that mobility even approaches completeness in such societies. On the other hand, it is clear that the bases and criteria of status vary between types of societies. As Dr. K. A. Busia (Gold Coast) showed in the discussion, a study of the recruitment of elites in West Africa would have to take special factors into account and to apply a somewhat different conceptual framework.

The memorandum submitted by Professor Nelson Foote (U.S.A.) and his colleagues is a summary of the results of discussions at a seminar convened by the Social Science Research Council to consider the range of alternatives in stratification research. The listing and discussion of 10 types of approach provide a useful bird's-eye view of lines of development. But the division appears a little sharp and the discussion in some of the sections rather over-simplified. Thus the section on 'individual mobility versus group advancement', illustrating the problem in the study of a society in which 'all members increase their economic well-being simultaneously and at the same rate', argues that 'according to the invidious implications of the ordinary concept of social mobility, there has been none [i.e. no mobility], despite the advancement of everybody'. It is difficult to believe that a practising sociologist, finding evidence of general upward movement through changes in the total social and economic structure, would disregard it. Nor is the dichotomy between individual or group movement (in the sense in which it is used in the paper in question) a valid one. Both aspects of mobility are relevant, and research into social mobility should and can plan to take both into account.

Of the remaining contributions, two dealt with rather specific points involved in stratification research. Mr. Marcel Bresard (France), drawing upon the experience gained by the inquiry into social mobility and fertility carried out by the National Institute of Demographic Studies (France), was concerned in particular with the criteria of prestige which might be used in classifying the individuals covered by such studies. He suggested, as a control technique, the construction of profiles for the various sub-groups homogeneous in respect of occupation, profiles based on a wide variety of criteria and making it possible to identify fairly broad similarities between those sub-groups. Mr. L. J. Lebret (France), on the other hand, envisaged a multi-dimensional classification as a first approximation, and an analysis which would proceed by cross-tabulations of pairs of dimensions—for example, style of life against occupational category, treating urban and rural populations separately.

The question of a multi-dimensional approach, though from a more theoretical point of view, was also the focus of the last two contributions which will be considered. For Dr. A. Miller, who views the degree of mobility as a clue to the boundaries between strata, the problem was to distinguish between statistical or 'artificial' strata, and 'natural' strata, the reality of social life. Even in dealing with statistical strata it would be necessary to proceed from

the level of mobility to the stratum defined by that level, rather than to begin with a series of constructed groups and then to measure mobility between them. Whether 'natural' strata can be defined with precision is a much more difficult question. But it is desirable to avoid blending together at the outset of the research two rather different problems—the problem of purely occupational classification and of occupational mobility on the one hand, and on the other the social prestige which may be attached to occupations and which is a far less objective characteristic. This, also, was in general the viewpoint of Mr. Touraine, for whom, as has already been pointed out, social status is to be regarded as capable of definition only at the end of a series of investigations, and who argues that such a definition would emerge from a study of the reference groups implied in the norms conditioning the attitudes and behaviour of individuals. Finally, as Mr. Touraine sees it, comparative studies of social stratification and social mobility should be less concerned with establishing comparable categories than comparable methods of analysis, and it is processes rather than categories which should be compared. Similar views were expressed in the discussion by Mr. G. H. Palmade (France). Comparing the approach of Mr. Touraine with that followed in the recent British studies, Mr. T. B. Bottomore mentioned the danger that, in concentrating on studies of individual mobility, the question of stratification itself might be eliminated.

There is not space here, nor would it be appropriate, to comment in detail on the problems and concepts discussed in so stimulating a manner by Mr. Touraine and Dr. Miller. Some of Mr. Touraine's queries as regards the use of occupational prestige scales were, however, replied to by Professor Van Heek. He pointed out that, in the countries in which the studies had been so far carried out, there is evidence of substantial agreement on the social standing of a wide range of occupations. Further, though it should be taken for granted that occupation is only one criterion—and many criteria need to be used—that single criterion is a very important one in modern industrial society, and may therefore provide a useful first approximation in examining both social mobility and social stratification. As for social prestige being subjective, it is not on that account less real.

Without going further into the question of alternative approaches, it is not out of place to refer to the expressed differences between Mr. Touraine and some of the other sociologists associated with the ISA research proposals in weighing up the results of this section of the Liège congress. Part of the difference in viewpoint was undoubtedly due to a difference in general orientation, and it is right and proper that this was made clear and subjected to discussion. But there were also differences resulting from two defects in planning—one in communication and the other in the organization of the sessions. On the first point, the position would have been made much more clear if, instead of the very brief note recommending new empirical research, the Research Committee of the ISA had prepared a more elaborate document, setting the proposals in their broader context. The present writer is criticizing himself in making this point. An attempt was made, in the opening remarks at the first session, to give the broader view, and it was then said explicitly that the ISA had no desire to impose an artificial uniformity on the studies undertaken in the various countries, and that the specific proposals were regarded as minimal core proposals which would need elaboration in the light of existing knowledge and of new pilot inquiries in each country

concerned. Nevertheless some of the subsequent criticism seemed to assume that prestige scales constituted the sole approach envisaged and even that only one kind of prestige scale was in question. The deficiency in organization consisted in the fact that the individuals planning or undertaking new research were not able to meet in a small conference before the main congress. Had such a meeting been held, some of the differences might have been resolved. It would at least have been evident, taking the British studies as a single example (the first volume will be published in the spring of 1954) that prestige scales do not produce an artificial continuum; rather, especially in connexion with data on vertical mobility, they reveal sharp breaks. It would also have been noted that some of the problems raised in the congress—of reference groups, and of differential aspirations and attitudes to mobility—had actually been examined on the basis of new research. Discussion would have shown, finally, that such studies were in any case regarded as the first stages of a long-term programme of research into social selection and social differentiation.

Because such a meeting did not take place, discussion at the formal sessions of the congress was not as informed as it might have been on these particular questions. And in that respect, for the individuals most directly interested in undertaking new research, it is possible that the two informal meetings held afterwards were more useful than the formal sessions. It is in any case intended, as a result of those two meetings, to convene a new working conference in 1954. But the formal sessions themselves nevertheless performed a very useful function. They stimulated the preparation of a large number of contributions of methodological and substantive interest and provided an opportunity for bringing to light both agreements and disagreements. Above all they made it clear to sociologists in the various countries that there is a substantial and continuing interest in studies of social stratification and social mobility. The knowledge that there is such an interest is in itself likely to provide a stimulus to further research.

INTERGROUP CONFLICT AND ITS MEDIATION

ARNOLD M. ROSE, and CAROLINE B. ROSE

The theme of 'conflict and its mediation' was chosen as a major one for the Second World Congress of Sociology, not only to express a major interest of sociologists, but also to provide a way-station to look back on the Unesco tension studies and to help plan a future programme of research on the mediation of conflict. The central concepts were deliberately not defined with precision, so as to allow contributors to bring to the discussion the widest of relevant interests. In general, conflict was taken to mean any sort of opposition between persons and/or groups, overt or covert, and mediation was taken to mean any effort to reduce conflict (although there was an effort to emphasize reduction by means of deliberate, overt efforts on the part of third parties,

which might be taken as a more precise definition of mediation). It was originally planned to have five sections within the framework of conflict and mediation, and sociologists throughout the world were invited to contribute papers falling within any one of these sections. Since no systematic allocation of topics and responsibilities could be made, the contributions were unevenly distributed: there were 7 previously-prepared papers in the section on 'General and Theoretical Considerations'; 10 on 'International Conflict and its Mediation'; 20 on 'Industrial Conflict and its Mediation'; 12 on 'Racial and Cultural Conflict and its Mediation'; and only one on 'Legal and Personal Conflict and its Mediation' (obviously no separate discussion could be held on the last-named, but its absence was noted and the topic was recommended for future consideration).

It could hardly be expected that 50 scholars from all parts of the world, not previously called together for exchange of views or allocation of responsibilities, would produce a harmonious and systematic analysis and study of any topic. Nevertheless, there was a remarkable coincidence of thesis running through a large proportion of the contributions in all sections. The gist of this may be described as an effort to identify a sociological approach to the study of conflict and its reduction, as distinguished from a social-psychological approach. The latter may be crudely defined as a search for the motivation to conflict in some condition (e.g. tension, aggressiveness) of the individual personality, and for the reduction of conflict in some change of attitudes or other 'cure' of the individual personality. The sociological approach, if one may be so bold as to generalize from a score of different statements of it, is that group conflict has its roots in the furtherance of logically incompatible interests, and that the problem of mediation is not one of reduction of the motivation to conflict, but rather one of accommodating or finding a compromise between conflicting interests so that the conflict does not take a violent form. The distinction between the two can be epitomized in the observation that conflict need not be motivated by tensions and that conflict can operate to reduce tensions. This theme, whether in the form of theoretical exposition, concrete research, or critiques of others' works, runs throughout almost half the papers. A few other papers were theoretical considerations of diverse sorts, while the remaining papers (approximately half) were descriptive studies of concrete conflict situations in different nations.

The clearest and most systematic exposition of the distinction between the sociological and social psychological approaches was presented in the general 'working paper' by Professor Jessie Bernard (U.S.). Surveying the recent literature on conflict, she found that most of the studies and analyses assume that group conflict rises from individual 'tensions', that is, they take a social-psychological point of view. She held that the concept of tensions is of doubtful value when used to explain intergroup conflict, as events show that man follows the power structure of his society. Another group of recent writings on conflict have a 'systemic orientation', and here, among others, Bernard considered mathematico-deductive systems (e.g. by Firey and Simon), studies of integration and co-operation, historical and criminological cases of conflict, and conflict in industry. Her survey next took up studies of strategy, with an orientation either in sociology or in the theory of games: for example, Heberle's study of strategy in social and political movements, and Selznick's study of defence against communism. The theory of games, of Neumann and Morgenstern, was especially recommended for cautious analysis as to its

possibilities for the study of intergroup conflict. Finally, there was consideration of studies in small, face-to-face groups, where the point was made that techniques of arriving at consensus in small groups cannot be generalized to the negotiation of large group conflicts (criticism is here made of Stuart Chase). The work of Kenneth Arrow, Elmore Jackson, R. Dennett and J. E. Johnson, and Philip Mosely is drawn upon. In her oral discussion, Professor Bernard emphasized that she was not against the social-psychological approach, but would urge the use of that approach only where it was appropriate and would advocate the better use of sociological concepts in the study of intergroup conflict.

Efforts to evaluate the role of a sociological approach to the study of conflict, made especially in the presentation of Professor Georges Davy (France) and Professor Arnold Rose (U.S.), brought out three limitations:

1. It is not enough merely to state that both the social-psychological and the sociological approaches have their distinct and proper uses. The integrative question remains: Under what social conditions do the individual psychological mechanisms operate? This also brings out the fact that the analysis of causes of a given conflict is not the same thing as a specification of the conditions necessary for satisfactory mediation of the conflict. (The latter point was later brought out in the discussion on international conflict by Professor Robert Angell).
2. Some participants held that the theory of games was meaningless when applied to concrete and realistic social situations. But here it is necessary to recognize that the theory of games is a mere mathematical tool, to be used when properly useful, and is not to be confused with scientific knowledge about conflict itself. In oral discussion, Dr. Otto Friedman (U.K.) suggested its application for understanding the failure of negotiations between Hitler and Chamberlain, and between the Czechs and the Russians.
3. One must agree with Professor Bernard that certain values are logically opposed to each other, and that those who uphold or benefit from one set are drawn into conflict against those identified with the other set. But the scientist must be extremely cautious in determining what values are logically opposed, and must be aware that opposition of values is often a matter of social definition (which is changeable) rather than of logic. At one point Professor Bernard herself, despite an admirable caution elsewhere, gave credence to a writer who states that minority groups wishing to follow certain distinctive values of minority culture must inevitably come into conflict with the majority group who follow the values of majority culture. This incorrectly assumes that all sets of group values are logically in opposition, that no set of values includes tolerance or appreciation of different values, and that all cultures tend to be uniformly followed by all participants.

The specification of a sociological approach to the study of conflict—in terms of an opposition of values—came out in the specific sections as well as in the general theoretical one. Among the papers on international conflict, those by Professors W. J. H. Sprott (U.K.) and Werner Levi (U.S.) are most relevant. Sprott argued for more studies of 'policy-makers'—men who, in various walks of life, are not solely concerned with their personal daily lives but also with the furtherance of their conception of group welfare and have the power to translate their conceptions into public policy. He held that it is the 'interests'

(thus broadly defined) of these men which determine public policy, and that opposition of interests among these men makes for group conflict. In presenting this position, Sprott held that the usual contemporary psychological approach to conflict is wanting. He raised the rhetorical question whether, if one wished to predict the prospects for peace or war, it would be of greater value to know what went on in the secret conferences in Moscow, Washington, and London, or to know all about the toilet training practices used by the general citizenry of those places. Sprott distinguished his viewpoint from the old 'great man theory of history' by indicating that any of the 'social forces' may influence, even determine, the interests of the policy-makers: his concern was not to criticize the approach to history through great impersonal forces but rather the approach through an understanding of the psychology of the common man.

Professor Levi was invited to the congress as a specialist in international relations to help the assembled sociologists to define research areas in the study of international conflict which might be especially amenable to study by sociologists. His knowledge of the circumstances surrounding the outbreak and settlement of wars led him to be critical of widely-held psychological and cultural theories of the causes of war. Public opinion studies of attitudes toward other nations would be of little direct value since history recorded many cases where popular opinion changed overnight and where there was a negative relationship between hostility of public opinion and the outbreak of war. Likewise, history recorded many instances of a negative relationship between cultural similarity and the maintenance of peace. The soundest approach to the causes of war was, he held, in terms of desire for national survival and opposition of interests, and insofar as sociologists could clarify this matter they would be making a contribution to knowledge about the causes and prevention of war. Sociologists might, for example, analyse the process of communication—in relation to group interests that lead to war, and between national leaders and the masses. Sociologists could also seek the answers to such questions as why certain techniques of mediation are employed at one time and not at another, why they are successful at one time and not at another, the influence of public opinion on the policy-makers. Professor Levi held that there was some value in transferring findings arrived at in studies of group conflict within a nation to the international scene, but he would emphasize some important differences between the two forms of conflict: (a) on the international scene, there was no one overwhelming power to maintain security and order; (b) each state must provide for its own survival; (c) there is no limit to conflict, and therefore no pressure on the winning side to compromise; (d) the only motives for compromise—fear of war and moral restraint—are not yet very strong in some states; (e) there is an emphasis on a trial of strength, and hence public emotion is aroused; (f) there is no super-government whose existence would be threatened by struggle among states.

The specification of a sociological approach to the study of conflict reached its most vigorous expression in the section on industrial conflict. This provided the focus of the papers and discussions to such an extent that we shall have to reserve full discussion of it for the special part on the industrial section. Suffice it here to state that the specification of the sociological approach came in two forms : (a) certain papers constituted critiques of what was called the 'human relations' approach to the study of industrial relations, and opted for a 'conflict of group interest' approach; (b) certain papers constituted studies of the statistics of industrial strikes and came out with interpretations in favour

of the viewpoint that strikes were characteristic of certain industries under certain circumstances and could be regarded as inevitable expressions of conflict of interests between management and labour rather than as a result of bad management policies in specific firms.

Since most of the papers in the section on race and culture conflicts were concrete descriptive studies of conflicts in various locales, there was less of theoretical interest presented in this section than in the others. Professor E. Franklin Frazier (U.S.), however, in his opening remarks as chairman, tied this section to the others by pointing out the limitations of such psychological studies of prejudice as those subsumed under the heading of the 'authoritarian personality'. Attitudes must be studied in a social situation: in the American South, for example, attitudes and stereotypes against the Negro were deliberately created, and these are changing now only because the social structure of the region is changing. It is also of interest to note that while many of the concrete studies reported were parts of the Unesco Tensions Project, they implicitly employed a sociological rather than a social-psychological concept of conflict.

While the sociological approach was paramount, some of the papers had a social psychological orientation. Professor Albin E. Gilbert (U.S.) on the basis of a survey of completed psychological researches on tensions, suggested some general means of reducing tensions. Dr. Charles Boasson (Israel), familiar with the same psychological literature, dealt with the 'focalization and fusion of fear in international tensions'. He held that fear, which may have either real or imaginary objects, is an important cause of tension. He recommended that, since the activities of the political arms of the United Nations evoked fear, they should be subordinated to the activities of the specialized agencies (such as Ecosoc, Unesco, FAO, WHO) which tend to reduce fear by eliminating concrete difficulties. Professor Kurt H. Wolff (U.S.) reported a study, based on analysis of group discussions, of German attitudes concerning the U.S.A. He found that there was strong suspiciousness and distrust of America; the Germans' very feeling of dependence on the United States and their recognition that America has superior power causes them to dislike it. The dislike often takes the form of applauding American weaknesses as justifying what are considered to be the few 'excesses' of the Hitler régime. The Germans interviewed were found to have little understanding of what the rest of the world thought of Germany and to have a *sub rosa* admiration for the Hitler government. Wolff used 10 categories for measuring attitudes and then did a factor analysis of his data. The result was three underlying factors which he named 'general appraisal of America', need for 'recognition', and 'distrust of the use of American power'.

Some of the papers in the section on race and cultural conflicts also consisted of attitude studies. Mr. Alain Girard (France) reported a survey, under the sponsorship of Unesco, of a representative sample of Frenchmen with respect to their attitudes toward immigrant groups in their midst. He found that the French were negative toward immigrants in general, especially in economic and political matters. But, on the positive side, he found that Frenchmen living in areas containing the most foreigners were least hostile, and that Frenchmen in certain age, occupational, and other categories were least hostile to foreigners in those categories. Selected groups of immigrants were also studied, and the following findings emerged: immigrants tend to be grateful to France, to become naturalized, to accept French ways while

retaining their own, to ignore French politics and concentrate on family life, to leave the Church but to give their children religious training, to become assimilated to the extent to which they have risen in social status. Another study of France, on the smaller scale of a single community study by Dr. Pierre Clément and Miss Nelly Xidias, confirms the previously-mentioned findings: over 60 per cent of the Frenchmen surveyed expressed negative attitudes towards immigrants; the economic activities of the immigrants was second only to intermarriage in displeasing the French; the order of acceptance of the immigrants actually in the community was along racial lines—the Italians and Spaniards being most accepted and the Indochinese least accepted. Another use of the social distance scale was reported by Professor Stuart C. Dodd and Keith S. Griffiths (U.S.). Studying attitudes toward Chinese, Japanese and Negroes in Washington State, they found a logarithmic relationship between degree of unfavourableness of attitude and intensity of attitude. They would generalize this into a law governing all pro-con attitudes, but in doing so they neglected Guttman's more general findings[1] of a characteristic U-shaped curve when favourableness of attitude in related to intensity of attitude: Guttman found that the J-shaped curve reported by Dodd and Griffiths is just a special case of the U-shaped curve where the more favourable attitudes were not adequately measured or the more favourable population was not present in sufficient numbers to be tapped.

The obvious need for more and better research on conflict with a sociological orientation, as well as the proved value of researches conducted with a social-psychological orientation, led the *rapporteur*, Professor Rose, to propose a rationale for both orientations. A survey of actual group conflict situations revealed that three sorts of motives underlay them: a desire for the acquisition of scarce values (which led to what he called political or power conflict), a desire to convert others to beliefs that are thought to be true and necessary for group welfare (called ideological conflict), and a desire to prevent social contact and amalgamation with what was believed to be a biologically inferior race (called racist conflict). Research using a sociological orientation would be especially valuable when the political motives were dominant (probably including most international and industrial conflicts), whereas the social-psychological orientation had proved most valuable when the racist motive was dominant (including many situations of race and cultural conflict). It was pointed out that if any given research orientation ignored the existence of any of these motives, it would lead to seriously inadequate results. Most deplorable was the failure of any group of social scientists to study ideological conflict.

Support for this last point came from another paper in an interesting manner. One of the non-sociologists invited to present a paper was Dr. Willard Johnson (U.S.), director of an organization attempting to promote better relations among groups within any nation. He reported on a survey made among his colleagues in similar action organizations in several parts of the world concerning the values and weaknesses—from a practical standpoint—they found in the studies of social scientists. One of the findings was that social scientists neglected religious conflicts and prejudices, which can be considered to be ideologically motivated. The need for studying the ideological

[1] Louis Guttman, in S. A. Stouffer *et al.*, *Measurement and Prediction*, Princeton, New Jersey, Princeton University Press, 1950. Chapters 2, 3, and 7.

element in international conflict was also pointed up by the widespread misunderstanding of Prime Minister Nehru's recent comment that the greatest danger in the current East-West conflict was the element of religious conviction motivating the leading parties and that the contenders were distorting their political aims with this religious element.[1] Johnson's study contained other findings that should be of interest to sociologists. While most of the action agency people reported themselves as greatly aided by research in general in their efforts to locate research findings that would have direct use in action programmes, they 'come away from their search with the feeling that the research people live and work in an ivory tower whose only reality is statistics'. Some concrete suggestions were to study the comparative effectiveness of different teaching methods, the effectiveness of the mass media programmes intended to reduce prejudice, the development of attitudes in the growing unification of Western Europe, the attitudes involved in U.S.-European relations.

The one paper which properly belonged in the abandoned section on personal and legal conflict, but which was included in the section on theory for lack of comparable contributions, was the interesting description, by Mrs. S. Van der Sprenkel (U.K.), of traditional procedures of mediation in China. The procedures are used to solve quarrels between persons, families, villages, business firms, and take the place of civil law courts in the West. The mediation is a success because, the author believes, the contending parties share certain common values, such as a belief in 'natural harmony' and a lack of confidence in formal legal processes. The larger society, of which both parties are members, sanctions acceptance of mediation and informally penalizes contestants who are intractable in mediation. Finally, there is a ceremony at the end of the mediation procedure which serves to re-weld both contestants into the society and to reinforce the sense of harmony.

Professor Heinrich Herrfordt (Germany) took up a similar matter in a Western context: What political conditions are needed to permit the state successfully to mediate group conflicts? He answers: When the rule of law is established, the state is successful; but when there is a belief in a natural and inevitable conflict of interest and there is a coincidence between interest groupings and political parties, the state can hardly enforce mediations and conflict becomes interminable. The success of mediation depends on the pattern of the social order, the structure of groups and relations between them, and the existence of authorities able to mediate (traditional ones or new ones created especially for that purpose). A similar subject was discussed by Professor H. Garcia-Ortiz (Ecuador) who considers conflict as part of the process of socialization, and points out that solving one conflict may produce another one. He holds that total suppression of conflict is impossible, and the most that can be hoped for is channelization of conflict through such means as education of the masses, state intervention and achieving high legal standards. A final contribution by Professor Alberto Baldrich (Argentina) took up certain recent developments in his country in the light of history.

Sociologists have not traditionally studied international conflict, and it is doubtful whether any sociologist has yet made a significant contribution to the understanding of that subject. If sociologists do begin realistic researches on war and other forms of international conflict they will have to abandon

[1] For an example of misinterpretation, see the lead editorial in *Life* magazine, vol. 35, 28 September 1953, p. 36.

their usual assumption of a given cultural order. International conflict can be unlimited, to use a phrase offered by a discussant, Dr. M. E. Giraud (United Nations) and mediation may not be possible under such circumstances. Professors Angell and Levi also warned that any findings from the study of conflict and mediation *within* a society could not automatically be generalized to apply to the international situation.

Professor Angell (U.S.) posited four types of studies which seem both to be suited to the character of sociology and to have practical significance for the determination of policy: (a) research into the degree to which the moral norms of the major nations are compatible when they are projected outward into the arena of international relations; (b) research into the information and attitudes of policy-makers in different countries, especially the process by which attitudes of respect toward other cultures are generated in them; (c) research into historical situations similar to the one that the world now confronts or into analogous contemporary situations at lower levels of organization (e.g. research into the accommodation of national differences in newly created countries); (d) research on existing contacts among nations and peoples, and determination of which of them are helping to form the basis of a truly international society. More specifically here, there needs to be good sociological research into the effectiveness of educational programmes, mass communications activities, travel and residence abroad, participation in international governmental and non governmental associations.

Professor Barrington Moore, Jr. (U.S.) also provided a list of topics relevant to international conflict to which the sociologist may make a research contribution: (a) who are the policy-makers in each country, and to what degree do they have freedom to manœuvre independently of public opinion; (b) what are the values and goals of the policy-makers and of the culture as a whole; (c) what knowledge do policy-makers have of their own and of other countries; (d) what is the effect of ethical norms on policy-makers. Professor Rudolf Blühdorn (Austria) took up the same subject of sociological problems involved in international relations but did not make specific suggestions. In oral discussion, Professor Raymond Aron (France) expressed the hope that sociologists could study the power situation which was central to international conflict, the limitations on policy-makers, the formation of their opinions. He also pointed out some essential limitations in the role of the social scientist: the policy-maker cannot wait to make a decision until the scientists do their studies, and he cannot base action on the statements of mere probability which are all the scientists can provide him. The social scientists will have to have modesty and patience if they aspire to make a contribution to international peace.

Other contributions to the section on international conflict took up specific factors in the etiology of that problem. Dr. Boasson's discussion of fear has already been mentioned. Professor Henri Janne (Belgium) took almost the reverse position in suggesting that mutual suspicion among nations was a factor promoting their integration. A kind of community feeling grows up among traditional enemies, because each wants to know about the other and because respect arises out of envy and fear. In support of this novel position, Professor Janne alleged that France and Germany have developed this community feeling which in the long run limits conflict, whereas the United Kingdom and the United States have not. In the face of a common problem, the former nations are more likely to unite.

Professor H. C. Callis (U.S.) emphasized the significance of the cultural heritage in the etiology of international conflict, holding that culture determines the forms, means, and direction of aggression. As a result of being subject to aggression, a nation enters a period of aggression; then after a number of victories or defeats, it is no longer aggressive (e.g. Germany). Taking up what he considers to be the unique patterns of aggressivity in different cultures, Callis discusses America's new fears caused by the realization that the oceans and Britain are no longer a protection; Japanese pessimism and sense of duty expressing itself in colonialism; and Russian arrogance and verbal anti-imperialism. He suggests international conciliation through education, selection and training of leaders, formation of international political bodies representative of individuals rather than nations, reconciliation of divergent interests through demonstration that each interest is limited, training for acceptance of cultural diversity, abolition of sovereignty, development of great leaders, granting aid to nations only through international bodies. Mr. F. Tenhaeff (Neth.), in his paper on the history of co-operation among the Scandinavian nations, also considered cultural factors, but in a more specific way. He shows, for example, how relatively small groups of students in the nineteenth century began the movement toward Scandinavian integration, and how this integration developed more rapidly in the cultural than in the political sphere. In the discussion, Mr. Jörgen Jensen (Denmark) stated that public opinion in Scandinavia would never tolerate a war between nations in that area, and thus there was no threat to national survival. This threat must be removed for all small nations if they are to survive, and only a powerful international authority could do that.

In his remarks, Professor Aron had pointed out that cultural values were important as they moulded the minds of the policy-makers. Dr. Sergei Utechin (U.K.) challenged the cultural approach to an explanation of war, and stated that international conflict today was due to the existence of certain leaders who wished to build up their personal power to the maximum. He doubted that cultural values have a prime influence on totalitarian leaders, and stated that even the group around these top leaders was not very influential. The main problem for study, he held, was the selection of national leaders. Professor Rose pointed out that whether we accepted the cultural approach or not, there was undoubtedly a relationship between internal events within a state and the pattern of its relationships with other states, and that sociologists could study this. For example, the 'garrison state' now developing in democratic countries as a consequence of the 'cold war' is yet amenable to sociological research. Also, the conditions favouring the development of a community between two or more nations could be studied in several parts of the world—as it had been studied in Scandinavia by Mr. Tenhaeff—to determine at what stage formal political steps toward integration were likely to be most successful. Sociologists must take account of social structure.

In the industrial conflicts section, as in the general section and the international section, the distinction between the social-psychological and the sociological approach was clearly evident. Two papers attempted to point out the dangers and weaknesses of the psychological approach, particularly as it is exemplified by the 'human relations school'. On the other hand, there were a number of papers reporting useful findings obtained by this approach. In the discussion, a number of people attempted to point out those areas where

the study of 'human relations' was likely to be most successful and those where it had no relevance.

By far the greatest number of the 20 papers submitted for this section, however, used the sociological approach, seeing industrial conflict as a social process; distinguishing various types of conflict; describing the conditions under which they occur, specifying their effects on both the larger society and on labour and management; and analysing the methods used to avert and prevent industrial conflict. It was noteworthy that a number of investigators from different countries, using different data, arrived at the same conclusions. However, greatly different conclusions were reached by people studying countries where the economic and political situations differed greatly. We shall first discuss the 'sociological approach' papers, particularly those which confirm each other.

The industrial conflicts section was opened by its chairman, Professor Georges Friedmann (France). Professor Friedmann summarized the contributions pointing out in which areas original work had been done and noting particularly the various comparative studies. He urged an extension of this method for studying industrial conflicts by comparing different factories, varied working conditions and workers' backgrounds within a single country. Professor Friedmann also observed that in spite of the interest in industrial conflicts, very few studies from the strictly sociological point of view had been undertaken. A wide area for research is therefore open to sociologists. In a number of papers [those by Professor Clark Kerr (U.S.); Professor Robert Dubin (U.S.); Dr. K. G. J. C. Knowles (U.K.); Dr. Michel Crozier (France); Professor O. Kahn-Freund (U.K.)] industrial conflict is seen as inevitable in a democratic society where divergent interests are permitted. In contrast to much previous sociological analysis, in particular that of the 'human relations' school, conflict is not seen as a kind of social disorganization but rather as a means of constructive social change in a democratic society. The assumption was here made that in industrial conflict the amount of violence and the extent of conflict is limited by a common set of values between the contending parties (Dubin, Kerr); by law (Kahn-Freund); by equality of strength between the contestants [Professor Harold L. Sheppard (U.S.), Knowles, Dubin, Kahn-Freund]. It was in this assumption that international differences become evident. In countries where the labour movement is strong and integrated into the society, the assumption holds. In other countries where the labour movement is strong but common values are lacking, industrial conflict is not limited and so moves over into political conflict, social revolt and disorder. This point was made in discussion by Mr. Theo Pirker (Germany), Professor Nels Anderson (U.S.), and Father Joseph Schuyler (U.S.) in regard to Germany. In underdeveloped countries like India, where not only are common criteria lacking but also the labour movement is weak, conflict probably serves to develop union solidarity but has no great effect on the larger society (Professor R. N. Saksena, India).

A considerable number of the papers concentrated their attention on the causes of strikes and the possible ways of avoiding or averting them. Professor Kerr, reporting on a study of strike-proneness, discovered two extreme types of situations in which workers find themselves: (a) as members of an 'isolated mass', cut off from communication with the rest of society, usually geographically, and thrown into intimate and exclusive contact with their fellow workers; that is, in a situation where union and community are identical and

where work is likely to be unpleasant. Examples of such workers are miners, longshoremen, sailors, textile workers; (b) as integrated members of differentiated communities where organizations other than the union claim some of the loyalty and interest of the workers. The first type of group is much more prone to strike than the second type.

Dr. Knowles, working with British statistics, came to strikingly similar conclusions. He found strike proneness most common where bad working conditions exist in densely populated areas where people can easily combine for common action. Mr. Eric de Dampierre (France) presented a Unesco tensions study of a small rubber factory in an isolated French village which can be considered as a case study of the isolated type of worker situation. He pointed out, in addition, a number of tensions existing within such a community—between skilled and unskilled, young and old, foremen and engineers.

Dr. J. Haveman (Netherlands) presented a similar situation in his historical study of a rural area in Gröningen. Originally the farmers and workers formed an integrated village community. Later on, the farmers became wealthy and adopted the social and economic habits of the upper classes, thus disrupting community relations and setting the labourers apart in a separate and isolated group. Strikes of great violence resulted.

Two others papers are to be noted in this context. Professor P. Horion (Belgium) reported on the history of labour conflicts in Belgium and Dr. Dirk Horringa (Netherlands) on that in the Netherlands. Both indicated that labour conflict has been relatively mild in these countries and both gave reports of a labour movement well integrated into the community. For example, both spoke of the high degree of labour-management co-operation, particularly after the German occupation when it became necessary to rebuild these countries.

On the subject of the mediation of conflict, a great deal more divergence of opinion occurred. Professor Kerr distinguished between 'tactical' and 'strategic' mediation. Tactical mediation is defined as the intervention of a third party in a situation already given. The tactical mediator can do the following things: reduce irrationality; remove non-rationality; explore possible solutions; assist in the graceful retreat; and raise the cost of conflict. Strategical mediation, however, involves changing the situation itself and must be based on a knowledge of the situations leading to conflict. Thus conflict might he lessened by: integration of workers and employers into society; increasing the stability of society; increasing ideological compatibility between disputants; having secure and responsive relationship of leaders of a union to its membership; dispersion of grievances; structuring the game.

A number of people discussed the resolution of industrial conflicts in terms similar to several or all of these points made by Kerr. Dubin, for example, thinks of collective bargaining as a social invention which establishes the rules and limitations of industrial conflict. He says that in the United States now, collective bargaining can be thought of as antagonistic co-operation. In Kerr's terms, collective bargaining is one way of structuring the game and results in greater ideological compatibility between the disputants.

Sheppard drew similar conclusions after surveying several studies of strikes including, besides those by Kerr and Knowles, one by Ross and Irwin based on statistics from five countries. Sheppard stated that, to the extent that workers and unions become integrated into society, the propensity to strike is decreased, and as unions gain power, the duration of strikes is decreased.

Haveman pointed out that although government regulation of working conditions stopped strikes, in the rural area he studied, skilled workers continued to leave the land in large numbers. He recommended training in sociology and psychology in agricultural schools to change the farmer's mentality. He felt that only the re-establishment of some sort of community feeling could remedy the situation.

The role of law and of government intervention in mediating industrial conflict also received some attention. Haveman reported on the success of a tripartite (government, farm-owners, and labourers) regulatory association in preventing strikes. He indicated, however, that conflict has not ceased, but is expressed in other ways. For Belgium, Professor Horion reported that conciliation boards have been very successful. He added that laws guaranteeing liberty of association, including sanctions against any attempt to interfere with it, have served to lessen industrial conflict. Kahn-Freund described the role of law in regulating collective bargaining, especially in the American situation. In Britain more is left to collective bargaining than in the United States, but the law makes the privilege of collective bargaining conditional on non-discrimination. It is used in times of crises when industrial conflict affects the nation. Professor Saksena reported an interesting situation in India. The government's bill to encourage collective bargaining was withdrawn because of hostility on the part of unions to a clause forbidding strikes until after mediation.

Several investigators pointed out that in certain countries strikes are becoming less an instrument of union policy and more a revolt by the rank and file against certain frustrations. Kahn-Freund stated, for example, that the more 'responsible' the union and trade association are, the more the individual workers and firms will rebel against them. Knowles found a change in the nature of strikes with a change in the economic and social situation of the workers. Formerly, strikes were of a revolutionary nature; now they are sometimes against union leadership or (in Great Britain) against the friction caused by nationalization. Dr. Knowles felt that these strikes both provide a measure of the distrust felt by the rank and file to the system of regulation as a whole and point out the weaknesses in the working of the complex machinery regulating industry. In a discussion period, Mr. Henning Friis (Denmark) made a similar remark about the Danish situation, pointing out that the elaborate system of industrial controls were themselves a source of frustration. Mr. Kurt L. Törnqvist (Sweden) indicated that in Sweden social frustration has become a new cause of strikes. In Sweden the bigger the community and the union, the higher was the percentage of workers voting to strike.

A number of people pointed out that the strike is only one form of industrial conflict and often not the most costly or the most serious (Dubin, Kerr, Knowles). These other forms of industrial conflict received some attention. Pirker, on the basis of a two-year study of German iron and steel factories, reported that a general form of industrial disorder occurred when large plants were introduced into an area. Young people cannot get into the larger plants which offer more social services to their employees. Advancement comes only after 15 years; mobility between plants is regarded as a sign of unrest and as disloyalty. Professor E. Wight Bakke (U.S.) submitted a theoretical paper in which he assumed that the individual and the organization are each wholes. The simultaneous and mutual reconstruction of the organization and the individual in the process of their interaction, Bakke called the 'fusion process'.

Working within this theoretical framework, Friis reported on a pilot study of sources of conflict among functional groups in Danish industry. Surprisingly, they found that newly established production committees, organized to reduce conflict were themselves sources of conflict. Mrs. Madeleine Guilbert and Mrs. Viviane Isambert (France), reporting on the inequality of pay for women in France, indicated that the long tradition of inequality carries over into the present, despite recent laws requiring equality. Work done exclusively or mostly by women tends to be rated lower than work done by men. On piece work women tend to work harder, thus making it possible to lower the basic wage. In both these and other cases, tension and conflict is created between men and women workers.

Professor Alfred Bonné (Israel) pointed out how the social and political institutions of underdeveloped countries, particularly in the Orient, create industrial conflict. Certain institutions (the joint family, the tribal structure) and certain habits of thought (the ascetic-contemplative and the authoritarian) militate against economic change and thus generate conflict.

Most of the papers reported thus far have been concerned with the broader social and economic causes of industrial conflict. A few investigators, however, concerned themselves with the situation in one plant. Dr. Franca Magistretti (Italy) studied the conversation of workers in arbitrarily formed work groups with a view to ascertaining the causes of conflict on this level. She found that the subjects which determine leadership or isolation in general are politics, sports, and women—politics being more important for isolating an individual than for rendering him acceptable. Christian Democrats, for example, tend to be isolated in work groups that are predominantly communist or fascist. She also found that political interests vary inversely with the conditions of work; that religious interests vary inversely with political interests; and that interest in unionism is greatest where working conditions are neither best nor worst.

Another paper on the structure of the individual plant is that of Dr. F. van Mechelen (Belgium). He distinguished between the official hierarchy of the organization and the spontaneous hierarchy of the workers, and discussed how their relationship increased or decreased industrial conflict.

Horringa reported on a number of Dutch studies of this type: one by Ijdo on what constitutes job satisfaction; one by Kuyloars who suggested job enlargement to avoid discontent with oversimplified jobs; a continuing study by the Institute of Preventive Medicine of Leyden to deal with such symptoms of conflict as high turnover, low output, and inter-staff hostility. The state mines have already adopted a stabilization programme which includes techniques for placing workers with regard to inter-personal relations. This has measurably lowered turnover and absenteeism, and has raised production.

Professor Kunio Odaka (Japan) attempted to discover if worker identification with management precluded identification with the union and vice versa. He found that identification with both union and management was related except at one factory where a strike was in progress. He also reported that identification is positively related with length of service but not consistently so with type of work, wages, age, or education.

A considerable proportion of the meetings were devoted to discussions of the field of human relations. Sheppard characterized the 'human relations' approach as follows: (a) there is a systematic and often explicit denial of economic and political determinants of industrial peace; (b) the area of observation is limited to the factory itself; (c) the reduction of conflict can come

primarily by action of the employer in acquiring 'social skills' (i.e. by manipulating the worker's direction of hostility) rather than by some form of redistribution of power; and (d) industrial relations consist of person-to-person relations and the source of industrial conflict is to be found at this level. He then attempted to show that these assumptions are not borne out by field research or statistics of industrial conflict.

Crozier made a similar critique of the human relations approach. He said that that point of view which sees tensions as entirely within a single plant neglects the 'profoundly *natural* character' of workers' revolt. Crozier added that because the Marxists have abused this point of view does not exempt sociologists from studying the conditions of workers which give rise to strikes. Crozier also raised the interesting idea that sociologists should study the climate of opinion which made the human relations approach so widely and quickly acceptable. He suggested that the thirties and forties saw gains for workers, and intellectual leadership tended to be 'progressive'. Now business is attempting to regain leadership of the community, and the human relations' point of view has become part of its ideology.

In the discussion Professor Everett Hughes (U.S.) presented some of the history of the term 'human relations'. Originally the phrase was used to describe studies of the informal structure of institutions of any kind. The popularity of this approach and its exclusive application to management-worker relations was not expected by the original group of researchers and tends to support Crozier's criticism. He also distinguished between the aims of this group and those of the Mayo group. Hughes pointed out that sociology continually faces the problem of being used in this way. He adds that implicit in the human relations concept is the assumption that society without conflict is possible and desirable and agrees with Crozier that the development of public relations as a field of study has tended to spread this idea.

Professor Conrad Arensberg (U.S.) attempted to explain the difference between the uses of the term 'human relations' in the United States. Like Hughes he pointed out that researchers are often interested in the structure of institutions rather than industrial conflict, and that this is a legitimate field of sociological investigation, whatever criticisms may be levelled against human relations as a means of studying industrial conflict. Professor Frederick Pollock (Germany), on the other hand, pointed out that in Germany the study of human relations has been presented as a cure-all; also, that it is presented cynically, that is, management can use these techniques to keep the workers happy without changing real conditions. German employers, according to Pollock, resent any criticism by or concessions to workers. In this discussion the dangers of transferring either techniques or the content of an area of research from one country to another became readily apparent.

Mention should be made of two studies reported at the conference which dealt with subject matter somewhat different from that of the other participants. Professor Torgny Segerstedt (Sweden) reported on an excellent study of class consciousness. He found that, compared to office employees, workers have more class consciousness; have the strongest feeling of importance of class; are more active in unions and political parties, but less active in cultural and recreational activities.

In the discussion Professor David Glass (U.K.) reported on an English study by a colleague of his. Using the excellent mine accident statistics available, Dr. Glass's colleague found that an increase in the accident rate was followed

by either an outburst of discontent or a strike. The increase in accident rates thus served to indicate rising tension in the mines. Dr. Glass appealed for other studies of this type which offered the chance for good cross-cultural comparisons.

Most of the papers in the section on race and culture conflict were descriptive rather than analytical, although most of them used the best available techniques of research. Together they produced a sober picture of group conflict throughout the world, even in countries where race and cultural tension had not been publicized. Some of the dark spots are not so serious, perhaps, because they are temporary—arising out of dislocation of population after the war. Most countries with minority conflict have fortunately not developed the ideology of racism, while other countries have integrated this conflict into the very fabric of the whole culture.

Mention has already been made of the studies of attitudes toward minorities in France by Girard and by Clément and Xydias. Also Unesco-sponsored was a study reported by Miss Gabriele Wülker (Germany) of refugees in Germany from Soviet-dominated countries (especially Poles, Ukrainians and Baltic peoples). There are great difficulties in integrating these people as a large proportion are old and disabled, as they consider their exile as temporary and want to maintain national traditions (including language), as they are placed in camps in rural areas where unemployment is high and where there is little opportunity for social contact, as they have developed a psychology of dependence and refuse to work. A similar group was reported on in a study by Dr. Edmund Dahlström (Sweden): these were Esthonian refugees in a community on the outskirts of Stockholm. The Esthonians are a non-segregated minority of the community where secondary contacts are characteristic, so the Swedes do not perceive them as a group. On the other hand the Swedes favour economic and immigration restrictions against them. The Esthonians had been in middle class occupations in their native country and many were obliged to take an income cut when they fled to Sweden. On the other hand, they expected this and so did not feel bad about it. On the contrary, they —especially the older ones among them—are grateful for the haven and thus are 'satisfied' with their lower status. Nevertheless, very few expect to remain in Sweden; they all want to return to Esthonia when the Communists are driven out and most expect that this will be possible some day. About a half want to migrate across the Atlantic because they feel that there will be another war and either Sweden will be overrun by the Russians or it will be forced to turn refugees over to the Russians. The feeling of being in Sweden only temporarily reduces the motivation to adjust, as does the desire to preserve Esthonian culture. The younger members of the group have more contact with the Swedes than do the older ones, are more adjusted, but are also less grateful and more willing to criticize.

Professor René Clémens (Belgium) reported on his study of the assimilation of Italians and Poles in the Liège region. The earlier immigration was strictly for economic reasons, but since the end of World War II the Poles have come as political refugees. The housing shortage has caused recent immigrants to live in closed colonies, and the restriction of their occupation to mining and some heavy industry further segregates them. The older immigrants are assimilated in varying degree, depending on their social distance from the Belgians, on the family's encouragement or discouragement of contacts with the broader society, on affiliation with such organizations as trade unions. For Italians of the

early immigration, the following variables were not found to be associated with assimilation: age, length of residence, age at marriage, type of work in Italy, age of starting work. Correlated with assimilation are nationality of spouse, presence of children, continuity of work since immigration. Discriminatory attitudes by Belgians toward foreigners vary with social class, with number of foreigners in the community, with amount and kind of contact. Belgians are opposed to foreigners occupying high social positions as long as they are recognizable as foreigners. In general, the milieu is not hostile but definitely reticent.

Dr. Sidney Collins (U.K.) reported on a study of Negroes and Moslems in Great Britain. The Negroes are predominantly males who have lower status occupations. A good number of them marry white girls, live interspersed among whites, are oriented to the larger British society and have little group consciousness. When the white wife's status is equal to or higher than that of her husband, she is often estranged from her family and friends, at least at first. Offspring of these mixed marriages are generally accepted in British society: for example, one-fourth of the Anglo-coloured girls marry white men. The Moslems are in a different position: they deliberately maintain a segregated life and have strong group self consciousness. They do not marry British women, and thus there is no one to aid their assimilation. The British resist their assimilation. Thus, assimilation is not a function of colour caste, but of class status, intermarriage, and attitudes of group solidarity.

The study by Professor Radhakamal Mukerjee (India) considered the full range of intergroup conflicts in India. Caste tensions, always in existence in India despite much theorizing to the contrary, have become more serious during the present time of rapid social change. The lower castes want more equality of opportunity and privilege, they try to abandon their stigmatized occupations but meet resistance from the upper castes; they unsuccessfully try to break down residential segregation, and—in addition to this—they have a high birth rate and so their pressure is multiplied. Tensions between Moslems and Hindus had been declining until the nineteenth century when the British policy of segregating their voting and of encouraging competition between their intelligentsia led India toward renewed religious conflict. After the battles of 1948, tensions have been reduced and the government is seriously working to alleviate them, but the remaining Moslems in India are still touchy and resentful. The ten million displaced Hindus from Pakistan create a special problem as there is insufficient housing and occupation for them. Various forms of social organization have developed among them which does not enhance their popularity among the native Hindus. One happy change has been the weakening of caste restrictions among the refugees. Class tensions are also serious in India as there are rigid barriers against occupational mobility. The illiterate worker, no matter what his other abilities are, cannot rise above the position of jobber, and persons in the latter category tend to become arrogant, thus creating a triangular sort of class conflict. The government at first tried to handle the ordinary forms of industrial conflict by compulsory arbitration, but this proved to be so unpopular with both employers and workers that the government now favours the voluntary settlement of industrial disputes.

Some of the papers presented in the 'race and culture' section did not deal with conflict *per se*. Professor H. Z. Ülken (Turkey) advanced the hypothesis, based on a study of communities in Anatolia, that ethnic and religious hetero-

geneity have hastened modernization and hence cultural homogeneity. There had been a history of seriously bad relations between the various ethnic and religious groups of Asiatic Turkey. But there has been a gradual development of cultural homogeneity and a lessening of tension. The appearance of large-scale industry has had an enormous effect on the occupational aspects of ethnic barriers. Compulsory military service has broken down feudal ideas among peasants and has widened their horizon.

The paper by Professor Tadashi Fukutake (Japan) reported a systematic study of the consequences of heavy emigration on a fishing village. There has been a heavy loss of persons in the reproductive ages and hence the average size of family is smaller. The prime motive for emigration—the decline of the fishing ground—has also shifted the remaining inhabitants toward farming. There is considerable renting of small parcels of land at high rents, and hence there is over-use of the land. A decreasing number of the emigrants have returned to their native village where, because of accumulated savings, they live a life of relative ease. This has upset the status hierarchy since the emigrants originally consisted of poorer people and branch families. The non-migrant lower class, seeing the success of their emigrant friends, are dissatisfied because they would also like to emigrate but cannot because of immigration restrictions in Canada, the United States and other countries of past immigration. The patriarchal family has been seriously jeopardized by the emigration; many of the emigrants were heads of families and on their departure their wives assumed leadership in the family. Children born in Canada and now brought to Japan for their education are not like the Japanese-born; they are not deferential to their elders, they are wild and overtly aggressive, but they have an attractive self-confidence and ability to get along with each other. The Canadian-born children are healthier and have better sanitary and medical habits. The returned emigrants generally are less religious and superstitious, and more 'modernized' in every respect. While the older returned emigrants will probably live in the village until their death, most of their children look forward to returning to Canada when they grow up. This poses a problem for the village as the returned emigrants provided a source of wealth and social change, and their disappearance will leave the village in a bad position.

Mr. Pierre Fouilhé (France) presented a study showing how comic strips orient children toward conflict situations. The study is still in progress, and was the sole one in the section starting with analytic questions: To what extent do the comics reflect the norms of the group? What effect do the comics have on the imaginary life and conduct of children? Practically no difference was found between children in an upper class *quarter* and a lower class one in the extent of purchase of comic books (28-29 per cent) and in preferences as to content. The study will next examine such matters as racial attitudes, attitudes toward morality and science, and whether the books excite children or offer catharsis.

In the oral discussion, Mr. Leo Silberman (South Africa) described a study of social change in Mauritius as a consequence of colonization from the West. Mr. Anthony Richmond (U.K.) described a study of the adjustment of West Indians in Britain, with findings parallel to those of Collins.

Dr. Maharaia Winiata (U.K.) described race relations between the Maori and the Europeans in New Zealand. In many respects the Maori were benefited by the British and there was little discrimination. A major difficulty for the Maori was the maintenance of their cultural values. For example, while the

Maori stressed group values, the whites encouraged them to be individualistic and to assimilate. The possibilities for the future were hopeful if the Maori were allowed to retain some of their prized cultural values, since intermarriage is now practised and many common institutions exist.

A final general session, devoted to suggestions for future research that might aid international peace, closed the series on conflict and mediation. It was observed that many valuable topics for research had been suggested throughout the preceding sessions, notably the theory of games approach to group conflict, the selection of and influences on policy makers, the internationalizing effects of the mass media, changing attitudes accompanying the growing integration of Europe. Mrs. Alva Mydral (Unesco) suggested that there were three distinct levels of analysis, within which concrete research proposals could conveniently be grouped: (a) basic psychological and sociological causation of conflict; (b) effectiveness of various techniques intended to manipulate attitudes toward greater internationalism; (c) the decision-making processes in international conferences, mediation, etc. Professor Herrfardt suggested that two opposing assumptions underlay efforts to promote international peace, the universality of man and the uniqueness of nations. Dr. Boasson suggested studying the rise of international attitudes among children and the situation of conflict where the two sides had greatly different strength. Mr. Giraud and Professor Davy offered the topic of fatigue in international conferences. Davy also proposed a study of the relation between social mobility and nationalism. Professor H. P. Maiti (India) emphasized that sociologists could make their greatest contribution by studying the constellation of power forces, not attitudes which were primarily in the domain of the social psychologist. He also suggested that we need more 'action studies' of small groups as experiments in increasing mutual understanding. Professor Arvid Brodersen (Norway) raised the question as to how nationalism and internationalism could be made compatible. Professor Otto Friedman suggested that sociologists study to what extent and where there is distortion in the press; public opinion regarding the motivations of rulers of other nations; and the differences in newspaper treatment of the same items in different countries (e.g. Yugoslavia and a western European nation). Professor Morris Ginsberg (U.K.) proposed a study of how domestic policy is reflected in foreign policy, how internal tensions promote external ones. Professor Merton Oyler (U.S.) raised the questions: What is the newspaper's audience, what groups in the population are most influenced by the press, does the press create public opinion or reflect it? He also reported a Harvard University study of decision-making in hospitals. Professor Everett C. Hughes proposed a study of the leaders and movements that will create international problems in the future (e.g. in Africa); this will be valuable in future mediation. Dr. Andreas Miller (Switzerland), after describing a comparative content analysis study of newspapers, raised questions for research concerning the origin of the news and the kind of news. Mrs. Van der Sprenkel mentioned the possibility of studying the British practice of self-formed committees of experts 'waiting on' high government officials to inform and influence them. Mrs. Myrdal observed that most of the proposals for research made fell into the second category that she had mentioned at the outset of the discussion—namely, the manipulation of attitudes. She felt that sociologists had more to contribute to the study of the third category, policy-making.

It was clear from their discussion and from the scope of the papers and

discussions in the specific sections that sociologists were working on only a small proportion of the aspects of social conflict to the understanding of which they might make a contribution by their researches. The gaps were especially noticeable in the field of international relations. The descriptive character of the studies reported in the section on race and culture conflict, while valuable in itself, revealed, perhaps, the failure to use a sociological approach to questions requiring analysis in this field. Studies on industrial conflict were most successful, at least as reported at the Liège congress, in using a sociological approach to answer such questions. In all sections, however, the congress achieved a clearer definition of a sociological approach to the study of conflict and mediation which would complement the more developed but partially inadequate social-psychological approach.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH

D. G. MACRAE

The third section of the Second World Congress of Sociology, on 'Recent Developments in Sociological Research', met at Liège on Friday, 28 August 1953. The chairman of the section was Professor A. N. J. den Hollander, of the University of Amsterdam, and the *rapporteur*, Mr. D. G. MacRae of the London School of Economics and Political Science. At the time of the meeting 24 papers were available in bound form to the members of the congress, and three other communications had been made available separately. The session was, however, markedly different from those of the other sections in that discussion and contributions clung far less closely than elsewhere to the actual material submitted in advance. Much of the strength and interest of this section was due to this fact, and the range, variety and quality of the discussion proved most stimulating to all the participants. It is particularly unfortunate, therefore, that this report cannot fairly and fully represent the discussion owing to a series of technical failures of the recording apparatus throughout the session. As a consequence of these failures the transcriptions of the discussion are fragmentary and misleading, and not even all the names of those who spoke are available. The *rapporteur* apologizes for inevitable omissions and failures on this account, and hopes that at least something of the spirit of the affair survives.

It was clear from the first that this section represented what might be called a 'residual category'. Professor Parsons has long ago taught us that it is just in such categories that the strengths and weaknesses of a subject may be found, and one may perhaps feel that this was borne out in the proceedings of this section. Theoretically, no doubt, this section should have represented a cross-section of what is going on in Sociology throughout the world, but this was not achieved. On the one hand, separate sections of the congress were devoted to 'Social Stratification and Social Mobility', 'Intergroup Conflicts and their

Mediation', and 'The Training, Professional Activities and Responsibilities of Sociologists'. Research in the first two of these sections is today at its height throughout the world so that between them they occupy a great deal of the present content of sociological study. The last of these sections is one which must by its very nature always be of profound interest to those engaged in this discipline, and conceals within itself problems which are not only ethical, but which are profoundly bound up with matters of practical research. If only for this reason, then, the section on recent developments could not be representative.

But there were additional reasons. Inevitably these papers, collected at random, could not be representative of the total sociological situation: only a carefully designed and commissioned selection of papers could achieve this. One might feel that the omissions were mainly of two kinds: in this section, American, English and French sociology tended to be under-represented; and, secondly, certain topics of great importance were conspicuously absent. For instance, questions of sociological theory—a topic inadequately represented in the congress as a whole—and also the comparative neglect of the border area between sociology, social policy, and social philosophy. As will emerge later in this paper, the actual congress at discussion did something to remedy all these deficiencies. Nevertheless, in one day devoted to many topics, only a little could be said, and much that one would wish to have elaborated was passed quickly over.

This was perhaps particularly marked in the aspects dealt with by Drs. Busia and Eisenstadt, from the Gold Coast and Israel, Mrs. Bryce from Agra, and by Professor Maiti from Patna. The problems of societies, whether ancient or modern, which are undergoing rapid technological change, violent urban expansion, the impact of alien cultures, and in addition have to deal with massive population shifts, are of a kind to which, it was alleged, the techniques and ideology of social anthropology are unsuited, while the techniques of sociology are too little applied. Such areas are growing in number and importance in the contemporary world, and raise problems of practical urgency and great interest for sociological theory—especially for the analysis of social change—and issues that inevitably bring the sociologist to the urgent consideration of questions of value. These questions of value are of three main kinds: problems of dealing with divergent values as social data; problems of discriminating between values; and problems of what values should be involved in policy.

This enormous and fascinating subject inevitably aroused great interest and was left with reluctance. In its importance, interest and brevity of appearance at the conference, it may stand as typical of the diverse themes discussed. It is desirable that, as the chairman, Professor den Hollander, said in his opening remarks, 'this section should become one of the permanent sections of subsequent congresses of the associations'—if only to allow some glimpse of those topics which, however important, might not publicly be raised in the sterner, more restricted, sessions of the other highly specific sections. In this way, too, gaps of subject or of national representation may be filled by those engaged in the responsibilities of planning the programmes of future ISA meetings.

The course of the discussion may now be briefly outlined before the content of the papers is examined.

Professor den Hollander welcomed his colleagues. He announced that he

would not generalize from the impressive but heterogeneous material before him. Nevertheless, he felt, it was striking how the subject was becoming more and more one in which research was corporate rather than individual. He went on to consider topics raised in the papers and to make a number of observations already incoporated in this text. He was followed by the *rapporteur* who examined the papers in more detail and made an attempt to group them in terms of their subject matter and interest.

The first speaker was Professor Dodd of Seattle who argued that, if sociology were to advance, then the researches carried on in the different countries of the world must be comparable. In 1954, as an aid to this, he hoped to see the publication of a world manual of 'polling' techniques, operationally defined. Such a work will require annual revision and volunteers from many nations—volunteer helpers should establish contact with either Mrs. Myrdal or with Professor Dodd at the University of Washington.

Professor R. König, of the Sociological Seminar of the University of Cologne, decided not to read his paper, but to comment on certain points raised earlier at the congress and by the *rapporteur* of this section. He was deeply concerned with a problem perhaps more properly belonging to another section—the problem of how to teach a discipline at once theoretical and practical. Should we treat sociology as one discipline or as many? The relations of disciplines separated by university faculty frontiers raise a problem perhaps insoluble. As will be seen, the session was to return repeatedly to these matters, and Dr. Busia who spoke next felt that his experience in Africa suggested a return to the problems of the pioneers of sociology and a deliberate re-encountering of questions of philosophy and *weltanschauungen*. We should not teach sociological method separately from other studies, for method is an integral part of all sociological work.

Dr. Eisenstadt, on behalf of his Isreali colleagues, deplored the limitations of staff and resources for research, with which the rich Israeli scene is confronted. Out of such richness selection of appropriate topics must be a matter of governmental and public need: even so the best research is 'fundamental research'. Professor Dodd then discussed the paper he had contributed to the session on the study of values (see below) and the next speaker, Dr. Pipping of Abo, turned to a question which involved basic questions for sociology, social anthropology, and social psychology: the problem of the socialization of children and their adult personality structure—a problem more complex than is usually thought, if only because the attitudes of any two parents are not themselves necessarily consistent (see below).

Mrs. Bryce returned to the subjects raised earlier by Dr. Busia and Dr. Eisenstadt with special reference to the problems to be faced by Indian sociology.

Dr. Wurzbacher of the Unesco Social Science Institute at Cologne agreed with Dr. Eisenstadt about 'fundamental research' and illustrated his argument by reference to his paper, showing how some of the basic theses of Tönnies were today being validated. Dr. Karsten of Helsingfors spoke on the sociology of old age, and suggested that 'old age' itself was a social concept which correlated with differences in social structure. Mr. Dampierre followed on behalf of Mr. Chombart de Lauwe (both of the Centre for Sociological Studies, Paris) and commented on the latter's paper (see below).

Mr. H. Friis of the Danish Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs gave an account of the recent development of sociology in Denmark and the way in

which this ministry had moved from the employment of economists and statisticians to the utilization of sociologists, especially in the study of youth. He illustrated the importance of case-work methods and follow-up inquiries in the field of delinquency studies.

Professor Maiti brought the session back to questions which had arisen earlier; he gave information on the Indian contribution to the Unesco Tensions Project, and explained how the attainment of dominion status by India in 1947 had resulted in greater government aid for the social sciences. Simultaneously the new freedom of India had encouraged a new scientific interest among young Indians in social science. He illustrated all this with references to refugee problems, marriage, birth control and population questions, tribal problems, the attitudes of industrial workers and so on. In all this work of education and research a constant problem had been the absence of adequate textbooks: perhaps time would remedy this. One point of particular interest made by Professor Maiti was that the middle castes are enjoying a steadily rising prestige as their economic importance grows. This alteration of prestige is recognized even among Brahmins.

Dr. N. Anderson of the Unesco Institute at Cologne gave an account of the Darmstadt survey (see below), and was followed by Professor F. Pollock of the revived (1950) Institute for Social Research at Frankfort, who stressed the need for socially minded administrators and suggested that the objects of the educational programme at the institute were to produce men who read Hegel, understood Heidegger, and who could use American empirical technique. He also described the attempt to construct an index of 'social morale' in Germany in empirical terms.[1]

Mr. Pages of the Centre of Sociological Studies, Paris, discussed his paper on *ton affectif* (see below), and was followed by Mr. Celestin on the work undertaken by the French Centre 'Economy and Humanism'—an account of which formed the eighteenth paper of the session. This speaker was particularly concerned with the problems of the standard of life.

Professor M. Ginsberg of the London School of Economics and Political Science began by referring to the problems of 'pioneer countries' raised by Doctors Busia and Eisenstadt, and suggested that sociological education in such countries might well begin with the consideration of the particular society in which the teacher worked. 'That of course involves', Professor Ginsberg went on, 'that, in a place like the Gold Coast, for example, there would have to be a number of studies, which I think have not yet been made, of the social structure on the particular area. And there is also, I think, a very remarkable and extraordinary fact: that we are not in possession at present of books dealing with the structure of such units even in regard to the more developed countries. For instance I know no book that will inform you fully about the social structure say of contemporary England or of contemporary France or contemporary Germany. These books do not exist. I am sure that they could exist, that in these cases there is in existence sufficient material—demographic and every other kind of institutional material—which needs only to be brought together through some sort of consultative scheme. I don't mean that these books in question should be identical, for each country must have its own of course. . . .' Out of such resources we might hope to see the rebirth of comparative sociology. Dr. Busia had raised the question of social philosophy:

[1] From this point onwards the recording proved almost completely valueless.

'Well, I have always thought you cannot teach sociology or indeed any social science effectively, without a parallel course in social philosophy. It's necessary to keep these two distinct, not to mix one with the other, but it is necessary to have them both. The problem really is what this social philosophy should contain. This is a really difficult question because while in European countries, students in some countries may be presumed to have some general knowledge of philosophy, especially in those universities where the study of philosophy is compulsory for everybody, it is I think becoming more common for students to have no philosophy at all. It is, for example, perfectly possible for a student to have a degree in economics or international law or any other subject without studying philosophy.' Methodology, the epistomology of the social sciences, can best be taught incidentally, as an integral part of concrete studies.

More important is the problem of values. Undergraduates in sociology are unavoidably naïve and, once they have received instruction in some general theory of value, they should have demonstrated to them the problems of value which are raised by different institutions such as class, property, the family, etc. A constant, and difficult, objective is to teach students how to distinguish questions of fact from questions of value.

Dr. Brodersen of the New School for Social Research, New York, expressed agreement with Professor Ginsberg's comments on social philosophy, and deplored our lack of knowledge of world society. Not only do we know too little of 'pioneer societies'; we are ignorant of important matters affecting the most advanced countries. Despite such works as Carr-Saunders' statistical account, we lack proper sociological analyses of any major society. The difficulties of such an analysis must prove great, but they can and should be overcome, if only because such information is becoming more and more vital for the shaping of world policy.

Professor Maiti returned to the problem of textbooks. Not merely analysis and description are needed: we must 'try to show in our textbooks how certain primary value attitudes and derivative value attitudes' are involved in social interaction. From the primary values of one's own country one can proceed to international comparison and understanding.

Dr. O. Friedman, London, spoke on the need for students being instructed in psychology, particularly 'the relationship between individual motives and the general development of society'.

The *rapporteur* referred to the importance of descriptive sociology, and said: 'It seems to me regrettable that in the growth of modern sociology we have become so afraid and ashamed of mere description. To describe is regarded as a very unimportant and essentially unscientific activity. I suggest that the making of such descriptions is as truly research, is as truly valuable, as are any other activities in which sociologists may be engaged. We need not merely descriptions of the frontier nations, as Dr. Busia called them, but, in all our respective societies, really first-class descriptive works. Certain attempts, I know, have been made very recently. I should be very interested to know what has become of the series of works sponsored two, or possibly three, years ago by Unesco, some of which I read in manuscript. These were volumes which consisted very largely of descriptive accounts by one author or by a team of authors on the social structure and the social life of some 20 nations. Among these volumes I remember with particular pleasure the work—unpublished, as far as I know—of Professor Gabriel Le Bras on France, which

seemed to me to make a very real advance on any descriptive writing I've seen hitherto by sociologists.'

Dr. Busia illustrated the problem of conflicting values for people in 'frontier nations' by an illuminating anecdote of his own youth and a conflict between the European valuation of time and the African valuation of ritual courtesy.[1]

He was followed by Dr. Bergsma of Amsterdam, who explained the long tradition in the Netherlands of human geography. Professor Max Sorre had said, in Liège in 1952, that it was time that geography discovered sociology. In Holland something of the sort had been achieved. It is necessary that the scope of sociology be restricted if works of the kind desired by Professor Ginsberg are to be written: one way of doing this is by concentrating on sociography. He had learned that in Frankfurt there are two distinct bodies: the Institute for Social Research and the sociographical institute. From his own standpoint in Amsterdam he found this division difficult to understand. Dr. Pollock replied that the two bodies in Frankfurt *did* work together, but that sociography was there interpreted in a rather statistical way. The Institute of Sociography asked 'What?', while the Institute for Social Research asked 'Why?'

Mr. Posioen argued for a reconsideration of both sociological theory and research methods so that nothing, not even the most subtle values, be lost sight of. Mr. Pagès closed the discussion,[2] and Professor den Hollander expressed his thanks to those who had taken part.

We now turn to the consideration of the papers submitted, none of which was read, and not all of which were discussed. It is striking that in this section, despite the scale of American sociology only one paper, that of Dr. Dodd, came from the United States. On the other hand, from the 'pioneer countries' —perhaps the most exciting societies, sociologically speaking—came the paper of Dr. Busia, the four papers of Doctors Eisenstadt, Foa, and Ben-David from Israel, the paper of Mr. Heeren from Indonesia, and that of the East African Institute of Social Research. From the defeated countries of the late war came the papers of Dr. Anderson, Dr. Pipping and Dr. Wurzbacher (Germany), and those of the Japan Sociological Society and of Messrs. Ariga, Nakano, Morioka and Morton. There were two papers (Professor Nadel and Dr. A. Silbermann) from Australia, one (Professor M. y. Nunez) from Mexico, one (Professor König) from Switzerland (and Germany), one from Denmark, and two from Holland. From France, Belgium and Geneva there were no fewer than six contributions. The diversity of subject matter in these papers from the French-speaking areas was also remarkable. There was no British paper at this session.

The largest number of papers consisted of factual reports on developments in teaching and research. These were either, like the first seven papers, reports on national developments, or reports on the work of specific bodies. The French Centre, Économie et Humanisme, for example, submitted a complete list of its publications which can be found in the mimeographed second volume of papers in this section.[3]

Dr. Paredes of Quito raised the question of the relation of philosophy and

[1] No more can be said here of Dr. Busia's contribution—one of the most interesting of the session—owing to the faulty recording.

[2] Here the record is entirely missing.

[3] Obtainable from the International Sociological Association, Skepper House, 13 Endsleigh Street, London, W.C.1., U.K.

sociology in modern culture. Sociology has now taken up the traditional role of philosophy, in relation to the institutions, cultural media, and psychological content of society. Professor Dupréel of Brussels attempted a generalization of the object of sociological studies. We classify the objects of knowledge in terms of their likeness and difference. It is among the category of living beings that the laws of similarity are most important and most obscure. Here we dwell in a world of probabilities subject to pragmatic generalization.

Mr. Pagès suggested that sociologists should include among their objects of study *le ton affectif*, which plays an important part in the mechanisms which govern individual and group behaviour. From this study may be derived hypotheses suited to concrete field research, both in macro and micro-sociology. He illustrated this theory with reference to a number of psychologists —notably Lewin.

A number of the papers were concerned with community surveys and allied matters. Mr. Chombart de Lauwe said, 'The selection of residential units (villages and urban districts) has appeared to us to be essential for comparative study and the making of experimental studies in the field.' He illustrated this with material from the important work which has recently appeared, *Paris et l'agglomération parisienne: l'espace social dans une grande cité* (Presses universitaires de France, two volumes). The survey of Darmstadt described by Dr. Anderson has also been published—though not quite completely—in eight volumes. (A ninth is expected, and Dr. Anderson has promised us an American volume on the survey.) The project, 1949-52, was conducted under mixed German and American auspices and was used both to obtain data and train young sociologists. 'The Darmstadt survey is probably the first attempt to survey a city together with its hinterland. At the time the survey started about half of the 115,000 pre-war population still resided outside the city, blown out by the bombing that destroyed most of the urban centre. The situation afforded an opportunity to observe how a badly-bombed community recovers itself. The situation also afforded an opportunity to study postwar problems in the overcrowded rural communities. In these efforts the survey received the full co-operation of groups and officials in both city and hinterland.'

German youth was studied by the Unesco Institute at Cologne and reported on by Dr. Wurzbacher, a start being made in a rural community. To see the place of the young people in society as a whole the following social groups were studied: families; neighbours; friends; organized leisure groups; churches; political groups; work groups—the total population having been subjected to intensive interview through a random sample. An historical study of local leaders since 1885 has been undertaken the better to investigate local social forces. 'Alongside this pilot study a survey extending over the whole of the West German Republic with the same subject, integration and stratification, based on the experiences gained from the pilot study, is at present under way. It should serve to set the proper limits to the representativeness of the first study and to prepare the way for a further series of monographic studies to be conducted in small, middle and large-size towns.'

In his paper Dr. Pipping described how in a sample of 422 German youths 'The father was generally seen as being more authoritarian than the mother. He and his acts are less criticized. The girls, who are brought up more strictly than the boys, are more likely to stress restrictions, but also to approve of them. The theory that a stern father makes authoritarian children was not found to be generally valid.' Something has been said on this interesting paper

(and the doubt it casts on certain simple culture-personality theories) above, in the account of the discussion at the session.

Mr. Ben-David described how in Israel a sample of 600 youth movement members were investigated in both cities and small towns. 'A preliminary analysis of the results seems to substantiate and refine the broad structural hypothesis, which served [as] the starting point of this piece of research, i.e., that formalized age groups of the youth movement type are found in societies where the discontinuity between the particularistically oriented family and universalistic, large-scale society goes together with important collectivistic elements in the central value system. It was found that children from families which have a strong individualistic identification with their social status, if they join a youth movement at all, tend to join the comparatively liberal and individualistic scouts.'

Dr. Eisenstadt's study of 'Leadership, Mobility and Communication' sprang from Israeli research into the problems of a massive and diverse immigration. Immigrant groups were studied locally and 'ethnically' in terms of group cohesion, values, participation in associations and national life, leadership, etc. The main associations—cultural and political—were studied in terms of their values, membership, and leadership. The composition of élites and their selection was investigated, and failures in communication and the emergence of deviant behaviour were studied. Dr. Foa in his paper concentrated on the nature of leadership as manifested in Israel. He distinguished leaders who think of their job in terms of the individuals who are led, and those who think first of the goals which the group is trying to achieve. All this he studied in terms of scales and a complex socio-psychological analysis.

The paper on the family in Japan involved co-operative effort like that of the Darmstadt survey (q.v.). The family is conceived in terms of the lineage, family worship, familial property, and a weakening patriarchal dominance. The paper set this analysis in a historical frame, but no account is given of the techniques of investigation of this fascinating institution. A few references to published work provide the only clues.

Apart from this family study, direct institutional analysis can only be found in Dr. Banning's paper. He was not concerned to give an account of the Dutch Reformed Church, but he in fact gives considerable information about it—and in addition tells us something about the growth and content of sociology in Holland and about some of its ambitions for the future. The Sociological Institute of the Church has investigated the impact of the war on the life and mind of youth, has encouraged 'pastoral sociography'—the study of material from the localities useful for pastoral work—studied the economic situation of the clergy, and found that they are mainly recruited from lower middle-class groups. The institute, short of funds though it is, has extensive plans for future researches.

An unusual subject was the subject of Dr. A. Silbermann's contribution. Although Dr. Silbermann wrote from Australia, the study of radio-music was made in Paris on behalf of the Centre d'Études Radiophoniques. The purpose of the research was practical: the attraction of listeners and the 'prevention of taste control' along with, rather surprisingly, the 'creation of desirable cultural homogeneity'. A massive apparatus of interview and functional analysis was used to establish a 'culture chart' which 'would indicate at first glance any deviation of the socio-cultural tendency of the [broadcasting] institution from the general socio-cultural tendency of the society. . . .'

An unusual source of data is suggested in Mr. Poisson's paper. Sociology and economics, using a statistical analysis, could glean much from public notaries' documents (*Actes notariés*) which provide information extending over the centuries, especially on questions of marriage and the family, property, and documents.

The question of values in a very large sense was raised by Professor Dodd. His own summary may be quoted: 'Our dimensional system which combines symbolic logic, statistics and matrix algebra, augments social science as a means of expressing, predicting and controlling inter-human behaviour in respect to whatever values men hold. Our system is based on six classes of dimensions: Time, Space, People, Desiderata, Desiring, Attendant social conditions.

'We develop our values project into a system of human tensions by: (1) Defining values: we use operational definitions whose reliability is measured and shown to be high. (2) Observing values: demoscopes with six sub-technics of designing, questioning, sampling, interviewing, tabulating and reporting, measure the values expressed in verbal statements. (3) Classifying values: we study values which are greatest when distributed along each of our six dimensions. (4) Measuring values: we measure the intensity of desiring a value and use eight standards of desiring. (5) Scaling values: technics dealing with the wording of questions are used as in our National Security Poll. (6) Correlating values: the technic is the *n*-matrix handled by our dimensional matrix formulas. (7) Predicting values: methods for predicting public behaviour from a poll are used. (8) Validating values: the technic is the multiple correlation. (9) Experimenting on values: in Project Revere experiments upon increasing a social value are done. (10) Deducing new aspects of values: one evidence is the derivation of some 24 aspects or dimensions of any value. (11) Combining values in tension system: tension is a function of two observed factors: desiring and desideratum. Sets of tensions may be integrated into a single decision for a course of conduct. Our system of human tensions applies to interracial, industrial, marital and intra-personal tensions and provides a unifying formula and technics for crucially testing the effects of international tensions.'

The papers on national and local developments in teaching and research represent all the continents. Dr. Busia in his paper explains how the war brought new skills, new experience, and rapid social change (especially in the increase of urbanism) to the Gold Coast. A need was inevitably felt for social research into land use, into urbanism, etc. From the Institute of Arts, Industries and Social Science, founded in 1943, came a number of anthropologically oriented studies of Ashanti under the direction of Professor Fortes. Other bodies, with other aid, made studies in the fields of economics and of anthropological interest. Development here was accelerated under the impact of the Colonial Social Science Research Council, but remained essentially anthropological. The work of the West African Institute of Social and Economic Research (headquarters in Nigeria) has been primarily economic. The Sociology Department of the University College at Achimota has undertaken work on urban surveys, the aspirations of schoolchildren, traditional music, etc. All this raises for Dr. Busia (cf. above) 'the question of the integration or distinction of the two fields of social or cultural anthropology . . . and sociology'. Dr. Busia is for integration.

Dr. Audrey Richards' account of the East African Institute of Social

Research, Kampala, Uganda, established in 1950, proposes to us a long list of investigations, some of which would traditionally be ascribed to anthropology, others to sociology, others again to history or linguistics. Here, again, the old divisions seem inappropriate in a 'pioneer country'.

At Achimota and Kampala the European tradition is English; in Indonesia it is Dutch, and some sociology can be found as long ago as 1924, when Schrieke worked on social tension in south-west Sumatra. Today there is social science teaching at both Jakarta and Jokjakarta. In Jakarta the orientation of sociology seems practical: social stratification, sexual tensions, Eurasian status and family structure, and documentary research are all being studied. At Jokjakarta urban sociology (with help from Yale), and a study of women's organizations is going forward.

The report for Japan consists essentially of a list of researches which sound—especially in the field of rural sociology—of great interest. This list is too long for reproduction here. There is in addition a tabular classification of no fewer than 325 research projects in all the fields of sociology.

The paper from Israel is concerned either with matters considered earlier in this report or with marginal studies—sociologically speaking—in economics, history, etc.

Dr. Mendieta y Nuñez reported on the work done at the National Autonomous University of Mexico, where an Institute of Social Investigation was founded in 1930 and re-organized in 1939. From this paper the close integration of theory and field research emerges as a major objective of the institute. An ethnographic map of Mexico was followed by a series of 48 related monographs on the indigenous races, which, it is hoped, will provide material for a ten-volume ethnology of Mexico. Surveys of housing, communal lands, etc., have emerged from this work. In addition the well-known *Revista Mexicana de Sociologia* and a series of 17 booklets on sociology are published.

Dr. Nadel, like the Israeli report, aims widely. In his account of Australia he lists 22 bodies in six universities which are concerned with social studies, and gives a summary of 39 research projects. These include studies of communications, stratification and mobility, urban youth and age, industrial relations, tensions of immigration, social prejudice, etc. Elsewhere he is concerned with more marginal matters—though these include a social survey of north Sydney and much interesting work in social psychology at Melbourne and elsewhere.

What is to be found in the paper on Holland is summarized by its authors, Professor den Hollander and J. P. Kruyt: 'The historical connexion between sociology, sociography and social geography in the Netherlands is unique and is largely explained by the influence of Steinmetz, till 1933 professor of social geography in Amsterdam. Sociology found general recognition in Dutch universities after World War II. There was only one chair in sociology before 1940 (Bonger, 1940, Amsterdam). Now every university in the Netherlands has one or more professors of sociology and/or sociography. Their names, the general academic framework of their teaching and the national organization of Dutch sociologists are given, the institutes engaged in research, either connected with universities or non-academic, are enumerated, together with some of the chief research projects now being undertaken. A bibliography attempts to classify the most important publications of Dutch sociologists in various fields of social research.'

In Denmark, according to the Danish Sociological Society, it was not

until the arrival of the late Professor T. Geiger in 1937 that the discipline was recognized in the universities. Just after Geiger's death Professor Ranulf of the philosophy chair at Aarhus also died, and Denmark lost another distinguished sociologist. There is now also a chair in sociology at Copenhagen, with an institute; the work of Dr. Friis and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs has been mentioned above. This paper summarizes Danish research in stratification and mobility, into social conditions and welfare, and suggests a situation unusually rich in useful work and governmental-academic co-operation.

In Geneva is the Centre de Recherches Sociologiques on which Professor Girod reported. Founded in January 1952 the centre is interested in industrial sociology, electoral sociology, communication, urbanism, and methodology. The institute studies for Unesco the documents of the United Nations and the specialized institutions which concern sociology.

Finally Dr. König reported on his experience of research techniques in Switzerland and Germany. German-speaking Europe was little interested in field research before 1945. The populations of these areas are not prepared to be interviewed, or for survey work, and only experience can break down this resistance. Interviewing requires new attitudes in these lands. In addition there are problems of language as the techniques of field investigation were largely developed in English-speaking countries and are not readily suited to translation into German. It seems probable that such difficulties are not unique to Switzerland and Germany.

In the foregoing no attempt has been made to establish a unity out of diverse materials where no natural connexions existed. I hope that I have summarized fairly what took place and what was presented. If I have done injustice it was done unwittingly.

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF SOCIOLOGISTS [1]

J.-R. TRÉANTON

The reports submitted on 'the professional activities and responsibilities of sociologists' faithfully reflect the position of sociology in the world today. As a young science and a new profession, it is approached in different ways in different countries. In the United States of America it has long since found acceptance beyond the university campus, and sociologists are now playing their part in all branches of national life. But this over-rapid growth is forcing them to pause for a critical stock-taking—which they are undertaking with considerable courage. The papers in Section IV deal with deontology and with

[1] It is regretted that owing to technical failures in the recording, this paper cannot fairly report the points raised in the discussions by Mr. Busia (Gold Coast) and Messrs. Friedmann and Morin (France).

the 'status' that should be given to the many-sided activities of their profession.

Their European, Indian and Mexican colleagues are concerned with other problems. To begin with, they want to increase the still too limited number of professional openings; they are also anxious to clarify the general ethics of their science. They wonder in what direction it should be guided in this contradictory and distracted world in which we live, and what contribution sociological research and teaching can make towards the advent of a new humanism.

WHAT IS A SOCIOLOGIST?

A whole congress could have been taken up in describing the 'sociological species'. The various reports contained in Section IV hardly provide us with a complete portrait of the contemporary sociologist that is authentic for all countries, but at least they give an idea of some of his characteristics.

What is the distinguishing mark of the sociologist? His university degree? A rather unsatisfactory criterion, for neither France nor Italy—to mention only two of the countries represented at Liège—offer their students an opportunity to pursue a full course of higher studies in sociology.[1] Other countries provide very different courses leading to the M.A., Ph.D., the pass degree or the doctorate in sociology. Mr. Mendieta y Nuñez speaks of 'the great and apparently irreconcilable divergence of opinion among European sociologists as to what constitutes the subject matter of sociology and the way in which this subject matter should be organized'. From the data he supplies[2] it would seem that American sociology is equally varied. As taught in universities, it is treated less and less as an integral science, as 'a coherent body of knowledge and techniques which are distinguishable from those of other sciences'. Dr. Sibley, who makes this remark, adds that 'sociologists of an earlier generation, unconfused by today's plethora of discrete findings of empirical research, could . . . agree that there was a recognizable corpus of sociology, while differing as violently as they would over the merits of competing treatises on the subject. Today, American textbooks of sociology seldom contain the word "principles" in their titles, and their contents are typically highly eclectic, encompassing selections of both data and inferences from other disciplines'.

Even if 'sociology' is no longer—or not yet—in existence, there is no denying that in some countries sociologists are thriving. Take a look at the figures for America: in 10 years the membership of the American Sociological Society has increased from 1,500 to 4,000. Universities are now conferring each year as many as 140 doctorates in sociology, as against 75 before the war. Professional openings are increasing in like proportion. It is true that three-quarters of American sociologists are still pursuing their career in universities.[3] But a growing number are placing their talents at the service of public or private 'practical' research organizations. Army morale, racial relations,

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[1] Cf. the reports by Messrs. Pellizi and Morin and the general report by Mr. de Bie on the teaching of sociology throughout the world.

[2] According to the inquiry conducted by Raymond and Ruby J. Reeves Kennedy: 'Sociology in American Colleges', *American Sociological Review*, October 1942.

[3] Dr. Sibley.

consumer habits . . . one could go on listing indefinitely the domains in which recourse is now had to 'applied' sociology.

Outside the United States of America, the situation is less satisfactory. The conclusions reached by Mr. Pellizi in a report dealing with Italy are true for France and many other countries: 'The lack of university chairs and institutes', he writes, 'prevents the training of specialized students, the lack of specialized students provides a good argument against the establishment of chairs and institutes.' The introduction of sociology in the secondary school curriculum, advocated by some authorities, is still a remote possibility. As Professor Hughes rightly points out, the sociologist cannot be absorbed by the European *gymnasium* or *lycée* as easily as by the American college.

Has the student more chance of earning a decent livelihood outside the university? Public or private subsidies sometimes enable him to devote his time to demography, industrial relations or colonial problems.[1] But this is a trifle by comparison with the potential opportunities in all these fields. Is the situation likely to change in the years ahead?

In the absence of a complete picture of present and future openings for sociologists in the different countries, it is impossible to tell. Sociologists would need, as Mr. de Bie, *rapporteur* for Section IV, suggests, to carry out a detailed inquiry into the present position and prospects as regards actual and possible openings in their particular science. Nothing could give them a better idea of the direction in which that science should be developed.

The diversity of tasks for which sociologists are fitted and their progressive emancipation from the university open up new prospects for the future. Sociologists are wondering about the future status of their profession. Are they on the way to forming an established, recognized body of specialists having the freedom of the city and letters patent?[2] The reports by Professor Hughes and Dr. Sibley define the problem of this semi-corporative structure which would amount to setting up 'strong and clear boundaries between their occupation and all others; and to [developing] career opportunities for those within. . . . [Sociologists] will complement this clear bounding with an attempt to make the profession more universal, so that the professional may carry on his work in a greater variety of situations, so that his skill may meet the needs of any client whatsoever or so that this method of investigation may be applied at any time with equal validity'.[2]

The medical profession itself, as Professor Hughes pointed out, has not succeeded in matching this 'maximum of specific bounding' by a 'maximum of universality'. Sociology is in hardly better case. Its constant aim will no doubt be 'to select, train, initiate and discipline its own members and to define the nature of the services which they will perform and the terms on which they will perform them'.[3] But does that mean that sociologists will form a 'profession' quite apart from economists, anthropologists, and statisticians, in short, the many specialists concerned with human affairs? Dr. Sibley does not think so: 'I am inclined to believe', he states, 'that whatever name may be attached to a future profession dealing with social relations, the skills and knowledge which it will require will include much that is now labelled

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[1] Some data on the situation in France and Italy are supplied in the papers submitted by Mr. Pellizi and by Messrs. Friedmann and Tréanton.

[2] These are the terms used by Mr. de Bie to convey the various shades of meaning contained in the word 'profession'.

[3] Everett Hughes.

sociology, but also much derived from other social science disciplines, including especially psychology and anthropology'.

Increasingly artificial boundaries are being set up between these various branches of science and it is hardly a suitable time to aggravate the situation by professional sectarianism. Sociologists should open their ranks to scientists in related fields and extend their contacts with other branches of knowledge. The future would show the folly of trying to shut themselves up in a water-tight compartment of their own.

We are reassured on this point by the reports from Europe. In Italy, France and the United Kingdom, sociologists have widely varying backgrounds—history, law and philosophy. In the United States of America, on the other hand, Professor Hughes discerns an alarming tendency to extend the length of studies and to advance the crucial moment when the student has to concentrate solely on the official university curriculum for sociology. Surely an unwise course, for these curricula are not infallible; no one can say for certain what is the ideal initiation for the trainee in sociology. It is all very well, he says, to require more extensive training as methods develop; these methods reflect the temptation 'to raise the status of our subject by proving that it takes as long to become a sociologist as to become a physicist or physician'.

Premature specialization would stultify sociology and tend to draw in 'people of some one bent with a tendency toward selecting for study only those problems and toward using only those methods which fit the concept of sociology crystallized in the conventional prerequisites'. Unduly rigid qualifications for the study of sociology would discourage people from taking up this career late in life, as some of our most illustrious sociologists have done—a point brought out by Professor Hughes.

Sociology should be an open profession forgoing any corporate guarantees. As a 'young and groping' science, it has not yet worked out precise enough standards of competence to enable it to keep its own house in order. It is seldom possible, notes Mrs. Glass, 'to check the processes of empirical investigations [in sociology] so thoroughly that their methodological integrity is established beyond doubt'. How can sociology bar from its ranks charlatans and humbugs? But unless it does, it will lose prestige and public support.

This is considered a particularly serious danger by Dr. Glaister A. Elmer, who describes his experiences in Korea as head of the Air University Far East Research Group. Considerable damage can be done, under pretext of conducting surveys, by pseudo-sociologists, whose complacency is equalled only by their ignorance. The other American papers deal chiefly with the means of avoiding such damage. The best method of safeguarding the profession against infiltration by unreliable elements would appear to be the establishment of a system of deontology—a charter of the rights and duties of sociologists.

DEONTOLOGY OF THE PROFESSION

Professor McClung Lee reminds his colleagues that psychologists have long been familiar with these difficulties: their concern with ethical problems 'reflects in part their longer involvement in commercial research and thus their longer exposure to powerful public criticism'.

The difference, pointed out by Professor Hughes—who described this transition from theoretical knowledge to therapeutics, which psychology accomplished before sociology—is that the clients of the psychologist are private individuals, whilst those of the sociologist are groups or institutions—collective clients who are more difficult to handle.

The individual asks the psychologist or doctor to help him solve a vital problem. The group—a government, private association or commercial company—is not always animated by such laudable intentions when it has recourse to sociology. It has already taken its decision, and is merely trying to give it a scientific gloss. The sociologist is not asked to tell the truth, or to suggest a remedy for the situation. The man of action knows, or thinks he knows, both remedy and truth, and is only seeking to give them the spectacular blessing of science. The funds placed at the disposal of the sociologist are proportionate to the interests at stake. And the sociologist may be sorely tempted to produce 'scientific results' in line with the aims of his sponsor's publicity campaign!

The Problems of 'Practical' Sociology

The 'commercialization' introduced even into university circles by journalistic bodies, publicity campaigns, public opinion polls and market research, is today threatening the traditional ethics of sociology on three different points:

The Choice of Research Projects. This is the theme of Mr. Miller's paper. The sociologist is in danger of forfeiting his freedom to select his own subjects of investigation—a form of freedom which is traditional in 'pure' science, but is being increasingly restricted in 'applied' science. Will the universities offer this freedom a last refuge? The tendency of these institutions to 'direct [their] activities into community service functions, practical surveys, and *ad hoc* studies' which are of undoubted value but, as experience goes to prove, are 'made at the expense of *bona fide* research,[1] makes us doubt whether this will be the case. Mr. Miller warns students against the danger to their scientific training of accepting utilitarian tasks designed less for their instruction than for bolstering up the funds of their universities.

'Commercial' research is still less rewarding. It burdens the sociologist with uninteresting work and is full of snares. Is it his duty to refuse certain subjects of investigation? To turn away certain would-be employers? Yes, if he feels that a particular assignment is incompatible with professional integrity[2] or if his employers insist on his using false weights and measures.

Methods of Investigation. The 'sociology merchants' sell the goods they are asked for. To please their 'customers' they use fake methods and 'cook' their experiments. Unfortunately, it is difficult to unmask them. But as Professor McClung Lee points out, their 'customers' are at least under no illusion as to their value: 'They buy or subsidize the work of willing hirelings for certain purposes, 'largely propagandistic, and have contempt for it, and they go to

[1] Professor Clark.
[2] Mrs. Glass laid special stress on this point.

ethical professionals when they have a problem upon which they need enlightenment.'

Announcement of Results. The general public, unfortunately, does not discriminate; it has no means of differentiating between the sound and the spurious goods offered under the label of 'sociology'. This is to some extent the fault of sociologists, who do not pay sufficient heed to the use made of their public statements: 'Where findings are of considerable popular interest, . . . [when they] are news, the research sociologist should lend his hand to those publicizing the information to the end that skilful and accurate popularization rather than distorted of sensational reports go forth.'[1]

Will these few rules, drawn up by joint agreement, suffice to protect sociology against 'commercial erosion'? A good definition of the problem is given by Professor McClung Lee, who points out that what is needed is to 'give the rapidly multiplying practical sociologists a due regard for the value of the academic traditions which have made our colleges and universities relatively so free from restraint and thus so fertile in the stimulation of productive research'.

All sociologists should return, from time to time, to refresh themselves at these unsullied springs. They are scientists and educationists before they are businessmen. Even if they were inclined to forget this, public opinion would recall them to a more just appreciation of their role: in the United States of America, their reputation 'derives especially from the identification of the field with scientists and professors of academic communities and with the non-pecuniarily oriented ethics of science and education'.[2]

From Professional Deontology to the Ethics of Knowledge

Professor Morris Ginsberg, chairman of Section IV, gave at one meeting a very apt definition of this ideal, which is applicable to all branches of knowledge and education. 'Truth', he stressed, 'is an intrinsic value, that is to say, an intrinsic quantitative value—something that is desirable for its own sake.' But science also has an instrumental value; 'it is valuable not only for its own sake but because it makes other values possible'. The conclusion Professor Ginsberg draws from these two basic principles is that they imply a certain discipline of the mind, steadfastness and devotion, detachment and impartiality, the power of distinguishing whether an object is one of belief or of fact; the willingness to abide by the evidence, however unpalatable it may be: in short, scientific integrity.

Science is a social phenomenon. Professor Ginsberg denies that truth is 'a private affair'. He reminds us that it 'depends for its cultivation and growth upon mutual stimulus and friendly and open interchange of views and discoveries'.

Professor McClung Lee reaches conclusions similar to those of Professor Ginsberg, giving due prominence, in his proposed elementary 'catechism', to the sociologist's duty towards his students and colleagues. When, as so often happens, he is engaged both in teaching and in research, he must not neglect his task as educator. Despite the fact that his students provide him with 'a

[1] Professor Clark.

[2] Professor McClung Lee cites various American investigations into the relative prestige of different professions.

cheap source of research assistance', his first concern must be to develop their talents. He should be chary of maintaining 'a cult-like or sectarian atmosphere' which is fatal for the free discussion of ideas. 'Credit should be assigned to all those who have contributed to a publication in proportion to their contribution.' This same frankness and honesty should, as Professor McClung Lee points out, characterize his relations with his younger or older colleagues.

OBLIGATIONS OF THE SOCIOLOGIST TOWARDS OTHERS

But the sociologist's world is not bounded by the walls of his study or the confines of his university campus. The merit of Mrs. Glass's paper is that it gives a vigorous reminder of the sociologist's obligations towards the outside world. Professor Hughes' remark that 'although many sociologists would like to consider their work politically neutral, it is not considered so by those who make revolutions of right or left, or by those who have special interests in the things we study' is balanced by Mrs. Glass's statement that 'a true sociologist is essentially a political animal, though not a politician. His responsibility to society is synonymous with his responsibility to his profession. In other words, a sociologist who does not believe in the possibility of social progress and who takes no part in promoting it (or, conversely, in checking retrogression) is a contradiction in terms'.

Sociologists should therefore regard social changes, the present and the future of society as 'the main theme of their thoughts and studies'. They are not entitled to plead an illusory neutrality in the establishment of values, on the score that these are merely relative. They have to make a choice, to search their conscience regarding each individual case. But on what factors can they rely for guidance?

Mrs. Glass admits that it is difficult to induce all members of the profession to agree as to standards of social progress—or even as to the possibility of discovering standards which are not of an 'extra-scientific nature'. Therefore, she points out, 'so long as there are social and national conflicts, and so long as sociologists recognize their responsibility to take sides, there will be disunity among them, and sociology will be a segmented, rather chaotic discipline'.

There is nothing final about this. Conflicts and misunderstandings can be solved: 'Do people really differ as much as they are told about fundamental values?', Professor Ginsberg asked during the discussions. His personal opinion is that there is more general agreement than is supposed about fundamental questions. Disagreement is often caused by failure to draw a distinction between questions of fact and questions of value. Sociologists are hardly in a position to verify all social facts that would enable them to solve the problems confronting their own consciences or those of other scientists. Professor Ginsberg advises them to be extremely humble. 'Just consider what you could reply, what the best sociologists could reply, supposing they were confronted by the physicists, and the physicists asked them to say: "What will be the effects upon the probability of war of secrecy concerning atomic weapons? What will be the effect of certain limitations of armaments on the future war?" You can't answer such questions: we are just not in a position to answer any such questions scientifically, and I think it would be absurd for us to pretend that we can.' No pretentious terminology 'cloaking emptiness of thought and lack

of ideas' can conceal the fact that we are helpless in certain fields. Members of the congress were unanimous in denouncing the effect of the esoteric pedantry that makes science promise more than it can fulfil.

But humility does not mean timidity. There are many fields in which sociology can already—or soon will—provide objective data for the solution of general problems relating to the ethics of knowledge. It must, however, maintain active interest in the men and ideas of the day. 'Indeed', Mrs. Glass observes, 'it sometimes seems that we know less about our surroundings than the pioneers of sociology knew about theirs a hundred or fifty years ago.' And she reproaches present-day sociology with its 'preoccupation with oddities and peripheral matters, with primary groups, microscopic methods of investigation and with a crude empiricism that justifies shortsightedness'.

She would no doubt readily admit that it is sometimes very difficult to distinguish between the essential and the subsidiary, the 'significant' and the insignificant. A subject which we regard as devoid of interest may provide a valuable field of investigation for sociologists of the next generation, whereas a theme we consider essential today may amount in the end to no more than a little word-spinning.

The discussions at Liège successfully disposed of certain disagreements more apparent than real, between Mrs. Glass and other members—Mr. Miller in particular. The latter lays stress on the impartiality and detachment of the sociologist, and denies the 'significance' of purely 'mechanical' techniques already in existence. But this is because he is alive to the dangers of undue publicity and commercialization which beset sociology in his country. Mrs. Glass is in favour of sociologists taking an active part in contemporary life, because she knows what useful work they can do in that sphere. However, she is the first to admit that the affective preferences of the research worker, which are essential to his choice of a field of inquiry, must give way, once that choice has been made, to scientific detachment, which is necessary for carrying out research, for evaluating and presenting the findings. And Mr. Miller, for his part, admitted during his speech that certain 'white-coat' sociologists were wrong to assume not only the working costume of the chemist and the physicist, but also their impassivity and their attitude of icy detachment with regard to their subject of study.

Professor Pellizi gave, perhaps, the clearest summing up of this important discussion 'The sociologist', he says, 'should give up all extensive study of any particular structure of human behaviour which finds no clearly "sympathetic" response in him. . . . It is unpleasant to see men of science engage in public discussion about important and even tragic affairs, without giving evidence that they *feel* with their own hearts the specific experiences and passions which have motivated such affairs.' But he hastens to add: 'The observation and analysis of emotive-representative structure in which the scholar "participates" also entails a discipline of autocritique of the scholar himself.' Accordingly, sociology, like all other branches of science, may be defined as a system of deontological self-criticism or, in more simple terms, as a scientifically organized 'know thyself'.

Mr. Jagannadham's paper provided Section IV with the necessary concrete picture of the tasks awaiting the sociologist in a country where development is in full swing. The social and economic structure of India is gradually adapting itself to the demands of modern civilization. The caste system and the division of the community into large family units are becoming less rigid.

Social classes are being formed, and very serious problems are resulting from the emergence of an industrial proletariat. Sociology has an active contribution to make to economic and social reconstruction.

Education is evolving: how are we to preserve what was valuable in the old kind of teaching? How can we reconcile the wisdom of the ancient system of education, which was an all-round preparation for life, with the Western system of intensive, specialized training? How is education to be extended rapidly to the public as a whole? How are the people to be helped to see beyond their religious beliefs and prejudices? 'One of the problems for the social planners in this land of ancient spiritual values is to give to these people an outlook and system of religion in which are reconciled faith and reason, traditional and scientific outlook.' New laws are rapidly changing the status of women. Here again, 'sociological research would be of considerable help in studying the relationship between law and public opinion and in enacting integrated legislation in proper form and time'.

What is the exact contribution that sociologists can make to so tremendous an undertaking? 'The universities should conduct objective investigations and serve a twofold purpose, viz. to offer constructive criticism on government policies, anf to convey the message of right values and policies to the people at large.'

These words might be adopted as a guiding principle by twentieth-century sociology. Sociologists can act as guides and advisers to members of their governments. This opens up prospects for a division of tasks and of administrative organization. [1] There would be, on the one hand, bodies devoted to 'practical' research, specializing in some particular field, such as population, racial minorities, town planning, etc., and providing those responsible for policy and administration with the necessary sociological data; and, on the other hand, university institutions devoted to 'pure' research or to long-term undertakings of no immediate value to the national life.

Most ministries are already equipped with research and information offices; all that is needed is to get them into the habit of resorting to social science. If professional sociologists always worked side by side with men of action, the result would no doubt help to break the vicious circle described by Mrs. Glass: 'So long as the sociologist's approach is incomprehensible to administrators and to the public, he is not given the opportunity of being comprehensible: he is not able to demonstrate the need for, and the use of, sociological thought and study.' A period of postgraduate apprenticeship for young sociologists in central and local government might also, as she suggests, help to 'break the ice' between men of action and men of science, and to dispel their stereotyped views of one another.

The future role of sociology depends on such contacts with the 'enlightened' public—and with the general public as well. There is a close connexion between the position occupied by scientists in the various countries—their status, prestige and degree of independence—and the general scale of national values. 'It would be extremely ingenuous, particularly for a sociologist, to regard sociology as a pure science, cut off from social pressures and interests, to picture it as somehow unconnected with sociological reality. Prejudices, fears, taboos, conventionalism and even hatred come to the fore even in studies that purport to be highly objective. Sociology is steeped in ideology. The

[1] Report by Messrs. Friedmann and Tréanton.

sociologist must be aware of this fact, whether he poses as a therapeutist, a mediator, a reformer or as a modest, impartial scientist.'[1] It is for the sociologist to influence the civilization of his country and his epoch. He can do so by research, by his activity as a citizen and an intellectual and, if he belongs to a university, by his teaching.

The teaching of sociology was not discussed at any great length during the Liège congress. The general report on this subject, prepared by Mr. de Bie, will soon enable an accurate and complete picture to be drawn of all the problems involved. Several of the papers in Section IV dealt, however, with some of the most interesting points.[2] Sociology, Mr. Mendieta y Nuñez points out, should be taught on three different levels: '(i) As general information to complement and to conclude a liberal education; (ii) As profound and specialized information in certain aspects of the subject; (iii) As the systematic, profound and specialized training of professors of sociology, of researchers and of sociologists.'

We may touch here on the first of these aspects, with which the discussions at Liège were directly or indirectly concerned: What part should be played by sociology in the training of young minds and in the general education of twentieth-century man? Mr. de Bie put the matter excellently when he said that it provides the citizen with a basis of fact and theory with regard to human groups and social processes, that give him a better understanding of his own and other societies. It should therefore be taught in such a way as to link up theory with national history and realities, but at the same time to oppose ethnocentrism, 'the sworn enemy of the sociologist',[3] furnishing mankind not only with data and values, but also with the determination to translate them into fact. As Mr. Ginsberg reminded us, it is not so much knowledge which is lacking, as the will to apply knowledge. By bridging the tragic gulf between knowledge and action, sociology can help mankind to solve its disagreeements by peaceful means.

LIST OF PAPERS SUBMITTED

SECTION I. SOCIAL STRATIFICATION AND SOCIAL MOBILITY

ISA/SMM/CONF.2/ . . .

1. Professor David Glass, 'Proposal for the Empirical Study, on a Cross-national Basis, of Social Mobility, and Social Stratification'.
2. Alain Touraine, 'Rapport sur la Préparation en France de l'Enquête Internationale sur la Stratification et la Mobilité Sociales'.
3. Dr. Gunnar Boalt, 'Social Mobility in Stockholm'.

[1] Edgard Morin.

[2] Particularly the papers read by Mr. Mendieta y Nuñez and Mr. Morin, and the conclusion of Mr. de Bie's general report, which was distributed to members.

[3] Mr. Mendieta y Nuñez.

4. Keith R. Kelsall, 'Recruitment of Higher Civil Servants in Britain'.
5. Research Committee, Japan Sociological Society, 'Sample Survey of Social Stratification and Social Mobility in six large cities of Japan'.
6. Dr. Andreas Miller, 'Das Problem der Klassengrenze und seine Bedeutung bei der Untersuchung der Klassenstruktur'.
7. Professor A. Graffar-Fuss, 'Mobilité Sociale et Rupture du Milieu Familial'.
8. Professor Shu-Ching Lee, 'Administration and Bureaucracy: The Power Structure in Chinese Society'.
9. Dr. K. V. Müller, 'Selektive Wanderung zwischen sowjetischen und westlichen Besatzungsgebiet in Deutschland'.
10. Dr. S. N. Eisenstadt, 'Social Mobility and the Evolution of Intergroup Leadership'.
11. Sakari Sariola, 'Defining Social Class in Two Finnish Localities'.
12. Asher Tropp, 'Factors affecting the Status of the School Teacher in England and Wales'.
13. Dr. A. W. Luijckx, 'Inquiry into the Mobility of Employment in the Dutch Middle Class'.
14. Professor Stuart C. Dodd and Dr. H. Winthrop. 'A Dimensional Theory of Social Diffusion'.
15. T. Brennan, 'Class Behaviour in Local Politics and Social Affairs'.
16. Professor G. Mackenroth, 'Bericht über das Forschungsvorhaben "Wandlungen der deutschen Sozialstruktur (am Beispiel des Landes Schleswig-Holstein".'
17. Professor A. A. Congalton, 'The Status of Research in New Zealand in the Field of Social Stratification'.
18. Prof. Radhakamal Mukerjee, 'Social Structure and Stratification of the Indian Nation'.
19. Prof. E. W. Hofstee, 'Changes in Rural Social Stratification in the Netherlands'.
20. Prof. F. van Heek, 'The Method of Extreme Types as a Tool for the Study of the Causes of Vertical Mobility'.
21. Prof. Helmut Schelsky, 'Die Bedeutung des Schichtungsbegriffes für die Analyse der gegenwärtigen deutschen Gesellschaft'.
22. Prof. Sylvain de Coster, 'Des Obstacles à l'Ascension Sociale par les Études'.
23. Thomas B. Bottomore, 'Higher Civil Servants in France'.
24. Prof. Erwin O. Smigel, 'Trends in Occupational Sociology in the United States'.
25. Prof. F. van Heek, 'Cross-National Enquiries and Group Studies about Social Stratification and Vertical Mobility in the Netherlands'.
26. Dr. Ida van Hulten, 'Summary of a Study of Social Mobility at the Philips Works, Eindhoven'.
27. Serge Utechin, 'Social Stratification and Social Mobility in the U.R.S.S.'
28. Prof. Kurt B. Mayer, 'The Theory of Social Classes'.
29. Dr. Paul C. Glick, 'Educational Attainment and Occupational Advancement'.
30. Prof. Reinhard Bendix, 'The Legitimation of an Entrepreneurial Class: The Case of England'.
31. L. J. Lebret, 'Note sur les Difficultés Rencontrées dans la Stratification Sociale'.

32. Johannes Nordal, 'The Recruitment of the Professions in Iceland'.
33. P. Chombart de Lauwe, 'Perception et Représentation dans les Études de Stratification et de Mobilité Sociales'.
34. Prof. Kaare Svalastoga, 'Measurement of Occupational Prestige. Methodology and Preliminary Findings Based on Danish Data'.
35. Prof. Isaac Ganon, 'Social Stratification in Uruguay'.
36. Henri Mendras, 'Structure de la Société Paysanne d'une Région du Sud de la France'.
37. F.-A. Isambert, 'Pratique Religieuse et Classes Sociales en France'.
38. Alain Touraine, 'Le Statut Social comme Champ d'Action'.
39. Louis Couvreur, 'Mobilité Sociale et Milieu Résidentiel'.
40. N. Xydias, 'Conscience de Classe et Mobilité Sociale à Vienne-en-France'.
41. Prof. Harold Pfautz, 'Social Stratification and Sociology'.
42. Dr. Sven-Erik-Astrøm, 'Literature on Social Mobility and Social Stratification in Finland'.
44. Norman Birnbaum, 'Social Class and Religion in the German Reformation'.
45. Prof. Seymour M. Lipset and Prof. Reinhard Bendix, 'Ideological Equalitarianism and Social Mobility in the United States'.
46. Lucien Brams, 'La Famille Ouvrière en France; Situation Matérielle; Vie Familiale (1900-1953)'.
47. Dr. Sverre Lysgaard, 'Social Stratification and the Deferred Gratification Pattern'.
48. Dr. Alessandro Lehner, 'Premiers Résultats d'une Enquête par Sondage Effectuée sur la Population de Rome'.
49. Mrs. J. E. Floud, Mr. F. M. Martin, Mr. A. H. Halsey, 'Equality of Educational Opportunity and Social Selection in Britain'.
50. Professor T. T. Segerstedt, 'An Investigation of Class-consciousness among Office Employees and Workers in Swedish Factories'.
51. Paul Minon, 'Choix d'une Profession et Mobilité Sociale'.
52. Nelson N. Foote, Walter R. Goldschmidt, Richard T. Morris, Melvin Seeman and Joseph Shister, 'Alternative Assumptions in Stratification Research'.

SECTION II. INTERGROUP CONFLICTS AND THEIR MEDIATION

ISA/L/IC/G/ . . .

1. Prof. Arnold Rose, 'Group Conflict and its Mediation—Hypotheses for Research'.
2. Prof. Heinrich Herrfahrdt, 'Die Bedeutung des Ausgleichs von Gruppengegensätzen für das Staatsleben der Gegenwart'.
3. Willard Johnson, 'Social Science Research and Intergroup Relations Agencies'.
4. Prof. Albin R. Gilbert, 'Inter-Ethnic Tensions and Mediation'.
5. Prof. Alberto Baldrich, 'Los Conflictos entre Grupos'.
6. Dr. H. Garcia Ortiz, 'Problemas Generales acerca de los Conflictos entre Grupos y su Solucion'.

ISA/L/IC/INT/. . .

1. Prof. Robert C. Angell, 'Sociological Research into the Problem of World Order'.
2. Prof. Helmut G. Callis, 'The Significance of Cultural Heritage in the Etiology and Adjustment of International Conflicts'.
3. Dr. Barrington Moore, 'Notes Toward a Theory of International Relations'.
4. Prof. Rudolf Blühdorn, 'Remarks on the Scientific Approach to some Sociological Problems involved in International Relations'.
5. Prof. Henri Janne, 'Le Rôle de la Méfiance Mutuelle dans l'Intégration Institutionnelle des États sous l'Empire de la Nécessité'.
6. Prof. Werner Levi, 'The Peaceful Solution of International Conflicts'.
7. Prof. Kurt H. Wolff, 'Preliminary Study of the German Ideology concerning the U.S.A.'.
8. Dr. F. Tenhaeff, 'Scandinavian Co-operation: An Example of Regionalistic Integration'.
9. Dr. Charles Boasson, 'Focalization and Fusion of Fear in International Tensions.'
10. Prof. W. J. H. Sprott, 'The Policy Makers'.

ISA/L/IC/IND/. . .

1. Dr. Dirk Horringa, 'Industrial Conflict in the Netherlands'.
2. Prof. Kunio Odaka, 'Identification with Union and Management in Japan'.
3. Prof. O. Kahn-Freund, 'Intergroup Conflicts and their Settlement'.
4. Dr. Franca Magistretti, 'Facteurs Sociologiques dans la Structuration Interne d'Équipes d'Ouvriers Industriels'.
5. Dr. J. Haveman, 'Social Tensions in the Relationship of the Farmer and Farm Labourer in an Agricultural District of Northern Holland'.
6. Prof. E. Wight Bakke, 'Organization and the Individual: The Fusion Process'.
7. Prof. Paul Horion, 'La Solution des Conflits Industriels en Belgique'.
8. Prof. Robert Dubin, 'Industrial Conflict and its Institutionalization'.
9. E. de Dampierre, 'Une Usine Rurale'.
10. Dr. R. M. Saksena, 'An Analysis of Labour Tensions in India'.
11. Mrs. Guilbert and Mrs. Isambert, 'Quelques Aspects Actuels de la Concurrence entre Travailleurs Masculins et Féminins dans l'Industrie en France'.
12. Dr. M. Crozier, 'Le Mouvement des "Relations Humaines" et l'Étude Objective des Rapports entre Patrons et Ouvriers'.
13. Dr. Theo Pirker, 'Problems of Industrial Conflicts and their Mediation'.
14. Prof. Harold L. Sheppard, 'Approaches to Conflict in American Industrial Sociology'.
15. Dr. Frans van Mechelen, 'Quelques Aspects de la Hiérarchie dans l'Entreprise Industrielle'.
16. Dr. K. G. J. C. Knowles, ' "Strike-Proneness" and its Determinants'.
17. Dr. Clark Kerr, 'Industrial Conflict and its Tactical and Strategical Mediation'.
18. Prof. Alfred Bonne, 'Institutional Resistances to Economic Progress'.

ISA/L/IC/RAC/. . .

1. Prof. Tadashi Fukutake, 'Influences of Emigrants in their Home Village'.
2. Prof. Stuart C. Dodd and Keith S. Griffiths, 'The Logarithmic Relation of Social Distance and Intensity'.
3. Prof. Radhakamal Mukerjee, 'Intergroup Conflicts in India'.
4. Prof. René Clémens, 'L'Assimilation des Italiens et des Polonais dans la Région Liégeoise'.
5. Dr. Sydney Collins, 'The Social Implications of Mixed Marriages in British Society'.
6. Pierre Fouilhe, 'Le Rôle de la Presse Enfantine dans l'Apprentissage aux Situations Conflictuelles'.
7. Dr. Edmund Dahlström, 'Esthonian Refugees in a Swedish Community'.
8. Alain Girard, 'L'Adaptation des Immigrés en France'.
9. Dr. Pierre Clement, 'Attitudes de la Population de Vienne-en-France vis-à-vis de Groupes Raciaux et Culturels Différents'.
10. Prof. H. Z. Ulken, 'De l'Hétérogénéité Ethnique et Religieuse vers l'Homogénéité Culturelle'.

SECTION III. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH

ISA/L/RD/. . .

1. Prof. A. N. J. den Hollander, 'A Survey of the Development of Sociology in the Netherlands, especially after World War II'.
2. Dr. S. F. Nadel, 'Sociological Research in Australia'.
3. Dr. H. J. Heeren, 'Report on the Development of the Social Sciences in Indonesia'.
4. Japan Sociological Society, 'Some Recent Trends in Japanese Sociology'.
5. Dr. K. A. Busia, 'Recent Developments in Sociological Research in West Africa'.
6. Dr. S. N. Eisenstadt, 'Sociology in Israel: 1948-1953'.
7. Dr. R. Girod, 'Rapport sur le Centre de Recherches Sociologiques sur les Relations Humaines—Genève'.
8. Dr. Nels Anderson, 'A Community Survey of Darmstadt, Germany'.
9. Kizaemon Ariga, Takashi Nakano, Kiyomi Morioka and John S. Morton, 'The Japanese Family'.
10. Dr. S. N. Eisenstadt, 'The Research Project on Leadership, Mobility and Communication'.
11. J. Ben-David, 'Report on the Research Project on Youth Movements in Israel'.
12. Prof. Stuart C. Dodd and Chahin Turabian, 'A Dimensional System of Human Values'.
13. Prof. L. Mendieta y Nuñez, 'Social Investigation in the National Autonomous University of Mexico'.
14. East African Institute of Social Research, 'Report on the East African Institute of Social Research'.
15. Jean Paul Poisson, 'Une Nouvelle Méthode en Sciences Humaines: l'Étude des Actes Notariés'.
16. Dr. Alphonse Silberman, 'Sociological Aspects of Radio-Music'.

17. Prof. G. Wurzbacher, 'Report on Aims, Methods and Present State of a Community Study of the Unesco Institute for Social Sciences, Cologne'.
18. Centre 'Économie et Humanisme', 'Travaux de Sociologie Entrepris par le Centre "Économie et Humanisme" '.
19. P. Chombart de Lauwe, 'Études Comparatives en Ethnologie Sociales et Applications'.
20. Dr. Knut Pipping, 'Report on the Unesco Study "Attitudes of the German Youth Toward Authority" '.
21. Prof. W. Banning, 'The Sociological Institute of the Dutch Reformed Church'.
22. Robert Pagès, 'Le Ton Affectif et les Mécanismes Sociaux'.
23. Danish Sociological Society, 'Recent Sociological Research in Denmark'.
24. Prof. René König, 'Report on Some Experiences in Social Research Work in Switzerland and Germany'.
25. Dr. Uriel G. Foa, 'Types of Formal Leaders: Their Role Perception and In-Group Contacts'.

ISA/L/RD/MISC./. . .

1. Prof. E. Dupréel, 'Sur une Généralisation de l'Objet de la Sociologie'.
2. I. Baltacioglu, 'Esquisse d'une Division Rationnelle de la Sociologie'.
3. Dr. A. M. Paredes, 'El Porvenir de la Filosofia y los Methodos Sociologicos'.
4. A. Povina, 'La Sociologia Argentina Contemporanea'.
5. C. A. Echenove Trujillo, 'Sociology and Social Thought in the Argentine Republic'.
6. B. H. Grand Ruiz, 'Aportes Sociologices del Existencialismo de Jean Paul Sartre'.
7. Ismaël Quiles, 'Aporte Social del Cristianismo'.

SECTION IV. THE TRAINING, PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF SOCIOLOGISTS

ISA/L/PAR/. . .

1. Prof. A. McClung Lee, 'Standards and Ethics in Sociological Research'.
2. Prof. C. Pellizi, 'Notes on the Professional Activities of Sociologists in Italy and on the Deontology of the Sociological Profession'.
3. V. Jagannadham, 'Problems of Social Policy and Social Planning with special reference to India'.
4. Prof. Everett C. Hughes, 'Professional and Career Problems of Sociology'.
5. Edgar Morin, 'A propos de la Formation des Sociologues en France'.
6. Prof. Georges Friedmann and Jean Tréanton, 'Remarques sur les Activités et Responsabilités Professionnelles des Sociologues en France'.
7. Prof. L. Mendieta y Nuñez, 'The Teaching of Sociology'.
8. Prof. Carroll D. Clark, 'The Relations of Public Institutions with Sources of Research Funds'.
9. Prof. S. M. Miller, 'The Choice of Research Projects'.
10. Dr. Glaister A. Elmer, 'Integrity: The First of the Field Research Requirements'.

11. Dr. Elbridge Sibley, 'Professional Activities and Responsibilities of Sociologists in the United States'.
12. Mrs. Ruth Glass, 'Detachment and Attachment'.
15. Prof. Pierre de Bie, 'Conclusions du Rapport Général sur l'Enseignement de la Sociologie, de la Psychologie et de l'Anthropologie Sociales'.

PART II

ORGANIZATION IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES
REVIEWS AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

I. ORGANIZATION IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

FOUR YEARS OF THE ISRAEL INSTITUTE OF APPLIED SOCIAL RESEARCH

U. G. Foa

The Israel Institute of Applied Social Research was founded at the beginning of 1949 under a grant from the Israel Government, following the research work done by Professor Louis Guttman[1] while in Israel on a fellowship of the Social Science Research Council of the United States. The institute is now registered as a non-profit, independent public institution. The main office is in Jerusalem, with fieldwork centres in Tel-Aviv and Haifa. Its income comes mainly from two sources: (a) government grant-in-aid, and (b) payments for commissioned projects, from Israel and other countries.

STAFF AND EQUIPMENT

The institute's permanent staff includes the scientific director, Dr. Louis Guttman, the executive director, an assistant director (administrative), five research associates in charge of projects, three technical workers, a librarian, a staff artist, and three clerical workers. The number of field workers and other part-time and temporary workers varies according to the changing needs of the projects carried out.

Its mechnical equipment includes: 2 Powers-Samas counting sorters, 1 automatic puncher, several hand punching and verifying machines, 4 automatic Marchant calculators, and 5 adding machines. A Powers-Samas universal counting-sorting-printing machine for three columns will be added shortly and will greatly facilitate cross-tabulation work.

The library includes about five hundred volumes, as well as journals and reprints, in the fields of psychology, social psychology, sociology and statistical analysis.

THE RESEARCH PROGRAMME

Applied Research

For the sake of brevity it seems preferable to mention only the major fields of research.[2]

An appreciable number of projects have been carried out in personnel, occupational and industrial psychology. They include a job analysis and job

[1] Uriel G. Foa, 'The Israel Institute of Applied Social Research: Its Structure and Purpose', *International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research*, Winter 1949-50.

[2] A list of projects will be supplied by the institute upon request.

evaluation programme for the government, the development and analysis of forms for rating workers' performance, and studies of job satisfaction and workers' morale for private concerns.

In the field of social organization, we might mention a large-scale study of new immigrants' adjustment, where interviews were conducted in 12 different languages; a study of new housing projects with special emphasis on building structure and social relationships in the neighbourhood (part of this is for a doctoral dissertation at Harvard University); a study of the Rabbinate in Israel as a social institution (for part of a doctoral dissertation at Columbia University); an inquiry into social relationship patterns in different types of rural settlements (for part of a doctoral dissertation at Yale University); and various other studies.

Other projects deal with problems of communications, such as studies of radio listening for the 'Voice of Israel' and the BBC; readership surveys, and a small-scale study of attitudes toward international exchange of information.

Some market and advertising research has been conducted by the institute.

Several recent studies dealt with personality problems. Among them: a research into the structure of psychosomatic complaints, and another into the structure of vocational preferences; a survey of psychoneurotic syndromes in new immigrants; and a study of the personality structure of the second generation in collective settlements. To this group of projects belongs also a current study of adjustment of members of collective agricultural settlements (part of a dissertation for the University of Stockholm, Sweden).

The institute has developed several new ability tests, and analysis of the tests' structure and validity were carried out.

Two large-scale structural studies are being carried out under contract with the Office of Naval Research of the U.S. Navy. The purpose of one of them is to test Guttman's new 'radex' theory of the structure of mental abilities, and the second deals with the structural relationship of attitudes having some higher principal components in common.

Another project now in process is concerned with the moral values of Israel's youth, where a cross-cultural comparison will be made among different countries of origin.

Various surveys deal with public opinion topics, vocational schools, and the analysis of the work of a social welfare agency. A considerable lag exists, of course, between completion of research and formal publication of findings in professional journals or in other form. For a number of completed projects a report to the client or sponsor has been prepared, but the material has still to be redrafted for publication. This regrettable situation is mainly owing to the fact that the institute's present budget has thus far not enabled it to free professional workers for the work of writing papers and doing the additional tabulations, etc. necessary for more basic and theoretical analyses of the data gathered. It is hoped that the situation will improve so that the considerable body of findings already at hand may be made available to fellow research workers.[1]

[1] A list of published papers, and of papers in preparation can be obtained from the Israel Institute on request.

Basic Research

The basic research done by the Israel Institute can be described by: *structural analysis*. But these two words are so inclusive as to cover almost any sociological and psychological topic, and they may become meaningless unless additional details are given.

The three main problems of structural analysis have all arisen in the institute's programme: (a) the creation of structural models; (b) the invention of techniques for testing the fitting of empirical data to the models; (c) the analysis of empirical data to see how well they fit the theoretical model.[1]

Often these steps have led to the opening up of entirely new vistas in the problems of defining concepts and classifying the subject matter, thus leading to new socio-psychological generalizations. At the same time, the existence of an empirically tested theoretical framework made possible the approach to applied problems in a simpler and more effective manner.

The work done at the institute in the analysis of measurable attitudes represents a good example of this type of approach. Guttman had already proved in his work with the U.S. Army that very many attitudes are measurable, i.e., they follow closely enough the theoretical scale model.[2] At the same time Guttman proved the mathematical existence of an infinite number of principal components on the scale model and even succeeded in identifying the first (content) and the second (intensity) component. The work of the Israel Institute has now led Guttman further to the psychological identification of the third (closure) and fourth (involution) principal components, thus greatly extending the realm of agreement of empirical data with the structural model. Indeed, in this case the model has led to new psychological principles which the empirical data uphold. Some consequences of this process of identification are: the freeing of attitude measurement from dependence on sample of items; the possibility of comparing attitudes in different languages and cultures; the understanding of the rather complicated relationship between various attitudes; the study of dynamics of attitudes and of the effects of operations designed to change attitudes (like advertising and psychological warfare); the possibility of detecting the true attitude of refusing and lying respondents; and a new approach to problems of personality structure in terms of general components. In sociometric analysis the third component suggests a way of objectively classifying groups.[3]

Another field in which progress in structural analysis has been made at the Israel Institute is that of mental abilities. Guttman's structural model of the 'radex' has proved to be well-fitted to empirical data. This makes possible the systematic construction and selection of new tests. It also shows that a small battery—properly selected—gives relatively satisfactory prediction for a given criterion, and proves that increasing the number of tests does not necessarily better their predictive power. 'Radex' theory also suggests new hypotheses on the nature of the learning process and on the functions of the cerebral cortex.

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[1] Louis Guttman, 'The Principal Components of Scalable Attitudes'; 'A New Approach to Factor Analysis: 'The Radex'; and 'The Theory of Facets', in Paul F. Lazarsfeld (editor), *Mathematical Thinking in the Social Sciences* (published in 1953).

[2] Stouffer *et al.*, *Measurement and Prediction*, Vol. IV of *Studies in Social Psychology in World War II*, Princeton University Press, 1950.

[3] For a preliminary suggestion in this direction see: Uriel G. Foa, 'Scale and Intensity Analysis in Sociometric Research', *Sociometry*, November 1951.

Other, more general theoretical models—such as nodular structures have also been developed by Louis Guttman. Lazarsfeld's 'latent structures' are all special cases of nodular structures. It is however too early to review their use with empirical data, several examples of which will be reported in the near future.

Even this necessarily sketchy review of work currently done at the Israel Institute in the field of structural analysis would not be complete without mentioning two other techniques which seem to contribute—in different ways—to the knowledge of structures: *image* analysis[1] and *facet* analysis.

Image analysis is a technique for splitting a set of observations belonging to a given universe of content into common and non-common components.

'Facet analysis' deals with the problem of designing the research project and defining its content. It is based on the semantic analysis of the subject of the research in order to clarify its component parts. In a given research project each part of 'facet' may remain constant, or may cover a range of semantic values. This preliminary semantic analysis sets the ground for the formulation of hypotheses about the structure of the universe.

OTHER ACTIVITIES

Two weekly seminars are conducted. One, on current research problems, although conducted primarily for the institute's own staff, is open to and regularly attended by research personnel from several government ministries, the Israel Defence Army, welfare institutions and the Hebrew University. The second seminar, on the mathematics underlying the structural theories, is attended only by qualified staff members.

Advice is also given to government and army workers, students, etc. on the carrying out of research projects. Training facilities are currently offered to graduate students from abroad. In the period under review, three graduate students from the United States and one from Sweden have received training at the institute.

The institute has started the publication of a series of Hebrew translations of basic books in sociology and psychology. The first volume (*Psychology*, by R. S. Woodworth) has already been published, and others are planned.

During 1951 a small digest of research findings was published. A full-fledged scientific quarterly was being planned to begin publication in 1953, tentatively entitled, The Israel Journal of Sociology and Psychology. While serving to disseminate the scientific findings of the institute, this journal will also serve as a medium of publication for other research workers, both in Israel and abroad. It will be in the English language.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

In the four years under review the interplay of pure and applied research has been fruitful and rewarding. Several of the institute's new techniques are, at least in part, a product of this crossfertilization. It may be expected that this stimulating process will continue to bear fruit in the future.

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[1] See Louis Guttman, *The Israel Alpha Technique for Scale Analysis: A Preliminary Statement.* The Israel Institute for Applied Social Research, Jerusalem, 1951. Stencilled.

The progress of research should not, however, be an end in itself. The ultimate purpose is to use social research for the benefit of the people; its findings are to be applied and translated into concrete action. The accomplishment of this aim calls for the education and training of the administrator in order to enable him to know when to call in the social researcher and how to use his findings.

Since the beginning of its activities, the Israel Institute has striven to establish close contacts and collaboration with government, welfare, business, and industrial leaders in order to familiarize them with the purposes and the use of social research as a powerful tool for reaching administrative decisions. Appreciable progress has been made in this field, and administrators are turning more and more to the institute for help in the solution of their problems. However the institute is far from being fully exploited, and the education of the Israel administrator will have to be continued and increased in the future.

In conclusion: the progress made in the past four years, both in pure and applied research, may give reason for some satisfaction, especially in view of the limited financial means which have been at the institute's disposal and the absence of any previous tradition for such a programme in Israel.

Greater efforts however are to be made in order to consolidate the basic discoveries of the institute, exploit the Israel opportunities for testing sociological hypotheses, and enable the institute to contribute its full share toward the development of the country and the progress of research in human behaviour.

Since this report was first prepared, the Israel Institute of Applied Social Research has carried out several other research projects. For instance, two studies might be mentioned, dealing with an analysis of the activities of two different kinds of organizations: a large welfare agency and the production councils of several factories. Another is concerned with certain aspects of the economic behaviour of consumers and with the possible influence of different rates of taxes and excise duties on this behaviour. A project on the morale and interpersonal relationship of the sea-going personnel of a shipping firm is already near completion. Finally, the institute has just carried out a study of tension and inter-community relations on behalf of Unesco and in collaboration with the Hadassah Medical Organization.

In recent months the institute has received a grant of $55,000 from the Ford Foundation in order to carry out in the next two years two projects which seem to be of special importance. One of them deals with civic values of youth and with the discovery of ways and methods for educating youth toward the values of a democratic society. The second is concerned with problems of workers' morale and related topics of personnel management.

REPORT ON THE FIRST PLENARY GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL SCIENCE COUNCIL

Unesco House, 19 Avenue Kléber, Paris-16e
Paris, 15-18 December 1953

The first plenary General Assembly of the International Social Science Council met at Unesco House in Paris from 15 to 18 December, following a meeting of the Executive Committee on 14 December 1953.

It should be recalled that the council held its Constituent Assembly at Unesco House in Paris from 6 to 9 October 1952, at which time it was composed of 10 members. During 1953, in accordance with a decision of the Constituent Assembly, 2 members were appointed by the International Union of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences, and 6 members were co-opted by the original 10 members. Thus, when the first plenary General Assembly met, the council comprised the following 18 members.

Initial 10 members: *president :* D. Young (United States), member of the Executive Committee. General Director of the Russel Sage Foundation (New York); appointed by the International Sociological Association; *vice-president:* G. Davy (France), member of the Executive Committee. Dean of the Faculty of Letters and Professor of Sociology, University of Paris; appointed by the International Sociological Association; *treasurer:* E. A. G. Robinson (United Kingdom), member of the Executive Committee. Professor of Economics, Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge; appointed by the International Economic Association.

Members: D. N. Banerjee (India), Professor of Political Science, University of Calcutta; appointed by the International Association of Political Science; A. Bertrand (France), Professor of Law, Director of Studies at the École Nationale d'Administration (Paris); appointed by the International Committee of Comparative Law; O. Klineberg (United States), Professor of Psychology, Columbia University (New York); appointed by the International Union of Scientific Psychology; F. H. Lawson (United Kingdom), Professor of Law, Brasenose College, Oxford; appointed by the International Committee of Comparative Law; P. H. Odegard (United States), member of the Executive Committee. Professor of Political Science, University of California (Berkeley); appointed by the International Association of Political Science; J. Piaget (Switzerland), member of the Executive Committee. Professor of Psychology, Universities of Geneva and Paris; appointed by the International Union of Scientific Psychology; V. Travaglini (Italy), Professor of Political Economy, University of Genoa; appointed by the International Economic Association.

New members: (a) Appointed by the International Union of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences: A. Caso y Andrade (Mexico), Director of the Instituto Indigenista Nacional; Professor of Anthropology, Escuela Nacional de Antropologia e Historia; C. D. Forde (United Kingdom), Professor of Anthropology, University College (London); (b) members co-opted under Article 4, Paragraph 3 of the Statutes: S. Groenman (Netherlands), Professor of Sociology at the Universities of Utrecht and Amsterdam; Director of the Institute for Social Research in the Netherlands; H. Kelsen (United States), Professor of International Law, Naval War College, Newport, R.I., U.S.A.; G. Kuriyan (India), Professor of Geography, University of Madras; S. Morcos (Egypt), Professor at the Faculty of Law, University of Cairo; A. Rustow (Germany), Professor of Sociology and Economics, University of Heidelberg; Director of the Alfred Weber Institute of Social and Political Sciences (Heidelberg); F. Vito (Italy), Dean of the Department of Political and Social Sciences, Sacred Heart University of Milan; Editor of the International Review of Social Sciences (Milan).

Secretary-General: Claude Levi-Strauss (France), Professor at the École Pratique des Hautes Études; Secretary-General of the Ethnological Institute of the University of Paris.

Of the above-mentioned 18 members, 6 were unable to attend the meeting, viz.: Professors Alfonso Caso, C. D. Forde, H. Kelsen, F. H. Lawson, S. Morcos and V. Travaglini.

The following international organizations sent observers: International Council of Scientific Unions: Prof. Perès. International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies: Professors Syme and d'Omesson. International Committee for Social Sciences Documentation: Mr. Jean Meyriat.

The Unesco secretariat was represented by Mrs. Alva Myrdal, Director of the Department of Social Sciences, assisted by Mr. de Lacharrière, Assistant Director, Dr. Szczerba-Likiernik, Mr. Phillips, Dr. Friedman and Dr. Diaz-Gonzales.

A few experts or associates of the council's secretariat also attended some sessions, viz.: Mrs. Claire Balandier, Assistant to the Secretary-General for the International Office on Social Implications of Technological Change; Mr. G. Th. Guilbaud, Institute of Applied Economics, Paris, programme expert; Mr. Jean Paul Trystram, Director of the Institute for Applied Psychology and Sociology, Casablanca (Morocco), in charge of a short-term project in the Near and Middle East.

The inaugural address was delivered by Mr. Luther H. Evans, Director-General of Unesco; he pointed out the financial, statutory and budgetary problems requiring most urgent solution, and emphasized the importance of the council's work. Following this speech, the president, Dr. Donald Young, proposed and the assembly approved the following agenda presented by the Executive Committee:

1. Report of the secretary-general.
2. Financial report.
3. Programme of the council.
4. Programme of the Department of Social Sciences.
5. Agreements with Unesco.
6. Relations with other organizations.
7. Extraordinary General Assembly. Revision of the statutes.
8. Special projects submitted to the council by persons or organizations.
9. Election of the Executive Committee and officers.
10. Miscellaneous questions.

1 AND 2. REPORT OF THE SECRETARY-GENERAL AND FINANCIAL REPORT

The secretary-general explained that those two reports were closely connected. During its first year, the council had encountered statutory and budgetary difficulties and the latter had had repercussion upon the former. With regard to the statutes, as adopted by the Constituent Assembly they did not provide for alternates for members prevented from attending meetings of the Executive Committee and/or the General Assembly. Therefore, amendments had been prepared by the Executive Committee to be discussed under item 7 of the agenda. As to the council's finances, they did not actually cover annual meetings of the General Assembly and of the Executive Committee, thus the need for a decision as to the frequency of meetings.

The secretary-general went on to say that the council's various activities (research programme, agreements with Unesco, etc.) would be discussed in connexion with corresponding items on the agenda. However, he pointed out the difficulties—quite normal for a young organization—which had arisen in setting up an active and effective collaboration both between the council members themselves, and between the council as a whole and Unesco, the nongovernmental organizations and the international social science associations.

The financial report (annex to the secretary-general's report) showed that the annual subvention of $15,000 granted by Unesco to the council would not have covered expenses if all the members had been able to attend the General Assembly. It was this difficult situation which had to be remedied.

During the discussion, Professors Davy and Robinson stressed that it would be unwise to let temporarily low finances give rise to an amendment to the statutes intended to fix definitely the length of intervals between general assemblies. As the existing statutes did not stipulate any strict periodicity of meetings, the assembly was perfectly free to set the date of its next meeting without changing the statutes.

Professor Odegard and the president pointed out to the Unesco secretariat that certain agreements. concluded with the Department of Social Sciences, had burdened the council with administrative expenses which increased its material difficulties. Mrs. Myrdal was aware of these difficulties and would try to remedy them. Professor Vito said these problems must be solved, in particular so that the council should be able to call upon international collaboration (choice of its experts, its mission chiefs and members of its secretariat) much more widely than had been possible in the past.

Finally, Professor Piaget expressed the wish that the council share more actively in the work of Unesco and that the Department of Social Sciences accept to intermediate between the council and the national advisory commissions.

At the end of this discussion, the General Assembly unanimously approved the report of the secretary-general and the financial report.

3. PROGRAMME OF THE COUNCIL

The secretary-general recalled the discussions and exchange of views which resulted in the drawing up of a special document on the programme. During its second session (April 1953), the Executive Committee had decided that the council should try to develop scientific collaboration, on international and inter-disciplinary levels, by recommending one or several research projects to scientists. The first project which the Executive Committee had decided to propose to the General Assembly concerned the influence of changes in scale on the characteristics of social groups and on the nature of social problems. The preliminary documents, drawn up in collaboration with Mr. G. Th. Guilbaud, aimed only at proposing a sampling of the problems which may be faced and stimulating discussion.

The general discussion on the programme brought to light a great number of suggestions, observations and criticisms which are summarized below.

Professor Piaget found the subject, from the psychological point of view, interesting. Psychologists encountered problems closely connected to those concerning changes in scale, such as: the different kinds of restraints and pressures exerted on individuals varied in relation to the size of their groups. Furthermore, psychologists were constantly aware of group structures, taking into account their reversible or irreversible nature, and the global characteristics which were also dependent on their size.

Professor Bertrand said that after consultation with various members of the International Committee of Comparative Law, he was convinced of the importance of the problem for his discipline. He outlined the following points:

1. Public law: the structure of public powers in relation to the size of states.
2. Administrative law: the problem of 'deconcentration' and decentralization, the optimum degree of which is also affected by changes in scale.
3. Commercial law: problems such as those resulting from business law, property laws in connexion with the surface of land exploited, and labour legislation in connexion with the size of business concerns as well as of employers' and labour organizations.
4. Evolution of legal systems: such as can be studied, for example, in the evolution of common law transferred from English to American society.

Professor Groenman would like the working paper to be presented more logically and less impressionistically. Referring to the work of Professor Gurvitch, he suggested that the problems be divided into 'micro' problems, group problems and 'macro' problems. He approved of Professor Odegard's suggestion to organize the studies from the triple perspective of space, time, and number. Both professors thought that the problems,

thus subdivided, should be considered in relation to their sociological, economic, psychological, legal, etc., implications.

Dean Davy recalled that he had himself proposed a formulation of the problem at the last meeting of the Executive Committee. He was sorry that the working paper placed the questions relating to problems and those relating to structures on the same level. In his view the quantitative aspect was not fundamental. Rather, it was a question of crises in equilibrium resulting from the conflict between the problems and the structures. Hence, these questions should be considered more dynamically and less statically, with the help of psychology and history. Problems of sovereignty and size of the economic market could be resolved by a differential analysis of similar situations in the past.

Professor Vito also thought that social science could not limit itself to a purely quantitative point of view. As an economist, he saw two correlative aspects of the problem changes in scale:

1. Does the nature of economic groups actually change because of an increase in their size? As examples, he gave the field of human relations in industry, questions of optimum size in business enterprises, and nationalization questions.
2. Not only do the groups change, with a growth in size, but the nature of the problems met with also change. Thus, economic theory can be satisfactory for one level and much less so for another.

Professor Rüstow found the working paper too extensive, too abstract and too rationalistic. He recalled, along with Professor Odegard, the philosophical origins (Plato, Aristotle and the Sophists) of the problem of changes in scale. Both professors believed that account should be taken of the extensive work undertaken in the past. The task which lay ahead was to find out what actually had been achieved. Professor Rüstow thought the disproportionate size of existing groups in relation to the traditional 'optimum' was a significant fact in the modern world. The problem had been reversed with regard to its old formulation. It was now necessary to discover those new structures which could be introduced into overgrown groups to bring about hierarchical integration. The council would be fully justified to undertake the study of this problem since it had never been dealt with theoretically.

Professor Klineberg wished, from a somewhat different angle than that of Professor Piaget, to show how the problem interested psychologists. For instance, he would like to have the following questions answered:

1. Does an urban mentality exist?
2. Can the relation between majority and minority change numerically to such an extent that it reaches a saturation point?
3. Can the results of studies made on behaviour in very small groups be applied to behaviour in much larger groups?
4. Are the causes for conformity identical in groups of very different sizes?
5. What are the effects of past experiences of size on changes of scale?

After the above views were exchanged and Mr. Guilbaud gave his comments, the Assembly proceeded to consider research methods. Professor Robinson, supported by Professors Banerjee, Odegard, Klineberg, Bertrand and Vito, proposed that on the basis of the preceding discussion a questionnaire be prepared by the secretariat and sent to the various international social science associations. This questionnaire should ask the associations to formulate and analyse the problem of changes in scale in relation to their respective disciplines. The answers of the associations should then be collated in order to sift out those analogies which could form the basis of an inter-disciplinary programme to be elaborated by the Executive Committee, with the advice of the council members. It was so agreed upon.

On the proposal of Mrs. Myrdal and Dr. Szczerba-Likiernik, it was understood that Unesco would endeavour to contribute to the drawing up of the programme by appropriately orienting certain documents prepared by the Department of Social Sciences, such as 'Trend Reports', the *International Social Science Bulletin*, etc.

4. PROGRAMME OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

Invited by the president to comment on her department's programme, Mrs. Myrdal stated that chief consideration had been given to the problem of maintaining continuity in the department's work, as well as keeping account of the suggestions forwarded to the department through the intermediary of the National Commissions. The programme was based on Unesco's double role *vis-à-vis* the social sciences: to aid in their development and to focus social science research on problems of international interest.

Corresponding to the first role, under the title of aid to international scientific co-operation, the department would strive to facilitate the translation of works and documents into the less accessible languages. At least one regional social conference would be organized. Depending on the amount of funds available, specialized missions would be sent to certain countries to help reorganize the traditional academic structures for the teaching of social science. Furthermore, an attempt may be made to evaluate the practical results of certain theoretical research projects. Work would continue on questions of terminology and a particular effort would be made to popularize the main results of social science research by means of pamphlets or brochures.

As regards the second aspect, the realm of applied social science, the department's programme included:

1. Studies of Tensions and International Collaboration. The department would attempt to exploit the results of public opinion polls so as to build up an international public opinion barometer. Study would also be made of the manner in which mass media delivered—and distorted—important international news.
2. Industrialization and Economic Development. The department contemplated the setting up of regional research centres for the study of these problems as well as studies on the social conditions of productivity and various forms of community development.
3. Human Rights. Particular attention would be paid to the rights of women, especially regarding education and legislation. Concerning race problems, a conference was to be held in Honululu during 1954 to discuss the establishment of an international co-ordinating centre for studies on race relations.
4. Evaluation Studies. The study of techniques which had been used or could be used to evaluate the practical results of international action programmes would be undertaken, as well as of programmes for the improvement of relations between social groups.

Despite the complexity of its programme, the department would bear in mind that Unesco's role was to co-ordinate and stimulate research, and to facilitate the publicizing of results, while leaving the research work itself to other bodies.

Various questions were asked by Professors Banerjee and Kuriyan, particularly with regard to the projects bearing upon the teaching of social science at the secondary school level. A discussion took place on this subject during which Dean Davy emphasized the diversity of local situations and offered the French case as suggesting that comparative studies should be considered.

Professors Odegard and Klineberg agreed that research on evaluation techniques should be conducted so as to improve the functioning of Unesco, and especially its distribution of publications.

Professors Bertrand and Davy expressed the hope that the proportion of the Department of Social Sciences' budget in relation to Unesco's general budget be increased as soon as possible. Dean Davy laid particular stress on the fact that social science requires certain material means of research (libraries, seminars, etc.) which paralleled the laboratories of natural science, the need for which no one contested.

5. AGREEMENTS WITH UNESCO

The secretary-general gave an account of the agreements concluded or under way. Firstly, at Unesco's request, Professor Barbara Wootton of Bedford College had been

asked for a report on the techniques which could be used to evaluate the 'balance sheet' of social science. Two committees of experts had met under the presidency of Dr. Klineberg, one in New York and the other in Paris; they had prepared the foundation of the International Research Office on the Social Implications of Technical Change. Finally, research had just been completed on the social implications of industrialization in several countries of the Near and Middle East, under the direction of Mr. Jean Paul Trystram. It was these latter two questions which most concerned the assembly:

International Research Office on the Social Implications of Technological Change

Mr. Philipps, of the Unesco secretariat, described the three functions which Unesco had assigned to this organization: (a) To fill in the gaps of scientific knowledge in this field. (b) To undertake or facilitate pilot research inquiries. (c) To prepare in the future to undertake research on a contractual basis for government and research institutions.

Having examined the working papers prepared by Mrs. Claire Balandier, assistant to the secretariat for the Research Office, Mr. Phillips hoped an effort would be made to define and classify the main problems, i.e. the social causation of technological change, its effects, and the mechanisms of adjustments. However, it must not be forgotten that these three aspects varied considerably in relation to the types of society in which technological changes took place. Professor Groenman drew attention to certain aspects of the problem which were not included in the working papers, such as leisure time, the training of youth, and religious practices. He also thought that one should refrain from considering rapid change as unavoidably pathological.

The secretary-general and Mrs. Balandier then outlined the accomplishments of the Research Office during its three months' existence. A card-index file had been started for publications, persons, institutions and problems. A network of correspondents was being built up. As of the beginning of 1954, specialized critical bibliographies were to be prepared and distributed as a news letter. And finally, in accordance with its agreement with Unesco, the Research Office was to organize a seminar in March 1954 on the subject of economic motivation and incentives in customary and 'modernist' surroundings.

Professor Odegard believed that in this as in other fields one had first to know and evaluate the work already accomplished. The theoretical and practical knowledge to be gained from the Tennessee Valley Authority and the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission was most valuable. With Professors Bertrand and Vito, he stressed the importance of this type of research in countries not generally considered underdeveloped.

Dean Davy made various comments during the discussion which followed on the outline of the classification system prepared by the Research Office. (The Research Office made note of these comments for future reference.) The assembly approved the Research Office's proposed course of action. At the same time, it particularly recommended that existing bibliographical sources be evaluated, and it hoped to see the Research Office become an institute within the next few years.

Research on the Social Implications of Industrialization in Several Countries of the Near and Middle East

Mr. Jean Paul Trystram, director of the Institute for Applied Psychology and Sociology, Casablanca (Morocco), reported on the mission assigned to him by the council. He had confided three monographic surveys to Professor Findikoglu, Istan ul University (Turkey); Professor Hassan El Saaty, University of Alexandria (Egypt); and Mrs. Charlotte Chidiac, Beirut (Lebanon).

On the basis of the above research as well as a personal survey of Turkey, Egypt and Lebanon, Mr. Trystram said there existed tremendous differences between the industrial evolution of Western and Eastern countries. In the former, the industrial revolution resulted from a long process of evolution, and in the latter, it was imposed from the

outside. Urban way of life well preceded the introduction of machinery in the countries he had studied. On the other hand, the machines imported were perfected enough for labour to adapt itself very rapidly. The psychological and social changes taking place in these countries should be related to the political rather than the economic conditions. He mentioned, in conclusion, the practical difficulties he had met with in organizing the research.

Professor Vito agreed to the fundamental differences outlined by Mr. Trystram. He believed the council should plan a special study on the applicability of Western technology to underdeveloped Eastern countries. Dean Davy said that his personal experience confirmed the conclusions of Mr. Trystram. Professor Banerjee, however, doubted that it was possible to extend these conclusions to other countries, particularly India. Professor Kuriyan, as well as Professor Vito, thought that very careful consideration should be given in extending Western technology to other regions of the world.

6. RELATIONS WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

Turning to this item of the agenda, the assembly considered first its relations with non-governmental organizations: the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies and the International Council of Scientific Unions. Professor Peres, representative of the latter council, indicated that collaboration was most desirable not only with the council as a whole, but with its component bodies. Professor Klineberg said that the principle of multiple affiliations should eventually allow international social science associations to be represented by two and sometimes even three councils (as the psychologists would like to do). The president and Professor Robinson both wished for much closer co-operation between the three councils and, in particular, between the disciplines which these councils represented. It was so agreed upon.

Relations with the International Committee for Social Sciences Documentation, represented by its secretary-general, Mr. Jean Meyriat were next discussed. Mr. Meyriat expressed his appreciation for the personal relations which had been established between the two organizations, through the intermediary of Professors Bertrand and Vito who belonged to both. He outlined the particular points on which his organization would like to have the council's views:

1. Should the committee undertake a bibliography of marginal fields which, strictly speaking, do not belong to social science but are of great interest to it? Thus, for example, cybernetics, certain fields of medicine, etc.
2. Should the committee undertake the publication of a bibliography of social and cultural anthropology on the basis of the following points agreed to by the president of the International Union of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences: (a) not to encroach upon the field of existing regional bibliographies; (b) to keep to those aspects of anthropology which are of common interest to all the social sciences.
3. In its relations with social science, should the committee, in the distant future, become interested in statistics?

When Mr. Meyriat finished his account, the secretary-general said that as an anthropologist he was very interested in an anthropological bibliography set up within the limited framework outlined by the president of the International Union. Professor Bertrand, the council's official representative to the International Committee for Social Sciences Documentation, stressed the importance of the council's responsibility in the formulation of the committee's general policy. Both he and Dr. Szczerba-Likiernik knew that the funds of the International Committee were insufficient for the many complex tasks which it was successfully performing. Professor Klineberg would like the committee to become interested in social psychology and Professor Groenman expressed the same wish for statistics; work along this last line could result in a handbook for social scientists. Professor Odegard posed the problem of interdisciplinary bibliographies which Professor Robinson thought raised many difficulties.

Finally, several members of the assembly (Professors Klineberg, Vito and the secretary-general) drew Mr. Meyriat's attention to the considerable interest offered by critical bibliographies of scientific publications in the less accessible languages (such as Russian and Japanese).

The assembly next discussed the relations of the council with international social science associations. These organizations had complained, on several occasions, of not being kept up to date on the council's activities. The question arose as to whether merely to limit relations to those normally established through the intermediary of council members appointed by the associations, or to have more direct collaboration between the secretaries-general. After the president and Professors Banerjee, Bertrand, Odegard and Robinson had discussed the matter, it was decided that the second measure should be adopted, which meant that in the near future the present reports would be sent to the international associations to be followed by the report on the programme as outlined above (item 3 of the agenda).

The last question raised under item 6 concerned relations with national social science councils. Wherever such councils existed, the International Social Science Council could clearly set up useful contacts with them. But, as Professors Rüstow and Vito urged the council to bear in mind, each country had its own set-up for scientific research and the council should not indiscriminately prefer the national council type of organism. This question was to be studied further by the Executive Committee so that a report could be made to the next general assembly.

7. EXTRAORDINARY GENERAL ASSEMBLY. REVISION OF THE STATUTES

The assembly examined the Executive Committee's proposals to amend the statutes so as to allow absent members to be replaced by alternates at general assemblies as well as at meetings of the Executive Committee. (Statutes, Article 3, para. 4; Article 4, para. 8; Article 8, para. 6.) After some discussion, the above proposals—slightly altered—were voted for by seven in favour to three against, and a new wording of the French text was unanimously adopted. The whole matter was voted upon and then unanimously adopted.

Regarding periodicity of meetings (see above, items 1 and 2 of the agenda), Dean Davy said that the statutes did not stipulate any set timing for meetings of the General Assembly. Professor Bertrand and Dr. Szczerba-Likiernik emphasized the necessity of co-ordinating these meetings with those of Unesco's General Conference. It was, therefore, decided that the next meeting of the Executive Committee would take place at the end of 1954 and the next General Assembly would meet in 1955 at a date to be set by the Executive Committee.

Some members of the council (Professors Vito and Banerjee) thought that the number of Executive Committee members should be increased so as to enlarge its authority, precisely because the General Assembly was to meet less often. But Professors Davy and Robinson thought this unnecessary since the amendments to the statutes guaranteed that the Executive Committee would always meet with full membership. Moreover, the president, as well as Professors Bertrand and Robinson, pointed out that an enlargement of the Executive Committee would require another revision of the statutes, i.e., another convocation of the Extraordinary General Assembly.

Finally, the proposals of the Drafting Committee (Professors Davy and Robinson) were unanimously adopted after being modified during the discussion. They were:

1. Not to increase the membership of the Executive Committee, since adoption of the amendments on alternates will ensure that the statutory number of five members will from now always be present.
2. In view of present financial difficulties, to hold the next meeting of the Executive Committee in December 1954, and the next meeting of the General Assembly in 1955, at a date to be set by the Executive Committee.
3. To use in 1954 whatever funds may remain available under the heading of meetings to permit the Executive Committee to organize one or several committees of social

scientists, chosen among the members of the council or outside, on a topic or topics to be selected by the Executive Committee later on, among those which may further the development of the activities of the council within the general framework of the decisions taken by the assembly.

The assembly then turned to a legal point raised by Professor Kuriyan, namely: Article 13 of the statutes stipulated that they were subject to ratification by the present General Assembly. Did this mean that the General Assembly had the power to make any change in the statutes which might be deemed necessary? Professors Odegard, Vito, Banerjee, Davy, Piaget and Bertrand participated in the discussion and it was then agreed that:

1. The statutes, as they had just been amended, were ratified by the General Assembly.
2. In delivering the new text to the council members, the Executive Committee would give them the opportunity to make new proposals for revision at the next General Assembly, especially in regard to those points which had raised different opinions during the present General Assembly.

8. SPECIAL PROJECTS SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL BY PERSONS OR ORGANIZATIONS

The president said that he had been approached by the Division of Population Problems of the United Nations on the subject of the council's organizing, in 1955, a seminar on population studies and the contribution which the various social sciences could offer. Mrs. Myrdal, Professors Vito, Robinson and Banerjee stressed the interest of this proposition. It was decided to offer the council's patronage to a seminar which would be organized, early in 1954, in co-operation with Unesco's Department of Social Sciences. Professor Groenman was appointed to represent the council.

9. ELECTION OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE AND OFFICERS

Professor Piaget reported in the name of the Nominations Committee composed of himself and Professors Bertrand, Klineberg and Kuriyan. The Nominations Committee thought that five members alone did not allow for a permanent representation of all disciplines on the Executive Committee and that a rotation system should be considered in the future. For instance, two members of the Executive Committee could withdraw every two years, the others remaining in order to maintain continuity.

The Nominations Committee then proposed that the present officers be re-elected. However, since Professor Odegard had decided to withdraw from the Executive Committee because of his heavy academic duties, the Nominations Committee proposed that he be replaced by Professor Lawson with the result that Law would be represented on the committee.

Professor Vito, agreeing with Professor Piaget, insisted that the rotation system should bear in mind regional as well as disciplinary representation.

The assembly unanimously voted upon the proposals of the Nominations Committee and also re-elected the present members of the bureau, viz. president, D. Young; vice-president, G. Davy; treasurer, E. A. G. Robinson.

10. MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS

On Professor Piaget's instigation, the assembly thanked Miss Zula Melup who was leaving the council after having devoted a year's work to the secretariat with exceptional ability.

On the proposal of Professor Klineberg, the assembly congratulated the secretary-general, for the results achieved during the course of the first year.

APPENDIX

MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE ON 19 DECEMBER 1953

The newly-elected Executive Committee met on the morning of 19 December. Present were: Dr. Donald Young, president, Dean Georges Davy, vice-president, Professor Robinson, treasurer and Professor Piaget, member. Absent was Professor Lawson, member, replaced by Professor Klineberg, who was appointed by the president in accordance with the new amendments to the statutes.

Election of the Secretary-General. The Executive Committee unanimously decided to re-elect Professor Claude Lévi-Strauss as secretary-general.

Next Meeting of the Executive Committee. Taking into account the date of Unesco's General Conference, to be held in Montevideo from October-November 1954, it was decided that the next meeting of the Executive Committee would take place during the third week of December 1954.

Suggestion of Unesco's Executive Council. The Department of Social Sciences had informed the General Assembly of a recommendation of Unesco's Executive Council expressing the wish that the collaboration between Unesco and the council should be strengthened. The assembly decided to thank the Executive Council through the intermediary of the Department of Social Sciences and to assure it of the council's intention to assist Unesco in all matters in which it felt itself to be competent.

Unesco's Subvention. It was decided that the secretary-general would ask Unesco to accept a new breakdown of the subvention because of the General Assembly's decision concerning periodicity of meetings and the increase of several budgetary chapters.

Revision of the Statutes and Rules of Procedure. Dean Davy recommended that great prudence be shown in the ultimate revision of the statutes at the next General Assembly. It was not at all his intention to deprive the General Assembly of an occasion to revise the statutes and the item could be placed on the agenda. However, he did not think the Executive Committee should take the initiative of urging such a revision. On the contrary, Professor Vito would like a subcommittee to handle this problem particularly as well as rules of procedure before the next General Assembly. The president proposed and it was decided that with regard to rules of procedure, the secretary-general would keep in close touch with the most accessible council members. Professor Vito agreed to let the president eventually appoint a subcommittee which would include Professors Bertrand and Lawson, both proposed by Professor Robinson.

Concerning revision of the statutes, the Executive Committee acknowledged that, notwithstanding Dean Davy's contrary opinion, it should abide by the decision unanimously taken by the General Assembly (Dean Davy having not been present at that particular time), i.e. without urging that the statutes be revised, the opportunity would be given to council members to express their points of view regarding this matter, in connexion with the preparation of the next General Assembly and before the next meeting of the Executive Committee.

The president informed the Executive Committee of preliminary conversations he had had with the Population Council concerning the organization of a seminar on demographic evolution in underdeveloped countries. The Executive Committee unanimously agreed that he should continue these negotiations.

The president suggested that the Executive Committee act upon the recommendation of Unesco's Executive Council that the International Council should acquire a permanent form as soon as possible. He proposed to abandon the term 'provisional' in the title of the council. Professors Davy, Robinson and Klineberg indicated

their agreement and said that since the term 'provisional' had not been stipulated in the statutes, the council was free to abandon it at any suitable occasion. It was unanimously decided that the title henceforth used would be: International Social Science Council.

THE INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH OFFICE FOR THE STUDY OF THE SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

The Provisional International Social Science Council, at the request of the Department of Social Sciences of Unesco, undertook the task of preparing recommendations regarding the establishment, the scope and the functions of a research office (which might later develop into a research centre) for the study of the Social Implications of Technological Change. As a consequence two meetings were held, one at Columbia University in New York, and one at Unesco House in Paris, at which consultants representing a number of different social science disciplines, and having experience in many different geographical areas, joined in a discussion of the problems involved. The following memorandum constitutes an attempt to bring together the principal suggestions which emerged, with special emphasis on those regarding which there appeared to be general agreement. The limited budget at present available (a total of $26,000 for the two years 1953-54) makes it imperative to establish a specific plan of activities with well-defined priorities, keeping in mind both immediate and long-run considerations.

SCOPE OF THE PROJECT

The first task is to determine the precise meaning to be attached to the title of the project, the Social Implications of Technological Change. What problems, what techniques, and what geographical areas should be included? In a sense, the title is both too narrow and too broad. It is too narrow, because the causal relationship can be seen in both directions; technological changes have effects on social situations and human beings, but at the same time such changes may be facilitated or retarded by social situations and human factors, attitudes and value systems. It is too broad because no one research office or centre can hope to deal adequately with all the social and human implications of all aspects of technological change.

In an attempt to clarify and define more accurately the scope of the project, several alternative titles were suggested. These included: (a) social and human problems arising from the transference of techniques from economically more developed to less developed areas; (b) the social and human implications of the introduction of industrial methods in non-industrialized areas; (c) the social implications of short-term changes in limited areas; (d) the social implications of the mechanization of agriculture and the need for increased agricultural productivity; (e) the social implications of the introduction of new industrial methods and products, and of new agricultural techniques and products, in non-industrialized areas.

Since there was no complete agreement on a new title for the project, and since continuity is desirable for purposes of effective planning, it is suggested that the project remain the Social Implications of Technological Change, and that the following considerations serve as a guide for what should be included.

I. The scope should not be so broad as to give the impression that the research office represents a revival of the notion of a monolithic social science institute.

This represents a real danger. A mere listing of some of the topics mentioned during the course of the discussions as bearing directly on the social and human implications of technological change indicates the complexity of the project, and the need for rigid selection from among the various research possibilities:

The industrialization of formerly non-industrialized areas.

The effects of introducing mechanization into agriculture.

Movements of population; migration in relation to technology.

Problems of motivation; the development of a 'productivity consciousness'.

The relationship of industrial change to pre-existing value systems; the conflict of values.

Technological change and social structure, including family organization; relation to social stratification.

Social and cultural aspects of productivity; productivity and public welfare.

Technological change and communications systems; effects of mass media, of railroads and other means of transportation.

Distinction between endogenous and exogenous changes, and their different effects.

The effect of technological change on population in relation to food supplies.

The relation of technological change to literacy and other educational and cultural factors.

The 'locus' of change; its distribution and trends; in what regions, and in what sections of the population.

Timing and balance in development measures; the pace of change; measures of change and the relationship among various methods of measuring change.

What are successful and unsuccessful changes respectively, and how may these be differentiated?

Problems related to the manner and method in which changes are introduced; the sources of the changes; imposition from above or community decision; degree of popular participation.

Even this long list of problems cannot be regarded as exhausting the potential scope of the project. Though a selection must be made, it would be well to anticipate that any topics chosen for study will have complex ramifications. It is suggested that, at least in the early stages, attention be directed to the following points:

Exogenous rather than endogenous changes, with special reference to the introduction of new industrial and agricultural techniques and products into non-industrialized areas.

Rapid rather than gradual technological change.

The effects on social structure, the family, personal and social adjustment and maladjustment.

The relation of technological change to pre-existing value systems and motivations; attitudes toward productivity; the interdependence of social and technological factors.

The study of successful as well as of unsuccessful instances of change.

II. The scope should not be so narrow as to do violence to the situation which is being studied, or to leave out of consideration essential data or sources of information.

This principle is a necessary corrective to that enunciated in I above. The balance can perhaps best be indicated as follows: though the concentration of effort will be upon a few relatively limited problems, other aspects will have to be included when they are clearly relevant. To mention a few specific examples, the research office (or centre) will not be directly concerned with problems of communication, but when the introduction of a new railroad or of a thousand radios into a particular area obviously affects methods of production and other characteristics of the process of technological change, then this aspect of communication cannot be ignored. Similarly, there will be no direct attack upon questions of literacy or fundamental education, but to the extent that the degree of literacy in a population renders technological change more or less probable, or more or less successful, it must be included as part

of the total problem. Again, even though the research office interests itself in exogenous rather than endogenous change, knowledge of the latter may give the background and perspective without which the changes introduced from outside will not be fully understood. Finding the middle road between too broad and too narrow a scope of activities will not be easy, but it is hoped that the above considerations will help to clarify the problem.

ACTIVITIES OF THE RESEARCH OFFICE

It is proposed that the research office engage in as many as possible of the following activities during the next 18 months:

The preparation of a critical survey of available material relating to the social implications of technological change.

The establishment through seminars and meetings, as well as through correspondence, of close contacts and co-operation among social scientists in different countries and research areas working in this field.

Clearing house functions, including the preparation of topical bibliographies.

Pilot research projects.

Preparation for the organization of the research centre.

These various activities might take the following form:

The critical survey of available material in this field represents a logical first step in the activities of the research office. It should as far as possible include the following: (a) The nature and extent of relevant research publications. (b) Unpublished studies now in progress. (c) The research techniques which have been and are being applied. (d) The chief gaps in our present knowledge, and the research needed to fill these gaps. (e) The practical implications or hypotheses which emerge, and the degree of confidence with which such implications can be accepted.

Such a survey may be expected to have both theoretical and practical importance. Its form might approximate to that of the research bulletins published by the Social Science Research Council (United States of America), which have very much the same function as that envisaged for this critical survey, but which usually stress national rather than international implications. Before publication, the material should be reviewed by an international committee, including experts in various disciplines and with experience in various parts of the world. It would need to be a high quality critical survey and not merely a trend report.

Seminars and meetings. One of the most direct and fruitful functions to be performed by the research office would be to bring together scholars working on similar problems in different areas, and to create a continuing mechanism of co-operation. Face to face contacts, and the opportunity for the exchange of views and technical information, would be stimulating and fruitful. Such contacts would appear to be particularly necessary in a field in which so much important work is still unpublished or otherwise inaccessible. At the meetings called in New York and in Paris on which this report is based, considerable evidence emerged of a serious lack of such contacts and of the need for them.

The seminars and meetings might take different forms. One possibility would be to hold a rather lengthy seminar or institute, lasting a month or longer, which would make a thorough examination of the materials collected in the critical survey described above, supply additional information needed, and in general prepare the way for a publication which would have the maximum accuracy and completeness. This seminar or institute might also develop plans for future research activities, and more specifically for the organization of the research centre (see below).

In addition to holding one large seminar or institute, the research office might arrange *ad hoc* meetings of small groups of scientists, preferably before a particular

research project is undertaken. Such an opportunity for prior consultation might make it possible to standardize, at least to some degree, the techniques to be applied, so that comparative studies would be greatly facilitated. The specific topics for discussion at such *ad hoc* meetings might be chosen from those already listed, but preferably should correspond to felt needs on the part of the participants. Such meetings might concentrate attention upon a particular geographical area, in which technical change is being examined from several different points of view; or they might bring together experts who had been working on the same problem, but in different geographical areas.

Clearing house activities. These represent a sphere of great potential usefulness on the part of the research office. The consultants to the project indicated repeatedly their need for information regarding relevant research being undertaken by others on problems with which they were themselves concerned. The principal needs would seem to be the following:

Bibliographies. No attempt should be made to offer a general bibliographical service on the subject of the Social Implications of Technological Change. Such an overall coverage would be neither feasible nor desirable. Instead it is strongly urged that the research office prepare topical bibliographies, dealing with one particular topic in connexion with which the need for bibliographical assistance has been indicated by specialists, and through which many isolated pieces of information might be coordinated and integrated. Such bibliographies should be *dynamic* in the sense of keeping up with the most recent developments, and *critical* not only with regard to the sources of information, but also in being adapted to the demands of individual investigators. They should have the additional function of bridging the gap between local and general publications and activities, since frequently an investigator from another country may not have easy access to materials available in the area in which the investigations are being conducted. When the need arises, such bibliographies might be combined with the providing of abstracts, or even of translations of publications not readily accessible to the investigator. Unpublished government reports might also be made more widely available through the bibliographical services of the research office.

Personnel files. A need was expressed for knowledge regarding who was working on what, and where and how. A central file of such information would go far toward promoting liaison among investigators with common interests. On occasion, some of these might be brought together through the medium of seminars and *ad hoc* meetings but, in addition, the information available through the central personnel file would facilitate many contacts through correspondence. This file should not be restricted to social scientists, but should include government officials, members of secretariats of organizations such as FAO and WHO, experts in town and country planning, industrial technologists, statisticians, and others concerned with important aspects of the central problem of the research office. A special effort should be made by this means to establish contact and liaison between the research worker and the administrator engaged on practical programmes. (A beginning in the direction of preparing such personnel files can be made on the basis of the names submitted at the two consultative meetings.)

Pilot research projects. The investigations at present in progress on this subject are almost all being conducted by teams of nationals of particular countries, and international research is relatively rare. Yet the subject, involving as it does subtle problems of differences in national cultures and the use of many different techniques of inquiry, is essentially one on which international research is needed. Such international research projects should not duplicate those being conducted by existing institutions. The aim would be to demonstrate by some sample projects what research on an international basis can add, as regards methods and techniques, to the significant research already being conducted at the national level. The research office could usefully concentrate on investigations which are comparative in nature and carried out in more than one country or region. This has been referred to as horizontal comparison, to distinguish

it from vertical comparison, in which the same region is studied at two different times. The former is particularly appropriate for an international research office.

Although there is no doubt as to the need for sample or pilot projects of this nature, the funds available to the research office are so small as to make it necessary to give this a lower priority for the immediate future than the other activities listed. If and when the research centre is in operation, such pilot research projects may come more legitimately within its sphere. For the research office, the work of facilitating, encouraging, organizing and integrating the results of research would appear to be more immediately appropriate than undertaking new investigations. Further, these activities will enable such research, when it is undertaken, to have a better logical and empirical foundation.

Planning for the research centre. No specific suggestions are being made at this juncture regarding the ultimate organization of the international research centre, its location, personnel or functions. If the seminar to which reference was made above can meet fairly early in 1954 (April or May), one of the tasks assigned to it might well be a critical examination of the functions being performed by the research office, together with a discussion of the most effective means of developing and expanding such functions in the future. It should not be assumed in advance that before the end of 1954 the office will be prepared for expansion or transformation into a centre. It may take more time than is at present anticipated to make adequate preparation for such a transformation. In all probability the functions of the office will have to be expanded as it becomes more widely known, and as requests for various forms of assistance to field workers increase. On the basis of such experience, a decision can more effectively be made as to whether a research office can adequately meet the demands made upon it; whether a research centre is needed; and, if the decision is favourable, when such a centre should be organized. In any case, it seems highly probable that the functions to be performed by the research office may also serve as a preliminary guide for the activities of the research centre.

ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH OFFICE

For the immediate future, and including the 18 months for which planning is now possible, it would seem most desirable to integrate the functions of the research office with those of the office of the Secretary-General of the International Social Science Council. Since at the outset the personnel of the research office will probably be limited to a director and a secretary, such integration should be possible without causing undue inconvenience to either operation. There would be great advantage, especially in the early stages, in the secretary-general of the council being as closely identified as possible with the new project, so that it might have the benefit of his constant advice. This relationship should also be re-examined by the group which meets to advise the council and Unesco regarding the future organization and functions of the International Research Centre.

APPENDIX

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS IN CONSULTATIVE MEETINGS

Columbia University, New York City, 20-21 March 1953

Ralph J. Bunche, United Nations. Kingsley Davis, Department of Sociology, Columbia University. Cora Dubois, International Institute of Education. Robert Hall, Department of Geography, University of Michigan. D. V. McGranahan, United Nations. Donald McKay, Department of History, Harvard University. Elman Service, Depart-

ment of Anthropology, Columbia University. Edmond Spicer, Department of Anthropology, University of Arizona. William Vickery, Department of Economics, Columbia University. Brice Wood, SSRC. Donald Young, Russell Sage Foundation, and ISSC. Alva Myrdal, Unesco. H. M. Phillips, Unesco.

Unesco House, Paris, France, 2-3 April 1953

Georges Balandier, Paris. A. N. J. Den Hollander, Amsterdam. S. C. Dube, University of Hyderabad, India. Raymond Firth, London School of Economics. Walter Hoffmann, University of Muenster, Germany. R. P. Lynton, British Institute of Management. P. W. Martin, London. A. Ombredane, University of Brussels. T. S. Simey, University of Liverpool. J. P. Trystram, Casablanca. W. F. Wertheim, University of Amsterdam. G. de Lacharrière, Unesco. F. Frazier, Unesco. K. Szczerba, Unesco. C. Lévi-Strauss, ISSC.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS IN RURAL REHABILITATION IN TROPICAL AND SUBTROPICAL COUNTRIES

Twenty-eighth Session of INCIDI, The Hague, 7-10 September 1953

The International Institute of Differing Civilizations (INCIDI), after devoting its twenty-seventh session to a study of 'the attraction exercised by urban and industrial centres in countries in process of industrialization',[1] placed on the agenda of its twenty-eighth session, the question of 'Programmes and plans for rural rehabilitation in tropical and subtropical countries, viewed from the economic, social, political and legal standpoints'.

This session was held from 7 to 10 September 1953 in the Peace Palace at The Hague. The honorary president was H.R.H. Prince Bernhard of the Netherlands who, in his opening speech, after drawing attention to the pioneer work done by INCIDI in the comparative study of questions concerning the political and social development of overseas territories, spoke with knowledge and conviction of the importance of agricultural development in raising the living standards of the peoples inhabiting the parts of the world least favoured by nature.

The discussions at Florence had already brought out various phenomena characteristic of urban overpopulation and the movement of the rural population towards the towns, and had shown that the drift from the country districts is due to dissatisfaction with rural life. The discussions at The Hague were therefore a logical complement to the work done at Florence.

In preparation for the session, 28 special reports had previously been distributed to those who were to take part. These dealt with various territories in Africa, Asia, South and Central America and Australia, and had been written by experts belonging to 16 different countries. There was also an introductory report (by Sir Bernard Binns of FAO) and three general reports (on 'Agrarian Policy and Law', by R. Delavignette, Governor-General of French Overseas Territories; on 'Rural Social Life', by Professor R. A. J. van Lier of the University of Leyden; and on 'Rural Economy' by Professor W. H. Beckett of Oxford University).

[1] See *International Social Science Bulletin*, Vol. V, No. 1, 1953, p. 132. See also the records of the session, containing copies of 36 special reports, four general reports, a summary of the discussions, the conclusions and a bibliography: 1 Vol., 662 p.

The authors of the special reports were Messrs. L. E. Barsdell (Australia), B. Bassili (Egypt), W. H. Beckett (United Kingdom), F. T. Boaventura (Portugal), A. Bonné (Israel), F. Caroselli (Italy), M. L. Dantwala (India), R. L. Davidson (South Africa), V. del Tufo (United Kingdom), C. Faillace (Colombia), B. H. Farmer (United Kingdom), M. Fevret (France), G. Gayet (France), P. Gourou (France), B. F. Hoselitz (United States of America), Y. Ismall (Indonesia), H. Isnard (France), A. Kraessel (Peru), G. B. Masefield (United Kingdom), A. Maugini (Italy), R. Montagne (France), P. Pélissier (France), K. Pelzer (United States of America), G. Sautter (France), P. de Schlippé (Belgium), E. Sergent (France), P. Staner (Belgium), and E. Williams (Trinidad).

Over eighty distinguished people from a number of different countries took part in the work. The Food and Agriculture Organization was represented by Sir Bernard Binns; Unesco by Mr. Guy de Lacharrière, deputy director of the Department of Social Sciences; and the Caribbean Commission by Dr. Eric Williams, deputy chairman of the Research Council. Delegates of five international non-governmental organizations also took part in the work.

Dr. P. J. Idenburg, of Leyden, the president of INCIDI, assisted by Mr. Moeller de Laddersous, vice-president, and Mr. Pierre Wigny, secretary-general, took the chair for the discussions, which were carried on with simultaneous interpretation. The draft conclusions contained in each of the general reports were immediately taken up and the discussions resulted in the adoption of a number of conclusions embodying statements of fact or recommendations.

The value of these conclusions, which are necessarily general because they apply, not to one particular territory, but to several continents, lies in the fact that they reflect the views common to people representing a wide variety of scientific studies and experience. The membership of INCIDI includes jurists, sociologists, geographers, senior civil servants, businessmen, economists, etc., and most of its members have spent periods of varying length in tropical and subtropical countries. There follows a summary of the main conclusions adopted.

Rural economy. Prohibition of the waste of natural resources by individuals and nations. Obligation for countries receiving assistance to contribute, so far as their means permit, to their own development and to take measures to ensure the safety of capital investments. Obligation for countries giving assistance to promote the economic stability of the countries in receipt of aid and to help to find outlets for their surplus production. As agriculture is the staple industry of the underdeveloped countries, agricultural development schemes should have priority over industrial development or, at least, rural development should proceed hand in hand with industrialization. Need to provide for supplementary services (transport, technical training, credit facilities, adult and community education), especially in regions in which independent peasant farmers predominate. Need to take account not only of economic returns but also of social, family and political factors.

Rural social life. Overriding importance of the human factor in any rural development scheme. Need to base such schemes on scientific research in the fields of physics, biology and sociology, conducted by qualified social investigators, with or without official support, but with the fullest possible measure of independence. Cultural innovations should, after systematic investigations, be adapted to the new environment and harmonized with the surviving indigenous cultural values. Advisory and demonstration services should be combined and adapted to the circumstances of different regions.

The success of any rural rehabilitation scheme depends mainly on securing the support and active co-operation of the population. The basic aim of social rehabilitation must be to stimulate initiative and encourage the sense of individual and collective responsibility. Local leaders and administrators should be the prime movers in rural rehabilitation work. For the rehabilitation of societies which are no longer coherent or in which there are no recognized leaders, or of communities whose traditional leaders refuse to co-operate in development work, new authorities must be set up, by choosing competent social leaders and giving them appropriate training.

Agrarian policy. The principles on which agrarian policy should be based have not

yet been established with sufficient clarity. The values of rural society are not the same as those of urban and industrial working class society.

The rehabilitation of rural communities in the underdeveloped countries should be one of the fundamental tasks of the international organizations, for it is an important factor in the maintenance of peace.

The success of the schemes will depend on the degree of understanding shown for the mentality of the peoples concerned, which must be taken into account equally as much as Western mental processes.

No scheme can be governed by requirements foreign to the country concerned. All schemes must be approved and supervised by the representative authority of the country. Ruling out the idea of securing advantage for a plutocracy, even if indigenous, or a technocracy, even if international, schemes should be designed to develop food crops, raise the people's standard of living and restore an environment offering them a satisfactory life. They should help to modernize the administrative organization of the villages with due regard to the traditional background of the people, one of the best means of achieving this aim being the establishment of model communities gradually acquiring appropriate municipal functions.

In preparing schemes, calls should be made on the services of social science technicians, jurists (including experts on the customary law of the peoples concerned), and political representatives of the countries in question.

The most careful attention should be given to the system of land tenure and agrarian law.

A distinction should be made between agricultural development projects which can be carried out in an existing, well-established community and those necessitating the settlement on new land of peoples who cannot develop normally in their original environment.

If a development board is set up to co-ordinate and direct the investigations and the implementation of the scheme, it should, as regards policy and law, be subject to the national authorities, and in no case should it be entrusted with powers normally pertaining to the authority responsible for public order.

The conclusions regarding agrarian law, being more highly specialized, are not dealt with in this context.

It will be seen that stress was laid on the importance of the human factor—the need for encouraging the peoples concerned to co-operate and for stimulating their sense of civic responsibility, the conduct of preliminary scientific investigations in co-operation with the political representatives of the countries concerned, and the risk that rural development may benefit a minority only rather than produce conditions which provide a satisfactory life for the whole population.

In his speech at the opening meeting, Dr. Idenburg emphasized that 'the essential thing is that we should never lose sight of the social difficulties that capital investment and technical development may produce in any primitive society . . .; very serious social and cultural instability may and, unfortunately, in almost every case, does follow from an economic development scheme. It does indeed threaten the whole basis of economic rehabilitation'.

Having thus studied, in relation to tropical and subtropical countries, horizontal movements of population due to economic phenomena and the conditions necessary for the welfare of people living in urban and industrial centres as well as in country districts, INCIDI will probably, at its next session, in 1955, consider vertical movements of population in tropical and subtropical countries. It is generally known that the problem of upward social movements in these regions, i.e. the problem of the middle classes and the leaders of society has, as yet, scarcely been studied in any detail.

THE SECOND INTERNATIONAL COURSE ON CRIMINOLOGY

Unesco House, 14 September-23 October 1953

On 23 October last, the closing meeting of the Second International Course on Criminology took place in Unesco House. Mr. Étienne de Greeff, the Director of the Belgian Service d'Anthropologie Pénitentiaire and professor at the University of Louvain, presided, and various eminent representatives of diplomacy, government service, the judiciary and the universities were present.

It may be useful to give some details about this international scientific event and its results.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Firstly, we should mention the First International Course held in September 1952 in Paris, under the direction of Professor Georges Heuyer, of the Faculty of Medicine, Paris, and Mr. Jean Pinatel, Inspecteur Général de l'Administration in the French Ministry of the Interior and secretary-general of the International Society of Criminology. The topic was: 'the medical, psychological and social examination of the delinquent', and, as can be seen from the variety of nationalities represented and the prestige of the speakers and members, the course was international in scope and covered many branches of study.

Before dealing with the second course, with which this article is principally concerned, we shall say something more about the place these projects organized by the International Society of Criminology take against the general background of teaching in criminology.

In 1953 (16-21 November) a Third International Course on Criminology was held at Stockholm, in Swedish, for Scandinavian students. This course—organized by Mr. Olof Kinberg, Head of the Institute of Criminology at the University of Stockholm —provided a general introduction to the problems of criminology.

In 1954 the Fourth International Course on Criminology will be held in London, in English, from 24 March to 13 April. The central topic of this course will be the problems of 'treatment'. The organizer is Professor Mannheim of the University of London, a member of the General Committee and the Scientific Committee of the International Society of Criminology, while the director is Dr. Denis Carroll, consultant psychiatrist and president of the International Society of Criminology.

From 13 September to 22 October 1954, the Fifth International Course on Criminology will be held in Rome, the proceedings being conducted in French. The organizers will be Mr. Grispigni, director of the Institute of Criminology of the University of Rome and a member of the General Committee and the Scientific Committee of the International Society of Criminology; Mr. Erra, Judge of Appeal, Rome, and assistant secretary-general of the International Society of Criminology; and Mr. di Tullio, Professor of Criminal Anthropology at the University of Rome and honorary president of the International Society of Criminology.

In due course, we shall give fuller information about these international activities in the field of criminology, which show what an active part is being played by the International Society of Criminology, its Scientific Committee and its national delegates.

THE SECOND INTERNATIONAL COURSE ON CRIMINOLOGY

After mentioning the activities in progress at the international level in connexion with teaching in criminology, we deal in greater detail with the second course.

Opening Meeting

The opening meeting was held in Unesco House, before a distinguished audience, on 14 September 1953. For six weeks, 28 official representatives, under the chairmanship of Mr. Pinatel, secretary-general of the International Society of Criminology and director of the course, discussed the topic chosen for this session—the problem of the crime-prone state (*l'état dangereux*).

General Organization and Methods

Before describing the work itself and, in particular, the conclusions reached, a few details must be given about the general organization of the work and the methods used.

The speakers and official representatives were drawn from the following countries: Argentina, Belgium, Colombia, France and French Overseas Territories, German Federal Republic, Haiti, Italy, Netherlands, Rumania, Saar, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, United Kingdom, Venezuela, Viet-Nam and Yugoslavia. The large number of private representatives also included Canadians, Cambodians, Egyptians and Syrians.

The speakers included some of the most eminent international criminologists, representing the fundamental branches of criminology (law, medicine, anthropology, biology, psychiatry and sociology), and specialists in various technical fields closely concerned with criminality and applied criminology (penal administration, police, social services, psychiatric services, observation centres, specialized medical services, etc.).

The broad criminological point of view characteristic of the International Society of Criminology struck the keynote for the proceedings and inspired the conclusions, reached. Three lectures were given every morning, and the afternoons were devoted to practical work (including visits to prisons, observation centres, guidance centres and social welfare services), or instruction in special techniques (electro-encephalography, tests, medico-legal consultation, examinations of various kinds).

As regards the methods followed, the representatives were divided into groups (medicine and psychology, sociology, forensic medicine and scientific detection, penology, penal systems) in order to enable them to make personal contacts with colleagues from different countries on the problems with which they were most familiar. and thus to work more effectively.

Throughout the course, a spirit of unity was maintained among the different groups and the work was well integrated by means of round-table discussions. In the fifth week, three new groups were formed in order that a better grasp of the problem might be gained and worth-while conclusions reached; their reports were delivered by representatives at the closing meeting.

Conclusions

The first group prepared a report on the definition of the crime-prone state. *Rapporteur:* Mr. Debuyst (Belgian criminologist).

The second group drew up a report on the general aspects of the crime-prone state *Rapporteur:* Mr. Duc, psychiatrist (France).

The third group's report was on typology of the crime-prone state. *Rapporteur:* Mr. Wurtenberger, Professor of Penal Law at the University of Mainz (Germany).

As an illustration of the breadth of the field covered we shall say a few words about the report delivered at the closing meeting by Mr. Debuyst, on behalf of the first group, dealing with the definition of the crime-prone state.

The *rapporteur* began by giving an historical account of the concept of the crime-prone state, considering the problem from the geographical standpoint, i.e. examination of the cases and the ways in which the idea of the crime-prone state had been introduced in different parts of the world.

In the second part of the report, he brought out the usefulness of the idea of the

crime-prone state, and the justification for it; and he showed that, in practice, it was already taken into account (penal administration, measures).

The *rapporteur* then referred to the theoretical aspect of the problem. On the question of the idea of subjective responsibility, he commented: 'As we are now beginning to appreciate the importance of biological, psychological and social determinants in human behaviour, we may say that no one is capable of forming a valid judgment of any other person's moral responsibility. Freedom must not be regarded as something innate but as something won, or as a realization of the factors which determine our conduct, in order that we may overcome them. . . .'

In the third part of the report, he reviewed the definitions of the crime-prone state and the forms in which it is found, explaining that the term should be applied mainly to offences characterized by 'aggression' against persons or property, in order to prevent abuse of the concept (especially in a political context). The *rapporteur* considered that the attempts made by psychiatrists to define the crime-prone state might provide a means of introducing aetiology, diagnosis and treatment into the criminological definition of the crime-prone state.

This gives grounds for the statement that the crime-prone state is not merely a probability but a psycho-sociological phenomenon resulting from the influence of definite factors.

This leads on to a distinction between symptoms and causes which raises the problem of the crime-prone state in pre-delinquents and the question of prevention. At this point, the *rapporteur* read out the definition suggested by his group. 'The crime-prone state is a psycho-social phenomenon characterized by indications suggesting a marked probability that an individual may commit an offence against persons or property.'

We have been unable, within the limits of this article, to deal at length with the origin of this definition, the work and discussions as a whole being too complicated for description in a few lines. We may mention that the lectures and reports of conclusions will be published early in 1954, in a volume similar to that produced after the first course.

THE POPULATION COUNCIL, INC.

230 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y.

FELLOWSHIP PROGRAMME

A new organization, the Population Council, Inc., has recently been established as a non-profit corporation in order to encourage research and education concerning the relationship of the world's population to its material and cultural resources.

The council plans to study the problems of the increasing population of the world, to support research, and to make known the results of such research. It will serve as a centre for exchange of facts and information on population questions and co-operate with individuals and institutions having similar interests.

The trustees of the council are Frank G. Boudreau, Detlev W. Bronk, Karl T. Compton, Frank W. Notestein, Frederick Osborn, Dr. Thomas Parran, John D. Rockefeller III, and Lewis L. Strauss.

The council does not plan to conduct research or educational activities with its own staff. It has already made a small number of research grants to universities and other established organizations, and has established a number of fellowships for the training of students in the field of population.

The purpose of the council's fellowship programme is to assist in the advanced

training in population study of students in the social and natural sciences at the predoctoral or postdoctoral levels. The council proposes to grant approximately six fellowships (for study in the United States and elsewhere) during the academic year 1954-55, to be divided between students from the United States and other countries. Fellows will normally receive support for full-time work for a period of about one year. The basic stipend at the rate of $2,500 per year may be supplemented to provide for maintenance of dependents, and especially in the case of foreign students, for travel or exceptional expenses. It may be diminished to take account of lesser needs or partial support from other sources. Somewhat larger stipends may be granted to postdoctoral than to predoctoral fellows. Preference will be given to candidates who are not over 40 years of age.

For information or application forms relating to this programme, inquiries should be addressed to Mr. Frederick Osborn, executive vice-president of the council, 230 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y.

THE COLONIAL SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL

Colonial Office, Sanctuary Buildings, Great Smith Street, London, S.W.1

FUNCTIONS

The council founded in June 1944 advises the Secretary of State for the Colonies on matters relating to the social sciences (excluding economics and statistics) in the colonial territories. It reviews the organization of social science research in the colonies, examines research projects submitted to it, and recommends expenditures to the Secretary of State, makes recommendations as to publication of research conducted under its auspices, and initiates research in fields not otherwise covered. The council examines estimates and reports submitted by the regional colonial institutes of social science research with a view to advising the Secretary of State on expenditure from colonial development and welfare funds. Mrs. E. M. Chilver is the council's secretary.

RESEARCH ARRANGEMENTS

The council has no research staff of its own: its policy is to encourage social science research in the colonies by academic institutions in the United Kingdom and colonial territories or by independent scholars. It supervises research carried out with assistance from colonial development and welfare funds on behalf of the Secretary of State.

PUBLICATIONS

Publication of the results of social science research initiated by the council is made independently or through Her Majesty's Stationery Office in the *Colonial Research Series*. The regional institutes established at its initiative have their own funds for publication.

MEMBERSHIP

Professor Sir David Hughes Parry, M.A., LL.D., D.C.L., director of the Institute of Advanced Legal Studies, University of London (chairman); Professor Frank Debenham, O.B.E., M.A., Professor of Geography, University of Cambridge; Professor E. E. Evans-Pritchard, M.A., Professor of Social Anthropology, University of Oxford, and director, Institute of Social Anthropology, University of Oxford; Mr. L. Farrer-Brown, J.P., Secretary, The Nuffield Foundation; Professor Vincent Harlow, C.M.G., M.A., D.Litt., Beit Professor of History of the British Empire, University of Oxford; Mr. H. V. Hodson, M.A., Editor of the *Sunday Times*, formerly a Reforms Commissioner, Government of India; Mr. W. B. L. Monson, C.M.G., Assistant Under Secretary, Colonial Office; Miss Margery Perham, C.B.E., M.A., Fellow of Nuffield College, University of Oxford; Professor Sir Arnold Plant, B.Sc. (Econ.), B.Com., Sir Ernest Cassel Professor of Commerce, University of London; Professor Margaret Read, C.B.E., M.A., Ph.D., Professor of Education and head of Department of Education in Tropical Areas, Institute of Education, University of London; Professor Sir Ralph Turner, M.C., M.A., Litt.D., F.B.A., director of the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London; Sir John Waddington, G.B.E., K.C.M.G., K.C.V.O., Director of the International African Institute; Mrs. E. M. Chilver, Colonial Office (secretary).

Specialist committees of the council have been constituted as follows:

Committee on Anthropology and Sociology. Professor E. E. Evans-Pritchard, M.A., University of Oxford (chairman); Professor Daryll Forde, Ph.D., University of London; R. S. Hudson Esq., C.M.G., Colonial Office; G. I. Jones Esq., M.A., University of Cambridge; Professor Margaret Read, C.B.E., M.A., Ph.D., University of London; Professor D. V. Glass, London School of Economics; K. E. Robinson Esq., University of Oxford.

Committee on History and Administration. Professor Vincent Harlow, C.M.G., M.A., D.Litt., University of Oxford (chairman); Professor G. S. Graham, M.A., Ph.D., University of London; H. V. Hodson Esq., M.A., Editor of the *Sunday Times*; F. J. Pedler Esq., United Africa Company; Miss Margery Perham, C.B.E., M.A., University of Oxford; K. E. Robinson Esq., University of Oxford; Douglas Veale, K.B.E., Registrar, University of Oxford.

Linguistics Committee. Professor Sir Ralph Turner, M.A., M.C., Litt.D., F.B.A., University of London (chairman); Professor J. R. Firth, O.B.E., M.A., University of London; Professor M. Guthrie, Ph.D., B.Sc., University of London; Dr. Edwin Smith.

Law and Land Tenure Committee. Professor Frank Debenham, O.B.E., M.A., University of Cambridge (chairman); Professor Daryll Forde, Ph.D., University of London; R. S. Hudson Esq., C.M.G., Colonial Office; Arthur Phillips Esq., M.A., University of London; Professor M. Postan, M.Sc., M.A., University of Cambridge; Professor S. Vesey Fitzgerald, M.A., LL.D., University of London.

The secretary of these committees is Mr. E. A. C. Bents, Research Department, Colonial Office.

RESEARCH PROGRAMME

An account of the council's activities is included in the annual Command paper *Colonial Research.* The principal objective of the council's research programme at present is to encourage programmes of research formulated by colonial universities, university colleges and institutes. To this end it works closely with the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies.

II. REVIEW OF DOCUMENTS, PERIODICALS AND BOOKS

DOCUMENTS AND PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND THE SPECIALIZED AGENCIES[1]

UNITED NATIONS

GENERAL

Yearbook of the United Nations, 1952. September 1953, 981 p., printed, $12.50.
[Org.][2] Brief account of the origin and growth of the UN and the Specialized Agencies, summary of their activities since their establishment, and detailed description of their work in 1952. Present structure, membership, budget, bibliography, maps and index. This yearbook is a kind of encyclopaedia of the UN and the Specialized Agencies, which is regularly brought up to date.

GENERAL ASSEMBLY

Social Action of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. Programme of Concerted Practical Action in the Social Field of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. Eighth session, 16 September 1953, 5 p. A/2462.
[Sc. Pr. Org.] On the basis of documents, the principal of which we have already mentioned, the General Assembly adopted an important resolution dealing with the general principles of the new programme of concerted practical action in the social field, that the UN and the Specialized Agencies are endeavouring to carry out.

STATUS OF WOMEN

Constitutions, Electoral Laws and Other Legal Instruments relating to the Franchise of Women and Their Eligibility to Public Offices and Functions. Eighth session, 26 August 1953, 20 p.
[Sc. Ej.] The secretary-general publishes each year a memorandum on the progress achieved in the field of women's political rights. Since the publication of the 1952 memorandum, Mexico and Syria have recognized the political equality of women. The document under review, which is the 1953 memorandum, contains the new provisions in force in those two countries, together with details of women's political rights in two states not involved in previous reports—Cambodia and Laos. The annex contains general tables summarizing the present position in the various countries as regards women's right to the vote (extent of this right, date when granted).

REFUGEES

International Action on Behalf of Refugees. Eighth session, 2 September 1953, 5 p. A/2457.

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[1] As a general rule, we make no mention of publications and documents published more or less automatically, such as regular administrative reports, records of meetings, and so forth. We have given a free translation of the titles of such publications and documents as we were unable to obtain in time in English.
[2] For explanation of abbreviations, see p. 117.

[Pr. Org.] Mr. D. Hammarskjöld's views on the work being carried out by the UN on behalf of refugees. The secretary-general thinks that, with the resources available, quicker progress could be made towards a permanent solution of the refugee problem if efforts were more concentrated, if greater use were made of the existing UN services, and if the UN co-ordinating role were more clearly defined.

PLANS FOR AN INTERNATIONAL CRIMINAL COURT

Compilation of Comments and Suggestions relating to the Draft Statute for an International Criminal Court (prepared by the secretariat). Committee on International Criminal Jurisdiction. 23 July 1953, 34 p. A/AC.65/1.

[Sc. Pr.] The General Assembly set up a Committee on International Criminal Jurisdiction to explore the implications and consequences of establishing an international criminal court, to study the possible relationship between such a court and the UN, and to submit a report on the subject to the General Assembly.

Document A/AC.65/1 is a compilation of the comments and suggestions submitted by governments and of those made during the seventh session of the General Assembly on the draft statute previously prepared by the Committee on International Criminal Jurisdiction.

These comments relate to the establishment of the court (should it be established by amendment of the Charter, by a resolution of the General Assembly, by a convention, or as a chamber of the International Court of Justice?); to its functions; to the code of law it would have to apply; to its organization and its jurisdiction; to the system of prosecution and the procedure it should adopt; and to the special tribunals to be attached to it.

PRESENT SITUATION OF NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Monographs

In accordance with regulations, the secretary-general had a series of monographs on the non-self-governing territories drawn up for the eighth session of the General Assembly. Each monograph brings up to date statistical data on economic, social and cultural developments in the regions under consideration, using for the purpose the latest information on record. The tables are accompanied by brief comments. Any other noteworthy changes are also mentioned.

In addition, special documents describe the general trends of the policy applied by the various administering powers in the non-self-governing territories under their control.

Papua, information transmitted by Australia. 24 August 1953, 9 p. A/2407.

Belgian Congo, information transmitted by Belgium (statistical supplement). 6 August 1953, 18 p. A/2408.

Greenland, information transmitted by Denmark. 27 July 1953, 9 p. A/2409.

French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Comoro Archipelago, French Somaliland, Madagascar and Tunisia, information transmitted by France (statistical supplement). 5 August 1953, 94 p. A/2410.

Morocco, information transmitted by France. 10 August 1953, 18 p. A/2410/Add.1.

Netherlands New Guinea, information transmitted by the Netherlands. 12 August 1953, 13 p. A/2411.

Bermuda, Falkland Islands, Jamaica, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland. Uganda and Zanzibar, information transmitted by the United Kingdom. 7 August 1953, 86 p. A/2413.

Brunei, Hong Kong, Federation of Malaya, North Borneo, Pitcairn, Sarawak, Singapore, British Solomon Islands Protectorate, information transmitted by the United Kingdom, 10 August 1953, 75 p. A/2413/Add.2.

British Somaliland, Cyprus, Gibraltar, Gold Coast, Mauritius, Saint Helena and Swaziland, information transmitted by the United Kingdom. 10 August 1953, 89 p. A/2413/Add.3.

Gambia and Nigeria, information transmitted by the United Kingdom. 14 August 1953, 24 p. A/2413/Add.4.

New Hebrides and Gilbert and Ellice Islands, information transmitted by the United Kingdom. 25 August 1953, 18 p. A/2413/Add.5.

Aden, Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Kenya, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Fiji, information transmitted by the United Kingdom. 4 September 1953, 92 p. A/2413/Add.6.

Bahamas, British Honduras, Leeward Islands, Trinidad and Tobago and Windward Islands, information transmitted by the United Kingdom. 17 September 1953, 68 p. A/2413/Add.7.

Alaska, American Samoan Islands, Guam, Hawaii, United States Virgin Islands, information transmitted by the United States of America. 27 July 1953, 66 p. A/2414.

Puerto Rico, information transmitted by the United States of America, 13 August 1953, 31 p. A/2414/ Add.2.

General trends in the territory of Netherlands New Guinea. 12 August 1953, 4 p. A/2411/Add.1.

General trends in territories under United Kingdom administration. 31 July 1953, 19 p. A/2413/ Add.1.

General trends in territories under the administration of the United States of America. 6 August 1953, 8 p. A/2414/Add.1.

General Surveys

Special general surveys were prepared for the fourth (1953) session of the Committee on Information from Non-self-governing Territories. Several of these papers have already been referred to in our previous review of documents (political life, education, community development, health, etc.). A few further documents are mentioned hereunder:

Higher Education in Non-self-governing Territories. Special Committee on Information from Non-self-governing Territories. 14 August 1953, 25 p. A/AC.35/L.125.

[Pr. St. Dp. Ej.] The main task of the Committee on Information is to consider information supplied by the administering powers to the secretary-general on the non-self-governing territories under their control. At each session, the committee gives special attention to one clearly-defined problem. At its fourth session, it discussed educational conditions in the non-self-governing territories. Many detailed reports were prepared for that meeting; several of them were mentioned in our previous review of documents, and others have reached us in the meantime. Document A/AC.35/L.125 under review describes results in higher education achieved in the non-self-governing territories since 1950. It stresses the general trends in this field and supplies a list of higher educational establishments in the various non-self-governing territories (including establishments opened prior to 1950), indicating the date of their foundation, the work they do, the student enrolment and the size of the staff. The paper also gives a survey (with statistics) of the main means of financing these establishments and gives details of the external courses they hold, particularly for adults.

Education of Girls in Non-self-governing Territories. Id., 6 August 1953, 37 p. A/AC.35/ L.133.

[Pr. St. Dp. Ej.] In the great majority of non-self-governing territories, less progress has been made with the education of girls than with that of boys, the difference varying from one region to another. The document under review contains annotated statistical data on this subject for the various territories and the different levels and types of education. It discusses the economic, social and other factors involved, as well as recent changes in the attitude of the populations and in official policy with regard to the education of girls. The conclusions lay stress on general methods of improving the present state of affairs.

Measures for suppressing Illiteracy which could be applied in Non-self-governing Territories. Id., 4 August 1953, 29 p. A/AC.35/L.136.

[Sc. St. Dp. Org. Ej.] In 1950, the Unesco secretariat prepared a preliminary report

on the literacy campaign (A/AC.35/L.16), which was followed in 1951 and 1952 by interim reports on the work of the organization (A/AC.35/L.63 and A/AC.35/L.99). The document under review is a survey of the action taken by Unesco during the past year and of the work it intends to carry out in the following year: basic studies on illiteracy in the non-self-governing territories (statistics, comparative study of teaching methods); measures suggested by Unesco for the introduction of free and compulsory education; various means of providing fundamental education (national committees, associated projects, regional vocational training centres); and survey of the services provided by Unesco for the non-self-governing territories (documentation, field operations).

The annexes contain statistical tables on the distribution of illiteracy in the non-self-governing territories and on the number of children of school age.

The Problem of Vernacular Languages in Education. Interim report prepared by Unesco, id., 4 August 1953, 10 p. A/AC.35/L.137.

[Sc. Pr. Org. Ej.] Annotated list of activities carried out by Unesco since the beginning of 1952 to help find solutions for the problems raised by the use of vernacular languages in education: published surveys; missions of experts; work of Unesco's documentation centre in this field. After reviewing all aspects of the problem between 1947 and 1950, Unesco is now concentrating on solving the special problems connected with the teaching of the second language and with the methodology of teaching, reading and writing.

International Collaboration in respect of Economic, Social and Educational Conditions. Memorandum prepared by the secretariat, id., 13 August 1953, 23 p. A/AC.35/L.138.

[Sc. Pr. Ej. Dp. Org.] Information on the work of the Economic and Social Council in connexion with economic, cultural and social conditions in the non-self-governing territories and on the relations of the Committee on Information with governments and Specialized Agencies. A survey is given of work in connexion with human rights, the status of women, the economic development of underdeveloped countries (financing of development), living standards (international definition and assessments), the prevention of crime and the treatment of delinquents, and the manufacture and consumption of opium.

The end of the memorandum contains information on Unicef's economic and social work in the non-self-governing territories, the technical assistance received by these territories, and regional co-operation in the technical, cultural, economic and social fields.

Unesco's Activities relating to Non-self-governing Territories. Memorandum prepared by Unesco, id., 6 August 1953, 16 p. A/AC.35/L.139.

[Org. Pr. Ej.] Summary (brought up to July 1953) of Unesco's activities in the following fields, likely to benefit non-self-governing territories: education, natural science, social science (campaign against prejudice; research into racial relations, the effects of industrialization, and land reform; statistical work), cultural activities, mass communication, voluntary international assistance.

Some Aspects of Vocational Training Problems in Non-metropolitan Territories. Memorandum prepared by the International Labour Office, id., 13 August 1953, 30 p. A/AC.35/L.141.

[Sc. Pr. Dp. Ej.] General account of vocational training problems in non-metropolitan territories, with special reference to the following aspects of measures now being adopted in this connexion by the different territories and to the results obtained: economic and social factors involved; vocational training and manpower requirements; the present policy of the different territories; the state of their vocational training services. The document also contains proposals and resolutions originating from the various organs of ILO.

Free and Compulsory Education and the Programme of Unesco. Memorandum prepared by Unesco, id., 20 August 1953, 36 p. A/AC.35/L.143.

[Sc. Pr. Org. Dp. Ej.] Unesco prepared for the fourth session of the committee a document giving the fullest possible account of the position in non-self-governing territories with regard to free and compulsory education. This document (A/AC.35/L.128) was mentioned in our previous review. Document A/AC.35/L.143 contains supplementary information.

The first part of this document gives information on the movement for the introduction of free and compulsory education—regional conferences, recommendations of the Bombay Conference (on planning, administration, duration of compulsory schooling, finance and the training of teachers, recent surveys, missions and projects, fellowships).

The second part of the document deals with the main problems arising out of the application of a programme of universal compulsory education (aims, duration of compulsory schooling, language of instruction, curricula, relationship with fundamental education, teachers, finance).

The third part deals with the assistance that could be provided by Unesco if it were asked to help in the expansion of free and compulsory education in the non-self-governing territories. This assistance would take the form of regional conferences, surveys, missions of experts, fellowships and the provision of information.

The document also contains a list of the information which Unesco is assembling in order to keep its *World Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics* up to date, together with an account of compulsory education in the non-self-governing territories administered by the United Kingdom (especially in South Asia and the Pacific).

Report on Education in Non-self-governing Territories. Id., 31 August 1953, 21 p. A/AC.35/L.149.

[Sc. Pr. Dp. Ej.] General survey of the main developments since 1950, when the Committee on Information drew up its first general report on education in the non-self-governing territories.

Aspects of Economic Conditions in Non-self-governing Territories in 1952. Id., 17 August 1953, 32 p. A/AC.35/L.134.

[Sc. Ej. Dp. St.] The committee dealt with other problems besides education. The document under review summarizes the main economic changes that took place in the non-self-governing territories in 1952: prices of raw materials, mining and industrial output, power, and external trade. Extensive statistics.

Activities of the FAO in Non-self-governing Territories. Id., 21 August 1953, 9 p. A/AC.35/L.145.

[Org. Ej. Dp.] Programmes concerning one particular territory, regional programmes, and specialized training centres. Generally speaking, the representatives of many non-self-governing territories can take an active part in carrying out the technical programme of FAO, particularly in connexion with the training centres and working groups—so helping to quicken the spread of modern knowledge in these areas, and at the same time enabling FAO to gain a better understanding of the practical problems arising there.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL[1]

GENERAL SURVEY OF THE WORK OF ECOSOC

Report of the Economic and Social Council covering the Period from 2 August 1952 to 5 August 1953. General Assembly, eighth session, September 1953, 143 p., printed. A/2430.

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[1] Including certain documents and publications emanating from other UN bodies but directly concerning the Economic and Social Council.

[Org.] Work and development of the council during the period under consideration. This report is not an analysis of the problems coming before the council, but a survey of its own meetings and those of its subsidiary bodies. The report is a kind of handbook showing the present trend of the work being carried out by the council and its subsidiary bodies, their decisions and membership, and the documents they have received and prepared on each particular point.

HUMAN RIGHTS

The Impact of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. 29 June 1953, 51 p., printed. $ .25. ST/SOA/5/Rev.1.
[Ej.] The practical effect of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is here considered from the following angles: effect on the action of the UN and the Specialized Agencies; effect on international agreements and national legislative codes; effect on jurisprudence. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is reproduced in the appendix.

WORLD POPULATION CONFERENCE, 1954

Plans for the World Population Conference. Economic and Social Council, 24 July 1953, 9 p. E/CONF.13/INF.1.
[Sc.] Programme, procedure for the preparation of papers, conditions for attendance. The World Population Conference will be held in Rome, at the headquarters of FAO, during the first fortnight of September 1954.

STATISTICS

Conference of European Statisticians

The Third Regional Meeting of European Statisticians, held at Geneva from 15 to 20 June 1953, decided to set up a Conference of European Statisticians as a permanent body.

This conference consists of the heads of central statistical offices in countries which are members of the Economic Commission for Europe; it will hold annual meetings and endeavour to draw up a continuing programme of co-operation in the field of statistics.

The main objects of the conference are: to contribute towards the improvement of national statistics; to bring about greater uniformity of concepts and definitions, so as to achieve better international comparability of national statistics.

For the meeting from 15 to 20 June 1953, the secretariat published a series of reports, the most important of which are listed hereunder:

Report of the Third Regional Meeting of European Statisticians. Statistical Commission and Economic Commission for Europe. Third Regional Meeting of European Statisticians (15 to 19 June 1953). 24 June 1953, 22 p. E/CN.3/CONF.3/1.
[Sc. Pr.] Account of the meeting and statutes of the conference, together with annexes which include a note on the theory and practice of sampling as applied to index numbers.

Statistics of Wholesale Prices. Id., 8 May 1953, 22 p. E/CN.3/CONF.3/L.3.
[Sc. Pr.] This document has two purposes: (a) it presents the conclusions of the UN Statistical Commission with regard to means of improving the collection of data; (b) it attempts to establish a relationship between these standards and the practice of various states.

Principles for Statistics of External Trade. Id., 13 May 1953, 36 p. E/CN.3/CONF.3/L.4.
[Sc. Pr.] Definition of the standards recommended by the UN Statistical Commission in the following fields: field of application of the statistics in question; evaluation;

analysis of trade by countries; quantitative data; analysis, by countries, of their definitions and practices.

Statistics of Wholesale Prices: Specific Problems for Discussion. Id., 5 June 1953, 3 p. E/CN.3/CONF.3/L.5.
[Sc. Pr.] The present theoretical and practical aspects of the following questions: nature of the index numbers of wholesale prices, structure of statistics on these index numbers, and statistical series by products.

List of Delegates. Id., 15 June 1953, 6 p. E/CN.3/CONF.3/L.6.
[Sc. Pr.] An interesting list in that it gives the names, addresses and functions of the heads of central offices for general statistics and for economic statistics in most of the European countries.

SOCIAL ACTION

Progress Report on Unicef/WHO-Assisted Anti-yaws Campaigns: Haiti, Indonesia, Thailand and Philippines. Unicef, 3 August 1953, 37 p. E/ICEF/233.
[Org. Pr. Sc. St. Ej.] Account of the aims, and results to date, of one of the campaigns conducted by WHO, in co-operation with Unicef, against various mass diseases.

The paper under consideration deals with yaws, a very serious contagious disease mainly found in rural areas of tropical and subtropical zones. It is estimated that 20 million persons suffer from it. But this disease can now be treated systematically with penicillin. Large-scale action is being carried out in Haiti, Indonesia, Thailand and the Philippines; the results are assessed by sample surveys. Some three million patients have already been treated at a cost of approximately $1 per person. Statistics, maps and photographs illustrating the symptoms of yaws.

Report on Progress of Milk Conservation Programmes. Unicef, 20 August 1953, 72 p. E/ICEF/234.
[Sc. Pr. Org. Dp. St. Ej.] Summary of the present situation with regard to the milk conservation programme, from the standpoint of its general organization and its application in the various countries.

The main object of this programme is to bring about a more rational use of milk so as to improve the diet of children and other vulnerable sectors of the population in the following countries: Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Egypt, Greece, Honduras, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Italy, Nicaragua, Turkey and Yugoslavia. The means used vary from country to country: installation of factories for the manufacture of powdered milk and for pasteurization; free distribution of milk; better use of existing resources; co-ordination of exchanges; professional training; technical assistance, and so on.

Apart from its immediate practical effects, this programme has broader economic and social repercussions, for it leads either to the establishment of a new dairy industry or to the progressive expansion of such dairy industries as existed before the programme began to be applied. Extensive statistical data.

ECONOMIC POLICY OF THE DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

Implementation of Full Employment and Balance of Payments Policies

[Pr. Ej. St. Dp. Sc.] Replies of governments to the questionnaire on full employment, the balance of payments, and economic trends, objectives and policies in 1952 and 1953.

In our previous review of documents, we drew attention to the inquiry which the secretary-general made of governments to ascertain their economic policy in 1952-53 with regard to full employment and the balance of payments (E/2408 and Addenda). We gave in it a list of documents reproducing the information supplied by many countries. Further replies had since been received from the following countries: Finland (E/2408/Add.8, 21 July 1953, 25 p.), United States of America (information

supplementing that already supplied, E/2408/Add.9, 1 August 1953, 4 p.), Ecuador (E/2408/Add.10, 6 August 1953, 15 p.), Finland (continuation of reply, E/2408/Add.11, 7 August 1953, 4 p.), Iceland (E/2408/Add.12, 11 September 1953, 19 p.).

EXCHANGES AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Repercussions of Changes in Terms of Trade on the Economies of Countries in Process of Development. Economic and Social Council. E/2456, 11 June 1953, 74 p.; E/2456/Add.1, 22 June 1953, 46 p.

[Sc. Ej. Dp.] The General Assembly requested the secretariat to assess the repercussions which changes, in the terms of trade, between primary commodities, capital goods and other manufactured articles produce on the national incomes of countries in process of development. The first and second parts of document E/2456 give a general survey of the problem. The third discusses changes in the terms of trade of primary producing countries from 1948 to 1952, and their effects on economic development, the balance of payments, output of goods and services, the course of domestic prices, distribution of national income and public investment. The countries surveyed are: Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Burma, Ceylon, Chile, Egypt, Malaya, Mexico, Philippines, Southern Rhodesia and Turkey. Document E/2456/Add.1 contains supplementary statistics on international transactions, production, employment and public finance for the same countries.

OBSTACLES TO FREE EXCHANGES

Restrictive Business Practices. Analysis of Governmental Measures Relating to Restrictive Business Practices. Economic and Social Council, official records, sixteenth session. Supplement No. 11A. May 1953, 68 p., printed. $ .60. E/2379 and E/2379/Add.1.

[Sc. Dp.] Analysis of the national legal provisions reproduced in document E/2379/Add.2 reviewed hereunder. The document first describes the various types, and the extent, of restrictive business practices. It then considers the legal origin of governmental provisions in this field. The main part of the document supplies analytical information on the following points: types of legal provisions concerning the supervision, adoption, prevention or control of restrictive business practices; exceptions to laws; remedies and sanctions; effectiveness of legal arrangements. The two annexes contain a bibliography of documents concerning restrictive business practices communicated by various governments, and four concrete examples of restrictive business practices described in detail.

Restrictive Business Practices, Annex C. Texts of National Legislation and other Governmental Measures Relating to Restrictive Business Practices. Economic and Social Council, official records, sixteenth session. Supplement No. 11B. July 1953, 234 p., printed. $2.50.

See foregoing review of document E/2379 and Annex 1.

PRODUCTION, TRADE AND CONSUMPTION

Combustion. Results achieved by certain European countries in the field of fuel advisory services and technical training. Economic Commission for Europe, 16 April 1953, 167 p. E/ECE/158, E/ECE/COAL/UWP/33.

[Sc. Pr.] The rational use of solid fuels involves scientific research into such subjects as the use of fuel installations, the exchange of information obtained and the extension of training for the staff concerned. The document under review describes what has been done in these various fields in the following countries: Belgium, Denmark, France, German Federal Republic, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Sweden and United Kingdom.

Applicability of Japanese Techniques to Countries of Asia and the Far East. Economic Commission for Asia and Far East, 11 June 1953, 9 p. E/CN.11/I and S/41.

[Sc. Pr.] A group of iron and steel experts visited Japan. In their report they explain how Japan's experiences with iron and steel can help the other Asian countries to develop their iron and steel industry, particularly in the following fields: exploitation of iron ores; charcoal blast furnaces; sintering; coal washing; utilization of non-coking coals; manufacture of pig iron by electric smelting; electric furnaces for steel making; open-hearth furnaces; use of oxygen in steel making; small bar and sheet mills; manufacture of wire products; strip mills, pipes and tubes; ferro-alloys; tool and alloy steels; rolls; refractories; manufacture of agricultural implements; foundry practice.

Possibility of effecting Multilateral Compensation Settlements between Latin American and European Countries through the European Payments Union. Economic Commission for Latin America, 4 March 1953, 34 p. E/CN.12/299.

[Sc. Ej. St.] An expert, Professor Robert Triffin, was instructed to prepare this report as a basis for detailed discussion of the opportunities offered by the European Payments Union for the regularization of exchanges between Latin America and Europe, which have been seriously jeopardized since the second world war. Professor Triffin sums up the problem with the help of detailed statistics.

Coal Consumption Trends in the Western Zones of Germany. Economic Commission for Europe, 31 July 1953, 176 p. $ .80. E/ECE/168.

[Sc. St. Ej.] Detailed overall survey of the consumption and use of coal in the German Federal Republic: summary energy balance sheet; coal consumption (industry, transport and domestic uses); coal supplies; relationship between supply and demand, and general conclusions. The annexes provide information on the method used, general economic data on the Federal Republic, and technical data on carbonization (coke-oven plants and gas works), thermal power plants and their fuel consumption, brown coal and the country's energy economy. Many tables and graphs.

HOUSING

European Rent Policies. Economic Commission for Europe, 1953, 62 p. $ .30. E/ECE/170.

[Sc. Dp. Ej. St.] Operation of rent control, and its effects on housing as a factor in living standards and on the extent of building in various European countries.

ELECTRICITY AND RURAL LIFE

Rural Electrification. Economic Commission for Europe, 1953, 2 vols., 169 and 51 p. E/ECE/164 Parts I and II.

[Sc. Pr. Ej. Dp. St.] For about a month, experts from the member countries of the Economic Commission for Europe took part in a joint technical study group on the problems raised by rural electrification. The main economic, technical and social aspects of these problems were discussed in detail in the course of 23 meetings, an account of which is given in Part I of document E/ECE/164. The experts then proceeded on a study tour of Western Germany, France and Switzerland. Part II of document E/ECE/164 gives details of the most typical installations visited during this tour.

TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL

NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Report of the Trusteeship Council covering the Period 4 December 1952-21 July 1953. General Assembly, eighth session, September 1953, 152 p., printed. $1.25. A/2427.

[Sc. Ej. Org. Dp. St.] A veritable handbook dealing with the situation in the trust territories and with the UN action on their behalf. The first part of the report describes the organization and work of the Trusteeship Council, with special reference to the consideration of the 394 petitions received during the period under consideration

(full analytical list). The second part reproduces the reports of missions sent in 1952 to Togoland and the Cameroons (both under British and French administration). The third part describes the situation in all trust territories: size and composition of the population, and political, administrative, judicial, economic and social progress (living standards, immigration, human rights, labour, information, health and education). There is a special section, including a map, for each territory.

SECRETARIAT

Statistics, Sample Surveys, National Income

Training in Techniques of Demographic Analysis. Department of Social Affairs, 1953, 17 p., printed. $ .25. ST/SOA/Series A/Population Studies, No. 18.

[Pr. Sc.] A detailed knowledge of the size, make-up and general trends of a population is necessary if rational development programmes are to be carried out. Governments therefore need to be able to secure the services of persons capable of studying such phenomena.

Some countries as yet have no special system for training such experts. The pamphlet under review is a sort of handbook on ways of dealing with this situation through the use of such opportunities afforded by international agencies as fellowships, the organization of study cycles and courses, and standard training programmes. A bibliography of useful reference works is appended.

Principles for a Vital Statistics System. Department of Economic Affairs, November 1953 28 p., printed. $ .30. ST/STAT/SER.M/19.

[Sc. Pr.] Recommendations for improving the standardization of vital statistics, based on a study of the methods used in 55 countries, on the views of 41 governments, on the opinions of the UN Statistical Commission and on the suggestions of experts from various parts of the world. The document is a concise manual of guiding principles that have been found useful in this connexion, and of accepted definitions.

Sample Surveys of Current Interest. Fifth Report, 1953, 45 p., printed. $ .40. ST/STAT/SER.C/6.

[Pr. Sc.] Review of sample surveys recently conducted by statistical offices and other agencies in the following regions or countries: Australia, British Central Africa, British Guiana, Ceylon, Chile, Denmark, France, German Federal Republic, Gold Coast, India, Jamaica, Japan, Kenya, Netherlands, Netherlands West Indies, New Zealand, Panama, Puerto Rico, Ryu-Kyu, Sweden, Switzerland, Trieste, United Kingdom, United States of America, Yugoslavia. Bibliography.

Statistics of National Income and Expenditure. August 1953, 69 p., printed. ST/STAT/SER.H/4.

[Sc. St. Dp.] The UN regularly publishes the latest statistical information available on treasury accounting methods in the greatest possible number of countries. The volume under review is the fourth edition of this collection. It covers the period from 1938 to 1952 and includes the following tables: national revenue at factor cost, revenue per head with constant prices, net geographical product by industrial origin, distribution of national income, and distribution of national expenditure. Full source references.

Public Authorities, Administration

A Short International Bibliography of Public Administration. 12 June 1953, 20 p., printed. $ .30 (trilingual: English, French and Spanish). ST/TAA/M.4.

[Sc. Pr.] Titles of 360 basic works on public administration published in 24 countries and listed under the following headings: structure and theory of government, constitutional development, justice, diplomacy, inland revenue, public accounting methods,

public service, education, economic and social organization, statistical offices, and so on. Ten other bibliographies in the same field are listed under a special heading.

Non-Self-Governing Territories

Non-self-governing Territories. Summaries and analyses of information transmitted to the secretary-general during 1952. 1953, 2 vols., printed. Vol. I. ST/TRI/SER. A/7, 137 p., $1; vol. II. ST/TRI/SER.A/7/Add.1, 830 p., $5.
[Sc. Pr. Ej. Dp. St. Org.] These are the two substantial volumes published by the secretariat each year on the basis of information supplied over the past year by administering powers and from other sources. The first volume is a general statement of the problems involved, while the second is a series of monographs on the current demographic, economic, social and cultural position in each non-self-governing territory. Statistics.

Juvenile Delinquency in the Middle East

Comparative Survey on Juvenile Delinquency. Part V, Middle East. 1953, 80 p., printed. $ .50. ST/SOA/SD/1/Add.4.
[Pr. Sc. Ej. St. Dp.] The UN has undertaken the publication of a series of five reports on the problem of juvenile delinquency in the different regions of the world. The present report is similar in outline to those already reviewed. Its subject matter is the existing situation; legislation; judicial and social institutions concerned with delinquent youth; concepts of treatment applicable to it; preventive action; and conclusions. Bibliography. The report covers the following countries: Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Jordan (Hashemite Kingdom of), Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey and Yemen.

Community Development in Greece

Community Development Programmes in Greece, with Special Consideration of Welfare through Employment. 1953, 67 p., printed. $ .60. ST/SOA/SER.O/14.
[Pr. Ej. St.] Report of the inquiry conducted by two experts into the organization and effectiveness of the *Pronoia Ergassia* (programme aimed at providing work for the unemployed, while promoting the implementation of projects of general interest) and into community development programmes in progress in Greece (regarding local finance, agriculture, etc.).

SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (ILO)[1]

WORLD SOCIAL SITUATION AND THE WORK OF ILO

Seventh Report of the International Labour Organisation to the United Nations. 1953, 444 p., printed. $2.50.
[Org. Sc. Ej. Pr. Dp.] Summary of the outstanding features of ILO's activities over the past year (in relation to the main trends in the world social situation) and a full list of those activities.

POPULATION GROWTH AND IMPROVEMENT OF LIVING STANDARDS

Population Growth and Living Standards. By Colin Clark, August 1953, 22 p., printed. $ .15.
[Sc. Ej. St.] Concentrating mainly on the agricultural basis of production, Colin Clark

[1] As a general rule, ILO's publications are issued in English, French and Spanish.

describes the factors which, in his opinion, would make it possible to plan a world economy designed to bring about a more rapid increase of consumer products than of population.

LABOUR LEGISLATION

The Labour Code for French Overseas Territories: An Answer to an Urgent Problem. By Pierre Rivière; *Some Economic Considerations*, by Paul Devinat, September 1953, 22 p., printed. $ .15.
[Ej.] Considerations on the Labour Code for French Overseas Territories, adopted by the French National Assembly in 1952.

TRADE UNION FREEDOM, WORKERS' ASSOCIATIONS

Trade Union Rights in Czechoslovakia. 1953. *(Studies and Reports*, New Series, No. 37*)*, 45 p., printed. $ .40.
[Sc. Ej.] The ILO set up a nine-member Committee on Trade Union Freedom to make a preliminary study of complaints, submitted to the UN for consideration, regarding the violation of trade union rights. The committee keeps the governing body of ILO regularly informed of all cases submitted to it, and of progress achieved through conciliation. It may give wider publicity to complaints with regard to which one of the parties involved resists the usual procedure. This happened in the case of Czechoslovakia. The report outlines the background of the incident, describes trade union rights in Czechoslovakia, and states the reasons why this situation is regarded by the committee as contrary to the principle of trade union freedom.

The Order of the Companions: Revival of an Ancient Workers' Association in France. By Jean Bernard. August 1953, 19 p., printed. $ .15.
[Ej.] The Order of the Companions still survives, mainly in France. It continues its existence without attempting to take the place of trade unions. Jean Bernard briefly recounts its history and gives his views on the order's present tasks.

HOUSING

Rent Policy in Western Europe. By H. Umrath. September 1953, 22 p., printed. $ .15.
[Sc. Ej. Dp. St.] Rents are an important factor in living standards; and this is the angle from which the author discusses the problem of housing and rents for the people in Western Europe.

HANDICAPPED WORKERS

The Employment of Handicapped Workers in Industry. By Kurt Jansson. August 1953, 19 p., printed, $ .15.
[Pr. St. Dp. Ej.] Principles that should govern the employment of handicapped workers in industry; progress achieved; problems to be dealt with.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS, PRODUCTIVITY AND CURRENT PROBLEMS IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY

[Sc. Ej. Dp. St. Pr.] For the fourth session of the Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee (Geneva, 1953), ILO published four reports, each as a separate volume of some hundred pages—a report on the measures taken in the various countries to give effect to the conclusions adopted by the committee at its first three sessions; a report on recent employment and wages developments and on the progress of social standards and practices, research and documentation, etc., in the building industry; a report on productivity in this industry; and a special study on methods calculated to lead to the progressive application, in the building industry, of the

principle of the guaranteed wage, with due regard to the need for averting temporary interruptions of work and fluctuations in the situation. Extensive statistics. Bibliographical references.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS, PRODUCTIVITY AND CURRENT PROBLEMS IN COAL MINING

[Sc. Ej. Dp. Sc. Pr.] For the fifth session of the Coal Mines Committee (Düsseldorf, 1953), ILO published five reports, each as a separate volume of some hundred pages.

The first three reports are similar in structure to those mentioned above in connexion with the building industry (measures taken in the various countries to give effect to the committee's conclusions; social and economic situation in the coal industry; productivity in the industry). The other two deal, respectively, with welfare services for coal miners (worthwhile achievements in the various countries in connexion with hygiene and welfare at the place of work, and in regard to health, education, housing, supplies, leisure, etc.) and with miners' pensions (old age, disability or death benefits) in the following 16 countries: Australia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, German Federal Republic, India, Japan, Netherlands, Poland, Saar, Turkey, Union of South Africa, United Kingdom and United States of America). Extensive statistics. Bibliographical references.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN GREECE

Some Economic and Social Problems in Greece. By C. Evelpidis. August 1953, 15 p., printed, $ .15.

[Ej. St. Sc.] The author, a former Finance Minister of Greece, discusses the problems which his country—poorly supplied with natural resources—must contend with in order to raise productivity and the people's living standards. His report deals with agriculture, fishing, the merchant navy, industry, prices and wages, the balance of exchanges, employment and the national income.

SPECIALIZED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

The ILO publishes unprinted lists of specialized bibliographical references. As a general rule, these lists give the titles of a number of books, articles, periodicals and so forth that help the reader to keep abreast of a given subject. Most of the publications mentioned are in English, French or Spanish, but publications issued in other languages are also referred to. We have recently noted, more particularly, the following specialized bibliographies:

Periodicals Received in the ILO Library: Statistics, list 63, 9 p.; some hundred countries or territories are mentioned, as also the international agencies publishing statistical periodicals.

Current Serial Publications of Labour and Social Security Ministries and Administrations, list 64, 6 p.; 48 countries mentioned.

Supervisory Staff Development and Training, list 66, 25 p.; 279 references with author and subject indexes.

Productivity, list 67; selection of monographs and periodicals dealing with the various aspects of the study of productivity, etc. This list supplements and replaces those previously published by the office on the same question.

Living and Working Conditions of Indigenous Populations of States Members of the ILO, list 68, 17 p.; selection of reports on the history, culture and present social and economic conditions of indigenous communities in North and South America, Asia (Burma, Ceylon, India, Viet-Nam), Australia and New Zealand.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO)

LIFE OF THE WHO

Sixth World Health Assembly, Geneva, 5 to 22 May 1953, official records, no. 48, 453 p., printed, $2.50.
[Org.] Verbatim records of plenary meetings. Resolutions and decisions, attendance and procedure. Administrative and budgetary situation of WHO.

STATISTICS

General Vital Statistics, Causes of Death, Morbidity (Epidemiological and Vital Statistics Report), vol. VI, no. 7, July 1953, 47 p., printed (bilingual: English-French).
[St. Dp.] Six non-annotated statistical tables giving the median rate for 1928-38, the annual and monthly rates observed in 1951, 1952 and 1953, and final figures for all countries and territories for which information could be obtained on natality, general mortality, causes of death (deaths due to various diseases, accident, etc.).

1952-1953 Influenza Epidemic in the Northern Hemisphere (Epidemiological and Vital Statistics Report), vol. VI, no. 8, August 1953, 23 p., printed, $ .50 (bilingual: English-French).
[St. Sc. Ej. Dp.] Since the influenza virus was first isolated, large-scale epidemics seem to have succeeded one another at intervals of four to eight years, with intermediate outbreaks every two to three years. These various cycles are characterized by several types of influenza. The statistics of the 1952-53 outbreak are here analysed in detail on the basis of the most up-to-date knowledge about this widespread disease. The epidemic under consideration lasted from October 1952 to June 1953 in the northern hemisphere (America, Europe, Africa and Asia).

REPORTS OF EXPERTS ON VARIOUS PROBLEMS

[Sc] The WHO asks committees of experts for technical advice on particular subjects. The reports of these committees are published as pamphlets in the *WHO Technical Report* series. As a rule, each pamphlet sums up the problem and puts forward suggestions. The latest publications in this series deal with the following subjects:
The Mental Health Aspects of Adoption, Final Report, Report No. 70, 19 p., $ .15.
Principles to be followed in dealing with the various aspects of the problem, different possible courses of action.

Leprosy, First Report, Report No. 71, 28 p., $ .20.

Mental Health, Third Report, Report No. 73, 38 p., $ .25.
Analysis of the frequency of mental diseases, and observations on the capacity of psychiatric hospitals. Recommendations on the development of public mental health services (especially in the field of prevention and treatment otherwise than within the hospital) and on the development of actual hospital services (organization, administration, hospital architecture, training of staff, special services).
The social importance of this problem may be judged from the fact that approximately 40 per cent of the inmates of hospitals in Western Europe and North America are mental patients.

Plague. Second Report, Report No. 74, 13 p., $ .10.

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION (UNESCO)

HISTORICAL INTERDEPENDENCE OF PEOPLES

Journal of World History, vol. I, no. 1, July 1953, International Commission for a Scientific and Cultural History of Mankind. Librairie de Médicis, Paris. Published with the assistance of Unesco under the direction of Lucien Febvre, member of the Institut de France. 243 p., printed. Trilingual: English, French and Spanish, with an inserted supplement containing a summary in English, German and Russian of all articles in the volume. Quarterly. Annual subscription: $6.

[Sc. Ej.] In his foreword to this new publication, Lucien Febvre endeavours to define its underlying intention: transcending the short-sighted concept of history as a series of wars, the journal sets out to show how the imprint left by the peoples on the world is the result of one great common enterprise. The main purpose of the journal is to supply material for the international commission which is responsible for drawing up a history of the scientific and cultural development of mankind, and to serve as a platform for a broad critical discussion of the whole project. This first issue contains extensive information on the project, in addition to many original contributions dealing mainly with the influence exerted by various peoples upon one another, both in prehistoric times and in later periods.

ETHNIC PROBLEMS

The Catholic Church and the Race Question. By the Reverend Father Yves M.-J. Congar, O.P. (*The Race Question and Modern Thought* series) 1953, 62 p., printed, $ .40.

[Sc. Ej.] This is the first publication in a new series designed to state the attitude of the great religions and philosophical systems towards the diversity of human types. Another Unesco series, *The Race Question in Modern Science*, is a collection of booklets providing a succinct survey of the present state of the race question as it appears to scientists.

Father Congar, after showing that Catholic doctrine condemns racial prejudice outright, goes on to describe the actual stand taken by the Church at various periods, with special emphasis on its attitude towards three types of modern problem: races and missions; the co-existence of white and coloured peoples, especially in South Africa and the United States of America; and Nazi racial theory and modern anti-semitism. Bibliography.

EDUCATION

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights. A Guide for Teachers. (Collection *Towards World Understanding*), no. VIII, 87 p., 1953, printed, $ .50.

[Pr.] Suggestions (general ideas and concrete experiments) on teaching about the declaration, both in and out of school, and on means of bringing home to young people its full meaning in a world where human rights are still far from being fully implemented. The booklet includes a brief account of the historical development of human rights, and of the origin of the declaration adopted by the United Nations in 1948. Bibliography. List of films, filmstrips and recordings.

History, Geography and Social Studies. A Summary of School Programmes in Fifty-Three Countries. 1953, 115 p., printed, $1.25.

[Pr. Ej. Dp. St.] The information is presented in the form of very clear tables giving details of the duration and content of the syllabuses, and the approximate age of the pupils, in primary and secondary schools. This report forms part of Unesco's long-term programme for the development of international understanding through the teaching of regular school subjects.

Mental Hygiene in the Nursery School (Problems in Education), no. IX, 32 p., printed, 1953, $ .20.

[Pr. Ej.] Report of a joint committee of experts convened by WHO and Unesco to give special consideration to the modern concept of the psychological and social functions of schools for normal children of pre-school age (2 to 5-7 years), and to problems connected with the recruitment, training and duties of the staff in these establishments. In his 'pre-school' years the child is beginning to develop his personality and adjust himself to society; early childhood education is intended to help this two-fold process by supplementing and broadening the child's home upbringing. One of the chapters is a broad outline of the problem, as posed today, of the young child's psychological needs and his relationship with his social environment.

HUMAN CONSEQUENCES OF TECHNOLOGICAL PROGRESS

Cultural Patterns and Technical Change. A manual prepared by the World Federation for Mental Health and edited by Margaret Mead. 1953, 348 p., printed, $1.75.

[Sc. Ej. Pr. Dp.] Collection of detailed studies regarding the implications which the introduction of new techniques may have for the peoples concerned. These studies were prepared with a view to bringing home the interdependence of all economic, technological, social, cultural and spiritual changes, and the importance of taking into account the values and behaviour patterns of each group if it is to evolve along rational lines. The general problems arising in this connexion are set out in the first part of the book. The second part consists of five studies of entire cultures (Burma, Greece, the Tiv of Nigeria, the Palau Islands and New Mexico); these studies show how a culture may be analysed, and illustrate the contention of modern experts that a culture forms a functional whole. The third part is a series of monographs on the practical repercussions of introducing new techniques into such fields (in different societies) as industry, agriculture, public health, maternity and child care, nutrition and fundamental education. The fourth part deals with the specific mental health implications of technical change, analysed on the basis of ample data supplied by psychiatrists. The fifth part sets forth certain guiding principles; these provide no ready-made solution for the problems involved in developing mental and social health during technical change, but suggest a few practical means of dealing with such problems. The appendices contain material on the present policy of the UN and the Specialized Agencies with regard to technological change and technical assistance. Extensive bibliography. Index.

Establishment of a Research Office for the Study of the Social Implications of Technological Change. 1953, 8 p. ML/895 and Annex.

[Sc. Pr.] Unesco concluded an agreement with the International Social Science Council for the establishment of the office in question (which began its work on 1 October 1953). The letter under review describes the office's programme for the following 18 months: critical survey of available material, organization of seminars, clearing house activities, preparation of bibliographies and of pilot research projects, planning for the extension and stabilization of the activities begun by the office. Experts in each country are invited to take part in the development of this project. (This document is reproduced in full in this issue, see above p. 86.)

CONCEPT AND TEACHING OF SOCIAL SCIENCES IN FRANCE

L'Enseignement des Sciences Sociales en France. In the series *Social Science Teaching.* 1953, 167 p., printed, 300 French fr.

[Pr. Sc. Ej.] In the introduction to this report, Gabriel Le Bras briefly describes the aims and present position of the enquiries undertaken by Unesco into the general trend and requirements of the social sciences in various countries, and gives a general account of the situation in France. In the body of the report, various authors give detailed account of French theory and practice with regard to the teaching of political

science, sociology, social psychology, social anthropology, international relations, law and the philosophy of law.

LIBRARIES

Vocabularium bibliothecarii. English-French-German. Begun by Henri Lemaître, revised and enlarged by Anthony Thompson. Bibliographical manuals of Unesco. 1953, 296 p., $1.75.

[Pr.] English, French and German equivalents of over 2,500 terms used in librarianship, bibliography and documentation. This vocabulary contains systematic indexes and is printed with a blank column in which the equivalent of all terms can be added in a fourth language.

Unesco Seminar on the Development of Public Libraries in Africa (Ibadan, Nigeria, 27 July-21 August 1953). 23 October 1953, 3 p. Unesco/CUA/55.

[Pr.] A brief report. Twenty-nine librarians and educators working in Africa attended the seminar, the latter being part of Unesco's continuing programme for promoting public library development, particularly in association with fundamental and adult education. This programme has included seminars on general public library problems (England, 1948), on the role of libraries in adult education (Sweden, 1950), and on the development of public libraries in Latin America (Brazil, 1951); the opening of a pilot library in Delhi and the organization of another pilot library in Colombia; and the publication of a collection entitled *Unesco Public Library Manuals.* The document under review contains a survey of the large body of documents prepared for the Ibadan seminar, and of its work and recommendations.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND REPERTORIES ON SPOKEN, PRINTED AND FILMED INFORMATION

[Pr.] Various series, each between 15 and 30 pages in length and entitled *Press-Film-Radio,* contain technical information on subjects having some bearing on the use of modern communication media for educational, scientific and cultural purposes. The following catalogues have recently been issued for these series:

Films and Filmstrips about Education (concise particulars on some hundred filmstrips produced in 15 countries; Series No. 3, August 1952).

Unesco Publications on Mass Communication, an annotated bibliography (the origin and contents of all publications on mass communication through the press, radio and films, public libraries, fundamental education, etc., which have been issued or sponsored by Unesco; Series No. 4, 1952).

World Film Directory, Agencies concerned with Educational, Scientific and Cultural Films: Europe (addresses and functions, for each country in Western and Eastern Europe, of government offices, agencies and associations of producers, distributors, exhibitors, film clubs, etc., concerned with educational, cultural and scientific films; Series No. 2D, 1953).

Other similar series dealing with Africa, North and South America, Asia and the South-west Pacific were published at an earlier date.

UNITED NATIONS FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION (FAO)

WORK OF FAO

The Work of FAO, 1952-53. Report of the director-general, October 1953, 57 p., printed, $1.

[Org. Sc. Ej.] The FAO is still grappling with the problem of food scarcity. In the past, much of its time was taken up with urgent, short-term undertakings, but FAO is now in a position to concentrate more on long-range objectives: the long-term raising of food production and improvement of distribution. FAO's work falls into two main

categories: the supply of information to member states and international agencies to help them in the attainment of their aims; the planning and implementation of programmes to supplement governmental action. The report comprises three main sections covering the organization's three types of work: the work of FAO as an information service; assistance provided; information and education. The annexes contain a list of publications issued since the last report.

WORLD SITUATION

The State of Food and Agriculture, 1953. Part I—Review and Outlook. 125 p., printed $1.

[Org. Sc. Ej. Dp. St.] Report prepared on the basis of statistics received by FAO up to 31 July 1953. For the first time since 1939, the increase in the world's food production has kept pace with the growth in population. But this is due to high productivity in particular areas of the world; in the underdeveloped countries, the situation has either not improved or has deteriorated. Hence the two problems of modern agriculture: the finding of stable markets for the agricultural output of the developed countries, mainly by evolving systems for exchanges with the underdeveloped countries; and the raising of agricultural productivity in these latter countries. The report contains a general summary—a separate discussion of the main present-day problems of agriculture and nutrition (production, consumption, trade, prices, yields, prospects for 1953 and 1954), and an analysis of the situation and prospects for each product. Extensive statistics and graphs.

The second volume of the report will review the different countries' agricultural plans and programmes.

LAND REFORM AND ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Interrelationship Between Agrarian Reform and Agricultural Development. An FAO Land Tenure Study. September 1953, 65 p., printed, $. 75.

[Sc. Ej. Pr.] The aim of this study is to define the main economic aspects of land reform. It discusses the effect of various types of land ownership on the development of agriculture; the interaction between agriculture and industrial development; the effects of agricultural development on the general economic situation, on living standards and on population growth.

FORESTRY

Yearbook of Forest Products Statistics. 1953, 153 p., printed, $2.50 (trilingual: English, French and Spanish).

[Sc. St. Pr. Dp. Ej.] Annotated statistics for over 100 countries up to the end of 1952: salient features of the world situation in 1952, roundwood, processed wood, wood pulp, world trade in forest products, international comparisons; production, trade, forest areas, *per caput* consumption.

Research in Forestry and Forest Products. September 1953, 323 p., printed, $3.

[Pr. Sc.] Directory of research organizations concerned with the field under consideration (over 60 countries), with details of their general programme and current projects.

National Forest Policies in Europe. 1953, 370 p., printed, $3.

[Pr. Sc.] The importance of systematic reafforestation for the agricultural and economic stability of communities is universally recognized. The programme of each European country and the results obtained are set forth in the volume under review, together with general observations.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

Activities of FAO under the Expanded Technical Assistance Programme 1952-1953. October 1953, 88 p., printed, $1.
[Org. St. Dp.] The rapid increase in the number of technical assistance requests made to FAO illustrates the realization, by governments, that higher food production is a prerequisite for all other forms of economic and social development. Over 600 experts and a number of fellowship holders have already been asked to collaborate in this programme in 52 countries. Activities in the various countries, regional work, training centres, fellowships. Statistics and graphs are annexed.

ASIA

Agriculture in Asia and the Far East. Development and Outlook. October 1953, 163 p.
[Pr. Ej. St. Dp. Sc.] As a result of a decision taken at the sixth session of FAO's conference, a regional meeting on food and agriculture programmes and prospects in Asia and the Far East was held at Mysore. The document under review contains a report of this meeting, accompanied by a detailed study of the agricultural and food situation in the region and of national programmes for the expansion of production and agricultural exchanges.

Report of the Nutrition Committee for South and East Asia. November 1953, 38 p., printed, $ .40.
[Pr.] Of the committee's three meetings already held (1948, 1950, 1953), the third, described in the booklet under review, was organized jointly by FAO and WHO. The report sums up the evolution of the region's nutritional problems.

RICE

Report of the Second Meeting of the Working Party on Fertilizers. International Rice Commission, August 1953, 46 p., printed, $. 50.
[Pr.] This document forms part of a series prepared for agricultural authorities in the underdeveloped countries, many of which are largely dependent upon rice for their economic and social stability. It contains information regarding the effects of certain fertilizers on rice production, a description of practical experiments, and particulars about the organization of research in the member countries of the International Rice Commission.

EXPLANATION OF ABREVIATIONS USED

Dp. = Presents facts country by country (or region by region).
Ej. = Supplies essential information to educators and journalists interested in social questions.
Org. = Is very useful for knowledge of the current activities of the international organization concerned.
Pr. = Supplies useful factual information for certain groups of people (educators, government officials, members of international organizations and social institutions, etc.) whose activities are connected with the subject matter of the document.
St. = Contains statistics.
Sc. = Deserves the attention of scientific workers in the field concerned.
The importance of these conventional signs is, of course, purely relative, and we do not wish their use to be taken as implying a system of classification. We use them merely in order to give as brief an abstract as is consistent with indicating, in the easiest way possible, that part of the contents of the publications and documents under review which relates to some particular branch of social science.

INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF PERIODICALS

GENERAL

General Policies

'Issues before the Eighth General Assembly', *International Conciliation*, September 1953, 128 p.

Before the opening of the eighth session of the United Nations General Assembly, *International Conciliation* devotes the whole of its September issue to the questions with which the delegates will have to deal: questions ranging from the innumerable political problems to problems relating to administration and finance, and including economic questions, social questions, the refugee question, questions concerning human rights and the rights of the populations of trust territories, and certain matters of procedure. The Korean question assumes particular importance with the signing of the armistice, on 27 July 1953, providing for the holding of a political conference not later than three months after its signature, for the purpose of finding a peaceful solution to the conflict.

AARONSON (M.). 'Where UNO Wastes Money', *Banker*, November 1953, p. 276-86.

The United Nations and the Specialized Agencies at present constitute a fairly heterogeneous system, and this makes it difficult to co-ordinate their activities. Only a special co-ordinating body would be able to avoid the waste that results from this state of affairs. Further, the UN administration has considered itself entitled to refrain from submitting to a strict control the funds received by way of special contribution. The administrators of certain of these funds, particularly those of Unicef, have taken advantage of this situation in order to embark upon rash undertakings involving considerable expenditure. The new secretary-general of UN should put an end to these inadmissible practices.

BRECHER (Michael). 'Kashmir: A Case Study in United Nations Mediation', *Pacific Affairs*, September 1953, p. 195-207.

The last UN mediator, Dr. Graham, in spite of his superhuman efforts, did not succeed in composing the dispute between the parties concerned. Nevertheless, the differences between them seem to be extremely small: Indians and Pakistanis cannot agree on the number of troops which each of them would be authorized to maintain in this region after its 'demilitarization'. However, it is precisely the obduracy of the parties with regard to this question of secondary importance which shows, as Dr. Graham rightly pointed out in one of his recent reports, that the problem is much more difficult than it might seem, and that UN is making a mistake in not going to the core of the problem. It is, of course, desirable that both parties should open bilateral negotiations, for which the time is now more favourable than ever in view of the recent improvement in the relations between the two states. In the absence of such negotiations, UN should decide once and for all whether attaching Kashmir to India is a lawful act, whether Pakistan has committed an aggression, whether any legal authority exists in Kashmir and whether the Azad Kashmir army was raised by Pakistan, as India maintains.

GIRAUD (Émile). 'L'Utilité d'une Institution Internationale', *Revue de Droit International de Sciences Diplomatiques et Politiques*, April-June, 1953, p. 151-6.

The author contends that the defence of peace depends mainly on the material force at the disposal of the nations willing to work for the maintenance of international security.

An international institution has no virtue in itself; its proper functioning depends on the moral and material force which its most powerful members are willing to place at the service of peace, the maintenance of which is due much more to the activities carried out by governments within the framework of the international institution than to the structure of the latter, however elaborate it may be.

HOWARD (Harry N.). 'The Arab-Asian States in the United Nations', *Middle East Journal*, Summer issue, 1953, p. 279-93.

The last three years have revealed to the world the growing strength of the Arab-Asian Member States of UN. In general, their policy is as follows: they support the Western bloc on all questions relating to peace and security, while at the same time advocating the re-establishment of good relations between East and West. However, on questions which they regard as of direct interest to themselves, the Arab States have broken away from the West: questions relating to the State of Israel, Morocco, Tunisia, settlement of the question of South-West Africa, treatment of coloured people in the Union of South Africa, etc.

Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that these differences will diminish in proportion as the tension between the East and the West decreases.

LACHARRIÈRE (René de). 'L'Action des Nations Unies pour la Sécurité et pour la Paix', *Politique Étrangère*, Sept-Oct. 1953, p. 306-38.

In order to arrive at a critical appreciation of the charter, of the UN organization and of its activities in the domain of general policy and security, on a factual rather than on a doctrinal basis, it is necessary to study, first, the general conception of the charter and secondly, the way the organization works; it will then be possible to determine what improvements should be made.

The main characteristic of the charter is the fundamental importance it attaches to agreement between the great powers; the exact value of this agreement in relation to the system as a whole becomes clear if we examine the legal provisions governing it and their real political signification. We then see that agreement between the great powers is not a basic postulate of the charter, but is the essential aim which it seeks to achieve by rejecting all solutions founded on the classical idea of collective security and endeavouring to ensure international security by a system of voluntary co-operation. However, the understandable evolution which, through the failure of the Security Council to prove equal to its task, has led to the transfer of the council's responsibilities to the General Assembly, has given rise to the objection that this is unconstitutional and also to a political objection, based on principle, regarding the difficulties and dangers that would result from a formal revision of the charter, from altering it by successive interpretations and from changing the structure and balance of the organization. Moreover, the argument frequently invoked in support of this point of view—the need to resist aggression—will not bear examination, particularly if we compare the advantages and disadvantages of authorizing the UN to undertake action which, in fact, amounts to the exercise of the right of legitimate defence or to the establishment of a defensive coalition. The experience gained over the Korean affair has shown, in practice, that at the present time collective security can be conceived only in the form of defensive communities established on a limited regional basis. This experience does not therefore in any way encourage majority reform but, on the contrary, proves the soundness of the provisions whereby the charter laid down co-operation between the great powers as the means and the end of the organization. An improvement in the working of the UN can be secured only by a return to these principles.

SRIVASTAVA (Dr. G. P.). 'The UN. A better League of Nations', *Modern Review* June 1953, p. 449-52.

The author first sets out to show that the UN is not, as is generally believed, the League of Nations in a new form; the latter was inspired by the idealism of Wilson, whereas the former is based upon the practical realism of President Roosevelt and Sir Winston Churchill. He then compares the League of Nations Covenant and the United Nations Charter, point by point, showing the progress that has been made. It is, however, merely a theoretical progress: no progress seems to have been made in practice; the UN is a piece of machinery whose proper functioning depends essentially on the honesty and intellectual integrity of the men who make it work. Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that the provisions of the charter confer on UN wider powers than were possessed by the League of Nations.

THOMPSON (Kenneth W.). 'Collective Security Re-examined', *American Political Science Review*, September 1953, p. 753-72.

In the present state of world affairs, collective security cannot be established by mere police measures. As the world is divided into two armed camps of approximately equal strength, collective action against any aggressor would lead, in most cases, to a world war which it is the object of collective security to prevent. Must we therefore conclude that collective security has no longer any *raison d'être*? The recent intervention of UN in Korea has shown that collective security is at least able to prevent a war from spreading.

Relations With States

BELL (Coral). 'The United Nations and the West', *International Affairs*, October 1953, p. 464-73.

In the conflict between East and West, the West is defined fairly well and the East usually very ill. The latter comprises not only the U.S.S.R. and its satellites, but also, in reality, all peoples of non-European civilization: Asia, the Arab countries and, to a certain extent, the countries of South America.

This is due in the first place to the development of national sentiment in countries previously governed as trust territories and, secondly, to the disappearance of Europe as a great power: of the seven great powers of the pre-war period, namely France, Germany, Italy, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, U.S.S.R. and Japan, four were European.

This explains the policy followed at the UN by the 13 Arab-Asian countries, whose arguments are always based on the liberal principles proclaimed in the charter. It is inevitable that these principles should be invoked against the West, which, in its turn, takes advantage of the articles that enable it to exercise exclusively personal powers: opposition might therefore exist between the UN and the Western powers, although the organization is a liberal conception.

COT (Pierre). 'L'Europe dans ses Rapports avec l'O.N.U. et les autres Organismes Internationaux', Centre Européen Universitaire, Nancy. Département des Sciences Politiques, 1952, No. 8, 8vo, p. 1-52.

Europe, a continent with an ancient civilization, has a noble mission: to build up a system of international co-operation. Unfortunately, there is no European organization proper, i.e. no organization which is common to the whole of Europe.

On the contrary, although there exists a policy common to the countries of Eastern Europe, there is no supra-national organization, such as those existing in the West: Council of Europe, European Coal and Steel Community and, possibly in the near future, the European Defence Community. However, none of these organizations can help the two worlds to exist side by side particularly as the absence of England from certain of them puts Germany in a dominant position. Lastly, no European community, whatever its nature, could hope to become a part of the UN since this would only complicate the latter's task.

HABICHT (Max). 'The Special Position of Switzerland in International Affairs', *International Affairs*, October 1953, p. 457-64.

It was on 20 November 1815 that the perpetual neutrality of Switzerland was recognized and guaranteed. A century later, Article 435 of the Treaty of Versailles reaffirmed the guarantees given in 1815 and proclaimed that they were one of the conditions necessary to the maintenance of peace. Later, on 13 February 1920, the Council of the League of Nations, in its London Declaration, recognized that the military neutrality of Switzerland was compatible with the system of collective security established by the League of Nations; this declaration was confirmed in 1938 by a resolution of the Council of the League.

At the present time, Switzerland does not belong to the UN, nor to the Council of Europe, nor to any military organization for the defence of the 'West'; but this does

not prevent it from being a member of 28 international organizations more or less dependent on the UN. We must hope, however, that the UN and Switzerland will find a means of co-operating more closely, so that the international organization will be able to benefit from Switzerland's ardent desire to contribute to world peace.

MARTIN (Paul). 'L'Attitude du Canada au Sujet de la Corée', *Affaires Extérieures*, September 1953, p. 286-8.

Defending the draft resolution presented by Canada and other countries to the UN General Assembly, the author advocates that all states who came to the help of South Korea should participate in the Peace Conference. But if this conference is to facilitate the settlement of all outstanding Asian problems, it should exclude neither the U.S.S.R. nor India, seeing that the conciliatory influence of the latter was a decisive factor in the conclusion of the armistice. The author is opposed to the draft resolution presented by the U.S.S.R. because it would virtually exclude South Korea from the conference; moreover, it does not mention Canada, which, although it has no particular interests to defend in Korea, responded to the appeal of the UN and should therefore be entitled to take part in the conference.

PINTO (Roger). 'La Chine et les Nations Unies', *La Nef*, July 1953, p. 109-25.

The question of the representation of the People's Republic of China at the UN depends on a legal decision, which presupposes the existence of a government; this condition is now satisfied. However, since 1949, only Nationalist China, which no longer exists as a country, is represented at the UN. A study of the various efforts made to secure the admission of the People's Republic of China to membership of the UN shows that the UN is legally bound to recognize the complete incompetency of the Nationalist Government and the inexistence of the powers conferred by it.

However, although the admission of a government to the UN constitutes a right, when certain preliminary conditions are fulfilled, diplomatic recognition of a government remains a discretionary act: thus, Great Britain is accustomed to accord *de facto* governments a recognition which has nothing whatever to do with a value judgment, whereas the United States of America include in their theory of recognition an ethical factor. This partly explains the different attitudes these two countries have adopted towards the People's Republic of China.

Organs of the United Nations

ANDRASSY (Jurai). 'Odnos izmedu Politiskih Organa Ujeginjenih Naroda' (The relations between the political organs of the United Nations), *Medunarodni Problemi*, July-September 1953, p. 15-32.

During the last seven years, the relations between the two main political organs, the General Assembly and the Security Council, have considerably changed, although the charter itself has not been altered.

The author analyses the composition of the General Assembly and that of the Security Council, the activities of both these organs from their establishment up to the present time, their competence, the manner in which their decisions are executed, and more particularly the changes that have taken place in their relations as a result of developments in the international situation, which have increased the role of the General Assembly and enabled the small nations to play a more active part in the life of UN.

THE UNITED NATIONS ORGANIZATION

General Assembly

RAZI (G. M.). 'La Compétence de l'Assemblée Générale de l'O.N.U. (Essai d'une distinction entre les pouvoirs de recommandation et les pouvoirs de décision de

l'Assemblée)', *Revue de Droit International pour le Moyen-Orient*, November 1952, p. 36-66.

After studying the UN General Assembly's recognized power to make recommendations, the author devotes particular attention to the power which has been conferred upon it to make decisions: in certain matters the General Assembly exercises sovereign power, whereas in others it can take decisions only in agreement with the Security Council.

The first category includes questions concerning the Trusteeship System; financial matters, except for examination of the Specialized Agencies' administrative budgets. in respect of which it may make recommendations only; requests to the International Court of Justice for advisory opinions; and the election of members of the Security Council and of the Economic and Social Council. On the other hand, in the following matters the Security Council must also co-operate: admission of new members, expulsion of members, appointment of the secretary-general, participation of non-member states in the election of the judges of the International Court of Justice and, lastly, amendments and revision of the charter.

MALEK (Ch.). 'L'affaire Tunisienne devant le Conseil de Sécurité', *Revue de Droit International pour le Moyen-Orient*, November 1952, p. 89-99.

The author studies the reasons which led the Security Council to reject the request, made by 11 states on 2 April 1952, for the inclusion of the Tunisian question in the agenda.

The majority of the council took the view that the question should continue to form the subject of direct negotiations between France and Tunisia, as discussions on a higher level might aggravate the situation. However that may be, has the Security Council the right to refuse to include in its agenda a question which is submitted to it in accordance with the provisions of the charter? From the strictly legal standpoint, it has such a right, but, in fact, it should not have invoked political reasons for its attitude, since it had never previously refused to examine a complaint, thus establishing, as it were, a tradition.

International Court of Justice

MALEK (Ch.). 'L'affaire de l'Anglo-Iranian Oil Company devant la Cour Internationale de Justice', *Revue de Droit International pour le Moyen-Orient*, November 1952, p. 67-88.

The author gives an historical account of the proceedings before the International Court of Justice, making a very clear distinction between the two stages: the written proceedings, followed by the oral proceedings. He analyses, firstly, the British statement of claim and, secondly, the Iranian statement of defence, before dealing with the judgment. The latter, delivered on 22 July 1952, stated that the court was not competent to decide the dispute, the court basing itself on the principle that it could give no decision except with the assent of both parties, which was not the case.

Here the author draws particular attention to the following fact: the court indirectly abstained from giving its opinion on the question whether the nationalization of the Iranian oil was or was not a question falling within the exclusive competence of the Iranian State; and this would permit the dispute to be brought at any moment before UN.

Economic and Social Council

LOVEDAY (A.). 'Suggestions for the Reform of the United Nations Economic and Social Machinery', *International Organization*, August 1953, p. 325-41.

Ecosoc has recently been the object of violent criticism. However, it must be admitted that its unsatisfactory functioning is not due solely to faulty organization. Any organized body which has no executive power is inevitably condemned to a certain degree of helplessness. Such is the case with Ecosoc, which can give effect to its decisions only with the consent of its Member States. Moreover, the present world situation, and more

particularly the cold war, seriously handicaps the proper functioning of Ecosoc. Nevertheless, it should be possible to obtain better results from this body. Ecosoc should concern itself solely with co-ordination of the activities of the Specialized Agencies, and all practical problems should be entrusted to a new specialized agency. The latter should have its headquarters in Geneva, gradually absorbing ECE and taking over the functions of the Interim Commission for the International Trade Organization. Since the appointment of the delegates by the governments has given unsatisfactory results, the members of the new organization should be chosen for their personal qualifications. With regard to Ecosoc itself, it should be split up into two committees, one of which would deal exclusively with current affairs, and the other with problems of importance. Although this solution implies the establishment of a new body, it would permit the abolition of other organizations and simplify the functioning of Ecosoc.

Economic Commission for Latin America

MARIANI (E.). 'La Commissione Economica per l'America Latina (C.E.P.A.L.) nella Collaborazione Economica Interamericana e Mondiale', *Rivista di Politica Economica*, May 1953, p. 620-5.

After describing the origin of the Economic Commission for Latin America and indicating its place in the attempts at inter-American co-ordination, the author gives a brief account of its different meetings, with special reference to those at Santiago, Chile (June 1948) and Petropolis (April 1953). He connects the discussions at Petropolis with the conclusions reached, on the same questions of regional economic integration, by the Inter-American Economic and Social Council at its meeting in Caracas, the Inter-American Council of Commerce and Production at its meeting in Lima in November 1952, and the thirty-sixth session of the International Labour Conference.

NORRIEGA HERRERA (A.). 'Quinto Período de Sessiones de la C.E.P.A.L', *Revista de Economía*, May 1953, p. 151-3.

After giving a general description of this organization, with special reference to the importance of the problem of the European Payments Union and of the foreign trade of Latin America, the author discusses the suggestions made by Professor Robert Triffin, of Yale University, regarding, on the one hand, the extent to which the Latin American countries can benefit from the facilities offered by the European Payments Union and, on the other, the establishment of a broad multilateral compensation system, dependent upon the International Monetary Fund. The author then considers the records of the fifth session of ECLA and draws particular attention to the speech in which Dr. R. Prebisch, dealing with the industrial development of Latin America, emphasized the need to transcend the limits of the regional economic systems. Other matters of prime importance dealt with at this session were the economic report on Latin America for 1951-52, presented by the secretariat of the conference; the survey carried out under the commission's auspices regarding the aspects of Mexican transport affecting trade between Mexico, Central America and the West Indies; and the work done by the commission in implementation of UN's technical assistance programme.

SANCHEZ SARTO (M.). 'Las Inversiones y la Programación del Desarollo', *Revista de Economía*, June 1953, p. 176-8.

Analysing the two reports presented to the ECLA session at Petropolis, and entitled 'Preliminary Study on the Technique of Economic Development Programmes' and 'Economic Study of Latin America in 1951-52', the author offers constructive criticism of the ideas expressed in them with regard to investments and according to which economic developments, in countries where savings are not very considerable, could only result from the accumulation of incomes in a small number of hands and could not, therefore, be undertaken simultaneously with a vast social programme. The author also criticizes the exaggerated importance attached to the role of foreign investments as a corrective to inadequate savings.

International Law Commission

JEVREMOVIC (Dr. Branko D.). 'Rad VIII i IX zasedanja Komisije za prava coveka Oun po pitanju unosenja prava naroda na jamoopredeljenje u paktove o pravima coveka' (The work of the eighth and ninth sessions of the Commission on Human Rights and the inclusion in the International Covenant on Human Rights of the right of peoples to self-determination), *Medunarodni Problemi*, July-September 1953, p. 3-15.

At its sixth session, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a resolution in which it asked the Commission on Human Rights to include in the International Covenant on Human Rights an article affirming the right of all nations to self-determination and stipulating that all states, including those having responsibility for the administration of non-self-governing territories, should promote the realization of that right.

Most of the members of the commission favoured the inclusion of this article in the International Covenant on Human Rights, but the commission wished to go even further by having the article declare that every nation should be free to choose its own economic status and that no nation should be deprived of its economic resources. This formula, owing to the various ways in which it could be interpreted, prevented the Commission on Human Rights from making any progress, at its ninth session, as regards the right of peoples to self-determination.

Technical Assistance

WEILL-RAYNAL (Étienne). 'Le Déséquilibre Économique Permanent et l'Aide aux Pays sous-développés', *Revue Socialiste*, August 1953, p. 263-75.

The Lévy-Jacquemin Plan, drawn up seven years ago, would make it possible to resolve satisfactorily the problem of the European dollar shortage. American aid should be for the benefit of the underdeveloped countries. They would thus be able to order what they needed in Europe, and this would enable the latter to remedy its dollar deficit. The United States would support this policy, as it would be the only means of maintaining the present situation, and consequently their own supremacy. As regards France, this solution would not absolve it from the need to reform its economic system as quickly as possible, if it did not wish to become incapable of competing with the other European powers.

SHARP (Walter R.). 'The Institutional Framework for Technical Assistance', *International Organization*, August 1953, p. 342-79.

The future of technical assistance depends to a large extent on the United States of America. Unfortunately, since the Korean crisis, American public opinion, together with the government, mistrusts UN, with the result that only 4 per cent of the funds which the United States Government provides for technical assistance are allotted to UN. This is not a very wise policy, for UN, in spite of its shortcomings on the political plane, can render invaluable services in the field of technical assistance and thus contribute to the consolidation of the free world. Further, increased American assistance would encourage the other powers to make a greater contribution. It would also make it possible to avoid the wastage that results from the maintenance of two distinct organizations, one international and the other American. Its main advantage, however, would be to ensure the rational use of the technical assistance funds, for the inadequacy of these funds makes it impossible, at present, to grant underdeveloped countries long-term credits or to conclude long-term contracts with experts.

RIVERA (Fernando). 'Gerencia Administrativa y Desarollo Economico', *Investigacion Economica*, first quarter 1953, p. 15-27.

Why does UN assign such an important place to public administration in its technical assistance programme? The countries receiving technical assistance are usually unable to develop their economic system themselves. Consequently, numerous plans must

be drawn up, and these can only be put into effect by the administration. The latter, however, still remains to be built up in underdeveloped countries where, in contrast to the more advanced countries, there are no ministries or secretariats of state, established on a permanent basis and entrusted with well-defined tasks.

Thus it is understandable that UN is obliged to intervene in the internal affairs of these countries, and it usually does so by exercising control in respect of the capability of the officials entrusted with the execution of the plan, in respect of the budget and, generally, with a view to ensuring effective over-all application of the plan.

PONIATOWSKI (M.). 'Les Problèmes Posés par l'Évolution Économique des Pays Sous-développés', extract from the *Bulletin Economique et Social du Maroc*, vol. XVI, nos. 56 and 57, fourth quarter 1952 and first quarter 1953, 16mo. 50 p.

The author divides his article into two parts, the first being devoted to human and social problems. The second part deals with the economic and financial development of underdeveloped countries and includes, more particularly, an analysis of international investment between 1914 and 1950.

From 1913 to 1938, the role played by Europe in this field gradually diminished, the United States holding 21 per cent of international capital in 1938 as against 8 per cent in 1913.

After World War II, assistance to underdeveloped countries was provided through organizations of a more or less international nature. These can be divided into two categories: international organizations proper, and regional organizations. The first category includes UN and its Specialized Agencies (whose activities are co-ordinated by the Technical Assistance Board), the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, and the International Monetary Fund. The best known bodies in the second category are the Consultative Committee responsible for the Colombo Plan, the Organization of American States, and the Caribbean and South Pacific Commission.

LANGROD (G.). 'Études de l'Administration Internationale. L'expert dans l'Assistance Technique', *Revue Hellénique de Droit International*, January-March 1953, p. 27-47; April-June 1953, p. 130-51.

The expert is a fundamental factor in all technical assistance activities. Certain setbacks in technical assistance must be attributed to the fact that its administrative or financial aspects have been considered independently of its human aspect.

Experience in the field of technical assistance has given rise to three conceptions with regard to the expert: an almost functional conception, the expert being regarded as a civil servant sent on temporary mission; an ideological conception, the expert being considered as a kind of 'missionary'; and a 'bank and employment bureau' conception, under which the recipient of assistance comes to be regarded as an 'employer'. The third conception, which leads to a cheapening of the whole idea, must be combated; between the other two conceptions, a balance must be struck.

In addition to his technical training, the expert must possess understanding sympathy for the country in which he works and be well informed about its culture. In the recruiting of experts, which is effected on the basis of technical ability and geographical distribution, the human qualities of those selected are too often overlooked. Further, a permanent group of experts should be established, and recruited, if necessary, among those who are most readily available, namely stateless persons. If the expert is to succeed in his mission, not only must he have received adequate training and have been recruited on a satisfactory basis, but he must also enjoy great prestige, both in the country to which he is assigned and in the eyes of the organization which sends him to that country. As for the composition of the various missions, the present tendency is to form missions consisting of several members. Co-operation between the expert and the country in which he is operating is essential if technical assistance is to be a success.

While the expert's assignment must not be a sinecure, his remuneration must be substantial enough to free him from all financial worry. The problem of the expert must be linked with that of fellowships and scholarships, since these make it possible

to replace international experts by nationals of the countries assisted. On the basis of the report of the Centre des Hautes Études Administratives Françaises (February 1952), Unesco should work out a formal status for technical assistance experts, simultaneously creating a 'training centre' for them and compiling an international register of experts.

'L'Aide aux Régions Sous-développées', *Economie*, 24 September 1953, p. 11-18.
The Advisory Committee on Underdeveloped Areas, set up by the Mutual Security Agency, has just published its report on the principles which must inspire every programme of aid to foreign countries. It reveals, in particular, that the United States of America are unwilling to bear the whole burden of investment on the pretext that they are the richest country in the world; hence the need for a large-scale resumption of European investment, as part of effective economic co-operation on the international plane. Further, it is desirable that such investment should be of a private nature; but experience has shown that private investors cannot be attracted without serious guarantees, and these, in their own interests, underdeveloped countries should be prepared to provide.

'Technical Aid after Three Years', *Planning*, 26 October 1953.
Whereas, in 1950, international organizations had considerable funds at their disposal and had to exert pressure on the governments in order to get them to accept the plans submitted to them, the present position is just the reverse: development plans are drawn up by the governments, but the international organizations do not possess the necessary funds for their execution, as certain governments do not pay their contribution regularly and others have even reduced the amount which they had originally agreed to pay. This state of affairs is all the more regrettable in that it makes it impossible to supply underdeveloped countries with the long-term credits which, in the opinion of all the experts, are vitally necessary for them. Nevertheless, it is possible to make better use of such funds as are in fact available; thus it would be well to abolish certain posts and organize a few regional centres, since this would permit of a reduction in the 'travel and transport' expenditure, at present constituting 16 per cent of the budget. Moreover, it is not certain that training of indigenous executives is the best policy; the foreign experts assigned to such training are required for more urgent tasks.

Disarmament

PORDEA (Dr. G. A.). 'Le Désarmement : une Utopie?', *Revue de Droit International, de Sciences Diplomatiques et Politiques*, April-June 1953, p. 160-81.
After giving a general summary of the various aspects of the disarmament problem, the author refers to the relevant articles of the UN Charter, with their predominantly political, economic and diplomatic characteristics. He concludes that the degree of tension existing in international relations is of no great importance, as war fever is simply a subconscious 'premeditation' provoked by the existence of armaments.

Passing on to the problem of atomic armaments, the author identifies the basic data and asks whether the control of such armaments is feasible. He considers that, although possible from the scientific and technical standpoints, it is not yet possible on the political plane. However, the fact that international discussions on this subject have so far proved fruitless is due not only to the governments but also to the peoples; the latter, imagining that events are no longer within their control, feel that a new conflict is inevitable and so insist that their governments prepare for the future war.

'La Commission du Désarmement sortira-t-elle de l'Impasse? . . .', *Cahiers d'Action Religieuse et Sociale*, 15 September 1953, p. 485-92.
The Disarmament Commission, established in February 1952, was the result of the fusion of two other commissions: the Commission for Conventional Armaments, created in February 1947, and the Atomic Energy Commission, set up in January 1946.

The commission's work has not, so far, led to any practical results. Russian and American plans for disarmament follow upon each other, with certain changes, but are always in complete conflict as regards the control and inventorying to be effected prior to the banning of atomic armaments. The French plans, intended to facilitate a compromise, have not yet succeeded in reducing the gap between the view of the two blocs.

The *impasse* in which the Disarmament Commission finds itself is due to the mutual distrust of the states. In fact, an international policy aiming at a balance of power is a sterile one, for the absence of armed warfare is only a negative ideal. Until it is enshrined in the hearts of men, peace will never be more than a truce.

International Law

KUNZ (Joseph L.). 'La Plataforma Continental: Nuevo Derecho Internacional *in fieri*', *Revista de la Facultad de Derecho de México*, April-June, p. 207-25.

After referring briefly to the background of the problem and to the origin of the International Law Commission's work, the author studies the question of the continental shelf and related matters, with special reference to the proposals which the commission made in its final report, prepared for the fifth session in 1953. He deals, in turn, with the following problems: the legal definition of the continental shelf, the extension of territorial waters and the adjacent area, the regulation of fishing, the legal basis of the right which riparian states are recognized to have over the riches of the soil and subsoil, the freedom of the seas. He concludes that the new law regarding the continental shelf is not yet an operative international law, but only a new international law in process of development. In fact, the declarations of a few states have not created a new international customary law; they have not conferred on those states, *de jure*, the rights claimed, and have neither declaratory nor constitutive effect.

DIDJANSKY (D.) and CASTANOS (S.) 'Théorie de l'Union Internationale', *Revue Hellénique de Droit International*, April-June 1953, p. 117-29.

An international union has been described by Renault as an association of several states, with a series of general conditions agreed upon. Observation shows that unions are 'special treaties for international administration'. From the juridical point of view, they are treaties of association which, unlike synallagmatic treaties, are 'amphictyonic', i.e. they serve similar and common interests, and can thus prepare the way for general organizations like the League of Nations and UN.

A union is, generally, a collective treaty which can be acceded to by new parties. Its chief characteristic is close community of outlook between the parties, the establishment of at least one field of common action. A field thus established between two or more parties is something over and above purely national competence and thus effects the transition from the national to the international plane.

TAUBENFELD (Howard J.). 'International Actions and Neutrality', *American Journal of International Law*, July 1953, p. 377-97.

Neutrality is the legal situation of states not taking part in hostilities, and a neutral state is one which, in a war, does not rank among the belligerents. However, the League of Nations Covenant considerably modified this traditional view of neutrality, for Article 16 declared that the idea of neutrality was incompatible with the principles whereby all members of the league would have to act together in order to ensure respect for international law. The Ethiopian affair showed that this idea was premature; countries which were not members of the League of Nations still insisted on the need to maintain the traditional idea of neutrality, so that in 1939 the rights of neutrals were just as firmly proclaimed as before 1914.

At present, Article 2 of the United Nations Charter seems to preclude the possibility of a member or a non-member state remaining neutral, but various other articles of the charter imply that non-belligerency is still possible, and the Korean conflict has shown that it in fact is.

WRIGHT (Quincy). 'The Outlawry of War and the Law of War', *American Journal of International Law*, July 1953, p. 365-77.

Public opinion has been sceptical about the outlawry of war, but it must be realized that generations may elapse before the theory can actually be put into practice. This was true with regard to the rules intended to forbid duelling, and it will also be true of the Briand-Kellogg Pact.

Although the latter has not yet entered the world of realities, the various states usually admit the following rules: any state, whether or not a party to the Briand-Kellogg Pact or to the United Nations Charter, is entitled to wage war whenever it is compelled rightly to defend itself; states cannot acquire new rights through unlawful action, any more than they can be deprived of rights which they enjoy under international law.

International Fiscal Law

CHRÉTIEN (Maxime). 'Existe-t-il un Droit International Fiscal Commun?', *Revue Critique de Droit International Privé*, April-June 1953, p. 215-45.

The question arises whether there exist in the fiscal domain certain norms which should be respected by every state. The author first analyses the concept of state sovereignty in the most generally accepted sense, dealing first with its characteristics and then with its consequences.

Passing on to the special problem of fiscal sovereignty, the author takes up the question of fiscal matters in international law, and from this proceeds, at the end of his article, to analyse the case of the Customs Régime between Germany and Austria, in the light of the advisory opinion given by the Permanent Court of International Justice on 5 September 1931. In his next article, he intends to examine the case of the free zones of Upper Savoy and the district of Jex (Judgment of June 1932 of the Permanent Court of International Justice) and the case of the rights of American nationals in Morocco (Judgment of the same court, 27 August 1952) in order to show that fiscal sovereignty is a recognized principle of common international fiscal law.

Human Rights

SAYAGUES LASO (Enrique). 'Los Derechos Humanos y las Medidas de Ejecución', *Revista de la Facultad de Derecho y Ciencias Sociales*, April-June 1953, p. 273-357.

On 10 December 1948, the UN adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which was the result of a long evolution that began, according to some, with the Treaty of Berlin of 1878; the latter imposed on the Balkan states, which were set up under the terms of that treaty, the obligation to respect certain rights, such as freedom of worship, freedom of assembly, etc. The rights proclaimed in the Universal Declaration have a juridical basis and are therefore binding although there are no effective sanctions to ensure their enforcement and they are not particularly practical.

The Commission on Human Rights is therefore concentrating all its efforts on the conclusion of a covenant which would be acceptable to most states: it prepared a draft and submitted it to the General Assembly, which has just sent it back with the request that the commission should revise it and consider appropriate measures for ensuring its implementation.

The author reviews the measures that might be taken and declares in favour of individual petitions, pointing out that although the UN does not envisage the establishment of a court of justice, certain European states are considering that idea.

International Penal Law

PELLA (Vespasien V.). 'Le Code des Crimes contre la Paix et la Sécurité de l'Humanité', *Revue de Droit International, de Sciences Diplomatiques et Politiques*, April-June 1953, p. 125-52.

After studying international crimes in relation to civil law crimes and political crimes,

the author deals with the question of classical international penal law and maintains that the latter does not really form part of international law proper. He then refers to the traditional concept of international crime, emphasizing the civil responsibility of the state and excluding the international responsibility of the individual. He maintains that the terms 'international crime' and 'crime against peace' are synonymous and asks whether it would be desirable to include in the code crimes against peace and the security of humanity. It is difficult to answer this question because, since war is no longer regarded as a 'right', it is no longer entitled, in principle, to be brought under regulation. However, we must not overlook the question of self-defence, though the limits of self-defence must not be exceeded; this also implies the 'right to wage war'.

STREBEL (Helmut). 'Die Strafrechtliche Sicherung humanitärer Abkommen' (The penal protection of humanitarian agreements), *Zeitschrift für ausländisches öffentliches Recht und Völkerrecht*, October 1953, p. 31-75.

The establishment of an international tribunal competent to try individuals might seem to be one of the most urgent questions of the day. However, it is unlikely that such a tribunal, which would inevitably be overwhelmed with work, would be able to maintain the confidence of the states. During the second world war, the treatment of prisoners of war, for instance, gave rise to very few lawsuits. Consequently, it would seem preferable that states shoult maintain the right to institute proceedings against foreigners who have infringed the local laws or the law of nations, and that only questions of principle should be raised before an international court.

Status of Prisoners and Refugees

H. G. 'Progress in Refugee Settlement', *World Today*, October 1953, p. 449-60.

For 31 years the refugee problem has been dealt with on the international level; it is now possible, therefore, to come to some conclusions about it.

In the first place, the problem has been so persistent that it has almost become a characteristic feature of our epoch, sometimes called the age of the refugee. Secondly, the facts show that since 1948, this problem mainly concerns the Western powers. Lastly, the refugees of today are usually persons who cannot be repatriated.

The author therefore deals at length with the migration plan adopted on 5 December 1951 in Brussels during the International Conference on Migration and implemented by the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM), which looks after the three main centres in which 'European' refugees are concentrated: China, the Near East and Trieste.

MAKOWSKI (Julian). 'Nowe Konwencje Genewskie' (The Geneva Conventions), *Panstwo i Prawo*, May-June 1953, p. 716-47.

The efforts made between 1581 and 1864 (date of the first International Red Cross conference) to organize the protection of military sick and wounded were not very successful. The situation changed as soon as the old type of war gave place to imperialistic wars, rendered inevitable by the contradictions of the capitalist system. The bourgeois governments then endeavoured, under the pressure of public opinion, to 'humanize' warfare—hypocritical efforts intended to deceive public opinion and camouflage military aims.

Giving an historical account of the International Red Cross conferences, the author refers to the book written by Anabella Bucar, a refugee in the U.S.S.R., entitled: *The Truth about American Diplomats*, in which she describes the Red Cross as the accomplice of American diplomacy and of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. At the fourth International Red Cross conference in 1949, the U.S.S.R. and the progressive countries strove for the humanization of war in all circumstances, whereas the Anglo-Saxon bloc tried to restrict the freedom of movement of the occupying forces during a conflict as little as possible.

MAYDA (Jaro). 'The Korean Repatriation Problem and International Law', *The American Journal of International Law*, July 1953, p. 414-39.

On 18 December 1951, shortly after the beginning of the negotiations for an armistice in Korea, a list of the prisoners of war to be rapatriated was drawn up; but it was not until a year and a half later that the two parties agreed on the procedure to be followed for the exchange of prisoners.

The 1949 Geneva Convention relative to the treatment of prisoners of war was applicable in this case; the sole problem, therefore, was to ensure that the convention was correctly interpreted. The U.S.S.R. based its arguments mainly on Article 118 of the convention, maintaining that all prisoners of war must be released and repatriated immediately after the cessation of hostilities. In the view of the United Nations Command, on the other hand, the communist countries were not morally entitled to invoke the convention as they had not adhered to it; further, if the reasons advanced by the North Koreans had been accepted, the consequences would have been contrary to the very principles of freedom and justice upon which the 1949 Convention was based. These were the conflicting points of view which had to be reconciled before a compromise was finally reached in 1953.

SARRAUTE (R.) and TAGER (Paul). 'Le Nouveau Statut International des Réfugiés', *Revue Critique de Droit International Privé*, April-June 1953, p. 245-89.

After giving a brief historical account of the protection of refugees since the establishment of the League of Nations, and certain particulars about the drafting of the Geneva Convention of 25 July 1951, the authors analyse the latter in detail. They first draw attention to the main characteristics of the new convention, emphasizing both the extreme generality of the protection accorded and the restrictions which tend to confer a theoretical rather than a practical value on the rights granted to refugees—rights which the authors examine in the second part of their article. Lastly, they consider the problem of the stateless, which must be distinguished from the refugee problem, because the former is mainly of a legal, and the latter essentially of a political nature.

NATHAN-CHAPOTOT (Roger). 'Les Prisonniers de Guerre de Corée et le Statut des Réfugiés', *Vie Intellectuelle*, October 1953, p. 74-81.

It is recognized that the solution of the problem of refugees and refractory prisoners of war depends mainly on three conditions: a minimum of co-operation between the belligerents; the rapid transformation of refractory prisoners of war into refugees; the existence of a repatriation commission entrusted with the control of operations.

The June agreement concerning the prisoners of war in Korea proves the existence of these conditions, but other questions still remain unsolved: what is the use of recognizing that someone has a certain status unless it confers some right? The Korean agreement contains only very vague provisions for the protection of refractory prisoners once they have returned to civil life; but this raises a number of questions, for instance : Where can they go?

It is clear, therefore, that a fourth condition should be satisfied, namely, that a body should be set up to control the protection accorded to refugees by the states where they seek refuge.

WILHELM (René-Jean). 'Peut-on Modifier le Statut des Prisonniers de Guerre?', *Revue Internationale de la Croix-Rouge*, July 1953, p. 516-43.

In raising the question whether the status of prisoners of war can be modified, the author begins by examining changes made authoritatively, i.e. by a unilateral decision of the power in control of the prisoners, goes on to consider changes which may be regarded as 'voluntary', i.e. those which have apparently been requested by the prisoner himself and, finally, deals with changes which are lawful, i.e. not contrary to the letter or to the spirit of the Geneva Convention.

In this article, the first of a series, the author studies only the first two kinds of changes. He shows that between 1939 and 1945, the status of prisoners of war was always modified

by the controlling power contrary to the spirit of the 1929 Convention. After examining in turn all instances of this, he comes to the conclusion that the 1949 Convention has done away with all ambiguity by obliging every power in control of prisoners of war to respect, in future, not only the spirit but also the letter of the regulations concerning them.

Non-Self-Governing Territories

HOUSTON (N. T.). 'Le Développement du Commerce sous Tutelle des Iles du Pacifique', *Bulletin Trimestriel de la CPS*, April 1953, p. 47-52.
As the Japanese merchants had been expelled after the Second World War, and as the native populations were completely lacking in experience, the American military government found itself obliged to take in hand the revival of trade in the liberated islands. This task was entrusted to the United States Commercial Co., a civil company under the control of the United States Government; in 1947, after the institution of the trusteeship system, it became the Island Trading Company of Micronesia. Owing to the shortage of commodities, there could be no question in 1946 of leaving retail trading in private hands. Consequently, the USCC established municipal stores, which still exist in the remotest islands; but gradually private retail—and then wholesale—firms were established. The latter also ensure a part of the importations and should, as soon as possible, completely replace the ITCM. However, the inexperience of their directors and the inadequate production of copra—the exportation of which is also the concern of the wholesale firms—prevent these from becoming sufficiently stable to do without any form of supervision whatsoever.

MATHIOT (André). 'Chronique des Territoires Non Autonomes', *Revue Juridique et Politique de l'Union Française*, April-June 1953, p. 214-61.
After a brief lull in 1950, the battle against colonialism flared up again at the UN during the years 1951-53. Although the resolutions adopted by the General Assembly with regard to the problems of North Africa did not lead to any notable changes, it seems evident that France must henceforth avoid pursuing a policy of *status quo* and undertake as rapidly as possible the reforms expected of her. Moreover, non-colonial states are increasingly less willing to support the reforms proposed by the colonial powers, unless these reforms are accompanied by political guarantees of future independence. As to the Trusteeship Council, its prestige has increased, in spite of its failure over the question of South West Africa. It has a number of achievements to its credit, particularly the agreement concerning the participation of native representatives in the discussions, the association of Italy in the work of the council, and the abolition of corporal punishment.

THE SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

International Monetary Fund

'Bilan du Fonds Monétaire International', *Économie*, 1 October 1953, p. 25-8.
After describing the manner in which the fund operates, the author analyses its report and observes that, on the whole, the world situation as regards payments was better balanced in 1952 than in 1951: one of the best proofs of this was that the surplus in the balance of payments of the United States of America, in 1952, was only half of what it was in 1951, and in 1952 the countries attached to OEEC doubled their exports to the United States of America in comparison with 1949. Dealing, in conclusion, with convertibility, the author maintains that it should not be regarded as an end in itself, but as an object to be attained through the medium of the fund, which was conceived for that very purpose.

'Il Fondo Monetario Internazionale e la Convertibilità delle Monete', *Quaderni di studi e notizie*, 1 August 1953, p. 547-52.

The question of the convertibility of currencies is steadily becoming more important. It is therefore necessary to clarify the situation before the next meeting of the governors of the International Monetary Fund. If the convertibility of currencies is to be brought about smoothly, it is necessary to establish, on a world scale, a close link between commercial policies and monetary policies with a view to the greatest possible development of exchanges. This condition is still far from being realized. The persistence of restrictive tendencies in commercial policy constitutes a serious obstacle to the convertibility of currencies. The solution of this problem will depend on the development of American economic policy.

GIGNOUX (C. J.), 'Le Fonds Monétaire ou l'Orthodoxie Circonspecte', *Banque*, October 1953, p. 617-20.

Analysing the report of the International Monetary Fund, the author affirms that it started a controversy around which the official and unofficial deliberations at the fund's recent session were centred, concerning the return to convertibility.

Great Britain is no longer the only country which supports such a policy: the German Federal Republic takes the same view and recently the Netherlands have considerably relaxed their exchange controls. Unfortunately, any return to convertibility presupposes the existence of considerable reserves intended to support fluctuations likely to affect the currencies during the period immediately after they are freed from control, and no country has these at its disposal. Only the United States of America can solve this problem, but it has intimated that it is not at present able to provide credits for that purpose.

However, this session should be of benefit to France by reminding it of certain realities, the most important of which is the need to achieve an internal financial equilibrium and a satisfactory balance of payments; the number of countries nearing that goal is increasing every day, whereas France is still very far away from it.

GATT

'Avant la 8ème Assemblée des Pays du GATT', *Problèmes Économiques*, 15 September 1953, p. 4 (reproduction of an article published by the Kreditsbank in its weekly bulletin of 6 July 1953.

The eighth assembly of the countries adhering to the GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) will probably be of considerable importance. Great Britain will no doubt again endeavour to revert to the policy of imperial preference and demand the authorization to increase customs tariffs on certain horticultural products. Benelux will undertake to maintain its tariffs at their present relatively low level only if the other states agree to lower theirs. However, the assembly will have to draw up a plan of action for the debate on commercial policy, which will take place next summer in the American Congress and will probably result in a modification of the present customs policy of the United States of America. Until this modification has been made, the assembly can only prolong the agreements of Geneva, Annecy and Torquay, which are about to expire. Japan's request for admission raises a difficult problem: several signatories of the GATT recommend that Japan should be admitted subject to certain conditions, but her admission might create as many problems as it solves. The case of Japan might be quoted as a precedent and certain states might consider themselves entitled to make their economic agreements with other signatories of the GATT subject to the same conditions and thus create still more obstacles to the freedom of trade.

'Bilan du GATT', *Économie*, 5 November 1953, p. 23-7.

In November 1945, the United States of America, followed, in February 1946, by the United Nations Economic and Social Council, launched the idea of an international conference on trade, and it was during one of the meetings of the Preparatory Committee that the GATT was signed on 20 October 1947.

The international conference finally took place at Havana from 21 November 1947

to 24 March 1948 and resulted in the Havana Charter; but this had no practical results because the United States of America postponed *sine die* their adhesion to the ITO (International Trade Organization), set up under the charter.

Thus, till now, only the GATT has been able to achieve something concrete: during its sessions in 1948 and 1950, and at the Torquay Conference (September 1950 to April 1951), it secured the conclusion of numerous tariff agreements; but, since then, it has had to concern itself more with the control than with the freeing of trade. In 1954 it must therefore endeavour above all to revert to its original aims.

WEBB (Leicester). 'The Future of International Trade', *World Politics*, July 1953, p. 423-42.

The Charter of the International Trade Organization is not of very great interest: it is a difficult instrument of international co-operation. The GATT, established in Geneva in 1947, is, on the contrary, much easier to use. So far, its object has been to reduce a number of customs tariffs, but its success will ultimately depend on the good will of governments; for this problem is not of an exclusively technical nature; it is largely psychological, since the pressure under which certain public officials work makes them react in a particular way and the very nature of their responsibilities predisposes them to commit certain types of errors and exaggerations: thus the future of the free society, which is the chief aim of liberals, cannot be assured by preferring instability to any extension of the powers of the state, for, when all is said and done, the people prefer the rule of law and order.

ICAO

'La Septième Session de l'Assemblée de l'O.A.C.I'., *Affaires Extérieures*, September 1953, p. 278-81.

The seventh session of the Assembly of ICAO, which was held in Brighton from 16 June to 6 July 1953, closed in an atmosphere of optimism. Nevertheless, the difficult problem of commercial rights remained unsolved, because it proved impossible to reconcile the differences of those who favoured complete freedom as regards the right to fly over foreign territory and those who feared the consequences of unrestricted competition. The assembly recommended that the application of international standards should be speeded up and expressed its apprehension lest the conclusion of a regional agreement, as requested by the Council of Europe, might prejudice the interests of other members of the organization. That it was impossible to reduce the budget indicates the importance which member states attach to ICAO. However, the assembly refused to suspend the voting rights of states which had not paid their financial contributions to the organization and accepted a compromise solution with respect to them.

International Labour Organisation

FUSS (Henri). 'Les Conventions et Recommandations de l'O.I.T.', *Revue du Travail*, September 1953, p. 941-50.

As the recent convention relating to equal pay for men and women has given rise to certain misunderstandings in Belgium, even in the best-informed circles, it seems necessary to sum up the fundamental laws governing the ILO and those defining its relations with the various national governments. As regards Belgium, in particular, a convention adopted by the International Labour Conference cannot enter into force in that country until it is ratified by parliament. However, the government is authorized to ratify conventions 'which are not likely to be a charge to the state or binding on individual Belgians' without being obliged to submit them for the previous approval of both chambers. The ratification of the convention relating to equal pay for men and women roused protests from sections both of the employers and the workers. The latter feel that it would have been better to submit the convention—which, in their opinion, is 'binding on individual Belgians'—for the approval of both chambers.

ARMEL (Jacques). 'Les Soviétiques Reviennent à l'O.I.T.', *Observateur*, 12 November 1953, p. 14.
The U.S.S.R.'s decision to become once more a member of the ILO is surprising, for it has been taken only a few months after the publication of the ILO's report on 'forced labour'. It seems that the U.S.S.R. has no intention, this time, of playing a minor part, as it did during its first period of membership from 1934 to 1939. This will probably alter the balance of forces at the ILO, where the predominance of the United States of America, the ICFTU and the Christian Trade Unions will be jeopardized. France will probably be obliged to replace the delegate of the FO (which is not the most representative trade union in France) by a delegate of the CGT.

World Health Organization

SALMON (M.). 'Bilan de la Santé Mondiale', *Synthèses*, August-September 1953, p. 49-54.
On the occasion of the sixth assembly of WHO, held in Geneva from 5 to 23 May 1953, a balance-sheet of the achievements of this organization was drawn up. As regards the fight against malaria, WHO has undertaken pilot projects in the Philippines and in Sarawak in order to determine whether the use of insecticides having a permanent effect, such as DDT, would be as effective in certain regions of the East Pacific as it is in other countries. WHO has opened new tuberculosis centres in Ceylon, Ecuador, Greece and Paraguay. Campaigns have been launched in several countries in favour of BCG vaccinations. With regard to the fight against venereal diseases, the most spectacular efforts are those being made for the eradication of endemic syphilis in Bosnia, where almost 50,000 persons, i.e. 11.8 per cent of the population, will have to be treated. WHO has undertaken similar campaigns against other diseases, but unfortunately its ridiculously small budget (13 million dollars) does not allow it to intensify these efforts. Even today, dreadfully high percentages of the populations, particularly in underdeveloped countries, are suffering from various diseases.

REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Africa

HENRY (P. M.). 'Functional Approach to Regional Co-operation', *African Affairs*, October 1953, p. 308-15.
The CTCA (Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa South of the Sahara) is an intergovernmental organization with the following members: France, the United Kingdom, Belgium, Portugal, the Union of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia. Its object is to give effect to the recommendations made by the various scientific committees for the improvement of the standard of life in black Africa. Before the second world war, the individual efforts of the various governments had led to some waste of energy. The CTCA has an unique opportunity. If it fails to take it, the spread of an out-dated nationalism might result in the establishment in black Africa of independent states hostile to one another, and this would make any form of scientific co-operation extremely uncertain.

South East Asia

NALDONI (Nardo). 'Il Piano Colombo e la Assistenza Tecnica dell'Asia Sud Orientale', *Rivista di Politica Economica*, September 1953, p. 985-96.
After describing the origin, aims and programme of the Colombo Plan, as well as the way in which it is to be extended to countries outside the Commonwealth, the author briefly analyses the economic and social situation of the participating countries, emphasizing, in each case, the particular needs that will have to be satisfied by the plan and the contribution it will have to make in order to achieve its object. In conclusion, the author maintains that, if it is to be a success, the Colombo Plan must guarantee

to the countries concerned national independence, social justice, and also (with the help of UN industrialists and experts and on the basis of a solid Anglo-Franco-Dutch agreement) industrial and economic progress. Further, the desired results will have been achieved if, on the expiry of the first six-year plan, the complete pacification of the zone in question, the co-operation in the European enterprises of native experts and the installation of industrial equipment in the particularly backward areas have all been realized. In these circumstances, it would be possible to postpone the solution of equally important but less urgent problems, such as social welfare work, education, the improvement of living conditions and birth-control.

The Caribbean Area

'La Commission des Caraïbes et ses Activités de 1946 à 1953', *Notes et Études Documentaires*, No. 1795, 22 October 1953, 23 p.

The Caribbean Commission is an advisory body instructed to study, on its own initiative or at the suggestion of any member state, economic and social questions of common interest. Developing out of the former Anglo-American Caribbean Commission (established in 1942), it was finally established on 30 October 1946, after the adhesion of France and the Netherlands. The name of the commission was rather arbritrarily chosen, for the independent states of the Caribbean area do not belong to it, whereas British, Dutch and French Guiana and certain islands of the Atlantic Ocean are represented on it. The commission is composed of 16 commissioners, four for each of its four member governments. It meets at least twice a year and appoints a secretary-general and a deputy secretary-general. It makes every effort to co-operate with Unesco and the Caribbean states. As it has achieved notable results, it has served as a model for the South Pacific Commission.

South Pacific

SAYERS (C. E.). 'La Deuxième Conférence du Pacifique Sud', *Bulletin Trimestriel de la CPS*, April 1953, p. 2-12.

This conference, which ended on 27 April 1953, was devoted to studying the problem of the spread of progress in the Pacific islands. According to the reports of the secretary-general, Sir Brian Freeston, and Messrs. Ojola, Maude and Kroon, at least 30 of the 43 recommendations of the first conference were implemented, particularly with regard to vocational training, the development of agriculture and trade and the fight against filariasis. However, a number of factors, such as the unsatisfactory standard of education and the lack of resources of the atolls, hinder progress in this region. As regards education, the children should receive instruction which will enable them to choose useful occupations. Greater importance should also be given to visual education and the number of girls' schools should be increased. As to economic conditions in the islands, it is urgently necessary to ascertain the value of existing resources and consider how they can be exploited. The conference recommended the encouragement of birth-control, although certain native populations are against it. As the inhabitants of Nauru have complained about their inadequate resources, the Government of New Guinea has invited them to come and live in that country.

'Le Programme de Travail de la Commission du Pacifique Sud', *Bulletin Trimestriel de la CPS*, April 1953, p. 60-73.

The work programme of the South Pacific Commission includes the following projects: introduction of economic plants into the region; aid to governments in the region with a view to improving and increasing commercial crops; improvement in the quality of pastures and cattle, and use of the best methods for their exploitation; co-ordination and dissemination of information concerning the utilization of the soil; study of economic conditions in the atolls and low-altitude islands in order to discover means of increasing food and commercial crops, improving the breeding of domestic animals and placing the fishing industry and the native arts and crafts on a sound commercial

basis; drawing up of a regional inventory of food resources and food-growing methods; taking measures against parasites, diseases and noxious plants; consideration of current industrial development plans, and, finally, the project for assisting the territorial administrations to organize or undertake economic research or inventories, or to make the fullest possible use of these.

BOOK REVIEWS

GENERAL

Nazioni Unite—Statuto e regolamenti. Padua, Cedam, 1952, 8vo, 450 p. Publicazioni della Societa Italiana per l'Organizzazione Internazionale.

This new edition of a work published in 1946 and now out of print contains an Italian translation and the original French and English texts of the documents adopted by the UN Conference at San Francisco (Charter of the UN, Statute of the International Court of Justice, Agreement establishing the Preparatory Commission of the UN); the French and English texts of the rules of procedure of the organs of the UN (General Assembly, Security Council, Economic and Social Council, Trusteeship Council, International Court of Justice); and Italian, French and English versions of the Atlantic Charter, the Declaration by the UN and the Four Power Declaration on Collective Security. There are appendixes giving the Italian text of the League of Nations Covenant and an analytical index of the documents adopted by the UN Conference at San Francisco.

The Italian translations have been revised by Professor Roberto Ago and Professor Tomaso Perassi.

Le Nazioni Unite—Il Settimo Anno (Supplemento al volume *Le Nazioni Unite—Sei anni de attivita*). Rome, Societa Italiana per l'Organizzazione Internazionale, 1952, 8vo, 130 p.

An objective, general survey of the work of the UN and the Specialized Agencies during the seventh year of their existence. This is a supplement to the volume published in 1951, dealing with the work accomplished during its first six years by this system of international organizations. Maria Vismara describes the activities of the UN in the political and security field, discussing the work of the UN in connexion with various disputes and particular situations and also the general measures taken in the interests of peace and security. Giovanni Maria di Simone describes the economic work of the UN, covering both the Economic and Social Council and the Specialized Agencies. F. Alberto Casado and Maria Vismara then analyse the activities of the UN in social, humanitarian, cultural and legal matters, i.e. the respective fields of the Economic and Social Council, the International Law Commission and the other bodies concerned with legal affairs, and the Specialized Agencies. Lastly, Giuseppe A. Costanzo gives an account of the efforts made to achieve the aims set forth in Chapter XI of the Charter, the arrangements for the implementation of the International Trusteeship System, and the work of the UN for the improvement of the status of certain non-self-governing territories.

Le Nazioni Unite—L'ottavo anno (Il Supplemento al volume *Le Nazioni Unite—Sei anni di attivita*). Rome, Societa Italiana per l'Organizzazione Internazionale, 1953, 8vo, 130 p.

This volume, the third in a series of annual issues dealing with the work of the UN and

the Specialized Agencies, answers the same purpose, has the same features, and is arranged in the same way as the two preceding publications.

BAUER (John). *Make the UN effective for Peace*. New York, Richard R. Smith, 1952, 8vo, 160 p.

Mr. Bauer sets out an original plan for peace, inviting the President of the United States of America to lead a crusade for peace and to lay his plan before the nations of the whole world as well as before Generalissimo Stalin himself.

This plan recognizes the fact that the two greatest powers in the world have armed against each other while both proclaiming their desire for peace. It is obvious that the United States of America must have effective military strength, but this is generally used to end a war rather than to save the world from an outbreak of war—whence the need for adopting a plan for peace and for submitting it to all the nations. The author proposes that considerable amendments should be made to the UN Charter and that the UN should be reorganized on a different basis. He recommends the adoption of a new charter which would prohibit all forms of aggression, prevent the manufacture of armaments, and set up an international force which could carry out inspections in the territories of member states, though its powers would be limited to the question of disarmament.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Annuaire Diplomatique 1952 (edited by Herbert Moos and Stanley Vanvliet White). Presses Universitaires de France, 634 p. With a subject index and an index of names.

This yearbook is the successor to the *Annuaire de la S.D.N.*, published from 1920 to 1938, and to *Monde en Mouvement*, published from 1940 to 1946. It covers the whole field of international life and, in order to keep in close touch with current developments, is published in 10 issues, spread over the year, which are subsequently collected and bound. Each issue comprises three parts, the first containing a broad survey of the international situation, the second reproductions of diplomatic documents, and the third an account of events and their background. This yearbook is the first of a new series but, in preparing it, account has been taken of previous material throwing light on present world politics and some of the documents concerned have indeed been reproduced in this publication. The tenth issue contains an index of the subjects dealt with and of the names of the most important persons mentioned.

MYRDAL (Gunnar). 'Psychological Impediments to Effective International Co-operation', *Journal of Social Issues (Supplement Series)*, No. 6, 1952, 8vo, 31 p.

International co-operation has always had a bad press, and public opinion has proved extremely unstable and opportunist. Evidence of this is to be found in all that has been written about the Germans and the Russians before, during and since the second world war.

Moreover, the policy of cultural isolationism which is too often pursued is instrumental in preventing the development of real international co-operation. It may be added that the Preamble to the UN Charter has no real significance, since governments rather than peoples are represented in the UN.

All this accounts for the lack of public interest from which the organization suffers. It cannot become more effective as a factor in international affairs unless the public's attitude towards it changes. But such a change is impossible unless the UN becomes really effective. The important thing, therefore, is to strive to break this vicious circle.

PALMER (Norman D.) and PERKINS (Howard C.). *International Relations. The world community in transition*. Cambridge, Massachusetts (U.S.A.), The Riverside Press, 1953, 8vo, 270 p. Appendix, bibliographies.

The authors seek first to describe the general rules governing relations between states and the conditions determining them. A study of international politics from 1900

onwards leads on naturally to the second world war and its consequences, which gives them an opportunity of discussing the foreign policy of the U.S.S.R. during and after the war, together with that of the United Kingdom, the United States of America, France, China and other less important nations.

As, however, the foreign policy of any country must henceforth be bound up with the decisions taken in the UN, the authors concentrate on the origin and structure of the UN, the part it has to play as the guardian of international peace and security, and the economic and social aspects of its work.

Mr. Palmer and Mr. Perkins conclude from their study that there is little prospect that the world of tomorrow will differ from that of yesterday. There will, however, be a more general tendency to make use of international organizations. As the circumstances in which international life is conducted will remain the same, will this lead to war? Mr. Palmer and Mr. Perkins, quoting Mr. Toynbee, express the view that it is up to us to prevent history from repeating itself.

SHUMAN (Frederic C.). *The Commonwealth of Man. An enquiry into power politics and world government.* New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1952, 8vo, 494 p. plus index and glossary.

International relations are marked by fear and anarchy. The remedy for this, which has long been contemplated, is the establishment of a world government, the Cosmopolis. In a broad historical survey, the author shows how the various efforts made in this direction have failed. It has been found impossible to achieve the *Pax Orbis* by conquest; treason, subversion and even federalism cannot provide the answer. As for 'collective security' it is, like the innate pacifism of democracies and the inevitable warmongering of autocracies, a myth. Political expedients having failed, would it be possible to achieve the desired goal by means of the 'functionalist' formula? Although administration begins where politics end, the Specialized Agencies and non-governmental organizations are proving inadequate. Ever since men have existed, a struggle has been proceeding between 'ethnocentrism' (from the totem to the nation state) and 'universalism' (from the great world religions to Tolstoy and Gandhi). World government is now more necessary than ever, but it cannot be achieved by any magic formula, whether it be American Messianism or red imperialism. We now have the technical means of achieving the Cosmopolis. Only the necessary intellectual and moral means are lacking.

GANSHOF VAN DER MEERSCH (W. J.). 'La Constitution Belge et l'Évolution de l'Ordre Juridique International: Rapport soumis à la XIIème Journée d'Études Juridiques' (Louvain, 21 June 1952). Extract from the *Annales de Droit et de Sciences Politiques*, vol. XII, no. 49. Brussels, A. Goemaere, 1952, 8vo, p. 331-426.

After stating, in his foreword, what is understood by sovereignty in terms of international law, the author considers the Belgian constitutional system from the point of view of national independence. Concentrating on the discussion of political entities larger than national political communities, the author studies the Bretton Woods agreements, the OEEC, the EPU and the European Coal and Steel Community, showing what limitations on sovereignty are imposed by these organizations on the European countries, and on Belgium in particular. He then examine NATO and the EDC from the same angle. The author goes on to deal with the respective arguments of the champions and opponents of national sovereignty, the Schuman Plan and the EDC in Belgium, showing that he personally is in favour of Belgium's incorporation in the European system. After a brief discussion of the adaptation of the constitution to the development of international law in the other countries which are signatories to the agreements concerning the European Community, the article ends with proposals for the revision of the Belgian Constitution.

HUNG-LICK-SU. *Le Problème Coréen*, Paris, Pedone, 1953, 8vo, 190 p. Bibliography and appended documents. (Prefaces by Mr. Sibert and Mrs. Bastid.)

Korea, which is surrounded by more powerful and more warlike neighbours, and an object of interest because of its natural resources, has never been entirely independent, but the nature of its subjection has varied very considerably.

Until 1895, the kingdom of Korea was a dependency of China, to which it paid annual tribute. This association went back more than a thousand years but was not really one of vassalage, being rather a relationship based on the spirit of Confucianism, which requires the elder brother to take care of the younger. The relations established with Korea by Japan, after the latter's victories over China and Russia, very soon moved from the exercise of dominating influence to the establishment of a protectorate and annexation. The relations between modern Japan and Korea may easily be expressed in terms familiar to the West, which cannot be used to cover the traditional relationships existing up to 1894 between China and Korea.

A pawn in the struggles of the great powers, having lost its independence entirely in 1910 and regained it in 1945, Chao-Hsien, the Land of Morning Calm, has since 1950 been the theatre of international conflict.

After 1947, when the work of the Joint Russo-American Commission ended in failure and the question was referred to the UN against the will of the U.S.S.R., conflict became inevitable between the two sections of a country which had been artificially divided for the first time in history. In May 1951, the date at which this study ends, the author, in his conclusion, could only express the hope that Korea might again be blessed with peace and independence.

ORGANS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

FAKHER (Hossein). *The Relationships among the Principal Organs of the United Nations.* London, Staples Press, 1951, 8vo, 193 p. Bibliography.

After giving a general description of the working of the UN, the author proceeds to analyse, in each of the succeeding chapters, that of the principal organs of the international organization in their approach to certain definite problems such as international peace and security, economic and social questions, and problems concerning trusteeship territories. Chapter V is devoted to the Secretariat of the United Nations and Chapter VI to the International Court of Justice. Then comes the most important chapter of all, in which the author makes a very detailed study of the organization and working of the General Assembly, stating that it is the greatest potential force for the support of international law, and that improvement in the operation of the UN can be achieved only by the determination of the peoples which make up the organization.

INTERNATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE LAW

SCHLOCHAUER (H. J.). *Internationales Verwaltungsrecht* (International Administrative Law), (*Die Verwaltung*, no. 49). Brunswick, Paul Schlösserverlag, 11 p.

In spite of the conflicting views of a number of specialists, it seems that, in present circumstances, international administrative law should be taken to mean the conglomeration of different systems of official regulations which, in individual countries, govern a specific field, rather than a body of 'inter-state' law properly so-called. This accounts for the limitations of international administrative law, but it also makes possible an attempt at unification, either by bringing into line the basic principles of national systems of law, or by applying the regulations of other countries to particular cases, after the conclusion of an agreement.

CARJEU (P. M.). *Projet d'une Juridiction Pénale Internationale.* Paris, Pedone, 1953, 8vo, 338 p. including an appendix, 15 annexes and a bibliography.

The author makes a very detailed study of the development of the idea of an international penal authority from the 1914-18 war to the present day, ending with the UN Convention on Genocide and the various activities of the International Law Commission.

This commission has pronounced favourably on the possibility and desirability of establishing an international judicial body, but the draft statute for an International

Criminal Court is an unsatisfactory compromise. The court, for instance, cannot hear any case without the consent of the UN Assembly. As, however, the need for some such body is now recognized by all, can a practical means of carrying out the idea be discovered? This is a question of expediency. In any case, neither the jurists nor the leaders of the different countries are yet agreed, some saying that the scheme would entail violation of national sovereignty whereas, almost by definition, an inter-state system rules out the idea of absolute sovereignty. In point of fact, the establishment of an international penal authority would necessitate revision of the UN Charter, and it is doubtful whether this could be effected so long as the right of veto may be exercised. It is to be hoped, however, that in 1954, at the ninth session of the General Assembly, the Sixth Committee will endorse the scheme evolved by the Geneva Committee. The UN must find a solution to this problem; otherwise it will be obliged, sooner or later, to renounce its functions as the guardian of peace.

NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

LOUWERS (O.). *L'Article 73 de la Charte et l'Anticolonialisme de l'Organisation des Nations Unies* (*Mémoires*, vol. XXIX, no. 2. Brussels, Institut Royal Colonial Belge, Section des Sciences Morales et Politiques, 1952, 8vo, 191 p. including four appendixes and a schedule of the resolutions of the General Assembly quoted in the body of the text.

Article 73 of the UN Charter is the main legal basis for the anti-colonial activities being conducted by certain countries within the UN. Having noted this fact, Mr. Louwers, in the first part of his work, gives an historical account of the work of the UN in this field up to the establishment of the Special Committee set up in 1949 for a period of three years. In the second part, he discusses the work of this committee from 1949 to 1952. In the third part, the author begins with a criticism of the activities of the UN, going on to defend Belgium's colonial policy in the Congo by quoting statistics. He thus shows that the extended interpretation given to Article 73 runs counter to the Charter; the best evidence of this is that the anti-colonial powers have generally fallen back on new theories, to which they have endeavoured to give a semblance of legal force.

SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

LABERYRIE-MENAHEM (C.). *Des Institutions Spécialisées. Problèmes Juridiques et Diplomatiques de l'Administration Internationale.* Paris, Pedone, 1953, 8vo, 163 p. (Preface by Mr. Pierre Mendès-France.)

The Specialized Agencies are playing a constantly increasing part in international relations. Established by intergovernmental agreements, but having members which are not states, their constitutions and modes of operation differ widely. Moreover, the legal formula adopted sometimes reveals the fact that they were set up by technicians. Although they are technical bodies whose work should cover the whole world, their activities are still hampered by political considerations even in the case of such long-standing agencies as the UPU and the ITU.

The Specialized Agencies are new entities in public law and the impact of their privileges and immunities on state sovereignty gives rise to many problems. It is necessary to determine the status of 'para-diplomatic' technicians. Simple new forms of inter-state commitments have been developed, and the problems arising out of the procedure followed in these agreements must be solved. It is essential that the body of law relating to these agencies should be codified, and this task should be undertaken by the UN.

III. NEWS AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

A UNESCO CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL SCIENTISTS ON THE SOCIAL IMPACT OF INDUSTRIALIZATION AND URBAN CONDITIONS IN AFRICA

September 1954

The conference will take the form of a seminar in which from 15 to 20 social scientists, together with some administrators and technical officers with experience of African problems and needs in this field, will present and discuss their findings on the main aspects and processes of industrialization and urbanization under varying conditions in Africa, south of the Sahara.

The reports presented to the conference and the discussions will include consideration of the substantive results of research, the character and scope of further investigations which these suggest, and also problems of method including field, laboratory and statistical procedures. The studies and discussions will be arranged with a view to the preparation and publication of a volume intended to provide a reasonably comprehensive survey of the progress and the theoretical and practical significance of studies in this field.

Invitations to participate will be extended to research workers with a continuing interest in these problems who are in a position to contribute reports suitable for subsequent publication outlining the procedures and results of their own investigations. Invitations will also be extended, with the approval of their governments, to administrators or technical officers who are able to present reports or to advise the conference on practical needs and opportunities for research and on the utilization of research findings in the context of economic and social development in particular areas.

Unesco will provide for the travel, residence and other incidental expenses of the participants, and also where necessary for assistance in the preparation of the papers contributed. Subject to the need for maintaining the research character of the conference and keeping it sufficiently small to permit intensive and informal exchange of information and ideas during the session, as well as for maintaining a reasonable balance among the participants from different territories and categories, consideration will be given to requests by institutions or governments to send additional participants or observers at their own expense.

Since the purpose of the conference is to promote comparative study through an exchange of views on current research methods and findings with regard to the social problems arising from the impact of industrialization on African communities, it will not pass resolutions or draw up recommendations outside the research field. The report on the conference to be published by Unesco will be based on the papers presented and the views developed in its discussions in the hope that the results of the conference may be valuable to all concerned with the further development and application of research in this field.

The conference will be organized in consultation with Professor Daryll Forde of the University of London, director of the International African Institute, who has recently been concerned in supervising, on behalf of the institute, the Unesco field research project for the study of the social effects of urbanization at Stanleyville, Belgian Congo. The survey of recent industrial development in Africa and relevant social studies prepared by the International African Institute for Unesco and the preliminary report on the findings of the Stanleyville research project will be included among the papers circulated to participants of the conference.

It will be necessary, well in advance of the conference meeting and in consultation with prospective participants, to select the topics and aspects to be discussed. These will be limited by the time available and it will be preferable to deal thoroughly with fewer subjects than to attempt a wider but more superficial survey. While they will in considerable measure be determined by the interests and experience of the participants, it is hoped to secure as comprehensive a coverage as possible so far as territories and types of industrial development and urbanization are concerned.

Aspects which will require consideration with reference to the subjects of both the contributed papers and the discussions at the conference would include the following:

Demography

The demographic structure of communities in both urban areas and their rural reservoirs;
Biological and cultural factors exercising selective effects on rural urban migrations and on the composition of urban social groupings;
Methodological problems in the securing and analysis of demographic data.

Varieties of Socio-economic Structure in Urban Conditions and the Factors Involved in their Development and Differentiation

Occupational categories and their relations to: (a) technical conditions of industry; (b) external economic pressures; (c) values among participating social groups including entrepreneurs and state organizations;
The role of pre-industrial patterns of social grouping, tenacity and erosion in urban conditions;
The restructuring of social grouping with special reference to the modification of the roles of family, kinship, neighbourhood and class organization;
Modifications of status and the stressing of new qualifications and criteria for authority within social groups;
Degrees of social integration of different groups within the population in various action contexts.

The Modification of Cultural Values in Urban Life and under Industrial Conditions

Methodological problems of assessing values and motivations of tribal and urban societies in Africa; the adaptation of psychological tests to non-literate and semi-literate populations; analysis and systematization of field data provided from observation and verbal statements;
Fields and methods of assimilation of Western values; variable factors in different population sectors; discrepancies between aims; possibilities for change; the role of formal and informal educational institutions;
The character and diversity of pre-existing value patterns among African populations;
Symbolic significance of traditional and Western patterns of behaviour, and the new social differentiations expressed therein;
Successive fields and processes of assimilation of Western values and their relation to economic and social status;
Values conflicts and their effects on social solidarity, reliability in work and social co-operation.

Comparative Assessment of Material Conditions of Working and Living and Attitudes Thereto

The problem of securing objective and comparable indices with reference to tribal and urban conditions concerning (a) labour effort, nutrition, housing, recreation, etc.; (b) objective and subjective assessments of economic security; and (c) psychological rewards and disabilities.

The conference will occupy a full working week covering the last days of September and the beginning of October. Plans are being made to arrange to hold it at a convenient location in Africa.

A CONFERENCE ON RACE RELATIONS IN WORLD PERSPECTIVE

Honolulu, 28 June-23 July 1954

A conference on Race Relations in World Perspective is to be held in Honolulu from 28 June to 23 July 1954, under the joint sponsorship of the University of Hawaii, the University of California, and the University of Chicago. The conference has been made possible by grants from the Ford Foundation and from the McInerny Foundation in Honolulu.

The personnel for the conference, which will be limited to 30, has been selected from among scholars and experts in race relations so as to bring together the best theoretical knowledge in the field along with a thorough acquaintance with the subject in different parts of the world. In addition to pooling the essential concrete knowledge and analyses of race relations in different areas, the conference will seek to develop a conceptual framework for subsequent studies appropriate to the world-wide proportions and the critical significance of the problems.

A Steering Committee, consisting of Robert Redfield of the University of Chicago, Herbert Blumer of the University of California, and Andrew W. Lind of the University of Hawaii, will take general charge.

NEWS FROM LATIN AMERICA [1]

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF AMERICANISTS IN BRAZIL

The next International Congress of Americanists will be held in São Paulo, Brazil, from 23 to 28 August 1954, under the auspices of the Quatercentenary Committee of São Paulo. The chief questions to be discussed include American ethnology, archaeology, linguistics and physical anthropology; history of territorial discovery and colonization in America; studies of Indian personality; problems of cultural exchange in America; Afro-American studies; and studies on the origin of the useful plants of America.

All scientific institutions interested in Americanist studies are invited to send representatives. Papers submitted should be limited in length to 20 minutes' reading time, and titles and summaries of the contents should be sent to São Paulo before the end of May 1954.

The Organizing Committee of the congress consists of Herbert Baldus, chairman; Antonio Rubbo Muller, first secretary and treasurer; Harald Schultz, second secretary; and Paulo Duarte and Plinio Ayrosa, advisers. All correspondence in connexion with

[1] Reprinted from *Ciencias Sociales*, a publication edited by the Department of Social Sciences of the Pan American Union.

the congress should be addressed to: A. R. Muller, Escola de Sociologia e Politica, Largo de San Francisco 19, São Paulo, Brazil.

INTERNATIONAL FOLKLORE CONGRESS IN BRAZIL

The directorate of the Brazilian Institute for Education, Science and Culture, in conjunction with the Quatercentenary Committee of São Paulo, is convening an International Folklore Congress to be held in São Paulo from 16 to 22 August 1954. Concurrently with the congress there will be performances of folk songs and folk dances by teams from the States of Brazil, and an exhibition of American popular art.

The persons chiefly responsible for the preparatory work for the congress are Renato Almeida and Rossini Tavares de Lima. All correspondence in connexion with the congress should be addressed to: Palacio Itamaraty, Rua Marechal Floriano, 196, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

The programme of the discussions includes: characteristics of folklore; folklore and fundamental education; folk and popular music; comparative folklore; international co-operation between students of folklore.

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ALLEN, Frederick Lewis. *Le Grand Changement de l'Amérique (1900-1950).* Translated from the American by Roger Blondel, with a preface by André Siegfried. Paris, Amiot-Dumont, 1953, 295 p.

BANERJEE, D. N. *The Future of Democracy and Other Essays.* Studies in political theory and practice. Calcutta, A. Mukherjee & Co. Ltd., 1953, 228 p.

BENTWICH, N. *The Rescue and Achievements of Refugee Scholars.* The story of displaced scholars and scientists, 1933-52, with an introduction by Lord Beveridge and an epilogue by A. V. Hill. The Hague, Martinus Nijhoff, 1953, xiv + 107 p.

BERNOT, L., and BLANCARD, R. *Nouville, un Village Français.* Published under the auspices of Unesco. Paris, Institut d'Ethnologie, 1953, vii + 447 p.

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Centre Européen d'Étude de Population. *Études Européennes de Population.* Main-d'œuvre, emploi, migrations, situations et perspectives. Paris, Institut National d'Études Démographiques, 1954, 438 p.

CLEMENS, R., VOSEE-SMAL, G., and MINON, P. *L'Assimilation Culturelle des Immigrants en Belgique.* Italiens et Polonais dans la région liégeoise. Liège, H. Vaillant-Carmanne, 1953, x + 389 p.

CRANE, R. I. *Aspects of Economic Development in South Asia,* with a supplement: 'Development Problems in Ceylon', by B. Stern. New York, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1954, 138 p.

DAY, B. *Le Canada et les Droits de l'Homme. Le concept des droits de l'homme dans la politique étrangère et la Constitution du Canada.* With a preface by J. J. Chevallier. Paris, Librairie du Recueil Sirey, 1953, 154 p.

Dotation Carnegie pour la Paix Internationale. *La Huitième Assemblée Générale des Nations Unies.* Paris, 1953, 140 p.

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International Economic Papers, No. 3. Translations prepared for the International Economic Association. Edited by A. T. Peacook, R. Turvey and E. Henderson, with the help of a grant from Unesco. London and New York, MacMillan, 1953, 255 p.

JACQUEMYNS, G. *Épargne et Investissements.* Bruxelles, Institut Universitaire d'Information Sociale et Économique, 1953, 84 p.

KOGEKAR, S. V., and APPADORAI, A. *Political Science in India.* Delhi, Premier Publishing Co., 1953, 110 p.

PERRY, R. B. *Realms of Value.* A critique of human civilization. Cambridge (Mass.), Harvard University Press, 1954, xii + 497 p.

ROUGEMONT, Denis de. *La Confédération Helvétique* (Collection *Profil des Nations* prepared by the Conférence Permanente des Hautes Études Internationales, with the permanent support of Unesco). Introduction by Lucien Febvre. Monaco, Éditions du Rocher, 1954, 183 p.

SEGURA, F. *Introduction to the Doctrine of Economic Humanism.* Barcelona, published by the author, 1953, 64 p.

Studies in Chinese Thought. Edited by A. F. Wright, The American Anthropological Association. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1953, viii + 315 p.

Villes et Campagnes. Civilisation urbaine et civilisation rurale en France. Papers edited by, and with an introduction from G. Friedmann. Paris, Librairie Armand Colin, 1953, xxiv + 480 p.

Western Civilization, II, Chapters in Western Civilization. Edited by the Contemporary Civilization Staff of Columbia College. New York, Columbia University Press, 1954, 516 p.

WOYTINSKY, W. S., and WOYTINSKY, E. S. *World Population and Production.* Trends and outlook, New York, The Twentieth Century Fund, 1953, lxxii + 1268 p.

IV. OPEN FORUM

THE INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIETY

M. GINSBERG

It is fashionable nowadays to say that the old antithesis between the individual and society is outworn. Nevertheless, the frequency with which this repudiation of the antithesis is repeated shows that it is far from discarded. Its continuing influence can be seen in the current arguments as to the place of psychology in the explanation of social phenomena, in the new antithesis between culture and personality, or between individual and social character. It can be seen above all in political discussions, where it appears in the form of a contrast between the good of individuals and the good of the state. We are told repeatedly that the ultimate source of conflict of the world today is to be found in the struggle between two opposed ideals, that which attaches supreme value to the individual and that which subordinates his good to that of the community. While originally the term individualism seems to have been coined in explicit opposition to socialism, the revival of individualism in our own time is often directly intended to express opposition to 'totalitarianism'. In both cases there is an underlying assumption that the opposed terms between them exhaust the possibilities, and that no midway is open.

The problems raised are eminently suited for an international symposium. By this I do not mean that social and political theories follow national lines, but rather that the issues involved and the terms employed to express them differ widely from country to country and age to age, and therefore call for comparative study. Everywhere in the modern world there is to be traced a double movement—on the one hand, a breakdown of the older social structure and with it a liberation of the individual; on the other, an enormous increase in collective powers and a process in which the community takes on functions previously left to the individual, the family or some other body. The movement may be described in another way as consisting in a transition from the conception of personal rights inhering in individuals and limiting the law, to a conception of rights as defining social relations and of law as based on rights so defined. The problem has been how to base liberty on law and law on liberty. But the steps taken to solve it, or to hinder its solution, have differed very widely, under different historical conditions. Inevitably, therefore, words like 'liberalism', 'individualism', 'democracy', 'socialism',' collectivism' have had and still have very different meanings.

In this discussion I propose to confine attention to the antithesis between society and the individual. To this end it is necessary to distinguish the different senses in which the term individualism has been used. In English the word appears, according to the Oxford Dictionary, to have been used for the first time by Henry Reeve in his translation of de Tocqueville's *De la Démocratie en Amérique* in 1840. Reeve explains that he takes the term directly from the

French, in the absence of an exact English equivalent. De Tocqueville used it to express an attitude of mind which leads each member of the community to 'draw apart from his fellow-creatures and to leave society at large to itself'. 'Individualism', he says, 'is of democratic origin and threatens to spread in the same ratio as the equality of conditions.'[1] In this sense the term stands for a feeling or attitude and hardly for a coherent theory. It is used in a somewhat similar sense by many German writers when they claim that individualism is a trait which forms part of the German national character. Under this term, and under the parallel terms 'particularism' or 'subjectivism', are included a number of traits or qualities such as a tendency to turn inwards, a desire for independence or for freedom from external constraint, distinctiveness in self-expression, passing into self-will and self-absorption.[2]

As a theory individualism appears in three forms which may be designated, political, sociological and methodological. The most influential has been the political. In essentials this is the theory that the good of the state consists in the well being and free initiative of its members and that this is best secured by each individual pursuing his own good in his own way, with a minimum of state interference. Sociological individualism is the theory that society is to be conceived as an aggregate of individuals whose relations to each other are purely external. It is best understood by contrast with those forms of the organic theory which consider society as in some sense a new whole, other than its inter-related members. Methodological individualism need not, though in fact it often does, commit itself in advance to any theory of the nature of society or of the ends of political action. It insists that in studying social phenomena it is best to begin with individual actions and to consider social wholes as complexes of social relationships, arising out of the behaviour of individuals in so far as this is directed towards or away from other individuals. Historically, these three forms of individualism have often been interwoven. Those who wish to confine state intervention to the minimum required in order to allow individuals to pursue their own good in their own way, are apt to consider society as an aggregate of self-determining individuals, who remain self-determining despite their relations to others, and on the metaphysical side such thinkers are often upholders of atomism. The methodological individualists sometimes repudiate atomistic views, but they seem to think that there is a necessary connexion between their methodological assumptions and political individualism. Even a cursory glance at the history of social thought is, however, sufficient to show that the association between these forms of individualism is far from complete. Sociological individualism has been held concurrently with state absolutism as, for example, by Hobbes. On the other hand, those who have claimed wide powers for the state have not necessarily committed themselves to a 'holistic' methodology or to any view of the structure of society which merges the individual in the social whole, as can easily be seen by comparing the views of such liberal thinkers as Green and Hobhouse.

In methodological individualism the antithesis between society and the individual is reflected in the contrast between the 'holistic' approach and the 'compositive'. In the former, societies are supposed to be studied as wholes; in the latter they are constructed out of 'intelligible' elements. But in attacking

[1] Vol. I, Bk. II, Ch. 2.

[2] Cf. my essay on 'German Views of German Mentality', *Reason and Unreason in Society*, Ch. VIII.

'holism' the critics are attacking a man of straw. I do not know of any sociologists who in fact study modern societies as wholes. I suppose the nearest example would be found in the work of Durkheim and his followers. But even in their case, despite a good deal of talk about *la société*, the actual procedure consists of a study of variations in and between groups of social facts, e.g. between the rate of suicide and religious affiliation or family structure. The characteristics of the group such as the degree of integration or of social control are inferred as likely to account for the observed variations. When Halbwachs[1] replaces the generalizations reached by Durkheim by a more comprehensive generalization which relates the proportion of suicides to the urban and rural *genres de vie*, he does so, I take it, because he thinks that religious organization and family life are both affected by the degree of complexity characteristic of life in town and country. Whether he succeeds in showing this or not, I will not here inquire. But I can see no objection in principle to assigning such characteristics as complexity or 'complication' to groups, providing they are sufficiently clearly defined. To assign characteristics to groups is by no means the same as to consider them as entities which exist independently of the individuals which compose them. I doubt therefore whether the French sociologists can properly be regarded as subscribing to the 'realist' or 'essentialist', tradition in philosophy. In the case of thinkers like Hobhouse such an attribution is too absurd to be even considered.

The 'individualist' approach has been most fully expounded by Professor Hayek in various writings. His basic contention is: 'that there is no other way towards an understanding of social phenomena but through our understanding of individual actions directed towards other people and guided by their expected behaviour'.[2] 'What we do in the social sciences is to classify types of individual behaviour which we can understand.'[3] What he means by 'understanding' is not clear. We are said to 'understand' other people's action by the analogy of our own minds. The business of social science is to develop a classification of types of 'intelligible' behaviour and to construct models which reproduce the patterns of social relations which we find in the world around us. Thus in economics, we are told, we classify acts of choice made necessary by the scarcity of means available for our ends. We then see that a given means can be useful for one or many ends, a given end can be achieved by several means, different means may be wanted for a given end, etc. We then have a sort of logic of choice which we can use in interpreting the situations with which we have to deal.

Whether this is an adequate account of economic analysis I am not competent to judge. There are certainly some economists who recognize the limitations of the individualist approach. Thus, e.g. Professor Frank H. Knight points out that 'the individual is not a datum and social policy ought not to treat him as such'. The productive capacity and the tastes of the individual depend on the level of the group of which he is a member. The society which acts as a unit in internal and external policy is he maintains a complex of institutions, traditions, knowledge or belief and common interest groupings rather than an organization of individuals. So again he argues that international rivalry cannot be understood without taking into account the inequalities

[1] *Les Causes du Suicide.*
[2] *Individualism: True and False*, p. 8.
[3] 'The Facts of the Social Sciences', *Ethics*, Vol. LIV, Oct. 1943, p. 8.

between states and regions and their differences in level of culture. 'The social game is played for stakes which involve the major values of life . . . and it goes on continuously, generation after generation, with players constantly dropping out and being replaced.'[1]

Whatever may be the case in economics, I can think of no example of sociological investigation conducted on the model advocated by Professor Hayek. The nearest approach to it is to be found, I suppose, in the *Verstehende Soziologie* of Max Weber and his recent followers. But it is very doubtful whether the account that Max Weber gives of his methodology corresponds at all closely to the methods which he himself employed in actual investigations. His studies of capitalism or of stratification or of slavery in the ancient world come nowhere near an analysis of the intentions of the individuals concerned. If sociology is defined as the understanding or interpretation of social behaviour in the sense of indicating the *Sinn* or intention of the agent, then the bulk of his work is not sociological.

Whatever be our views about Max Weber's work, it is easy to see that, in general, sociological investigations do not follow the procedure outlined by him. Consider as an example the problem of the sources of inequality in the distribution of property. In trying to account for it we have to investigate at least the following: (a) variations in law and custom, such as the rules governing inheritance, e.g. primogeniture, *légitim*, free bequest; (b) class endogamy, since, if children of the rich were to marry children of the poor there would be greater equality than when the children of the rich marry the rich; (c) size of family and differential fertility; (d) inequality of saving, itself dependent on magnitude of income; (e) chance or luck in investments; (f) differences in skill and foresight whose causation again is complicated, both individual and social factors being involved.

It will be seen that in the main we are not in such an investigation concerned with the intentions of individuals, but rather with structural relations and their bearing on individuals, and so it will be if we take any other example of a massive social phenomenon. It may be added that, according to the methodological individualists, institutions are considered as the result of the combined effects of individual actions. But these effects cannot be 'understood' in the sense required by the theory, since they are supposed to function without a designing mind. The fundamental laws of sociology would in this view, it seems to me, be the laws governing the interactions of individual minds, and if these laws are to enable us to understand social phenomena, the understanding in question would differ entirely from the sort of understanding which consists in grasping intuitively the intentions of individual agents.

It is interesting to note that those who consider that the aim of the social sciences is to classify types of individual behaviour which we can 'understand' make no use of psychology. In order to 'understand' it is not necessary, we are told, to delve deeply into human motives. We operate with motives familiar to us in our own actions and interpret other people's actions by analogy. An action is directly 'intelligible' if it corresponds to what we would do in similar circumstances. But more than that seems to be claimed. It appears that we can, 'in principle', derive from the knowledge of our own minds an exhaustive classification of all the possible forms of intelligible behaviour. It would be interesting to inquire what we would know of the

[1] *Freedom and Reform*, pp. 383-4.

possible forms of, let us say, the relationship of love or hate, if the sole basis of our information was what we knew of our own mind. I suspect that there is here a confusion between the use of 'intelligible' in the sense of being referable to conscious use of means to attain given ends, unaffected by emotion or other sources of deviation, and 'intelligible' in the sense of being referable to any motive familiar in our own experience. In the case of the former we might conceivably arrive at deductive classifications; in the case of the latter we should go wildly wrong if all we had to go on was what we believed ourselves to understand of the processes of our own mind.

The sharp separation of the social sciences from psychology which is implied in these views is a mistake. There are branches of sociology, e.g. criminology, in which psychological analysis is indispensable. In the study of religion or morals as social forces, it would be absurd to ignore the contributions of psychology. Much light can be thrown on the actual working of institutions, including economic institutions, by psychological analysis. It is entirely arbitrary to confine 'understanding' to what can be learnt by unaided and untrained introspection.

It appears to be a basic assumption of *Verstehende Soziologie* and *Verstehende Psychologie* that what we know within our minds is somehow more intelligible than what is outwardly observed. But this is to confuse the familiar with the intelligible. There is no inner sense establishing connexions between inner facts by direct intuition. Such connexions are in fact empirical generalizations, of no greater validity than the similar generalizations relating to outward facts. I may imagine that I understand the behaviour of a person striking another in anger. But this only means that such behaviour is familiar in my experience of myself. The connexion between anger and its stimuli is not a necessary connexion and is in fact difficult to establish even empirically, as is evident from the experimental investigations of the relation between frustration and aggression. Such generalizations as 'the unfortunate envies the rich', 'he who is disgraced tends to depreciate superior values'[1] are not really more 'intelligible' than to say that syphilis produces general paralysis. We imagine that we 'see' the connexion in the former case, but there is no logical necessity about it. Anyone to whom certain foods are 'taboo' will experience disgust at the sight of the food. Nevertheless the disgust it induced by traditions and is not directly intelligible to anyone brought up in a different tradition. To understand the connexion in this case a sociology of 'taboo' is required.

It is true that in certain branches of social inquiry it is legitimate to take the individual and his motives as a datum. We need have no quarrel for example with economists who wish to proceed in this way. But in comparative sociology and psychology the individual cannot be taken as a constant. The problem is to determine in what ways the tendencies inherent in the human mind affect the relations between individuals, and conversely how the social relations react upon the mind, developing or modifying its inherent tendencies. It is at this point that we come up against the central difficulty in social theory. The psychological terms that we use to describe the community such as will, mind, purpose, well-being are drawn from the life of the individual, and this leads us to think of the group as simply an aggregate of its component members and to interpret the common will or the social purpose as the sum or product of

[1] Jaspers.

particular wills. In reaction from this exaggerated individualism we tend to move to the opposite pole, and to erect society into a new kind of whole which stands outside individuals or in which they are merged. Years of controversy have shown neither of these extreme views is tenable. [1]

Despite differences in formulation, it emerges from these controversies that individuals must be considered as both self-determining and interdependent. Genetically every individual is unique. It is true that the basis of his constitution is inherited from the ancestral stock. Nevertheless the combination of genes with which he starts is, as a combination, peculiar to him. Moreover, as he develops he responds selectively to his environment and, therefore, no two individuals can ever have strictly the same environment. These conclusions are, I think, strongly confirmed by the numerous investigations into the part played by hereditary and environmental factors in the shaping of behaviour. Furthermore, the relations of the individual to other individuals in his environment are far more subtle and intimate than those involved in merely organic growth. For they enter his very being and constitute the content and substance of the self. To understand them we need a theory of internal relations. The character of an individual is moulded by the relations in which he stands to others, while conversely the relations are the outcome of the character of the members entering into them. Love, hate, respect, pride, vanity are as processes or dispositions parts of the self, but necessarily have reference to others whether as objects of satisfaction, or as evoking response. The self thus consists largely of relations to others. Yet in this respect again, each individual is unique and in a measure self-determining, since the combination of social relations into which he enters is as peculiar to him as the combination of genes with which he starts.

The problem of the degree of self-determination of the individual is complicated by the fact that he is a member of a variety of groups. Groups may be considered as complexes of relations having a certain consistency and permanence, defined in institutions. These groups may be conceived as circles some of which fall within, while others cut across, each other. Thus the individual is a member of his family, his neighbourhood, his professional association, his church, his nation, his state, his linguistic or culture area. The relations in which he stands to these various groupings vary in depth and pervasiveness and his character is variously affected by them. The groupings themselves are not fixed but are subject to constant motion and transformation. The greater the variety of the groupings and of the degree of the mobility of individuals within them, the greater the opportunities of selective response, and consequently the greater the possible variety of individual character. Though the individual consists largely of his social relations, there is thus a core of individuality in each person, which is uniquely his own and which is, in the last resort, unshareable and incommunicable.

It follows from these considerations that none of the terms which have so far been used to describe societies can be adequate. The question whether society is a sum of its parts or not is meaningless. Subtle, internal relations involving mental reference are not additive. You cannot add the love of A for B to the love of B for A, or subtract either from their hatred of C. Nor is the effect of, say, the family life on its members commensurable with the effect upon them

[1] Cf. MacIver, *Community*, and the works of L. T. Hobhouse, especially *Social Development* and *The Metaphysical Theory of the State.*

of, say, their church or state. Individuals are in fact enmeshed in a network of relations varying in scope and intensity, partly supporting, partly neutralizing and partly conflicting with, each other. To this complex of relationships, there seems to be no analogy in the world of physical objects, not even of organisms. The analogy with the individual mind is closer. But the theory of a group mind has not stood the tests of criticism. Minds in relation to each other do not constitute a mind in the sense in which each individual has a mind. Societies have a mental organization but they are not minds. They are relational complexes of a peculiar kind, with characteristics of their own.

This view has important ethical implications. There is a sense in which we may properly speak of a social or common good, distinguishable in thought though not separate in reality from the good of individuals. The reference is then to a form or pattern of life considered good as a form or pattern. In this sense, for example, we may speak of one type of family life as better than another. This seems to imply that we can attribute goodness or badness to the relations between individuals and not only to the individuals entering into them. But strictly it is the life of the members in their relations to one another that is good or bad and not the individuals apart from the relations or the relations apart from the members. When the good of the community is said to be opposed to the good of the individual, it will be found either that a sectional good is parading in the guise of the good of the whole community, or that the good has been falsely conceived to lie in ends which will not make life better for anyone, or that certain individuals claim the power to decide what is best for the rest of society. Clashes of interest there are, of course, in plenty, and there is the difficulty of grading, or choosing between different values or unavoidable evils. But the issues thus involved are only obscured if interpreted in the form of a clash between the good of individuals and the good of the community, supposed in some mysterious way to be different from theirs.

Political individualism seems to me to have been definitely overcome in English liberal and liberal-socialist thought. The strength of individualism lay in its resolve to reduce coercion to a minimum, in its profound respect for personal liberty. But a succession of thinkers from J. S. Mill to T. H. Green, L. T. Hobhouse, J. A. Hobson, Lord Lindsay, Ernest Barker and others have shown that personal liberty and state control are not necessarily opposed. 'There are' as Hobhouse has said, 'many enemies of liberty besides the state and it is in fact by the state that we have fought them.'[1] The power of the state has been extended in English legislation with the object of securing greater equality in personal rights, particularly in the economic sphere, and of organizing public resources for common objects such as education, health, unemployment insurance. Neither of these extensions of state power involves any loss of personal liberty. Nor is there any substance in the charge so often levelled against the socialist trend in liberal thought that it sacrifices liberty for equality. The problem of liberty arises because either by inborn capacity, or as a result of unjust institutions, men are unequal in power. In the absence of control, only those who have excess of power would be free. Thus in order to maximize freedom it is necessary to prevent existing inequalities from being abused and to remove sanctioned inequalities. In this sense freedom and equality, so far from being incompatible, are interrelated. All should have the right to

[1] *Elements of Social Justice*, p. 83.

be equally protected against the abuse of power and to a share in the control of collective power. Liberty depends on the removal or mitigation of inequalities in power, and equality is thus the necessary condition of liberty.[1]

I must now try to bring together the main points in this discussion. In methodological individualism the antithesis between the individual and society reappears in the emphasis laid on the inner or mental character of social facts, from which it is deduced that they can only be known 'from the inside'. I have tried to show that most sociological investigations do not proceed on this model. They are concerned with structural relations in their bearing on individuals or groups. In so far as they deal with the 'meaning' of social processes they do not confine themselves to 'understanding' in the sense of what can be known by looking within the mind. They try to disentangle the 'functions' served, not necessarily consciously, by social institutions, or else they call psychology to their aid, including the psychology of the unconscious. Psychology, however, cannot claim ultimacy or primacy in sociological explanation. Institutions are the products of minds, but conversely minds are shaped by institutions. From this point of view comparative psychology and comparative sociology are interrelated and neither can claim independent validity.

Coming to the theory of society, we must reject alike the view that society is an aggregate of individuals related externally to each other and the view that it is a mystical 'whole' independent of the individuals composing it. The character of the individual requires for its explanation a theory of 'internal relations'. The social structures embodying these relations cannot be interpreted by analogies drawn from physical objects or living organism. But though they are mind-created and mind-sustained, they are not minds. They are rather mental structures with characteritics of their own. Languages, institutions, legal systems, the arts have their forms or patterns which the individual inherits and to which he has to accommodate himself. He grows by assimilating them and has to use them even in his most 'creative' moments. Looked at in this way, individuals can be seen to be at once self-determining and interdependent, though in what degree, depends upon the type of social structure and the relation of the individual to it.

As far as political and economic individualism is concerned, English experience has shown that the attempt to find a principle determining clearly the sphere of state activity has broken down. The principle that coercion should only be used to limit coercion has had to be widened to include forms of coercion made possible by inequalities of power arising from inequalities in possessions. It was realized that individuals were not really, in a competitive system, 'free and equal' to accept or reject a bargain. This has led to legislation qualifying and defining the freedom of contract, the conditions of work and the remuneration of workers. Similarly the principle: 'To every man full liberty provided he does not interfere with the like liberty of another' has not proved workable. For the 'like' liberty we must subtitute 'any one of a system of liberties' and this implies some conception of a common good or general well being, whose

[1] Cf. E. F. Carritt, *Ethical and Political Thinking*, p. 168, 'Those who think that liberty and equality are incompatible have probably assumed that institutions of their own time and country with regard to property and inheritance are eternally founded in the nature of things and are no limitation to the freedom of those who suffer by them.... Within the sacred system *laissez faire* is divinely guided to maximum liberty, but if we do not enforce just that system providence will lead us to servitude.'

definition cannot be left entirely to each individual. Further more, as Lord Lindsay has pointed out, in treating all human relations in terms of contract, the individualists ignored the amount of government and organization which is not contractual and which is involved in modern industry.[1] The lessons thus provided by English experience and thought are, I think, permanent contributions to political theory and they are not in the least shaken by recent restatements of the individualist position.

Turning now to the relations between the different forms of individualist doctrine, it must be repeated that the association between them is far from complete. A believer in the group-mind need not be a totalitarian. Bosanquet,[2] for example, regarded the state as an embodiment of the general will, but he restricted the action of the state in so far as it used compulsion, to the 'hindering of hindrances to freedom'. On the other hand, the theory of a general will *may* be used to justify totalitarianism, as when communist writers maintain that it is the function of the communist party, or rather its leaders, to interpret the general will, in other words, to tell the workers what they ought to will or what they would will if they understood their 'true' interests.

Similarly those who refuse to accept methodological individualism as the principal method of sociological investigation are not committed to a holistic view of society or to a totalitarian view of political action. They are well aware of the complexity of human relations and of the dangers of concentrated power. But they deny that the only choice open to us is between a 'spontaneous' competitive order on the one hand, and a system of all-pervading control on the other. It is odd that those who attack what they call 'scientism' should feel able to predict with certainty that any form of socialism must necessarily lead to cultural and political totalitarianism. There are many alternatives between spontaneous mutual adjustment and total planning, many different ways of apportioning control between centralized and non-centralized organs. These matters cannot be settled by purely methodological arguments. 'Scientism', it may be added, is not peculiar to planners. It was the empiricist philosophers who came nearest to assimilating the methods of the social sciences to those of the natural sciences, and it was they who were the strongest supporters of political and economic individualism. In any event, 'logicism' is no improvement on 'scientism'. A socialized liberalism must refuse to put its trust in the hidden hand of mutual adjustment. But it lays no claims to omniscience. On the contrary, it insists that only experience can show what sort of control and what sort of authority are likely to be conducive to, or destructive of, liberty on the whole. The answer to questions of this sort does not depend on a general 'logic of liberty' but on quite special knowledge of the conditions of successful planning, personal and collective, political and extra-political.

[1] Cf. 'Individualism', *Enc. of the Social Sciences*, Vol. IV, p. 679.
[2] *The Philosophical Theory of the State.*

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