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Ottawa, Canada

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The Berlin Situation

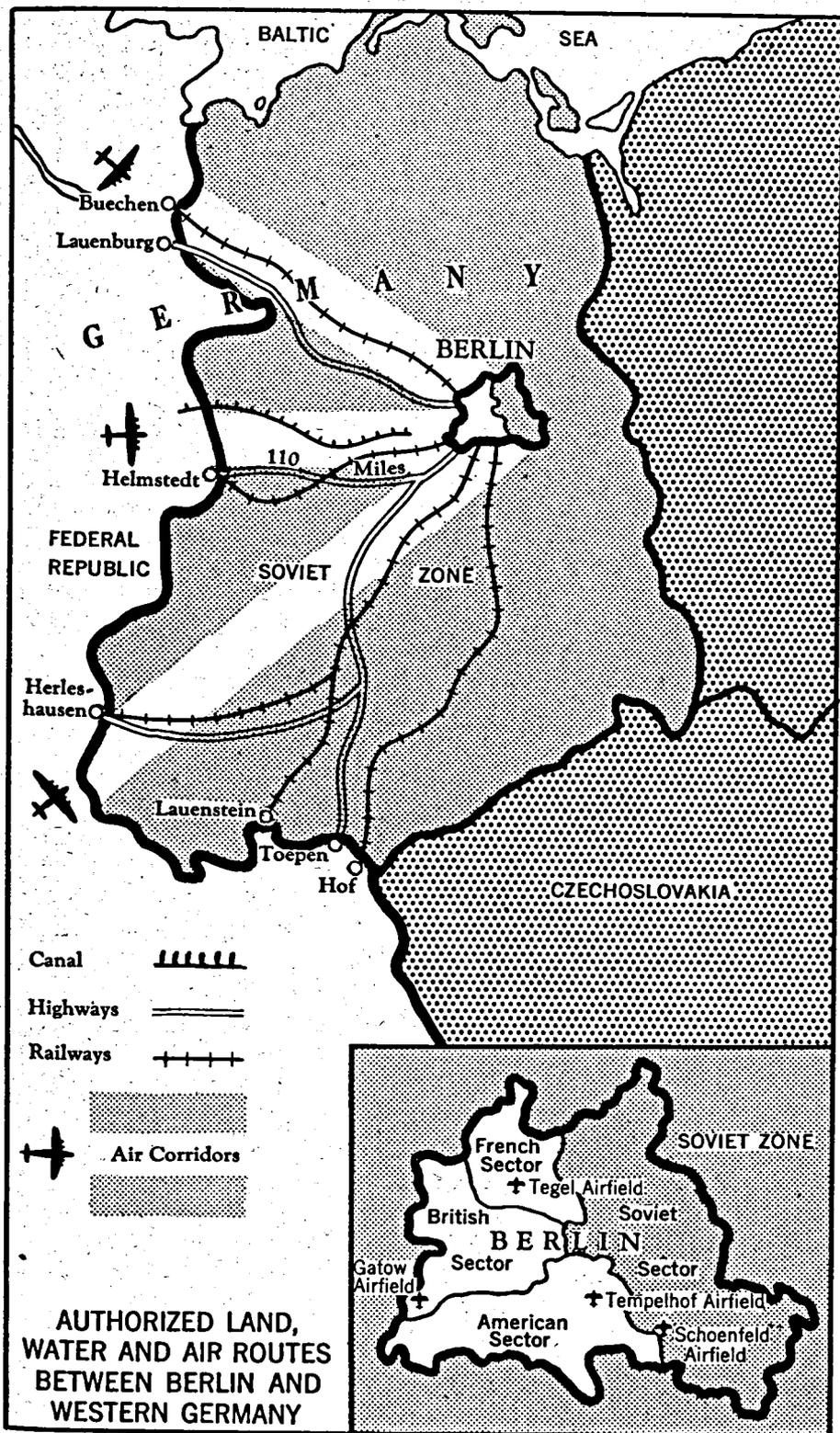
THE Soviet Premier, Nikita Khrushchev, has referred to West Berlin as "a cancerous growth" and "a bone in the throat". The subversive activities allegedly based in Berlin have been a favourite target for Soviet propaganda for years. What really seems to upset the Soviet authorities, however, is the existence, one hundred miles behind the "Iron Curtain", of a thriving community of more than two million free people who are determined to remain a part of the Western democratic world. Virtually all visitors to Berlin comment on the comparison between the bustle, bright lights and handsome modern architecture of the Western sector with the emptiness and dowdiness of East Berlin. West Berlin is a constant reminder to the masses in East Germany that life on the other side of the "Iron Curtain" is freer, easier and brighter.

West Berlin also provides the escape route for over half of the more than 200,000 East Germans who flee westward each year from the German Democratic Republic (GDR). The Soviet authorities are now making an all-out effort to build up the East German economy, and the constant loss of skilled technicians and craftsmen to the West is an increasing embarrassment. The continued existence of West Berlin as a community allied to the West is thus a serious hindrance to the carrying out of Soviet plans for East Germany.

Nevertheless, there had been no major attempt to alter the *status quo* in Berlin since the Soviet blockade of Berlin in 1949*. In accordance with agreements effected before the end of the war, and confirmed in 1949, Berlin is still occupied by garrisons from the Soviet Union, the United States, the United Kingdom and France; also by agreement, the Western powers have the use of air, road and rail routes through the Soviet Zone from West Germany to Berlin. The whole of Berlin, indeed the whole of Germany, was to have been administered as a single unit, but from the start the Soviet occupying authorities sought to impose their own economic and political system on their zone of occupation and to prevent normal relations between the zones. At the time that the Federal Republic of Germany was being established in the Western Zones, and the so-called German Democratic Republic (GDR) in the East, the Soviet Union instituted a blockade of Berlin in order to force its absorption into the surrounding Soviet Zone. The success of the allied airlift in defeating the blockade, and the determination of the West Berliners, were the major factors in persuading the Soviets to leave West Berlin substantially alone during the following decade.

In a public speech on November 10, 1958, Khrushchev announced that the Soviet Union would hand over to the GDR those functions relating to Berlin which are still exercised by Soviet organs. He accused the United States, the United Kingdom and France of turning West Berlin into a centre of subversive activity against the Communist Bloc, and said that in future these powers must undertake their own relations with the GDR if they are interested in Berlin. This seemed an obvious attempt to force the Western powers to recognize the GDR which, thus far, only the Communist Bloc and Yugoslavia have done. It indicated the probability of further steps to force the Western garrisons out of Berlin.

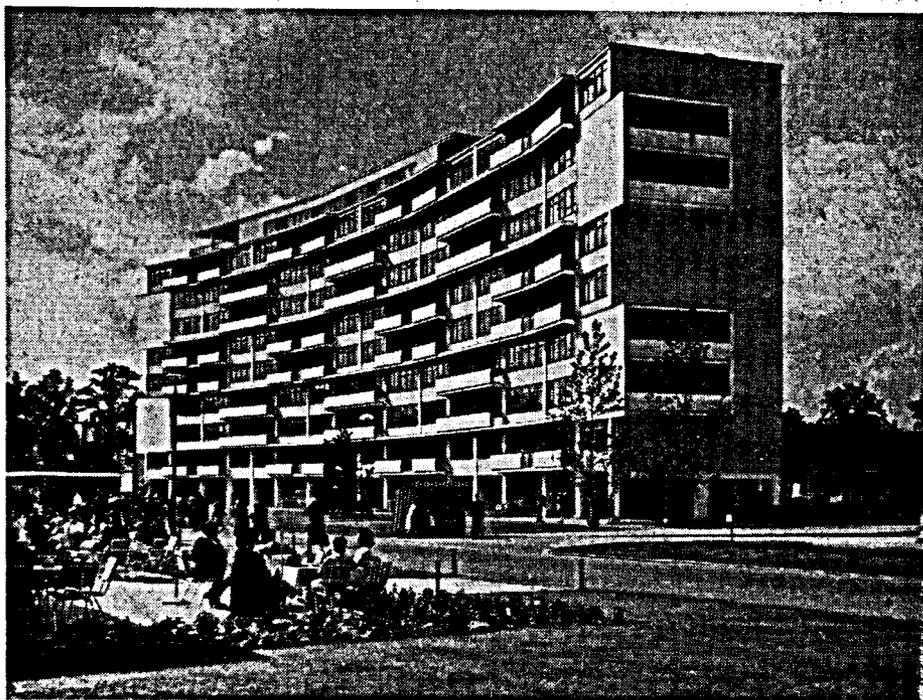
*See "External Affairs", June and August 1949.



This threatening speech was followed by a seventeen day period of comparative quiet during which it appeared that the Soviet authorities might be having second thoughts. Then, in notes to the three Western occupying powers and the Federal Republic of Germany, the U.S.S.R. announced proposals to make West Berlin a demilitarized "free city". The notes offered negotiations but said there would be no point in them if the Western powers failed to accept the free city proposal. According to the U.S.S.R., six months should be adequate for such negotiations; if progress had not been made in that time, the U.S.S.R. would transfer to the GDR its responsibilities relating to Berlin. The Soviet Union declared the four-power agreements on Berlin to be "null and void".

At the same time the U.S.S.R. endeavoured to reassure the population of West Berlin. It promised that the city could have a government and economic system of its own choosing, and might enter into an agreement with the GDR concerning a guarantee of unhindered communication with the outside world. The U.S.S.R. promised to provide orders for goods manufactured in West Berlin and to supply the city with the necessary raw materials and food stuffs. It said it would "have no objections to the United Nations also sharing in one way or another in observing the free city status of West Berlin". For its part, West Berlin would have to commit itself not to tolerate on its territory any antagonistic activity directed against the Communist Bloc.

The Soviet note received a hostile reception in the West where the proposed free city status was regarded as the first step in a campaign to have West Berlin left defenseless in the face of Soviet economic, political and military pressure. The population of West Berlin had an opportunity to voice



A typical modern housing unit in West Berlin.

its views in municipal elections on December 7. The Communist Party ran candidates in these elections and, until three days before the voting, agreed with the democratic parties that the voting could be regarded as a referendum on the Soviet proposals. In the event, a record 93 per cent went to the polls, and the meager 2.7 per cent polled by the communists in the previous elections was cut to less than 2 per cent. There is no doubt about the desire of the West Berliners to remain with the West and, to that end, to retain in their city the Western garrisons of about 10,000 men.

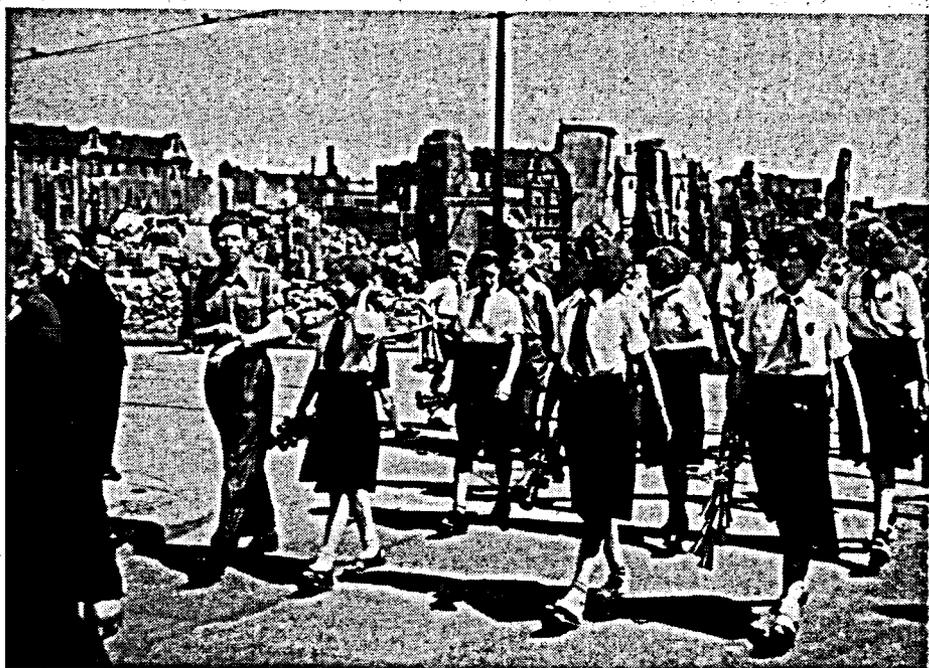
The Foreign Ministers of the United States, United Kingdom, France and Germany, met to discuss Berlin on December 14 in Paris. They issued a joint statement expressing determination to maintain their rights in Berlin, rejecting the Soviet Union's unilateral repudiation of the agreements on Berlin, and refusing all dealings with the East German regime. The fifteen NATO Foreign Ministers, meeting two days later, associated themselves fully with the four-power declaration and went on to express willingness to consider the Berlin question with the Russians in the context of an agreement on Germany as a whole.

On December 31, the three Western powers delivered replies to the Soviet Notes of November 27. All three powers refused to accept the Soviet repudiation of the agreements on Berlin, or to negotiate with the U.S.S.R. under an ultimatum. They reiterated, however, their willingness to discuss Berlin with the Soviets within the framework of discussions of the entire German problem and European security.

On January 10, the Soviet Government proposed in a new series of notes that there be a conference called within two months to prepare a peace treaty with Germany and that this conference be attended on the one hand by the twenty-nine countries which the Soviet Union listed as having fought against Germany, and on the other by representatives of the two German states — the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic. The U.S.S.R. proposed that the conference be held in Warsaw or Prague within two months and submitted a draft peace treaty. Under its terms the parts of Germany would be dealt with as separate units, both having the right to sign the final document. It would also be possible, according to the Soviet draft, for a confederation of the two Germanys to add its signature. According to the Soviet proposals, the two Germanys would remain free of military alliances, reduce their forces to those necessary for their own defence and would not possess nuclear weapons, missiles, bomber aircraft or submarines. Foreign troops would be withdrawn from both parts of Germany, and West Berlin would have the status of a demilitarized free city. The present Oder-Neisse frontier between East Germany and Poland would be recognized as final.

Chancellor Adenauer immediately rejected the Soviet draft treaty as "brutal" and his Foreign Minister added that it was a "perfect catalogue of all that is unacceptable". Secretary of State Dulles criticized the proposed treaty because it envisages a neutralized Germany in the heart of Europe, unallied to either of the two major groups; this would, he thought, create a dangerous power vacuum. Nevertheless, he and other Western leaders reiterated their willingness to discuss the whole German problem with the U.S.S.R.

Although not a party to the series of agreements of 1944, 1945 and 1949 between the United Kingdom, the United States, France and the Soviet Union with respect to the status of Berlin, and access to it, Canada has a



Communist youth marching in East Berlin.

direct interest in developments affecting the security of the Western occupying forces and the inhabitants of West Berlin. Under Article 6 of the North Atlantic Treaty, an armed attack on the occupation forces in Europe of any Party to the Treaty constitutes an armed attack against all Parties within the meaning of Article 5. In addition, at the time of the accession of the Federal Republic of Germany to NATO, Canada, along with the other members of the Alliance, formally associated itself (on October 24, 1954) with a declaration by the United States, the United Kingdom and France that they would maintain armed forces within Berlin as long as their responsibilities required it and would regard any attack against Berlin as an attack upon their forces and themselves.

The solidarity of the Alliance has again been demonstrated in meeting this latest Soviet challenge. At the December Ministerial Meeting of the Council, Canada and the other members of NATO associated themselves fully with views expressed by the United States, the United Kingdom, France and the Federal Republic of Germany (see para 9 above) and, after recalling the responsibilities which each member has assumed in regard to the security and welfare of Berlin, made it clear that the Soviet Union would be considered responsible for any action which had the effect of hampering the city's communications or endangering its freedom.

Since 1945, Canada, in company with other Western powers, has maintained a small mission in Berlin and shows its interest in the city through participation in its trade fairs and cultural activities. As a further indication of its sympathy for Berlin, the Canadian Government invited its governing Mayor, Mr. Willy Brandt, to pay an official visit to Ottawa on February 6, 1959.

The Economic Integration of Western Europe

THE movement towards the integration of Western Europe has been in progress for almost twelve years. But it has been brought to the forefront of interest by the implementation of the first stage of tariff and quota removal, provided for by the Treaty of Rome, and by the crisis in the negotiations among the seventeen countries of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation for the establishment of a free trade area in Western Europe.

Co-operation among the countries of Western Europe to reduce trade barriers among themselves began soon after the war, when the task of rebuilding their shattered economies underlined the need for these countries to work together in the economic rehabilitation of Western Europe as a whole. The following is a description of the steps they have taken with this object in view, up to the suspension of the free trade area negotiations at the end of 1958.

European Recovery Programme

On June 5, 1947 General George C. Marshall, then the United States Secretary of State, made the generous offer of aid which was to become the basis of the European Recovery Programme. A condition of United States assistance was that the countries of Europe should themselves take the lead in formulating this programme, and a Committee of European Economic Co-operation was set up with this purpose. Not long thereafter, on the joint initiative of the United Kingdom and France, discussions were launched for the establishing of a permanent body to continue work on the joint recovery programme; to recommend the allocation of United States aid and, as the means to these ends, to develop and intensify economic co-operation among the participating countries. On April 16, 1948, the Convention for European Co-operation was signed by seventeen countries and the Organization for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) was thereby established.*

Organization for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC)

Working through their representatives on the Council, the seventeen member countries have made substantial progress in removing the quantitative import restrictions (or "quotas") which in 1948 constituted formidable barriers to intra-European trade and also, by the creation of the European Payments Union in 1950, established a multilateral system of payments within Western Europe which played a major part in making possible this regional liberalization of trade. The volume of intra-European trade, which in 1947 was below the pre-war level, by 1950 had exceeded it and by 1957 was more than double the volume of 1937-38. Both exports to and imports from the rest of the world had likewise greatly increased by 1957, though for the member countries as a whole the removal of quantitative restrictions on imports from the dollar area had not progressed as far as intra-European

(*) Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom.

liberalization. The work of the OEEC is based on the principle of co-operation: it has stopped short of any degree of integration that would involve even a partial or limited surrender of national sovereignty. The decisions of the Council have, up to the present, been based on the principle of unanimity, so that any one country which wishes to do so can refuse to accept any given decision and thus veto its adoption.

Benelux

The first countries of Western Europe to take the initial step towards further economic integration were the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg. In 1944, before the end of the war, they had negotiated a Customs Convention which was ratified by legislation in the three countries in 1947 and under which, in 1948, a common tariff was imposed on imports from third countries, thus establishing the entity now generally known as Benelux. The Convention of 1948 did not, however, abolish the tariffs or other existing barriers to the free movement of goods and services among the three countries. Nor did it provide for the institution of a common economic and financial policy towards the outside world (except in the case of tariffs). The Netherlands and the Belgium-Luxembourg Economic Union therefore retained their individual systems of quantitative restrictions, exchange controls and other instruments of both internal and external economic policy. The goal from the beginning was, however, the establishment of a full economic union and though the many complex problems arising from the differences in the economic structure of the partners have delayed its accomplishment, there has been a progressive development over the years towards a common market for goods and services. In February 1958, though a common market was not yet completely achieved, a treaty formally making the Benelux Economic Union was signed.

The European Coal and Steel Community

In 1951, the six countries which are now members of the European Economic Community (Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands) established the European Coal and Steel Community, which for these important sectors of the economy marked a long step towards economic integration. The treaty provided for the development of a common market for coal and steel among the six countries in which tariffs and quantitative import restrictions for these commodities have progressively been suspended or greatly reduced, together with other barriers to trade such as discriminatory freight rates. The "High Authority" of the Community consists of nine administrators who function as international civil servants, and not as the representatives of the various countries from which they come. The Authority reports to the Common Assembly composed of members chosen, not by direct election, but by the Parliaments of the member countries, and maintains its contact with the governments of the participating states chiefly through a Council of Ministers. There is also a Court of Justice which interprets and ensures observance, by member states and the organs of the Community, of the law laid down in the treaty, and which can hear appeals from the organs of the Community and from private firms. Since the High Authority takes action on its own responsibility, and since all the organs of the Community may in principle take decisions by a majority vote, the European Coal and Steel Community has "supranational" characteristics not shared by the OEEC, and has had considerable influence upon the form

taken by the two latest "communities" to be established in Europe: the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM).

The European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Community

The genesis of these two Communities was the declaration produced by the Foreign Ministers of the six Coal and Steel Community countries after their meeting at Messina in June 1955. This was spoken of at the time as an attempt to "relaunch" the European movement—the earlier hopes for a move to European integration on a broad political front had received a serious check with the final failure of the European Defence Community Treaty to secure acceptance by the French Assembly (August 30, 1954). For this reason, the Messina Declaration returned to the earlier approach and proposed a programme of economic integration based on the establishment of a general common market, with special provisions for intensifying co-operation in the development of the European atomic energy industry. In the course of almost two years of intensive negotiation, the scope of the proposed common market was considerably broadened, until it now covers a good deal more than the simple establishment of a common external tariff by the six member countries and the removal of tariffs and quotas on the trade between them.

The treaties of Rome which established the two Communities—the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom)—were signed on March 25, 1957, and came into force on January 1, 1958. They are complex documents. The treaty creating the EEC makes provision for the development of a co-ordinated approach in numerous areas of economic and social activities, including working conditions and welfare, and the formation of general economic policy as it affects the stability of prices, employment levels and international balance of payments situations of the member countries. A European Investment Bank is established which is empowered to make and guarantee loans. Certain specified overseas territories of the member countries are associated with the Community and are given in some respects a special preferential position to assist in their economic development. The Treaty also contains separate provisions relating to the trade in agricultural products in which, owing to the strongly entrenched tradition of protecting domestic producers, the participating countries did not consider it possible to make a start at once on developing a common market, and instead pledged themselves to form a "common agricultural policy" as the preliminary step. The institutions of the two Communities are patterned on those of the Coal and Steel Community with which they will share two organs: a single parliamentary Assembly and a single Court of Justice.

Euratom also has a separate "supranational" Commission, under the supervision of which there is a "Supply Agency". By providing for a close co-operation in planning, research and operation of nuclear installations, and by establishing a common market free of tariff and quota barriers for nuclear materials and equipment, the members of the Community intend to build up a nuclear industry which will be an important source of energy to supplement the existing inadequate or expensive supplies of conventional

fuels, such as coal and oil. The nuclear common market came into effect at one step on January 1, 1959. The Supply Agency set up by the Treaty has a first option on all the ores, source materials and "special fissionable materials" used in the production of nuclear energy that are produced within the territories of the Community. It also has the exclusive right, subject to certain specified safeguards, to conclude agreements with third countries or with other international organizations for the supply of these materials from outside the Community. Member countries will therefore obtain their supplies only through the Agency and in the case of special fissionable materials which can be used directly in the production of weapons (plutonium, uranium 233 and enriched uranium), ownership will remain with the Community.

Up to the present time, the Community, acting through its Commission, has concluded agreements for co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy with the United States and the United Kingdom and the negotiations are at present underway with Canada. (A more complete article on Euratom will be published in a later issue of this bulletin.)

The establishment of the general common market, which entails the abolition of tariffs and quotas among the six countries of the EEC and the establishment of a common external tariff towards other countries, will take place gradually over a period of 12-15 years. The first step came into effect on January 1, 1959, when each of the six countries lowered its tariffs towards the others by ten percent and at the same time "globalized" quotas and enlarged them by 20 percent. The effect of this action on quantitative restrictions is most easily explained by a brief hypothetical example. Suppose that France had maintained quantitative restrictions on imports of shoes and by bilateral agreements with Germany and Italy permitted imports of 30,000 pairs and 15,000 pairs per year respectively from these countries. On January 1, 1959 the two quotas would become a single global quota of 45,000 pairs, and would be increased by 20 percent, that is to 54,000 pairs for which all five other members of the Community would freely compete.

Proposal for a Free Trade Area

Article 237 of the Treaty of Rome provides that any European state may apply to become a member of the EEC. No country has as yet taken advantage of this article, but the United Kingdom and ten other states—all the remaining members of the OEEC—began in July 1956 to actively explore with the Six "possible forms and methods of association, on a multilateral basis, between the proposed Customs Union (i.e. the European Economic Community) and member countries (of the OEEC) not taking part therein". The eleven countries in question had their individual reasons, economic and other, for not wishing to join the European Economic Community, though they probably all shared a reservation about the "supranational" powers conferred by the organs of the Community and hesitated to accept a partial surrender of national sovereignty. So far as the United Kingdom was concerned, there was the further consideration of its economic and other links with the Commonwealth which were incompatible with its entry into a customs union such as that to be established by the Treaty of Rome. On the other hand, in view of the close business and trading relations with the Six, the Eleven—as they came to be called—could not easily face the prospect of being barred by the external tariff wall around the Community from an opportunity to compete on equal terms in the markets of the Six.

A split of this kind in Western Europe would, moreover, seriously impair political co-operation.

It was for these reasons that the OEEC Council in July 1956 decided to study the feasibility of an association between the Six and the Eleven "on a multilateral basis". In January 1957, the working party which had been entrusted with the task, reported that it was technically possible to operate a free trade area in Europe which would include the customs and economic union of the Six. The difference between the suggested free trade area and the Customs Union would be that the members of the former who did not join the EEC would retain their separate tariffs vis-a-vis the outside world. The form of organization contemplated was also somewhat looser and lacked the supranational characteristics of the EEC. In February 1957, the United Kingdom Government brought before the OEEC Council a memorandum suggesting a plan for an industrial free trade area: one which would not include agricultural products. The Treaty of Rome had, as already mentioned, dealt with agricultural products by a special procedure and it was generally recognized that this sector was difficult to deal with on the same basis as the other. The United Kingdom particularly was not prepared to accept the inclusion of agricultural products in a free trade area, because it was in this group of commodities that most Commonwealth preferences were to be found. By agreeing to free trade with its European partners, the United Kingdom would destroy the margin of preference enjoyed in its markets by the other countries of the Commonwealth.

Though work continued fairly steadily in the OEEC, and though many useful technical studies were produced, it proved difficult to reconcile the opposing views and interests. In October 1957, there was established an Inter-Governmental Negotiating Committee, under the Chairmanship of Mr. Reginald Maudling, Paymaster General of the United Kingdom, which was to press the negotiations as rapidly as possible, so that the first step in the removal of tariffs and quotas by the free trade area countries could be taken on January 1, 1959, simultaneously with the first measures to reduce tariffs and quantitative restrictions in the European Economic Community. If this could be achieved, it would greatly simplify the future development in parallel of the two associations and would also avoid the creation of "discrimination" between the two groups: a situation in which the Six would apply more favourable trading regulations among themselves than vis-a-vis the other members of the OEEC.

Inter-Governmental Negotiating Committee

There were many technical complexities in the negotiations carried on between July 1956 and December 1958, but the basic difficulties really boiled down to three. The first was the exclusion of agriculture and fisheries from the original United Kingdom proposals for an industrial free trade area which created difficulties for countries like Denmark, Iceland and Norway, whose export trade was heavily dependent on these products. The countries of the EEC were also unwilling to leave agriculture altogether outside and several new sets of proposals were therefore made, by the United Kingdom, Switzerland, the EEC and the Scandinavian countries, which would have provided in varying degrees for closer co-operation and consultation in this sector, but all of which stopped short of suggesting that agricultural and fisheries products should be treated exactly like industrial goods.

The second difficulty, the so called "problem of origin", arose from the fact that, in the proposed free trade area, countries were to retain their individual tariffs against the outside world and not to weld them into an external tariff like that which would eventually surround the European Economic Community. Since all tariffs within the area were to be progressively abolished, it was evident that goods from third countries (for example Canada) might be shipped to a member country with a low external tariff and thence, either immediately or with a very small amount of further processing, gain access to the free trade area as a whole, thus frustrating the purpose of another member country maintaining high tariffs against that same product in order to protect a domestic industry. In this way there could theoretically arise serious "deflections of trade", situations in which the processing industries of the low tariff countries would drive the protected (and thus probably higher cost) industries of other member countries out of the market. A similar problem could of course arise as a result of the Commonwealth preferential system, since here too each country retains control over its external tariffs, and in practice it is solved by a system of certificates of origin which indicate whether the product has a sufficient percentage of "Commonwealth content" (either raw material or the added value of processing) to qualify for the preferential tariff. In the view of the United Kingdom, this system was capable of being adapted to meet the needs of a free trade area and would have sufficed to prevent deflections of trade. But some other countries participating in the negotiations, particularly France and Italy whose economic policies were traditionally protectionist, were not convinced that the system would be adequate to prevent serious deflections of trade and accordingly demanded some "harmonization of tariffs" (i.e. external tariffs) at least for the benefit of especially vulnerable industries.

The two different approaches to the "origin" question really sum up the difference between an "outward looking" free trade area and an "inward looking" one. In the first, the participating countries would expect to increase their trade and other economic exchanges with their partners but not at the expense of their exchanges with other countries which, it was hoped, would also increase. For the second group, the prime objective would be, at least at first, to increase the economic cohesion—and therefore bargaining power—of the free trade area countries as a group.

It is easy to see that the "inward looking" free trade area is a more political concept; it leads to the third problem which is itself a group of problems relating to the central idea that countries which had not accepted the same degree of economic integration as those of the EEC and had therefore not made the same "sacrifice" of national sovereignty, should not expect to reap the same benefits. There was also of course the argument that the European Economic Community, which was meant to form the basis for developing political cohesion, might be weakened if it were to incorporate a number of members whose economies were in widely different states of development, and who did not subscribe to the presumptive political goals of the European Economic Community.

Crisis in Negotiations

Of all the countries of the Community, it was France that had the greatest difficulty in accepting the concept of a free trade area as proposed by the United Kingdom. In addition to the reasons already given, there were

the fears of important sections of French industry that they would be unable to meet the greatly increased foreign competition which would result from the simultaneous implementation of the Treaty of Rome and a free trade area convention. Moreover, in a special protocol to the Treaty of Rome, France had secured certain concessions from its partners intended to allow an additional time for adjustment to conditions of intensified competition that was needed by the country's wage and price structure. This, for a variety of reasons (including the continued heavy drain caused by the political situation in Indochina and subsequently in Algeria) had become seriously distorted. Without any such safeguard, the impact of the free trade area, in view of the inflationary situation existing in France, could, it was believed, have serious consequences for French industry.

It was for these reasons that the impasse which developed in the free trade area negotiations in 1958 was often regarded as being primarily a crisis between France and the United Kingdom. In fact, however, the other members of the EEC were not prepared to proceed with the negotiations unless France was able to go along. During October, the Maudling Committee discussed a memorandum of October 20 from the European Economic Community, re-affirming its determination to associate with itself on a multilateral basis the other members of the OEEC in a European Economic Association to come into force on January 1, 1959. It did not prove possible at these meetings to reach final decisions on the major issues and a further session of the Maudling Committee was convened for November 13-14. On November 14, the announcement was made to the Press on behalf of the French Government that it did not seem possible for them to establish the free trade area as it had been proposed, and that they were looking for a new solution. In these circumstances, the negotiations were suspended and have not since been resumed. The search for a compromise solution has not however been dropped and on January 30, the United Kingdom Government issued a command paper which ends with the following words:

Her Majesty's Government are firmly convinced of the over-riding importance for the future of Europe of finding a multilateral solution which will provide for freedom of trade including the removal of tariffs and quantitative restrictions among all members of the OEEC. The outstanding points are indeed of considerable significance. But Her Majesty's Government do not believe that they are incapable of solution by further negotiation in an atmosphere of common determination to succeed and agreement on the ultimate objective.

When during the negotiations, it had become more and more unlikely that a permanent treaty of association could be worked out to take effect on January 1, 1959, attention began to be concentrated on finding a so-called "interim arrangement" by which the members of the EEC could implement their obligations towards one another under the Treaty of Rome, without simultaneously discriminating against their other partners in the OEEC. An agreed solution was not found, but instead the countries of the EEC decided unilaterally to extend to the other members of the OEEC the benefit of the 10 per cent tariff cuts that became effective on January 1, and to make certain concessions on quantitative import restrictions which however fell short of those effective among the members of the Community themselves. In the light of their obligations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, the members of the EEC were required to extend the tariff cuts to all GATT members and they accordingly did so.

Nordic Economic Co-operation

Even before the beginning of the free trade area discussions, the four Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden) had been examining the possibilities of "widening the scope of economic co-operation" amongst themselves, and by July 1957 had already prepared a detailed plan (including a common external tariff) for a Nordic Market covering 80 per cent of total inter-Nordic trade. The studies have since been extended to cover the remaining 20 per cent of inter-Nordic trade, with the exception of agricultural commodities for which a proposal is under preparation. In view of the status of the free trade area negotiations, in which Denmark, Norway and Sweden (but not Finland) were participating, no political decision had been taken by any of the four countries up to the end of 1958 on the adoption of these proposals. But at its sixth session in November 1958 the Nordic Council, which is a consultative body only, had recommended to the four governments that they "enter into negotiations for a Nordic economic co-operation and with a view to placing the matter before the Parliaments when the conditions permit a decision to be taken."

Relations with Outside Countries

The movement for European economic integration has received its impetus from two separate but complementary motives: the wish to strengthen the political cohesion of Western Europe and the belief that one way of doing so is to create a free-trading zone comparable in size and efficiency with that in the United States. Third countries such as Canada, which have important economic links with the countries of Western Europe, while supporting the objectives mentioned above, cannot remain indifferent to the manner in which the second of them is carried out. In other words, a European trading area which erected unreasonable barriers of various kind to imports from the rest of the world or which appeared to aim primarily at self-sufficiency would be undesirable in itself, tending merely to re-channel world trade rather than increase it absolutely, and would mark a departure from the objectives of freer multilateral world trade stated in the Bretton Woods' Agreements of 1945 and made the basis of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. Since all these members of the European Economic Community are signatories of the GATT, and since Article XXIV of that Agreement laid down the conditions by which contracting parties may form themselves into customs unions, the provisions of the Treaties of Rome have been submitted by their signatories for examination and discussion in the GATT forum. The examination, which has already begun, will be detailed and in view of the wide scope encompassed by the treaties is expected to be prolonged. Should a European free trade area eventually be established, it too would be the subject of a similar examination by the GATT.

In conclusion, it will not be out of place to quote the following statement of the Canadian view made in the House of Commons by the Minister of Finance in his budget speech on June 17, 1958:

The Canadian Government is following with sympathy and interest these European efforts to integrate their economies and to develop a broader and more competitive system of production. The countries of the six together would make up an economic unit comparable in population to that of the United States. The looser free trade area group would be very much larger. On the basis of these enlarged internal markets European countries can be expected to achieve stronger and more efficient economies.

We attach high importance to the economic and political strength of Western Europe as a safeguard of world peace and prosperity. Europe, however, has extensive trade and economic links with the rest of the world. In our view it is vital that efforts to solve European regional problems should not weaken these wider connections. We have been disturbed about certain recent tendencies, lest they convert Europe into an inward-looking regional trading bloc fenced off from the rest of the world by high tariffs, trade restrictions and other barriers. Such a development, we fear, would defeat the essential constructive purposes of the common market and free trade area projects.



CANADIAN PARLIAMENTARIANS IN WASHINGTON

A group of nine Canadian Parliamentarians visited Washington on January 9 and 10, when they had discussions with United States Legislators. In the photograph are shown from left to right: Mr. Mark Drouin, Speaker of the Canadian Senate, President Eisenhower and Mr. Roland Michener, Speaker of the Canadian House of Commons.

The Chinese Communes

With the announcement in August 1958 of the formation of People's Communes, the Chinese Communist Party launched perhaps its most determined effort to change the pattern of traditional life in the Chinese countryside, since it came to power over nine years ago.

The question of what are people's communes may perhaps best be answered by describing the situation as it existed before their formation. Then the basic political unit in China was the township, within which there existed separately a number of agriculture producers' co-operatives (collective farms), credit organizations, supply and marketing organizations, local industrial establishments, and so forth. All such organizations worked to a greater or less extent without reference to one another, although their interests naturally met in a number of cases and they were subject to a higher direction, either within the township or county, which limited their freedom of action. In the commune, all these organizations, both economic and political, are united under one centralized direction known as the commune management. Since most communes have borders identical with those of the township, the change-over is quite simple: the township people's council automatically becomes the management committee of the commune, and the management of the various financial, commercial, agricultural and industrial organizations now become committees either within the commune or responsible to it. The Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party described the communes as "all-round management of agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, side-occupations and fishing, where industry, agriculture, commercial exchange, culture and education and military affairs merge into one".

It has been reported that 99 per cent of China's 500,000,000 peasants have now been organized into more than 28,000 communes, with an average population of from 5,000 to 10,000 households.

The Communes, therefore, represent a concentration of all the political and economic activities of the basic unit of government in China into one organization under party control. The advantages of concentrating and increasing party control in a country where the problem of assuring political authority over the mass of the population is of paramount importance are, of course, obvious. At the same time, the communes present other important advantages to the regime by permitting the authorities more freedom in distributing labour between the various economic activities — agricultural or industrial — of the communes. The production brigades and production teams, into which the labour potential of the communes is divided, work in conformity with a "labour control plan" which determines the priorities to be assigned to the various demands for labour.

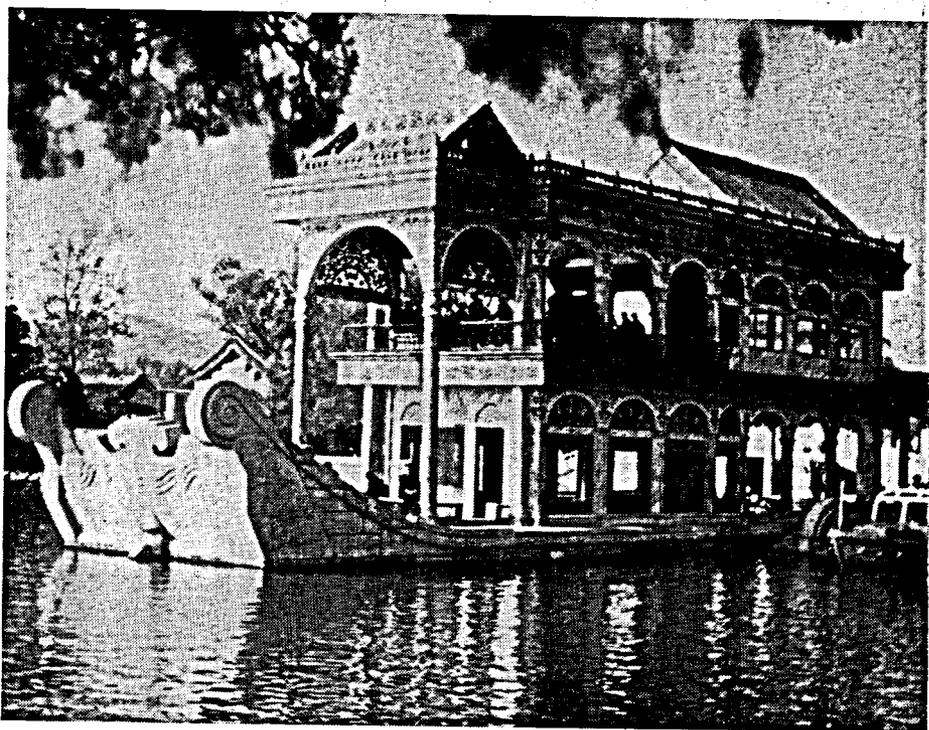
What has attracted the attention of the West is not so much the communes themselves, as the social upheaval which they imply. It is also suspected that the formation of communes has been regarded with a good deal of apprehension in the Soviet Union and the Eastern European satellites. Mr. Khrushchev was reported as saying to Senator Humphrey that they were a "reactionary" institution. More recently Mr. Mikoyan is reported to have said in the United States that the Soviet Union had itself unsuccessfully experimented with the commune system. The Soviet Union may be coming

to the realization that the new China, organized on military lines and developing industrially at a high rate, could conceivably become a threat to its own domination of the communist world. In the smaller communist states, the reaction is reported to have been one of anxious astonishment at the implied social revolution. In none of them, at any rate, (including North Korea) has there been any evidence of a desire to imitate the Chinese example. The communists themselves have made much of the fact that commune life is organized on military lines, and that life is completely collective. The original directive said that "it has become popular among the people to organize themselves along military lines, to work with militancy and to live a collective life and this has raised the political consciousness of the peasants still further". It was, however, less popular than the Central Committee hoped at that time. The Chinese communists appear to have gone too fast in attempting to extend what they call the "communist elements" in the framework of commune life. As well as the institution of communal dining halls and barracks, the Party decided at the same time to attempt to do away with all forms of private property, such as vegetable plots and fruit trees, and even began to attack the wage system, through what was called the "free-supply system" under which a certain proportion of the commune member's wages are paid in kind rather than cash. It was reported that some communes were supplying their members with free staples and providing clothing, housing and a number of other services without charge. Articles in the official press appeared attacking the wage system as "a vulgar practice", and it appeared that the Chinese would be applying the communist principle of remuneration—to each according to his needs—long before the Soviet Union.



COMMUNAL LIFE

Workers in a vegetable field on a Co-operative near Peking.



A REMINDER OF THE OLD CHINA

The Marble Boat at the Emperor's Summer Palace near Peking. The grounds of the Palace are now used as a public park.

This led to resistances on the part of the Chinese peasants. They appear to have protested principally against the over-regimentation of life in many communes, the denial of all private property, and even against the free-supply system which does not provide incentives for increased production, as do regular increases in money wages. On December 10 the Central Committee of the Communist Party called a halt to this programme of proceeding rapidly towards the creation of a communist form of society. It was then decided not to proceed with the formation of communes in the cities. One of the reasons being that "bourgeois ideology still is fairly prevalent among many of the capitalists and intellectuals in the cities". The importance of retaining the system of monetary wages was emphasized: "in the income of commune members that portion of the wage paid according to work done (and not according to need — ed.) must occupy an important place over a long period and will, during a certain period, take first place". It was further laid down that members who receive financial support from relatives in cities or from overseas Chinese should not be discriminated against, or be forced to make "special investments or contributions" to the communes. It was emphasized that "the means of livelihood owned by members — including houses, clothing, bedding and furniture — and their deposits in banks and credit co-operatives will remain their own property after they join the commune and will always belong to them".

The same resolution of the Central Committee gave support by implication to those articles appearing in the Western press which asserted that

living and working conditions in the communes were anything but good. The Central Committee took the trouble to lay down that working hours should in no case exceed twelve hours, which leads to the suspicion that this already high limit had been exceeded; that communal dining-halls should provide varied meals, and the nurseries and kindergartens should be of a standard "that the children are willing to stay in them and the parents willing to put them there". The injunction that "parents may decide whether all children need to board there, and may take them home any time they wish," again implies that in some communes at least the forced separation of families was in fact prevalent.

These concessions should not be taken to mean, however, that the Chinese communists are having second thoughts about the desirability of continuing with the communes system. They probably mean that for a time certain elements within the Party had attempted to proceed too fast, which made necessary an organizational readjustment of the communes, together with a theoretical re-evaluation of both the material conditions necessary to move to communism through socialism and the timing of such a step. The idea of a possible sudden leap to a communist organization of society was refuted by the Russians, who have always held that an industrial base must first be established before being able to satisfy consumer needs and to provide the material conditions for progress to communism. It is of significance that the Chinese now appear to have accepted this view and so eliminated one possibility of ideological disagreement with the Soviet Union. The communes will, however, continue to be developed as a new means of mobilizing China's vast labour reserves for the task of industrializing the country within a minimum space of time. The social upheaval associated with this attempt — the break-up of families, the collectivization of individual life — will be pushed through except where it meets serious resistances, as apparently was the case to a certain extent last autumn. The "retreat from the communes", which has received publicity recently, thus probably represents no more than a temporary and relatively minor withdrawal from some of the advanced positions on the road to communism which the Communist Party occupied last autumn.

The Colombo Plan Conference in Seattle

The Consultative Committee of the Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic Development in South and Southeast Asia met in Seattle, Washington, from November 10 to 13, 1958. This was the tenth meeting of the Consultative Committee, created at Colombo, Ceylon, in 1950 to "survey the needs, to assess the resources available and required, to focus world attention on the development problems of the area, and to provide a framework within which an international co-operative effort could be promoted to assist the countries of the area to raise their living standards".

Eighteen member countries were represented at the Seattle Conference: Mr. John Foster Dulles, the leader of the United States Delegation, was Chairman. The Canadian Delegation was led by Mr. Sidney Smith, Secretary of State for External Affairs, and included Mr. Louis Couillard, Ambassador Designate to Venezuela, Mr. John Teakles and Miss Lois Hill of the Department of External Affairs, Mr. D. W. Bartlett of the Department of Trade and Commerce, and Mr. L. D. Hudon of the Department of Finance.

Review of Progress

Each year the Consultative Committee reviews the progress made, the problems encountered and the tasks that lie ahead in the effort to accelerate economic development in South and Southeast Asia. The focal point for these discussions is the annual report drafted at a preparatory meeting of officials for the consideration of the Ministers. After full consideration, agreement was reached at the Seattle meeting of the Consultative Committee on the seventh annual report, which was subsequently released in all member countries.

Reviewing economic development in the region as a whole, the Consultative Committee noted in its report that while significant progress continued to be made during the year, the rate of progress was somewhat less than in previous years. The report continued:

It appears that the rate of growth in per capita real income in the region mentioned in previous reports was not maintained. In some countries of the region, adverse weather and a decline in food production, inflationary pressures and heavy imports accompanied by a decline in export earnings, and other factors, occasioned setbacks. Nevertheless these setbacks are not likely to reverse the forward movement of economic development as a whole. Progress continued to be made at a substantial rate in such vital economic sectors as industrial capacity and improvement of basic facilities, including roads, irrigation and land reclamation.

The Consultative Committee noted that economic difficulties in the area were particularly marked in countries where large development programmes were under way:

Export earnings did not keep pace with the increase in import expenditures. This in part reflects the fact that an increasing proportion of the imports of these countries consists of capital goods or raw materials for the manufacture of capital goods. It is difficult to abandon projects once started and equipment ordered cannot always be cancelled.

Some of the difficulties which affected some of the countries of the region during the period under review (such as the world economic situation, the fall in the terms of trade, the variations in the supply positions in some of the more important export commodities, and the unfavourable weather conditions) were outside the control of the

countries concerned. Some steps were taken to counter these difficulties. It is, however, probable that the adverse effects of these circumstances on the development and prosperity of the area would have been mitigated further had some of the countries reacted more rapidly and more strongly to adjust their monetary, fiscal and development policies to the change.

After commenting on the increased attention given by the countries of the area to the execution, adjustment and formulation of development plans and programmes, the Consultative Committee had this to say in its report about the problem of financing development:

Most countries in the region have a similar pattern of development expenditures, and all development programmes contain an element, small or large, requiring public investment. This in turn has necessitated a greater resort to fiscal measures for mobilization of domestic resources. In some countries considerable additional taxation has been levied and also additional small savings have been mobilized. Internal resources mobilized have generally not been adequate to meet the requirements of the development plans. This, coupled with continuing development expenditures, tended to exert a pressure on prices and on balance of payments.

The importance of private initiative and effort was also emphasized by the Consultative Committee. Throughout the area, agriculture and small-scale and cottage industries are predominant in terms of employment and output, and all these countries leave a wide field of operation to private enterprise in the sphere of medium and large-scale industry. The report pointed out that most countries of the region have adopted various measures, such as tax concessions, protective tariffs, provision of financial assistance and technical advice, to assist the growth of private enterprise. In some countries, it said, the absence of basic facilities such as roads and railways, or of the institutional framework such as a sound monetary and credit system, have tended to limit the growth of the private sector; in others, the response to the various incentives has been encouraging.

The Consultative Committee agreed that foreign private investment in the region, although comparatively small now, is of considerable importance in the initial stages of development. It noted that most countries of South and Southeast Asia have continued to take steps to encourage foreign investment, and it considered that in general there is now a better appreciation of the role of foreign capital in both the capital importing and the capital exporting countries.

With regard to foreign economic assistance to the countries of the region, the Consultative Committee said in its communique:

The Committee noted that by far the greater part of the economic resources devoted to the development of South and Southeast Asia has come from the countries of the area and would continue to do so. The Committee emphasized the importance of sound fiscal and monetary policies in further encouraging, wherever practicable, savings for developmental purposes. These public and private resources from within the area have been supplemented by important aid from outside. In the past year over \$1000 million in economic assistance have been made available by contributing members of the Colombo Plan to the countries of South and Southeast Asia. Since the inception of the plan, about \$5000 million of external aid has been made available to help promote the development and economic stability of these countries. The variety of forms and sources of this aid is impressive.

The acute shortage of skilled technicians at all levels and in all fields was, in the Consultative Committee's opinion, just as serious a problem for the region as a whole as that of capital availabilities from domestic and external sources. The Committee noted in its report that technical assistance has a



A diesel locomotive being loaded at the pier, St. John, New Brunswick, as part of Canada's contribution to the Colombo Plan.

value greatly in excess of its monetary cost, not only in relation to national economic development but also as a contribution to international co-operation and human relations. By the end of the period under review, the total number of scholarships and training awards granted by member countries under the Colombo Plan technical co-operation scheme had reached 6952, and the total number of technical experts in the field since the Colombo Plan began had reached 1002. In addition, technical assistance outside the technical co-operation scheme was provided on a large scale by the United States. The Consultative Committee noted a steady growth in the establishment and development of training facilities within the countries of South and Southeast Asia. Of the total training awards under the Colombo Plan technical co-operation scheme, the proportion provided by countries within the area increased from 11 per cent to 20 per cent during the year under review.

Canada's Role

The Canadian Secretary of State for External Affairs, when speaking in the Consultative Committee on the various initiatives taken recently to give fresh impetus to the concept of international assistance for economic development, referred to the Canadian Government's intentions in the following words:

In all these initiatives I am glad to say that Canada is playing a full and active part. We have agreed to contribute our share to the proposed expansion of the resources of the International Bank and the International Monetary Fund. We have pledged a

contribution of \$2 million to the United Nations Special Fund for the first year of its operation. And with special reference to the Colombo Plan we have undertaken, subject to the approval of the Canadian Parliament, to increase our annual contribution for the next three years by roughly one-half from the current level of \$35 million a year to \$50 million a year. In this forward planning, countries may find it helpful to have this early indication of the Canadian Government's intention to contribute in larger measure to the Plan. We have also signified our intention to enlarge our aid programme to the West Indies Federation and to our Commonwealth partners in Africa.

During the fiscal year ending in March 1958, my Government allocated over \$39 million from the Colombo Plan Fund to assist in the financing of agreed projects located in the region. A substantial part of this amount was used to provide additional financing for projects which have been under way for some time, such as the atomic reactor in India and the Warsak hydro-electric project in Pakistan. Our partners in these and similar undertakings would, I am sure, agree that the progress made towards their completion in the past year has been most encouraging. Since the inception of the Plan, we have found that the difficulties which inevitably arise in the execution of joint projects have steadily diminished. This improvement reflects, I think, not only a better mutual understanding of the conditions and methods governing the execution of such joint projects, but also, and more importantly, a deeper appreciation of each other's problems.

A substantial part of our allocation in the year 1957-58 was used to provide metals, such as aluminum and copper. This is not a new feature in our aid programme; we have provided metals in the past, but never in such large quantities. This shift in the content of our programme was made at the request of the countries themselves and reflects the changes in the needs of these countries brought about by the process of economic development. We have tried, and will continue to try, to make our programme as flexible as possible.

During the current fiscal year, Parliament voted an additional \$35 million for assistance under the Colombo Plan. Discussions with a number of member countries are quite far advanced and agreement on projects should be reached in the near future. This brings the total Canadian contribution to the Colombo Plan since its inception to over \$231 million. This figure does not include \$21.5 million in grants and \$35 million in loan funds made available to Colombo Plan participants for the purchase of commodities.

In conclusion, I assure you of the continued warm support which public opinion in Canada is giving to the policy of the Canadian Government to co-operate with the less-developed countries in their economic development programmes. We realize, of course, that most of the effort and most of the burden must be, and is being, shouldered by these countries themselves. On the other hand we recognize that when all has been done that can be done, there will remain a need for assistance from abroad, both by way of private investment and by means of resources made available by governments and international institutions. It was this recognition that led us jointly to bring the Colombo Plan into being some eight years ago. I think we can take pride in the results that we have achieved in close co-operation with one another. This co-operation will lead us to the objectives we all seek.

The Geneva Disarmament Conferences

Nuclear Tests

From October 31 to December 19, 1958, and again from January 5 up to the present, the representatives of the United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union have been negotiating in Geneva for an agreement on the discontinuance of nuclear weapons tests and the actual establishment of a control system. Technical discussions in July and August of last year on the possibility of detecting violations of an agreement, concluded with an agreed report upon the basic methods for detection and identification of nuclear explosions, and on the outline of a control system for detecting violations of a possible agreement on the suspension of nuclear tests. The present political discussions have taken that agreed report as a basis for the consideration of an actual control system.

The first three or four weeks were largely devoted to the procedural question of whether there should be any discussion of the control system before agreement had been concluded on the obligations to end nuclear tests. The Soviet Representative appeared to be intent on getting the Western powers to sign an undertaking to cease testing nuclear weapons without any arrangements for verifying compliance. The attempt was abandoned only after it had been repeatedly made clear that the United States and the United Kingdom regarded the two aspects of the prospective agreement as inseparable.

It was as late as the fifteenth meeting on November 29 that the Soviet Representative stated that the Soviet Union would have no objection, if the text of the agreement on the discontinuance of nuclear tests contained the principal provisions regarding control. That move removed the United Kingdom and United States objections to discussing the provision of a treaty, and the submission and examination of draft articles began.

By the time the Conference recessed on December 19, agreement had been reached on the first four articles of a draft treaty. Article 1 deals with the broad obligations of the parties to prohibit and prevent nuclear weapons tests in territory under their control, and to refrain from causing or participating in any such test anywhere. Article 2 provides for the establishment of a control organization and for undertakings of the parties to co-operate with it. Article 3 provides that the control organization should consist of a control commission, a detection and identification system, an administrator and a conference of parties to the treaty. Article 4 deals with the membership of the control commission and provides that the United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union should be permanent members with four rotating members serving two year terms.

When the Conference reconvened on January 5, it was presented by the United States with new data on the problem of detecting underground explosions, derived from the test series conducted in Nevada in October 1958. These data and further studies had indicated to the United States that it was more difficult to identify underground explosions than had previously been believed. In particular they led to the conclusion that the number of earthquakes which could not be distinguished from underground nuclear explosives by seismic means alone would be substantially greater than indicated by earlier studies.

Surprise Attack

Between November 10 and December 18, also in Geneva, there took place the "Conference of experts for the study of possible measures which might be helpful in preventing surprise attack and for the preparation of a report thereon to governments". The arrangements for these discussions followed upon proposals made by the United States in the course of correspondence with the Soviet Union concerning the agenda of a possible summit conference. The United States proposed the technical examination of the practical aspects of measures to minimize the danger of surprise attack. The Soviet Union appeared to agree that a joint study of the problem should take place at the level of experts. Accordingly, a group of experts drawn on the Western side from Canada, France, Italy, the United Kingdom and the United States met with experts from the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Romania and Albania. The Canadian group was led by Mr. L. D. Wilgress, who for the past five years had been the Permanent Representative of Canada to the North Atlantic Council.

The Western experts made every effort to keep the discussions on a technical plane. They proposed that the Conference should proceed through successive examination of the following topics: (1) the identification of the instruments of surprise attack, i.e. missiles, long-range aircraft, tactical aircraft, ground forces, missile-launching submarines, other naval forces, and other possible instruments of surprise attack; (2) the means of control, i.e. aerial inspection, ground inspection (including technological aids), sea surveillance techniques, long-range radar capability, other instruments of long-range detection, satellite inspection, and other possible means of observation and inspection; (3) the application of inspection and observation techniques to the problem of surprise attack and the evaluation of the results of such application; (4) general technical characteristics of systems to reduce the threat of surprise attack; and finally (5) a report to governments.

The other side, however, insisted on putting forward a variety of proposals which were regarded by the Western side as unsuited to an exploratory technical conference. The Soviet Representative attempted to secure the discussion of a number of proposals for partial disarmament measures and to enlarge the scope of the Conference not only to include some matters which were not directly related to the problem of minimizing the danger of surprise attack but also to go beyond technical aspects and in effect to negotiate political proposals.

Because of these differing approaches to the scope of the Conference, it was not possible during the six weeks of the session to reach agreement on an agenda. Nevertheless, the Western experts presented a series of papers by way of illustration and explanation of the first four points of their proposed plan of work. These included: a survey of the relevant technical aspects of possible instruments of surprise attack; a survey of techniques which would be effective in the observation and inspection of such instruments; outlines of possible systems for the observation and inspection of long-range aircraft, ballistic missiles and ground forces; and a review of certain factors involved in planning an integrated observation and inspection system.

The Soviet Representative was unwilling to discuss the above papers. For his part he put forward a draft recommendation regarding an undertaking by States of an obligation not to carry out flights of aircraft with

atomic and hydrogen weapons over the territories of other states and over the open seas. He also presented a declaration on measures for preventing surprise attack, which included not only certain control measures but also proposals for a reduction of foreign forces in Europe by one-third, and for an agreement not to keep nuclear weapons and rockets on German territory. With his colleagues he submitted specific plans regarding ground and aerial inspection and other measures. The Western experts took the position that such matters were outside the range of the Conference because they introduced many difficult political issues which did not admit of technical discussion and could only be handled in an appropriate other forum.

Both sides maintained the above positions throughout the session. However, as the agreed final report of the Conference stated, the meetings were helpful in clarifying for each side the views of the other side. When suspending the Conference on December 18 in order to report to their governments, the participants expressed the hope that discussions would be resumed as early as possible.

On January 10 the Soviet Foreign Ministry presented notes to the five Western Embassies in which it proposed that the Conference reconvene on January 15 and reiterated that its position remained as before. In reply the Western powers referred to the differences in approach which had prevented meaningful discussions, and expressed the view that further discussions could not be productive until governments had resolved those differences. They also indicated that the record of the Conference was being studied to determine whether the terms of reference for future discussions could usefully be clarified and that further views would be transmitted to the Soviet Union.

APPOINTMENTS, TRANSFERS AND RETIREMENTS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mr. J. L. E. Couillard appointed Canadian Ambassador to Venezuela. Proceeded to Caracas December 8, 1958.
- Mr. J. A. Millard posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Tel Aviv, effective December 9, 1958.
- Mr. R. P. Bower, Canadian Ambassador to Venezuela, appointed Canadian Ambassador to Argentina. Proceeded to Buenos Aires from temporary duty in Ottawa, effective December 12, 1958.
- Mr. R. A. D. Ford, Canadian Ambassador to Colombia, appointed Canadian Ambassador to Yugoslavia. Proceeded to Belgrade December 13, 1958.
- Mr. C. P. Hébert, Canadian Ambassador to Belgium and concurrently Minister to Luxembourg, appointed Canadian Ambassador to the Netherlands. Proceeded to The Hague December 14, 1958.
- Mr. J. F. X. Houde posted from the Delegation of Canada to the North Atlantic Council, Paris, to Ottawa, effective December 15, 1958.
- Mr. F. B. M. Smith posted from the Canadian Embassy, Tokyo, to Ottawa, effective December 17, 1958.
- Mr. L. G. Chance, M.C., retired from the Canadian Diplomatic Service, effective December 20, 1958.
- Mr. G. Ignatieff, Deputy High Commissioner to the United Kingdom, proceeded to London December 23, 1958.

- Mr. T. LeM. Carter, M.C., posted from leave in Canada to the Imperial Defence College, London, effective December 25, 1958.
- Mr. G. Grondin, posted from Ottawa to the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina. Left Ottawa January 1, 1959.
- Mr. S. D. Pierce, OBE, Deputy High Commissioner to the United Kingdom, appointed Canadian Ambassador to Belgium. Left London January 2, 1959.
- Mr. J. H. Fast posted from the Canadian Embassy, Moscow, to Ottawa. Left Moscow January 6, 1959.
- Mr. M. D. Copithorne posted from the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina, to Ottawa. Left Saigon January 8, 1959.
- Mr. G. McInnes posted from the Imperial Defence College, London to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, London, on January 10, 1959.
- Mr. J. R. Barker posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, London. Left Ottawa January 14, 1959.
- Mr. G. B. Summers, QC, appointed Canadian Minister to Iran. Left Ottawa January 20, 1959.
- Mr. D. S. Cole, Canadian Ambassador to Mexico, retired from the Canadian Diplomatic Service, effective January 28, 1959.
- Mr. W. K. Wardroper posted from Ottawa to temporary duty with the Government of Ghana. Left Ottawa January 29, 1959.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

Ceylon

Financial Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of Ceylon.
Signed at Ottawa November 5, 1958.
Entered into force November 5, 1958.

United States of America

Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning the seasonal movement between the two countries of woods workers.
Signed at Ottawa October 31, 1958.
Entered into force October 31, 1958.

The West Indies

Exchange of Notes between Canada and The West Indies giving formal effect to the statement of principles agreed between the two countries for co-operative economic development of The West Indies.
Signed at Ottawa October 18, 1958.
Entered into force October 18, 1958.

Finland

Exchange of Notes between Canada and Finland modifying the agreement of January 9, 1956 concerning Visas.
Signed at Ottawa December 9, 1958.
Entered into force January 1, 1959.

United States of America

Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning operation of a television station on Channel 16 at Scranton, Pennsylvania.
Signed at Ottawa December 9, 1958 and January 7, 1959.
Entered into force January 7, 1959.

Multilateral

Seventh Protocol of rectifications and modifications to the texts of the Schedules to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Done at Geneva November 30, 1957.

Signed by Canada November 10, 1958.

International Sugar Agreement, 1958.

Done at London December 1, 1958.

Signed by Canada December 23, 1958.

Entered into force for Canada January 1, 1959.

Publication

Canada Treaty Series 1957 No. 19. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Greece concerning visas issued to holders of diplomatic or special passports. Signed at Athens June 26 and July 1, 1957. In force August 1, 1957.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 1. Protocol relating to an amendment to the Convention on International Civil Aviation. Done at Montreal June 14, 1954. Instrument of Ratification of Canada deposited September 2, 1958. In force for Canada September 2, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 3. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Portugal concerning non-immigrant visa arrangements between the two countries. Signed at Lisbon January 24, 1958. In force February 15, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 4. Financial Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of India. Signed at Ottawa February 20, 1958. In force February 20, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 5. Trade Agreement between Canada and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. Signed at Salisbury February 6, 1958. In force February 7, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 6. Convention between Canada and Pakistan concerning the priority of filing dates of Patents of Invention. Signed at Karachi January 15, 1958. In force April 16, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 7. Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United Kingdom terminating the Application of the Canada-U.K. Income Tax Agreement (1946) to the Territories of Nyasaland and Southern Rhodesia. Signed at Ottawa May 1, 1957 and February 13, 1958. In force February 13, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 9. Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the United States of America concerning the Organization and Operation of the North American Air Defence Command (NORAD). Signed at Washington May 12, 1958. In force May 12, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 10. Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning the "Buffalo-Fort Erie Peace Bridge". Signed at Washington April 3 and 11, 1958.

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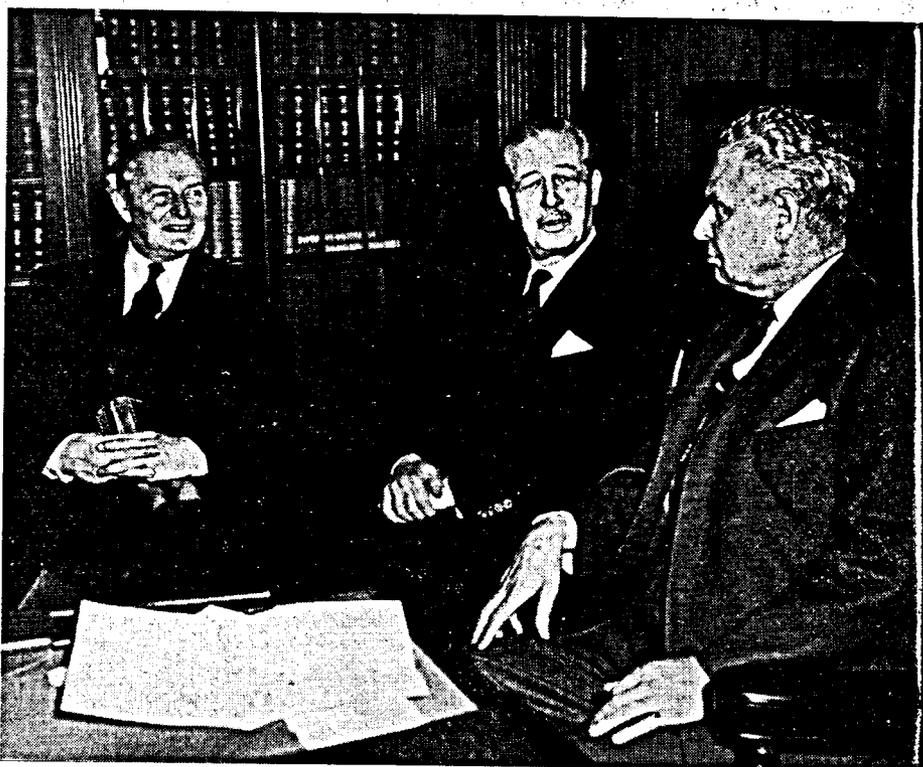
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Department of External Affairs
Ottawa, Canada

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Mr. Macmillan's Visit



Mr. Macmillan, centre, and Mr. Selwyn Lloyd, left, in discussion with Mr. John G. Diefenbaker, the Prime Minister of Canada.

ON MARCH 18, Mr. Harold Macmillan, Prime Minister of Great Britain and Mr. Selwyn Lloyd, the British Foreign Secretary, paid a brief visit to Ottawa for an exchange of views on international developments, particularly with relation to the questions of Berlin, Germany, and European security.

In the House of Commons on March 19, Mr. Diefenbaker reported on the visit as follows:

... Hon. Members in general will join me in expressing satisfaction that the Prime Minister, Mr. Macmillan, and the Foreign Secretary, Mr. Lloyd, visited Ottawa before proceeding to Washington, thereby enabling these two statesmen to place before the Canadian Government the views they intend to explore with the President of the United States.

The private talks which the Minister of Public Works and I had with them, and the discussions which took place at the meeting of the Cabinet, re-emphasized the identity of the aims of the United Kingdom and Canada, and, as well, illustrated that intimacy and the value of the partnership which exists between the two Governments.

In general the meetings were concerned with an examination of the questions of Germany, Berlin, and European security. The United Kingdom statesmen began with a comprehensive review of the 10-day visit they recently made to the Soviet Union, and outlined the discussions which have taken place between them and Mr. Khrushchev; and I think just this general review indicated most clearly that those conversations and talks had been valuable. They gave an opportunity for a first hand impression of the Soviet position, and they enabled Mr. Macmillan to make clear beyond any doubt that there is unity among the Western powers in their determination to safeguard their legitimate interests in Europe. The most important result of the visit was that the Russians appear to have accepted, for discussion at least, a settlement by negotiation and not the threatened settlement by force which theretofore had been feared as the epitome of their views.

Mr. Macmillan also outlined the course of his consultations last week with President De Gaulle and Prime Minister Debré in Paris, and with Chancellor Adenauer in Bonn. In the light of what he had learned in Moscow these discussions with the French and German leaders were most important, in that they led to a reaffirmation of Western solidarity as well as advancing Western preparations for the wider international negotiations which now seem likely to be held with the Soviet Union in view of the statement made today by Mr. Khrushchev.

Our talks were largely in the nature of an exchange of information and a review of the German and Berlin problems and of the various proposals for a settlement of those problems now under study in Western capitals and in NATO. I should emphasize that neither Mr. Macmillan nor I attempted to crystallize any British or Canadian position on specific questions under discussion. However, I might add that it is my belief that the United Nations might play some significant role in the solution of the Berlin problem, and that this phase deserves further and more careful study. I think it would be generally agreed that it was clear there was no essential difference in the British and Canadian assessments of the world situation or in the basic aims and policies of our two countries with regard to the complex questions of Germany, Berlin and European security.

External Affairs in Parliament

Canada's Foreign Policy

In the House of Commons on February 26, 1959, Mr. Sidney Smith, Secretary of State for External Affairs, opened the debate on external affairs with the following review of various aspects of Canada's foreign policy:

Germany and Berlin

... The most important and urgent of the problems facing Canada and her NATO allies lies in the field of East-West relations. I approach this subject gravely but not despondently. When I presented my estimates in July of last year, I believe, I spoke of the need to maintain our defences and at the same time to endeavour to make some advance in establishing mutual trust and confidence and in coming to some understanding with the Soviet Union. The communist leaders, as we all know, have professed their desire to promote the objectives of easing tension and of a reduction of the cold war. These professions, however, are certainly difficult to reconcile with the demands made by the Soviet Government on November 27, 1958, when it abruptly declared that existing agreements on Berlin were null and void.

Whatever the basic Russian objectives may have been, I am bound to observe that these tactics do not convey an image of a state bent on a lessening of international tension. On the contrary, the Soviet Union deliberately chose to create a crisis where none had recently existed, and thereby to plunge the whole world into a new period of deep anxiety that will not abate until there is some sort of meeting of minds in negotiation between East and West, and some agreement has been reached on the German question.

The Berlin situation was the critical issue before the NATO Council Meeting held in Paris last December. I, along with my colleagues the Ministers of Finance, Defence and Defence Production, had the honour to represent Canada at that meeting. Members will recall that before the formal meeting of the NATO Council began on December 16 there was a meeting on Sunday, December 14, at which were present representatives of the three occupying powers from the West — the United Kingdom, the United States and France. At that meeting, held, as I said a moment ago, prior to the meeting of the Council, there were also present representatives of West Germany. Willie Brandt, who honoured this country by a visit recently, also attended that meeting in his capacity as Mayor of West Berlin. Out of that meeting of the three occupying powers and West Germany came a statement in which they publicly rejected the Soviet proposals and reaffirmed their determination to maintain their position and rights in the city, including the right of free access to Berlin.

When this issue came before the NATO Council the Canadian Delegation took an active part — I say without immodesty that we did take an active part — in pressing for a full discussion of the Berlin

situation in the Council with emphasis on maintaining an appropriate blend of firmness in the face of threats, and constant readiness to examine serious Soviet proposals. The position adopted by the Council two days later was entirely consonant with the Canadian position. The Council, in associating itself with the position taken by the four Western powers, adopted the view that the Berlin question could be satisfactorily settled only in the context of a consideration of the problem of Germany as a whole. The Council referred to the notes that had been sent by the Western powers to the U.S.S.R., in which they offered to negotiate on the situation with respect to Germany as a whole. That offer was reaffirmed in the communiqué issued at the termination of the NATO Council meeting. Then, coupled with the consideration of the problem of Germany as a whole, they indicated their urgent willingness and desire to have discussions on the related issues of European security and disarmament.

In addition to supporting the position taken by the Western occupying powers, members of the Council — and I refer you to the communiqué I have mentioned — reiterated the stand of the occupying powers that NATO is a defensive organization. They also said, Mr. Speaker, that in respect of Berlin they desired to leave no doubt as to the determination of the Alliance to stand fast and to employ its defensive capacity in the event of aggression against Berlin, or any interference with the arrangements that had been duly entered into between the occupying powers and the U.S.S.R. in a series of meetings culminating in 1949.

In giving this undertaking in respect of Berlin, neither the Council nor its individual members was assuming obligations that were new. Indeed, the NATO partners have been bound in respect of the defence of Berlin since October 22, 1954. This obligation was undertaken by the NATO Council on the occasion of West Germany joining the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, when all the other members of the Alliance formally associated themselves with the provisions declared earlier, in the month of October 1954, that the three occupying powers would remain in Berlin so long as their responsibilities so required. The text of the obligation assumed by Canada, as a member of NATO, is, and I quote:

to treat any attack against Berlin from any quarter as an attack upon their forces and themselves.

Members of the House, Mr. Speaker, may recall that on December 31 — that was after the termination of the meeting of the NATO Council — the United States, the United Kingdom and France sent replies to the Soviet note of November 27, 1958. In these replies, which had been discussed in the NATO Council, the three occupying powers reaffirmed their right to be in Berlin, and they condemned the Soviet Union's unilateral denunciation of the agreements relating to Berlin to which I referred. In these notes of December 31, 1958, the occupying powers stated that they could not accept the repudiation by the Soviet Union of these obligations in this way, and that they could not consider proposals which would jeopardize the freedom of the West Berlin population.

Speaking in geographical terms, Mr. Speaker, I may say that here is a community, West Berlin, of 2.5 million people, which is 110 miles east of the West German border. This little island is isolated in the midst of Soviet-controlled territory, East Germany. I must say that Canada's view is, and I state this very firmly, that we will not countenance the swallowing up or absorption of 2.5 million of our friends in West Berlin into the Soviet complex which surrounds the City of Berlin.

In the notes of December 31 the United Kingdom, the United States and France also said they would not jeopardize in any way, by negotiation or otherwise, the West Berlin population. Then again in these notes there was a reiteration of the offer, which had been made over several years and which was restated and made manifest in the communiqué issued after the NATO meeting in December, to negotiate the question of Berlin in relation to the whole German situation as well as in relation to the problem of European security.

Subsequent events, Mr. Speaker, have tended to confirm the wisdom of the firm but flexible position that was taken in these notes and in the meetings of the NATO Council. On January 10 of this year, the Soviet Union sent notes to all the powers on the Western side which had fought against Germany in the Second World War. I have reported to the House on that note, and indeed I have tabled it here, accompanied as it was by a draft peace treaty relating to the whole of Germany.

In that note it was suggested that there should be held a conference of the representatives of these countries — 28, I think there are — on the Western and Eastern side which had fought against Germany. The conference would discuss this draft peace treaty. In that note there was in tone if not in content, the idea that the U.S.S.R. would be ready to consider the problem of Berlin in relation to Germany as a whole. Recent public statements — perhaps we can take some comfort from them — by U.S.S.R. leaders indicate that they do not regard the note of November 27, 1958 to the three occupying powers in Berlin as an ultimatum.

I tabled in this House on February 17, the Canadian reply* to the Soviet note of January 10. Briefly, as I stated at the time, our position is this. It would not be useful to have a large peace treaty conference until some aspects of the German question have been examined by representatives of the four states, the United States, the United Kingdom, France and the U.S.S.R., those countries that have a special responsibility in Berlin. The Canadian reply did not, and I do not now, try to lay down a blueprint for the solution of the German problem. There will be general agreement, however — I hope there will be; I will put it that way — that this is not the time for Canada, or any other NATO country which has been a party to the preliminary discussion of this problem of Berlin in relation to Germany as a whole and also in relation to European security, to put forward proposals in public. However, I assert and affirm that this is no time for anything other than positive policies. We should not, in the days and months ahead — and they may be critical ones — refuse to consider any proposal that is put forward by any country in the West, or any proposals that may be put forward by the Soviet Union.

*The Note appears on page 48.

Among the types of proposals which could be considered — and I am not going to give a long list; I am going to give a partial list — are those which envisage some form of mutual limitation on nuclear weapons, and by that I mean a mutual limitation under supervision. There also might be considered agreed arrangements for gradual and mutual armed force reductions and comprehensive security guarantees for the countries of both Eastern and Western Europe. This is not to say, of course, when I give this partial catalogue, that Canada has taken a firm position or a fixed position on any specific measure as yet. They could be considered as general objectives. I would hope that these and others would be considered at a ministerial meeting of some NATO powers or the occupying NATO powers to be held about the middle of March. I repeat, and I say it seriously, that we should not have a negative approach, but at the same time we should have clear objectives in respect of a settlement of these topics to which I have referred. Every proposal, however, must be considered in the light of certain aims and objectives which are basic to Western interests. Among these I mention again the freedom of the two and a half million people in Berlin. We cannot compromise their situation. We must look toward attaining, with safeguards, and with some advances in terms of European security, the restoration of a free Germany in a free and untrammelled Europe. No proposal, Mr. Speaker, should be accepted which would have the effect of changing the balance of military security to the disadvantage of the West.

At this part of my contribution to this debate, I must say quite frankly that it is distressing that John Foster Dulles, the United States Secretary of State, should have been stricken by illness. All members of the House will join with me in wishing for him a speedy and complete recovery. I salute him as a man who has devoted his public career, in that high office of Secretary of State of the United States, to the pursuit of an honourable agreement between the East and West. I express my own admiration of his qualities of fortitude and courage. I can report to the House, Mr. Speaker, that his recent visit to London, Paris and Bonn, just before he was taken to hospital, helped materially in co-ordinating the Western views, in identifying basic Western interests to be protected, and in making clear the objectives to be pursued in any negotiations with the Soviet Union.

Having mentioned Mr. Dulles, it is not by way of formality but out of the depth of sincerity that I must say that we applaud the current visit of Mr. Macmillan, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, to the Soviet Union. It might appear that he has had something of a mixed reception, but for us his visit could be a most significant development, providing as it does a timely opportunity for Mr. Macmillan to make it clear to the Soviet leaders that the Western countries are genuinely interested in a search for common ground but that they do not intend to be intimidated by the belligerence which often characterizes statements coming from the U.S.S.R.

Prime Minister Macmillan has made it clear in the United Kingdom and to his NATO allies that he is not in Russia for the purpose of negotiating, but that he is there rather to exchange views and to work toward

a better understanding on both sides of opposing points of view. I am sure all Members of the House are confident of his ability to do that and perhaps more. He carries with him today our best wishes for the success of his visit.

That sense of well-wishing, for me anyway, has been intensified recently — indeed on February 24 — by reason of a speech made by Mr. Khrushchev to a political gathering in the Kremlin. I have studied the press reports of the speech, and that is all I have at the moment. I have studied them carefully and at least I can say this. I recognize in that speech the standard Soviet position on questions relating to Germany and Berlin. Although this speech may be discouraging — and I do not think I am running the risk of being Pollyanna-ish — I still want to see what will be the formal reply by the U.S.S.R. to the notes that were recently sent to Moscow. I am thinking of the series of notes which I identify by the date of our own note, namely February 17. I think the Western powers should be guided more by whatever the tenor of that formal response may be than by the remarks made by Mr. Khrushchev at a political gathering.

As the Western powers approach — and I say this very definitely — what could be a fateful new effort at negotiation with the Soviet Union, it is opportune to look at other fields of endeavour where we have been negotiating with the U.S.S.R. on important matters. I speak of two conferences. One of the conferences had to do with the cessation of nuclear tests; the other had to do with setting up some machinery of technique against surprise attack.

Nuclear Tests

For a moment let us look at the question of the cessation of nuclear tests. That is an objective for which the whole of mankind must pray. The Disarmament Commission, and under it the Disarmament Sub-Committee, which was set up by the United Nations, really came to an end at the end of 1957. The Soviet leaders said they would not participate in any further discussions in the Disarmament Commission or in its Sub-Committee. So there came about direct negotiations between the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. with respect to the cessation of nuclear tests.

Last July and August Canada participated in a meeting of experts held in Geneva to study this whole question of the identification and detection of nuclear tests. Canada had a strong team at that meeting. Indeed, it may be a sad commentary that the scientists could agree where the diplomats and the politicians could not agree. But the fact is that out of that conference of experts there came a unanimously adopted report on effective methods for the detection of nuclear testing.

Then on October 31, 1958, there was assembled in Geneva a group of men, at the non-technical level, to draft a treaty which would provide for the cessation of nuclear tests, and would also provide for the machinery whereby that treaty could be fully implemented. We were rather encouraged about a month ago that progress in that conference had been made to the extent that four articles of that treaty had been agreed upon and settled. However, we realized that many complex questions

were still to be settled. The question with respect to the composition — that is, the nationality — of personnel in control stations, and the composition of personnel in mobile units had to be decided, and above all the methods of procedure which would be provided in the treaty for the organization — the control commission, or whatever it might be called — whereby they would conduct their business.

Sir, without going into any of the details, I am bound to report that the old question of veto arose again in those discussions. The U.S.S.R. wanted, and want at the moment, to have a veto with respect to certain inspections that might be proposed in that country. Mr. Khrushchev in his recent statement of February 24 said they were not going to have spies and intelligence officers from the West discovering what is their military strength and potential. Well, Mr. Speaker, I am bound to observe this, that any machinery set up under a treaty for the cessation of nuclear tests which does not provide for inspection and control would be misleading and deceptive, and dangerous to the West.

Then I must observe, despite some foreshadowing of an adjournment of those talks which is to be found in the press only this morning, that we do hope and pray that the question of machinery for detection, and so forth, may be satisfactorily settled. As I said a moment ago, and I repeat, mankind everywhere, I am sure, must pray for at least one step to be taken toward cessation of nuclear testing; and from that step let us pray that it will be continued into other parts of the galaxy of nuclear arms.

Surprise Attack

With respect to surprise attack the story is less comforting, indeed. Last summer Canada contributed to the panel from the West at a meeting in Geneva for the study by experts, as in the other case for the cessation of nuclear tests, of methods whereby surprise attacks might be identified or anticipated. This concerned a larger group: Canada, France, Italy, the United Kingdom and the United States on the Western side; from the Soviet Bloc the U.S.S.R., Czechoslovakia, Poland, Roumania and Albania. They began their deliberations on November 10 of last year, and just before Christmas they adjourned — it might appear *sine die* but this was not so stated.

There was a conflict. The proposal really came out of an exchange of notes last winter with respect to the holding of a summit conference. In one of those notes Mr. Eisenhower, the President of the United States, proposed there should be such a conference with respect to surprise attacks; and to us it seemed abundantly clear that what the President of the United States of America was suggesting was the holding of a conference of experts. But when those representatives from the five countries of the West met with the Soviet side, they realized that what had appeared to us to be consent on the part of the U.S.S.R. to a discussion at the expert level turned out to be an intention to discuss political matters, such as bases and so on, and the minds of the two sides did not meet. We are now in consultation with other representatives of the West who participated in the conference of last November and December so that we might review the scope of the agenda and the possibility of a resumption of the conference.

Outer Space

There is another matter relating to negotiations and dealings with the U.S.S.R., and that has to do with outer space. The year 1958 was a most significant year in the exploration of outer space, in connection with the International Geophysical Year. I must pay tribute to the participation of Soviet scientists in the successes of that Year. That was not on the government level but was an association of scientists throughout the world. Just let us reflect for a moment. In the recent period, or in 1958 to centre on that year, there have been launched objects which have overcome, most astonishingly, gravitational forces; objects or vehicles which can circumnavigate the moon and which can circle the globe in a few minutes or so. And now a vehicle has been placed in orbit about the sun.

I must interpolate here that it is an awesome thought that vehicles can be launched and within a few moments go thousands of miles with an aim that is remarkably accurate. This in itself is a challenge to the statesmanship of the world. At the same time there is an equal challenge to statesmen throughout the world, and that is outer space. It seems presumptuous for us to be talking about outer space, but its use is coming within man's grasp. We should not translate to outer space the national rivalries to be found on this globe.

Last autumn the United Nations established a committee for the study of the control and use of outer space, and Canada was happy to be elected to that committee. The U.S.S.R. has refused to attend any meetings of that committee, of which it is also a member. They complain about the composition of the committee. They complain that they did not receive parity in the selection of the committee. That is most regrettable, and efforts are being made within the United Nations, under the umbrella of which this outer space committee has been established, to break this deadlock.

I have been talking about the European scene. I said in this House last August with some confidence that the tenseness of the Middle East situation had somewhat abated, and I stated that in that pause there was some ground for gratification. Since then from the Middle East the pendulum has swung to the Far East and now it has come back to Europe, which has been in a period of relative quiescence in recent years.

Austrian State Treaty

I have one item to report with respect to the European scene which will bring satisfaction. I announce that it is the intention of the Government to present a resolution to the House for approval, and I expect this resolution will be welcomed by all hon. members. The Government will request Parliament to adopt a resolution approving the accession of Canada to the Austrian State Treaty of 1955. This is the treaty which terminated a 10-year occupation of Austria, and it marked the re-emergence of Austria as a free and independent nation. The treaty was negotiated between Austria and the four occupying powers at that time, the United States, United Kingdom, France and the U.S.S.R. Under the treaty of 1955 provision was made for the accession of any country which had fought against Nazi Germany. Accession by Canada, I can

assure the House, will not increase our rights, neither will it increase the responsibility which we have undertaken under the Charter of the United Nations. Canada's accession, when it takes place, will be at the request of the Austrian Government, and it is an action which we take willingly as a mark of friendship and sympathy for a country whose achievements we admire. In particular we take this action as a gesture of gratitude to Austria for the humane welcome given to Hungarian refugees during the tragic events in Hungary in 1956. We are indeed pleased to learn that a sister nation of the Commonwealth, New Zealand, is also planning to exercise the right to accede to the treaty.

Middle East Situation

Turning now from the European scene, it is perhaps appropriate that I should deal briefly with an area to which I referred a few moments ago, namely the Middle East. When I reported at length on my return from the special emergency session of the United Nations at which the Middle East situation was considered, I told this House of a resolution passed by the General Assembly under which the Secretary-General was given power to see what he could do in the name of United Nations to meet the difficulties which existed at that time. Developments since then warrant my saying that we can look upon the situation at the moment with cautious satisfaction, and a great deal of credit for this is due to the Secretary-General, Mr. Hammarskjöld, who carried out so very successfully the task of undertaking the "practical arrangements", to use the words contained in the resolution.

It has been possible, under that resolution and through the activities of the Secretary-General, for the United Kingdom and the United States to withdraw their troops from Jordan and Lebanon respectively. That was done by November with the consent of all the powers concerned. The improved situation in Lebanon has enabled the Secretary-General to return to their national homes the units which made up UNOGIL.

On the other hand, on the Arab-Israeli front, there have been most regrettable incidents which indicate a certain amount of unrest between those two countries, and I am thinking not of the UNEF front but more particularly of the boundary between the Syrian region of the United Arab Republic and Israel. Nevertheless I think we can be reasonably confident that if Canada and other countries give continued support to the United Nations activities, and if there is shown a continued willingness on the part of all concerned to resort to United Nations machinery, no general deterioration should ensue.

The moderately encouraging developments to which I have referred have given us an opportunity to take stock and do some careful thinking about what should be our future attitude to events in the region as a whole. I am thinking of Canada in this context. We must, of course, realize that the relationship of the Middle East countries to one another and to the outside world is undergoing a very rapid transformation. The trends of thinking which we loosely describe as nationalism and neutralism are spreading widely and rapidly. In these countries these trends are there to stay.

No country could resist an evolving nationalism any more than Canada could. We must recognize these forces which animate the leaders of the present in that particular area. These powerful tendencies may not always manifest themselves in a way that we would welcome, but we must accept the fact that they will continue to animate the new leaders who have arisen, and will therefore inevitably dominate the Middle East scene for some time to come. We cannot, of course, oppose this evolutionary process of change but there is an international responsibility to see that if change comes, it comes peacefully, with the consent of those concerned and without menace to the security of others.

Yet if we are justified, as I am sure we are, in our efforts to ensure that change is peaceful, we must recognize for our part that one of the chief causes of instability in the area as a whole has been a profound lack of confidence of each country in its neighbours, and a mutual lack of confidence between the countries of the area and those lying outside of it. Western countries may be able to help in establishing a basis on which that confidence can grow, though this will require restraint, patience, impartiality and a willingness to approach the countries of the area on a footing of equality and respect. It may be that, as in other areas, the United Nations can offer the best medium through which adjustment to the new order of relationships can take place; for this adjustment must be accomplished without sacrifice of principle and without too close involvement in the regional tensions which political, economic and social forces still at work in the area are bound to engender.

Canada's own policy continues, as in the past, to be one of firm support of United Nations institutions in the area. We were, for example, one of the main contributors to UNOGIL — that is, the United Nations Observation Group in Lebanon — and Canadian officers continue to serve with the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine. Support for Palestine relief and rehabilitation is also to be maintained this year, subject to Parliamentary approval, at our annual rate of \$500,000. Finally, we can derive great satisfaction from the contribution that Canada continues to make to the United Nations Emergency Force in the form of a large Canadian contingent. It is, I think, a remarkable tribute to the success of this unique United Nations peace-keeping activity that the Secretary-General was able to refer in his 1958 report on UNEF's activities to the "virtually unbroken quiet" which had prevailed "along the entire line between Egypt and Israel" during the period covered by the report.

Mention of the Secretary-General prompts me to pay once again the highest tribute to the selfless and tireless personal contribution that Dag Hammarskjöld has made to the cause of peace throughout the world, and nowhere more successfully than in the Middle East.

This brings me, Mr. Speaker, to some brief comments on the last regular session of the United Nations General Assembly, at which I had the honour to head the Canadian Delegation. As there are many important matters to be considered during today's debate, I shall confine myself to one or two items and impressions of special concern to Canada.

UN Stand-by Peace Force

Having just referred to UNEF, it is appropriate that I report at this point on the related question of a United Nations stand-by force. Hon. members may be aware that at the thirteenth session of the General Assembly the Secretary-General presented a summary study of the operation of UNEF, out of which he drew a number of observations and principles for consideration as a guide to future United Nations action in preserving peace through its own instrumentalities. The Secretary-General's conclusions reflected the tenor of the discussions concerning a United Nations peace force at both the special emergency session of the Assembly in August, 1958 and at the thirteenth regular session in September, 1958.

In these discussions attention shifted from the possibility previously considered of establishing a permanent stand-by force as such, or earmarking national units for service with such a force; rather it was directed toward, first, the desirability of developing arrangements and planning procedures which would enable the United Nations to meet swiftly a wide variety of possible situations and, second, the need for agreement on a set of basic principles to govern the operation of whatever United Nations instrumentality might be created. In supporting this approach, the need for flexibility in the planning of stand-by arrangements was particularly emphasized by the Canadian Delegation at both sessions.

In the course of the meetings of the External Affairs Committee last summer, I had occasion to review the history of attempts to establish an effective United Nations stand-by peace force. Opposition has been based on many grounds and the problems and difficulties have been legion. They relate primarily to the concern with which a number of countries regard the implications of such a force for their national sovereignty. Others have been reluctant to contemplate the financial burden which the support of a permanent force would entail. Still others have been dubious of the feasibility of creating a permanent force capable of meeting the various and unpredictable situations that could possibly arise. These are legitimate apprehensions and practical problems which may prove difficult to dispel and resolve completely.

It is my impression that although there was apparent a new note of concern in the approach of a large number of nations toward the concept of an armed stand-by peace force, awareness continues to grow amongst the United Nations membership, despite the opposition of the Soviet Bloc, of the overriding need for machinery of some sort to permit quick and effective United Nations action to prevent the development of conditions which could result in armed conflict and the needless sacrifice of human lives. As I said, there seems to be developing in the General Assembly a growing general awareness that the United Nations must be provided with instrumentalities for quick and collective action that would prevent the outbreak or the extension of hostilities.

Just think of the great variety of agencies for the preservation of peace that the United Nations has had under its supervision, ranging from armed units, with respect to which I have spoken proudly as far as Canada is concerned, right down through observer groups to the mere token presence of the United Nations evidenced by only one person.

It does seem to me that in this age, when we are likely to have indirect aggression, that the United Nations may be called upon to a greater degree to make provision for procedures of investigation. The Secretary-General is continuing his study and I can assure the House that Canada will be interested in his study and his further recommendations when we have some clear idea of what they may be.

I known that the thirteenth session of the General Assembly has been dubbed an unspectacular one but in that regard I make the observation that dramatic quality is not a criterion of success. It is also not the sole test of the success of a session of the General Assembly to ask the question, how many final agreements were reached on any particular set of subjects at a particular time? I was not able to attend the session of the General Assembly for longer than seven weeks but I did sense a spirit of compromise, a seeking for solutions, a climate of reconciliation of conflicting interests. True, as I have already stated, no final agreement was reached with respect to disarmament. No final agreement was reached with respect to Cyprus but this is an example of what I had in mind when I said that dramatic quality is not the criterion of success.

Undoubtedly the reasonable discussions that took place in the thirteenth session of the Assembly provided a climate — to use the word I invoked a moment ago—of compromise, that outside of the United Nations came to fruition. I am sure we all join in congratulating the statesmen of the United Kingdom, Turkey and Greece on the solution of that problem which was of special concern to the NATO allies. I have sent, as I know the Prime Minister (Mr. Diefenbaker) has, congratulatory messages to the Prime Ministers and Foreign Ministers of these three countries, and it is our wish and our hope that the spirit of reconciliation will continue in that island which has been so unhappy.

Aid to Less-Developed Countries

Perhaps the most significant discussions at the thirteenth session of the Assembly had to do with matters in the economic and social fields. There was manifested to an encouraging degree a willingness on the part of the industrially developed countries to assist in the development of the economic and social potential of their less-developed fellow members. I think it is opportune for me to mention at this stage what Canada is seeking to do in the way of helping underdeveloped countries, particularly our partners in the Commonwealth, to solve their problems of economic development.

The problem, of course, can be stated in very simple terms. It is astonishing, it is distressing to realize that close to three-quarters of the human race live in conditions where poverty, hunger, disease and illiteracy are endemic. Many of these countries have emerged recently from colonial status. They now have their political independence and they are seeking, quite properly, not selfishly but in terms of the development of their own countries, to bring the standards of living of their people closer to those of the industrially and technologically advanced countries. Translated into economic terms, this means that these underdeveloped countries must invest enough of their resources year by year to reach the point where economic growth can begin to sustain itself.

It can be done in either of two ways. It can be done by their relying on their own savings, but when they are beset by impoverishment, illiteracy, disease and hunger how can they do that? They might do it under some leader who would adopt totalitarian processes and would seek to take whatever savings they had. We would not be happy about that type of government growing up in these new nations. The alternative is for the West to help invest in this great human endeavour. Otherwise these underdeveloped countries which have recently gained their independence may be prone to accept blandishments and offers from other parts of the world. Surely Canada is justified in making contributions to assist these countries. Indeed, to do otherwise would make it difficult for us to reconcile our actions with the principles for which we in the free world stand. I also suggest that it would be difficult to reconcile with the concept of the partnership of the British Commonwealth as a community of free and independent nations.

I am glad to say over the past year the Government has endeavoured to play an increasing part in helping underdeveloped countries. We have undertaken, subject to the approval of Parliament, to increase our contribution to the Colombo Plan from \$35 million to \$50 million a year for a period of three years beginning with the next fiscal year. We have also recognized the needs of emergent nations and territories in the Commonwealth which are not eligible for assistance under the Colombo Plan. I am thinking particularly of the African area. We are proposing to extend the benefits of our technical assistance programme to Commonwealth areas in that region.

We have embarked on a five-year programme of aid to The West Indies. This does not come under the Colombo Plan programme. A major part of our contribution of \$10 million will be used in the building of two steamships in Canada for inter-island service. These ships should represent to The West Indies what the building of the railroad meant to Canada in helping our nation to become more united.

I recall to the House that on July 25 last year the Prime Minister advocated that there should be an increase in the capital of the International Bank and the International Monetary Fund. That has come about and proposals will be placed before Parliament respecting Canada's subscriptions to these institutions which are allied with the United Nations for the purpose of helping underdeveloped countries.

There was established last year by the United Nations General Assembly a Special Fund to which Canada has promised to contribute \$2 million, subject to the approval of Parliament. The objective of the Special Fund will be to provide for surveys of natural resources, manpower, skills and industrial potentials, so that there can be established in many countries of the world a sound basis for economic growth.

There is one factor that I mention, not in a selfish mood, but when Canada makes a contribution of this kind, in a large measure the contribution in money is translated into Canadian goods and services which these countries need, for which they have asked. There is in this way a mutuality of interest, because our friends can be helped and our own economy sustained.

Relations With Communist China

I have been discussing the Colombo Plan, Mr. Speaker, which forms one of the particularly productive bridges of friendship between Canada and our friends in South and Southeast Asia. It is a trend of thought which inevitably brings me to the less happy and less satisfactory relationships which exist between Canada and the millions of Asians living on the Chinese mainland. In view of the lively interest that is shown by the Canadian people in the future of our relations with the Chinese people, I feel sure that the House will expect me on this occasion to discuss in some detail the Government's attitude toward the recognition of the Government of the Chinese People's Republic. As this House knows this Government, as did the Government which we succeeded, has been giving continued consideration to the advisability or otherwise of extending recognition to the Chinese Communist Government. We are aware of the arguments in favour of such a step. It seems to me, however, that in discussing this question we must make a clear distinction between the legal factors which apply whenever Canada extends recognition to any new government, and the national and international considerations.

Let me deal with the legal aspects of the question first. It is true that recognition is usually extended to a government when that government exercises effective control over the territory of the country concerned, and when that government has a reasonable prospect of stability. Then, there is a second legal factor. The government of that country should indicate its willingness to assume international obligations inherited from its predecessor. So far as China is concerned, there is some doubt about the Peking Government's willingness to assume the obligations and responsibilities of its predecessor. The Peking Government made known, in September 1949, that it would, in effect, regard as binding only those obligations which it considered to be in its own interest. There is little doubt, however, that the Peking Government commands the obedience of the bulk of the population. It must be admitted, therefore, that most of the legal requirements for recognition have been fulfilled by the Government of the People's Republic. In any event, I say this: the Peking Government has fulfilled its obligation to at least the same extent as some governments which we do recognize now, and about whose political systems we have the same kind of reservations.

I have just mentioned the legal factors, the legal conditions for recognition. This does not mean however, that any government which has fulfilled these legal requirements is automatically entitled to recognition. This is a decision that should only be taken on the basis of national and international interests. It is to such considerations that I now address myself. It is stated that if Canada recognized China, greater opportunities for trading with the Chinese mainland would be created. There would almost inevitably follow an era of renewed friendly relations with that country. By this argument, diplomatic recognition is made the key to trading relations with China. I must say, however, that I know of nothing to suggest that recognition would bring increased trade.

In so far as some Western countries that have recognized China are concerned, no benefits in the matter of trading have accrued from

that act. On the other hand, others, without recognizing communist China, have seen their trade grow substantially. It is true that on occasion Peking has used the question of trade as a special weapon. I would draw to the attention of the House the fact that the Peking Government has used trade as a political weapon. I am thinking of the action in 1958 when that Government cut off trade with Japan and later with Malaya and Singapore because the Governments of those states acted in a certain way, within their own jurisdiction and within their own prerogatives as sovereign governments, but which the communists considered unsatisfactory. I do not regard trade, in that context, as being an argument in favour of recognition. Indeed there are dangers inherent in trading with communist China.

There are, however, other arguments in favour of recognition. It is undeniable that, unless the government which has effective control of the mainland of China is represented at international meetings, there will be less possibility of settling issues that create tensions and endanger the peace of the world today. This is in no way to say, however, that we cannot deal at all with communist China. The West has done so at Geneva when discussions took place on topics relating to Korea and Indochina. The United States is doing that very thing now in the ambassadorial talks in Warsaw. It does not follow, either, that if we and other friendly governments were to recognize communist China all the problems which beset us in the Far East would immediately be solved. This is to say that non-recognition of communist China is a symptom and not a cause of the tensions which endanger peace in the Far East.

What really is required, fundamentally, is a desire on the part of the Chinese to settle the outstanding problems. I mean to say that the pronouncements of the Peking Government on international affairs in the past year which is under review, give few grounds for believing that they are actually interested in removing those causes of discord separating them from the West.

It remains true, however, that the present exclusion of China — and I come back to this point — from the United Nations and other councils of the world, except in isolated instances, makes international diplomacy more difficult to carry on. Disarmament is a case which I have in mind. What would be the use of an agreement or a treaty with respect to the cessation of nuclear tests — and I give this just by way of an example — if mainland China was not somehow involved in the working out and implementation of such a treaty? I must observe also, Mr. Speaker, that the authority and prestige of the United Nations has been weakened to some extent because many important international negotiations, such as those on Korea and Indochina, have not taken place within that organization.

I trust — and I say this very carefully — that I am not being unfair if I say that some of the arguments in favour of immediate recognition of communist China seem to me to overlook, to a certain extent, the complex nature of the problem. The problem of relations with communist China is an extraordinarily delicate one, for however much we may wish to develop an acceptable basis for relations with this increasingly important Asian state, it is by no means clear that recognition would

accomplish this end. Indeed, we could contemplate that it would give rise to fresh problems.

The attitude that I commend to the House is one of prudence based on an appreciation of the realities of the situation. This Government has taken a positive attitude with respect to trade. My colleague, the Minister of Trade and Commerce (Mr. Churchill), this afternoon in the House mentioned one aspect of that trade. I remind the House that in 1957 — and these figures have been presented already this session to the House — our exports to China amounted to \$1.5 million. In the first eleven months of 1958 this figure rose to \$7.7 million. In the difficult question of exports by Canadian subsidiaries of United States firms, as a result of the Prime Minister's discussions with President Eisenhower in July of last year, we have an understanding with the Government of the United States which aims to protect the interests of Canadian producers and provides greater scope for trade. Despite the considerations to which I referred, we hope to increase our trade with China in the coming years.

Many Canadians visited China last year, and that fact is responsible for increased interest in this topic. We are not unhappy that they have gone there. The reports of their impressions published in the Canadian press have been a source of information to the Canadian public. We hope that more personal contacts can be built up on the basis of these individual visits. In this way, by developing friendly relations in limited sectors, we may break down some of the political distrust which unavoidably exists between Canada — and indeed, the whole Western world — and the Peking Government.

On the specific issue of the establishment of diplomatic relations as opposed to relations confined to cultural and trade matters and the like, I realize that there are weighty considerations on both sides. As I have mentioned already, there is an opinion that friendly relations will flow from recognition. We believe that we should proceed prudently while we discover to what extent relations with communist China can be improved. We do not see much point in extending recognition to communist China if the result of such an act will be to put us in a position similar to that of other countries which have recognized China and then have been berated and extravagantly attacked because they have not always backed communist China pursuant to what the Peking Government feels was an obligation arising out of recognition.

I ask three questions, Mr. Speaker. The first one is this: should we recognize mainland China until we have reason to believe that our act will not result in deterioration of relations other than the opposite? My second question is this: should we recognize mainland China if our act will give rise to misinterpretation of our attitude in the countries of Asia; that is, if those countries were to say that since Canada and other Western powers have recognized communist China, there is no point in their resisting the growing influence of the Peking Government not only in international affairs but in domestic affairs as well. My third question is this: should we not also bear in mind the effect of recognition by Canada and by other countries on Peking's position among the overseas Chinese in Southeast Asia? They might take out of that act of

recognition the view that they would be free to undermine the national interest of those countries by being willing then to transfer their loyalties wholly to the Peking regime.

These are questions which we are weighing extremely carefully. It is, moreover, a matter of some concern that in the past year communist China has given us little warrant to believe that it has much conception of its responsibility for the maintenance of world peace. As a result of Mr. Dulles' visit to Taiwan in October last, a joint communiqué was issued by Chiang Kai-Shek and Mr. Dulles to the effect that the Nationalist government would not resort to force as the means of returning to the mainland. It is disturbing to find, however, that no similar renunciation of force has been made by the Government of communist China in respect of their intentions towards Formosa and the offshore islands. I am not discussing at this moment the place of the offshore islands, but I am merely saying that there is on the part of the Peking Government no manifestation of intention corresponding to that which was given by the Nationalist government. That is their right. The mere fact that they have not done that is not necessarily an indication that we should not recognize China. But we are equally free to judge that in such circumstances recognition might be of little value and advance none of our interests.

It is for these reasons that it is the view of this Government that we must go carefully. We should take the initiative in limited fields — in fields of trade and in other ways to which I have referred — and we should take every opportunity that presents itself to overcome the causes of discord between the West and Peking China. We must be patient. We should not be hasty. Otherwise we may undo the good work that has already been accomplished in laying the basis for progress towards the goal of removing the occasions for misunderstanding now existing between Canada and communist China.

Whether this process will be followed by recognition is to be seen; but I say this emphatically, that it will depend upon the success that we have in improving our relations in limited fields, and our assessment of the advantage to be gained by such an act. We have never stated that we will never recognize the Peking Government. In the Prime Minister's words:

The question of the recognition of Red China is one that has been receiving consideration for the last several years and the question is continually and continuously before members of the Government.

Conclusion

In conclusion, to return to the Berlin and German situations, I would hope that we may develop and extend the areas of understanding in East-West relations through the same technique of improvement, in limited fields. I am bound to say that there is little, if any, agreement on surprise attack. There have been protracted discussions on the cessation of nuclear tests. There has been a road block in the way of reaching agreement on machinery for the use of outer space. There is not much comfort to be gained from the difficult starting point from which discussions on Berlin and Germany may begin. But, Mr. Speaker, I do think

that there is some evidence that the international climate may be improving. The U.S.S.R. wants to discuss with us many problems. Certainly it should be evident to all sane men that there is a great interest in avoiding the mutual destruction of mankind in a nuclear conflict. May the desire for discussions on the part of Mr. Khrushchev and his comrades be a genuine readiness to negotiate in this particular instance of Berlin and Germany, rather than an attempt to impose their will on the three occupying powers and the two and a half million people in West Berlin to whose security we have pledged ourselves.

I conclude by saying that we wish and hope, as I am sure does every member of this House, that a meeting or meetings between the West and the Soviet Bloc will provide a greater mutual trust and confidence, even if that desideratum be reached only gradually.

Canadian Reply to Soviet Note

Ottawa,
February 17, 1959

Excellency

I have the honour to transmit the reply of the Canadian Government to the Note concerning the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany dated January 10, 1959, from the Government of the U.S.S.R.

As the Soviet Government's Note points out, the absence of a peace settlement with Germany leaves unresolved many important problems. The Canadian Government contests a number of statements in the Soviet Government's Note, but is of the opinion that these points should be examined as part of a general review of the German question in all its aspects by representatives of the four states, the U.S.S.R., France, the United States and the United Kingdom, which, as former occupying powers, have special responsibilities for Germany. The Canadian Government considers that until the results of such a four-power meeting have been assessed it would not be useful to take a decision as to the holding of a large peace treaty conference attended by Canada and other participants in the war against Germany.

Accept, Excellency, the renewed assurances of my highest consideration.

SIDNEY SMITH

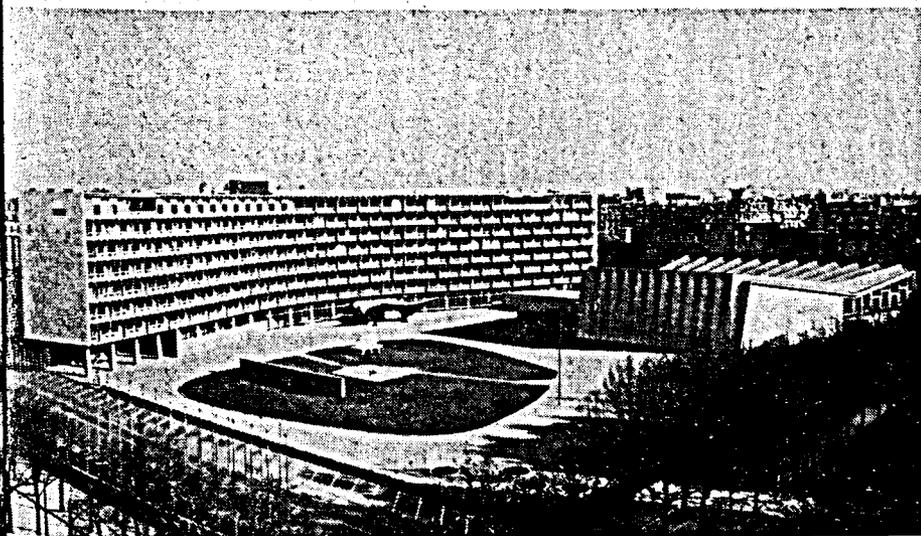
His Excellency Dr. A. A. Aroutunian,
Ambassador of the Union of
Soviet Socialist Republics
OTTAWA

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

The new Headquarters

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is now formally installed in its new headquarters in Paris. A striking blend of modern architecture and abstract works of art, the Headquarters consists of three units — a Conference Hall with three levels, which adjoins an eight-storey secretariat building designed in the shape of a curved "Y" so that one side continues the sweep of the Place de Fontenoy opposite the famous Ecole Militaire, and a separate four-storey office building for permanent delegations.

It was in the Conference Hall on November 3, 1958 that the colourful inauguration ceremony took place, attended by the President of the French Republic, Mr. René Coty, high dignitaries of church and state, representatives of member nations, officials of the secretariat and many others who had played a part in the design and construction of the new Headquarters. On that day, in the piazza at the front of the building, the flags of 81 member states were unfurled. These remained at their mastheads for the next month throughout the tenth session of the General Conference which was convened on November 4 by Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan, leader of the Indian Delegation, whose country had been host to the ninth session in New Delhi in 1956.



UNESCO HEADQUARTERS

The long façade of the Secretariat Building, as seen from the avenue de Saxe, overlooks the spacious piazza. To the right is the massive conference hall, and behind the Secretariat, unseen in this photograph, is a separate building for permanent delegations.

The General Conference

The General Conference is the policy-making body of UNESCO and meets every two years to plan the programme and budget for the ensuing two-year period; to fill vacancies on the Executive Board; to consider such matters as amendments to the constitution and rules of procedure, relations between UNESCO and other governmental and non-governmental agencies; and generally to conduct the business, and to review the wide range of activities of an organization the purpose of which, is: "to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law, for human rights and fundamental freedoms".

The tenth session was attended by representatives from 79 of the Organization's 81 member states, including Ghana and the Federation of Malaya which participated for the first time as full members. Four of the six Associate Members were represented, including the new federation of The West Indies, Kuwait, Nigeria and the Trust Territory of Somaliland. In addition there were observers from non-member states, the United Nations and the other Specialized Agencies, from inter-governmental organizations such as the International Bureau of Education, the Organization of American States, the Council of Europe and from the non-governmental organizations having consultative status with UNESCO.

Mr. Jean Berthoin, Minister of Education of France and leader of the French Delegation, was elected President of the session by acclamation. Other Conference chairmen appointed were: Programme Commission, Dr. Clarence Beeby, New Zealand; Administrative Commission, Mr. Jean Beaugniet, Belgium; Credentials Committee, Mr. O. Fuentes Pantoja, Chile; Headquarters Committee, Dr. C. Parra Perez, Venezuela; Legal Committee, Professor G. C. Chatterjee, India; Nominations Committee, Professor N. V. Massaquoi, Liberia; Reports Committee, Professor B. Tuncel, Turkey.

Election of Director-General and Executive Board

Among the major decisions of the session was the appointment, for a six-year term, of Dr. Vittorino Veronese of Italy as the new Director-General of the Organization to succeed Dr. Luther Evans of the United States of America. Dr. Evans' letter of resignation was accepted by the General Conference with unanimous expressions of appreciation for his unflagging zeal throughout his term of office in promoting the purposes of UNESCO.

To fill the 12 vacant seats on the 24 member Executive Board, the General Conference re-elected for a second term Mohamed Awad, of the United Arab Republic, Paulo E. DeBerredo Carnero of Brazil, Jose R. Martinez Cobo of Ecuador, Sir Ben Bowen Thomas of the United Kingdom and R. Soebroeto of Indonesia; new members elected were Julien Cain of France, Hilding Eek of Sweden, Mohammed El Fassi of Morocco, Pedro de Alba of Mexico, S. M. Sharif of Pakistan, Mrs. Geronima Pecson of the Philippines and Bedrettin Tuncel of Turkey.

Conference Decisions

Important decisions of the Conference included the approval, by a vote of 46 to 9 with 2 abstentions, of a budget of \$24,970,463, an increase of more

than \$3,000,000 over the 1957-1958 budget. The breakdown is shown below.*

In addition, UNESCO will have an allocation of over \$4 million in 1959 from the United Nations Technical Assistance fund to finance missions of experts particularly in the fields of education and science.

Apart from the regular budget, the Conference adopted a resolution for the establishment of a special account through which voluntary contributions may be made by governmental and private donors to meet special and urgent needs in education, science and culture.

Programme Working Parties

An innovation of the tenth session was the establishment of a working party for each of UNESCO's five main programme areas. The operations of these parties did much to systematize the work of the session and it was the concensus of the Conference that the procedure should be followed at subsequent sessions, taking into account a number of suggestions for clarifying the terms of reference and working methods of the parties, and also for making provision for more general discussion than had been possible at the tenth session. One of the proposals put forward was that a certain proportion of any proposed budget be left unallocated, so as to be available to finance projects whose inclusion in the programme might be recommended by working parties as an activity having an essential priority.

All member states reaffirmed their strong support for the three major projects adopted at the ninth session. These are: the extension of primary education in Latin America; scientific research for the improvement of arid lands, and the development of mutual appreciation of the cultural values of the West and the Orient.

The comparatively high proportion of the budget allocated to education is a reflection of UNESCO's concern to provide educational assistance to less-developed countries and to extend compulsory elementary education in all areas of the world. In the natural sciences programme, emphasis was placed on the strengthening of regional science co-operation offices and the provision of subventions to international scientific organizations rather than on extensive assistance to basic research. In the field of social sciences, no new projects of significance were introduced but support was readily forthcoming for those under way. In the promotion of cultural understanding, it was agreed that

*PART I—GENERAL POLICY	
1. General Conference and Executive Board.....	\$1,463,211.
PART II—PROGRAMME OPERATIONS AND SERVICES	
1. Education.....	3,871,041.
1.A. Major Project on Extension of Primary Education in Latin America (Teacher Training).....	785,887.
2. Natural Sciences.....	2,116,442.
2.A. Major Projects on Scientific Research on Arid Lands.....	709,500.
3. Social Sciences.....	2,067,622.
4. Cultural Activities.....	2,847,168.
4.A. Major Project on Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values.....	800,387.
5. Mass Communication.....	3,046,917.
6. Exchange of Persons.....	1,407,259.
7. Relations with Member States.....	1,349,363.
PART III—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.....	3,413,662.
PART IV—COMMON SERVICES.....	2,092,004.
	<hr/>
	\$25,970,463.

one of the most effective measures that could be taken by UNESCO was to strengthen its support for non-governmental cultural organizations. In the area of mass communications, it was the prevailing view that everything possible should be done to encourage and facilitate the free flow of information by all available means. To all of these activities, the exchange of persons programme is an important adjunct and received the full support of the Conference.

In an attempt to achieve greater concentration and more effective use of resources in the future, the Conference reviewed activities in twelve major areas since the Organization was established in 1946, and adopted a resolution authorizing the Director-General to prepare a report to be presented in 1959 to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations in response to a request directed to all the Specialized Agencies. The report will provide an appraisal of UNESCO activities and achievement and will indicate how its programme might be developed over the next five years.

Canadian Delegation

The Canadian Delegation, headed by Dr. N. A. M. MacKenzie, President of the University of British Columbia and Chairman of the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO, was composed as follows: Mr. Benjamin Rogers, Canadian Ambassador to Turkey; Mr. R. J. McCleave, M.P. for Halifax, N.S.; Mr. E. Morissette, M.P. for Rimouski, Quebec; Dr. W. H. Swift, Deputy Minister of Education, Alberta; Professor P. H. Brieger, Department of Arts and Archaeology, University of Toronto; Dr. Pierre Gendron, Dean of Sciences, University of Ottawa; Mr. K. Kaplansky, Director of International Affairs, Canadian Labour Congress; Mr. Marcel Ouimet, Canadian Broadcasting Corporation; Mr. Eugène Bussière, Secretary, Canadian National Commission for UNESCO; Dr. E. F. Sheffield, Chairman, Programme Committee, Canadian National Commission for UNESCO; Mr. Harris Armstrong and Miss Mary Q. Dench of the Department of External Affairs and Mr. Gerard Bertrand of the Canadian Embassy, Paris.

Conference of Canadian National Commission

At the first Annual Conference of the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO*, which was held in Montreal from March 12 to 14, those members of the Delegation to the tenth session who had been concerned with programme matters at the General Conference outlined the programme for 1959 and 1960. Working groups in each of the areas then considered plans for Canadian participation over the two-year period. Special attention was directed to the major project for the mutual appreciation of the cultural values of the East and West. The principal speaker at the Conference was H. E. Mr. Toru Hagiwara, the Japanese Ambassador to Canada, who represented his country on the Executive Board of UNESCO from 1952 to 1956.

*See External Affairs, March 1958.

Political Changes in Thailand

There have been several changes of government among the countries of Asia during the past year, involving the suspension or amendment of parliamentary institutions, which have been watched with interest and some concern by Western nations. Attention was particularly attracted by the change of government in Thailand during October 1958, for that country is a member and a staunch supporter of SEATO and, furthermore, has a place of considerable importance in the maintenance of the political and economic stability of the area.

Field Marshal Sarit Takes Over

On October 20, it was announced that the Supreme Commander of the Thai Armed Forces, Field Marshal Sarit Thanarat, had taken over direct control of the Government, with the agreement of the King and Prime Minister Thanom Kittikachorn. It was Field Marshal Sarit who in September 1957 had overthrown the long established regime of Field Marshal Pibul Songgram and who, at the beginning of 1958, had supported the installation of Prime Minister Thanom. Marshal Sarit was away from Thailand during most of the early part of 1958 for health reasons, when the political scene, complicated by factions, was an uneasy one. The Field Marshal returned for a time in June in an attempt to resolve political differences and his efforts appeared to meet with some success. It was evident, however, by his sudden return to Bangkok in October and his decision to take over the direct control of the Thai Government, that the difficulties had not been permanently resolved. Indeed, the Government was faced with other problems as well.

According to a statement issued on his assumption of power, the Field Marshal had become increasingly concerned over the efforts of communist agents in the country to prevent the administration from carrying out its responsibilities. He stated further that the country's external relations had also been affected by the creation of distrust between Thailand and friendly nations. At a later press conference, Field Marshal Sarit stated that not only was it necessary that communist activity be checked but the machinery of government must be overhauled to stamp out corruption.

Revolutionary Council Set Up

Among the first measures taken by Marshal Sarit was the suspension of the constitution which, it was stated, was not adequate to cope with the threats to the country. Subsequently Parliament was dissolved and the control of the country was placed with a Revolutionary Council, consisting of the three branches of the Armed Forces, a certain number of civilians and headed by Field Marshal Sarit himself. Along with the dissolution of Parliament, political parties were banned, a number of arrests were made (including some members of the Assembly and newspaper men suspected of communism) and some crypto-communist newspapers were closed down.

While ordinary democratic procedures were superseded by martial law, the Revolutionary Council announced that the monarchy would be upheld,



DANCERS OF THAILAND

The ballet has long been an institution in Thailand. The beautiful and ancient dances are an essential and traditional accompaniment to important ceremonies, especially in connection with the Court. In the photograph is a scene from "Ramayana", an epic of the war between a god become human (Prince Rama) and the demons. Here Prince Rama is conquering Ravana, King of the Demons.

as would the power and independence of the Courts, and that the Government would continue to abide by its international obligations. (Prince Wan, former President of the United Nations General Assembly, was retained as leader of the Thai Delegation to the United Nations.) It was pointed out that it was essential to design a constitution which would be vigorous and effective enough to cope with the dangers confronting the country. An interim constitution would be promulgated within ninety days and at that time a Constituent Assembly would be appointed to draft a permanent constitution.

Plans for Economic Improvement

In the interim prior to the promulgation of the temporary constitution, the Revolutionary Council emphasized plans for the "revision and improvement" of the national economy. The Government announced that efforts would be made to provide the four basic needs of the Thai people: food, clothing, shelter, and medicine. With this object in view, the price of certain basic commodities such as rice, sugar, charcoal, oil, and electric power was reduced. In the field of economic planning, the Revolutionary Council established a National Economic Planning Committee, which included several of the economic advisors of the previous government, to work out both short and long range economic projects.

Relations with Cambodia

While attention was focussed on internal matters, the country's external relations with neighbouring Cambodia suddenly deteriorated. Unsettled disputes, caused by a poorly defined border in many sections, had long been a source of irritation between the two countries. The dispute over the ownership of the ancient Temple of Preah Vihear (Phra Vihar), which lies in the border area northwest of Bangkok, had given rise to ill feeling and inflammatory press comments on both sides — attempts to negotiate their differences earlier in the year had been unsuccessful. It was against this background that Cambodia notified Thailand on November 24 of the "provisional suspension" of diplomatic relations between the two countries, effective on December 1. The Cambodians charged that current developments, especially attacks against Cambodia in the Thai press, necessitated this action. The Thai press, it was stated, claimed that Cambodia, with the assistance of communist China, had become a threat to Thailand. The Cambodians also charged that the Thais had built fortifications along the border, and that Thai citizens had plundered Cambodian villages.

In reply to the Cambodian declaration, the Thai Government announced on November 25 that it was recalling its Ambassador to Cambodia and closing the border between the two countries. The Thai Government refuted the Cambodian accusation, referring to border raids by Cambodian groups into Thailand and Cambodian press attacks upon Thailand, as well as alleged abusive statements made by members of the Cambodian Government. In what appeared to be a reference to communist China, it was stated that "the Cambodian Government does not seem to act on its own but apparently as a willing tool of some others who are bent upon the destruction of friendship and good understanding between nations".

Efforts to find a solution to at least the immediate problem of the re-establishment of diplomatic relations reached an impasse in December, when the two Governments agreed to it in principle but were unable to reach agreement on the level on which it was to take place, as the Thai Government supported a resumption of relations at the Ambassadorial level and the Cambodian Government at a Chargé d'Affaires level. Following an exchange of letters concerning the dispute, between the Secretary-General of the United Nations and the Thai and Cambodian Governments, the Secretary-General agreed to send as a representative to the Thai-Cambodian border area, Baron Beck-Friis, a former Swedish diplomat, accompanied by Mr. G. S. Murray, a member of the Canadian Department of External Affairs, seconded to the

United Nations Secretariat. The United Nations mission arrived in Cambodia on January 23 and after consultations there and with government officials in Bangkok, announced early in February that the two countries had agreed to resume diplomatic relations on the Ambassadorial level, effective on February 20. It may be that the agreement reached on this particular issue will lay the foundations for generally improved relations between the two countries and for the eventual settlement of the disputes still outstanding.

Interim Constitution and Government

A few days prior to the successful conclusion of the Thai-Cambodian negotiations, an interim constitution for Thailand was promulgated by Royal Decree and on February 3 the 240 members of the Constituent Assembly were appointed, also by Royal Decree, to draft a permanent constitution. The appointment of the Assembly members was followed closely by the naming of Field Marshal Sarit as Prime Minister and by the announcement of the members of the new Cabinet. Former Prime Minister Thanom and former Foreign Minister Prince Wan have been appointed Deputy Prime Ministers.

Until the promulgation of the permanent constitution, the Constituent Assembly is empowered to act also as a legislature and together with the Prime Minister and Cabinet is responsible for governing the country. In addition, Prime Minister Sarit is empowered to "issue orders or take steps in repressing or suppressing either internal or external actions which may jeopardize the national security".

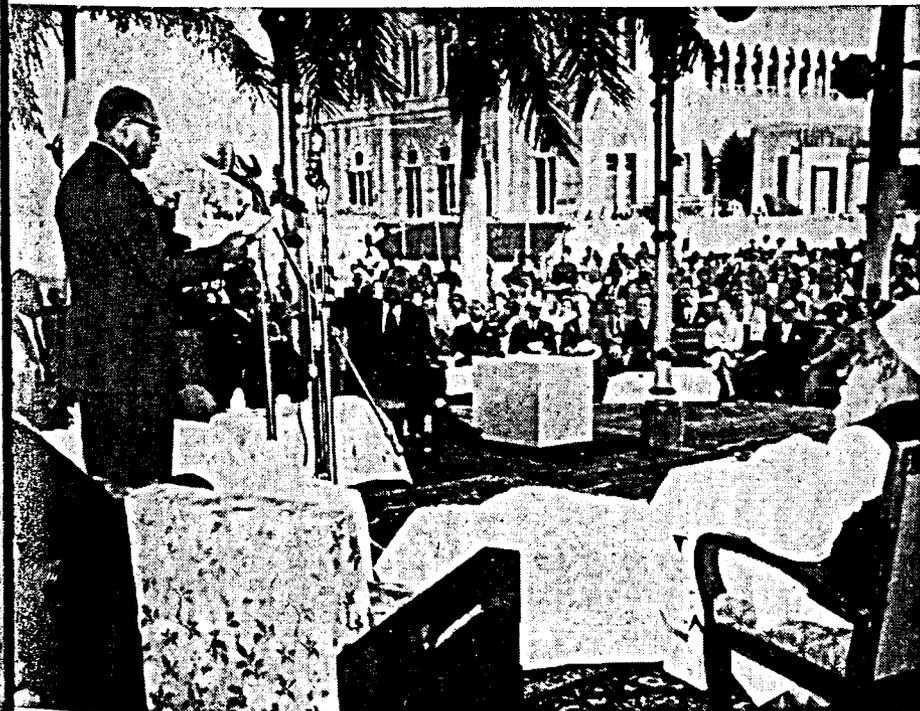
In a policy statement made recently to the Constituent Assembly, the Prime Minister stated that the monarchy and democratic principles would be upheld and that the interim Government would respect human rights and act with resoluteness in the interest of the people. He re-affirmed Thailand's adherence to the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization and to the United Nations, and promised that every effort would be made to promote understanding and closer co-operation among friendly countries, especially those in Southeast Asia.

The New Pakistan Government

ON October 7, 1958 President Iskander Mirza and the Pakistan Army, acting together, dismissed the country's central and provincial governments, abrogated the constitution, abolished all political parties and proclaimed martial law. General Ayub Khan, who assumed the office of Chief Martial Law Administrator and Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces, gave his reasons for this action in a broadcast to the nation the next day:

This is a drastic and extreme step taken with great reluctance but with the fullest conviction that there was no alternative to it except the disintegration and complete ruination of the country . . . Chaotic conditions, as you know, have been brought about by self-seekers who in the garb of political leaders, have ravaged the country or tried to barter it away for personal gains . . . Having nothing constructive to offer, politicians used provincial feelings, sectarian, religious and racial differences to set Pakistani against Pakistani . . . The result is total administrative, economic, political and moral chaos in the country which cannot be tolerated in these dangerous times. Pakistan has far too many internal problems to solve and external dangers to guard against.

On October 27, General Ayub Khan succeeded General Mirza as President and formed a presidential cabinet consisting of eight civilians and four members of the Army. Since then, the Army has been gradually withdrawing from the direct administration of the country and has turned over most of these functions to the permanent Civil Service, working under the direction of



THE PRESIDENT OF PAKISTAN

General Mohammad Ayub Khan, President of Pakistan, is shown replying to an address of welcome at a reception given in his honour by the citizens of Karachi.

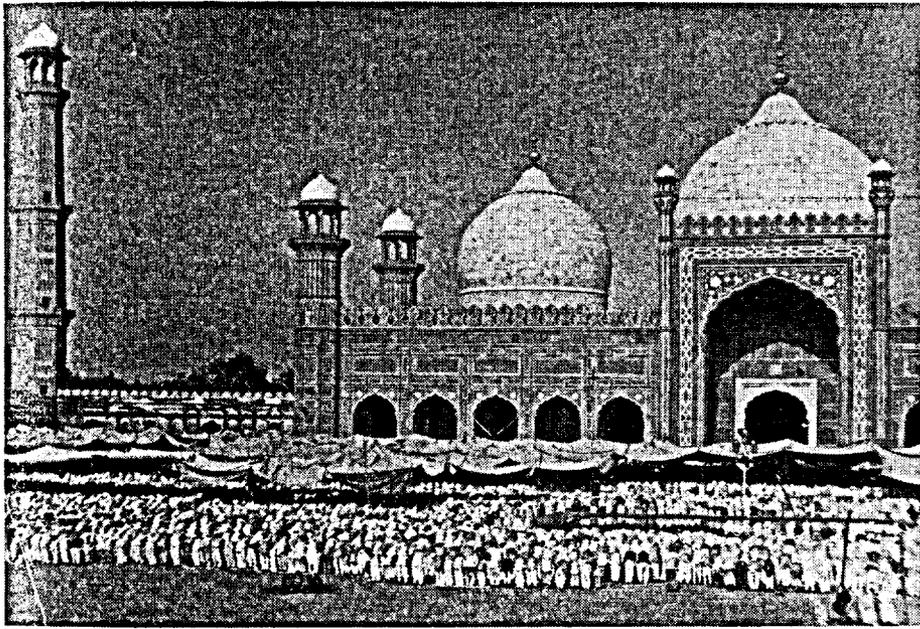
the Cabinet and the two Provincial Governors. Similarly, the military courts have been withdrawn for the most part and the bulk of the work is handled by the regular courts which have remained intact. This is in line with the Government's policy, announced at the very beginning, to operate through civilian agencies as much as possible, and to use martial law regulations only to "tighten up" existing laws on matters like malingering amongst officials, corruption, hoarding, black-marketing or other types of anti-social activity. However, while General Ayub's Government is resolved to use civilian agencies where possible, it has also made an effort to improve their efficiency. To expedite this, an elaborate framework of screening committees has been organized to examine all public servants at the centre, in the provinces, and in subordinate offices and corporations such as the City of Karachi. A press note has stated, "it is not intended through this screening to embark upon a witch hunt, but to identify cases of glaring inefficiency or corruption". There are also plans to reorientate recruiting for the public service, to establish a training school for civil servants, and to reduce administrative red tape generally.

Economic and Social Policies

Probably the most far-reaching new policy of the Government has been the commencement of land reforms in West Pakistan (the East Wing introduced them several years ago). The new measures set maximum private holdings of land, with all acreage in excess of the limit to revert to the state, which, in turn, would sell it on easy terms to the present tenants. The land owners will be paid compensation for the excess land, which has been estimated to total some 9 million acres. Also important are new regulations setting minimum land holdings in order to prevent the uneconomic fragmentation of the cultivable soil. Coupled with land reforms has been a programme to move farmers from over-crowded areas to idle, newly-irrigated lands in the Indus Basin. A high priority has also been set on bringing about the efficient utilization of fertilizers, irrigation and drainage schemes and seed multiplication farms. All these moves are designed to help rehabilitate the under-developed rural regions, where 80 per cent of the population live, and to overcome the nation's chronic shortage in food production.

The President, the Minister of Finance and the Governor of the State Bank, have all drawn public attention to the imperative necessity of Pakistan living within its means. The primary problem they regard as inflation, and the basic requirement as more production. As indicated above, the Government has placed the main emphasis on production in the agricultural rather than the industrial sector where the aim will not be large-scale industrialization but the utilization of existing capacity. There will also be more concentration on medium, small and cottage industries and the use of local raw materials. Measures are also envisaged to mobilize internal savings and to restrict consumption. Initially, the Government imposed price controls and ceilings on the profits of business firms in order to bring down consumer prices but Mr. Shoab, the Minister of Finance, has stated that price stability in the long run can be achieved only by stepping up production.

Another big task is to increase the volume of exports and thus increase foreign exchange earnings. To foster this, the Government has announced a new export bonus scheme which, it is hoped, will open an era of freer trade.



LAHORE MOSQUE

The Badshahi Mosque in Lahore, Pakistan, was built by the Moghul Emperor Aurangzeb, in 1673. It is notable for its bold design, solidity of structure and spaciousness, accommodating as it does, approximately 100,000 people.

Exporters will be given an incentive to expand trade by being allowed to keep from 20 to 40 per cent of their foreign exchange earnings for the import of such goods as the market demands. This is in contrast to the old system of category holdings and quotas arbitrarily set by the Government. All these transactions are to be handled through the State Bank, to insure that the foreign exchange balance is controlled. In the whole economic programme, the Government envisages working in partnership with private business. Mr. Shoaib said recently: "Private enterprise has a great role to play in the economy. . . . We need their help, co-operation and support. All we ask is that the evils that grew up in the past will not revive".

The régime has announced its intention to establish a welfare state "where men shall enjoy to the utmost, economic, social and cultural amenities", but the full details of this plan have not yet been revealed. For the present, special emphasis has been given to rehabilitating the large refugee population and deciding all questions relating to evacuee property. This work has been placed under the energetic direction of General Azam Khan, the senior Cabinet Minister. In another field, a commission has been set up to recommend reform of the legal system which the President has characterized as "cumbersome, expensive and dilatory". Changes are planned, too, in the education system to bring it more in line with the practical needs of modern-day Pakistan and a Commission on National Education has been charged with this responsibility.

Future Constitutional Development

President Ayub has insisted from the first that "our ultimate aim is to restore democracy, but of the type that people can understand and work". In subsequent interviews, he has elaborated his views on future developments by commenting that he does not consider parliamentary democracy workable so long as there is a predominantly illiterate population, and a proliferation of parties. He has also stated that he will appoint a commission of experts to draw up a constitution, and he inferred that he had in mind a presidential form of government with a strong president and a complete division of powers between legislative and administrative bodies. The people apparently would elect the president, either directly or through an electoral college.

These constitutional changes are not to be implemented, however, until the major problems of the country have been solved. In the meantime, the President considers that the country enjoys "the substance of democracy" including "the inalienable right to life, liberty, and security of person".

Foreign Policy

On the important subject of Indo-Pakistan relations, the President commented on October 22: "We are going to try desperately to see that the Kashmir dispute and the canal waters dispute are settled justly and amicably but to our satisfaction . . . We shall be infinitely glad to have a settlement through peaceful means but if we are forced to adopt means other than peaceful, the blame will surely lie at the doorsteps of India. We do not want a conflict with India . . . The door for a peaceful and honourable solution will always be wide open on our side. These two questions must be solved . . . Then an era of better understanding and even friendship between the two countries will be ushered in."

The new Government has made no changes in Pakistan's traditional policy of friendship and co-operation with the free world. Pakistan continues to belong to the Baghdad and SEATO Pacts, and Foreign Minister Qadir recently acted as Chairman of the Baghdad Pact Ministerial Council meeting held in Karachi. Pakistan has retained its membership in the Commonwealth and the Colombo Plan, and indicated the importance which it attaches to these associations when it warmly welcomed Prime Minister Diefenbaker and other Commonwealth figures who recently visited there.

APPOINTMENTS AND TRANSFERS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mr. E. T. Galpin posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Legation, Tehran. Left Ottawa January 13, 1959.
- Mr. M. Crowe posted from the Canadian Embassy, Moscow to Ottawa. Left Moscow January 31, 1959.
- Mr. A. D. P. Heeney QC, reappointed Canadian Ambassador to the United States. Left Ottawa February 3, 1959.
- Mr. G. H. Southam posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Legation, Warsaw. Left Ottawa February 9, 1959.
- Mr. M. D. Copithorne posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Legation, Tehran. Left Ottawa February 20, 1959.

DEATHS

The Department announces with regret the death in Ottawa, on March 14, 1959, of Mr. W. D. Matthews, an Assistant Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs.

Mr. Matthews was born in Toronto on July 2, 1906. He was educated at the Royal Military College, the University of Toronto and Osgoode Hall Law School. During 1929 and 1930, he was an attaché at the Canadian Legation, Washington. Mr. Matthews practised law in Toronto from 1933 to 1937 and was a partner in a firm of stockbrokers from 1937 to 1939. At the outbreak of war, he joined the Foreign Exchange Control Board in Ottawa, where he remained until 1943, when he was appointed Special Assistant to the Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs. In 1947 he was promoted to Assistant Under-Secretary and from 1949 to 1952 he was Canadian Minister to Washington. Mr. Matthews was Minister to Sweden and Finland from 1952 to 1955, when he returned to Ottawa as an Assistant Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs.

The Department also regrets to announce the death in London, England, on February 11, 1959, of Mr. Joseph Lavigne, Counsellor at the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, London, England.

Mr. Lavigne was born in Edmonton, Alberta, on February 28, 1914. He was educated at McGill University, and Georgetown University, Washington. Mr. Lavigne served in the Second World War. He joined the Department of External Affairs in 1946 and served in Washington, South Africa, Cambodia (as Acting Canadian High Commissioner) and Dublin. He was transferred to London in July 1958.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Multilateral

Protocol to the International Convention of the Northwest Atlantic Fisheries signed at Washington under date of February 8, 1949.
Done at Washington June 25, 1956.
Signed by Canada June 25, 1956.
Instrument of ratification of Canada deposited March 27, 1957.
In force January 10, 1959.

Publication

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 2. Convention on Damage caused by Foreign Aircraft to Third Parties on the Surface. Done at Rome October 7, 1952. Signed by Canada May 26, 1954. Instrument of ratification of Canada deposited January 16, 1956. In force for Canada February 4, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 8. Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the Confederation of Switzerland to provide for co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy. Signed at Ottawa March 6, 1958. Instruments of ratification exchanged at Ottawa July 31, 1958. In force July 31, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 9. Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the United States of America concerning the organization and operation of the North American Air Defence Command (NORAD). Signed at Washington May 12, 1958. In force May 12, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 11. Convention on the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization. Accepted by Canada October 15, 1948. In force March 17, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 12. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Denmark modifying the Agreement of 1949 concerning air services. Signed at Ottawa May 16, 1958. In force May 16, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 13. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Norway modifying the Agreement of 1950 concerning air services. Signed at Ottawa May 16, 1958. In force May 16, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 14. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Sweden modifying the Agreement of 1947 concerning air services. Signed at Ottawa May 16, 1958. In force May 16, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 15. Exchange of Notes between Canada and the U.S.A. concerning aerial refueling facilities in Canadian Territory. Signed at Ottawa June 20, 1958. In force June 20, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 16. Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion with respect to taxes on income. Signed at Montreal Tremblant October 1, 1957. In force May 21, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 17. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Norway concerning the transfer to Norway of the three Prestonian class frigates on loan to that country. Signed at Oslo July 1, 1958. In force July 1, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 18. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Denmark modifying the exchange of Notes of September 22 and October 14, 1949 concerning visas. Signed at Ottawa July 14, 1958. In force July 14, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 19. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Norway modifying the exchange of Notes of March 4 and 13, 1950 concerning visas. Signed at Ottawa July 14, 1958. In force July 14, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 20. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Sweden modifying the Agreement of 1949 concerning visas. Signed at Ottawa July 14, 1958. In force July 14, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 22. Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning the establishment of Canada-United States Committee on joint defence. Signed at Ottawa August 29 and September 2, 1958. In force September 2, 1958.

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A Selected List

Printed documents:

Directory of Current Latin American Periodicals. By Pan American Union. Paris, UNESCO 1958. 266 p. (Eng.-Fr.-Spanish) Price \$3.50.

Financing of Housing in Europe: Geneva, U.N. 1958. E/ECE/328; E/ECE/HOU/76 Sales No. 58.11.E.3. 86 p. Price 80 cents.

Commission of International Commodity Trade. Report of the 6th Session (5-16 May 1958). ECOSOC Official records: 26th Session, Supp. No. 6 E/3124: E/CN.13/32. 18 p.

Yearbook of International Law Commission. 1958. Vol. 1: Summary records of the tenth session (28 Apr.—4 July 1958). A/CN.4/SER.A/1958. 257 p.

Study Abroad: International Handbook, fellowships, scholarships, educational exchange. X:1958-1959. Paris, UNESCO, 1958. 779 p. (Eng.-Fr.-Spanish)

1958 Seminar on the Protection of Human Rights in Criminal Law and Procedure. Baguio City, The Philippines—17 to 28 Feb. 1958: U.N. New York, 1958 ST/TAA/HR/2.

Statistical Papers Series M.No.4, Rev.1. International Standard Industrial Classification of all Activities: United Nations, New York, 27 p. 30 cents.

Latin America Seminar on Population: Rio de Janeiro, Brazil: 5-16 December 1955: United Nations, New York. ST/TAA/SER.C/33—ST/SOA/36. 148 p.

*Yearbook of International Trade Statistics—1957—*Vol. 11—United Nations ST/STAT/SER. G./8. 155 p. \$1.50.

Direction of International Trade. Statistical Papers-Series T. Vol. IX, No. 10. Annual issue, 307 p. \$2.50.

Direction of International Trade. Monthly issue Nov. 1958 Vol IX No. 11, 92 p. 50 cents.

Report to the Economic and Social Council on the Work of the Board in 1958. Permanent Central Opium Board E/OB/14. 83 p. 80 cents.

Yearbook of the International Law Commission 1958. Vol. 11, 140 p. \$1.50.

Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East. Vol. IX, No. 2, 65 p. 50 cents Sept. 1958.

United Nations Seminar on Regional Planning-Tokyo. 51 p. 28 July to 8 Aug. 1958. (ST/TAA/SER.C/35)

*Printed documents of the United Nations may be obtained in Canada at the following address: Agents: The Ryerson Press, 299 Queen Street, W., Toronto; Sub-Agents: Book Room Ltd., Chronicle Building, Halifax; McGill University Bookstore, Montreal; Magasin des Etudiants de l'Université de Montréal, Montréal; University of Manitoba Bookstore, Winnipeg; University of Toronto Press and Bookstore, Toronto; University of British Columbia Bookstore, Vancouver.

Mimeographed United Nations documents are available to the general public by annual subscription from the United Nations Secretariat, New York; and to university staffs and students, teachers, libraries and non-governmental organizations from the United Nations Department of Public Information, New York.

For more complete information see "External Affairs" for April-May 1958, page 117.

Security Council Official Records—12th Year, N.Y. Special supplement No. 1. 45 p. 40 cents (S/3852).

Permanent Central Opium Board. Report to the Economic and Social Council on the work of the Board in 1958 (E/OB/14) N.Y. 45 p. 40 cents.

Annual Bulletin of Transport Statistics for Europe. 9th year. 1957. 108 p. \$1.25.

*Economic Bulletin for Europe—*Vol. 10, No. 3. 62 p. 50 cents. Nov. 1958.

Population & Vital Statistical Report: Statistical Papers Series "A" Vol. X, No. 4, 1 Oct. 1958. 27 p. 30 cents.

Yearbook of International Trade Statistics 1957. Vol. 1, 622 p. \$6.00.

Direction of International Trade (monthly issue) Dec. 1958. 73 p. 50 cents.

Coffee in Latin America: Productivity problems and future prospects; I Colombia and El Salvador, 144 p. \$1.75.

The Development of Manufacturing Industry in Egypt; Israel and Turkey, 131 p. \$1.50.

Commodity Trade Statistics; Statistical Papers Series D. Vol. VIII. No. 1, 349 p. \$4.00.

Monthly Bulletin Statistics: January 1959, 189 p. \$1.00.

Quarterly Bulletin of Steel Statistics for Europe; Vol. IX, No. 1-2.

Annual Bulletin of Transport Statistics for Europe. 108 p. \$1.25 — 1957.

Agriculture Mechanization; Harvesting and storage of grain maize, 59 p. 40 cents.

Prices of Agriculture Products and Fertilizers 1957-58; 64 p. 80 cents.

International Social Service Review: 56 p. 50 cents.

ICAO

Digest of Statistics No. 71, Traffic—1947-1957, Series T-No. 15, Trilingual, 262 p. \$2.75



VISITOR FROM PAKISTAN

Mr. Mohammad Shoaib, Finance Minister of Pakistan, paid an official visit to Ottawa from March 4-6. Mr. Shoaib is seen here conferring with Mr. J. G. Diefenbaker, Prime Minister of Canada. Standing is Mr. Syed Tayyeb Husain, Acting High Commissioner of Pakistan.

External Affairs

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Ottawa, Canada

Vol. 11 - No. 4



April 1959

CANADA

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS



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Vol. 11 No. 4

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THE HONOURABLE SIDNEY EARLE SMITH
1897-1959

In Memoriam

The death occurred suddenly in Ottawa on March 17, 1959, of Mr. Sidney Earle Smith, the Secretary of State for External Affairs. In the House of Commons on March 18, the following tributes were paid to him by Mr. J. G. Diefenbaker, the Prime Minister of Canada, by Mr. L. B. Pearson, the Leader of the Opposition, and by Mr. Hazen Argue, the Leader of the CCF Party in the House.

Mr. Diefenbaker —

Today we are speaking in memory of Sidney Smith, the late Secretary of State for External Affairs, not in his capacity as such but as one who in the short 18 months during which he was a Member of this House earned the friendship of Members everywhere in the House, and the appreciation of Canadians as a whole, for the contribution he made in international affairs on behalf of Canada.

Mr. Smith came into the House with a reputation fully established as one of the great Canadians of his time. One cannot look into the future with any certainty, but I know the House will agree when I say this: 'here on the threshold of a new career, had he been spared, the brilliance of his contribution in other walks of life would have been repeated in large measure in this House'.

His life was one of service, beginning in the first war when as a young man in his teens he went overseas and served his king and country in the artillery and subsequently in the Royal Flying Corps. On demobilization he continued his studies, first in his own locality at his birthplace of Port Hood and at Windsor in his native province of Nova Scotia. In 1921 he was called to the Bar of that province. In the same year he was appointed a lecturer at Dalhousie, and soon rose to a professorship. In 1929, after a period as lecturer at Osgoode Hall in Toronto, he became Dean of Law at Dalhousie.

He was a great university administrator and teacher. His record is enshrined in the hearts of the many thousands of graduates who came under his influence at Dalhousie, Manitoba and Toronto Universities. I believe his greatest and most enduring memorial will be the lives of those who came under his beneficent influence in the course of that relationship, unique in its nature, which at all times existed between him and his student body.

His was a life of service and devotion. He had an instinctive genius for human relationships. After becoming a member of the House of Commons and a Minister of the Crown, he visited various parts of the world. Today messages are being received from national and international leaders not only in Canada, in the United Nations and NATO, but in the capitals of the world. All of them confirm the estimate that we formed of him and the respect, admiration and affection felt for one who gave so much to his country. Indeed, his loss is being felt throughout the entire free world, to the principles of which he gave unstinting devotion as a happy warrior for peace.

The range of his interests can only be appreciated by those who knew the capacity of his mind and the boundless energy which he possessed. At various times he held the position of President of the National Film Society, the National Council of Adult Education, the National Council of the Y.M.C.A., the National Conference of Canadian Universities, the United Nations Association, the National Council of Canadian Clubs; as well as Chairman of the Canadian Youth Commission and the National Council of the Student Christian Movement. That was the busy life he led. He was able as well to win renown as a distinguished editor and author of learned

journals and legal texts. He was a Queen's Counsel in three provinces, a fellow of the Royal Society of Canada, and the recipient of many degrees from leading universities in Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom. He was one of those who had the capacity for work above and beyond the normal limits of endurance. He was one who put the demands of duty at all times before other considerations.

I speak as the one who communicated with him in the latter part of August 1957, when I asked him whether, in view of his experience and knowledge of international affairs and his relationship with the United Nations organization, he would consider changing his mode of life and entering the Cabinet. His answer, which was typical of him, was 'If you think I can do something, I shall not fail'. No day was too long, no burden too onerous, and all his tasks were undertaken with a cheerfulness and warm-heartedness that will not be forgotten. He overtaxed his strength.

It was only a few days ago that I suggested to him that he slow his pace. That was not his nature. His end came suddenly, in a way that most of us would like to pass away, in harness and in the full possession of those attributes and capacities with which he was endowed in such great measure.

Mr. L. B. Pearson —

I would first like to join the Prime Minister, on behalf of the official Opposition and on my own behalf, in the expression of deep and sincere sympathy to Mrs. Smith and the family. We are all, of course, very deeply shocked and grieved at his passing; so sudden, so untimely, but so peaceful. . . .

The Secretary of State for External Affairs was a man who served his country with devotion and sincerity in war and in peace during all his days, from the time of his enlistment as a very young man in the Canadian army in the first war to the very last moment of his life. As an educator, he made a contribution to the development and progress of this country which will not be forgotten. He was a servant of the state and he was a servant of the people. He has died in action, and his name now appears on the honour roll of sacrifice to his country and to his duty.

His work was both wearing and worrying, but he never spared himself. Yet his happy disposition tended to conceal the strain and fatigue he must have felt. He was that kind of person, smiling and not complaining. As perhaps I have some reason to know, his was an arduous and exacting portfolio and one which he accepted out of that sense of public service which dominated his life, at a time when years of unremitting service in other fields had perhaps given him the right to look forward to easier days. Instead, he began new service in a field in which he was achieving national and international recognition — though he had only been in office a short time — through his calm good judgment and through his broad-minded and forward-looking approach to international problems. It was a field made more difficult for him because, unlike his predecessors, he entered upon it without the advantage of previous experience in Parliament or in the work of the department over which he presided.

Today I think of him not only, or perhaps not even primarily, as a Minister of the Crown, but as a friend, whole souled and great-hearted, with a gift for the bright and kindly word and a genius for comradeship and good companionship; a man who made friends easily and who kept them just as easily. I was privileged to enjoy his friendship over many years, and that friendship continued without interruption or any lessening after he moved into the office where I once worked, and took the seat on the other side of the House which I once occupied.

The country has lost a devoted, sincere and accomplished public servant, and we have lost a friend whom we will not soon forget.

Mr. Hazen Argue —

Mr. Speaker, the passing yesterday of Hon. Sidney Smith was a tragic loss for the Canadian nation. Mr. Smith had a very distinguished career in the service of Canada, a career which began many years before he entered the Canadian House of Commons. He had a distinguished career in the field of education in Nova Scotia, in Manitoba and in Ontario. He possessed those qualities which recommended him to all parts of Canada, to the east, the west and the centre.

Coming in to head the Department of External Affairs was a very onerous and difficult undertaking. I sincerely believe that as the days and months went by during which he occupied that office he displayed a greater and wider grasp of these important world problems. I believe I may say both from the statements Mr. Smith made in public and from conversations I have had with him that in dealing with difficult situations around the world he sought to establish an approach based on common sense, negotiation and peace. I was extremely pleased to see that as his term of office lengthened, greater consideration was given to the emphasis of those things that I am convinced will build an enduring and permanent peace. I have particular reference to the emphasis he placed on the need for the expansion of economic assistance. His death yesterday demonstrates to all of us that this man in a very real sense died in the service of his country.

On behalf of the C.C.F. group I wish to convey to the Prime Minister and to his colleagues our sympathy in their loss. To Mrs. Smith and the three daughters we extend our deep, heartfelt sympathy on the loss of a beloved husband and father.

The Cyprus Agreements

THE recent conclusion in London of a series of agreements for a settlement of the Cyprus problem marked the end of a long and bitter struggle which brought strife and bloodshed to the Mediterranean island and for a time threatened to turn NATO allies into enemies. Joint Commissions in London and Nicosia are now working out the future status of Cyprus which is to become an independent Republic in February 1960. On April 5 an important step towards that goal was taken when the Governor of Cyprus announced the formation of a transitional Cabinet under Archbishop Makarios, the religious and civil leader of the Greek Cypriot community.

Cyprus thus enters a new era, with hopes for a long period of peace and stability being tempered by the realization that independence will bring with it difficult problems for the Cypriot leaders and people.

Historical Background

In its long and often turbulent history Cyprus has known many rulers and civilizations, and from the ancient times to modern days has been fought over by princes, crusaders, merchants and pirates. Situated "too strategically for its own good" in the Eastern Mediterranean some 500 miles from Greece, 45 miles from Turkey and 300 miles from the Suez Canal, this small island first appeared in history in 1500 B.C. as a conquest of the Egyptians. In the centuries that followed, it was colonized by the Greeks and Phoenicians, conquered by the Persians, absorbed in the empire of Alexander the Great, returned to Egypt's control, annexed by Rome and incorporated into the Byzantine Empire. Captured in 1191 by Richard the Lion Hearted, it became a stronghold of the Crusaders and was held by the Lusignan family for almost 400 years before Turkey conquered the island in 1571.

In 1878, under the terms of a Defensive Alliance directed against Russia, Turkey consented "to assign the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England." This amounted in practice to the establishment of a British protectorate in Cyprus, and in November 1914, after the outbreak of the First World War, the United Kingdom formally annexed the island. By the Treaty of Sèvres of 1920 and the Treaty of Lausanne of 1923, British sovereignty over Cyprus was internationally recognized, and in 1925 the evolution was completed when Cyprus was proclaimed a Crown Colony.

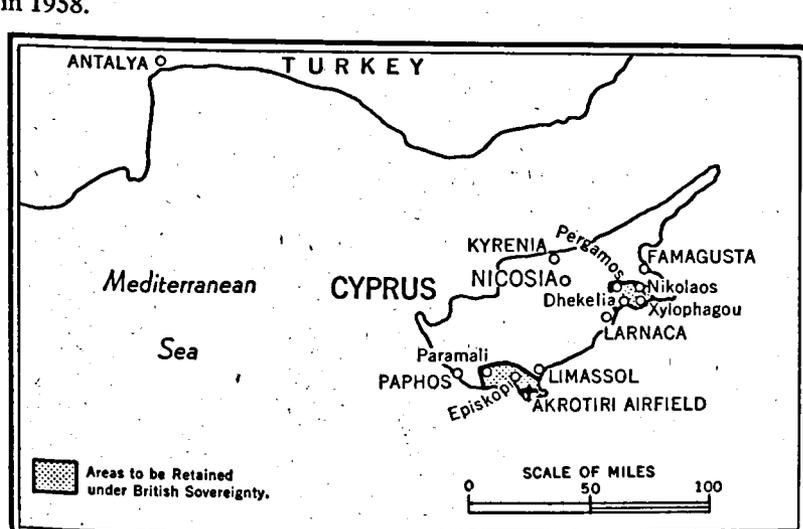
Postwar Cyprus

Modern Cyprus has a population of about 520,000, of which 400,000 are of Greek origin and the rest mostly of Turkish origin. Until the end of the Second World War, the colony was relatively peaceful. For some time, however, the Greek Cypriot community had looked toward an eventual union of Cyprus with Greece — Enosis — and after the war, led by Archbishop Makarios, they began actively to campaign for such a union. At first this was a problem of direct concern only to the United Kingdom and its Cypriot subjects, but in 1954 it became an international issue when Archbishop Makarios was assured the support of the Greek Government. Turkey then declared its concern for the Turkish Cypriot community, and took the position that if sovereignty over the island were to pass to another country, it should revert to Turkey; as an alternative solution, the Turkish Government

suggested the partition of the island between its two major ethnic communities. The United Kingdom, however, steadfastly asserted that its sovereignty over Cyprus was essential for the maintenance of its interests in the Middle East and the discharge of its obligations to both NATO and the Baghdad Pact. It took almost four years of bloody civil strife before there could be found a compromise solution acceptable to all the parties concerned in the dispute.

On April 1, 1955, the National Organization of Cypriot Fighters (EOKA) led by the now-renowned Colonel George Grives, launched a programme of violent resistance aimed at overthrowing British rule in Cyprus and achieving Enosis. Under the direction of Field Marshal Sir John Harding, who went to Cyprus as Governor in October 1955, the United Kingdom authorities countered with an intensive anti-terrorist campaign designed to restore law and order on the island. British police of all ranks were incorporated in the Cyprus police force; troops stationed on the island were greatly reinforced; and on March 9, 1956, Archbishop Makarios was deported to the Seychelle Islands on charges of having condoned terrorism. These measures, however, only resulted in an intensification of EOKA activity, and the winter of 1956-57 was a truly grim period of death and destruction. In March 1957 a truce was arranged whereby EOKA agreed to suspend its operations, and the United Kingdom released the Archbishop from detention. He was forbidden, however, to return to Cyprus until he had denounced terrorism, and when the United Kingdom refused to meet his conditions for such a denunciation, Archbishop Makarios went to Athens.

The Island, nevertheless, remained comparatively calm until the beginning of 1958, when the Turkish Cypriots, alarmed by what they regarded as the conciliatory policy adopted by the new Governor, Sir Hugh Foot, towards the Greek Cypriots, began to agitate for partition. Communal disturbances were accompanied by an intensification of EOKA's activities, and the situation in Cyprus deteriorated rapidly almost to the point of civil war. The severe regulations which were introduced to deal with this renewed outbreak of violence had achieved considerable success when a new truce was arranged late in 1958.



Attempts at Settlement

There was a series of attempts to reach a solution of the Cyprus problem through direct negotiations between the United Kingdom, Greece and Turkey. A Tripartite Conference held in London in 1955 was unsuccessful. In 1956 the United Kingdom proposed a plan for gradual self-rule, the details of which had been worked out by Lord Radcliffe, an eminent jurist, but this was rejected for different reasons by both Greece and Turkey. After Greece had declined an invitation to attend another conference in 1957, the United Kingdom presented a new plan for Cyprus in June 1958. This was the so-called "partnership" plan, involving Greece and Turkey in the administration, which was to serve as the basis of government during a "cooling off" period of seven years. Although Turkey agreed to go along with the "partnership" plan, Greece rejected it on the grounds that it left the way open to the future partition of Cyprus.

During the latter part of 1958, attempts had been made within the NATO Council to bring the parties together and for a time it appeared as though Secretary-General Spaak would be successful in his efforts to have convened a new conference of United Kingdom, Greek and Turkish representatives. However, plans for this conference had to be abandoned when the Greek Government announced that it was not prepared to go ahead and would instead refer the Cyprus problem to the United Nations. In the meantime, the United Kingdom had announced its intention to put its "partnership" plan into effect.

Every year since 1954 the Greeks had succeeded in having the question of Cyprus included on the agenda of the United Nations General Assembly and every year the Assembly was unable to do much more than adopt a resolution calling on the parties concerned to work together for a solution. Although the Assembly's resolution of December 1958 followed much the same pattern, the moderate tone of the debate gave grounds for belief that the parties might be more prepared than in the past to work out a compromise which would bring an end to the violence in Cyprus. The Greek Delegation, for example, did not, as in the past, appeal to the United Nations to support Enosis, but rather asked the organization to assume some responsibility for achieving an agreed settlement. In the meantime, Archbishop Makarios had also altered his position and was now urging that Cyprus should become independent rather than that the island should be united with Greece.

The London Agreements

Despite the apparent lack of progress in the United Nations and NATO, private discussions between representatives of Greece and Turkey at these organizations had, in fact, developed into serious bilateral negotiations between the two countries. These culminated in formal meetings in Zurich in February 1959 of the Greek and Turkish Foreign Ministers at which a series of arrangements for the future of Cyprus were drawn up. The Zurich meetings were followed almost immediately by a new Tripartite Conference which opened in London on February 17, 1959, and which two days later approved the Zurich agreements "as the agreed foundation for the final settlement of the problem of Cyprus".

The agreements were initialled by the Prime Ministers of the United Kingdom, Greece and Turkey, and by representatives of the Greek and Turkish Cypriot communities and their main provisions are as follows:

(a) A Republic of Cyprus will be established which will be allied to Greece and Turkey by a treaty binding the three countries to co-operate for their common defence. For this purpose, Greece and Turkey will station armed forces on the island. The independence, territorial integrity and security of the Republic will be guaranteed by another treaty to which the United Kingdom will also be a party and which undertakes to prohibit all activity designed to promote either the union of Cyprus with any other state or its partition.

(b) The Republic will have a Greek Cypriot President and a Turkish Cypriot Vice-President, both of whom will have a final veto over legislation on foreign affairs, defence and security, and a suspensory power over other legislation.

(c) The Turkish Cypriots are to have separate municipalities in the five largest towns.

(d) There will be a Council of Ministers consisting of seven Greeks and three Turks and a House of Representatives (with 70 per cent of its members Greek Cypriots and 30 per cent Turkish Cypriots). In addition, two communal chambers will exercise authority on religious, educational and purely communal questions. The 70:30 balance between the two communities will be preserved in all public institutions, except in the armed forces where it will be 60:40.

(e) The United Kingdom is to retain sovereignty over two military bases on the island. The integrity of these areas and their free use and enjoyment, as well as the use of other necessary installations by the United Kingdom will be guaranteed by the Greek, Turkish and Cypriot Governments.

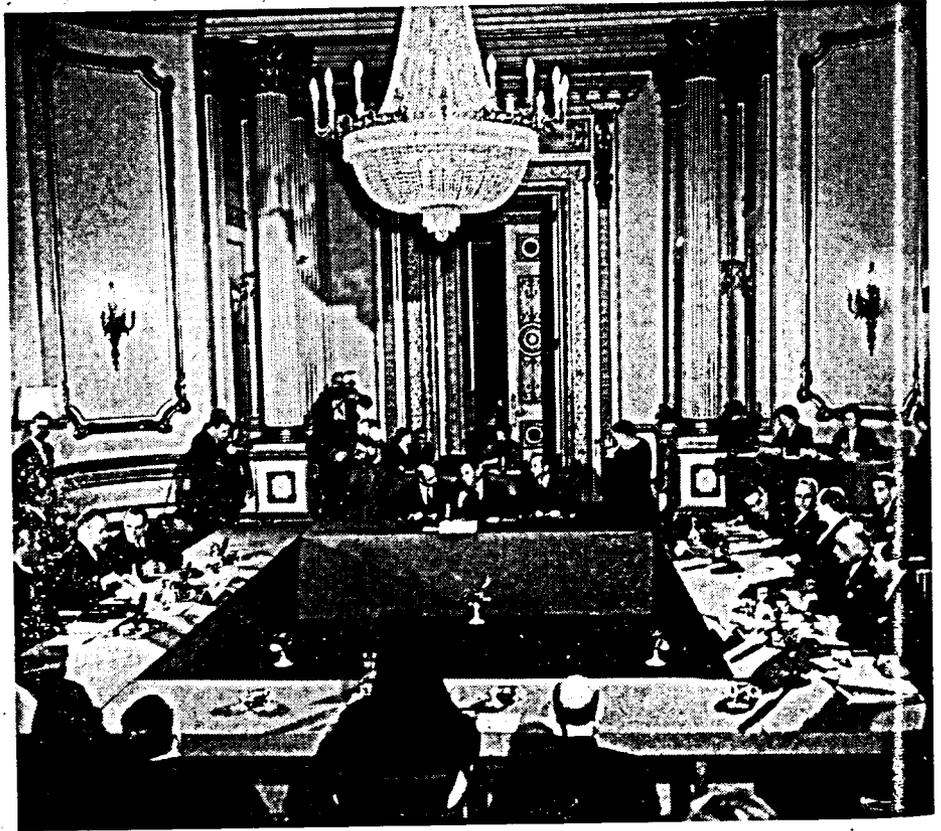
(f) The basic settlement is to be brought into effect before February 19, 1960, and to this end three Joint Commissions were set up to draft the Cypriot constitution, to prepare the final treaties implementing the agreements initialled in London, and to reorganize the island's governmental machinery in preparation for the transfer of authority.

Reactions to the Settlement

In the United Kingdom, both in Parliament and in the Press, there was expressed a general feeling of relief that a compromise acceptable to all parties concerned had been reached. The London agreements were approved without vote in the House of Commons on March 19, and public opinion appeared satisfied that United Kingdom interests had been safeguarded by the retention of sovereignty over two enclaves in Cyprus.

The successful outcome of the discussions in London reflected the high degree of statesmanship with which the United Kingdom, Greek and Turkish leaders had approached the negotiations, as well as the goodwill and understanding displayed by the leaders of the Greek and Turkish communities on the island. The London agreements were greeted with great satisfaction in Canada where there had been understandable concern over a difficult problem of direct concern to three of Canada's NATO allies.

The reaction in Greece and Turkey, however, was mixed. There was considerable dissatisfaction voiced in Athens that the settlement had gone too far in accommodating Turkish interests. The issue was heatedly debated



CYPRUS AGREEMENT SIGNED IN LONDON

At historic Lancaster House on February 19, 1959, an agreement was signed on the future of Cyprus. On the left is the British delegation of Mr. Selwyn Lloyd, Foreign Secretary, Mr. Lennox Boyd, Colonial Secretary, and Sir Hugh Foot, Governor of Cyprus. In the centre background is the Turkish-Cypriot delegation of Mr. Dentash, Dr. Kutchuk and Mr. Osman Orek. On the right, back, is the Turkish delegation of Mr. Falin R. Zorlu, the Turkish Foreign Minister, and Dr. Birgi, Turkish Ambassador in London. Next on the right, the Greek delegation consists of Mr. E. Averoff-Tossizza, the Greek Foreign Minister, and Mr. George Seferiades, Greek Ambassador in London. In the centre foreground is the Greek-Cypriot delegation of Archbishop Makarios, Mr. Chrysafinis and Mr. Zenan Rossides.

for four days in the Greek Parliament, which finally approved the settlement by a vote of 178 to 118. Despite the strong criticisms of the Opposition, the settlement seemed to have been generally accepted in Greece as an overriding necessity, and as the best that Greece could hope to obtain. Although in Turkey the public and the press generally greeted the London agreements with genuine relief and satisfaction, some reservations were expressed in the parliamentary debate. While not trying to make an issue of the principles of the agreements, the Opposition maintained that a number of problems had been left unsolved, that the guarantees preventing the union of Cyprus with Greece were inadequate, and that consequently the settlement was in Greece's favour. Some concern was expressed about the future of the Turkish Cypriot community and about the strong possibility that Archbishop Makarios would become the first President of the new Republic. The Government's handling of the problem was approved by a vote of 347 to 138.

In Cyprus itself, the news of forthcoming independence was greeted with obvious relief and with surprising calm, but also with some distrust and concern. The provisions for the maintenance on the island of two sovereign British bases and of Greek and Turkish troops as well, with the implication that there could be future interference by the United Kingdom, Greece or Turkey in the Republic's affairs, are sources of worry to some Cypriots. Despite the appeals for full support of the settlement which have been made by Archbishop Makarios, by the former chief of EOKA, and by the leader of the Turkish Cypriots, there are still groups in Cyprus which may continue to seek Enosis or partition.

Future Problems

Despite the atmosphere of cordiality and co-operation now evident among the leaders of the two Cypriot communities, it will perhaps be a long time before relations between them will be completely easy. There are a number of problems, moreover, which Cypriots of all origins must face together.

Perhaps the most serious of these will be how to maintain a viable economy. Without substantial foreign aid the Cypriot economy may be incapable of maintaining the relatively high standards of living of the past several years. Cyprus has had a chronic balance of payments deficit which up to now has been met by British aid. Now, however, there is to be a sharp reduction in British military and civilian spending as a result of the surrender by the United Kingdom of its sovereignty over most of the island, and the consequent withdrawal of all but about five thousand of its troops. This reduction, moreover, is coming at a time when world prices for copper and agricultural produce, the island's primary exports, are falling, and when unemployment has been increasing. The new Republic must, therefore, find a source of considerable aid, or face serious economic difficulties.

There are, as well, difficult political problems to be solved by the Republic in both its domestic and its foreign affairs. Domestically the Cypriots must learn to assume responsibility for their own government, to govern themselves efficiently and justly. In their foreign relations they will be allied from the outset with the United Kingdom, Greece and Turkey, and they must decide whether or not to extend their international commitments. There has been a good deal of speculation, for example, that Cyprus may seek to become a member of either the Commonwealth or NATO, or possibly of both, but these are questions which must be answered by the people of Cyprus themselves, and which cannot be answered until the Republic has formally come into being.

A possible future source of political difficulties in Cyprus lies in the fact that the Communist party has considerable support on the island (it has been reported that the communists received a high percentage of the vote in the last municipal elections). Although communist party leaders appear to have adopted a policy of at least temporary collaboration with Archbishop Makarios, they continue to be critical of the London Agreements, as have been communist press organs in Greece and the U.S.S.R. It remains to be seen, therefore, to what extent the communists will maintain their present relatively co-operative attitude.

It is to be hoped that Cyprus will be able to overcome these problems, and that what has been called "the most persistent trouble spot in the Mediterranean" will enjoy a long period of peace and prosperity.

Canadian Trade Fairs in The West Indies

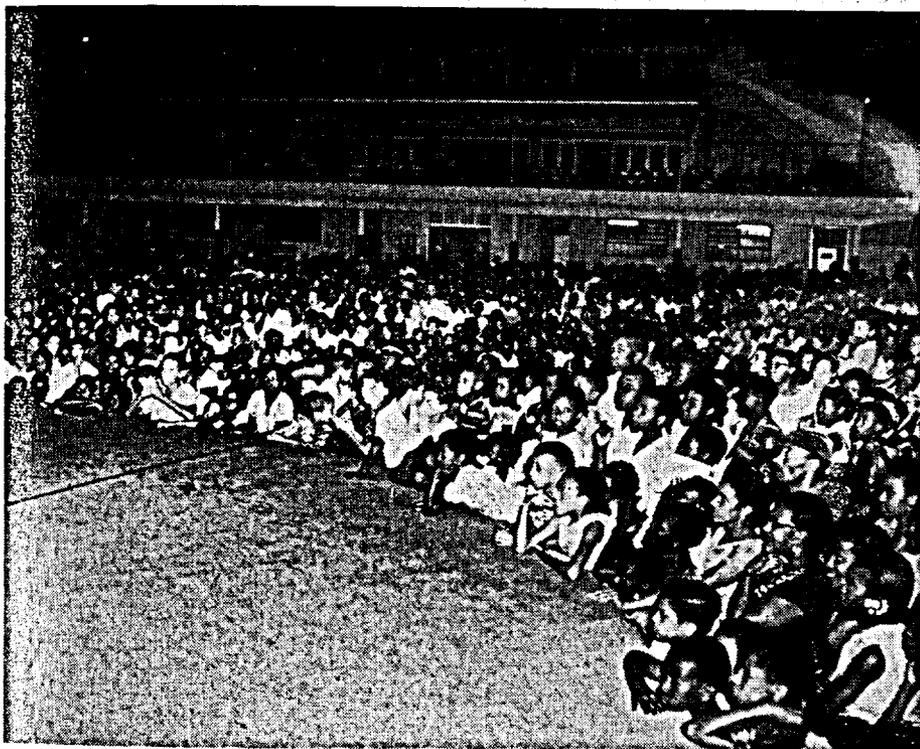
EARLY this year, Canada embarked on a new trade promotional project, which involved the organization of trade fairs in Kingston, Jamaica, and Port-of-Spain, Trinidad. The Department of Trade and Commerce was responsible for their administration, and rented space to some 140 Canadian firms interested in stimulating the sale of their products or services in The West Indies. It was felt that these trade fairs would provide a better understanding of Canada in a territory that is already well known to many Canadian businessmen, and would demonstrate in these and other islands of the Caribbean, British Guiana and British Honduras, our desire for even closer commercial ties with the new Federation and adjoining territories.

Sir Grantley Adams, Prime Minister of The West Indies, opened the trade fair in Kingston on January 16, and officiated at the inauguration of that in Port-of-Spain on February 20. The Canadian Government was represented in Kingston by Mr. J. Angus MacLean, Minister of Fisheries, while Col. Alfred J. Brooks, Minister of Veterans Affairs, presided in Port-of-Spain.



TRADE FAIR IN PORT-OF-SPAIN

Col. Alfred J. Brooks, Minister of Veterans Affairs, (right), with His Excellency Lord Hailes, Governor-General of The West Indies (left), and Prime Minister Sir Grantley Adams, following the inauguration of the Canadian Trade Fair in Port-of-Spain, Trinidad.



TRADE FAIR IN KINGSTON

Stage shows and film presentations at the Canadian Trade Fair in Kingston, Jamaica, proved popular.

Others present in Kingston on the opening day were members of the Canadian Chamber of Commerce Mission to Jamaica, Trinidad, British Guiana and Barbados, comprising some forty leading businessmen. These included the President and members of the executive council of the Canadian Chamber of Commerce, Presidents of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, the Canadian Exporters' Association, the Primary Textiles Institute, the Canadian National Millers' Association, the Canadian Shipowners' Association, the Maritime Provinces Board of Trade, the Montreal Board of Trade, the Halifax Board of Trade, and the Canadian Atlantic Salt Fish Exporters' Association.

Six of Canada's nine chartered banks were represented on the mission by their presidents, general managers or assistant general managers. The presidents and senior executives of Canadian firms interested in The West Indies also joined in the detailed discussions with businessmen in the territories visited by the mission, with Mr. James A. Roberts, Associate Deputy Minister of Trade and Commerce, and Mr. C. Rex Stollmeyer, Commissioner for The West Indies, British Guiana and British Honduras in Canada.

H.M.C.S. "Fort Erie", H.M.C.S. "La Hullose", H.M.C.S. "Swansea" and H.M.C.S. "Buckingham", frigates of the Prestonian class, were in Kingston from January 13-17. Officers and ratings of the 7th Canadian Escort Squadron participated in the inaugural ceremonies, and provided

a guard-of-honour. Receptions were held aboard these warships for Sir Grantley Adams, representatives of the Jamaica Legislature, government officials, leading local businessmen, members of the Canadian Chamber of Commerce Mission and their wives.

Appearance of Trade Fairs

The central feature of the trade fairs was a geodesic dome, 100 feet in diameter, comparable to the hub of a wheel, the spokes of which consisted of exhibition booths where the products of Canadian firms were displayed. The dome housed the Trade and Commerce Centre, with information counters and display panels, institutional exhibits and the displays of service organizations.

At the entrance, a huge aluminum ingot, weighing 5,000 pounds, illustrated effectively the two-way trade theme of the fairs. This ingot created considerable interest, especially among mechanically-minded visitors, who were impressed by the expert turning. They were informed that large lathes, used for the manufacture of aircraft, were employed for this purpose. The industrial capacity of Canada was thus portrayed. When visitors commented on the bricks of alumina surrounding the ingot in its reflecting basin, they were told that alumina or bauxite from Jamaica or British Guiana, plus hydro-electric power from Canada, produced aluminum that was marketed all over the world.

The form of construction of the geodesic dome aroused interest. The plastic cover reflected both the sunlight and moonlight. Passengers arriving by air in Jamaica said they could not mistake Sabina Park as the site of Canada's trade fair. The temperature inside was comfortable, as provision was made for good air circulation.

Exhibits

The commercial exhibits were of a high order and were much admired. Representatives of Canadian firms taking part in the fair were well satisfied with the interest shown in their exhibits by local buyers and the general public. Many inquiries were made and firm orders were received by a number of exhibitors who had never previously explored the possibilities of the market.

Side Attractions

A special feature of the fair was the Fur and Fashion Show at Kingston, where local models displayed the wares of Canadian fashion houses. Showings of some twenty-five fur pieces were arranged by the Canadian Mink Breeders. These were presented during the evening to large audiences in the Myrtle Bank Hotel, Courtleigh Manor, Tower Isle Hotel, in Montego Bay and at the Glass Bucket Club. Some of the furs were sold and Canada established herself as the most desirable source of supply for fine furs.

Entertainment to suit every taste by Canada's foremost radio and television artists supplemented the fine displays of Canadian commodities and trade services. A playground was provided for the children of visitors to the fair.

Film Showings

Films provided by the National Film Board were very popular, and drew crowds of between 2,500 and 3,000. There was a rush to the outdoor cinema whenever a presentation was due to begin, and many persons assembled as much as half an hour before each screening to be sure of getting a good seat. "The Sceptre and the Mace", which portrays the state opening of Parliament in Ottawa by Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II, was a particular attraction. Other films that proved popular were: "Trans-Canada Summer", "Here's Hockey", "Lively Pond", "Montreal 1957", "Wildlife in the Rockies", and "Carnival in Quebec". Audiences were well behaved and very receptive. Incidents, such as a hockey player falling on the ice, and birds diving into a pond, aroused much merriment.

The film programmes provided the West Indian people with a good understanding of Canada, its industrial development, scenic attractions and the way of life of Canadians.

Attendance

Attendance at the trade fair in Jamaica was approximately 75,000, and more than 80,000 visitors toured the Canadian displays in Port-of-Spain. There was a nominal charge, amounting in Kingston to one shilling for adults and sixpence for children. Businessmen were supplied with passes, while groups of students with their teachers were admitted free. Many children, including teenagers, came to the trade fairs, and showed much interest in the exhibits. They seemed particularly intelligent, were well dressed and polite. Literature supplied to these children was appreciated and preserved, in order that it might be studied more carefully at home. As a result, many adults who do not read and might not otherwise have been interested in viewing the exhibits were persuaded to come and see for themselves.

Information and Advertising

The Department of Trade and Commerce embarked on a modest advertising campaign in The West Indies. This consisted of 600-line insertions in newspapers, page insertions in magazines, radio spot announcements, counter cards and posters.

"The Daily Gleaner" produced a special trade fair issue on January 15, and carried a great deal of advertising provided by agents of Canadian firms, or their principals in Canada, directing the attention of visitors to the trade fair.

"The West Indian Review" produced a Canada-West Indies issue in January, which contained seventy-eight pages of text and advertising pertaining to Canada. As the editor of this publication spent four weeks in Canada, gathering material for use in her special issue, she was able to present personal impressions that were appreciated by readers.

"Spotlight News Magazine" also published a Canadian Trade Fair supplement of twenty-two pages in January. This provided much useful information, together with some interesting historical data. Wide coverage of the trade fair appeared in its February issue, copies of which were available in time for distribution in Trinidad before the opening of the trade fair in Port-of-Spain.

Counter cards and posters, designed by the Canadian Government Exhibition Commission, were used to good advantage, and could be seen all along the highways. Posters were even pasted on sidewalks.

Copies of the Canada-West Indies supplement of "The Financial Post", published on December 13, were eagerly sought.

Canadian Trade Fair supplements were issued by "The Trinidad Guardian" and "The Trinidad Chronicle", which attracted considerable attention. Both newspapers were generous in their coverage of the trade fair in Port-of-Spain, and editorial references to Canada were most favourable. Considering the fact that the trade fair in Trinidad was held soon after the close of Carnival, when thoughts of the populace are concerned almost exclusively with this annual celebration, the interest aroused by Canada's trade fair was quite remarkable.

Arrangements were made by "The Globe and Mail", of Toronto, for some 2,500 copies of its Overseas Edition to be flown from London to Port-of-Spain, where they arrived two days after being printed on February 18, and were mailed to leading government officials and businessmen in Trinidad, British Guiana, the Leeward and Windward Islands. This edition carried an editorial on the Canadian Chamber of Commerce Mission and articles on the trade fair itself.

The Canadian Broadcasting Corporation sent a team to Jamaica, where two half-hour radio programmes and a half-hour television programme were carried over the Canadian network. These programmes provided Canadians with a good impression of the trade promotional project, and a better understanding of trade relations between Canada and The West Indies.

Mention should also be made of the Canadian publicity arranged by the Georgetown Chamber of Commerce during the visit of the Canadian Chamber of Commerce Mission to British Guiana. A "Canada Week" was declared, during which newspapers carried a wealth of information on Canada. Canadian displays filled the local stores, and Canadian films were shown in local cinemas. Many businessmen from British Guiana later attended the trade fair in Port-of-Spain.

Short and Long-Term Value of Fairs

It would appear that, as a result of the trade fairs, Canada's star in The West Indies is in the ascendant, and that many persons now have a better understanding and appreciation of Canada.

The encouragement provided by the presence of Canadian businessmen, and their genuine interest in establishing closer connections with The West Indies, made a favourable impression on local businessmen. Many problems remain to be solved, but a good start has been made, and the name of Canada is now on the lips of everyone as never before.

Canada and the United Nations

Trust Territories of the Cameroons

In accordance with a decision taken on December 5, 1958, at the 13th session of the General Assembly, the latter reconvened on February 20, 1959, to consider the political future of the two United Nations Trust Territories of the Cameroons, under British and French administration.

The Cameroons

Originally part of the former German colony of the Kamerun, the two Cameroons became Mandated Territories under the League of Nations, the western part going to the United Kingdom and the eastern and larger part going to France. In 1946 the Cameroons became United Nations Trust Territories, administered, under agreements approved by the General Assembly, by the United Kingdom and France.

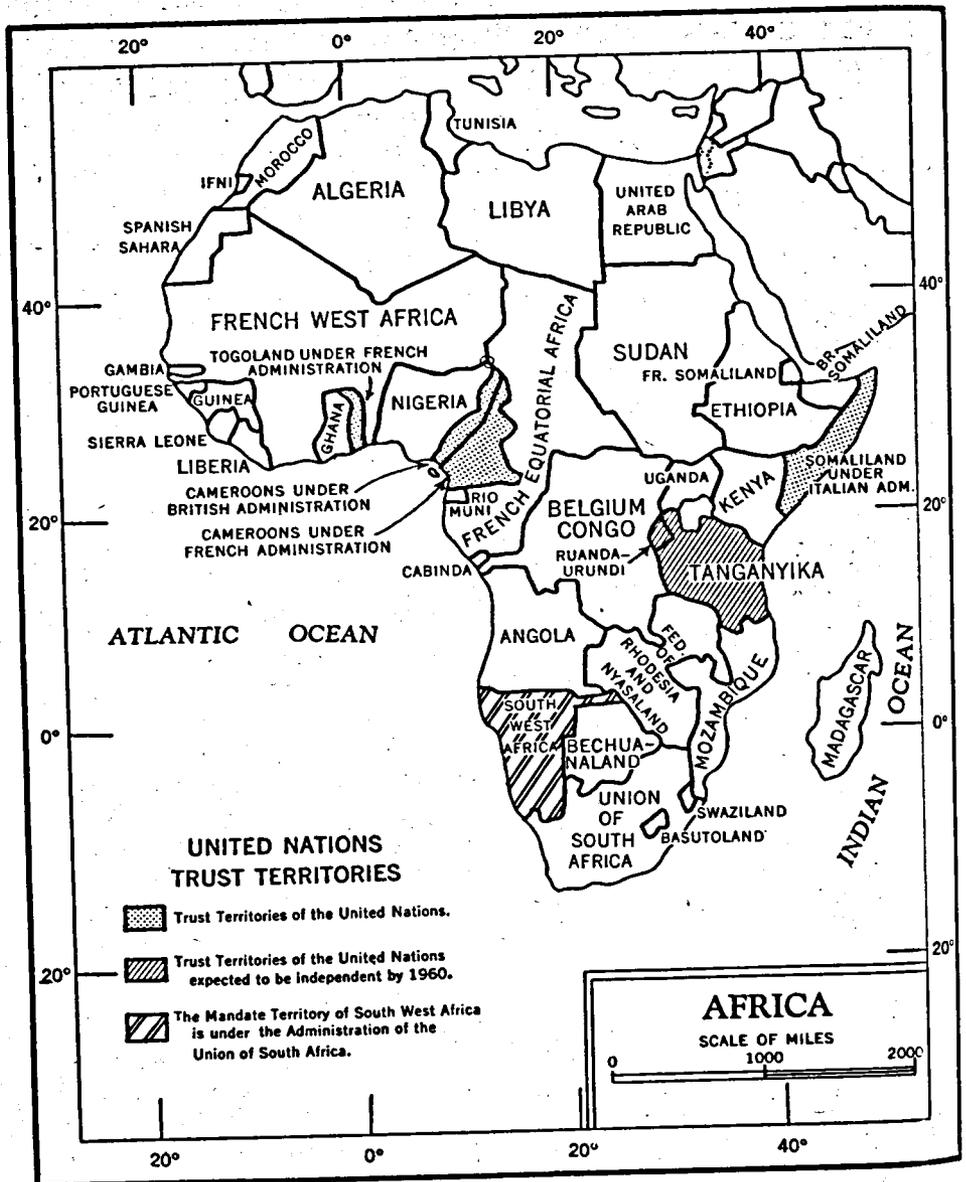
The British Cameroons has an area of some 34,000 square miles and a total population of 1,500,000. It consists of two narrow and separate strips between Lake Chad and the Atlantic Ocean, adjoining Nigeria to the west and the French Cameroons to the east. The Northern Territory (with a population of about 300,000) has always been administered as part of the northern region of Nigeria. The Southern Territory has been for some time administered as part of Southern Nigeria, but, following recent constitutional developments, elections to the new House of Assembly of the Southern Cameroons were held on January 24, 1959. The results gave 12 members favouring continued association with Nigeria and 14 members supporting eventual unification with the French Cameroons. The Federation of Nigeria is to become independent on October 1, 1960.

Situated in the heart of Africa, the Cameroons under French administration is shaped roughly like a triangle, with an area of some 170,000 square miles and a population of a little over three million, including 17,000 Europeans. In 1958 the French Government, in talks with the Cameroons Prime Minister, formally recognized the option of the Cameroons for independence during 1960, upon termination of Trusteeship. Nine conventions were signed providing for the transfer on January 1, 1959, of all powers except external affairs, defence and monetary policy, as a transitional step before full independence. On October 24, 1958, the Legislative Assembly of the Cameroons adopted a resolution submitted by the Government proclaiming the will of the Cameroonian people that their country should attain national independence on January 1, 1960.

Proceedings in Committee

The basis of the Assembly's discussions at its resumed session were the reports of a United Nations Visiting Mission, which between October and December 1958 had examined the situation in the two territories on the spot, and the recommendations of the United Nations Trusteeship Council based on the Mission's reports.

In accordance with usual practice the various issues were first referred for consideration to the Fourth Committee. In the course of thirty-seven



meetings this Committee heard statements by the representatives of the two administering powers, government officials and other leaders from the French Cameroons, the Northern British Cameroons and the Southern British Cameroons, as well as by some thirty petitioners representing parties and groups in the Territories. Sixty delegations (including Canada) took part in the General Debate that preceded the discussion of draft resolutions and amendments.

Two draft resolutions were submitted to the Committee concerning the future of the French Cameroons. The first was introduced by Haiti, Italy, New Zealand, Uruguay and the United States; it recommended the termination

of Trusteeship when the Territory becomes independent on January 1, 1960. In the course of discussions, India, Japan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, Malayá and Guatemala proposed to amend this resolution, chiefly to include some reference to the holding of general elections soon after independence, as intended by the Cameroonian Government. As this was accepted by the original drafters, the latter were joined by the authors of the amendments as co-sponsors of the resolution. The second resolution was introduced by eight African states and, among other recommendations, suggested that general elections be held under United Nations supervision prior to independence and termination of Trusteeship, and that upon the attainment of independence the Territory should be admitted to United Nations membership. This latter proposal was readily accepted by the twelve co-sponsors of the first resolution and incorporated in their own draft, since the French Representative had already announced the Cameroonian Government's intention to apply for United Nations membership and France's intention to sponsor such application. The same eight African states also proposed various amendments to the twelve-power resolution with a view to bringing it into line with their own text, but these were subsequently rejected in the course of three votes.

There was only one resolution submitted on the future of the British Cameroons; it was co-sponsored by Argentina, Canada, Costa Rica, Italy, Japan and New Zealand. This resolution's chief recommendations were the holding of separate United Nations supervised plebiscites in the Northern and Southern Territories, during November 1959 and between December 1959 and April 1960 respectively. It also recommended that the people of the North be asked whether they wished to join Nigeria, but it left for decision by the next session of the Assembly the questions, exact date and qualifications for the proposed plebiscite in the South. An amendment introduced by eight Asian states (suggesting, for the plebiscite in the North, that voters be asked instead whether they wished to join Nigeria or whether they wished to decide their future at a later date) was accepted by the five co-sponsors of the resolution and incorporated in their draft. Five African states introduced another amendment proposing, as second choice for the plebiscite in the North, union with an independent Cameroons; but this suggestion was later rejected by a vote of 36 to 32 with 13 abstentions. Liberia also proposed that participation in the plebiscite in the North be on the basis of universal adult suffrage, a proposal that was rejected in the course of two votes, since the Committee felt it desirable to respect local customs and usages as well as the wish of the population concerning the participation of women in elections.

Decisions Adopted

The Fourth Committee completed its work on March 13 by recommending to the Assembly the adoption of the two main resolutions on the British and French Cameroons. These resolutions were formally adopted by the General Assembly at a plenary meeting on the night of March 13. The first, on the French Cameroons, was adopted by 56 votes in favour (including Canada, Ethiopia, Liberia and Sudan), none against, with 23 abstentions (i.e. five African and six Arab states, the Soviet Bloc, Afghanistan, Yugoslavia and Indonesia). It decided on the termination of Trusteeship on January 1, 1960;

expressed confidence that elections for a new Legislative Assembly will be held soon after independence; and recommended that, upon independence, the French Cameroons be admitted to United Nations membership. The second resolution, on the British Cameroons, was adopted by 56 votes in favour (including Canada, Yugoslavia, Indonesia and the Sudan), none against, with 24 abstentions (i.e. seven African and six Arab states, the Soviet Bloc, Guatemala and Afghanistan). It decided that separate plebiscites should be held under United Nations supervision in the North and South to ascertain the wishes of the population regarding their future. The plebiscite in the North will take place about the middle of November 1959, and the voters will be asked if they wish the Northern Cameroons to be part of the Northern region of Nigeria when the Federation of Nigeria becomes independent, or whether they favour deciding their future at a later date. The plebiscite in the South will take place between the beginning of December 1959 and the end of April 1960. The questions to be put and the qualifications for voting will be considered at the next United Nations Assembly session. To supervise both plebiscites in the British Cameroons, the Assembly elected, by an overwhelming majority, Ambassador Djalal Abdoh of Iran to be United Nations Plebiscite Commissioner, who will act on behalf of the General Assembly.

Africa and the United Nations

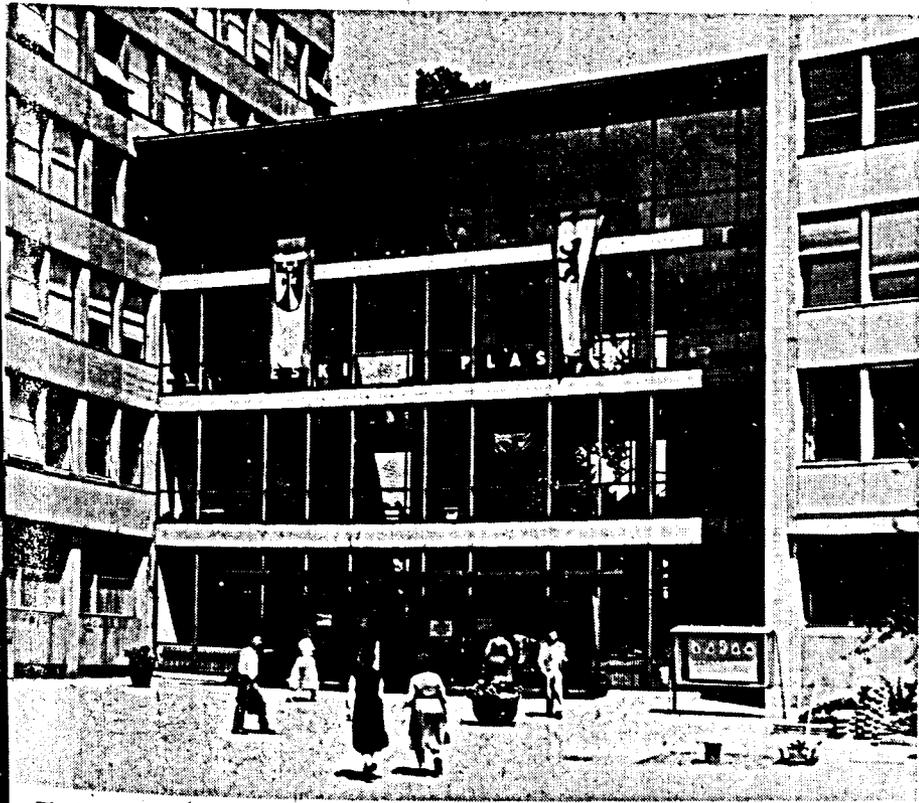
On January 1, 1960, the Cameroons will be the eleventh African state to achieve national independence, and it is also expected that it will be the eleventh state from Africa to become a member of the United Nations. Earlier at the 13th session the General Assembly had decided to bring to an end the Trusteeship agreement for Togoland when this territory also becomes independent in 1960. The Trusteeship agreement for the Somaliland under Italian administration is similarly due to be abrogated on December 2, 1960. Togoland, the Somaliland and Nigeria, which will become independent on October 1, 1960, are also expected to join the United Nations sometime in 1960, raising to fourteen the number of member states of the organization from Africa.

Eskimo Art Travels Abroad

IN the historic university city of Coimbra, Portugal, a travelling exhibition of Canadian Eskimo carvings will complete in April the last stage of a Western European tour which started in The Netherlands in January 1956. During that period, the collection assembled by the Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources will have visited fourteen countries of Europe, and will have been displayed in twenty-eight cities.

Concurrently another comprehensive collection brought down from the Canadian North is on display in the capital of Peru in the course of a Latin American tour, inaugurated by a visit to the showcase of the Fourth São Paulo Biennial of Modern Art at the end of 1957. Since 1954 exhibitions have been held at several points in the United States.

The impact created in Canada by Eskimo art since the early fifties prompted the original decision to include it in the programme of officially sponsored exhibitions abroad. In turn this called for composite and self-contained exhibits, not only because of the utter novelty of a form of art which dates back to very ancient times, but also in view of the intimate relationship which each Eskimo carving bears to the way of life of its maker and to his environment. Viewers in Dublin or Montevideo, Cologne or Valparaiso had



The borough town hall of Kreuzberg, Berlin, where the Eskimo Art Exhibit was displayed in the summer of 1958.

to be told where, across the vast expanse of the Canadian north, lay such points as Cape Dorset, Port Harrison, Povungnetuk, or the Sleeper Islands. They were interested to know that often the artist had to hunt patiently, sometimes below tide level water, for the piece of steatite or amphibolite whose shape and grain would suggest to his fancy the choice of an animal or a human form.

Around the stone and ivory figurines, display panels were built, consisting of maps and outside photographs, and accompanied by a balanced assortment of written material in the language of the country visited. Film screenings held in connection with the displays included both such classics as "Angotee" and "Land of the Long Day" and fresh productions released after the carvings had commenced their journey, including the National Film Board's "The Living Stone", and "Legend of the Raven", produced by Crawley Films for the Imperial Oil Company. Finally, there were talks by officials of Canadian missions abroad who organized the displays in each country in co-operation with national authorities.

In Europe as elsewhere, the travelling exhibition has achieved both popular success and recognition by art experts and critics. Approximately a quarter million people visited the exhibit in the United Kingdom and Western Europe and there was hardly a lull in the forty months of travel in that area.

"A primitive art, full of enchantment and beauty", "astonishingly subtle", "altogether harmonious", "an art imbued with fresh immediacy and human dignity" — these are typical appraisals which recur in press reviews from one country to another. While welcoming the art of the Canadian Eskimo as a contribution in its own right to the world repository of art, critics could not resist drawing comparisons with the work of modern and even avant-garde sculptors such as Maillol, Broncosi, Henry Moore or Matias Hernandez.

During the European tour, leading statesmen, members of reigning families, and world-known ethnologists and discoverers of the North commented favourably as they visited the exhibition or officiated at openings. At Copenhagen and Aarhus, the Canadian Eskimo carvings were exhibited jointly with a representative collection of Greenland Eskimo sculptures and viewers noted the marked contrast between the former, mostly made of stone and based on direct observation of life, and the latter made of walrus tusk and depicting a world of mythological spirits. The joint exhibition also stressed the common interests of Denmark and Canada in the Arctic.



APPOINTMENTS, TRANSFERS AND RETIREMENTS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mrs. C. S. Nelles (nee Weir) resigned from the Department effective February 28, 1959.
- Mr. H. M. Robertson DFC, posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Brussels. Left Ottawa March 3, 1959.
- Mr. C. Chatillon posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Consulate General, Seattle. Left Ottawa March 3, 1959.
- Mr. L. H. Amyot posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Canberra. Left Ottawa March 5, 1959.
- Mr. E. G. Lee posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Djakarta. Left Ottawa March 6, 1959.
- Mr. C. E. Bourbonniere posted from the Permanent Mission of Canada to the European Office of the United Nations, Geneva to the Delegation of Canada to the North Atlantic Council, Paris. Left Geneva March 7, 1959.
- Mr. A. R. Boyd posted from the Canadian Consulate General, Seattle, to Ottawa. Left Seattle March 16, 1959.
- Mr. R. M. Tait posted from the Canadian Embassy, Athens, to the Permanent Mission of Canada to the European Office of the United Nations, Geneva. Left Athens March 17, 1959.
- Miss B. E. McGregor posted from the Canadian Embassy, Brussels, to Retirement Leave effective March 17, 1959.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

International Atomic Energy Agency

Agreement between Canada and the International Atomic Energy Agency for the supply of Uranium by Canada to the International Atomic Energy Agency.
Signed at Vienna March 24, 1959.
Entered into force March 24, 1959.

Finland

Convention between the Government of Canada and the Government of the Republic of Finland for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion in respect of taxes on income.
Signed at Ottawa March 29, 1959.

Korea

Utilities claims settlement agreement between the Government of the United States of America as Unified Command and on its own behalf and on behalf of certain other Governments and the Government of Korea.
Signed at Seoul December 18, 1958.
Deemed to have entered into force and operation with effect from July 1, 1957.

United States of America

Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning arrangements for dredging and disposal of spoil in the St. Clair River and Lake St. Clair.
Signed at Ottawa February 27, 1959.
Entered into force February 27, 1959.

Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning tolls to be charged on the St. Lawrence Seaway.
Signed at Ottawa March 9, 1959.
Entered into force March 9, 1959.

Multilateral

Second Protocol of Rectifications and Modifications to the texts of the schedules to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Done at Geneva November 8, 1952.

Signed by Canada April 16, 1953.

Entered into force February 2, 1959.

Third Protocol of Rectifications and Modifications to the texts of the schedules to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Done at Geneva October 24, 1953.

Signed by Canada December 17, 1953.

Entered into force February 2, 1959.

Publication

Canada Treaty Series 1955 No. 32. Convention concerning the Medical Examination of Seafarers. Done at Seattle June 29, 1946. Instrument of Ratification of Canada deposited March 19, 1951. In force for Canada August 17, 1955.

Canada Treaty Series 1957 No. 10. Convention concerning Food and Catering for Crews on board ship. Done at Seattle June 27, 1946. Instrument of ratification of Canada deposited March 19, 1951. In force for Canada March 24, 1957.

Canada Treaty Series 1957 No. 15. Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United Kingdom extending the Canada-U.K. Income Tax Agreement (1946) to the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. Signed at Ottawa May 1 and July 16, 1957. In force July 16, 1957.

Canada Treaty Series 1957 No. 29. Agreement and Exchange of Notes between the Government of Canada and the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany for co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy. Signed at Ottawa December 11 and 18, 1957. In force December 18, 1957.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 16. Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion with respect to taxes on income. Signed at Mont Tremblant October 1, 1957. In force May 21, 1958.

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CANADA

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS



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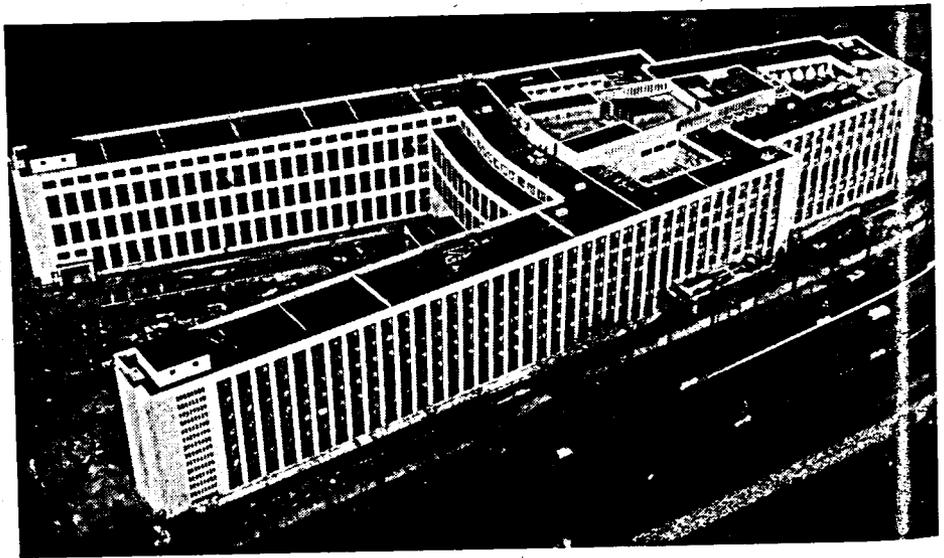
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NEW NATO HEADQUARTERS

The new headquarters of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization at the Porte Dauphine, Paris, not yet finished when the photograph was taken, will be inaugurated during this anniversary year. The present headquarters are at the Palais de Chaillot.

NATO's Tenth Anniversary

THE fifteen member countries of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization have joined this year in celebrating its Tenth Anniversary. On April 4, the date of signature of the Treaty of 1949 which created the Alliance, a commemorative ceremony took place on Parliament Hill in the Canadian capital, in the presence of diplomatic and military representatives of the NATO countries. In an address given at the ceremony, the Prime Minister of Canada, Mr. John G. Diefenbaker, said:

For several years after the war the nations of the West accepted the solemn pledges assured by the Soviet Union when it became a party to the Charter of the United Nations. The nations of the West reduced their forces and until 1948 were hopeful that through the United Nations, world security would be attained and preserved.

The Soviet Union not only did nothing to reduce its military strength but steadily increased its power and pursued a policy of aggressive expansion. Combining internal subversion and external pressure, Soviet rulers set about replacing the democratic governments of Eastern Europe with pliant satellite regimes, and parts of Finland, Poland, Rumania and Germany were incorporated into the Soviet Union.

This was imperialistic aggression on a cruel and frightening scale. The actions of the Kremlin constituted a military and spiritual challenge to free men and free nations for whom no price was too high to pay for the assurance of peace with freedom.

Realizing that peace could be bought and held only by sacrifice, by united action, 10 years ago today the Foreign Ministers of 12 countries in Western Europe, Canada and the United States, met in Washington and subscribed their signatures to the North Atlantic Treaty. This document, unique in history, enshrines faith in the ideals of democracy, individual liberty and the rule of law, and declares the determination of its member nations to stand by one another in upholding the preservation of these ideals.

The energies and resources of the NATO countries were channelled into a common and united defence effort so that NATO would not be found wanting in the defence of its ideals and purposes: — to safeguard the freedom, common heritage and civilization of their peoples founded on the principles of democracy, individual liberty and the rule of law.

Today NATO, now comprising fifteen nations, takes stock of the past decade, and plans for the years ahead. Nothing that can be seen on the horizon suggests or permits the luxury of a slackening in the preparedness of the free nations. The need for vigilance and unity is as imperative now, if not more so, than at any time during the last decade.

In its early years NATO was dominated by an all-pervading sense of fear, although the Alliance was not conceived solely as a joint response to manifest peril. Even under the menacing stare of Soviet power and ambition, the North Atlantic nations knew that something more fundamental than military might was needed if NATO were to be true to its long-term purpose.

They knew in the face of danger that military strength and courage, essential as these were to survival, were not enough in themselves. They recognized in Article 2 a responsibility to contribute toward the further development of peaceful and friendly international relations by strengthening free institutions, and the need of seeking to eliminate conflict in their international economic policy, and to encourage economic collaboration between any or all of them.

When the historian of another century looks back upon the establishment of this Alliance, I believe that Article will constitute the ultimate measure of NATO's success or failure. History shows that fear can give no permanent foundation to an alliance among nations, and I believe that the economic strength of each of the member nations from now on must be of greater concern than has yet been the case.

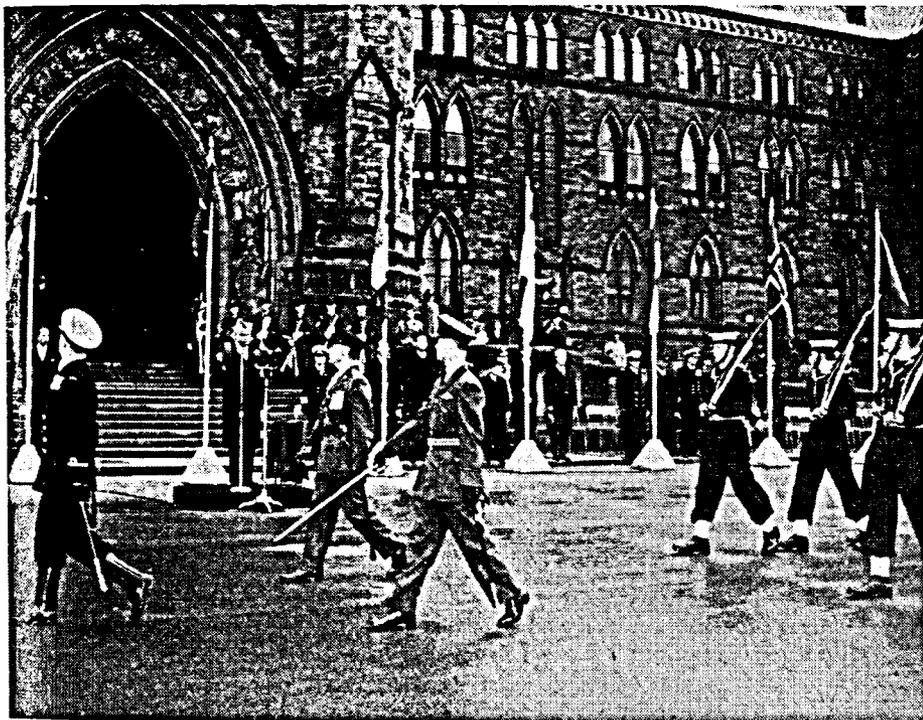
On this Tenth Anniversary, what are the omens for NATO's growth in a positive sense? A partial answer may be found in NATO's balance sheet of achievement. War in Europe has been avoided; Soviet ambitions, while not suppressed, have been contained in particular areas. An awareness of freedom's danger has been engendered which extends far beyond the boundaries of NATO. The need of continuing consultation being of paramount importance and the awful realities of nuclear war being comprehended, the quest for negotiated settlement is being and must continue to be pursued in a climate of realism not unmixed with hope. These accomplishments are to the credit of the Alliance.

What are the major problems before the free nations today? The communist threat, whether it comes from Moscow or Peking, is hydra-headed. Its direction is to every point of the compass. Its emphasis is at one and the same time military, economic, political and psychological. Its message is beamed to the minds of men throughout the world. It offers beguiling promises of bread for the hungry, help for the destitute, and a faith, false though it is to human rights and dignity.

To meet the challenge of the world-wide communist crusade, the Western nations must match the communists in energy, unflinching strength, and above all, faith.

There must be, I am convinced, a more co-ordinated effort to bring the message of democracy to the millions who are tempted by the soft words and ample promises of communism. We must explain the meaning of democracy, not by forcing Western ways upon uncommitted peoples, but by example showing them what freedom means, and by assistance to raise economic standards wisely offered. In short, we must convince them that democracy assures freedom and hope for the solution of their economic difficulties and afflictions.

It falls to NATO, as a guardian of the democratic system, to pursue these objectives. That is why I underline the need for economic collaboration under Article 2 of the Treaty. The mandate of NATO as such does not extend to regions beyond the Treaty boundary, but members of the Alliance cannot abdicate their responsibility and concern for the non-NATO world.



NATO ANNIVERSARY CEREMONY

The Prime Minister taking the salute from members of Canada's three armed services during the ceremony on Parliament Hill on April 4, to mark the tenth anniversary of the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty.

NATO unity in defence is as necessary today as it was ten years ago, but an equally momentous task for the free nations is to meet communist economic and psychological competition.

There is no room for cleavages within the Alliance — no place for half-hearted co-operation — no time for complacency — no substitute for sacrifice — no going it alone much as that course might appeal to nationalistic spirit and sentiment.

The free nations dare not sacrifice their determination to stand and work together if freedom is to survive. The experience among the NATO member nations of 10 years is an assured guide for the future.

The Prime Minister made part of his statement in French. The previous evening, in a special message on the CBC National Network, Mr. Diefenbaker commented on the significance of the Atlantic Community where, he said, "the builders of NATO builded better than they knew". In expounding this proposition from the standpoint of Canada, he said:

Europe and North America are, of course, different in many ways. Our outlook is not always theirs. Our problems are often different from those of our European cousins. But we are intimately connected by the bonds of common tradition and cultural heritage. Canada's languages and customs are for the most part European in origin. The Canadian

social and philosophical background is deeply rooted in European civilization. Canada has always been closely bound to the United Kingdom and France — to the United Kingdom by the ties of the Crown, the heritage of freedom, by membership in the Commonwealth — to France, as the origin of so many of her people, by the contribution she made to the building of Canada, and by cultural ties.

NATO is basic to the survival of freedom. It is more than a military alliance. It must develop and expand the economic principles inherent in the Treaty whereby each of the member nations will seek to eliminate conflict in their international economic policies and will encourage economic collaboration between any or all of them.

The Atlantic Community has been dynamic and in constant growth. Canada as one of the member nations has opened its door to more than a million immigrants from Europe. It has assisted needy nations to repair the ravages of war. Indeed, since the communist blood purge in Hungary it has opened its doors to refugees from communist oppression in that country to a greater relative extent than has any other nation. This movement of peoples with their talents and skills has enriched Canada.

Our partners in Europe are stronger because of the assistance given them to rebuild and restore their societies. Canada has through immigration come to understand the points of view of the nations represented by the immigrants. Tens of thousands of Canadian servicemen and their families have spent two or more years on guard in Europe and have brought to their hosts an understanding of the life and point of view of Canada.

When I visited our partners in NATO and in the Commonwealth last fall, I had the pleasure of visiting our Canadian Brigade in Germany and our Air Division in France. I was proud to be a Canadian as I watched these men and women who are standing in the front line of the defence of liberty in Europe. I was both proud and pleased to learn of the happy relationships that have been developed with their French and German neighbours. Canada's service men and women are not only making a substantial contribution to the defence of Europe, they are making Canada known and understood by the people of these two great nations. They are contributing to the growth and development of the Atlantic Community.

In my talks with the leaders of all the NATO countries which I visited, I found a recognition of the need to preserve what we have developed, and to improve and develop the Atlantic Community. Over the past ten years much has been done to weld us together despite every effort of the Soviet Union to break us apart. More remains to be done.

Other Commemorative Events

The Tenth Anniversary was marked by official ceremonies in the other capitals of the Alliance and at NATO Commands. The Canadian armed services took part in these ceremonies in France and Germany and at the headquarters of the Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic (SACLANT) at Norfolk, Virginia. A Canadian Delegation, headed by Mr. George R. Pearkes,

the Minister of National Defence, attended the Ministerial Meeting held from April 2-4 in Washington, D.C.

In Canada, the Post Office Department issued a NATO postage stamp. Special radio and television programmes about NATO were featured by the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, including a CBC-BBC radio link programme on April 3 in which personalities from the United Kingdom, France, Germany, the United States and Canada took part. The Canadian NATO Parliamentary Association and the Canadian Atlantic Co-ordinating Committee have associated themselves with various private demonstrations to mark the Anniversary, such as special publications, talks and programmes in schools devoted to the NATO theme, and distribution by the National Film Board of the NATO Information Service film "The Atlantic Decade" to film circuits throughout Canada.

At the international level, the most outstanding celebration by non-governmental organizations in support of NATO will be the Atlantic Congress, to be held in London from June 5-9. It is expected that more than 600 leading citizens from the fifteen NATO member countries will participate in the Congress which will be opened by Her Majesty the Queen.

Canadian NATO Postage Stamp

ON April 2, as part of the Canadian observance of the Tenth Anniversary of NATO, the Post Office Department issued a special commemorative stamp. The new issue was announced on February 13 by the Postmaster General, Mr. William Hamilton, in a communiqué which reviewed the decade of Canadian participation in the Organization. The release referred to the role of the Post Office in maintaining the morale of Canadians serving at defence outposts, by frequent airmail services.



The official description of the commemorative stamp is as follows:

Keeping in mind that NATO is working continually toward world peace, the design of the new postage stamp contains, in the upper left-hand corner, the dove of peace with an olive branch in its beak. In the left-hand margin appear the initials NATO and the French OTAN in the right margin. The centre of the stamp depicts the globe of the world showing the area in which the NATO member countries are located. The stamp, designed by Philip Weiss, of Ottawa, is blue in colour on a white background and is of the popular 5 cent denomination. It is produced by the Canadian Bank Note Company Limited, Ottawa.

The date of release of the stamp coincided with the opening in Washington, D.C., of the NATO Ministerial Meeting following which the members of the Permanent Council of the Organization visited Canada on April 8 and 9. During their stay in this country, they were each presented with folders enclosing complimentary samples of the stamp mounted on crested album sheets. The sheets carried the following inscription:

Thirty-two million postage stamps of this design were issued by Canada on the second of April 1959 to commemorate the Tenth Anniversary of the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty.

An album sheet of these stamps is presented to each of the members of the Permanent Council of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization by the Honourable William Hamilton, Postmaster General, on behalf of the Government of Canada.

North Atlantic Council

Tenth Anniversary Meeting April 2-4, 1959, Washington, D.C.

For Canada, as for the fourteen other members of the North Atlantic Alliance, the Washington Ministerial Meeting marked a significant milestone in the history of a uniquely successful experiment in international co-operation for the preservation of peace through mutual assistance.

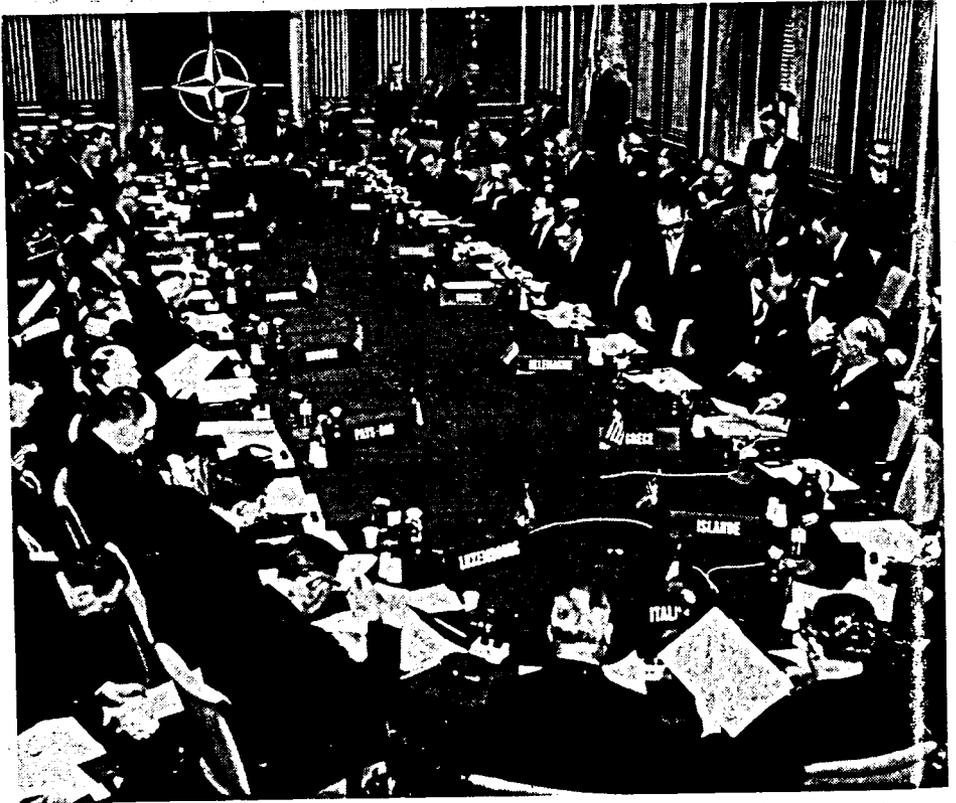
The meeting opened with an impressive public ceremony commemorating the Tenth Anniversary. President Eisenhower who, as Supreme Allied Commander in Europe, played a leading role in the early years of NATO, headed the list of dignitaries in attendance at the opening ceremony. Seated on the platform with him were the Ministers and Ambassadors of the member countries and the Secretary-General and Permanent Chairman of the North Atlantic Council, Mr. Paul-Henri Spaak. Canada was represented at the ceremony by the Head of the Canadian Delegation to the Washington meeting, the Minister of National Defence, Mr. G. R. Pearkes, V.C., and the Permanent Representative and Ambassador to the North Atlantic Council, Mr. Jules Léger.

Ten years earlier, on April 4, 1949, in the same resplendent hall in Washington, the representatives of twelve friendly freedom-loving nations gathered to sign a charter of interdependence, co-operation and mutual assistance — the North Atlantic Treaty. At the time the prospect of further communist encroachment on the free world seemed imminent. The need for unity in the face of a common danger was great. Those who drafted the Treaty were convinced that the danger would be averted only if it were made clear that an attack on any one of the members of the North Atlantic Alliance would be regarded as an attack on all of them.

The soundness of that policy has been proved by events. In the words of Mr. Herter, the Acting Secretary of State of the United States, who welcomed the visiting Ministers to Washington, "the Tenth Anniversary symbolized a decade of peace made possible by the strength and firmness of the NATO shield". Moreover, as Mr. Herter rightly observed, NATO has above all meant co-operation and consultation between the member countries. Since 1949 more than 20 Ministerial Meetings of the Council have been held and consultation in the Permanent Council has increased in intensity each year. In 1958 there were some 125 meetings of the Permanent Representatives.

President Eisenhower spoke of the early days of NATO and of the strength and cohesion which had been developed from uniting the individual efforts of the member nations, in the face of the Soviet challenge in Europe. Referring to the future, the President emphasized the need "to always keep open the door of honest discussion", and the United States intention to "continue to strive for a more general and far-reaching, but always practical settlement of differences with the Soviets". At the same time he observed that the Western partners must be prepared in the years ahead to live with tension and bickering with the Soviet Union. "To live confidently", the President concluded, "freedom requires unity — the unity which is the very life blood of NATO".

The working sessions of the meeting were devoted to the international situation, with particular reference to the coming negotiations on Berlin and



THE COUNCIL MEETING IN WASHINGTON

Germany, and to a general review of the progress of the Alliance and the prospects for future development. On Germany and Berlin the Council received a full report from the four powers on the present state of their thinking with respect to the forthcoming negotiations with the Soviet Union and a full discussion took place on the basis of their report. Full agreement was expressed by the Council on the broad lines of policy to be pursued. After stating its general desire to see outstanding problems solved by negotiation, the Council confirmed its unanimous determination to maintain the freedom of the people of West Berlin and the rights and obligations of the allied powers as expressed in the Council's declaration on Berlin of December 16, 1958.

Speaking in the House of Commons on April 7, the Prime Minister, Mr. J. G. Diefenbaker, gave an account of the position taken by Canada at the meeting in respect of the important questions which were discussed:

The Berlin issue is undoubtedly one of the most serious challenges that the Alliance has yet had to face. Canada considers it imperative that it should not be interpreted primarily as a challenge to seek a solution by force. We believe with President Eisenhower, in the words he used some years ago, 'there is no alternative to peace'. Believing that, the West must therefore try to settle its differences with the Soviet Union by negotiation. But if these negotiations are to be successful there is a clear need to clarify Western thinking with respect to the grave issues confronting the Alliance. This was one of the purposes of the meeting in Washington.

By way of contributing to this process of clarification Canada offered a few suggestions concerning the problem of Berlin. In the Canadian view no agreement can be acceptable to the West which places in jeopardy the security of West Berlin or the freedom of its citizens. It is also the Canadian view that the NATO countries could not accept a solution which might endanger the ties between the Federal Republic of Germany and the other countries of Western Europe. Moreover, we could not accept arrangements which might have the effect of foreclosing the prospect of the reunification of Germany.

The Prime Minister then recalled a statement which he made in the House of Commons on March 19 in which he expressed the belief that the United Nations might play some significant role in the solution of the Berlin problem and that this phase deserves further and more careful study:

In the development of this idea the Canadian Delegation suggested that the permanent council of NATO study the possibility of a role for the United Nations in the application of a solution for the Berlin problem: I believe the United Nations might play a useful role provided, of course, that a four-power agreement is reached first. The basic role of the United Nations might be to verify that all parties were abiding by the terms of the agreement. An essential part of the agreement might be a Soviet pledge binding itself and its associates to full freedom of access to West Berlin and the acceptance of a United Nations presence on the lines of communication to that city. Canada, in advancing these suggestions as a basis for discussion, emphasized that United Nations' responsibility for West Berlin would be complementary to the rights and obligations of the four occupying powers.

With regard to the problem of a German settlement, the Canadian Delegation expressed the hope that there would be increasing co-operation at the technical level between the Federal Republic and the East German regime. It would, in the Canadian view, be fruitful to give further study to a proposal originally made by the Federal German Republic to institute a continuing commission for Germany which would be charged with the responsibility for supervising and promoting progress toward reunification. The Canadian Delegation further suggested that the Western powers might usefully explore the possibility of some measure of arms limitation which, together with an adequate system of inspection and control, might have a wholesome and calming effect in the European area.

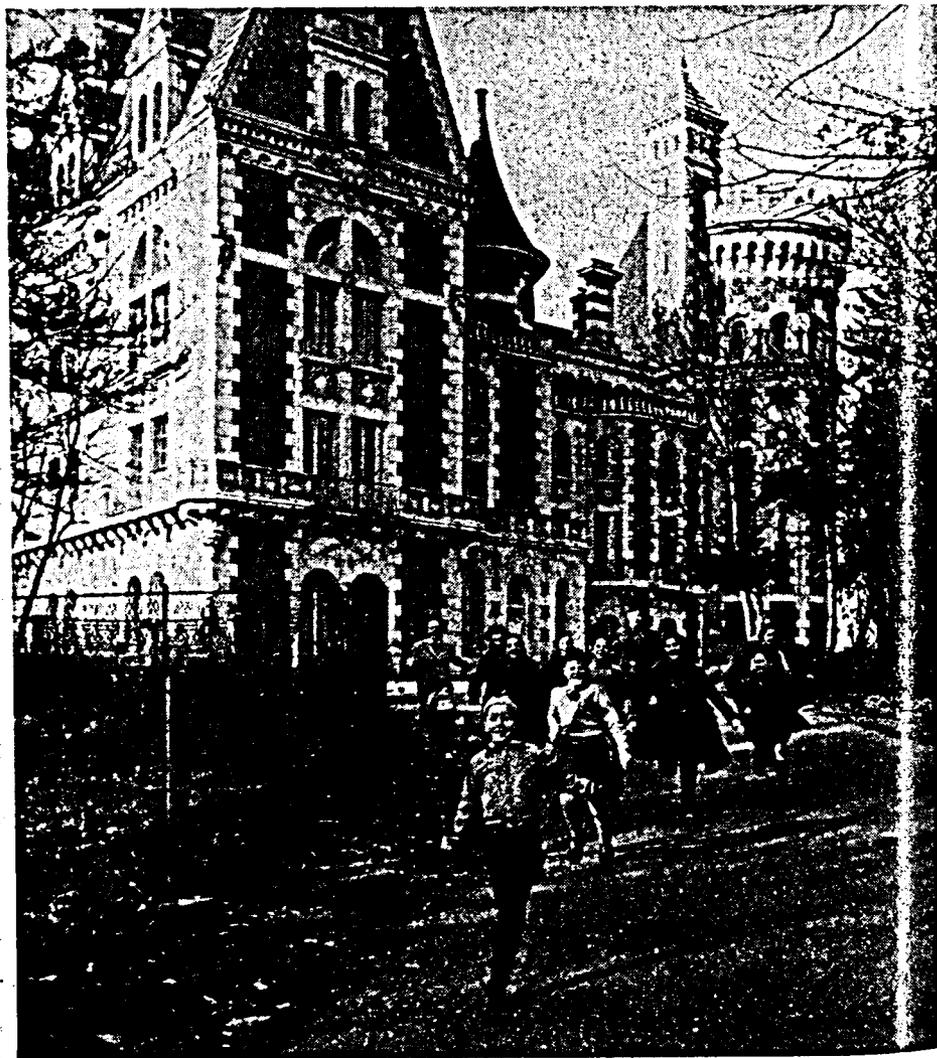
Both the Prime Minister, and the Minister of National Defence in his subsequent report to the House of Commons on April 8, noted that the Canadian suggestions were received with careful attention and that there was general agreement on the part of the four powers more directly concerned with these problems that they would be given the most serious consideration by the experts in the series of consultation scheduled to take place in advance of the Foreign Ministers' Meeting on May 11.

In addition to the extensive discussion of the problems of Germany and Berlin, the Council directed its attention to the political situation in the other parts of the world where international communism continues to exert various forms of pressure on the free world. In his statement in the House of Commons on April 8, Mr. Pearkes, as leader of the Canadian Delegation, explained the Canadian attitude:

In the Canadian view it is a cause for gratification that during the last year or so there has been a marked increase in consultation among the governments of the Alliance in respect of these problems which lie outside the area covered by the Treaty. Because the pressure exercised by the Communist Bloc is not limited to the countries of the Alliance or confined to direct military aggression, the Council is obliged to look beyond the territorial boundaries of the Treaty in order to prevent encroachment of freedom in other parts of the world.

I am also convinced that in spite of difficulties it is possible to achieve a high degree of harmony in national policies within the present Treaty commitments and, without giving ground for misunderstanding, in other areas of the free world.

The Council also discussed a report by the Secretary-General on the working of the Alliance. There was general endorsement of his call for further impetus to be given to the work of the Alliance and recognition of the need for increased collective action in regard, not only to political consultation and defence, but also to certain aspects of economic, scientific and cultural information activities of the Alliance.



SHAPE VILLAGE SCHOOL

The Supreme Headquarters of the Allied Powers in Europe has turned an old French chateau near Paris into an international school for the children of its military personnel. Here boys and girls from NATO countries learn in a common language — French.

NATO Council Visit to Canada

THE NATO Anniversary commemoration in Canada was enhanced by the visit on April 8 and 9 of the full membership of the NATO Permanent Council, the Foreign Minister of Belgium, Mr. Pierre Wigny, and the Foreign Minister of Denmark, Mr. J. O. Irag, as guests of the Canadian Government. The visit followed the Washington Ministerial Meeting and included Montreal, Quebec City and Ottawa.

The group of 15 Permanent Representatives to the North Atlantic Council was headed by the Chairman of the Council and Secretary-General of the Organization, Mr. Paul-Henri Spaak. It included Messrs. André-Marie de Staercke (Belgium), Mathias Aagaard Wassard (Denmark), Pierre de Leusse (France), Herbert Blankenhorn (Federal Republic of Germany), Michel Melas (Greece), Hans G. Andersen (Iceland), Umberto Grazzi (Italy), Paul Reuter (Luxembourg), Dirk Uipko Stikker (Netherlands), Jens Mogens Boyesen (Norway), Antonio de Faria (Portugal), Selim Sarper (Turkey), Sir Frank Kenyon Roberts (United Kingdom), W. Randolph Burgess (United States), and the Canadian Permanent Representative, Mr. Jules Léger.

Mr. Spaak, who had paid an official visit to several Canadian cities a year before, was accompanied on this tour by senior members of the NATO Secretariat.



NATO COUNCIL VISIT

The Secretary-General of the Organization and Chairman of the North Atlantic Council, Mr. Paul-Henri Spaak, and other NATO visitors, taking the salute from a Guard of Honour on their arrival at the RCAF station, St. Hubert, on the morning of April 8.



NATO COUNCIL VISIT

The Secretary-General of NATO, Mr. Spaak, called on the Prime Minister during the Council's visit to Ottawa.

Travelling by RCAF Comet Jetliner, the party was met by a Guard of Honour on arrival at St. Hubert on the morning of April 8. Following a visit to Air Defence Command Headquarters and luncheon at St. Hubert, as guests of the Royal Canadian Air Force, the visitors were flown by helicopter to Lac St. Denis, a radar station north of Montreal. That evening they were entertained at dinner by the Mayor of Montreal, Mr. Sarto Fournier. The first part of the following day was spent in Quebec City, where the group visited the Canadian Armament Research and Development Establishment at Valcartier. The Canadian Army was host at a luncheon given afterwards at the Citadel.

In Ottawa, the same afternoon, the Secretary-General, on behalf of his Council colleagues, called on Prime Minister Diefenbaker and on His Excellency the Governor General. The distinguished visitors made a tour of the Parliament Buildings during which they called on the Speaker of the House

and listened to the Speech on the Budget. In the evening, they attended a dinner given in their honour by the Canadian Government. Early on April 10, the visitors departed from Uplands Airport, Ottawa, on their way back to the United States.

In view of the historical nature of the occasion, the visit attracted much publicity throughout Canada. A press conference was held in Montreal. Members of the party appeared on both French and English television programmes and special interviews were beamed by the CBC International Service to the various countries of the NATO Alliance.

At the end of this memorable visit, Mr. Spaak issued the following message:

Before we leave Canada, I should like, on behalf of the North Atlantic Council, to say how very grateful we are for the wonderful reception we have had in your country.

We have unfortunately only been able to spend two days here but we have all been very much impressed by what we have seen, particularly by the Royal Canadian Air Force Stations at St. Hubert and Lac St. Denis, and by the Army Research Department in Quebec.

As you know, this Alliance of ours is just 10 years old and it is, I can assure you, just as solidly united as ever in face of the present situation.

Canada's allies all value the part Canada plays in the work of the Alliance, not only by the presence of Canadian forces on the European continent but also by Canada's contribution to our efforts to solve the many problems which face us.

Thank you again, good bye . . . au revoir.

Exchange of Notes with U.S.S.R.

THE Soviet Union delivered a Note to the Canadian Government on March 2, 1959, concerning the possibility of negotiations taking place on problems relating to Germany, including a peace treaty and the question of Berlin. This was in reply to a Canadian Note of February 17 and, as the Prime Minister said when he informed the House of its receipt on March 4, the Soviet Note did not contain anything of significance which was not to be found in the Notes addressed to the United Kingdom, the United States and France on the same date.

The Canadian reply to this Soviet Note was delivered in Moscow on April 24, and the Prime Minister tabled copies of the Canadian and Soviet Notes on April 27 in the House of Commons.

The texts of these Notes follow:

Soviet Note to Canada, March 2, 1959

The Soviet Government, referring to its Note of January 10, 1959, and the Note of February 17 of the Canadian Government in reply, considers it necessary to draw the following to the attention of the Canadian Government. On February 16, 1959, the Soviet Government received from the Governments of the U.S.A., the U.K. and France Notes in reply to its Notes of January 19 to these Governments. These Notes do not contain a reply to the specific proposals of the Soviet Union concerning the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany and the convocation for this purpose of a peace conference of states which took part in the war against Germany, and concerning the normalization of the situation in Berlin. The Governments of the U.S.A., the U.K. and France would substitute for the solution of these problems, which are of cardinal importance for the consolidation of peace in Europe and for the future of the German nation, discussions about the desirability of a study by the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the four powers "of the German problem in all its aspects" and for their part do not advance any suggestions on the substance of the problem.

On March 2 the Soviet Government sent new Notes to the Governments of the U.S.A., the U.K. and France. It drew the attention of the governments of the Western powers to the fact that the very presentation of the German question in their Notes of February 16 indicates their unwillingness to take into consideration both the actual situations existing in Germany and the demands of common sense. Whereas, fourteen years ago Germany, though divided into zones, was a country with a single social structure, today two German states exist and are developing in different directions. If the governments of the Western powers in fact strive for a solution of the German problem on a realistic basis, they cannot close their eyes to this fact; the more so since they took the initiative by setting up the West German state. Having set a course towards the dismemberment of Germany from the very beginning of the occupation, the U.S.A., the U.K. and France at the same time prepared the rearmament of the West German state they had created. They then cast aside the Potsdam Agreement which was key-noted by the idea of eradicating German militarism, an idea which the peoples of Europe had arrived at through untold sacrifices and privation. Subsequent events showed that their main concern was to draw Western Germany into their military alignment. The participation of the Federal Republic of Germany in NATO enabled them openly to set about creating the Bundeswehr and demanding its arming with nuclear missile weapons. It is a result of the policy of rearming and encouraging the militaristic forces in Western Germany that the European peoples have to live again in an atmosphere of anxiety and alarm.

For its future, the other independent German state, the German Democratic Republic, has chosen for itself the road of peace and social progress. Here there is no room for the revival of militarism or for a policy of aggression and revenge. The Government of the German Democratic Republic has renounced compulsory military service and the creation of a mass army. The contrast and division between the two German states is also accentuated by the fact that they belong to counterposed military-political alignments of powers and are bound by definite commitments arising from affiliation to these alignments.

Thus Germany's post-war development brought to the fore problems quite different from those which confronted the four powers in the first years after the defeat of Hitler Germany. The Western powers suggest that the German problem be discussed in all its aspects but at the same time they themselves have destroyed the basis for such a discussion. There is no trace of a joint four-power policy towards Germany. No one for instance can hold the U.S.S.R. responsible for the fact that the Federal Republic of Germany has adopted a militaristic road of development. It is commonly known that the U.S.S.R. repeatedly warned the Western powers of the danger to the peace and to Germany's unity inherent in such a road of development of Western Germany. On the other hand, hardly anyone would credit the Western powers for the fact that peace-loving democratic forces have triumphed and gained strength in the German Democratic Republic today.

It is still possible to restore the co-operation of the four powers on the important problems connected with Germany. Such possibility is offered by the signing of a German peace treaty. Under a peace treaty the German Democratic Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany would assume like obligations which would preclude the possibility of a revival of German militarism and this would assure conditions for the peaceful development of both German states and relieve the European nations from the depressing danger of war. The Soviet Government's proposal for the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany has by now received the full approval of nine states who participated with their armed forces in the war against Hitler Germany. The population of these countries numbers nearly one thousand million. At the same time, this proposal has met with support and approval of broad sections of public opinion in many other countries. Are these not convincing facts in favour of signing a peace treaty with Germany in the early future?

As to the problem of Germany's reunification, the Soviet Government clearly and definitely stated in its reply that it considers impossible and impermissible, interference in the affairs of the two German states and their substitution by anyone in solving the reunification problem. This problem can and must be solved by the Germans themselves. The only thing the four powers could do in that direction without infringing upon the sovereignty of the German Democratic Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany is to facilitate the removal of the present estrangement in the relations between the two German states and promote a rapprochement and understanding between them. For the purpose of easing the task of reunifying Germany, the Soviet Government has expressed readiness to exert such an influence, having among other things supported the proposal of the G.D.R. Government for the establishment of a German Confederation.

It would be natural to expect that the Western powers, which declare their adherence to the cause of Germany's reunification, would display a constructive approach to this proposal. Yet so far, no such approach has been displayed. The Soviet Government would also like to emphasize that it is its firm conviction that the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany and the normalization of the situation in Berlin in the present conditions would of themselves prove to be the best means of bringing nearer the solution of the reunification problem, in accordance with the national aspirations of the Germans and with interests of peace and security of other peoples. In the opinion of the Soviet Government, a peace treaty, provided there is

a genuine striving for it on the part of the countries concerned, can be concluded with both German states, since they alone can now speak for Germany which signed the act of surrender. A peace treaty should be adopted to record this existing state of affairs. One must be living under illusions if one counts on changing the social system of either of these states by means of interference from without. Is it not clear that any attempt at using violence against the G.D.R. or the F.G.R. would lead to a clash between the two opposing military groupings of which they are members and would visit upon mankind a new war with immeasurably graver consequences than those of any of the previous wars?

The conclusion of a German peace treaty would also mean the settlement of the Berlin question. The Soviet Government has more than once drawn the attention of the governments of the Western powers to the fact that the situation in Berlin is abnormal and that it represents a grave source of international tension, particularly with respect to the relations between the nations of Europe. The Soviet Government wants this question to be settled on a basis acceptable to all the parties concerned with a view to safe-guarding the peace and security of the peoples of Europe. It is for this reason that it has proposed the conversion of Western Berlin into a demilitarized free city, whose independence and all the necessary business, cultural and other contacts with the countries of the West and East would be guaranteed, with reliable international safeguards, with the participation of the great powers and also of the United Nations.

This being so, how should one interpret the threats being made in the West to use tanks and aircraft for a breakthrough to Berlin, when the G.D.R., as a sovereign state, which will have signed a peace treaty, becomes the full master of the lines of communication between West Berlin and the F.R.G. If there should really be an intention of resorting to force of arms behind these threats anyone who would venture to do so would have to shoulder the heavy responsibility before mankind of starting a new war.

It is the profound conviction of the Soviet Government that it is now more necessary than ever before to take urgent effective measures to prevent a dangerous turn of events. It therefore turns again to its proposal for a meeting of statesmen at the highest level. Talks by foreign ministers now proposed by the Governments of the U.S.A., the U.K. and France would be a long road. If the heads of government have not yet firmly decided to base relations between states on co-operation and not to allow anything that would aggravate these relations, how can other representatives of the states concerned take decisions that would ensure a radical improvement in the relations between states? The very fact of a meeting of the heads of government in the present tense situation would unquestionably help to improve the entire international climate. There is hardly a need to speak of how truly historically important would be a decision by the heads of government taking part in the meeting that henceforth they would exert efforts towards the settlement of all international problems in the interests of peace on the basis of the principles of peaceful co-existence, and would not do anything to hamper the attainment of these noble goals.

It goes without saying that the heads of government could consider a wider range of questions than suggested by the governments of the Western powers for the foreign ministers' meeting. This applies particularly to questions which, while remaining unsettled, are fraught with a threat to the security of peoples and to world peace. The Soviet Government proceeds from the assumption that the heads of government will discuss Soviet proposals for the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany and for joint measures to eliminate the abnormal situation created by the foreign occupation of West Berlin. The decisions on the peace treaty agreed upon at this meeting should naturally be submitted to a peace conference, as was suggested by the U.S.S.R. Moreover, the meeting of the heads of government could also discuss questions concerning the maintenance of European security and disarmament, such as the reciprocal withdrawal of troops and the establishment of an atom-free

zone, and of a zone of disengagement between the armed forces of the Warsaw Treaty and NATO organizations, the reduction of the armed forces of the U.S.S.R., the U.S.A., the U.K. and France on the territories of other states, the prohibition of atomic and hydrogen weapons and cessation of their tests, etc.

The Soviet Government holds that for the work of preparing a peace treaty with Germany and settling the issues connected with the problems of ensuring European security to be successful, an active part in it should be taken by representatives of the countries which were attacked by Nazi Germany. In view of this, the Soviet Government deems it necessary for the meeting to be attended, in addition to the four powers, by such interested countries as Poland and Czechoslovakia, these being states which border on Germany and which were the first victims of Nazi aggression. As for the participation in the meeting of the G.D.R. and the F.R.G., the Soviet Government considers that both the G.D.R. and the F.R.G. should be represented at the summit meeting during the discussion of the questions of a peace treaty with Germany, and West Berlin.

Voices against a summit meeting are frequently heard in the West alleging that there is no guarantee that it will not fail. Naturally if some participants from the very outset have no desire to contribute to agreement at such a meeting, it really may fail. But in such a case any meeting at whatever level would be inevitably doomed to failure. To ensure the success of a meeting at the summit, it is necessary for all its participants to be guided by a sincere desire of reaching an agreement and to realize that in order to ensure a lasting peace among the peoples, it is necessary to renounce the attempts of achieving some unilateral advantages at the talks. The Soviet Government is of the opinion that a meeting at the highest level would be most likely to succeed. At the present time statesmen of great authority possessing the greatest powers and experience, such as the heads of government, should use their influence to give a new trend to the development of international relations. Having reached agreement on the pressing international issues, the heads of government could then instruct their foreign ministers to work out further measures for the realization of the joint decisions they had taken.

If the governments of the Western powers are not yet prepared to take part in a meeting at the summit, the Soviet Government considers that a meeting of the Foreign Ministers of the U.S.S.R., the U.S.A., the U.K., France, Poland and Czechoslovakia could be called to discuss the questions of a peace treaty with Germany and West Berlin. The Soviet Government hereby announces its consent to the proposal of the Governments of the U.S.A., the U.K. and France that both German states, the G.D.R. and the F.R.G., should be represented at this meeting. Whereas both these concrete questions have long been ripe for solution, the Soviet Government considers it expedient to set a time limit of no more than two to three months for the work of a foreign ministers' meeting. The Soviet Government proposes that this meeting of heads of government be called in April of this year in Vienna or Geneva, if this is agreeable to other participants in the meeting, and of course if the Governments of Austria or Switzerland are ready to extend hospitality to the participants in such a meeting. If the governments of the Western powers are not ready for a meeting of heads of government, then the Soviet Government proposes that a meeting of foreign ministers should be convened at the above-stated time, at the above-stated place, and in the above-stated composition. The Soviet Government expresses the hope that its proposals set out in this Note will receive the understanding and support of the Canadian Government.

Canadian Note to the U.S.S.R., April 24, 1959

The Government of Canada hereby acknowledges the Note of the Soviet Government of March 2, in which reference is made to the Canadian Government's Note of February 17 and to earlier communications devoted to questions relating to Germany, including a peace treaty with Germany and the question of Berlin.

Since these exchanges took place, Notes have been transmitted to the Soviet Union by the U.S.A., U.K., and France, under date of March 26, confirming the willingness of these Governments to commence negotiations on May 11 in Geneva at the level of foreign ministers. The proposals put forth by these Western powers and accepted by the Soviet Government in its Notes of March 30 have the support of the Canadian Government.

The Canadian Government does not therefore consider it would be of value to comment in detail on the matters raised in the Soviet Note of March 2. The Canadian Government expresses the hope, however, that the Soviet Government will treat the coming negotiations as a real opportunity to achieve a lessening of international tension and to settle some of the more pressing problems on a basis that takes into account the legitimate interests of all concerned.



CANADA'S FIRST INTERNATIONAL HOUSE

Early in March Canada's first International House was opened at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C., as a centre for Canadian and foreign students. The House comprises a lounge, a library, a games room and executive offices. There is also a stage in the building for concerts and other entertainments. The objective of the Association is to add a residence unit to accommodate from 200 to 300 graduate students. At present the International House Club has a membership of 375 students, half of whom are Canadian. Under the constitution of the parent body, 50 per cent of the membership must come from the country in which the House is located.

APPOINTMENTS, TRANSFERS AND RETIREMENTS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

Mr. P. E. Renaud, Canadian Ambassador to Chile, retired from the Canadian Diplomatic Service on January 31, 1959.

Mr. R. M. Middleton posted from the Canadian Embassy, Djakarta to Ottawa. Left Djakarta April 4, 1959.

Mr. J. G. Harris posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Canberra to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Colombo. Left Canberra April 17, 1959.

Mr. E. W. T. Gill, Canadian High Commissioner in Accra, appointed Assistant Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs. Left Accra April 26, 1959.

Mr. T. A. Stone, former Canadian Ambassador to the Netherlands, resigned from the Canadian Diplomatic Service on April 30, 1959.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

Korea

Utilities claims settlement agreement between the Government of the United States of America as unified command and on its own behalf and on behalf of certain other Governments and the Government of Korea.

Signed at Seoul December 18, 1958.

Deemed to have entered into operation and effect on July 1, 1957.

United States of America

Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning the application of tolls on the St. Lawrence Seaway.

Signed at Ottawa March 9, 1959.

Entered into force March 9, 1959.

Exchange of Notes to amend the Agreement of June 4, 1949 for air services between the two countries.

Signed at Ottawa April 9, 1959.

Entered into force April 9, 1959.

Exchange of Notes concerning the construction and equipment required for the augmentation of communications facilities at Cape Dyer, Baffin Island (DEW EAST).

Signed at Ottawa April 13, 1959.

Entered into force April 13, 1959.

Multilateral

International Wheat Agreement, 1959.

Signed by Canada April 22, 1959.

Fourth Protocol of Rectifications and Modifications to the Annexes and to the Texts of the Schedules to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Done at Geneva March 7, 1955.

Signed by Canada June 6, 1955.

Entered into force January 23, 1959.

Publication

Canada Treaty Series 1954 No. 13. Agreement regarding the Status of the United Nations Forces in Japan. Signed by Canada February 19, 1954. Instrument of acceptance of Canada deposited June 1, 1954.

Canada Treaty Series 1957 No. 30. Convention between Canada and the Kingdom of the Netherlands for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion with respect to taxes on income. Signed at Ottawa April 2, 1957. Instruments of ratification exchanged at The Hague December 19, 1957. In force December 19, 1957.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 21. Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland amending the Agreement of August 19, 1949 for air services between and beyond their respective territories. Signed at Ottawa August 18, 1958. In force August 18, 1958.

CURRENT UNITED NATIONS DOCUMENTS*

A Selected List

a) Printed Documents:

Reports of Judgements: Advisory Opinions & Orders: 211 p. Sales No. 161, no price.

Organization of Occupational Health Services in Places of Employment: (ILO CONF. Geneva, 1959) Report IV (2), 57 p. \$0.40.

Conditions of Work of Fishermen: (ILO CONF. Geneva, 1959). 41 p. \$0.25 Report V (2).

Protection of Workers against Radiation: (ILO CONF. Geneva, 1959) 131 p. \$1.00, Report VI (2).

International Standard Classification of Occupations: \$3.50, 236 p. Geneva 1958.

Africa Labour Survey: \$5.00, 694 p. Geneva 1958.

Commodity Survey 1958: \$2.00, 183 p. N.Y. 1959.

Method for the Survey of Working Techniques in Forest Operations: Geneva, July 1957, \$1.25, 244 p. FAO.

International Labour Conf.: "Protection of Workers against Radiation": 43rd Session, Geneva 1959, \$1.00, 131 p.

Economic Development & Planning in Asia & The Far East Industrialization: 95 p. \$2.50. Economic Bulletin for ECAFE, Vol. IX, No. 3, Dec. 1958.

United Nations Visiting Mission to Trust Territories in East Africa: 1957, Report on Tanganyika together with related documents: Official records, Trusteeship Council: Supp. No. 2, N.Y. 1958. 21st Session.

*Printed documents of the United Nations may be obtained in Canada at the following address: Agents: The Ryerson Press, 299 Queen Street, W., Toronto; Sub-Agents: Book Room Ltd., Chronicle Building, Halifax; McGill University Bookstore, Montreal; Magasin des Etudiants de l'Université de Montréal, Montréal; University of Manitoba Bookstore, Winnipeg; University of Toronto Press and Bookstore, Toronto; University of British Columbia Bookstore, Vancouver.

Mimeographed United Nations documents are available to the general public by annual subscription from the United Nations Secretariat, New York; and to university staffs and students, teachers, libraries and non-governmental organizations from the United Nations Department of Public Information, New York.

For more complete information see "External Affairs" for April-May 1958, page 117.

United Nations Visiting Mission to Trust Territories in East Africa: 1957, Report on Somaliland under Italian Administration Trusteeship Council: Official Records 22nd Session (9 June — 1 Aug. 1958). Supp. No. 2, N.Y. 1958.

Teaching Human Rights—A handbook for teachers, 48 p. 25 cents.

International Social Science Journal. Social aspects of mental health. 147 p. \$2.00 published quarterly. Vol. XI, No. 1, 1959.

Multilingual Demographic Dictionary. English Section. 77 p. 50 cents. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, N.Y. 1958.

Vacations Abroad. Vol. XI, 1959. Courses, Study Tours, Work Camps. UNESCO \$1.25, 169 p.

Education Abstracts. Adult education and leisure-time activities in Czechoslovakia. UNESCO. March 1959. — Vol. XI — No. 3. Annual subscription \$1.50. 14 p.

Economic Commission for Africa. Report of the first session. 29 Dec. 1958 — 6 Jan. 1959. ECOSOC Supplement No. 10, N.Y. E/3201 & E/CN, 14/18. 25 cents. 22 p.

Second United Nations Regional Cartographic Conference for Asia and the Far East. 20 October—1 November 1958, Tokyo, Japan. Vol. I — Report of the Conference. United Nations, N.Y. 17 p. 25 cents.

Quarterly Bulletin of Steel Statistics for Europe. Vol. IX, No. 3, Geneva, 1958. Price \$1.00, 96 p. prepared by the secretariat of the Economic Commission for Europe.

Timber Bulletin for Europe. United Nations. Production, Trade and Price Statistics. January-September, 1957 and 1958. Market Review to 30 November 1958. Vol. XI, No. 3. 72 p. \$1.00 Geneva, January 1959.

Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe. United Nations, 1957. Geneva, 1958. 46 p. 40 cents. Economic Commission for Europe.

International Survey of Programmes of Social Development. United Nations, N.Y. 1959. E/CN.5/332 & ST/SOA/39. Price \$2.00 — 189 p.

Economic Survey of Europe in 1958. United Nations, Geneva 1959. E/ECE/345, \$2.50. Pages numbered by chapters, prepared by the Research and Planning Division, Economic Commission for Europe.

Population and Vital Statistics Report. Data available as of 1 January 1959. United Nations, N.Y. Statistical Papers Series A, Vol. XI, No. 1. ST/STAT/SERA/48. 27 p. price annual subscription (four issues) \$1.00.

Commodity Trade Statistics. January-June 1958, United Nations, N.Y. Statistical Papers Series D, Vol. VIII, No. 2, price per copy \$1.00. Annual subscription \$4.00. 427 p.

Retail Price Comparisons for International Salary Determination. United Nations, N.Y. Statistical Papers Series M, No. 14 AAD. 2, price 30 cents, 35 p. Statistical Office of the United Nations, N.Y. 1959.

Direction of International Trade. Monthly issue February 1959. Joint Publication United Nations (Statistical Office), International Monetary Fund & International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Annual Subscription \$5.00 ST/STAT/SER.T/102, 87 p. price per copy 50 cents.

Direction of International Trade. Monthly issue March 1959. Same as above. ST/STAT/SER.T/103.

Special Study on Social Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories. Analyses of information transmitted to the Secretary-General (1957-1958) N.Y. 1958. ST/TRI/SER.A/14. Price \$2.50 — 239 p.

Economic Characteristics of International Migrants: Statistics for Selected Countries, 1918-1954. Printed in Belgium Dec. 1958. Price 50 cents. Population Series No. 12. Department of Economic and Social Affairs, U.N. 314 p.

The Agricultural Trade of the U.S.S.R. and other Countries of Eastern Europe 1953-1957. Statistical Review. Economic Commission for Europe (ECE/FAO Agriculture Division). Agric/150. 78 p. 80 cents.

Monthly Bulletin of Statistics. Statistical Office of the United Nations April 1959. Special features in this issue: — "Private consumption expenditure (Table)". "Index numbers of wholesale prices of building materials (Table)". "Index numbers of cost of residential building materials (Table)."

Statistical Yearbook, 1958. 10th issue. Statistical Office of the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (English & French) Clothbound \$3.00; Paperbound \$6.50, 612 p.

ICAO

Legal Committee — Eleventh Session Tokyo, 12-25 September 1957.

Volume I — Minutes, Doc 7921-LC/143-1, 150 pp. \$2.00;

Volume II — Documents, Doc 7921-LC/143-2, 245 pp. \$2.50.

Annex 14 — Aerodromes Third Editions (incorporating Amendments 1-13), September 1958, 93 pp. \$1.50.

Manual of Teletypewriter Operating Practices, Doc 7946-AN/868, 62 pp., 75 cents.

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CANADA

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS



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Assumes External Affairs Portfolio

PRIME MINISTER DIEFENBAKER announced in the House of Commons on June 4 that Mr. Howard Green had been sworn in that day as Secretary of State for External Affairs, succeeding the late Mr. Sidney E. Smith. Mr. Green will continue as Minister of Public Works for the present.



MR. HOWARD C. GREEN

The new Secretary of State for External Affairs.

Mr. Green was born in Kaslo, British Columbia, in November 1895. He graduated from the University of Toronto with a Bachelor of Arts degree in 1915.

The new Secretary of State for External Affairs served overseas with the Canadian Army in the First World War, was mentioned in despatches and returned to Canada with the rank of Captain. He resumed his studies and graduated in law from Osgoode Hall, Toronto. In 1922 he was called to the Bar of British Columbia, and has practised law in Vancouver, B.C., ever since.

Mr. Green has been a Member of Parliament continuously for the past twenty-four years. He was first elected to represent Vancouver South in 1935 and he was re-elected in 1940 and 1945. Between the federal elections of 1945 and 1949, a redistribution of electoral districts resulted in an increase in the number of Vancouver seats. The bulk of the Vancouver South constituency became Vancouver Quadra, where Mr. Green was the successful candidate in 1949 and in each subsequent election.

Mr. Green was sworn into the Privy Council and appointed Minister of Public Works and Acting Minister of Defence Production in June 1957, holding the latter post until May 1958. For the last three sessions he has been House Leader for the Government.

Canada and Outer Space

Notes of a speech by the Prime Minister of Canada, Mr. J. G. Diefenbaker, at the Royal Military College, Kingston, Ontario, on May 15, 1959.

The world stands on the threshold of the space age. It is proper that one should ask today: "Where does Canada stand in the quest for knowledge of the uncharted wonders that lie beyond?" "What are Canada's potentialities?" "What can Canada achieve in collaboration with others?" "What practical benefits can accrue to Canadians and to mankind as these new regions and scientific knowledge are explored"? These are questions about which it is possible to speak, if not with certainty, at least on the basis of evidence which is accumulating every day.

It seems appropriate that on this occasion I share with you some thoughts and speculations about the future with special attention to the realm of outer space and the ways in which it may be utilized for the betterment of man. As students at a military college, you have undoubtedly been aware of the new and exciting developments in science which have taken place in recent years. Your training and your curriculum have been adapted to meet the changes brought about by the march of science and engineering. It is the hope of your instructors that your minds have also been adapted to meet the changes which are being brought about by the almost incredible technological developments of the world in which we live.

On another occasion over a year ago, I stated that the exploration of space, whether by manned or unmanned instruments, had military potentialities as well as civilian benefits. The promotion and establishment of the rule of law is now necessary and outer space should belong to the world as a whole. Jurisdiction should be vested in the United Nations to assure that it will be used for scientific and peaceful purposes only. All nations, great or small, should have equal territorial rights, and the launching of all space missiles should be preceded by notification that the benefits accruing will be available to all mankind.

On May 6, the community of nations took another step forward into the space age. On that date there was convened at United Nations Headquarters in New York the Ad Hoc Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space. This Committee, of which Canada has been appointed a member, was established by the United Nations as the means for planning international co-operation in research in the space sciences and the exploration of space.

Manifestly the rewards of genuine international co-operation will be great. It is no less clear that the penalties of international rivalry will be grave.

In the absence of the Soviet Union from the United Nations conference table, I express also the Government's profound hope that the Soviet Union will at a later date enter into discussions on this matter within the United Nations. Apart perhaps from disarmament, there is no field in which universal co-operation of the major industrial nations is so important.

Canada, as a member of the United Nations Committee, will put forth every endeavour to ensure that a suitable basis for future international co-operation is developed.



Prime Minister Diefenbaker receiving the Honorary Degree of Doctor of Laws at the graduation exercises of the Royal Military College, Kingston, Ontario, on May 15, 1959.

Canada's Contribution

Because of Canada's geographical relationship to the magnetic pole, there are conditions of special interest in the upper atmosphere over this country which have been the subject of active research for many years. Canada can make a significant contribution. For the past 12 years there has been a major Canadian programme investigating the ionosphere, the aurora, meteors, cosmic and solar radiations and the geomagnetic fields.

Since the development of high altitude rockets and artificial earth satellites, the governmental scientific agencies have initiated an expanded programme of instrumentation and research. Canadian scientists have assisted in tracking satellites and have supplied information on their trajectories to the Soviet Union, as well as to the United States. A group of chemists at McGill University have co-operated with United States' scientists in sending chemical materials up in rockets to investigate the composition of the upper atmosphere. To facilitate the tracking of high altitude vehicles at extreme ranges, a very powerful radar is being installed in Saskatchewan.

During the International Geophysical Year, which ran from mid-1957 to the end of 1958, Canada was host to the United States IGY rocket programme at Fort Churchill. Various Canadian agencies assisted the United States rocket team. As part of the programme, two rockets carrying instruments prepared by the Canadian Armaments Research and Development Establishment were fired in November 1958.

Plans exist to fire during the present year additional United States rockets with instruments provided by Canadian agencies.

Meantime, a high altitude rocket of Canadian design is under development and it is likely to be a highly efficient research instrument. Further in the future in planning is the instrumentation of a satellite by Canadian agencies for experiments conceived by Canadian scientists, and preliminary arrangements have been made with the United States National Aeronautical and Space Administration to launch such a Canadian satellite in 1961.

Earlier this week, Prime Minister Macmillan sketched some of the intentions of the United Kingdom in the satellite field and referred to the possibility of joint action within the Commonwealth. So far as the Canadian Government is concerned, we should be glad to undertake the consultations on this question which Prime Minister Macmillan has proposed.

I have dwelt upon the activities of Canadian scientists, both in governmental agencies and in universities, at some length because it is not always recognized that we have in Canada the scientific knowledge, the facilities and the experience to participate in the exploration of space. A few years ago some of the recent experiments could not even be contemplated — much less those which now are becoming possible. I believe that Canada should maintain its status as a scientifically advanced nation and continue a sound programme of research into the phenomena of outer space.

Space Research Committee

In this connection I wish to announce that the President of the National Research Council and the Chairman of the Defence Research Board are in the process of establishing a Permanent Joint Committee on Space Research, on which other governmental agencies concerned with these matters and a number of interested universities will have representatives. One of the purposes of the Committee will be to ensure that university research teams have the opportunity to work in this field.

Science is increasingly becoming an important concern of governments. Some programmes, such as comprehensive atomic energy programmes, are too costly for university and industrial laboratories alone. As well, the dynamic interaction of science and technology requires governments to have sound scientific advice so that they may plan wisely for future economic and industrial development. I have little doubt that the investment Canada has made in its atomic energy programme will be repaid many times over in the next few years. The returns on investments in space research are less easy to forecast.

These programmes are fantastically costly, and the annual expenditures in the United States on scientific research, technological development, instruments, guidance and tracking systems, fuels and a host of other intricate and specialized items of the space cost in the billions of dollars.

Benefits from Satellites

What are the potentially assured results? Perhaps the first practical benefit will be a great improvement in our knowledge of weather and the techniques of forecasting. There are indications that a fairly modest system of meteorological satellites would provide increased warning of major storms, which could annually diminish property damage by millions.

There are possibilities in the field of navigation also, especially all-weather navigation. Satellites may in time help to ease the growing problem of traffic in communications. We may even hope that by the use of space satellites, a solution may be found to the problems of international inspection under a disarmament agreement.

The scientists of the world are probing further into the secrets of nature. The engineers have provided them with the tools which enable studies of the cosmos to be made, which only a few years ago could have been no more than a dream. Not only will it shortly be possible to view the universe without the distortions caused by the earth's atmosphere; it already is possible to study the fundamental particles of the cosmic and solar radiations before they are affected by our atmosphere.

He would be a bold man who would venture to forecast what might be the practical applications of the extensions of fundamental knowledge which research into space is bringing. One thing, however, can be said and that is that interest in the phenomena of space is universal. It is unthinkable that knowledge of the cosmos should be concealed or exploited for narrow nationalistic reasons. We must strive, therefore, for the development of effective co-operation between governments and nations in the exploration of space. We have before us the inspiring tradition of the scientific fraternity which has consistently recognized that co-operation between the scientists of different nations is an imperative necessity.



External Affairs in Parliament

Canadian — U.S. Atomic Energy Agreement

An agreement was signed on May 22 in Washington between the Canadian and United States Governments, providing for co-operation between the two countries on the uses of atomic energy for mutual defence purposes.

As the Prime Minister said when he made the announcement in the House, this agreement will enable Canada to take advantage of the amendments made last year to the United States Atomic Energy Act and will, therefore, continue and extend the degree to which co-operation in this field has been carried out under the Agreement for Co-operation Regarding Atomic Information for Mutual Defence Purposes, signed in Washington on June 15, 1955, and the amendment to the civil agreement (of June 15, 1955), signed on June 26, 1956.

Mr. Diefenbaker went on to say:

Under the terms of the United States act, as Members of the House know, agreements for co-operation on the uses of atomic energy for mutual defence purposes must lie on the table of the Joint Committee on Atomic Energy of the United States Congress for a period of 60 days after signature. It is expected, therefore, that this agreement will come into effect in approximately that period of time.

It might be helpful if I were to draw the attention of the House to the main features of this agreement, and in that connection I will use the language of the agreement. It will permit the exchange of information necessary to the development of defence plans; the training of personnel in the employment of and defence against atomic weapons and other military applications of atomic energy; the evaluation of the capabilities of potential enemies in the employment of atomic weapons; the development of delivery systems compatible with the atomic weapons which they carry; research, development and design of military reactors to the extent and by such means as may be agreed.

Provision is made for the transfer to Canada, under mutually agreeable conditions, of such non-nuclear parts of atomic weapons systems involving restricted data as are jointly determined to be necessary to improve the state of training of Canada's armed forces and the operational readiness of those forces. Finally, the way will be opened for the transfer at some future time to Canada of military reactors and any special nuclear materials required for them. Because of the sensitive nature of the information and materials which will be exchanged and transferred under this agreement, certain appropriate safeguard provisions have been included.

I feel certain that the co-operation which will be carried out under this agreement will be of substantial benefit to Canada, not only in the training of our armed forces, in the development of defence plans and in the improvement in our military state of readiness and our equipment, but also in enabling Canada's armed forces better to play their part in the defence of North America and the free world.

I trust this agreement will be carried out in the same spirit which has marked the harmonious relations which have always existed between Canada and the United States on atomic energy matters.

The Late John Foster Dulles

A tribute to the late John Foster Dulles, former Secretary of State of the United States, was paid in the House of Commons on May 25 by Prime Minister Diefenbaker, and by the Leaders of the Liberal and C.C.F. Parties.

Mr. Diefenbaker read the following message which he had sent to President Eisenhower on behalf of the Government and people of Canada:

May I express the deep sympathy of the Government and people of Canada on the death of the Honourable John Foster Dulles.

In his passing, the American people have lost one of the outstanding figures of our time, one whose years of devoted service as Secretary of State crowned a long and distinguished career in many spheres of private and public endeavour. The world has lost at a critical time a great and steadfast personality, ever vigilant in the defence of freedom.

To Canadians, he was more than a renowned world statesman; he was a friendly neighbour who regularly turned to his island home in Canada for rest and inspiration.

Our thoughts are with you and the people of the United States as you mourn the loss of one whose counsel was of such distinction and whose labours were so unstintingly given. His refusal to spare himself even when in the grip of a fatal illness will stand for years to come as an example of personal courage and public dedication.

Please extend to Mrs. Dulles and the family the expression of Canada's sorrow at his passing.

The Prime Minister said he knew that the House and all Canadians joined him in paying tribute to Mr. Dulles' memory. He added that at the funeral in Washington on May 27, the Government and people of Canada would be represented by the Minister of Finance, Mr. Donald Fleming.

Mr. Pearson, the Leader of the Liberal Party, associated his Party with what the Prime Minister had said. He read a few paragraphs from a statement which he had given to the press, excerpts from which follow:

History will evaluate the contribution he made to the solution of international problems. But we do not need to wait for history to tell us that this contribution was a powerful, at times a decisive one, and one that had the highest purposes behind it. His illness, and now his death, has left a vacuum in the direction of the foreign policy of his country, and indeed of the Western coalition, which will not easily be filled . . .

The free democracies have lost a great champion, whose like we shall not see again.

Mr. Hazen Argue, the Leader of the C.C.F. Party in the House, expressed the sympathy of his Party to President Eisenhower and to members of the Dulles family.

Regional Training Centre for UN Fellows

A REGIONAL centre for the training of United Nations fellows began operations this month at the University of British Columbia in Vancouver. The establishment of this new centre, the first of its kind to be set up under United Nations auspices, reflects the need for closer co-operation between the Specialized Agencies of the UN and suitable academic institutions in the operation of programmes of technical assistance. The centre is designed to supplement the technical assistance training which is being given on the Pacific Coast in the fields of economic development, public administration and social welfare, by providing candidates with an increased measure of direction and personal guidance.

Under a three-way agreement on the operation of the Centre, the United Nations will supply fellowships for the trainees and will provide a director and an administrative officer. The University of British Columbia will provide instruction and guidance for the trainees and office space for the Centre. The Canadian Government, subject to parliamentary approval, has offered a special annual grant of \$10,000 to the United Nations for the Centre in each of the three fiscal years beginning in 1959-60. In addition, the United States Government has co-operated by making the facilities of its agencies in the north-western states available to the trainees for study and observation.

The basic idea of the Centre, with respect to training programmes, is that there should be a direct and continuous relationship between the visiting trainees and the officers of the Centre, who will be working in close co-operation with the faculty of the University. As a result of this relationship it is hoped that the programmes for training in academic, governmental, business or professional fields in British Columbia, in other parts of Western Canada, and in the western United States, may acquire greater flexibility and be better adapted to the need of individual trainees.

Wherever appropriate, the regular placement and supervisory work of the Centre will be supplemented by the organization of seminars, training institutes or special courses in fields in which particular needs may exist. These will be in addition to the regular and continuing courses and programmes available in the universities and in the other training facilities of the region.

The Centre will also assist the Technical Assistance Recruitment Services of the United Nations in finding experts required by member countries. This assistance will be rendered, at their request, to the Specialized Agencies of the United Nations and to the Canadian and United States agencies responsible for the administration of technical assistance programmes.

The choice by the United Nations of the Pacific Coast region of Canada and the United States for setting up this new Training Centre was influenced by the remarkable expansion of population and of economic development which have taken place during the past fifty years in that area. In addition to the academic training facilities available at the University of British Columbia, governmental and business operations in the region and its vast natural resources of land, forest, wild life, minerals, water and energy will be of direct interest to trainees in the fields of resource development, regional planning, multi-purpose schemes and development corporations.

If the University of British Columbia Regional Training Centre proves to be a useful instrument in carrying forward the objectives of technical assistance, the United Nations may consider the extension of this new concept to other areas.

Presentation to West Indies Federal Legislature

THE West Indies Federation was officially established by Order-in-Council of the United Kingdom Parliament on January 3, 1958. Three months later, on April 22, the Federal Legislature was inaugurated by HRH Princess Margaret, thus bringing into being the second federation with a parliamentary system of government in the Western Hemisphere.

The inauguration ceremonies were attended by three members of the Government of Canada: Mrs Ellen Fairclough, Minister of Citizenship and Immigration, Mr. Gordon Churchill, Minister of Trade and Commerce and the late Mr. Sidney Smith, Secretary of State for External Affairs. During their visit it was announced that Canada would present some article of parliamentary furniture to the Federal Legislature of The West Indies to mark the occasion of its inauguration. In consultation with The West Indies Government, it was decided that the gift should consist of two clerk's tables, one for the House of Representatives and the other for the Senate.

The woods selected for the two tables were Trinidad apamate and mahogany, respectively. The wood was shipped to Canada from The West Indies and made up in accordance with specifications and designs submitted by the Government of The West Indies. Each table bears a small silver plate which reads:

This table was presented to the House of Representatives (Senate) of The West Indies by the Parliament of Canada to commemorate the opening of the first Parliament of The West Indies on April 22, 1958.

The first table was presented to the House of Representatives on May 11, 1959 by the Commissioner for Canada, Mr. R. G. C. Smith, on the occasion of the reconvening of the Federal Legislature. A similar ceremony was held for the presentation of the second table on May 25, when the Senate was reconvened.

The ceremony on May 11 was held in the Members' Lounge of the House of Representatives at 1.30 P.M., immediately preceding the first sitting of the House. Mr. Smith was introduced to the assembled Members and formally welcomed by the Speaker, the Honourable E. R. L. Ward. In making the presentation, Mr. Smith expressed his pleasure at being able to represent the Government of Canada on this occasion. After paying tribute to the growth of parliamentary government in Britain and its spread to many parts of the world, Mr. Smith went on to point out the many similarities between the problems faced by the new West Indies Federation and those faced by the Canadian Federation in its early years. He concluded by saying:

In sum, I like to think that this visible link between our two Parliaments is a natural one, stemming from our common founder, "the Mother of Parliaments" and inspired by our own historic linkage.

In replying, Sir Grantley Adams, Prime Minister of The West Indies, officially accepted the gift and expressed the gratitude of the House on behalf of its Members. On the floor of the House, immediately afterwards, the Speaker announced the receipt of the gift, and the Prime Minister moved a resolution of thanks to the Parliament of Canada. The motion was seconded by the Leader of the Opposition, Mr. Ashford Sinanan.



WEST INDIES PRESENTATION

Sir Grantley Adams, Prime Minister of The West Indies, accepting on May 11, on behalf of the House of Representatives, the Clerk's table given by the Parliament of Canada to commemorate the inauguration of the first Parliament of The West Indies on April 22, 1958.

In presenting the resolution, Sir Grantley Adams said:

Since the establishment of the Federation we have had much for which to be grateful to the Government and people of Canada. We accept this additional manifestation of that country's goodwill in the spirit in which we know it was offered: a genuine interest in the welfare and progress of the Government and peoples of The West Indies and a firm desire to further cement the bonds of friendship which have linked us for so many years. We, on our part, value most highly those links and will do everything in our power to foster and cement them. We cannot too often say that, without in any way diminishing the ties that bind us to other countries, our geographical relationship, our old associations and to a large extent, our common heritage make continued friendship with Canada an essential policy of the Government of The West Indies. We look forward eagerly to the day, now not too far distant, when we shall take our place with Canada as a full partner at the Councils of the British Commonwealth of Nations and of the world.

In addition to the two tables presented by Canada, The West Indies Legislature contains a number of other gifts. Each of the units which had become a part of the Federation presented some article of parliamentary furniture. These gifts included the chair of the President of the Senate (Barbados), a throne (Jamaica), the Speaker's Chair (Trinidad), a gavel and two pairs of bookends (Antigua), and Hansard Tables for the two Houses

(Dominica and St. Vincent). On December 1, 1958 a parliamentary delegation from the United Kingdom appeared before the House to present the new Legislature with its symbol of authority, the mace.

In announcing the presentation of the tables in the Canadian House of Commons on May 11, the Prime Minister drew attention to the parallels between the Parliaments of the two Commonwealth countries in the Western Hemisphere:

This House too bears evidence on every hand of similar presentations. No doubt most Honourable Members are aware that your chair, Sir, was presented to the Parliament of Canada in 1921 by the United Kingdom Branch of the Empire Parliamentary Association. Incorporated into it were portions of the old oak roof of Westminster Hall which was constructed in 1397. The mace was of course a gift from the United Kingdom presented by the Lord Mayor and sheriffs of London in 1916. So in taking the course we do we but follow an example which has been set on previous occasions.

The gifts which are being presented to the Legislature of The West Indies, like the gifts which repose in this House, serve as tangible reminders of the continuity and the growth in strength of parliamentary government and of the close and cordial relations which exist between the various parts of the Commonwealth. I am sure Honourable Members in all parts of the House will wish to join with me on this occasion in extending our very best wishes to the Federation of The West Indies.

Mr. Diefenbaker was joined in his expression of greetings and goodwill towards the new Federation by the Honourable L. B. Pearson, Leader of the Opposition, and Mr. H. W. Herridge on behalf of the CCF group in the House of Commons.

Canada and the Colombo Plan: The Warsak Project

A LITTLE more than forty per cent of approximately \$232 million allocated by Canada under the Colombo Plan capital assistance programme up to April 1, 1959, has been devoted to electric power and irrigation development. Ceylon has used some twelve per cent of its total capital aid allocation for power and irrigation projects, India twenty-seven per cent and Pakistan sixty-two per cent. In addition, under the technical co-operation programme up to December 31, 1958, a total of forty-five persons from all the countries in South and Southeast Asia had been trained or were receiving training in Canada in the various aspects of hydro-electrical and thermal electrical engineering, and in irrigation.

Canada has taken part in the development of the Gal Oya Hydro-Irrigation Project in Ceylon. Projects in India to which Canada has contributed include the power developed at the "Canada Dam" on the Mayurakshi River in West Bengal, the Kundah Hydro-Electric Power Development in the Nilgiri Hills of Madras, and the Umtru Hydro-Electric Project in Assam. Canada has made the largest contribution in these fields in Pakistan. A power station has been supplied to the Shadiwal Project located north of Lahore, and thermal power plants to the Ganges Kobodak and the Khulna Projects in East Pakistan. The electrical generating and irrigation development at Warsak, which is situated on the Kabul River east of the border between Afghanistan and Pakistan, has been the most important contribution made by Canada to Pakistan under the Colombo Plan. Approximately \$36.6 million has been allocated to this project, which is expected to be completed by the middle of 1960.

The Kabul River rises in Afghanistan about sixty miles north of the capital city, Kabul, which is situated on its banks. It flows eastward to the Jalabad Valley and then to the Pakistan border, where it winds its way mainly eastward to Warsak Head, emerges on to the Peshawar plains, and flows into the Indus River north of the Attock Gorge. The hydro project itself is located two-and-a-half miles upstream from the canal intake at Warsak Head and about nineteen miles north-west of the city of Peshawar. The total drainage area to the project site is approximately 26,000 square miles.

The Warsak Dam will supply electric power to north-west Pakistan and the surrounding districts. The development provides for the installation of four units with a total capacity of 160,000 kilowatts, provision being made for further installations to increase this output as may be required in the future. The available total energy has been estimated at an average of 910 million kilowatt hours each year, which, it is hoped, will materially assist in the growth of developing industrial areas to the south where a power shortage exists, and to which power can be transmitted from Warsak.

Irrigation is an important part of the Warsak Project. A three-and-a-half mile concrete-lined tunnel is being cut through the hills on the south bank of the river, to channel 500 cubic feet of water per second in summer and 350 cubic feet in winter, sufficient to irrigate approximately 100,000 acres of arid flatland in the Peshawar plains. This additional acreage will enable the

north-west area to grow sufficient food to support itself, and will allow the settlement on productive farms of the nomadic Mullagori, Afridi and Mohmand hill tribes to whom the land belongs.

Electrically, the Warsak Project will be tied to the power systems of the north-west area of West Pakistan and of that formerly known as the Punjab. During construction of the dam, the river is being diverted through a concrete-lined diversion tunnel, approximately 1700 feet long, which will be stopped by a permanent concrete plug after completion of the project. The main dam is a concrete gravity overflow structure approximately 700 feet long and rising 220 feet above the lowest level of the river bed. It is surmounted by nine crest gates of the Taintor type, each 40 feet wide by 40 feet high. Immediately below the dam, there is an extensive spilling basin to dissipate the enormous amount of energy contained in the falling flood-flow waters. Just downstream of the dam structure, a power house is located, housing four units but with space for two more in the future, when need for them arises. The power house is of the surface type, with concrete superstructure and no windows, and with the switching structure on the roof. Space is allotted for erection bays, auxiliary mechanical and electrical equipment, control rooms, offices and reception areas.

Canadian firms have designed and constructed the Warsak dam and power house. The generators and electrical equipment have been manufactured in Canada. Engineers and technicians from Pakistan and workers from the immediate area around the site have worked with Canadians on every phase of the project.

From the beginning, the Warsak Project was not an easy one to develop, owing to the site on which it is located. The narrowest part of the river, where the dam had to be built, runs through a deep gorge, and the hills rise sheer up from the river banks which are very steep and on which there is little room for permanent structures and the construction facilities necessary for a major development. This has meant careful planning to make the available space serve without undue hardship to engineers, workers and contractors. In addition, an access road had to be built to the site, and the Pakistani author-



THE WARSAK DAM UNDER CONSTRUCTION

ities also constructed an excellent asphalt-surfaced haulage road from the railway station at Jamrud Fort, which is about twelve miles from the site. The station had been in disuse prior to this project, but possessed very good siding facilities which were needed for the loading of construction and generating equipment and supplies.

As the project site was located in a totally uninhabited area, housing accommodation and other facilities had to be constructed along the dam. Adjacent to the mouth of the gorge where the Kabul River flows into the Peshawar plain, about a mile from the project site, the Warsak Colony has grown up. It accommodates Canadian and Pakistani engineers and contractors' staffs, surveyors, foremen, draftsmen, clerks and labourers. Warehouses, repair shops, stores and other necessary buildings have been constructed, as well as such facilities as a club, mosque, community centre, schools for the staff's children, post and telegraph office, police post and a hospital. A rest house, built by the Pakistani authorities in 1948 before commencement of the project, has been converted to a site field office. Arrangements also had to be made for safe water supply to the colony and for sanitation.

Housing accommodation consists of varying bungalow units adequate to house all classes of personnel connected with the project, and their families. Bachelor quarters are also available for unmarried personnel. Skilled Pakistani workmen are housed in single room quarters in locations adjacent to the dam site, and barracks have been provided for the labourers.

In January 1959 there were 157 Canadians and 10,673 Pakistanis employed in various capacities on the Warsak Project, which is truly a co-operative venture. The Project Manager is a Canadian, and both Pakistani and Canadian engineers and other personnel work closely together. The Pakistani authorities are responsible for their own administrative and financial participation in the project.

One of the most interesting aspects of Warsak, however, is sociological. The area of the project has been inhabited for generations by nomadic tribesmen. The barren hills have never really produced enough to support them adequately, and over the centuries they have been forced to turn to raiding and marauding to survive. History is filled with the story of constant struggle between the tribes, and of raids on the plains. The majority of the unskilled labour employed on the Warsak Project are tribesmen, who have proved themselves capable and intelligent workers. The development of the small industries and farms that can be expected to take place with the coming of electric power and irrigation, will inevitably bring about a radical change in the way of life of the tribes, which may, through higher standards of living and the greater scope that will be offered, enable them to lead fuller and more secure lives, as well as adding to the economic development of Pakistan as a whole.

The Director-General of UNESCO Visits Canada

CANADA was happy to welcome Dr. Vittorino Veronese, the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), for a brief visit on April 22, 23 and 24.

Elected to his present post at the tenth session of the General Conference of UNESCO in November 1958, Dr. Veronese came to Ottawa following his first official meeting in that capacity with the Secretary-General of the United Nations in New York. He was accompanied by Mr. René Maheu, an assistant Director-General of the Organization.

While in Ottawa, Dr. Veronese was received by His Excellency, the Governor-General, and by Prime Minister John G. Diefenbaker. He also met with officials of the Government, the Canada Council and the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO and was the guest of honour at a dinner given by the Government of Canada.

Speaking at a luncheon arranged by the National Commission for UNESCO Dr. Veronese referred briefly to UNESCO'S major tasks in the fields of education, science and culture. He indicated that Canada, because of its close relations with the United States and its membership in the Commonwealth, was in a unique position to understand international problems, and to contribute to the advancement of UNESCO'S purposes. Referring to the rapid and far-reaching changes which are taking place throughout the world as a result of the development of new sources of energy and of automation, he stressed the importance of an urgent re-adaptation of education, close attention to social problems and the development of the cultural values of every country.



Dr. Vittorino Veronese, Director-General of UNESCO, chatting with Prime Minister Diefenbaker during his visit to Ottawa.

Chicago Diversion

THE United States Congress has before it at the present time a number of proposals aimed at authorizing additional diversion of water from Lake Michigan at Chicago. This water is made to flow into the Mississippi drainage basin and hence is irretrievably lost to the Great Lakes system. Since any withdrawals of this sort inevitably affect the water levels and flows in the Great Lakes, Canada has continually objected to any such schemes.

On April 9, 1959, the Canadian Embassy in Washington delivered to the State Department Note No. 184, the text of which appears below:

Sir,

I have the honour on instructions from my Government to refer to proposals for legislation in the United States of America concerning an increase in the diversion of water from Lake Michigan through the Chicago drainage canal. It is noted that one proposal to this effect has been approved by the House of Representatives and will shortly be considered by the Senate. During a period of many years there have been numerous occasions on which the Government of Canada has made representations to the Government of the U.S.A. with respect to proposals concerning the diversion of water from Lake Michigan out of the Great Lakes watershed at Chicago.

Many of these representations have been directed toward particular proposals then under discussion by U.S.A. authorities. Because of the importance of the question, the Government of Canada believes it timely to re-examine the considerations which it regards as most important concerning any proposals for additional diversion of water from the Great Lakes watershed. Accordingly, in order that there may be no misunderstanding as to the views of the Government of Canada, I have been instructed to bring the following considerations to your attention.

Every diversion of water from the Great Lakes watershed at Chicago inevitably decreases the volume of water remaining in the Basin for all purposes. The Government of Canada is opposed to any action which will have the effect of reducing the volume of water in the Great Lakes Basin. Careful inquiry has failed to reveal any sources of water in Canada which could be added to the present supplies of the Basin to compensate for further withdrawals in the U.S.A. The Government of Canada considers that many agreements and understandings between the U.S.A. and Canada would be broken if unilateral action were taken to divert additional water from the Great Lakes watershed at Chicago and directs attention to provisions of two treaties in particular.

(a) *The Boundary Waters Treaty 1909*: The applicability of either Article II Para. 2 or Article III of this Treaty depends upon the interpretation of physical facts.

If Lake Michigan physically flows into the boundary water Lake Huron, Article II preserves to Canada the right to object to such a diversion which would be productive of material injury to the navigation interests in Canadian waters.

If, as has been asserted by eminent U.S.A. jurists, Article III of the Treaty applies, no further diversion shall be made except with the approval of the International Joint Commission.

(b) *Niagara Treaty 1950*: This Treaty allocates water for scenic and power purposes. The amount of water which shall be available for these purposes is the

total outflow from Lake Erie. The specific inclusion of certain added waters in Article III of the Treaty emphasizes the underlying assumption that existing supplies will continue unabated.

In addition to these treaty provisions, there is a further agreement of far-reaching importance. Power development in the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec is predicated upon agreed criteria for regulation of the flows of the St. Lawrence River. The Order of Approval of the International Joint Commission of October 29, 1952, as supplemented on July 2, 1956 and accepted by both our Governments, forms the basis for the construction and operation of the hydro-electric power installations in the International Rapids section of the St. Lawrence River. Criterion (a) of this Order of Approval assumes a continuous diversion out of the Great Basin limited to the present 3100 cubic feet per second at Chicago.

Navigation and commercial interests depend upon the maintenance of the basis upon which channel enlargements have been designed in order that vessels of deep draught may proceed with full load to and from the ports of the Upper Great Lakes. In this connection I would refer to the following matters:

a) *The construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway* — Legislation in the two countries and the several exchanges of notes concerning the construction and operation of the Seaway now just completed are based on the assumption and understanding that there will not be unilateral action repugnant to the purposes of the legislation. Withdrawal of water from the Great Lakes Basin would materially affect the operation of the St. Lawrence Seaway;

b) *Dredging* — By agreement contained in the various exchanges of notes between the two countries, profiles have been prepared for the excavation which has taken place or is about to take place in the International Rapids section of the River, in the Amherstburg Channel and in the St. Clair River. These agreements are based on the implied understanding that material changes would not be made in the volume of water available for navigation;

c) *New Channel* — In an exchange of notes dated February 28, 1959, it has been agreed that a new channel should be constructed to eliminate the so-called Southeast Bend of the St. Clair River. The agreement by the Government of Canada to this proposal was based on the understanding that there would be no artificial interference with the present supplies of water.

Because of the importance attached by the U.S.A. and Canada to the honouring of international undertakings in letter and in spirit, the Government of Canada views with serious concern any possible impairment of agreements and undertakings relating to the Great Lakes Basin. Furthermore, the alarms created by repeated proposals for diversion which inevitably disturb the people and industry of Canada are a source of profound irritation to the relations between our two countries which we can ill afford.

I am instructed, therefore, to express the hope of the Government of Canada that the U.S.A. will view this matter with equal concern and will be able to give satisfactory assurances that unilateral action will not be taken which would imperil the present regime of the waters in the Great Lakes Basin and the status of the agreements and understandings to which I have referred.

Please accept, sir, the renewed assurances of my highest consideration.

A. D. P. Heeney

The Canadian Embassy,
Washington, D.C.

April 9, 1959.

The United Nations Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine

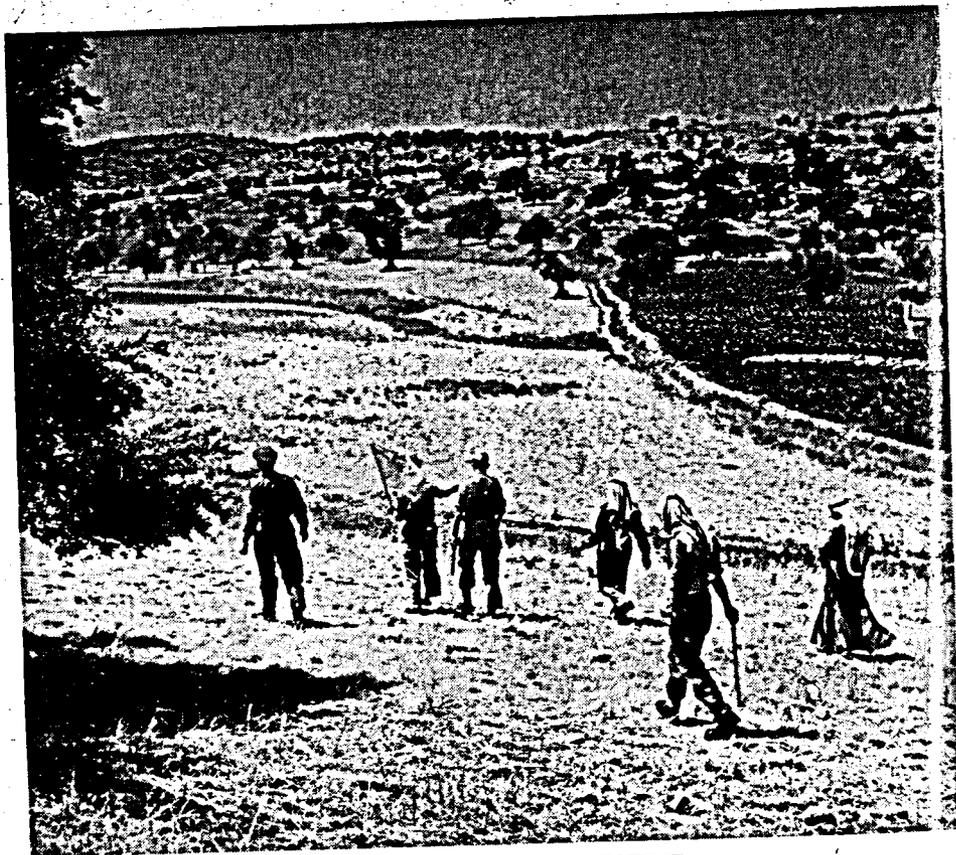
DURING the past decade the stresses of international life have been met to an increasing extent by the formation of United Nations peace supervision agencies. The United Nations Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine represents one of four such operations in which Canada is at present participating. The others are the United Nations Command in Korea (UNCIK), the United Nations Military Observers Group (India and Pakistan) (UNMOGIP) and the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF). Canada was also a principal contributor of personnel to the United Nations Observation Group in Lebanon (UNOGIL), until the improved situation in that country permitted UNOGIL's withdrawal in November 1958. An important commitment of the same nature but outside United Nations auspices is Canada's membership, together with India and Poland, on the International Supervisory Commissions for Indochina.

UNTSO has probably faded somewhat from public view as attention has tended to focus on larger and more recent operations such as UNEF, which has taken over certain of the responsibilities formerly charged to the older organization. Nevertheless, UNTSO continues to play a vital role in preventing widespread hostilities and in providing a neutral meeting ground for disputants in the troubled area of Palestine.

Background

UNTSO is a direct successor to the United Nations "Truce Commission for Palestine", one of the earliest of the UN's truce supervision activities. The Commission was set up by a Security Council resolution of April 23, 1948, to assist the Council in supervising the implementation of its resolution of April 17, calling for cessation of military and para-military activities and acts of terrorism and sabotage in Palestine. These resolutions were passed in an attempt to meet the situation created by the outbreak of widespread hostilities between Jews and Arabs in Palestine, subsequent to the adoption by the General Assembly on November 29, 1947 of its resolution for the partition of Palestine. The personnel of the Commission was to be composed of representatives of those members of the Security Council of that year which maintained career consular officers in Jerusalem — namely, Belgium, France and the United States. (Syria, also a member of the Council at the time, had declined to serve on the Commission). These three countries are still among those supplying military observers to UNTSO.

The consular staff available to the Commission in Jerusalem proved inadequate, despite intense activity, to cope with the conflict which broadened still further after the end of the United Kingdom mandate in Palestine on May 14-15, 1948. On May 14 the General Assembly voted to appoint a United Nations Mediator for Palestine, who was to be provided with the necessary staff by the United Nations Secretary-General. On May 27 the Security Council voted to instruct the Mediator, the late Count Folke Bernadotte, to supervise truce arrangements in concert with the Truce Commission; it also decided that they should be provided with "a sufficient number of military observers". A group of 93 observers and other personnel,



UN OBSERVERS IN PALESTINE

UN observers (walking ahead) on their way to investigate a complaint against Israel, one carrying the white flag used in all the investigations. The Jordan-Israel border line runs along the ridge in the background.

with military and naval equipment, was speedily supplied from the three states serving on the Commission, and the first observers began to arrive in the Middle East on June 11. On June 19, fifty uniformed United Nations guards were also despatched to Palestine to assist the Mediator, and a Swedish Colonel was put in charge of the truce supervision operation as the Mediator's personal deputy.

The Soviet Union, however, (having no consulate in Jerusalem) maintained that membership in the Truce Commission had nothing to do with the selection of states which were to provide military observers to the Mediator under the May 27 resolution, and offered to participate in supplying observers. A Soviet proposal to attach to the Mediator 30 to 50 military observers to be appointed by Security Council members wishing to participate, excluding Syria, was rejected by the Council in June, and in November the General Assembly refused a Soviet proposal made in the light of the Council's decision, to recommend the immediate withdrawal of all foreign military personnel from Palestine.

When on July 9, 1948, an agreed truce expired in Palestine despite efforts to renew it, and hostilities were resumed, the Security Council on July 15, 1948 issued a cease-fire order of its own, instructing the Mediator to supervise

the truce, and to make the cease-fire effective in Jerusalem. Implementation of the order, and of the various confirmatory Council resolutions and cease-fire agreements which followed in the ensuing six months, was watched by the newly-arrived military observers of the United Nations Truce Supervision Board, or Truce Supervision Organization as it came to be called.

Present Responsibilities

The UNTSO assumed approximately its present responsibilities in 1949. Each of the armistice agreements concluded between Israel and the four neighbouring Arab states in that year provided that the execution of its provisions should be supervised by a Mixed Armistice Commission composed of representatives of the two parties and a Chairman who was to be the Chief of Staff of the UNTSO, or a senior military observer designated by him. This Commission was empowered to employ UN observers, in such numbers as might be considered essential for its functions, to remain under the command of the Chief of Staff. After the armistice agreements had been concluded, the Security Council, in a resolution of August 11, 1949, co-sponsored by Canada and France, reaffirmed its cease-fire order and requested the Secretary-General to arrange for the continued service of such personnel of the Truce Supervision Organization as might be required to observe and maintain the cease-fire, and to assist the parties to the armistice agreements in supervising those agreements. In other words, UNTSO had henceforth a dual mandate — on the one hand it had certain responsibilities entrusted to it by mutual agreement of the parties to the armistice agreements, and on the other hand it had the task of carrying out the instructions of the Security Council with regard to the cease-fire.

Establishment Increased

In 1953 incidents along the Israel-Jordan border erupted into large scale military activity and the Security Council requested the Secretary-General to furnish such additional personnel as might be required by UNTSO. Officers were recruited from Denmark, Sweden and Canada, as well as from the three countries which had originally undertaken truce supervision responsibilities. The UNTSO establishment in effect at that time has had to be considerably increased and now numbers 103, the Canadian complement being 17 officers. There are Canadian NCO's and other ranks with UNEF, but not with UNTSO. The other countries which are at present participating in the UNTSO operation and the numbers of military personnel contributed by each are: Australia — 4; Belgium — 4; Denmark — 11; France — 4; Ireland — 2; Italy — 9; Netherlands — 8; New Zealand — 5; Norway — 8; Sweden — 16; and the United States — 15.

In 1954 the Secretary-General of the United Nations asked Canada to provide a Chief of Staff for UNTSO and Major — (now Lieutenant —) General E. L. M. Burns carried out the responsibilities of this post with marked distinction from August 1954 until November 1956 when he became Commander-in-Chief of the United Nations Emergency Force. The present Chief of Staff of UNTSO is Major-General Carl von Horn of Sweden. It should be emphasized that during their tour of duty Canadian officers serving with UNTSO and with the other United Nations truce supervision bodies are responsible not to their national government but to the United Nations.

Most of the military observers are on the staff of the UNTSO Chairman of one or other of the four mixed Armistice Commissions (MAC's) on the Israeli-Arab frontiers. Under the direction of the MAC Chairman, the observer investigates and reports on complaints and claims submitted by the parties to the Armistice Agreement, mans observation posts (e.g. on the Syrian frontier), carries out patrols, attempts — often under fire — to negotiate a cessation of fighting when a border incident occurs, participates in exchanges of prisoners or dead, assists in the demarcation of disputed boundaries, and so forth.

Israelis and Arabs have in general been appreciative of the efforts of UNTSO to keep the peace between them, but many practical difficulties have



AT UNTSO HEADQUARTERS

Lt.-General E. L. M. Burns (right) Commander in Chief of the United Nations Emergency Force and formerly Chief of Staff of UNTSO, in conversation with a United States and a Canadian officer at UNTSO headquarters.

impeded UNTSO's work from time to time. UNTSO observers have on occasion been shot at in error; they have frequently been refused freedom of movement in certain sectors; and there is often a tendency noted, for example, by the UNTSO Chief of Staff in a report on the Israeli-Syrian frontier in December 1958, for one party to use UNTSO personnel not as conciliators, but as more or less useful go-betweens who are supposed to obtain the stoppage of allegedly "illegal" practices by the other party. Such an attitude is naturally not in accordance with the spirit of the armistice agreements. There have also been serious problems caused by non-participation by one or other of the parties in certain of the MAC's. All these difficulties, however, do not seem to be the result of deliberate unwillingness to co-operate with UNTSO, but are rather products of the general state of political tension still prevailing between Israel and the Arab States. The UNTSO plays an invaluable role in alleviating the symptoms of that tension along the border, but it cannot of course remove the fundamental causes of the tension itself.

Conditions of Work

UNTSO observers live and work under trying conditions. The terrain is often inhospitable, the climate difficult and the dangers considerable. The story is told of one Canadian officer who had the harrowing experience of returning to his quarters after being pinned down alone in his observation post by mortar fire for four hours, only to be bitten by a poisonous snake as he took off his boots! The usual practice when on observation duty along the frontier is for an officer to spend four or five days at an observation post, have one day off duty and then return to the post. This type of duty usually lasts for about six months at a time, after which an officer has a period of leave and is then sent back to an observation post or to a MAC headquarters. The normal tour of duty for Canadian officers with UNTSO is one year. Despite the rigours of the task, some officers have applied for extensions of their tours. A distinguished Canadian officer, Lt.-Col. George Flint, Chairman of the Israeli-Jordan MAC, was killed while trying to effect a cease-fire on Mount Scopus, Jerusalem, in May 1958.

UNTSO, like UNEF (although on a much smaller and less expensive scale), represents a joint effort to help keep the peace under United Nations auspices in one of the world's more sensitive areas. For seven and a half years UNTSO helped to prevent the resumption of general hostilities between Israel and Egypt and is still performing a similar service on Israel's three other frontiers — those with Syria (the Syrian region of the United Arab Republic), Jordan and Lebanon. UNEF, whose creation resulted from the clash in October 1956 between Israel, the United Kingdom and France on the one hand and Egypt on the other, has taken over primary responsibility for surveillance of the Israeli-Egyptian armistice demarcation line. However, UNTSO retains some functions along this latter frontier and collaborates closely with UNEF.

Continuity of experience in UNTSO had led to steady improvement in standards of efficiency and usefulness. This fact, together with an *esprit de corps* which results from the community of interests of the participating states and the co-operative associations formed within the Organization, contributes substantially to the success of the United Nations efforts to keep the peace.

Canadian Accession to the Austrian State Treaty

ON February 26, 1959, the late Secretary of State for External Affairs, Mr. Sidney Smith, announced that the Government intended to ask Parliament to approve the accession by Canada to the State Treaty for the Re-establishment of an Independent and Democratic Austria, which was signed at Vienna on May 15, 1955. This approval was given by unanimous votes in the Senate on May 19 and in the House of Commons on May 20.

The Austrian State Treaty provided for the ending of the 10-year occupation of that country by the United States, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union and France, and permitted the re-emergence of Austria as an independent, sovereign nation. Article 8 states that "Austria shall have a democratic government based on elections by secret ballot and shall guarantee to all citizens free, equal and universal suffrage, as well as the right to be elected to public office without discrimination as to race, sex, language, religion or political opinion".

Part two of the Treaty specifies a number of limitations on the size and type of military forces to be permitted Austria. Another important article (article 4) prohibits the *Anschluss* of Austria with Germany; although there was little objection to this clause among Austrians at the time, it is now being examined as to whether this would limit Austria's freedom of decision on the point of membership in such organizations as the European Economic Community, in which Germany plays a prominent part.

Article 21 states that "No reparation shall be exacted from Austria arising out of the existence of a state of war in Europe after September 1, 1939". On the other hand, article 22 gives the occupying powers the right to dispose of German assets in Austria; this right has been waived by the three Western powers but Austria continues to pay substantial amounts to the Soviet Union each year.

As a result of the Second World War, and subsequent "cold war" developments, a number of countries were divided into communist-controlled and non-communist sectors. Thus far, Austria is the only one of these countries to have re-achieved its national unity. A review of the most important negotiations leading to this happy result might, therefore, be of some interest.

In October 1943, the United Kingdom, the United States and the U.S.S.R. stated in the Moscow Declaration that they regarded the annexation of Austria by Germany as null and void and voiced their resolve to establish a free and independent Austria at the conclusion of hostilities. France associated herself with this Declaration in November of the same year. Following the capitulation of Germany in 1945, and the subsequent Potsdam Conference, the Allies, on the basis of the frontiers which had existed before Austria had been forcibly incorporated in the German Reich in 1938, divided Austria into four zones of occupation. Vienna was similarly split into four sectors and made the seat of the Allied Control Council. A council of the four Allied Foreign Ministers was formed and made responsible *inter alia* for the preparation of an Austrian treaty to restore Austria's sovereignty according to

the principles of the Moscow Declaration. This task was passed on to a committee of the Foreign Ministers' deputies.

By 1950 a draft State Treaty had been laboriously hammered out leaving, however, four articles on which agreement had not yet been reached. As the post-war international division between East and West became more marked, the prolonged negotiations suggested to the Western powers that the Soviet Union did not consider the conclusion of an Austrian State Treaty to be in its interests. In 1952 the West tried another approach to the problem with an abbreviated draft treaty. This was rejected by the representatives of the Soviet Union. A United Nations resolution sponsored by Brazil in the General Assembly in 1952, and passed by an overwhelming majority, urged an early fulfillment of the Moscow Conference Declaration, but it did not affect the Soviet attitude. Although the U.S.S.R. relaxed some of its occupation controls, no further progress was made, until the calling of a conference at Berlin in January 1954 revived Austria's hopes of the eventual signing of the State Treaty. In spite of the fact that the Western powers declared themselves ready to sign the Soviet version of the treaty, the Berlin Conference failed to break the deadlock, because the Soviet Union made it obvious that it wished to maintain occupation troops in Austria after the signing of the Austrian Treaty and until a German peace treaty had also been signed.

A change of attitude by the U.S.S.R. became apparent early in 1955 when the Soviet Government invited the Austrian authorities to send a delegation to Moscow to discuss the terms of a treaty. The Austrians agreed to pay certain reparations to the Soviet Union, ostensibly out of German assets remaining in Austria, and to a self-imposed ban on membership in military alliances. Following this, events moved rapidly, and after a few meetings between representatives of the four powers and of Austria, an agreement was reached on the Treaty which was signed by the five Foreign Ministers in Vienna on Sunday, May 15, 1955.

While introducing the resolution to approve Canadian accession, Senator Thorvaldson said:

I think the successful conclusion to the decade of wearisome negotiation on the Austrian State Treaty should offer some hope to those who despair that Russia will ever honour its commitment to allow the restoration of German unity. It suggests, too, that there might be considerable merit in the proposal of the West German Government of September of last year to set up a four-power continuing commission to seek a solution to the German problem. We must hope that a solution to this unjust and potentially dangerous situation will be found at the Foreign Ministers' meeting which started last week in Geneva or at the summit conference which may follow.

However, our experience with the Austrian State Treaty indicates that progress is perhaps more likely to be achieved during prolonged and relatively unpublicized negotiations at the expert level. Might I contrast that with the glare of publicity which accompanies the present Foreign Ministers' meeting in Geneva, and which will likely make a meeting of minds there so much more difficult than otherwise. It is partly for this reason that Canada has warmly supported the West German proposal for a new four-power continuing commission to tackle the German question.

Although the Austrian State Treaty was negotiated between Austria, the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and France, and

other countries were not consulted, provision is made in article 37 for the accession of all countries which fought against Nazi Germany.

Apart from the right to take part in any negotiations to alter the Treaty, countries which accede do not acquire any particular privileges. On the other hand, accession by Canada should not increase its obligations to Austria. Under article 2, signators are required to respect the independence and territorial integrity of Austria, but this entails no obligation except those which already arise out of membership in the United Nations. Austria's neutrality was established by Austrian legislative action after the re-establishment of Austrian independence; it is not a provision of the Treaty; and, consequently, accession does not create any special obligation in regard to the preservation of that neutrality.

Article 27(1) of the Treaty states that the Allied and Associated Powers intend to return Austrian property and will be prepared to conclude agreements with the Austrian Government for this purpose. As of March 31, 1959, the balance of Austrian assets vested in the Custodian of Enemy Property amounted to \$36,604.76. These are being returned to the former owners, or to their heirs, if and when they are located. Canada's accession to the State Treaty, therefore, would not require any change in existing Canadian legislation or policy concerning the return of Austrian property.

Several countries have delayed accession to the Treaty until certain financial claims against Austria are settled. However, the situation concerning Canadian claims against Austria has been satisfactory for some time and did not justify any delay in acceding to the Treaty, or the expression of any reservation. Accession to the Treaty does not create any new class of claim as between Austria and Canada or their respective nationals and merely confirms benefits which, in practice, Canadians already received.

Because of the vital importance of the Treaty to her, Austria has been interested that as many countries as possible should accede. Prior to Mr. Smith's announcement, the countries which had done so were Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Mexico and Brazil.

The importance which the Austrians attach to Canadian accession was a major consideration in the Government's decision to take this action. On the occasion of Mr. Smith's announcement in the House of Commons, Mr. Leopold Figl, Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, wrote:

The Austrian Government has charged me to express to you its warmest gratitude for your Government's action concerning Canada's accession to the Austrian State Treaty.

My Government welcomes this step as a further confirmation of the friendly and most cordial relations between our two countries.

I need not assure you that the statement you kindly made on that occasion is highly appreciated throughout my country.

The Canadian Government is conscious of the significance of the Treaty in the re-establishment of Austria's sovereignty, and is glad to associate Canada with it. In the words of the late Secretary of State for External Affairs when he made his announcement in the House of Commons:

Canada's accession, when it takes place, will be at the request of the Austrian Government and it is an action which we take willingly as a mark of friendship and sympathy for a country whose achievements we admire.

When the resolution calling for approval of accession was introduced in the House of Commons, the Prime Minister, and spokesmen for both opposition parties, paid tribute to the conduct of the Austrians during the Hungarian uprising of 1956. The Prime Minister's words were:

The relations between Canada and Austria are on the basis of friendship and understanding, and this further step will but underline the emphasis on that friendly relationship. I think it is well to recall how Canadians as a whole felt in the fall of 1956 because of the manner in which Austrian authorities gave assistance to Hungarian refugees, a conspicuous demonstration of Austria's adherence to the humanitarian and democratic ideals which are emphasized in the Treaty. The Austrian State Treaty is the foundation for Austria's existence as a state. Canada has recognized it and has established with Austria a normal diplomatic relationship. The House in this resolution expresses, in the words of the late Secretary of State for External Affairs, our friendship and sympathy for a country whose achievements we admire.

The same day that the late Mr. Smith made his announcement in the House of Commons, Mr. Skinner, the Acting New Zealand Prime Minister, announced that his country had also decided to accede to the Treaty. The Canadian Government welcomed this step on the part of a fellow member of the Commonwealth and expressed the hope that other countries would find it possible to take similar action before long.

United Nations Commission on the Status of Women

THIS year for the second time Canada participated as a member nation in the work of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, which held its thirteenth session at United Nations Headquarters in New York, from March 9 to 27, 1959. Mrs. Harry S. Quart, M.B.E., of Quebec City was the Canadian Delegate, with Miss Marion Royce, Director of the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labour, as alternate and Mr. Derek Arnould from the Permanent Mission of Canada to the United Nations as political adviser.

This 18-member Commission is a subsidiary organ of the Economic and Social Council, whose function it is to prepare studies and make recommendations on all aspects of women's status in the political, economic, social and educational fields. Member nations are elected to the Commission for a period of three years; Canada's representation will continue through 1960. Other countries participating in the thirteenth session were Argentina, China, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Dominican Republic, France, Greece, Israel, Japan, Mexico, Netherlands, Pakistan, Poland, Sweden, the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In addition four observers were present from countries not members of the Commission: Colombia, Peru, the Philippine Republic and Romania. Both delegates and observers were all women, including some of the world's outstanding authorities on the role and status of women.

The Bureau of the Commission included the elected officers: Chairman, Dr. Uldarica Mañas of Cuba, with Mrs. Zofia Dembinska of Poland and Mrs. Setsu Tanino of Japan as first and second vice-chairmen, respectively, Mrs. Tamar Shaham-Sharon of Israel as rapporteur, with the two responsible members of the UN Secretariat, Mrs. Sophie Grinberg-Vinaver, and Mrs. Tamar Oppenheimer.

Numerous non-governmental organizations in consultative status with the Economic and Social Council took advantage of their privilege and presented their points of view and experience on various subjects to the Commission. Among these were several with Canadian affiliates, for example, the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, the International Federation of Business and Professional Women, the International Council of Women, and the World Y.W.C.A. In some cases a Canadian presented the view of the international organization.

During the meeting of the Commission, the Canadian Delegate spoke to two groups of observers from Canada, one from the Y.W.C.A., and the other from the Business and Professional Women's Club.

Political Rights of Women

The most important step to date in the achievement of political rights for women was still felt to have been the adoption by the General Assembly in 1952 of the Convention on the Political Rights of Women. This instrument, prepared by the Commission, had three principal provisions: the right of women to vote on equal terms with men, their eligibility for election to all

publicly elected bodies and their right to hold public office and exercise all public functions. The Convention has been signed by 41 States and ratified or acceded to by 31 States, including Canada. In view of the number of countries which have still not ratified the Convention, and even more especially since there remain 11 countries in which women have no voting rights and are not eligible for election, the Commission is conscious of much work yet to be done in this field.

Various methods of encouraging the active use of political rights were suggested, such as community service and the holding of office in local government. Education as a pre-requisite for intelligent use of political rights was stressed and note taken of the holding of a seminar on the participation of women in public life at Bogota, Colombia, in May 1959, within the UN Programme of Advisory Services in Human Rights. The Commission decided to ask that a report of the Seminar be made available to its members well in advance of the 1960 session. It also suggested that the Secretary-General's annual memoranda on developments in the political rights of women be consolidated into a report for the fourteenth session of the General Assembly. Non-governmental organizations in consultative status with the ECOSOC were invited to help develop international co-operation in promoting equal political, civic, educational, economic and social rights for women.

The Access of Women to Education

The achievement of unrestricted educational opportunities for girls, in order to equip women for their civic and other responsibilities in the community, is a major goal of the Commission. At this session it considered two studies prepared by UNESCO, dealing with the access of women to education and to the teaching profession. In view of widespread illiteracy, especially in rural areas of many parts of the world, there was general consent that emphasis should be placed on provision for primary education.

The UNESCO report on the teaching profession made clear that there is little or no problem in the access of women to the field, especially at the primary and elementary levels of instruction. In most countries, however, only a few women are found in administrative posts in education, or in university teaching. Attention was directed to the problem of the married woman teacher who often finds it difficult to combine home duties with a career or who, in some countries, faces the possibility of dismissal on marriage.

The Canadian Delegate stated that schools in this country could not be staffed without the services of married women teachers. The majority are either recently married and without children or mature women whose children have grown beyond the dependent stage. The experience of this latter group is extremely valuable in the profession. In view of these trends in Canada, which also occur elsewhere, she felt that it was less important to stress the *right* of married women to teach than to awaken in them a sense of their responsibilities toward society, and to assist them in reconciling the claims of their dual role in the home and in their profession. She also stressed the need for international exchange of experience in the training of mature women who wish to enter or re-enter the teaching profession. Because of the importance of the findings of the recent ILO Conference of Experts on the Problems of Teachers, she recommended that these be incorporated in any further report on the teaching profession prepared by UNESCO.

Equal Pay for Equal Work

The Commission has always worked in close collaboration with the ILO in promoting the principle of equal pay for equal work for men and women as embodied in the ILO Convention, which was adopted in 1951. During 1958 six more countries had ratified this Convention, bringing to 30 the number of ratifications. At this session members studied a revised text of a pamphlet on international aspects of the subject, prepared by the ILO in co-operation with the UN Secretariat. There was general agreement that the material would be of value to agencies and organizations interested in achieving equal pay, and a resolution was adopted which noted the lack of adequate material in the field and asked the Economic and Social Council to request early publication of the pamphlet, making provision for as wide a distribution as possible.

Economic Opportunities for Women

Occupational Outlook — Reports prepared by the Secretariat on the occupational outlook for women in architecture, engineering and law provided the focus for discussion of economic opportunities. In general, speakers felt that the reports gave evidence of progress but that the progress was inadequate. Although few legal barriers remain to prevent women from entering these professions, there are still many other obstacles in their way. Efforts must, therefore, be continued to remove these handicaps, most of which stem from traditional conceptions of suitable spheres of work for women and from the reluctance of employers to incur the expense of training women who are likely to leave on marriage.

The Canadian Delegate in commenting on the reports urged re-thinking of the occupational component of women's role in present-day society. She emphasized the importance of vocational counselling for girls to provide them with realistic information about training requirements and employment possibilities. "Most girls in Canada", she said, "do not anticipate that paid employment will be the focus of their lives. At the same time they expect and are expected to participate in the labour force at some time in their lives, and most of them seriously seek advice about their occupational choices." She stressed the importance of support and encouragement for young women in getting established in professions in which women have not yet achieved an assured position. In Canada, she said, professional associations of women are accepting such responsibilities increasingly. She directed attention also to the value of occupational monographs such as are prepared by the Federal Department of Labour and distributed through the schools in all provinces of Canada.

As the next step in a projected world-wide study of the access of women to training and employment in the principal professional and technical occupations, the Commission asked for further reports in 1961, on fields of work such as that of the draughtsman and engineering technician, which are ancillary to the three professions studied at this session.

Retirement Age and Pension Rights — The Commission adopted a resolution favouring the same treatment of men and women as to age of retirement and rights to pension and recommended through the Economic and Social Council that all United Nations member states facilitate the adoption of

regulations to that end. It rejected an amendment by Czechoslovakia advocating the promotion of equal rights and giving effect to the principle that women workers should enjoy a more favourable retirement age.

Tax Legislation Applicable to Women

The Commission had before it a comprehensive report on income tax legislation based on information supplied by governments and non-governmental organizations and prepared by two outstanding experts. The Commission's interest in the subject relates to aspects of such legislation which might discriminate against women, in particular married women, and discussion was focussed, therefore, on the relative advantages of the two types of taxation described in the report: assessments against individual income and assessments based on an aggregation of the incomes of husband and wife or of the entire family. Since family taxation is a small part of the general field of tax legislation, aggregation of the incomes of husbands and wives would be the only aspect which might raise a problem. The authors of the report were of the opinion, however, that on the whole discrimination against women does not occur in existing income tax legislation. There was some division of opinion in the Commission with respect to future action regarding this item. Some representatives advocated further discussion of the subject at the next session of the Commission; others felt that the report having been tabled, the question should be closed. As a compromise it was agreed that it become a sub-item under Economic Opportunities for Women, to be included as an ad hoc project in the agenda of the fourteenth session.

Nationality of Married Women

The Commission noted general progress in the direction of equal rights for men and women with respect to nationality. Twenty-five countries had, so far, signed the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women; 14 had ratified or acceded to the Convention, which came into force on August 11, 1958. The early publication of a history of the Convention with a commentary on its provisions was recommended.

Age of Marriage and Consent to Marriage

In 1958 the Commission had requested the Economic and Social Council to invite the Secretary-General to prepare a draft convention dealing with the minimum age of marriage, free consent to and registration of marriages. The Council, however, sanctioned the drafting of a recommendation rather than a convention. The matter was reviewed at the thirteenth session, and the Commission asked for reconsideration of the Council's decision, requesting also that a draft convention be prepared for its fourteenth session.

Women in the UN and Specialized Agencies

The Commission discussed the need for more women in policy-making or senior posts in the secretariats of the United Nations and of the Specialized Agencies and stressed that all conditions of employment should be equal for men and women members of the staff.

Several speakers noted that this participation has increased in the lower levels and decreased in senior positions during the past year, and some con-

sidered that the situation was far from satisfactory. Members also expressed hope that more governments would appoint women to responsible positions in their delegations to the United Nations; and that women in the secretariats would have the same opportunities for promotion as men.

Advisory Services

The Commission expressed satisfaction with the fact that, under the United Nations programme of advisory services in the field of human rights, one seminar a year was planned to deal with the status of women and that the Governments of Colombia and Ethiopia had invited the Secretary-General to hold seminars on the participation of women in public life in their respective countries. Following the one in Bogota in May, another is scheduled for Addis Ababa in 1960.

The report of the Commission on the work of its thirteenth session will be submitted to the Economic and Social Council at its summer session to be held in Geneva, beginning on June 30, 1959.

APPOINTMENTS AND TRANSFERS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

Mr. P. R. Jennings posted from the Canadian Embassy, Copenhagen to Ottawa. Left Copenhagen May 1, 1959.

Mr. A. J. G. Couvrette posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Rome. Left Ottawa May 13, 1959.

Mr. R. G. Hatheway posted from Ottawa to the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina. Left Ottawa May 16, 1959.

Mr. B. M. Williams appointed High Commissioner for Canada in Ghana. Left Ottawa May 17, 1959.

Mr. Jean Morin QC, appointed Canadian Ambassador to Colombia. Left Canada, May 19, 1959.

Mr. A. R. Kilgour MBE, posted from the Canadian Embassy, Cairo, to Ottawa. Left Cairo May 21, 1959.

Mr. A. de W. Mathewson posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, New Delhi. Left Ottawa May 21, 1959.

Mr. J. R. Sharpe posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Colombo to Ottawa. Left Colombo May 23, 1959.

Mr. J. C. Langley posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Washington. Left Ottawa May 29, 1959.

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AT THE SEAWAY OPENING

Her Majesty the Queen and President Eisenhower at the ceremony which formally opened the St. Lawrence Seaway.

The St. Lawrence Seaway

ON JUNE 26, 1959, Her Majesty the Queen and President Eisenhower opened the St. Lawrence Seaway. Never before has a reigning sovereign greeted a President in office on Canadian soil. Never before has an engineering project of such magnitude been undertaken as a joint enterprise. The ceremony, therefore, was a fitting tribute to the statesmen and engineers of Canada and the United States to whose vision and skill the St. Lawrence Seaway is due.

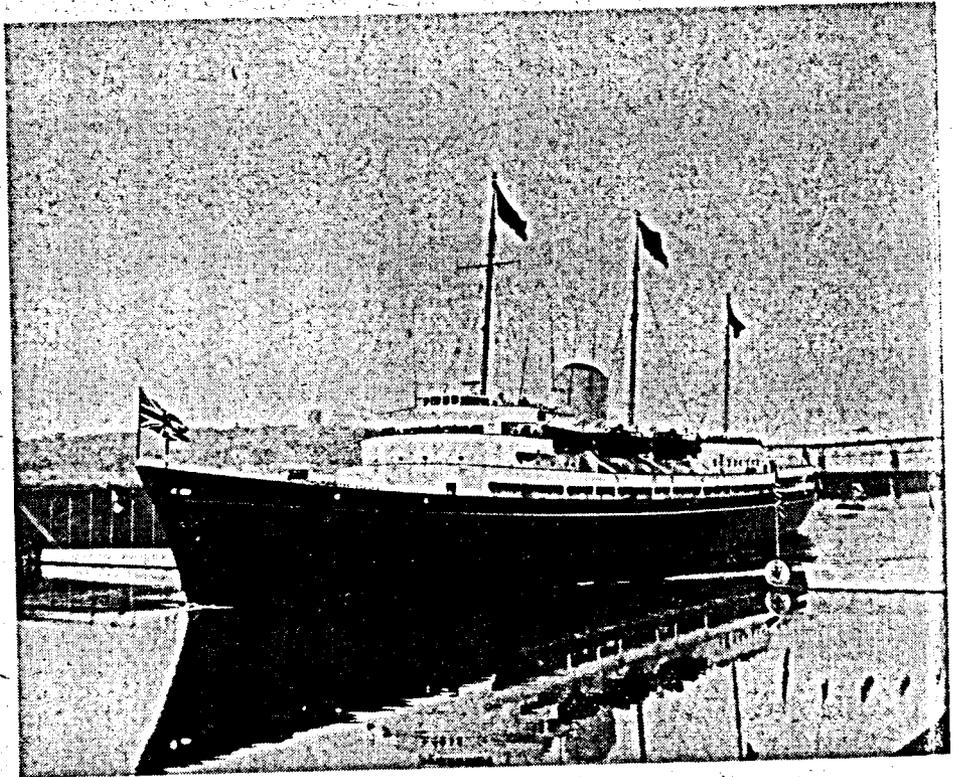
For centuries a waterway on which ocean vessels could travel to the heart of the North American continent has been a dream of mariners, engineers and men in public office. Rapids barred the way. By degrees these barriers were overcome. By 1850 depths of nine feet were available, which were increased to fourteen feet by 1900. In 1959 the Seaway is providing 27 foot depths as far west as Lake Erie, facilities which will be extended into the Upper Lakes by 1963. This depth will accommodate 80 per cent of the world's merchant fleet.

In these circumstances, since a tremendous waterway was being opened, it was fitting and proper that following the ceremony on land, Her Majesty should have invited the President aboard HMY BRITANNIA for a short cruise up through the first three sets of locks from St. Lambert to Beauharnois. Midway on this cruise, shortly after leaving Côte Ste-Catherine, BRITANNIA entered Lake St. Louis where 16 ships, eight of the Royal Canadian Navy and eight of the United States Navy, lined the route to the north to deliver Royal and Presidential salutes; small craft were moored in the turning basin south of the Channel to greet the yacht as it entered Beauharnois Lock. President Eisenhower disembarked at Beauharnois and returned by helicopter to the RCAF Air Station at St. Hubert where his aircraft was waiting to fly him back to Washington.

Ceremony at Eisenhower Lock

BRITANNIA continued on her westward course with Her Majesty and Prince Philip aboard. The following day they first entered United States waters after passing St. Regis, Quebec, and later passed through the two new United States locks. The Royal party disembarked at the Eisenhower Lock where Vice-President Nixon was waiting to extend the greetings of the United States to the Royal visitors. Joining in the welcome was Governor Rockefeller of New York State. Following this ceremony, Her Majesty and the Vice-President travelled by road to the power dam where they unveiled a plaque midway across the Moses-Saunders Dam on the International Boundary. In this single structure, 16 generating units have been installed by the Hydro-Electric Power Commission of Ontario and 16 by the Power Authority of the State of New York. Their total output, when operating at full capacity, is 1,880,000 Kws.

For navigation and for power, the St. Lawrence River from St. Regis to Kingston has been developed internationally for the benefit of Canada and the U.S.A. As engineering achievements, both the Seaway and the power development rank amongst the most impressive in the world; as examples of international co-operation designed to serve the industrial requirements of two sovereign states, they are no less impressive.



THE OPENING OF THE SEAWAY

The Britannia passing through the ceremonial gates, which symbolized the opening of the waterway.

In Operation

The 1959 navigation season on the newly-completed St. Lawrence Seaway did not open until April 25. For the first time ships drawing up to 25-foot gained access from the sea to the Lakes; during the construction period, the fourteen-foot canals had been kept in operation, an achievement in itself, with only one day's interruption, until the 27-foot system was ready for use. It will be of interest, therefore, to compare even for the first five weeks of operation the volume of traffic that the improved system was able to handle. Such a comparison is most revealing, particularly when considered in the light of the fact that the 1958 navigation season opened on April 14, 1958, in the St. Lawrence Stretch, but some days earlier, as is usual, at Welland.

The following tables represent 36 days' operation in 1959 as against 48 days' operation in 1958.

Montreal to Lake Ontario

	1958 (14 foot depths)	1959 (27 foot depths)
total cargo	615,017 tons	935,863 tons
		upbound
		increase 52.3%

	downbound	
total cargo	1,479,658 tons	1,739,850 tons
	increase 17.6%	
	(unit of measurement: 1 ton = 2000 lbs.)	

The revenue derived from tolls levied on this cargo, as well as on the ships carrying it, is divided between Canada and the U.S.A. with Canada receiving 71 per cent and the U.S.A. receiving 29 per cent. This corresponds to the investments made by the countries for the construction of their respective parts of the Seaway: \$330 million by Canada and \$122 million by the U.S.A.

Welland Canal

The Welland Canal lies wholly in Canada. It permits the passage of ships between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie around the barrier created by the Niagara River Rapids and Niagara Falls. The difference in levels between the two lakes is 326 feet and had necessitated the construction of eight sets of locks. Three of these locks are twinned allowing ships in those stretches to be passed simultaneously upbound and downbound. As the following figures show, the Welland Canal system is even busier than the locks between Montreal and Lake Ontario.

Welland Canal		
	1958 (14 foot depths)	1959 (27 foot depths)
		upbound
total cargo	776,151 tons	929,756 tons
	increase 19.8%	
		downbound
total cargo	3,336,516 tons	3,296,550 tons
	decrease 1.2%	

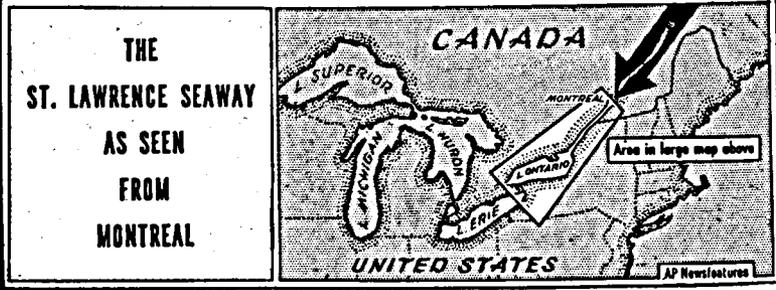
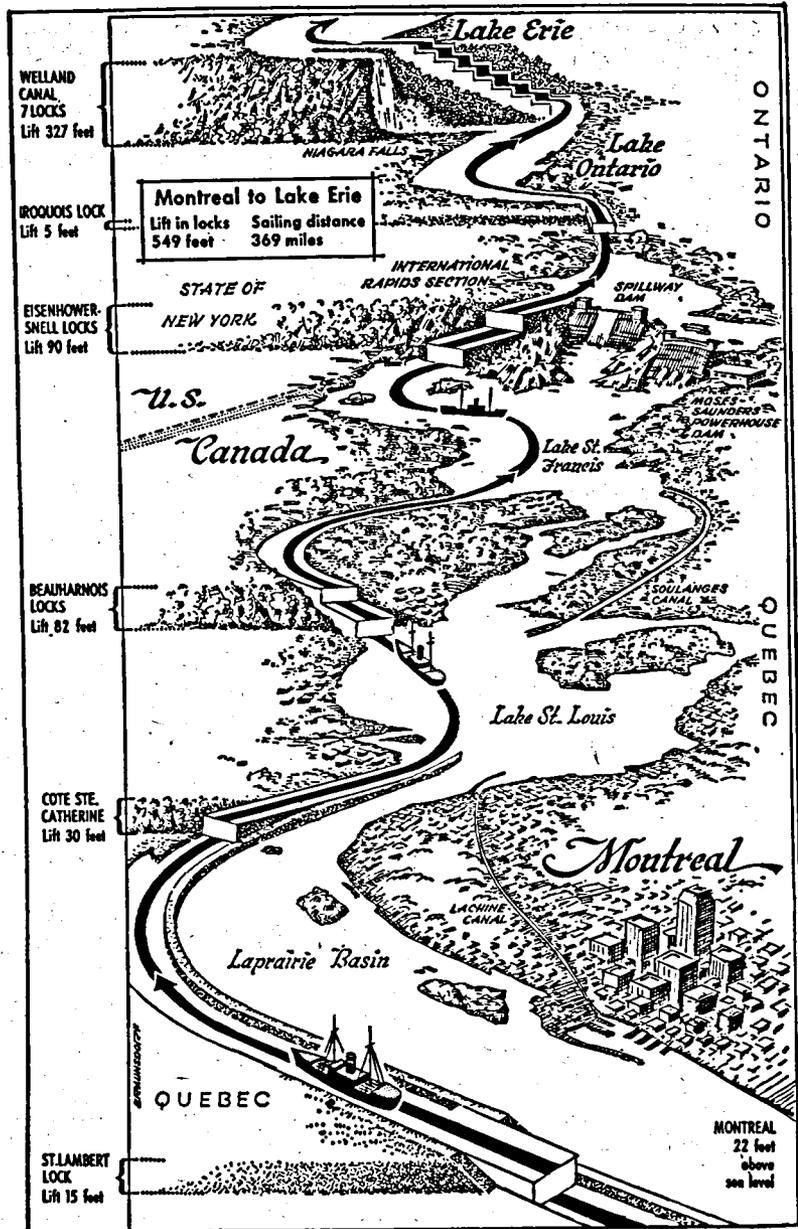
The revenues derived from tolls on the traffic using the Welland Canal are not divided, but accrue wholly to Canada.

Shipping Rights

The navigational regime in the Great Lakes is probably unique. Access to the Lakes is through Canadian territorial waters and up a river which, for all but 112 miles of its length from Kingston to St. Regis, lies entirely in Canada. The right of access through these Canadian waters for navigation in the interests of commerce is guaranteed to U.S.-flag ships by treaty¹; Canadian merchant ships for their part are guaranteed similar rights in Lake Michigan². On four of the lakes — Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, through which the boundary passes — and on the interconnecting rivers, Canadian and U.S. merchant shipping enjoy equal and similar rights, again guaranteed by treaty³.

Technically speaking, "the Seaway" extends only from Montreal to the entrance to Lake Erie: Montreal to St. Regis-Cornwall as a Canadian project;

1. Ashburton-Webster Treaty 1842 (Article VII); Treaty of Washington 1871 (Article XXVI); Boundary Waters Treaty 1909 (Article I)
2. Boundary Waters Treaty (Article I)
3. See footnote 1 above



St. Regis-Cornwall to Kingston on Lake Ontario as an international project, with one set of U.S. Locks in the South Channel opposite Cornwall, and one set of Canadian Locks at Iroquois; the Welland Canal is entirely within Canada. The regulations contained in the St. Lawrence Seaway Masters' Handbook¹ apply equally and without distinction to all vessels using the Seaway facilities.

The preparation of this Handbook is a further example of the close co-operation of the two national Seaway entities. In an exchange of notes dated August 17, 1954, it was agreed by Canada and the United States that:

each Government will consult the other before it enacts any new law or promulgates any new regulation, applicable in the respective national parts of the international section of the St. Lawrence River, which might affect Canadian or United States shipping, or shipping of third-country registry proceeding to or from Canada or the United States respectively.

On this basis and because of the treaty commitments mentioned above, a code of regulations was worked out in close consultation between the Canadian "St. Lawrence Seaway Authority" and the "Saint Lawrence Seaway Development Corporation" of the United States and, once agreement was reached on the matters these regulations should cover, they were promulgated separately but in identical terms in the two countries by the two entities.

Thus, in these important phases of operations — in the formal opening of the Seaway, the manner of levying and collecting tolls for the use of the Seaway facilities, and the promulgation of regulations governing the manner in which those facilities may be used as well as in the development of power at Barnhart — the exploitation of the resources of the Great Lakes Basin is being carried out on a bi-national basis with the closest co-operation at all levels.

¹St. Lawrence Seaway Masters' Handbook, April 1, 1959, Queen's Printer, Ottawa, \$1.50.

Commonwealth Scholarship Scheme

THE Commonwealth scholarship scheme, on which agreement in principle was reached at the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference in Montreal last year, has in the intervening period been the subject of a good deal of thought in Canada and, of course, in other Commonwealth countries. As part of this process there have been consultations between Government officials and representatives of the Canadian university community, in the course of which many valuable ideas and suggestions were put forward which will help to ensure that the Commonwealth scholarship scheme is conceived on sound and sensible lines. All Commonwealth countries will be pooling their ideas on the scheme at a Commonwealth Education Conference which is to be held at Oxford from July 15 to 29.

Origin of Scheme

The question that immediately springs to mind is how the Commonwealth scholarship scheme came to be evolved in the context of a Conference that was convened ostensibly to deal with trade and economic matters. One of the problems, of course, that looms largest on the horizon of many Commonwealth countries and of the territories that are moving towards independent status is the problem of economic development. This calls for more capital than the under-developed countries themselves can be expected to generate from their own savings. It also calls for more technical and technological skills than these countries are yet in a position to develop in their own training institutions.

It has been against this background that institutions and programmes were established in the post-war period, both within and outside the Commonwealth, to meet the needs of the under-developed countries for more capital and for a greater measure of technical assistance. The Colombo Plan, of which Canada is a founder member and to which it is at present contributing at the rate of \$50 million a year, is only one of a number of programmes that have been devised with this objective in mind.

It was recognized at Montreal, however, that the process of economic development called not only for capital and for technically trained people but that education, in its broadest sense, was an indispensable function of this process if economic development was to go forward on socially and economically beneficial lines. This suggested that there was a field in which there might be room for a wider sharing of opportunities and facilities within the Commonwealth.

There is, however, another perspective from which it would be useful to look at the Commonwealth scholarship scheme. The Commonwealth of today represents the result of a unique historical evolution. Once an association of peoples linked together by common racial parentage, it has come to transcend the bounds of race and colour and geography. What holds the Commonwealth association together today are common institutions and common values, and these to a very considerable degree are based on the common experience of the men and women who provide leadership in their respective areas of activity in Commonwealth countries. If, therefore, the Commonwealth association is to continue to have meaning to future generations in these countries, it follows that there should always be in each Commonwealth

country men and women who have had experience of the national life and institutions of other Commonwealth countries. It is difficult to think of any medium that is likely to make a more lasting contribution to this community of experience than education. But if education is to be harnessed to this objective, the framework for Commonwealth exchanges in this field will clearly have to be broadened.

Canadian Commitment

The objective set for the Commonwealth scholarship scheme at Montreal was that a thousand scholars might in due course be studying under its auspices. The United Kingdom undertook to be responsible for one-half of the total places and Canada for one-quarter. The cost of this Canadian commitment was estimated at \$1 million annually. It is difficult, of course, to forecast precisely how many awards may be offered annually within the funds available for Canadian participation until the programme has been in operation for some time. If it is assumed that the average tenure of scholarships awarded by Canada is about two academic years, it should be possible for Canada to award between 100 and 125 scholarships a year. This will depend, however, on a number of factors, including the possibility that Canada might want in certain cases to assist Canadian scholars to go forward to other Commonwealth countries to take up awards. The point of real importance is, of course, that adequate provision should be made for those who come to Canada to study under the auspices of the scheme. The impression which Commonwealth scholars take with them on their return to their own countries is clearly as crucial a factor in relation to the purposes of the Commonwealth scholarship scheme as their scholastic achievements in Canada.

Allocation of Awards

In extending awards to scholars from other Commonwealth countries, the aim will be to reach people of high intellectual competence who are able to benefit from study in Canada and who may be expected, on their return, to make a distinct contribution to their own countries. Because this is the kind of people Canada would aim to have, it is thought that candidates should apply on their own initiative rather than on the nomination of governments. As a general rule, Canada would expect candidates to be at the stage where they were studying for early post-graduate degrees. On the other hand, it would not be the Canadian intention entirely to exclude undergraduates, especially those coming from countries where equivalent facilities were either inadequate or non-existent. Nor would Canada be disposed to discourage applications from senior scholars and staff who might both study and teach in Canada. Beyond that, the idea has been considered that it might be desirable to accept people such as teachers, administrators, members of the professions, business and industrial managers and trade union leaders, all of whom have a crucial role to play in the rapidly changing societies that are encompassed by the Commonwealth.

It is not the Canadian conception that the Commonwealth scholarship scheme should duplicate the existing technical assistance arrangements. Under these arrangements, Canada has endeavoured to provide candidates from the economically less-developed countries with the knowledge, the skills and the techniques that are peculiarly relevant to economic development.

Within the framework of the Commonwealth scholarship scheme, however, Canada would want to train people of more general skills and aptitudes whose contribution will range over many fields. The facilities that would be put at their disposal in Canada would cover the humanities and the social sciences as well as the natural sciences and other accepted academic disciplines. In this way the Commonwealth scholarship scheme could usefully complement the facilities Canada has in the past been extending to people from the less-developed countries of the Commonwealth under its various technical assistance programmes.

It is, of course, Canada's intention to include within the scope of the Commonwealth scholarship scheme candidates from all Commonwealth countries and territories. For the time being, it would not be practicable to think in terms of a specific number of annual openings for scholars from each Commonwealth country; in due course, however, it should be possible to work out at least a range of openings by which screening committees in other Commonwealth countries might be guided in reviewing applications and interviewing applicants. In evolving any pattern of allocations, however, rough adequate account will have to be taken of the needs of the less-developed Commonwealth countries, since their needs are likely to be both greater and more urgent. On the other hand, a review of the present scope of educational exchanges within the Commonwealth will show how relatively few contacts there have been between Canada and some of the older countries of the Commonwealth such as Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. This is, therefore, another direction in which the Commonwealth association might be strengthened through the facilities of the scholarship scheme. On balance, however, it would not seem wise to devise any pattern of allocations of awards so rigid that it will crowd out other desirable objectives of the scheme or prevent the selection of the best possible candidates in any given year.

Operation of Scheme

Thought has also been given to the procedures that might govern the operation of the scholarship scheme, at least as far as Canada is concerned, although there will clearly be advantage in arriving at a uniform policy throughout the Commonwealth. It is envisaged that candidates will apply for scholarships to screening committees in their own countries. Such committees would probably be composed mainly of members of the university community although governments would also, no doubt, wish to be represented. In addition, it would clearly be useful if a Canadian representative were associated with the deliberations of such a committee abroad, at least when the committee is processing applications directed specifically to Canada. In due course, the local screening committee would interview leading candidates and send its recommendations forward to a similarly constituted committee in Canada. It would be the function of this committee to select successful candidates from those recommended by screening committees abroad, ensure that each such candidate is acceptable to a Canadian university and decide at which institution the award might most appropriately be tenable. The Committee would also review the progress of scholars and, indeed, of the scheme as a whole, and it would screen Canadian applicants for awards tenable in other Commonwealth countries.

At the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference at Montreal the Canadian Government made it clear that it attached a great deal of

importance to the scheme's containing some element of reciprocity. Canada recognizes, of course, that in view of the very unequal needs of Commonwealth countries in the educational field there can be no thought of mathematical equivalence. On the other hand, it assumes that all Commonwealth countries would wish to make their cultures and institutions better known in other parts of the Commonwealth and for its part believes that Canadians should be encouraged to avail themselves of the facilities of the scheme for this purpose. On broader grounds, there is every reason to think that the cross fertilization resulting from even a modest degree of reciprocity in a scheme of this nature is bound not only to strengthen but to deepen the ties that hold the Commonwealth together by increasing mutual understanding and mutual respect.

VISIT OF SUPREME SOVIET DEPUTIES

Five deputies of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. arrived in Ottawa on June 11 for a two-week visit in Canada as guests of the Soviet Ambassador, Mr. Aroutunian. In addition to being deputies of the Supreme Soviet, all five members of the group carry important official duties in the Soviet Union. Mr. Aleksandr P. Volkov, Deputy Chairman of the Soviet Parliamentary Group, also serves as Chairman of the State Committee on Labour and Wages of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. Mr. Jan P. Peive, Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. is President of the Academy of Sciences of Latvia. Mr. Ivan G. Kabanov was Minister of Foreign Trade prior to the recent reorganization of Ministries in the Soviet Union and is now a Minister on the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. Mrs. Z. A. Lebedeva is a member of the Commission on Foreign Affairs of the Soviet of the Union Republic and Mr. G. P. Butenko is Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Ukrainian S.S.R.

While in Ottawa the deputies attended sittings of the Senate and the House of Commons. They were received by the Speaker of the House of Commons, Mr. Roland Michener, at a luncheon, and by the Speaker of the Senate, Mr. Mark R. Drouin, at a reception in their honour. In addition, the deputies paid a courtesy call on the Prime Minister on June 16 and called on other Ministers of the Government during their stay in Ottawa.

Before leaving Canada on June 24, the five deputies visited Niagara Falls, Toronto and Montreal where, in addition to seeing something of these three cities, they met with community and business leaders and called on provincial officials.

Canada's Agreements on Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy

Canada's international interests in the field of the peaceful uses of atomic energy are a reflection of domestic Canadian developments, both in the production of natural uranium as the main source material for atomic energy, and in the growth of an extensive and varied atomic energy programme in Canada.

Canada's position as a major producer of uranium is a fundamental reason for Canadian interest in international agreements for the peaceful development of atomic energy. Uranium mining, which developed in response to wartime needs, has become one of the country's most important mining industries. The industry has an annual capacity second only to that of the United States and uranium has become one of Canada's leading mineral exports. There are four leading areas of uranium mining in Canada: Blind River, Beaver Lodge, Bancroft, and the Northwest Territories. Substantial communities in these regions have been built up on the basis of the new uranium industry.

Atomic Energy Programme

The establishment of an atomic energy programme in Canada developed from the wartime interest in the application of nuclear energy to weapons. Since the war, however, the Canadian programme has been concerned with the peaceful applications of atomic energy, that is, power for domestic and industrial use and radioactive isotopes for medicine, agriculture and industry. Atomic Energy of Canada Limited has played a leading role in the development of nuclear reactors and in atomic research. Attention in Canada has been directed particularly towards the development of the heavy water cooled natural uranium type of reactor. The NRX and NRU reactors at Chalk River are outstanding examples of this type of reactor and they have made a very important contribution to the general pool of research and knowledge on the subject of the peaceful uses of atomic energy. In addition to this work on research reactors, there have also been important developments in Canada in the development of power reactors. The Minister of Trade and Commerce, Mr. Gordon Churchill, recently announced that Atomic Energy of Canada Limited is to begin immediately the final design and to plan the early construction of a large scale atomic power station. This will be known as CANDU (Canadian Deuterium Uranium) and will produce 200,000 kw. of electricity. It will also be based on a natural uranium, heavy water system and will be similar to the NPD atomic power station which is now under construction as a joint project of A.E.C.L., Ontario Hydro and Canadian General Electric Limited.

International Agreements

Canada's international atomic energy agreements, broadly defined, include contracts to supply large quantities of uranium to the Atomic Energy Commission of the United States, arrangements for the supply of uranium to the United Kingdom, bilateral agreements on co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy with Switzerland, the Federal Republic of Germany, and



FIRST SUPPLY OF URANIUM THROUGH INTERNATIONAL AGENCY

The signing of agreements on March 24 at the Neue Hofburg, Vienna, for the supply of uranium by Canada to the International Atomic Energy Agency, and by the Agency to Japan. Seated at the table from left to right are: Dr. H. Furuchi, who signed on behalf of the Japanese Government; Mr. Sterling Cole, Director-General, signing for the Agency; Mr. C. A. Bernardes, Chairman of the IAEA Board of Governors; and Mr. W. H. Barton, who signed for Canada.

Pakistan, and membership in the world organization which has been established in this field, the International Atomic Energy Agency. In addition to these agreements Canada has a special agreement with India under which the two countries are co-operating in the construction of an atomic reactor, the CIR, or Canada-India Reactor, similar to the NRX reactor at Chalk River. This reactor, located at Trombay about seven miles from the heart of Bombay, will soon be ready to receive its first fuel charges. The negotiations for an agreement between Canada and Japan have been concluded, and are well advanced with Australia, and with the European Atomic Energy Community comprising Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and The Netherlands. Canada is actively interested in the negotiation of further agreements with countries with which there can be a mutually profitable co-operation on peaceful atomic energy developments.

The basic reason for special international agreements covering the sale of uranium has been that it is a source material for nuclear weapons. Canada's bilateral agreements for co-operation in the peaceful development of atomic energy include "safeguards" clauses intended to ensure that nuclear materials supplied by either party pursuant to these agreements are used only for peaceful purposes. Canada has strongly supported the various international efforts made since the war to prevent or restrict the spread of the capacity to make nuclear weapons; one of the basic methods involved is the attempt to guarantee that exports of nuclear materials are suitably safeguarded.

The Canadian Government does not regard these safeguards as restrictions imposed by a supplying country on a recipient country, but rather as a form of mutual insurance to protect both parties and the world as a whole from the unfortunate consequences of an indiscriminate growth in the capacity to make nuclear weapons. While exceptions can be made for small amounts for research purposes, a bilateral agreement of this kind is a necessary basis for the export in substantial quantity of nuclear materials including natural uranium.

The agreements are not, however, limited to this. They are intended to foster close co-operation in all aspects of the peaceful uses of atomic energy between Canada and the other countries concerned. They involve full and frank exchanges of information dealing in particular with research and development, with problems of health and safety, with designs and specifications for equipment and facilities, and with the uses of equipment, facilities and nuclear materials. Through agreements of this sort Canada's technical experience in the operation of research and power reactors and in other aspects of atomic energy developments is made available to other countries; Canada in turn has access to similar information developed abroad.

International Atomic Energy Agency

The International Atomic Energy Agency is a kind of master international agreement on the peaceful uses of atomic energy. The Agency, with its headquarters in Vienna, has been joined by a large majority of the countries of the world representing all geographical regions and by major groups of nations. Canada is a member of the Board of Governors of the Agency, selected, under the terms of the statute of the Agency, as one of the five members of the Agency most advanced in the technology of atomic energy including the production of source materials. The other four members of the Board selected in this category are the United States, the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom and France.

Canada played an active role in all the preliminary negotiations leading to the establishment of the IAEA and has continued to give the organization strong support. The objective of the Agency is to accelerate and enlarge the contribution of atomic energy to peace, health and prosperity throughout the world. It must ensure as far as it is able that assistance provided by it or under its auspices is not used in such a way as to further any military purpose. The Agency's functions are, broadly, to encourage and assist research and development in the practical application of atomic energy throughout the world, to assist in the provision of materials, equipment and facilities for peaceful atomic energy programmes, to foster the exchange of information and to encourage the exchange and training of scientists and experts in this field.

A most important responsibility of the Agency is to establish and administer safeguards designed to ensure that nuclear materials made available through the Agency are used for peaceful purposes only. It is also hoped that the Agency will be able, on request, to take on the administration and application of safeguards involved in bilateral or multilateral arrangements outside the Agency. Safeguards administered through a worldwide organization may prove to be more effective and more acceptable than safeguards applied as a result of a bilateral agreement. At the present time the international agency is engaged in working out detailed provisions for carrying out this obligation concerning safeguards.

Fourteenth Session of GATT

THE fourteenth session of the Contracting Parties to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade was held at Geneva from May 11 to May 30, 1959. Owing to the conference of the Foreign Ministers of France, the United Kingdom, the United States and the U.S.S.R., and to other conferences taking place at the same time, the spacious facilities of the Palais de la Paix were only available for plenary meetings. Committees and working groups held their meetings in the modern surroundings of the new Red Cross Building. The fourteenth session was the first semi-annual session of the Contracting Parties since the decision was taken at the thirteenth session last fall to hold two sessions a year, one in the spring and one in the autumn of each year. The fifteenth session is to take place in Tokyo from October 26 to November 21, 1959, beginning with a meeting of Ministers of Trade.

The fourteenth session was attended by delegations from each of the thirty-seven Contracting Parties, and by representatives from other governments and from inter-governmental agencies. The full list of those attending the fourteenth session is given at the end of this article. The Canadian Delegation was headed by Mr. M. Schwarzmann, Director of the International Trade Relations Branch, Department of Trade and Commerce, and included officials from the Departments of Trade and Commerce, Finance, Agriculture, National Revenue and External Affairs.

Implications of European Convertibility Moves

The fourteenth session was the first meeting of the Contracting Parties since the major European trading currencies were made convertible for non-residents at the end of 1958. The most important issue to arise during the session, concerned the continued use of discriminatory import restrictions in the new circumstances of external convertibility. This issue was discussed throughout virtually the whole session in one form or another.

At the opening plenary session, the Chairman of the United States Delegation, Mr. W. T. M. Beale, expressed the views of his Government on the trade policy implications of the convertibility moves. In a comprehensive statement, Mr. Beale reviewed postwar developments in trade and payments and concluded that the establishment of external convertibility generally removed the substantive distinction that had existed for two decades between the currencies of dollar countries and other currencies.

The Chairman of the United States Delegation stated that the "convertibility measures have created a new setting for commercial policy. As inconvertibility has given way to convertibility, so discrimination and bilateralism should now give way to non-discrimination and multilateralism." He emphasized that "all countries, whether or not their currencies have been made convertible, are affected by the new convertibility situation: some because payments in their own currency are on a convertible basis; others because their foreign exchange income and payments are made in the form of the convertible currencies of other countries."

Mr. Beale added: "The United States believe that at this juncture, the Contracting Parties can reasonably expect that changes in quantitative import

restrictions will run in the direction of eliminating rather than expanding the impact of discrimination".

Mr. Schwarzmann followed Mr. Beale and expressed support for the United States statement. The Canadian Representative said in part:

When the General Agreement came into being many countries, including the important trading countries of Western Europe, were faced with severe exchange difficulties arising out of the war. The international institutions established at that time had to recognize the need for transitional and exceptional arrangements to meet these temporary difficulties. As a result of these arrangements some contracting parties, including Canada, have had to face discriminatory quota restrictions established by other contracting parties. Canada has nevertheless maintained an open market and participated in four major tariff conferences, on the understanding that these exceptional quota arrangements would be abandoned as soon as the financial situation of the countries concerned made it possible.

Canada warmly welcomes the convertibility moves in Western Europe. This step brings the world much closer to the restoration of a truly multilateral system of trade and payments and presents a unique opportunity for the complete elimination of discrimination. Moreover, the early removal of quantitative restrictions, whether discriminatory or not, should result from the greatly improved financial position of most of the countries concerned. The recently adopted proposals by the International Monetary Fund for the increase of its resources provide increased confidence for such measures.

The representatives of many countries also supported these views and urged the removal of discrimination in import restrictions.

German Import Restrictions

Possibly the most important item on the agenda of the fourteenth session was that of the quantitative import restrictions maintained by the Federal Republic of Germany in contravention of the General Agreement. Under GATT, import restrictions are permitted only in exceptional circumstances, when they are necessary to safeguard a country's balance of payments and monetary reserves. Any discrimination in the application of such restrictions must likewise be justified by balance of payments considerations. The only protective device normally recognized and permitted by GATT is the customs tariff, which must generally be applied on a non-discriminatory basis to all Contracting Parties. An important feature of the GATT has been the multilateral tariff negotiations carried out between Contracting Parties to reduce the levels of tariff protection, on a basis of reciprocity and mutual advantage.

Because balance of payments difficulties have been chronic in many countries ever since the war, import restrictions have been extensively used and have often served to provide protection to domestic industries. Within Europe, the Federal Republic of Germany was the first country to achieve a degree of economic strength and stability such that her external payments situation was no longer in jeopardy.

At the twelfth session in 1957, the Contracting Parties, on the basis of the findings of the International Monetary Fund, decided that the Federal Republic of Germany was no longer entitled to maintain import restrictions under Article XII of GATT. Since that time, the matter has been under frequent examination. While some progress was achieved by the Federal Republic in reducing the number of import restrictions still maintained by it,

a fairly wide range of agricultural goods, raw materials and manufactured goods have remained subject to import controls. These include such items of interest to Canada as wheat, flour, most cereals, meat, synthetic rubber and aluminum.

At the fourteenth session, the Contracting Parties, following detailed discussions with the Representatives of the Federal Republic, took a decision, based on a United States proposal, which provides a framework for a settlement of this difficult problem.

Generally, under the terms of the decision, the Contracting Parties take note that the Federal Republic intends to take further measures of liberalization on a list of products and that it will endeavour to reduce further the number of restrictions still maintained and to ensure that measures applied under its Marketing Laws which cover basic agricultural products, are non-discriminatory.

The decision grants the Federal Republic the right to maintain for three years import restrictions on a specified list of products, mainly agricultural, subject to certain conditions. The Federal Republic is to consult with the Contracting Parties annually regarding the application of the decision and the progress achieved in relaxing or eliminating the remaining restrictions.

In explaining the Canadian position on this important issue, the Chairman of the Canadian Delegation emphasized that the terms of the decision should be regarded as a framework providing an opportunity for Germany to bring its trading system into line with the obligations it had accepted when entering the GATT. In the interest of reaching a settlement generally acceptable to most Contracting Parties, Canada was prepared to agree to the decision as a temporary accommodation for some of the restrictions maintained by Germany.

Mr. Schwarzmann pointed out that in the Canadian view the proposed settlement was not fully satisfactory. In particular the liberalization envisaged did not seem sufficiently substantial or rapid. The fact that no terminal date was set for the removal of a number of restrictions gave cause for some regret. In addition, the terms of the settlement did not appear to make sufficiently clear how Germany would implement in practice its obligations to administer the restrictions it maintained in a non-discriminatory manner. Canada looked to the Federal Republic to remove these matters of concern by making rapid and substantial progress, within the framework of the decision, in eliminating both the restrictions and the discrimination.

Programme for Expansion of International Trade

At the thirteenth session, in November 1958, following discussions in which a number of trade ministers took part—discussions which were based largely on the Haberler Report¹—the Contracting Parties decided to formulate a co-ordinated programme of action directed towards the further expansion of international trade and they established three Committees to carry out the programme. Committee I was to examine the possibility of arranging a further general round of multilateral tariff negotiations within the framework of the GATT. Committee II was to consider the agricultural policies of member

⁽¹⁾ *Trends in International Trade*: a report by a Panel of Experts. General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. October 1958. 138 pages. United Nations Sales No. GATT/1958-3, Price \$2.00 (US) or equivalent in other currencies.

governments and in particular to examine the effects of agricultural protectionist measures on international trade. Committee III had before it the broad problem of the difficulties which face the less-developed countries in expanding their export trade with the rest of the world, in order to earn the income necessary to promote their economic development.

Committee I met in February and in May 1959, and during the fourteenth session it made recommendations on the basis of which the Contracting Parties decided to convene a tariff conference, commencing in September 1960. The scope of this conference will cover four categories of negotiations:

- (i) negotiations among Contracting Parties for new concessions, as proposed by the Representative of the United States at the thirteenth session;
- (ii) renegotiations with member states of the European Economic Community, pursuant to GATT Article XXIV:6; i.e. negotiations for adjustments to be made in the Common Tariff to make up for changes in rates bound under the GATT;
- (iii) any renegotiations of concessions in the existing schedules which governments intend to undertake before the end of the current three-year period of firm validity;
- (iv) negotiations with countries invited to negotiate with a view to acceding to the GATT.

The Contracting Parties decided that the conference shall be held in two phases. The first phase, up to the end of 1960, will be concerned with negotiations with the European Economic Community, and with any renegotiations of existing concessions (items (ii) and (iii) above). The second phase, opening at the beginning of January 1961, will be concerned with negotiations for new concessions and negotiations with countries wishing to accede to GATT.

Committee II met in March 1959 and during the fourteenth session. It drew up detailed arrangements for regular consultations with all contracting parties about their agricultural policies. These consultations will be focussed on the effects of agricultural policies on international trade. Each Contracting Party will consult in its turn and there will be, first, an examination of its general agricultural policy, followed by more detailed discussion of its policies in relation to specific commodities.

Consultations with a first group of countries consisting of Australia, France, The Netherlands, Switzerland, the Union of South Africa and the United Kingdom, will take place in the second half of September 1959.

Committee III met during the fourteenth session and decided to concentrate its efforts as a start on the trading problems encountered by the less-developed countries for a limited list of products of special importance to them, which they would select. The examination of the first group of commodities is expected to begin in September 1959.

Balance-of-Payments Import Restrictions

At this session the Contracting Parties concluded consultations with France, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa and the United Kingdom on the import restrictions which these countries apply on balance-of-payments

grounds. Under the GATT such consultations are held regularly. Their purpose is to provide an opportunity to discuss whether there is a continued need for a country to maintain the restrictions and to explore measures which might be taken by that country to create conditions in which such restrictions could be reduced or eliminated.

A full and frank exchange of views took place on various aspects of the restrictions, including problems faced by the countries concerned and the prospects for their future balance-of-payments position. The consulting countries took note of various representations made to them by other countries. Reference was also made to the recent return to external convertibility of currencies and to its implications for trade policies.

The consultation with the United Kingdom was completed on May 28. On the same day the United Kingdom Government announced measures to remove controls on imports of many consumer goods from the dollar area, to open to the dollar area global quotas covering some other imports, and to increase certain dollar quotas. The United Kingdom action was welcomed in statements by the Canadian Delegation and by representatives of other countries.

The Rome Treaty Establishing the European Economic Community

At the thirteenth session the Contracting Parties approved the procedures for consultation between the six Common Market countries and other Contracting Parties on problems arising from the application of the treaty establishing the European Economic Community. Consultations were begun during the thirteenth session and continued in February 1959, on problems of trade in coffee, tea, cocoa, tobacco and bananas. Canada took part in the consultations on tobacco.

At the fourteenth session a number of Contracting Parties again stressed their fears that the association of the overseas territories of the six Member States with the European Economic Community would lead to damage to existing patterns of international trade and that, in particular, the countries producing tropical products would suffer accordingly. They indicated disappointment at the lack of progress, so far, in the consultations undertaken concerning trade in certain products. The spokesman of the European Economic Community emphasized the obligations undertaken in the Rome Treaty looking towards the harmonious development of world trade, and indicated that the Community was prepared to continue the consultations and willing to undertake consultations on further products. He also indicated that the Community was willing to envisage practical measures in cases of damage to trade of other countries. It is expected that consultations on aluminum, lead and zinc, in which Canada would take part, will take place at an early date.

New Accessions

Israel — Following a request by the Government of Israel to accede to the General Agreement, the Contracting Parties decided to invite Israel to take part in the work of the Contracting Parties. At the same time a Declaration was opened for acceptance under which Israel will accede to the General Agreement provisionally, pending tariff negotiations which she

will undertake with other Contracting Parties during the tariff conference scheduled for 1960-61. It is expected that Israel will accede as a full member, as soon as these tariff negotiations are completed. The Canadian Delegation supported these decisions as steps in the direction of a more comprehensive multilateral trading system.

Yugoslavia — At the thirteenth session the Government of Yugoslavia put forward a request for closer association with the Contracting Parties. This was examined by a working party on the basis of whose report the Contracting Parties established a Declaration on relations between them and Yugoslavia. The Declaration, which will enter into force when accepted by two-thirds of the Contracting Parties, provides for the establishment of commercial relations between Yugoslavia and those Contracting Parties which sign the Declaration, to as great an extent as possible on the basis of the provisions of the General Agreement. It also provides for the participation of Yugoslavia in the work of the Contracting Parties. Under the Declaration the Contracting Parties will review annually the development of mutual relations with Yugoslavia as well as further possibilities towards the full application of the provisions of the Agreement. This arrangement was supported by the Canadian Delegation.

Poland — In March 1959 the Contracting Parties were informed of the desire of Poland to accede to the General Agreement. This was supported by the statement in plenary session by the Representative of Poland indicating that if it were to prove impossible for Poland to be admitted at present as a full member, the Polish Government would be prepared to accept some other suitable form of closer co-operation with the Contracting Parties.

A working party will examine the request of Poland for a closer form of association with GATT and will report to the fifteenth session.

Other Trade Matters

During the course of the fourteenth session the Contracting Parties also dealt with a number of other trade matters. In particular they took note of the progress achieved by the Latin American countries in drawing up plans for a Latin American Free Trade Area and that the draft treaty would be submitted to the Contracting Parties as soon as it had been agreed. The Contracting Parties approved a Canadian request for authority to renegotiate bound tariffs on a list of textile items consequent upon the review of the tariff, on textiles undertaken by the Canadian Tariff Board. A recommendation, submitted by Norway, on freedom of contract in transport assurance was adopted, with the support of the Canadian Delegation. The Contracting Parties also considered reports on anti-dumping and countervailing duties and on the use of subsidies and directed that the work in these fields should be continued.

Finally the Chilean Government was authorized on a temporary basis, to impose surcharges on imports, in addition to the normal import duties, in view of Chile's balance-of-payment difficulties. The surcharges are to be progressively reduced and must be eliminated before January 1, 1961.

**LIST OF COUNTRIES AND INTER-GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES
REPRESENTED AT THE FOURTEENTH SESSION**

- | | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Argentina | *Dominican Republic | *Luxembourg | El Salvador |
| *Australia | Ecuador | *Malaya | Spain |
| *Austria | *Finland | Mexico | *Sweden |
| *Belgium | *France | *Kingdom of | Switzerland |
| *Brazil | *Germany Federal Rep. of | The Netherlands | Tunisia |
| *Burma | *Ghana | *New Zealand | *Turkey |
| Cambodia | *Greece | *Nicaragua | *Union of South |
| *Canada | *Haiti | *Norway | Africa |
| *Ceylon | *India | Panama | United Arab |
| *Chile | *Indonesia | *Pakistan | Republic |
| Columbia | Iran | *Peru | *United Kingdom |
| Costa Rica | Israel | Philippines | *United States |
| *Cuba | *Italy | Poland | *Uruguay |
| *Czechoslovakia | *Japan | Portugal | Venezuela |
| *Denmark | Libya | *Rhodesia and | Yugoslavia |
| | | Nyasaland | |
-
- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| United Nations | Organization for European Economic |
| International Monetary Fund | Co-operation |
| International Labour Office | Council of Europe |
| Food and Agriculture Organization | European Coal and Steel Community |
| European Economic Community: Commission | Customs Co-operation Council |
| European Economic Community: Council of | League of Arab States |
| Ministers | |

(*) Contracting Party to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. Under special arrangements Switzerland, Cambodia and Israel participate in the work of the Contracting Parties.

"Canada Week" in Boston

"CANADA WEEK" was observed in Boston from April 20 to 25. Its main feature was a Trade Fair in one of the principal hotels. Among other events of this week dedicated to Canada were a Canadian Naval visit, two displays of Eskimo art, special film programmes, and a "Canada Day" at the baseball stadium.

This was the first occasion on which an All-Canadian Trade Fair had been held in the United States. Its purpose was to stimulate and extend the already fruitful commercial relations between Canada and the New England region of the United States.

More than 130 Canadian firms took part in the Fair. Although most of the exhibitors came from Eastern Canadian centres, Alberta and British Columbia were also represented. Many products were already familiar to the New England buyer, but a number of brands which had never been sold in the North-eastern United States were introduced for the first time.

Items displayed ranged from fiberglass and aluminum boats to high fidelity sets, and from smart furs to spruce gum. Toboggans, Indian and Tartan sweaters, handicrafts, an electronic detection machine and aerial navigation equipment were also in the exhibit. Two articles not for sale attracted special attention. One of these, a stage-coach of the type which used to provide



A stage-coach of the type used on the post road between Boston and Montreal in the early 1800's.

deluxe transportation on the post road between Montreal and Boston, caught the visitor's eye as he stepped into the Fair lobby. The second was a pair of "Cinderella Slippers" trimmed with diamonds, sapphires and cultured pearls and valued at \$4,000. These sapphire blue satin pumps, which were hand-made in Montreal, will eventually be donated by their owner to a local charity for fund-raising purposes. The jewellery on the shoes, in a palladium setting, is so designed that it can be removed and worn as earrings and a stick pin.

Mr. Gordon Churchill, the Minister of Trade and Commerce, speaking at the inaugural luncheon, said the fact that more trade is conducted between Canada and the United States than between any other two countries in the world provides evidence of our high degree of economic interdependence.

Two other notable visitors, Mr. Richard B. Wigglesworth, Ambassador of the United States to Canada, and the Canadian Ambassador to the United States, Mr. A. D. P. Heeney, took part in the business conference held at the College of Business Administration the following day. Other well-known Canadians participating in discussions were Mr. H. Norman, formerly Ambassador to Venezuela and Consul General in New York and now President of the Montreal Stock Exchange; Mr. Lionel Chevrier, former head of the St. Lawrence Seaway Authority, and Mr. Douglas Le Pan, Assistant Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs and one-time Secretary of the Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects.

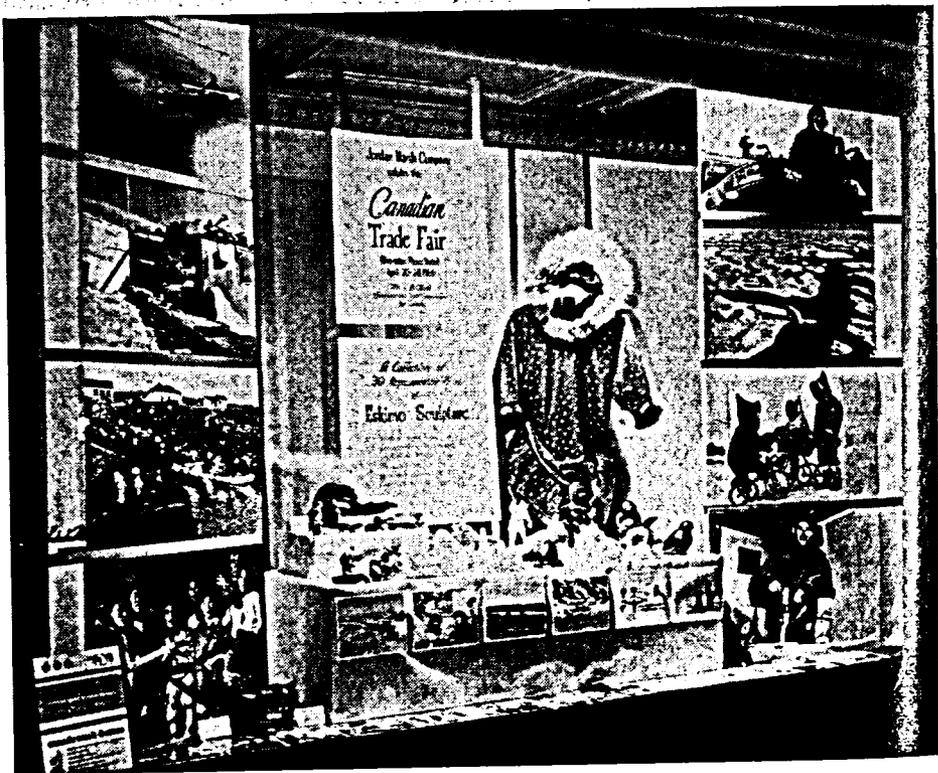
Publicity

The publication of a special supplement by the two leading Boston newspapers provided excellent advance publicity of the programme for "Canada Week". These editions together with issues of other local newspapers also carried day-to-day coverage of special events. In addition, the *Boston Globe* co-sponsored the Canadian-American business conference with the Boston College of Business Administration and arranged a meeting of over 300 high school newspaper editors to whom the Canadian Ambassador spoke on "Canada's Place as a North American Nation". The *Boston Herald* conducted an essay contest for high school and college students and carried a series of 18 articles which provided background material for the competition.

Canadian musical recordings and several direct relays from Toronto were broadcast by station WGDH-FM giving radio listeners an opportunity to hear a number of Canadian Broadcasting Corporation productions. Filmed programmes were telecast by station WGBH-TV and several interviews by Mr. Louis Lyons with the Canadian Ambassador to the United States and with the American Ambassador to Canada presented the TV audiences with some interesting views on Canadian-United States relations. "Dateline Boston" on WHDH-TV featured interviews with the Canadian Minister of Trade and Commerce, the Consul General in Boston, the Trade Commissioner and with the representatives of five provinces who attended the Fair. A more glamorous feature was the presentation of a fashion show demonstrating a variety of Canadian styles.

Naval Visit

A Naval visit is always one of the more colourful events in the life of any seaport, and the arrival of two warships of the First Canadian Escort



Display of Eskimo sculpture.

Squadron, HMCS Algonquin and HMCS Iroquois, was no exception. Because their arrival (April 21) coincided with the actual birthday of Queen Elizabeth II of Canada, both vessels steamed into port in full ceremonial dress. In return, United States Naval ships present, including the flag ship of the 4th United States Carrier Division, the U.S.S. Wasp, responded by dressing ship. A reception was held on board ship Wednesday evening and on Thursday afternoon the RCN band participated in the opening ceremonies of the baseball game between the Boston Red Sox and the Baltimore Orioles at Fenway Park. A feature of this occasion was a presentation to Mr. Ted Bowsfield, pitcher for the Red Sox, who comes from Penticton, British Columbia. The same evening in Copley Square the Royal Canadian Navy conducted a stirring sunset flag lowering ceremonial drill of ancient origin, "Beating the Retreat".

Films

A regular popular feature complementing the Fair's exhibits was a daily series of eleven film programmes in the hotel's theatrette. Beginning at 11:00 a.m., a new programme was presented every hour until 9:00 p.m. One in every three of those who attended the Fair took advantage of this opportunity to see such Canadian productions as: Atomic Energy in Canada, Kitimat Story — an account of the gigantic aluminum and power project on the Pacific coast which reversed the flow of a river and produced a man-made waterfall 16 times the height of Niagara Falls —, "Down North", "The

Sceptre and the Mace", "Trans-Canada Pipe Line", "The Loon's Necklace" and a film presentation of the RCMP's famous "Musical Ride".

On the final day of the Fair a special film showing was held in the New England Mutual Hall where some 700 guests attended the regional premiere of "Trans-Canada Summer". Included in the programme were two other National Film Board productions; "The Living Stone" and "Le Merle". A selection of marches and folk song arrangements played by the Naval band from HMCS "Shearwater" provided an entertaining introduction to the evening programme.

Eskimo Carvings

Perhaps the most unusual of the varied presentations was a collection of Eskimo carvings provided by the Department of Northern Affairs.

These were displayed in the Jordan Marsh Department store window against a background of photographic enlargements showing different aspects of life in the North. Several articles of Eskimo clothing added realism to a portrayal of the inhabitants of Canada's Arctic, the 20th Century's last remaining frontier on the North American continent.

In addition to its inherent value as an introduction to a little known native form of artistic expression, the Eskimo exhibit suggested something of the wider significance of this region. It served to provide a glimpse of the expanding vistas of the North country which are being opened up at an ever increasing pace. Joint Canadian-United States projects for the defence of North America and organized explorations in search of mineral treasures contribute new incentives for the development of the North.

The varied facets of Canadian life presented during "Canada Week" enabled many people to gain a wider understanding than would have been possible had events been confined to the commercial aspects of relations between our two countries, important as these are to our respective economies. The broader picture resulting from this mosaic should contribute in some measure to a deeper appreciation of the basic values and common interests shared by the peoples of our two nations.

Recent Events in Tibet

THE OUTBREAK of the Tibetan revolt in March centred world attention upon that remote region. The revolt, which appears to have been the culmination of several years of conflict between the Tibetans, devout followers of the Buddhist religion, and the Chinese Communists, is the latest of many instances of Tibetan resistance to Chinese control and has important implications for Communist China's relations with the nations of Asia.

Escape of Dalai Lama

Fighting between the Chinese and Khamba tribesmen in southern and south-eastern Tibet has been going on for most of the past year. On March 10 disturbances occurred in Lhasa, when the news that the Dalai Lama had been ordered to report to the Chinese Representative there aroused the fear that he would be arrested by the Chinese and removed to Peking. Subsequently, the Dalai Lama escaped, arriving on March 31 after a very arduous journey in India, where he was given asylum at Mussoorie.

The Chinese, meanwhile, blamed the revolt on the "upper-strata reactionary clique", and charged that the Dalai Lama had been "blatantly abducted" and that Kalimpong (in Indian territory in the north-west tip of West Bengal) was the command centre of the revolution. Prime Minister



A KHAMBA TRIBESMAN

Nehru emphatically denied the latter charge. The Chinese authorities released the texts of six letters, reportedly exchanged between the Dalai Lama and General Tan Kuan-San, Acting Representative of the Chinese Government in Tibet. The gist of these letters was that the Dalai Lama was opposed to the uprising. Finally, the Chinese announced that the Tibetan rebel leaders, who had fled to India, would be tried by a Chinese military tribunal for acting against the "national interests of the motherland".

On April 18, following his arrival at the Tezpur railhead, the Dalai Lama, in a statement to the press, denied that he had left Lhasa under duress. The statement charged the Chinese Government with violating Tibetan autonomy and stated that there had been conflict between the Tibetans and Chinese troops since 1955, resulting in openly strained relations in February 1959. The statement concluded that when, on March 17, several mortar shells were fired at the Dalai Lama's summer palace at Norbulingka, his advisers realized the extent of the danger to him, and it became necessary for him, his family and high officials to leave Lhasa. On April 22, after the New China News Agency had denied the authenticity of this statement, the Dalai Lama asserted that it was issued under his authority and indicated his view. The Dalai Lama did, however, admit writing the letters to General Tan Kuan-San, although he did so, apparently, only in an attempt to maintain peace in Tibet.

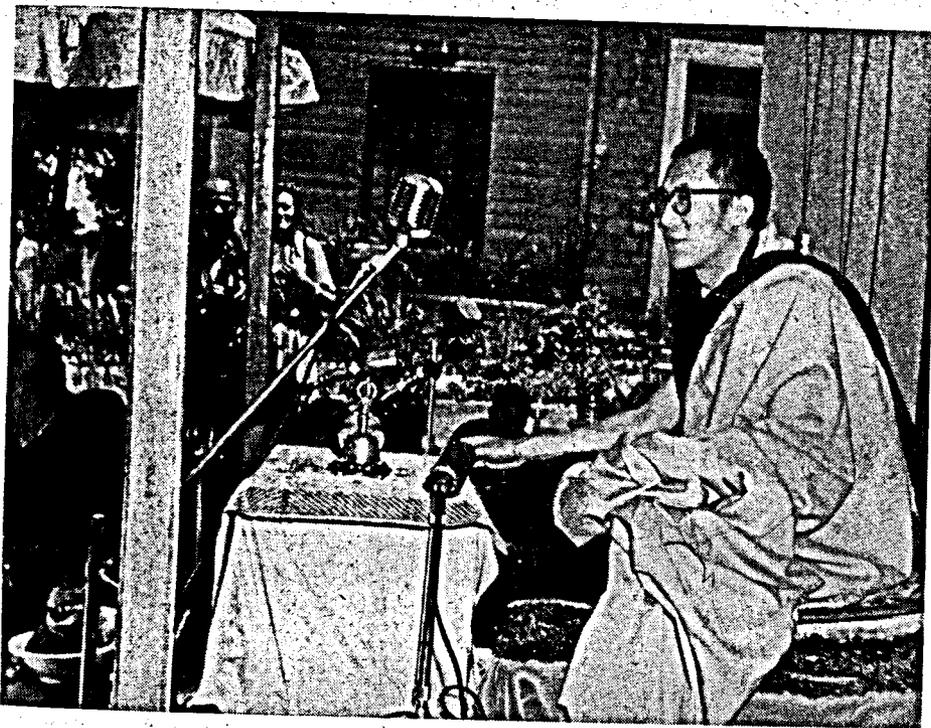
Background

The Chinese Communists have controlled Tibet since 1950, when they invaded the region at the request, they claimed, of the Panchen Lama, who had fallen into their hands when they occupied the Chinghai region of China, adjacent to Tibet, in 1949. Tibet appealed to the United Nations in 1950 for assistance against the Chinese on the ground that it had, since the fall of the Manchu dynasty in 1911, been completely independent. A motion by El Salvador that this appeal be put on the agenda of the General Assembly was not acted upon, on the understanding that a peaceful settlement, which would safeguard Tibetan and Chinese interests, could be reached. In 1951, an agreement was signed between China and Tibet which gave the former control over Tibet's defence and foreign policy but guaranteed Tibet's internal autonomy. Shortly thereafter, a Representative of the Chinese Government and Chinese troops were established in Lhasa and in 1955 a Preparatory Committee for the Autonomous Region of Tibet, to which the Dalai Lama's government was subordinate, was created. The main function of the Preparatory Committee was to prepare for the regional autonomy of Tibet "in accordance with the provisions of the Chinese constitution, the agreement of 1951 and the concrete circumstances of Tibet". Since the revolt in March, the Preparatory Committee has taken over all the functions of local government in Tibet.

The most important Chinese achievement in Tibet since 1950 has been the construction of roads to Lhasa from the neighbouring regions of China. In addition, large numbers of Chinese have been settled in Tibet.

Opposition to Chinese Communism

There has been much opposition in Tibet to the Chinese Communists. Resistance began in the form of anti-Communist resolutions in the village



THE DALAI LAMA IN INDIA

The Dalai Lama inaugurating Buddha's 2,503rd birthday celebrations on May 22, 1959, at Mussoorie, a hill town in the Himalayas.

meetings called by the Communists as part of their propaganda campaign, and from this something in the nature of a national resistance movement developed. In mid-1956 there was a large-scale uprising in eastern Tibet, and in 1957 Tibetan opposition forced the Chinese to postpone their programme of social and economic changes.

China has long maintained that it occupies a special position in Tibet and the basis of the Chinese Communist claim is that Tibet is an integral part of China. The Tibetans, however, claim that they are geographically, racially and culturally distinct from the Chinese and that they have, therefore, a right to at least internal autonomy which, they say, the Chinese Communists have violated.

Tibet, with an average elevation of 12,000 to 16,000 feet, is isolated from the rest of the world by three of its highest mountain ranges (the Himalayas in the south, the Karakoram in the west and the Kunluns in the north). The Tibetans, many of whom live outside the present boundaries of Tibet, are racially quite distinct from the Chinese, and are believed to be related to the Mongols. The warlike Khambas of eastern Tibet and the adjoining areas of China, although easily distinguishable in appearance and language from the inhabitants of central and western Tibet, share their allegiance to the Dalai Lama.

Form of Government

Tibet is a theocratic state in which the Buddhist monasteries exert a great deal of control. In order to preserve their historic rights, the monasteries found themselves, of necessity, in opposition to the imposition of communism. The Chinese, apparently, are directing their attention to removing the monasteries as anti-Communist centres and as an effective social force. The successive reincarnations of the Dalai Lama, Tibet's spiritual and temporal leader, began in the fourteenth century. The Dalai Lama is regarded as the reincarnation of an abbot considered to have attained Buddhahood, and of Chenrezi, the patron deity of Tibet. In the seventeenth century the fifth Dalai Lama declared his former tutor to be the Panchen Lama, the reincarnation of the spiritual guide of Chenrezi. The Panchen Lama exerts a spiritual influence comparable to that of the Dalai Lama but is regarded as his subordinate in temporal matters.

After the death of each Dalai Lama, a search is made for the child who is shown, by the recognized signs, to be his reincarnation. Each Panchen Lama is chosen in the same way. The temporal rule of the Dalai Lama is exercised by a regent until the former is about 18 years of age. The Tibetan Government consists of a Council of Abbots presided over by the Dalai Lama, the Kashag or chief administrative body, and a National Assembly attended by representatives of the monasteries and of the aristocracy.

From the seventh century, when the Tibetan civilization began to take its distinctive form, until the ninth century, the Tibetan monarchy ruled large areas outside Tibet proper. By the tenth century, however, Tibet's military power began to decline and during the thirteenth century it was invaded by the Mongols.

China's Claim

China's claim to a special position in Tibet had its origin in the eighteenth century. In 1718 Chinese forces entered the region to forestall a suspected Tibetan-Mongol alliance against China. Two years later the Chinese occupied Lhasa and introduced two Residents who were to have considerable authority in the administration of Tibet. The Chinese Empire's influence in Tibet, although it was partial and intermittent and steadily weakened in the latter half of the nineteenth century, remained until the fall of the Manchu Dynasty in 1911.

On the condition that Tibet's internal autonomy be preserved, Chinese suzerainty over Tibet was recognized in an Anglo-Tibetan Convention of 1904, an Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1906 and an Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907. The Simla Convention, signed by Britain and Tibet in 1913 after the establishment of the Chinese Republican Government, also recognized Chinese suzerainty in Tibet. Because it refused to accept the Sino-Tibetan border outlined in the agreement, China did not ratify the Simla Convention.

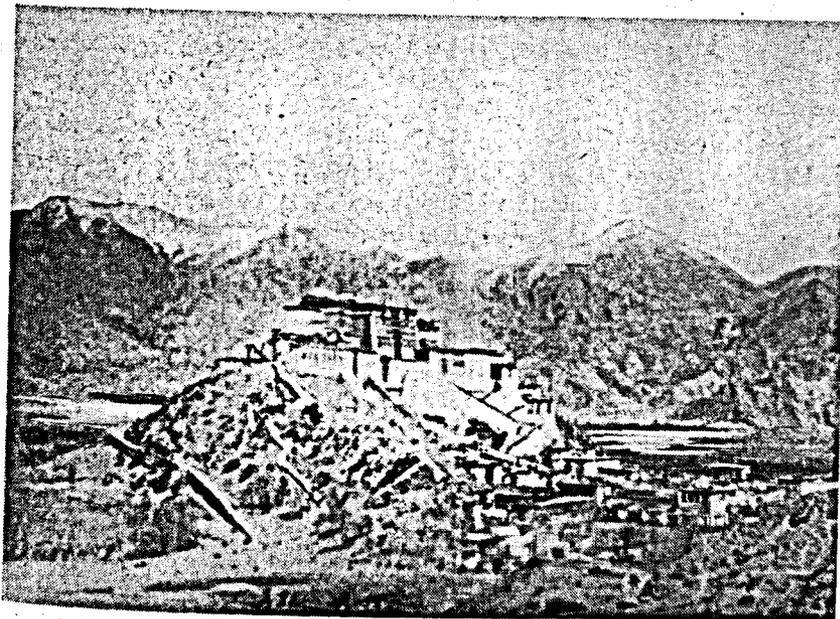
From 1911 until the establishment of the Chinese National Government at Nanking in 1928, Tibet was virtually independent. After 1928, however, the Chinese Nationalists made frequent incursions into Tibet and gained a measure of control there. This control lasted until 1949, when the Tibetans, after the Chinese had installed a successor to the Panchen Lama whom the Tibetans refused to recognize, drove the Nationalist Mission from Lhasa.

Tibet enjoyed another brief period of independence until the Communist Chinese invasion in 1950.

India is, perhaps, the country most immediately concerned by the events in Tibet, in view of its cultural links with Tibet and of the strategic location of the region on its northern frontier. Moreover, when India became independent in 1947, it assumed the United Kingdom's rights and duties in Tibet and took over the British Mission in Lhasa. After the Chinese Communist invasion of Tibet in 1950, the Indian Government, in formal notes to the Chinese Communist Government, charged that China had violated Tibet's autonomy. The Chinese Government repudiated these charges, claiming that the Tibetan question was a domestic problem of China. In 1954, India and China signed an agreement (in which the famous Panch Sheel or "Five Principles" of peaceful co-existence were first enunciated) recognizing India's trading and cultural rights in Tibet but abolishing its other privileges there. In 1956 China and Nepal signed a similar agreement.

Asian Reaction

Communist China, as a result of its actions in this year's Tibetan revolt, appears to have lost prestige in Asia and to have caused considerable apprehension there about possible future Chinese aggression. Prime Minister Nehru, although he has declared that he regards the Tibetan affair as the internal concern of China and that India does not intend to abandon its policy of non-alignment, has shown concern for the Dalai Lama and for a peaceful solution to the Tibetan problem. A number of other Asian leaders have expressed their sympathy for the Tibetans and many Asian newspapers have been critical of Communist China's suppression of the revolt. Thus the Tibetan revolt may have effects which will extend far beyond the boundaries of the region itself.



THE POTALA PALACE
The Dalai Lama's official residence in Lhasa.

Statelessness

ARTICLE 15 of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, which was adopted by the General Assembly on December 10, 1948, as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, states that "Everyone has the right to a nationality". In fact, there are hundreds of thousands of persons who either have no nationality or whose claim to nationality is disputed. Under existing law states are fully at liberty to adopt legislation which results in statelessness, for instance, by not conferring nationality at birth or by depriving persons of their nationality by way of penalty or otherwise. This practice is a recurrent source of international friction; it frequently leads to great personal hardship and it destroys the only link which enables an individual to invoke the protection of a state on his behalf.

Before World War I the problem of statelessness was comparatively unimportant. Those cases which did occur were due to the normal operation of varying nationality laws, under which nationality was either not acquired at birth or was lost after birth under one system of law and not acquired under another. However, after the First World War and particularly in the years following Hitler's seizure of power in Germany, statelessness on a very large scale was produced because of a deliberate policy on the part of some governments of depriving persons of their nationality arbitrarily, on political, racial or religious grounds.

United Nations Measures

The problem of statelessness has become acute in recent years because of the millions of refugees uprooted by the events of the Second World War. Many of these are stateless persons. Persons deprived of protection, i.e. refugees, are frequently classed together with persons destitute of nationality, i.e. stateless persons, under the common denomination of unprotected persons. The United Nations has attempted to deal with the two cases separately and considerable progress has been made in the re-settlement of refugees. In 1950 the Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees was established to organize and co-ordinate international action on behalf of persons who have fled from their native countries for fear of persecution, on political, racial or religious grounds, and who are unwilling or unable to claim the protection of their own governments. The following year a Convention relating to the Status of Refugees was signed at Geneva and three years later, in 1954, a Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons was concluded.

While the United Nations has attempted, in these 1951 and 1954 Conventions, to deal with the international status of refugees and stateless persons, the real problems remain to be solved. They are to resettle and rehabilitate the hundreds of thousands of persons stranded in refugee camps and to reduce the number of stateless persons who, for one reason or another, do not possess the nationality of any country. The World Refugee Year, which begins this month, is intended to focus attention on the plight of the unsettled refugees, while in Geneva, earlier this year, a new attempt was made to deal with the problem of statelessness.

Human Rights Declaration

The Human Rights Declaration says that everyone *should* possess a nationality. This is a principle which is easily accepted but difficult to realize in practice since every state adopts its own criteria for conferring and withdrawing nationality. As long ago as 1930 the Hague Codification Conference had recommended, in its Final Act, that states should make every effort to reduce cases of statelessness. One result of that Conference was the Hague Convention on certain questions relating to the conflict of nationality laws which contained a number of provisions designed to reduce statelessness. However, this Convention never secured general support and it did not touch on some of the main causes of statelessness, i.e., statelessness in consequence of deprivation of nationality or in consequence of territorial changes. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights does not carry the actual state of international law any further although its adoption by the General Assembly clearly sets up a standard for Member States to aim at.

In 1950 the United Nations Economic and Social Council became concerned with the problem of statelessness and the Council requested the International Law Commission to prepare a convention for the elimination of statelessness. The Commission produced two drafts, one dealing with the reduction of future statelessness and the other with its elimination. The first (the "reduction" convention) was intended to mitigate the evils of statelessness by greatly reducing situations in which statelessness can occur, while the second (the "elimination" convention) would have abolished statelessness altogether. When these two draft conventions were ready in 1954, the United Nations General Assembly passed a resolution providing that a Statelessness Conference would be convened to conclude a convention for the reduction or elimination of statelessness when at least twenty states had indicated their willingness to participate. By August of 1958 the necessary twenty states had agreed to take part and the conference was arranged for Geneva from March 24 to April 17, 1959. The fact that four years elapsed before the Statelessness Conference could be convened is in itself an indication of the difficulties involved in attempting a solution of this problem at one blow, as it were. For every country, adherence to one or the other of these draft conventions would have necessitated some changes in its domestic nationality laws.

Geneva Conference

It was apparent even before the opening of the Geneva Conference that most States were only interested in adopting a "reduction" convention. Accordingly, the Conference was devoted to discussing the merits of the Draft Convention on the Reduction of Future Statelessness, drawn up by the International Law Commission.

The Law Commission's draft attempted to reduce cases of statelessness occurring at birth, as a result of changes in the personal status of a person such as marriage or adoption, or as a consequence of renunciation, prolonged residence abroad or deprivation of nationality. In general it followed the rule of *jus soli* ("the law of the soil") under which a country's nationality is acquired by birth in the territory of that state. This is the rule in Canada, for example — under the Canadian Citizenship Act a person born in Canada or on a Canadian ship or aircraft normally acquires Canadian citizenship. The first article of

the draft convention provided, in line with the *jus soli* principle, that a person who would otherwise be stateless should acquire at birth the nationality of the country in whose territory he is born. This proposed rule presented no problem for countries like Canada. However, in countries of mainland Europe, where nationality laws are based on *jus sanguinis* ("the law of descent"), mere birth in a country's territory is not thought sufficient to form any real attachment to that state. In *jus sanguinis* countries a child takes his parents' nationality regardless of where he is born. Typically, *jus soli* is adopted by countries who accept large numbers of immigrants for permanent settlement, while *jus sanguinis* is the rule in many European countries accustomed to admitting large numbers of temporary residents who have no intention of establishing permanent domicile, and where the fact that a person is connected with nationals of the country by strong ties of kinship is thought, at the moment of birth, to be the strongest guarantee that he is attached to that state. Most countries base their nationality laws on one or the other of these principles or else attempt to combine the two rules. A notable exception is the Vatican where nationality is determined neither by *jus soli* nor by *jus sanguinis* but by and subsequent to both the holding of an office and residence on the territory of the Vatican City State.

Acquisition of Nationality

The first part of the draft convention (articles 1-4) was designed to facilitate the acquisition of nationality by persons otherwise stateless e.g., a child whose parents are from a *jus soli* country but who happens to be born in a *jus sanguinis* country. The idea was to guarantee such persons a nationality, in the first instance by more widespread operation of *jus soli*, and, in residual instances, by the operation of *jus sanguinis*.

Since the *jus sanguinis* countries were opposed to a convention which would oblige them to grant nationality automatically from the start, some compromise had to be found. Article 1, as finally adopted, combined the two principles but laid down certain conditions which states could require to be met before granting their nationality, such as that the person has habitually resided in the country for a number of years, has never been convicted of an offence against national security nor been sentenced to imprisonment for five years or more on a criminal charge, and has always been stateless.

While certain strains soon began to appear, principally between those countries who wished a "strong" convention and those who favoured a "weak" convention which would permit broad exceptions, the Conference moved rapidly to complete its consideration of the majority of the articles.

Loss of Nationality

Eventually, however, the delegates were faced with a decision on those articles which define the grounds on which nationality could be lost even though statelessness might result. Here there was a clear division of opinion. Apart from the "strong" and "weak" protagonists, there were also individual differences. Those countries which were even more generous in granting nationality than the draft convention required them to be thought that they should be allowed reasonable leeway in providing for loss or deprivation of nationality even though statelessness would occur. On the other hand, among countries in which nationality was a privilege more difficult to acquire

and to lose there was a strong feeling that the grounds for loss or deprivation should be sharply curtailed. These states considered that the compromise reached on the first part of the convention under which nationality could be acquired as of right in nearly all circumstances represented a considerable concession on their part. A similar spirit of compromise was demanded from those states whose nationality laws sanctioned loss or deprivation of nationality on many grounds.

As the Conference drew to an end only two articles remained to be adopted: article 8, covering deprivation of nationality, and article 13 concerning reservations. A compromise text had been drafted for the former article and adopted in Committee. But in plenary, with opposing interests delicately balanced, the Conference was asked to vote on an oral amendment to article 8 which would have allowed states to deprive persons of their nationality on any grounds presently specified in their national laws. This amendment was adopted in a split vote and the President of the Conference thereupon resigned, charging that the equilibrium of the convention had been destroyed by this decision. The Canadian and United Kingdom Delegations subsequently introduced a compromise text which would have permitted deprivation in accordance with national law only on grounds of national security and public order. However, it rapidly became apparent that no agreement would be possible on article 8 unless further exceptions were permitted to article 1; in effect, the balance or "understanding" between the *jus soli* and *jus sanguinis* countries was thought to have been upset when the amendment to article 8 was adopted. The Conference then decided to adjourn after adopting a motion requesting the General Assembly to reconvene the Statelessness Conference at the earliest possible date.

Results of Geneva Conference

In assessing the results of the Geneva Statelessness Conference, the label of "failure" should not be applied too hastily. The Conference had only a short time at its disposal, yet managed to resolve long-standing differences on nearly all the issues before it. If the Conference had ended by adopting a convention to which the majority of states would never adhere, this would have been an even less desirable result in many ways. What seems important is the significant area of agreement reached at Geneva and the fact that there will be another opportunity to complete a text which can win general acceptance. And most promising, perhaps, is the evidence, from the Conference record itself, that there are a number of countries who are prepared to make substantial changes in their law and practices in order to alleviate the problem of statelessness internationally. If the number of these states can be enlarged, there is reason to hope that a new Statelessness Conference may succeed in completing the work begun at the 1959 Conference.

United Nations Trusteeship Council

To those colonies and territories which as a consequence of the late war have ceased to be under the sovereignty of the States which formerly governed them and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world, there should be applied the principle that the well-being and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilization and that securities for the performance of this trust should be embodied in this Covenant.

With the adoption of these words as the opening paragraph of Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the members of the League acknowledged their international obligation and responsibilities to the people of dependent territories who in their eyes were not yet ready for self-government.

However, the immediate problem which faced the League and particularly the Allied powers at the end of World War I was the disposal of the ex-enemy colonial possessions, mainly in the Middle East and in Africa. Under the Mandates System which the League established the following powers were entrusted with the administration of the territories:

United Kingdom

Tanganyika, Togoland, Cameroons, Palestine, Trans-Jordan, Iraq.

France

Cameroons, Togoland, Syria and Lebanon.

Belgium

Ruanda-Urundi.

South Africa

South-West Africa.

Australia

New Guinea.

New Zealand

Western Samoa.

British Empire

Nauru (Administered by Australia).

Japan (Replaced by U.S.A.)

Caroline, Mariana and Marshall Islands.

Iraq subsequently became independent in 1932 and Lebanon, Syria, and Trans-Jordan gained their independence in 1944 and 1946 as a consequence of the assistance rendered to the Allied cause in the Second World War.

International Trusteeship System

When the United Nations Charter was adopted in San Francisco in 1945, it included provisions for the establishment of an international trusteeship system. The concept of Article 22 of the League of Nations Covenant was incorporated in Article 76 of Chapter XII of the Charter of the United Nations which states that:

The basic objectives of the trusteeship system, in accordance with the Purposes of the United Nations laid down in Article 1 of the present Charter, shall be:

- a) to further international peace and security;
- b) to promote the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the inhabitants of the trust territories, and their progressive development towards self-government or independence as may be appropriate to the particular circumstances of each territory and its peoples and the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned, and as may be provided by the terms of each trusteeship agreement;
- c) to encourage respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion, and to encourage recognition of the interdependence of the peoples of the world; and
- d) to ensure equal treatment in social, economic, and commercial matters for all Members of the United Nations and their nationals, and also equal treatment for the latter in the administration of justice, without prejudice to the attainment of the foregoing objectives and subject to the provisions of Article 80.

Article 77 specifies that:

1. The trusteeship system shall apply to such territories in the following categories as may be placed thereunder by means of trusteeship agreements:

- a) territories now held under mandate;
- b) territories which may be detached from enemy states as a result of the Second World War; and
- c) territories voluntarily placed under the system by states responsible for their administration.

2. It will be a matter for subsequent agreement as to which territories in the foregoing categories will be brought under the trusteeship system and upon what terms.

All the authorities administering territories under League of Nations mandates agreed to place their mandated territories under United Nations trusteeship agreements, with the exception of the United Kingdom for Palestine (whose status was settled by a special decision of the General Assembly) and the Union of South Africa for South-West Africa.

Functions of the Council

To supervise the administration of the trust territories, the Charter of the United Nations provided a council, to be named the Trusteeship Council, whose membership would consist of the representatives of governments and on which there would be a balance between members administering trust territories and non-administering members. The present membership of the Council is as follows: Australia, Belgium, France, Italy, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, the U.S.A., China, U.S.S.R., Burma, Haiti, India, United Arab Republic and Paraguay. There was, however, a provision that all five permanent members of the Security Council (China, France, United Kingdom, United States, and U.S.S.R.) should always sit on the Council.

The functions and powers of the Council were clearly defined under Article 87 which states:

The General Assembly and, under its authority, the Trusteeship Council, in carrying out their functions, may:

- a) consider reports submitted by the administering authority;

- b) accept petitions and examine them in consultation with the administering authority;
- c) provide for periodic visits to the respective trust territories at times agreed upon with the administering authority; and
- d) take these and other actions in conformity with the terms of the trusteeship agreements.

Under the trusteeship agreements approved by the General Assembly, the United Nations found itself sharing responsibility for the well-being and future advancement of some 20,000,000 persons in eleven trust territories:

Togoland, the Cameroons, Tanganyika
(under United Kingdom trusteeship)

Togoland and the Cameroons (under the French)

Ruanda Urundi (under Belgium trusteeship)

Somaliland (under Italian trusteeship)¹

New Guinea (under Australian trusteeship)

West Samoa (under New Zealand trusteeship)

Nauru, a phosphate island (under Australian trusteeship together with the United Kingdom and New Zealand)

Pacific Islands (under United States trusteeship)

The Council which holds two regular sessions each year also meets in special session when the occasion requires. The main basis of its work is its examination of the annual reports submitted by the administering authorities. In order to facilitate the preparation of these reports the Council has formulated questionnaires on the political, economic, social, and educational advancement of the inhabitants of each trust territory. The reports of the periodic visiting Missions (which are usually composed of three or four members of the Council assisted by the United Nations Secretariat) also provide supplementary information on conditions in the territories and often make recommendations regarding their welfare. Direct criticism of the administration is frequently made in the tens of thousands of written petitions which the Council receives and in the oral hearings which it may grant to petitioners.

Problems

In the main the administering authorities have been warmly commended for the way in which they have despatched their responsibilities. However, there are certain issues which have become almost perennial subjects of debate during the twelve years in which the international trusteeship system has been in effect. Under the agreements no final dates were set for the various territories to attain independence or self-government, and non-administering members have repeatedly urged that target dates should be set for the attainment of progressive stages in the territories' development towards independence. The administering authorities contend that this is impractical, since each new step can only be taken after consultation with the peoples of the

¹The trusteeship agreement for Somaliland was the only agreement to specify a definite date, December 2, 1960, for the termination of trusteeship. Italy as administering authority was privileged to participate in the Council's examination of conditions in Somaliland. Upon being admitted to the United Nations, Italy became a full member of the Trusteeship Council whose total membership was thereby increased to fourteen.

territories and when they are capable of assuming the new responsibilities. Another issue centers around the frequent accusation that the administering authorities do not take sufficient action to provide economic, social and educational opportunities for the inhabitants of the territories. The provision and utilization of scholarships and fellowships for advanced study abroad for qualified students has been particularly stressed. Other special problems to which the Council devotes its attention are the rural economic development of the territories, the functioning of administrative unions and for the past two years the possible effect on the economy of African territories of their association with the European Common Market.

Achievement

Nevertheless, despite the impatience of the United Nations to see these territories achieve nationhood and independence, the trusteeship system has had an impressive record. In 1954 the United Kingdom was the first administering authority to notify the United Nations that a trust territory (Togoland) under its administration had "substantially achieved" the goals of trusteeship. The Council arranged to despatch a special Mission to the territory and at its recommendation a plebiscite under United Nations supervision was held to ascertain the desires of the Togolese people with regard to their future status. (The imminent independence of the United Kingdom colony of the Gold Coast would in any event have called for a modification in the administration of Togoland.) The results of the plebiscite, which was conducted with universal suffrage, made it plain that the majority of the Togolese wished to unite with an independent Gold Coast. On March 6, 1957, the united territories became the independent state of Ghana and Ghana became a member of the United Nations on March 8.

French Togoland has been somewhat slower in reaching independence. In 1955 elections to form a new Legislative Assembly were boycotted by a considerable part of the people of the territory who were not satisfied with the manner in which they were conducted and who, through their petitioners to the United Nations, demanded new elections before any abrogation of the trusteeship agreement with France. The Togolese Government, although it considered itself fully representative of the Togolese people, agreed to hold new elections under United Nations' supervision in 1957 in the light of a report from a special Mission despatched by the Trusteeship Council in 1956 to investigate the situation, and a General Assembly resolution to that effect. As a result of these elections, the opposition party was returned to power and, after forming a new government and after appropriate consultations with the Government of France, agreement was reached that French Togoland should become independent early in 1960. The General Assembly at its thirteenth session agreed that the trusteeship agreement for French Togoland should be abrogated on the day on which it became fully independent.

Four other trust territories are also in the final stages of their development before attaining the full goals of the international trusteeship system. Plebiscites under United Nations' supervision will be held separately in both the Northern and Southern Cameroons under United Kingdom administration before the end of this year to determine the people's views on the future of the two parts of the territories. The plebiscite in the Northern Cameroons will be held this autumn to decide if it wishes to become an integral part of Northern

Nigeria. The questions to be put to the peoples of the Southern Cameroons are not yet formulated but they will have to decide whether to unite with Nigeria, which has offered them full regional status, or to unite with the French Cameroons or, if they refuse either alternative, to continue under modified trusteeship.

The Assembly at its resumed session in February 1959 agreed that the French Cameroons was ready for full independence and that, the date arrived at between the Government of the French Cameroons and the Government of France, January 1, 1960, should be the date of the abrogation of the trusteeship agreement.

Finally, the Government of New Zealand informed the Trusteeship Council at its twenty-second session that Western Samoa was rapidly approaching the time at which it would be appropriate to decide on a form of self-government for that territory. The Trusteeship Council despatched a special visiting Mission to Western Samoa in April 1959 to advise it on what steps might be taken to achieve this end. In its report, the visiting Mission pointed out that since the Samoan Legislature is elected on a system of *Matai*¹ suffrage, it believed that the General Assembly might wish a plebiscite to be held before the termination of trusteeship. The Samoan Legislative Assembly has adopted a resolution recommending a plebiscite to determine whether there is agreement on the termination of the trusteeship agreement, the enactment of a proposed new constitution and a Treaty of Friendship with New Zealand. The plebiscite is proposed for May 1961, with termination of trusteeship at the sixteenth session of the General Assembly in 1961 and the conclusion of the Treaty of Friendship in January 1962.

In 1962, therefore, the United Nations will have guided six of the eleven trust territories to full nationhood, leaving only two African territories, Ruanda Urundi and Tanganyika, and New Guinea, Nauru and the Pacific Islands under its tutelage. This is an impressive record and one of which the Trusteeship Council and the United Nations may be justifiably proud.

¹*Matai* are the recognized spokesman or leaders of the basic unit of Samoan society, the *Aiga*, an extended family group.

World Refugee Year

IN A broadcast on June 28 over the CBC National Radio and Television Networks, Prime Minister Diefenbaker introduced World Refugee Year.

Mr. Diefenbaker said:

Today, June 28, marks the opening in Canada and elsewhere of World Refugee Year. Fifty-two countries have already announced that they will participate in this Year, which was established by the General Assembly of the United Nations at its thirteenth session last December. The aims of this campaign are to focus interest on the serious refugee problems which still exist in the world, to obtain additional financial contributions towards solving these problems, and to create additional opportunities for permanent solutions to these problems.

There are almost 2.5 million unsettled refugees in Europe, North Africa, and the Middle East and Asia. Much can be achieved when governments and peoples work together. To give one striking example, new homes have been found for almost all of the 200,000 Hungarian refugees who fled, less than three years ago, from that unhappy country.

However, few of the world's refugee problems have been dealt with in so encouraging a manner. The Hungarian example should make us think again of the plight of those thousands of refugees in Europe who, 14 years after VE-Day, are still waiting, many of them in camps, for someone to give them permanent homes. There are about a million refugees in the Middle East, and almost a million Chinese refugees in the tiny area of Hong Kong. In China today there are 8,000 Europeans whose search for a new home has continued since the Communist revolution in Russia in 1917. With a concerted world-wide effort we can envisage the end of at least some of these problems in the near future. Meanwhile, however, the refugees must be fed and housed. Just as important, they must be helped to become self-sufficient wherever they are living, so far as this is possible. This is as important for spiritual as for economic reasons: for economic dependence will surely tend to spiritual degradation.

The Government of Canada has contributed \$1,650,000 in cash to United Nations refugee programmes over the last two years, and a further \$3 million worth of food. We have increased our contributions to some of these programmes in the hope of hastening their completion. With this same hope, I now welcome the inauguration of World Refugee Year. In the past there has been a continuing and valuable contribution from Canadian churches and voluntary relief organizations. I am glad to see that they have now joined together to establish a Canadian Committee for World Refugee Year, with a national headquarters in Toronto. This committee will organize a financial campaign in Canada. It has accepted the goals which have been set by similar national committees in countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, France, Sweden, New Zealand and others.

Traditionally, Canada has been one of those countries which has recognized a common responsibility for these unfortunate and innocent

people. The Government plans to announce in the next four months further ways in which it will participate in the programme of World Refugee Year.

But this problem cannot be fully solved by governments alone. It calls for the sympathy, understanding, and above all, the active assistance of people in those countries where such experiences are unknown. I therefore urge most sympathetic consideration for the appeal to be made by the Canadian Committee for World Refugee Year. I am confident that Canadians will not forget the frightful hardships which have been thrust upon their brothers elsewhere.

APPOINTMENTS, TRANSFERS AND RETIREMENTS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mr. R. W. MacLaren posted from the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina, to Ottawa. Left Indochina May 29, 1959.
- Mr. J. Y. Grenon posted from the Canadian Embassy, Rome, to Ottawa. Left Rome May 30, 1959.
- Mr. W. N. Lawton appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1, effective June 1, 1959.
- Mr. F. E. K. Chandler appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Junior Administrative Officer 1, effective June 1, 1959.
- Miss G. F. Read appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1, effective June 1, 1959.
- Mr. D. R. Taylor reappointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 5, effective June 1, 1959.
- Mr. J. Bruchesi appointed Canadian Ambassador to Spain. Left Canada June 3, 1959.
- Mr. J. Chapdelaine, Canadian Ambassador to Sweden, posted to Ottawa. Left Sweden June 4, 1959.
- Mr. E. G. Smith retired from the Canadian Diplomatic Service effective June 4, 1959.
- Mr. J. G. Hadwen posted from the Permanent Mission of Canada to the United Nations, New York, to Ottawa. Left New York June 5, 1959.
- Mr. J. M. Touchette appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1, effective June 15, 1959.
- Mr. J. N. Whittaker appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1, effective June 15, 1959.
- Mr. G. C. Cook posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Washington. Left Ottawa June 18, 1959.
- Mr. T. J. Arcand posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Legation, Prague. Left Ottawa June 18, 1959.
- Mr. P. E. J. Charpentier posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Legation, Warsaw. Left Ottawa June 19, 1959.
- Mr. E. B. Wang posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Copenhagen. Left Ottawa June 19, 1959.
- Mr. A. K. Graham QC, appointed Canadian Ambassador to Sweden. Left Canada June 21, 1959.
- Mr. H. Allard, Canadian Ambassador to Cuba, posted to Ottawa. Left Havana June 23, 1959.
- Mr. R. P. Gilbert posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Lima. Left Ottawa June 25, 1959.

- Mr. A. P. Sherwood posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Kuala Lumpur. Left Ottawa June 25, 1959.
- Miss M. F. MacKenzie posted from the Delegation of Canada to the North Atlantic Council Paris to Ottawa. Left Paris June 26, 1959.
- Mr. C. J. Webster posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Djakarta. Left Ottawa June 27, 1959.
- Mr. G. B. Bull posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, The Hague. Left Ottawa June 27, 1959.
- Mr. A. W. Robertson appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1, effective June 29, 1959.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

Pakistan

Agreement for co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy.
Signed at Ottawa May 14, 1959.

United States of America

Exchange of Notes concerning the establishment in Canada of short range tactical air navigation facilities at nine sites (TACAN).
Signed at Ottawa May 1, 1959.
Entered into force May 1, 1959.

Agreement to provide for co-operation on the uses of atomic energy for mutual defence purposes.
Signed at Washington May 22, 1959.

Japan

Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of Japan for Co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy.
Signed at Ottawa July 2, 1959.

Agreed Minutes relating to the Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of Japan for Co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy.
Signed at Ottawa July 2, 1959.

Protocol to the Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of Japan for Co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy.
Signed at Ottawa July 2, 1959.

Multilateral

Declaration on the provisional accession of the Swiss Confederation to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.
Done at Geneva November 22, 1958.
Signed by Canada May 4, 1959.

Protocol relating to negotiations for the establishment of a new schedule III — Brazil — to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.
Done at Geneva December 31, 1958.
Signed by Canada April 21, 1959.

Declaration extending the standstill provisions of Article XVI: 4 of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.
Done at Geneva November 30, 1957.
Signed by Canada April 21, 1959.

Procès-verbal extending the validity of the Declaration extending the standstill provisions of Article XVI: 4 of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.
Done at Geneva November 22, 1958.
Signed by Canada April 21, 1959.

Protocol amending the International Convention for the regulation of Whaling signed at Washington on December 2, 1946.
Done at Washington November 19, 1956.
Signed by Canada November 30, 1956.
Canada's Instrument of Ratification deposited June 14, 1957.
Entered into force May 4, 1959.

Procès-verbal and declaration extending the provisions of Article XVI: 4 of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.
Done at Geneva November 22, 1958.
Signed by Canada April 21, 1959.
Entered into force May 11, 1959.

State Treaty for the re-establishment of an independent and democratic Austria.
Signed at Vienna May 15, 1955.
Entered into force July 27, 1955.
Canada's Instrument of Accession deposited June 23, 1959.
Entered into force for Canada June 23, 1959.

International Agreement for the creation in Paris of an International Office of Epizootics.
Done at Paris January 25, 1924.
Canada's Instrument of Adherence deposited April 14, 1959.
Entered into force for Canada April 14, 1959.

Publication

Canada Treaty Series 1957 No. 31. Exchange of Notes between Canada and Ireland modifying the Air Agreement of August 8, 1947 between the two countries. Signed at Dublin December 23, 1957. In force December 23, 1957.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 24. Exchange of Notes (October 22, 1958) between Canada and France modifying the Air Agreement, signed at Ottawa August 1, 1950. Signed at Ottawa October 22, 1958. In force October 22, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 25. Financial Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of India. Signed at Ottawa October 22, 1958. In force October 22, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 27. Financial Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of Ceylon. Signed at Ottawa November 5, 1958. In force November 5, 1958.

Canada Treaty Series 1958 No. 28. Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America concerning the seasonal movement between the two countries of woods workers. Signed at Ottawa October 23 and 31, 1958. In force October 31, 1958.

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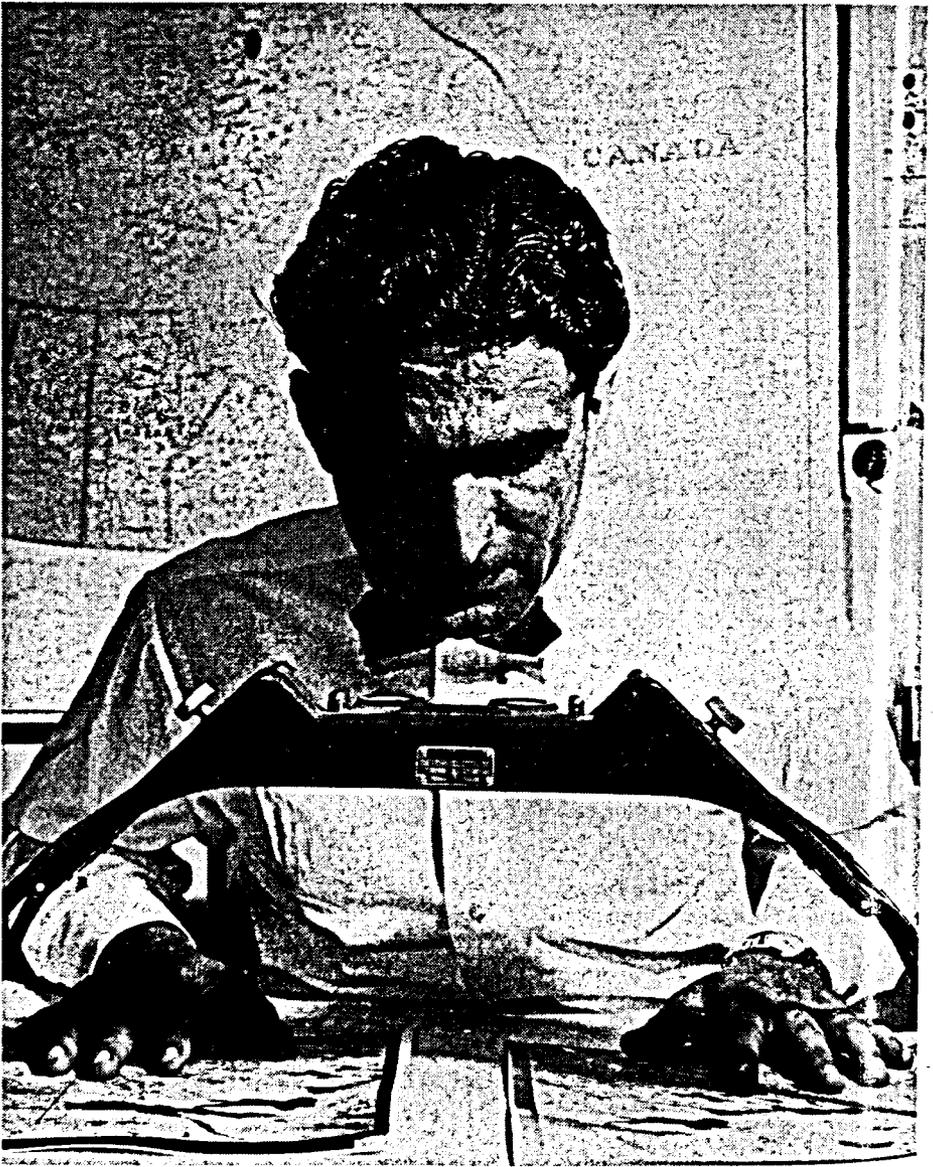
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COLOMBO PLAN TRAINEE

A Pakistani operating a magnifying stereo in the Surveys and Mapping Branch, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, Ottawa. He has completed studies of aerial survey and mapping techniques employed in Canada.

Canada and the Colombo Plan

THE Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic Development in South and South-East Asia will soon be celebrating its tenth anniversary. It was brought into being at a meeting of Commonwealth Foreign Ministers held at Colombo in February 1950. Established on the initiative of Commonwealth governments, it expanded rapidly to encompass countries of the whole area and, on the donor side, to include the United States and Japan. Aid under the Colombo Plan falls into two broad categories: technical co-operation and development assistance.

The Colombo Plan is characterized by the co-operative nature of its endeavours and by the flexibility of its organizational structure. There being no central machinery, aid projects are generally negotiated and carried out on a bilateral basis. Some projects, however, do involve several countries, as donors, or recipients, or both. The Plan has a small Bureau in Colombo which deals with technical co-operation and information matters. Heads of missions of Colombo Plan countries in Ceylon also meet periodically to discuss matters arising in the context of the technical co-operation scheme. The Consultative Committee, which is composed of ministers of member countries, meets annually to exchange views on the nature and scope of the Colombo Plan and to review its impact on the economic development of the area.

The philosophy underlying Canadian participation in the Plan was summed up by the Prime Minister of Canada, Mr. John G. Diefenbaker, in an address on June 29, 1958, when he said that:

The good citizen and the good nation must recognize his obligations to the broad community of man.

Mr. Diefenbaker went on to explain the concept of the interdependence of nations in the following words:

While we have our duty to ourselves and our special relationship to our families and our neighbours, more and more, we, as Canadians and citizens of the world, must seek to share the problems of every continent. We have much to give to other peoples, particularly those in less fortunate lands, but we have also much to learn from them. There cannot be friendship and understanding between the continents, if we in the Western world arrogantly assume a monopoly of skills and wisdom or that we must try to make all other peoples conform to our ways and thinking. We have much to learn from them, as we have something to give them. It is for this reason, for example, that we in Canada strongly support the Colombo Plan. The Colombo Plan is not merely a programme for giving aid from Western countries to Asian countries. It is a programme for mutual co-operation in economic projects; Canada has contributed in men and resources to the Plan, but we have gained enormously from the experiences we have had in working with our friends in India, Pakistan and other countries in creating new opportunities for them and for the benefit of mankind.

Monetary and Food Aid

Canada has been providing over the years, in addition to its contributions to multilateral programmes carried out under United Nations auspices, increasing amounts of development aid and technical assistance under the Colombo Plan. In the fiscal year 1958-59 Canada made available \$35 million for these purposes bringing its total contribution as of March 31, 1959, to more than \$230 million. In addition to its aid in India, Pakistan and Ceylon within the framework of the Colombo Plan, Canada made special grants of wheat and flour amounting to an aggregate of \$28.5 million to India, Pakistan and Ceylon between January 1, 1958 and March 31, 1959. In the same period it also made loans amounting to \$35 million to countries in the Colombo Plan area to finance the purchase of wheat and flour to meet food shortages, bringing up the total of special grants and loans for wheat and flour over and above contributions to the Colombo Plan to \$70 million.

Technical Assistance

Under the technical co-operation scheme, Canada had assigned to Colombo Plan countries up to March 31, 1959, 134 experts in a wide variety of fields, including public health, agriculture and fisheries, mining, engineering, aerial surveys. Over the same period, 1035 trainees from Colombo Plan countries spent varying periods in Canada studying at universities and other educational institutions, learning Canadian industrial techniques, or receiving training in government departments. Fields of study included nursing, public health, engineering, agriculture, forestry, fisheries, geology, aerial survey techniques, statistics, railway operations, and public administration.

Canada has participated or is participating in over 90 development projects in ten countries. The following are some of the more important of these projects.

India

- Building of an atomic reactor near Bombay.
- Re-equipping of railway systems through the provision of 120 steam locomotives, locomotive boilers and railway ties.
- Assistance to Mayurakshi electricity scheme in West Bengal.
- Modernization of Bombay Transport System.
- Hydro-electric project at Kundah in Madras.
- Aerial survey of resources.
- Hydro-electric project on the Umtru River in Assam.
- Contribution of 3 Cobalt Beam Therapy Units.
- Provision of wheat and non-ferrous metals.

Pakistan

- Building of a cement plant in the Thal development scheme.
- Warsak hydro-electric project near Khyber Pass.

Aerial survey of resources.

Shadiwal hydro-electric project.

Ganges-Kobadak steam plant for generation of electricity.

Goalpara (Khulna) thermal power plant.

Transmission line from Dacca to Chittagong and Karnaphuli in East Pakistan.

Provision of wheat and non-ferrous metals.

Ceylon

The Mutwal fisheries research and development scheme.

Aerial survey of resources.

Gal Oya Valley transmission lines.

Institute of Practical Technology at Katubedde.

Provision of 10 diesel locomotives and of railway ties.

Airport telecommunications equipment for Ratmalana airport at Colombo.

Colombo Harbour project — provision of 9 cranes and erecting derrick.

Apart from Canadian participation in projects in individual Colombo Plan countries, Canada is also contributing to projects benefiting groups of countries in the area. Thus in November 1958, the Canadian Government embarked on a programme under which \$2,500 worth of medical books will be provided to each of 76 medical school libraries in ten countries in South and South-East Asia. The Canadian Government has also undertaken to carry out an aerial survey and mapping project of the Lower Mekong River Basin, as part of the co-operative programme that has been launched for the development of the Mekong River.

Aid Increased

Canada announced at the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference in Montreal, an increase from \$35 million to \$50 million in its annual contribution to the Colombo Plan over the next three years. Canada also announced a \$10 million programme of economic assistance to The West Indies over the next five years and a \$500,000 technical assistance programme for Commonwealth areas in Africa and elsewhere which are not covered by the Colombo Plan or The West Indies programme. Agreement on a Commonwealth scholarship scheme was also announced at Montreal. Under this scheme, it is hoped that as many as 1,000 Commonwealth scholars and fellows may be studying in other Commonwealth countries at any one time. Canada undertook to be responsible for one quarter of the scheme which is expected to be in operation in time for the 1960-61 academic year.

External Affairs in Parliament

Statement By Mr. Green

During the external affairs debate in the House of Commons on July 9, Mr. Howard C. Green, Secretary of State for External Affairs, spoke on certain aspects of the international situation which closely concern Canada. He said, in part:

The first subject I plan to discuss is the Geneva Conference. I am aware that Canadians have been following with close attention the course of the Foreign Ministers' discussions in Geneva. As hon. members know, the Foreign Ministers' Conference adjourned on June 20 and will resume its sittings next Monday, July 13. It is disappointing that no agreement was reached during the six weeks of negotiations, but at the same time one should not underrate the benefits of the discussions which took place. The attitudes of both sides have been clarified, and there are some common elements in the proposals advanced on the Berlin issue which might possibly lead to progress.

This has been a period of re-examination for the West, both with respect to the attitude to be adopted in further discussions and with respect to the question as to whether the present discussions might usefully lead to a summit meeting. The United Kingdom, the United States and France, as the Western negotiating powers, together with the Federal Republic of Germany, are examining the records of the discussion and are consulting to determine how best to proceed in the hope of making some progress. In addition — and this is important to Canada — to participation in consultations with the negotiating powers which are taking place in the NATO Council, in which consultations, of course, Canada is at all times represented, the Canadian Government will shortly have the opportunity of discussing these matters with the United States Secretary of State, Mr. Christian Herter.

It is to be hoped that during the period of recess of the Foreign Ministers' Conference the Soviet leaders will come to realize that nothing is to be gained by an attitude of challenge and impatience. If progress is to be made it will be necessary for the East-West talks to be conducted in an atmosphere free of implied threats or peremptory demands.

As hon. members are aware, the Canadian Government has consistently supported proposals for negotiation with the Soviet Union on the question of Berlin, and on other issues. Since, in this thermonuclear age, war is unthinkable, there is no alternative to negotiation for the solution of these problems. In our view negotiation implies a preparedness on both sides to do more than exchange views across the conference table. Each side must go some way to meet the basic interests of the other. If it is possible to arrive at some settlement on the Berlin question, the way should be opened for the solution of broader problems

Where the resumed Foreign Ministers' Conference will lead us cannot now be predicted. The Canadian Government has held to the view that progress toward settlement of some international issues might be achieved

by discussions amongst heads of government, in other words at a summit conference. It is the hope of the Canadian Government that such a meeting can be arranged. Then there may prove to be subjects other than those relating to Germany and Berlin — I mention the suspension of nuclear tests and the peaceful use of outer space as examples — on which progress could be made by high level discussions. At this stage, I think as few preconditions and prior stipulations as possible should be placed in the way of a summit meeting. For example, there have been signs of some difference of opinion on the question of who should participate in a summit conference, and there are indications of a trend to increase participation. In the judgment of the Canadian Government this is not likely to be a helpful development.

The suicidal prospect of global war must be apparent to all nations, and the need of finding some alternative for the settlement of differences must recommend itself to all statesmen. For a middle power such as Canada, with brilliant prospects of development, the international tensions which keep alive the threat of a nuclear holocaust are in themselves especially significant. The speed with which our hopes and prospects can be realized, however, will depend to an important degree upon the international atmosphere. We must work, within the Western alliance of which we are a member, toward a reduction of tension if we are to be free to devote a greater part of our national talents and energies to constructive Canadian development.

NATO

Through NATO Canada is able to work intimately with the United Kingdom, the United States and the 12 European member states in the formulation of policies and attitudes which are designed to facilitate progress toward a settlement of some of the highly complicated issues dividing East and West

Nothing that can be seen on the horizon suggests or permits the luxury of a slackening in the preparedness of free nations. The need for vigilance and unity is as imperative now as at any time during the past decade. It is imperative not only for reasons of our security but also in the context of our never-ending search through diplomacy for peaceful solutions to the problems dividing the world today. The presence of Canadian forces alongside their friends from the United Kingdom, the United States and Europe is both an earnest of Canadian intentions and an important cause of the respect accorded Canada in the daily conduct of international affairs

Even though the initial emphasis in NATO was on military requirements, the members of the Alliance have recognized the fundamental community of interests and aspirations shared by all parties to the Treaty, and have fostered through the years the development of an Atlantic Community of like-minded nations and peoples. Today, when the threat to the free world is not only military but economic, political and psychological, Canada is playing its part in stressing the need for consultations between member governments in the development of both the military and non-military aspects of the Alliance. Support for NATO remains an essential cornerstone of Canada's foreign policy.

The Commonwealth

As a member of the Commonwealth we are justly proud of its record in facilitating the constitutional development of its members. For example, very recently we had the opportunity of welcoming a further step in this direction and yet another member, Singapore.

Similar developments are taking place today in another most important area of the world, Africa. In the welter of news reports about problems and stresses in various parts of that continent I am afraid there has been a tendency to overlook a significant and happy Commonwealth event in Africa. I am referring, of course, to the fact that recently powers of self-government passed to the populous northern region of the Federation of Nigeria, thus completing the internal political evolution which is to culminate on October 1, 1960, when the large and important nation of Nigeria is scheduled to obtain independence.

I am happy to say that both the Prime Minister of the Federation and the premiers of the regions have expressed the intention to remain in the Commonwealth. I am sure all hon. members will wish to join with me in expressing to the Nigerian leaders and to the United Kingdom Government congratulations for their respective parts in this welcome event. The Canadian Government hopes to be in a position to establish suitable diplomatic representation in Nigeria and to take similar action with respect to the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland as soon as circumstances permit.

Colombo Plan

It will be appropriate, I think, if I say a word or two here about the assistance which Canada has been giving in recent months to the less-developed countries under the various programmes which have been established for this purpose, especially since most of Canada's assistance has gone to our partners in the Commonwealth family. I refer, of course, to the Colombo Plan . . .

Since my predecessor last reviewed the position, we have been able to carry to a successful conclusion our discussions with Pakistan and Ceylon with respect to their share of the Colombo Plan appropriation voted by Parliament for the fiscal year 1958-59. As a result of these discussions we have now agreed that \$13 million in the form of Canadian commodities and equipment will be made available to Pakistan and \$2 million to Ceylon.

Under the Pakistan programme we have agreed to provide a further \$2 million worth of wheat in addition to the \$2 million of which the House was informed last November. The amount of \$2,800,000 will be devoted to the provision of industrial metals which are urgently required for the industrial sector of the economy to help maintain reasonable levels of industrial activity and employment. Some \$650,000 will be made available in the form of wood pulp which is required for a new newsprint mill being constructed by a Canadian engineering firm. Then \$120,000 will be provided for the purchase of pesticide spraying equipment and \$200,000 for the purchase of three Beaver aircraft to help with the eradication of crop pests. The sum of \$500,000 has been set aside

to provide spare parts and to finance the cost of overhauling the equipment which has been used in the construction of the Warsak Dam, and which will be turned over to the Government of Pakistan as and when it ceases to be required on the project. An amount of \$1,100,000 has been allocated to the construction of a transmission line from Karnaphuli to the port of Chittagong in East Pakistan. The balance of \$3,630,000 available from the \$13 million set aside for Pakistan is being allocated tentatively to two new projects, one in the construction field and the other aimed at creating additional electrical generating capacity in Pakistan.

Turning to the Canadian aid programme in Ceylon, the Government has approved an allocation of \$710,000 to finance the continuation of the aerial photographic and resources survey which a Canadian firm has been carrying out in Ceylon under the Colombo Plan. A second project, which has been tentatively selected, covers the construction of transmission lines in an area in the development of which Canada has already had an opportunity to participate.

We have also completed discussions with a number of non-Commonwealth countries, notably Indonesia, Burma and Vietnam, out of which has emerged a programme that will absorb about \$2 million of the Colombo Plan appropriation voted by Parliament for 1958-59, the last fiscal year. This programme comprises the provision of Canadian food-stuffs, Canadian participation in a highway survey and a bridge building project in Burma and the supply of prospecting equipment to Burma and of three Otter aircraft to Indonesia to assist that country in the development of its widely scattered island economy.

We hope shortly to be able to commence discussions with our Colombo Plan partners about the programme to be financed out of our contribution for the present fiscal year, 1959-60, which as the House is aware will be increased from \$35 million to \$50 million. There are, however, two projects to which I might refer briefly today since they are projects of a regional nature which, because of their importance and the very substantial benefits that are likely to flow from them, have attracted wide interest and support from countries other than Canada.

The first of these is the Mekong River Project.... The arrangements for Canadian participation in this project are moving ahead rapidly and we expect the photographic surveying of the Mekong River Basin, which as hon. members know affects several different nations, to get under way before the end of the year. In working out these arrangements we have had the benefit of the full and enthusiastic co-operation of the riparian states and the executive agent whom the United Nations has placed at their disposal to help with the administration of the project.

The second project about which I think the House would wish me to say something at this stage relates to the development of the Indus waters system. As the House is aware, the apportionment of the waters of the Indus system is one of the residual problems that has been left over from the partition of the Indian subcontinent in 1947. This problem has been a source of continuing difficulty between India and Pakistan, and efforts to solve it had proved to no avail. Some years ago, therefore, India and Pakistan agreed to refer this problem to the International Bank to see whether the officials of the bank could devise a solution

which would be at once economically feasible and politically acceptable to them.

As a result of the negotiations that have been conducted under the bank's auspices, the elements of a solution have now emerged in terms of an engineering programme that would safeguard the interests of both countries. The bank has asked the Governments of Canada, Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States whether they would be prepared to co-operate in the implementation of this programme, which is expected to extend over a 10-year period. The Canadian Government agreed in principle to participate in the programme that has been drawn up by the bank, on the understanding that the funds required for this purpose would be provided as part of our increased Colombo Plan contribution. I am confident that the House will endorse the Government's view that it is in Canada's interest to help in the solution of a problem which has stood in the way of better relations between two of our Commonwealth partners in Asia.

Commonwealth Scholarship Scheme

One final Commonwealth development certainly deserves mention here. At the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference held in Montreal last year a Commonwealth scholarship scheme was agreed to by the governments there represented. It was envisaged that in time there might be as many as 1,000 Commonwealth students studying under the auspices of the scheme in Commonwealth countries. At Montreal, Canada undertook to be responsible for one quarter of this total, or about 250 places at any one time. The cost of this commitment to Canada is estimated at about \$1 million annually.

As I informed hon. members last week, detailed discussions about the implementation of the proposed scholarship scheme will take place at a Commonwealth Education Conference to be held from July 15 to July 29 at Oxford. The purpose of this conference is to work out the scope and detailed arrangements of a Commonwealth scholarship scheme. In addition, however, the conference will have a wider mandate:

— to review existing arrangements for Commonwealth co-operation in the field of education and to make recommendations for any improvement or expansion that may be possible, particularly in regard to the supply and training of teachers.

Relations with United States

Turning to our relations with our neighbour and good friend, the United States, I shall endeavour to confine my remarks to certain matters which are of current interest. Within the past two weeks a signal event occurred when the President of the United States joined with Her Majesty the Queen at the opening ceremonies of the St. Lawrence Seaway. It was a happy occasion, and the importance of good relations between the two countries was underlined by the realization of what could be done to the advantage of both in co-operation

The opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway was chosen as a convenient occasion for a meeting of the legislators of the two countries . . . A sound basis of understanding one another's points of view together with an

objective attempt to determine what is the real national and international interest in each question will, I am sure, pay untold benefits.

The boundary water problems between the two nations are receiving urgent attention, especially that concerning the development of the waters of the Columbia River Basin, a problem to which the International Joint Commission has been devoting active consideration for some years. In January of this year, 1959, the two Governments requested that the Commission should report specifically and quickly with respect to the principles which might be applied by governments to two matters: first, the calculation of the benefits accruing in the downstream country in consequence of the storage and regulated release of water in the upstream country; second, the allocation between the two countries of these benefits.

Although no formal report has so far been made to governments by the Commission, the chairmen are keeping their respective Governments informed of the course of their deliberations I am confident that it will be possible for the Commission to report soon recommending principles which will be acceptable to the Governments concerned. Such principles, with respect to the determination and division of benefits, should reduce materially the period required for completion of an international agreement.

The immense volume and complexity of Canada-United States economic and commercial relations inevitably create many difficulties and problems. These receive a great deal of publicity which sometimes tends to obscure the fundamental fact that our mutual economic relations are on the whole extremely profitable and advantageous to both sides. This is the starting point from which we must examine the particular, and often very important, difficulties which turn up from time to time, such as questions arising from the operation of Canadian subsidiaries of United States companies and, related to this, the problems sometimes encountered in the attempted extraterritorial application of United States legislation and policy.

I have in mind such matters as United States anti-trust proceedings and the effect of United States commercial or strategic policy on Canadian subsidiary companies. We have also had problems in our various agricultural sales and disposal policies and in connection with restrictions or limitations by one country on imports from the other. Such problems are a continuing and natural consequence of our closely interlocked economies. They are not problems which are susceptible to any general or final solution, and genuine differences in our interests must be faced frankly; but I believe most of these problems can be met to the mutual satisfaction of the two countries if we continue to tackle them in a spirit of good will and friendly co-operation, always bearing in mind the great mutual gain arising from our commercial and economic dealings with each other.

I am particularly pleased to be able to say that in recent months there have been a number of very important developments or decisions in the United States which have favourably affected Canadian interests and have reflected a responsible and co-operative attitude in the United States toward relations with Canada and other friendly countries. I have

in mind, for example, the modification of the United States oil import provisions, as they affected Canadian oil transported by land; the removal of obstacles to transit shipment of certain goods — including, I think, canned shrimp — and the favourable modification of “buy American” requirements on United States defence orders.

Another recent example which was of particular significance to Canada was a ruling of the Office of Civil and Defence Mobilization that imports of large hydro-electric turbines and other related electrical generating equipment would not endanger the national security.... These are all matters on which we have had direct and friendly discussions with the United States authorities, and the outcome indicates what can be achieved by this means.

Similarly, our defence relationships with the United States continue to be close. These relationships stem from an identity of interest in the face of the possibility which exists, by reason of technological advances in modern weaponry, of a devastating attack on our two countries. Neither country can defend itself effectively in the face of such a threat without the co-operation of the other. This collective approach to the problem of continental defence is but one segment of a much wider collectivity of effort through the NATO Alliance....

Our identity of interest with the United States in the defence field does not preclude our differences of emphasis on policies designed to serve our common objective. It is for this reason that the Canadian Government insists that we be consulted regularly and fully by the United States Government on a wide range of developments throughout the world which might bring with them the possibility of armed conflict.

In our bilateral dealings on defence matters with the United States the Canadian Government does not hesitate to assert the requirements of Canadian sovereignty. Canadians are convinced, I am certain, that the best physical protection of our sovereignty lies in co-operative continental defence arrangements. Canada must insist, however, that such co-operation shall not jeopardize the political and economic objectives of our own nation....

Relations with Soviet Union

Most of us are inclined to overlook the fact that we have another great neighbouring state, the Soviet Union. As has been mentioned on more than one occasion in this House, Canada has a special interest in its relations with the Soviet Union. Together our northern boundaries account for the major part of the coast line of the Arctic Ocean. We share a deep interest in problems of northern development, transportation and communication across a large land mass, the exploitation of basically similar timber, mineral, agricultural and other resources. As a consequence, each has much to gain from drawing upon the other's experience.

In recent years interchanges between our two countries, particularly in the scientific, cultural and technical fields, have increased in a limited but encouraging way....

The developments which have been taking place in Canadian-Soviet relations are in large part a reflection of the Soviet Union's emergence into more active participation in the affairs of the world community.

It has been in only comparatively recent times that the Soviet Union has begun to take an active part in many of the agencies of the United Nations, at world conferences in various fields of science and technology and in such international co-operative ventures as the International Geophysical Year. Canada has welcomed this evidence of the Soviet Union's desire to take up some of the heavy obligations which fall to a great world power.

Far East

Turning to a more remote corner of the world, I should like to say something about Indochina, where Canadian civilian and military officers continue to serve on two of the three international commissions which were set up by the Geneva Agreements in order to maintain those agreements. I shall begin with Laos where, the Committee will recall, the International Commission adjourned *sine die* in July 1958, following the conclusion of political and military agreements between the Laotian Government and the dissident Pathet Lao.

Since the beginning of this year, when it was reported that north Vietnamese troops had crossed into Laotian territory as a result of border disputes, the situation in Laos has attracted some degree of public attention. There have been more recent troubles in Laos caused by the refusal of two battalions of the ex-Pathet Laos to accept terms for integration into the Laotian army, which was provided for by the military agreement and the former Pathet Lao in November 1957. One of the battalions later accepted integration. The other refused to do so and is now dispersed at the border of north Vietnam. However, the situation has improved recently and the Laotian Government issued a communiqué stating that this affair can now be regarded as closed.

The difficulties in Laos prompted numerous requests for reconvening the International Commission for Laos, of which, as hon. members know, Canada is a member. The Canadian position, as stated by the Prime Minister in the House on May 8, is that Canada cannot agree to any commission action which would infringe upon Laotian sovereignty. The Laotian Government is understood to be opposed to the reconvening of the Commission, but has pledged itself to uphold the Geneva Cease-Fire Agreement. We are in continuous touch with the Indian and United Kingdom Governments on this question — India being another member of the Commission, with Poland the third member — and we are watching Laotian developments closely.

As to Cambodia, it was stated in the House on July 25, 1958 that an adjournment formula similar to that used in Laos might be applied to the Cambodian Commission. This has not proved possible, although efforts in this direction are continuing and the strength of the Cambodian Commission has been reduced to a minimum,

In Vietnam, the tension between south and north has not abated, unfortunately, and the Vietnam Commission — on which Canada is also represented, as she is on the Cambodian Commission — continues to perform a valuable task in maintaining stability in the area. However, we hope that it may be possible to effect a reduction of the strength of the Vietnam Commission which will not impair its effectiveness.

I take this opportunity to pay tribute to the way in which India has fulfilled the difficult role of chairman of the three International Commissions. Our work together in Indochina has been and will, I am sure, continue to be one of beneficial co-operation.

The policy of the Canadian Government toward relations with Communist China was examined at some length by the late Mr. Sidney Smith last February, and I do not intend to restate it here. The Peking authorities, however, do not make things any easier for us. Last year, for instance, when the Chinese question was being discussed in the United Nations, it had to be done against a background of Communist attack on the nationalist-held islands of Quemoy and Matsu. More recently there has been the repression of Tibet, the attempt to tamper with its way of life, extinguish its religious values and destroy its autonomy. These actions are not conducive to the peaceful relations which we should like to have with the Chinese people. Let us hope that the situation in that respect will improve.

United Nations

Finally, Mr. Chairman — last but by no means least — I have a few comments to make with regard to Canada and the United Nations

First there is the matter of disarmament. Hon. members will be aware that during the past several months discussion of the substantive problems of disarmament has been limited to the negotiations at Geneva on the discontinuance of nuclear tests. These negotiations were begun among the United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union on October 31 last. The central problem separating the two sides became clear at quite an early stage. It concerns the procedures to be used for the dispatch of teams to make on-site inspections of unidentified events which could be suspected of being nuclear explosions. The United Kingdom and the United States position has been that inspection should be initiated automatically, on the basis of agreed technical criteria, by the administrator of the control system unless a contrary decision were taken by a two-thirds majority of the control commission. The Soviet Union has argued that such arrangements would enable the Western powers to use the control machinery for purposes of espionage. The Soviet Union therefore has demanded that the dispatch of inspection teams should require the concurrence of the three nuclear powers.

With a view to finding a way out of this deadlock Prime Minister Macmillan, during his visit to Moscow, suggested to Premier Khrushchev that each side should have the right to demand that an agreed annual quota of inspections be made which would not require votes in the control commission. Some weeks later the Soviet Representative at Geneva introduced a proposal based upon this concept. I may say that the Canadian Government considers that Prime Minister Macmillan's idea seems more likely than any other suggestion we have seen to provide the basis for a solution to this most difficult problem.

Following a short recess when the Foreign Ministers' meeting started, negotiations were resumed on June 8, and shortly thereafter the three representatives agreed to the formation of a working group of experts to study methods for detection of nuclear explosions carried out at high

altitudes; that is, from thirty kilometres to fifty kilometres above the earth

While difficult problems remain to be resolved, it is encouraging to note that to date a total of 17 articles have been approved for a draft treaty on the discontinuance of nuclear tests. We are confident that with continued good will on both sides the conference will result in a workable agreement. Such agreement could hardly fail to give impetus to the renewal of negotiations on other aspects of disarmament.

In order to facilitate such other negotiations it would be desirable to reactivate the former subcommittee of the Disarmament Commission of which Canada was a member, or to provide in some other manner acceptable to the powers principally involved for a group of manageable size within the present 82-member Disarmament Commission. Hon. members will, of course, realize the difficulties involved in reaching any agreement in a commission composed of 82 members. I venture to express the hope that when the Conference of Foreign Ministers of the four powers reconvenes next week it may give some consideration to the question of negotiating machinery within the United Nations.

And now a word about outer space. During May and June the United Nations Ad Hoc Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space held a useful session. The Committee was created at the last session of the General Assembly in recognition, as the Assembly resolution phrased it, of "the common interest of mankind in outer space", and "the common aim that outer space should be used for peaceful purposes only".

Canada was one of 18 members elected to the Committee. Unfortunately the Soviet Union, in order to demonstrate its disapproval of the composition of the Committee, has refused to participate. In this policy it has been followed by Czechoslovakia and Poland. India and the United Arab Republic have also felt unable to attend the sessions of the Committee. The Canadian Representative expressed this country's hope that at some time in the not too distant future all these countries would feel able to co-operate.

The Committee nevertheless proceeded with detailed studies in accordance with its terms of reference The final report of the Committee was approved on June 25. In addition to a number of conclusions relating to specific matters, it suggests that the United Nations might establish a committee suitably composed to carry further the investigations which have been begun. I trust that the General Assembly will agree that such action is appropriate and that in the future Soviet co-operation will be forthcoming

The next subject to which I should like to refer is the stand-by force. A further issue which received considerable attention at the last session of the General Assembly and which may be up for consideration again relates to the many and varied United Nations activities as a peace-keeping organization and the possibilities that these will in turn evolve into more permanent United Nations stand-by arrangements. Canada's strong support for efforts undertaken under United Nations auspices to secure peace and stability in troubled areas of the world is evidenced by Canadian contributions to, and active participation in, such bodies as the United Nations Truce Supervisory Organization in Palestine, the

United Nations Military Observers Group in India and Pakistan, the United Nations Emergency Force, known as UNEF, and until its disbandment in November 1958, the United Nations Observer Group in Lebanon.

UNEF represents the largest and most recent of these operations, and within its terms of reference has achieved notable success.... A good deal of attention has been given to the possibility of extending or transforming UNEF into a permanent United Nations police force. Last year's session of the United Nations General Assembly requested the United Nations Secretary-General to study the experience of UNEF for any lessons which might be derived for future United Nations policy.

It is the Canadian Government's view that experience has shown that United Nations requirements can involve a wide variety of types of service, designed to meet particular situations in particular areas, none of which may offer an exact precedent for a more permanent type of stand-by force. The Canadian Government has emphasized the need for flexibility in our approach to breaches of the peace in view of the complexity and delicacy of the issues presented....

It would no doubt be agreed that in a world which is far from perfect we should not be dissatisfied if progress is made by a series of small steps. Nevertheless, these various United Nations operations in the interests of restoring and maintaining peace have provided a very useful body of experience out of which it is hoped to evolve more comprehensive machinery for strengthening the forces of peace. I can assure you that all proposals to this end are given the most careful study by the Canadian Government.

I would be remiss if I were to omit from this account of United Nations activities reference to a most admirable humanitarian project which members of the United Nations are undertaking this year as a common endeavour. Recently I informed the House of the opening of World Refugee Year, which formally began in Canada on June 28 with statements on radio and on television by the Prime Minister.... The Government plans to admit a number of tubercular refugee cases into Canada and provide for their treatment....

Not only is the Government interested, but there is also a Canadian Committee for World Refugee Year which has already been doing excellent work. World Refugee Year began as an idea put forward by a group of private British citizens. Since then it has been given international approval by the General Assembly as a means of facilitating its own task of permanently solving refugee problems. The Government has been participating actively in United Nations refugee programmes, and we shall continue to do so.

It is my earnest hope that spontaneous and frank discussions on international problems will increasingly become the rule in this House.... My own belief is that Canadian foreign policy should be one that will reflect at all times the common sense and the courage, and above all the character, of the Canadian people. It will be my aim as Secretary of State for External Affairs to do everything I can to see that Canadian foreign policy will fit that pattern, and I am sure that in this task I shall have great help from all hon. members.

The Commonwealth Scholarships

Excerpts from a speech delivered to the opening session of the Commonwealth Education Conference which met at Oxford from July 15 to July 29, 1959, by Mr. George Drew, Canadian High Commissioner to the United Kingdom and Leader of the Canadian Delegation to the Conference.

... We are meeting here today pursuant to the decision at the Conference held in Montreal last September to explore the possibility of increased co-operation in the field of education generally, so that there might be wider understanding within the Commonwealth and greater opportunities in the less-developed areas, through the granting of scholarships, the training and supply of teachers, and an exchange of technical and educational knowledge.

At that time Canada put forward a proposal for a programme of Commonwealth scholarships and fellowships, which was approved by the Montreal Conference, which it will be the purpose of this Conference to put into definite form. It was decided "to review existing arrangements for the co-operation between Commonwealth countries in the field of education". While it was stated that this was with particular reference to the supply and training of teachers and the facilities for technical and scientific education, no limit was placed upon the breadth of the examination of the exchange of information and the improvement of the standards of education in all fields.

I do not intend to go into detail as to the nature and operation of a plan for Commonwealth scholarships and fellowships. This can best be done in the committee which will be set up for that particular purpose. I do think, however, that it might be appropriate for me to outline some of the elements of such a plan which the Canadian Government would wish to have considered in seeking a mutually satisfactory arrangement.

The Montreal Plan

At Montreal it was decided that the scholarship and fellowship programme should provide for the exchange of one thousand scholars who would have an opportunity to study in countries other than their own. Canada undertook to be responsible for one-quarter of these and with great generosity, the United Kingdom undertook to be responsible for one-half. The formal commitments necessary to bring this plan into effect may therefore be regarded as already assured, and we proceed from that point.

In support of its proposal for a Commonwealth scholarship plan at Montreal, the Canadian Government put forward certain basic considerations. Broadly speaking, it was made clear that the plan should supplement the various programmes already operating within and outside the Commonwealth for the purpose of providing technical assistance to less-developed countries. These programmes are designed primarily to advance the knowledge, techniques and skill required for economic advancement and development. But as was stated at the Conference in Montreal, "development brings with it an ever increasing need for people equipped with general training to serve all the elaborate and varied processes of a complex society". The Conference was thus dedicated to a broad concept of education.

In their support of the Canadian proposal, so generously expressed in their commitment to assume the responsibility for one-half of all the scholarships and fellowships, the United Kingdom representatives at Montreal also stressed the point that while the purpose of such a plan might be directed mainly to technical and economic needs, the broader aspects of education should always be borne in mind. This was the opinion apparently supported by all at the earlier Conference.

Impact upon the Commonwealth

The plan for scholarships and fellowships should not be regarded as one designed simply for the purpose of opening new opportunities to scholars of the less-developed parts of the Commonwealth. Naturally it is our desire that such opportunities be made available on the widest possible scale, but we regard this as a reciprocal plan through which selected young men and women from every part of the Commonwealth will gain a better understanding of the life, culture and institutions of other countries in the Commonwealth. We believe that we Canadians shall gain no less than the smaller and newer members of the Commonwealth if our young scholars are able to increase their knowledge and understanding of the wider problems and aspirations within the Commonwealth through the operation of such a programme.

In the discussions which have preceded this Conference, the representatives of our different Canadian universities have emphasized the value they attach to the opportunity this would afford to create within Canada a pool of well-trained brains capable of expressing themselves with knowledge and conviction in regard to the educational and other problems of fellow members of the Commonwealth.

The cumulative effect of such a reciprocal programme, carried on effectively for a number of years, would be that every question which might arise in another part of the Commonwealth could be discussed with sympathy, knowledge and understanding by someone in the other countries of the Commonwealth, who could interpret the special background and historic considerations which should be borne in mind in seeking to build a wider basis of co-operation and advancement. This would produce results of enormous advantage to everyone.

It is possible that the importance of such a scholarship and fellowship plan may be obscured by reference to the numbers of students already seeking education outside their own countries. At present there are about thirty thousand students studying in Commonwealth countries other than their own. At first glance this might suggest that the new plan is somewhat limited in its scope. I hope there will be no misapprehension on this score. The plan will provide great possibilities of creating a better understanding within the Commonwealth and a strong foundation for co-operation in all fields of activity in the years to come. Most of those students now studying outside their own countries pay their tuition fees in the ordinary way. There are also a number of very generous scholarship arrangements. However, many of the countries, which can gain most from such an exchange, are not able to send their young people to universities in the other countries and this valuable exchange of students, admirable though it may be, does not in most cases conform to the idea of reciprocal exchange of studies and information to which we attach such great importance.

I should also emphasize that there is no thought of limiting the scope of co-operation and exchange of trained personnel to the numbers embraced in this scholarship plan. Already technical and other assistance is being provided with no relationship to any such plan. Programmes are now in operation under the Colombo Plan which not only assure the carrying out of specific development and construction projects but also furnish in themselves technical training to those living in the area where the work is carried out. The supply and training of teachers and of scientific and technical personnel, as well as the provision of equipment needed by less-developed members of the Commonwealth to create their own scientific and technical training centres, will be covered by the Colombo Plan and other voluntary co-operative programmes without reference to this scholarship plan and will be in no way limited by that plan.

It is not possible to state in advance what proportion of our human and material resources can be devoted to these purposes. However, I do assure you that we in Canada will at all times co-operate to the utmost of our ability in this field and seek to make available in every way we can any special advantage we may possess. At the same time, we shall hope to gain experience, understanding and a wider knowledge of other parts of the Commonwealth through these very activities. The exchange of ideas will in itself be one of the most valuable results of these efforts.

I have mentioned these other activities because I thought it wise to emphasize that while we attach considerable importance to the scholarship plan, this will not be substituted for the other very substantial programmes now under way or contemplated. It has a particular meaning and its purpose is not only to increase the opportunities for education but also to increase and expand understanding and good will throughout the whole Commonwealth.

As I said before, I have carefully refrained from putting forward any details of the way in which such a scholarship plan can be set up and can operate most effectively. I am sure that the delegations meeting here today already have definite opinions which they wish to exchange. I do not believe that it would be helpful if I attempted to anticipate the work which the committees will do.

The Meaning of Education

Having expressed our hopes about the scope and possibilities of a scholarship plan and wider co-operation in other fields, I hope I may be permitted to express some personal opinions about these vitally important subjects. First may I say that I think it is no good to give our young people a smattering of culture if they are going to go hungry. For that reason I think there must be a very real emphasis on the practical aspects of education and the opportunities to put that education to work after it has been acquired. I am equally strong in my belief, however, that it is not much better to provide our young people with the ability to earn their daily bread, and to become economically independent, if we have not taught them how to live. As this is the first Commonwealth Education Conference held in over thirty years and the first ever to be attended by several of the nations represented here today, I do hope that this dual aspect of our educational problem will be constantly on our minds. I think it would be most unfortunate if this Conference should by any chance appear to be more concerned with the cold statistics involved in the allocation

and financial support of scholars, or the training and supply of teachers, than with the purpose, content and meaning of the word "Education", which will be used so frequently during the next two weeks.

All too often we use the word "Education" when we are in fact thinking of the technique of instruction. It must be possible for us to define in simple and understandable terms the aims and objects of the kind of education which we believe will not only improve the social and economic standards of all the people within the Commonwealth, but will also contribute to a better and higher standard of life itself

Our plans it seems to me should be an expression of our belief in freedom. While governments must of necessity play their necessary and important role in working out the details of any plans formulated and approved by this Conference, the ultimate responsibility for their operation and their success will, of necessity, rest mainly upon our universities. As we seek an answer to this fundamental question, "what do we mean by Education?" I venture to suggest that all universities today should ask themselves three questions:

- 1) Is not the most important problem for the world today a moral and a spiritual one? On the material side we are doing very well and we shall do still better and expand it. Our real weakness and the real division between the totalitarian state and the free society lies in the other field.
- 2) What are the universities going to do to cure this weakness, whose existence they cannot possibly deny?
- 3) Having regard to the fact that our future will be so largely shaped by the thoughts implanted in the universities, ought anyone to be allowed to pass through a university without thinking about this problem? Can we ignore what Plato called "the noblest of all studies — the study of what a man should be and how he should live"?

Certainly there are no easy answers to these questions. But are the answers so difficult as we sometimes seem to think?

If our universities really regarded this as an urgent and serious problem, it could be solved tomorrow. We are dealing with far more complex questions in the mysterious realm of nuclear physics. People who have unlocked the mysteries of the universe by their combined thought and action surely need not be dismayed by this relatively simple task. I most earnestly hope that this Conference will formulate a declaration setting forth, in clear and simple words, the ethical and practical concepts of education within the Commonwealth which we are prepared to support.

Let us make plans whatever they may be, worthy of the great challenge with which we are confronted and equal to the immense opportunities that now open out before us. Let us make no small plans. They hold no magic to stir the hearts and minds of men.

We can produce nothing more valuable at this Conference than a clear statement of our aims and objects in words which will give life, vitality and increasing strength to the system of education which we seek to encourage throughout the whole Commonwealth.

Canada-United States Inter-Parliamentary Group

SPEAKING in the House of Commons on August 8, 1958, the Canadian Prime Minister said:

Through the years, and particularly since the first occasion in 1942 when a gathering took place in the City of Ottawa of the Empire Parliamentary Union to which seats were allocated as observers to representatives of the United States Senate and House of Representatives, it was well shown, both on that occasion and in the subsequent meetings that took place formally, what advantages can flow from a degree of consultation between private members of the Parliament and members of the Congress of the United States.

The seeds of consultation between Canadian Parliamentarians and United States Congressmen were planted, therefore, a number of years ago; the fruits of that early experience are now beginning to be seen.

A New Channel of Communication

The conduct of the relations between governments is by tradition the function of the diplomatic service. Ambassadors are accredited by head of state to head of state, thereby providing an effective channel of communication between the executive branches of government. Relations between states, however, are not determined by executive action alone, but by legislative action as well. When two countries are inter-related to the extent that Canada and the United States are, any additional channels of communication will obviously help to improve the degree of understanding so necessary for the maintenance of harmonious relations. Communication between the legislative bodies of the two countries could make an outstanding contribution in this regard.

In May 1958, in their first Report to the House of Representatives Committee on Foreign Affairs, Representatives Brooks Hays and Frank M. Coffin made a number of recommendations following a special study they had been asked to make of Canada-United States relations. Most of these recommendations dealt with economic and trade matters; one recommendation, however, dealt specifically with the need to have closer liaison between the legislative branches of government.

This recommendation reads:

The vital role which Congress plays in determining United States-Canadian relationships, for better or worse, must no longer be ignored. The fact needs to be constantly borne in mind that, unlike the parliamentary system of Canada, the executive branch does not necessarily speak for the legislative branch. It is not enough that there be continuing liaison between the Cabinets of the two nations. The following fields of activity should be thoroughly explored:

- a) Congressional representation, in observer status, on the Canada-United States Trade Committee (at present, a committee of the two executive branches). Our information is that Canadian Parliamentarians would understand the need for such liaison under our system.
- b) Formal recognition of Canada-United States relationship as a continuing area of interest by a subcommittee or a joint committee.
- c) Periodic visits to each country by the Parliamentarians of the other.

The responsibility for the conduct of United States foreign relations is entrusted to the Executive under the Constitution. Congressmen Hays and Coffin, however, realized that domestic action taken by Congress in matters of subsidies, import restrictions and other matter had a direct and important effect externally, particularly in Canada.

Setting Up the Machinery

By July 1958, a resolution was introduced by Senators Aiken and Mansfield into the United States Senate urging the establishment of a sub-committee to explore, "with appropriate officials of the Government of the United States of America and with members of the Canadian Parliament, the desirability and feasibility of increased systematic discussion between Legislators of the two countries on problems of common concern". This Resolution was approved without a dissenting voice on August 8, 1958. No formal resolution was considered necessary to enable the House of Representatives to participate in the exploratory discussions.

Complementing this action, the Canadian Prime Minister, speaking in the House of Commons on August 12, proposed the formation of a group of Canadian Legislators to explore this question with appropriate representatives of the executive and legislative branches of the Government of the United States. This proposal was fully endorsed by the leaders of all parties in the House. A proposal along the same lines also received unanimous assent in the Canadian Senate, thereby making it possible for the committee to be representative of all parties in both Houses of the Canadian Parliament.

The first exploratory meeting was held in Ottawa between September 3 and September 5, 1958, when Senator Aiken and Senator Capehart, representatives of the United States Senate, met with the Speaker of the House of Commons and the Speaker of the Canadian Senate to decide what steps might be taken to give substance to these various proposals. Several weeks later, Representatives Hays and Coffin visited Ottawa and discussed proposals for the conduct of meetings. It was agreed that a steering committee should be established in order to plan the consultative meetings and to give an element of permanence to the proposed inter-parliamentary organization. It was also thought desirable to have legislators attending the meetings selected on the basis of their individual interest in the items to be discussed, thus widening participation. Finally, it was decided that a joint meeting to discuss organizational and procedural problems should be held early in 1959 in Washington.

An organizational meeting was held in Washington on January 9 and 10, 1959, at which the following were present:

From the United States Congress — Senator Aiken, Senator Mansfield, Senator Morse, Senator Capehart, Representative Kelly, Representative Coffin, Representative Merrow, Representative Judd.

From the Canadian Parliament — Hon. Mark Drouin (Speaker of the Senate), Hon. William R. Brunt, Hon. Sidney E. Smith, Hon. Roland Michener (Speaker of the House of Commons), Hon. Lionel Chevrier, Hazen Argue, William L. Houck, Erik Nielsen, Richard D. Thrasher.

Following these meetings, the two national Delegations announced their intention to recommend to their respective legislative bodies the continuance of the Canada-United States Inter-Parliamentary Group which, it was decided, should meet not less than twice per year, once in Canada and once in the United States. It was agreed, further, that the first such meeting should take

place in Canada in June 1959, to coincide with the ceremonies attendant upon the formal opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway. The topics that were suggested for discussion at the June meeting were — defence relationships, trade problems boundary water issues, wheat disposal, investment policies, defence production arrangements as under the Hyde Park Agreement, fisheries problems and joint action for peace. The meetings, it was proposed, should be informal in character, their purpose being to promote a better understanding of common interests and accomplishments as well as of differences and difficulties.

The Rules of Procedure

The January meeting also considered such procedural matters as how the membership of the Group could best be rotated, thereby broadening participation, what publicity should be given to the meetings, and what status should be accorded to any conclusions and recommendations which the Group might reach during their sessions. It was decided that no binding decisions could be reached since neither group would have authority to commit or bind its respective legislature or government. It was announced that staff would be supplied to the United States Delegation by the appropriate Congressional Committees and to the Canadian Delegation by the Department of External Affairs.

These proposed meetings were obviously going to break new ground. Great care therefore had to be taken in drawing up the rules of procedure so as to avoid any suggestion that the Inter-Parliamentary Group, by its actions, was infringing the sovereign powers of either Legislature. Accordingly, it was most important that these rules be clearly set out as guides to all participants. They are contained in the Report to Parliament made by the two Speakers on May 1, 1959, as follows:

- 1) The host country will provide the chairmen for the business sessions.
- 2) Business sessions are to be held *in camera*, that is, without the press or experts or any staff except one or two secretaries from each side present for the purpose of preparing summaries of the discussions and drafting press releases for approval.
- 3) Delegates will be free to say what matters were discussed in the business meetings but shall not attribute any statement to any delegate.
- 4) Press releases will be issued at the close of the business meetings or conference outlining in a general way the course of the discussions.
- 5) Each group will be free to report on the conference to its authorizing committee or Legislature, as well as to its State Department and Government.

The First Meeting

Thus it was that the groundwork was cleared for the meeting on June 25 in Montreal when 24 Canadian Parliamentarians and 24 United States Congressmen assembled for the first plenary session of the Canada-United States Inter-Parliamentary Group. An agenda had been agreed upon and the delegations were soon assigned to three working groups or committees. As had been decided in Washington in January, these three committees were convened under the chairmanship of the host country, while the plenary sessions were under joint chairmanship. The meetings in Montreal were organized in the following fashion:

- a) Plenary session under the joint chairmanship of Senator Drouin, Mr. Michener, Senator Aiken and Representative Kelly.

- b) Three Committees meeting simultaneously to discuss:
- 1) Joint defence arrangements and problems, and co-operation in defence production;
 - 2) Economic and strategic significance of production and trade in minerals such as oil and gas, base metals, uranium and iron;
 - 3) Boundary matters including waters.

No meetings were held in Montreal on the morning of June 26 so that the members of the Group might attend the ceremonies at which Her Majesty the Queen and President Eisenhower formally opened the St. Lawrence Seaway. On Saturday, June 27, the meetings adjourned to Ottawa where, in the afternoon, following a short plenary session, the Joint Chairmen held a press conference. The communique issued on this occasion immediately follows this article.

It was the consensus of opinion that the Canada-United States Inter-Parliamentary Group had been successfully launched and that, with such a auspicious beginning, it was capable of forging an effective link of understanding between the two nations.

Communiqué

The Canada-United States Inter-Parliamentary Group, consisting of twenty-four congressional and twenty-four parliamentary representatives from the two countries, has met for the past three days in Montreal and Ottawa. The two-day session in Montreal had been timed to coincide with the formal opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway, which all the delegates attended.

At a plenary meeting, the Group agreed that it was not its function to make recommendations as a body. Each national delegation will report as it thinks fit to its respective authorizing bodies.

Three committees were created to examine the main items of the agenda for the talks, as agreed in advance, under the following headings:

- (1) Joint defence arrangements and problems, and co-operation in defence production.
- (2) Economic and strategic significance of production and trade in minerals such as oil and gas, base metals, uranium and iron.
- (3) Boundary waters.

The Committee on Defence and Defence Production examined the basic factors in Canada-United States defence relationship. It noted with satisfaction some of the results of Canada-United States defence co-operation, as for example the establishment of radar-warning lines and North American Air Defence Command, and recognized the significant contribution these joint efforts were making to the defence of the peoples and resources of the continent. There was complete agreement that the best hope of avoiding a nuclear war rests in the collective determination of the free world to resist aggression and in the maintenance of strong deterrent forces. In this context, Canada-United States co-operation in air defence assumed special importance.

In the field of defence and defence production, it was recognized that there is a unique degree of interdependence, requiring the best use of the resources of the two countries with the minimum duplication of effort. Special attention was given to the question of what constituted a proper sharing of defence costs in the common effort.

The delegates noted that the missile threat to North America is increasing and that increased attention must be given to that threat. There could, however, be no question

of dispensing with anti-bomber defences in the immediate future. The delegates were confident of the ability of United States and Canadian scientists and technicians to surpass Soviet achievements in the missile field.

It was recognized that adequate defence planning could be accomplished only by means of regular consultations, at all levels of government. Due weight must be given in such consultations to political and economic, as well as military factors.

As it is the responsibility of legislators to make decisions relating to defence expenditures, the Group stressed the need for Congress and Parliament to have the maximum access to defence information consistent with security considerations.

Discussions in the working committee on strategic minerals took into account some of the major factors underlying Canada-United States economic relations, including Canada's high degree of dependence on external trade and the economic implications of the concept of integrated North American defence.

In their consideration of the oil question, the Canadian Delegation expressed satisfaction at the recent exemption of Canadian oil from the United States mandatory import controls, and the hope that as a result Canadian crude oil would have access to the United States market on a freely competitive basis. With respect to natural gas, it was recognized that the major problem centred around the delays in processing applications for licences. The view was put forward that through co-operation between the Federal Power Commission of the United States and the National Energy Board shortly to be established in Canada, this problem might be overcome.

The Committee's discussions ranged over a wide variety of base metals. There was recognition that the problems in many minerals were similar in nature on both sides of the border, and had their origin in a temporary situation of world-wide over-production. The problems with respect to the marketing of uranium, lead and zinc, are particularly acute. It was thought that in order to control and limit the harmful consequences of the current over-abundance of certain minerals, the problem of marketing these commodities should be considered on a continental basis and from a long-term point of view.

The Working Group on Boundary Waters examined a number of matters in an atmosphere of cordiality and frankness. It was noted that, in the case of Chicago diversion and the regulation of pilotage on the Great Lakes, inter-governmental consultations had either been proposed or were in progress and the hope was expressed that these consultations would lead to constructive proposals that would prove mutually satisfactory. The Group noted that industrial development and seaway traffic in the Great Lakes region will likely give rise to complex problems in such fields as pollution, recreation, conservation, power utilization, industrial location, port facilities and navigation. These problems will be of mutual concern to the United States and to Canada; to states as well as to provinces. Further study of these problems was indicated. In so far as the Columbia River was concerned, the Committee reported its satisfaction at recent progress made by the International Joint Commission and hoped that, before long, the Commission would be making its recommendations to governments so that the governments concerned would be enabled to conclude arrangements permitting the development in the Basin to get under way at an early date. Such matters as those relating to the Minnesota wilderness area and the Passamaquoddy Development were introduced as possibly meriting further consideration at a future meeting.

The Group as a whole, in the course of general discussions, examined the origin of some current misunderstandings and noted that some at least of these might be attributable to the different forms of government. It was considered that much could be accomplished by encouraging Legislators of the two countries to consult with and seek the advice of members who have had the opportunity of the mutual exchanges of views which the meetings of the Canada-United States Inter-Parliamentary Group provide.

Ottawa, June 27, 1959.

Visit to Ottawa of the Presidents of the Three European Communities

THE Presidents of the three European Communities, their Excellencies Walter Hallstein, President of the Commission of the European Economic Community, Etienne Hirsch, President of the Commission of the European Atomic Energy Community, and Paul Finet, President of the High Authority of the European Coal and Steel Community, paid an official visit to Ottawa on June 22 and 23 following a two-week stay in the United States. The European Communities comprise six Western European countries: Belgium, France, the German Federal Republic, Italy, Luxembourg, The Netherlands.

The three Presidents were the guests of the Canadian Government. During their visit they met the Prime Minister, the Minister of External Affairs, as well as other Ministers and officials concerned with trade and economic matters. An official dinner was given for the visitors by the Minister of External Affairs, Mr. Howard C. Green. On their way to Ottawa the Presidents and their party were given an opportunity to view from the air the international section of the St. Lawrence Seaway which was to be opened officially later that week by Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II and President Eisenhower. Mr. Hallstein and Mr. Finet left Canada on June 23. Mr. Hirsch remained until June 25 to meet with officials of Atomic Energy of Canada Limited and to visit research installations at Chalk River.

Mr. Green's Report

The Minister of External Affairs, Mr. Green, reported on the Presidents' visit in the House of Commons on June 25 in the following terms:

Mr. Speaker, I should like to make a short statement concerning the visit of the Presidents of the three European Communities to Ottawa on June 22 and 23. On the invitation of the Canadian Government the Presidents of the executive bodies of the three European Communities, Dr. Walter Hallstein of the European Economic Community better known as the Common Market, Mr. Etienne Hirsch of the European Atomic Energy Community or EURATOM, and Mr. Paul Finet of the European Coal and Steel Community visited Ottawa on Monday and Tuesday of this week and had discussions with the Prime Minister and Ministers and officials dealing with trade and economic matters.

As hon. members know, these three Communities bring together six Western European countries: France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, The Netherlands and Luxembourg, and provide for the gradual establishment of a single economic area within which goods, persons and capital would move freely behind a common external tariff. EURATOM provides, in addition, for a pooling of the efforts of the six countries in the peaceful development of atomic energy and in the construction of the basic facilities required for the development of nuclear energy within the community.

It is not necessary to emphasize that the constitution in Europe of a large integrated economic area grouping six industrially advanced countries which count among the major trading countries of the world is bound to have a profound impact on the

pattern and development of international trade generally, and more particularly on Canadian trade. We therefore welcomed this opportunity to meet these distinguished representatives, to learn from them at first hand of these European developments, and at the same time to explain Canadian interests in these trading arrangements.

I think the Presidents' visit was most successful and useful in accomplishing these purposes. We were encouraged by many of the things they said to us and also by their own broad and sensible approach on these important trading matters.

For our part we were able, I think, to impress upon them the genuine and long-standing sympathy and interest that Canada has shown for the objectives of economic and political integration in Europe. At the same time we emphasized again our concern that the new European economic and trading arrangements should not be developed in such a way as to create new barriers and restrictions for the trade of outside countries such as Canada.

We discussed briefly the significance of the advent of external convertibility for the major European trading currencies, and assured our visitors that nothing could do more to remove the fears and misgivings of outside countries concerning the European Economic Community than the early removal of the apparatus of discriminatory import controls and restrictions in Europe. These controls had been established because of balance of payments difficulties which have now largely disappeared, and had impeded the normal development and the pattern of trade ever since the war. The strength and vitality of the European economies made such a move possible, and as a first step any discrimination which remained against dollar imports should be removed; we made it plain that in our view discrimination has lost its purpose and its justification.

Dr. Hallstein and Mr. Finet have now returned to Europe. The President of the European Atomic Energy Community or EURATOM, Mr. Hirsch, remained to visit our Chalk River establishment as a guest of Atomic Energy of Canada and will be departing today. I should just like to add that I think these discussions were extremely helpful for both sides.



Mr. ETIENNE HIRSCH
President of the Commission of
European Atomic Energy Community.

Mr. Etienne Hirsch, a civil engineer, was born in Paris on January 24, 1901. When war broke out he was Managing Director of the Marles-Kuhlmann Company, of the Fuel Research Company, and of the Ethyl-Kuhlmann Chemical Products Company. During the war Mr. Hirsch served in the Free French forces, worked with Mr. Jean Monnet on preparing the supply system for France after the Liberation and later became President of the French Supply Council in London, as well as French representative on the temporary Economic Committee for Europe. Mr. Hirsch participated as Mr. Jean Monnet's deputy in the negotiations which led to the establishment of the European Coal and Steel Community. At the time of his appointment to the European Atomic Energy Community in February 1959, Mr. Hirsch was head of France's Modernization and Equipment Plan.

Mr. Paul Finet was born in the small industrial town of Montignies-sur-Sambre in Belgium, in 1897. At the age of 14 he had to leave school to go to work, first as an office boy in a steel plant, subsequently in a railway rolling stock works, in a boiler works, and a machine-tool factory. Mr. Finet became associated with the trade union movement in 1928 when he joined the Belgian Metal-Workers Union. He was named Secretary of the Belgian Metal Workers Union in 1936. When the Free Trade Unions broke with the Communist-dominated World Federation of Trade Unions in 1949 Mr. Finet was elected First President of the International Federation of Free Trade Unions. He was one of the original members of the nine-man High Authority of the European Coal and Steel Community in 1952 and took office as Third President of the Community on Jan. 13, 1958.



Mr. PAUL FINET
President, European Coal and Steel Community.

Dr. Hallstein was appointed President of the European Commission in January 1958. He was born in 1901 in the town of Mayence, Germany. He studied Law at the Universities of Bonn, Munich and Berlin. Until the war Dr. Hallstein taught Law at several German universities. He resumed his academic profession after the war until he became Deputy Chief of the German Foreign Office in 1951. During his years in the German Foreign Ministry Dr. Hallstein played an important role in the negotiations which led to the establishment of the European Economic Community and EURATOM.



Dr. WALTER HALLSTEIN
President of the Commission of the European Economic Community.

Food for Peace

ON May 5 and 6, 1959, the five major wheat exporting countries — Argentina, Australia, Canada, France and the United States — met in Washington to discuss the ways and means by which the food surplus nations could increase their already considerable efforts to assist those nations in need of additional food. This "Food for Peace" Conference examined a wide range of subjects related to world trade and the use of food, particularly wheat, for humanitarian and development purposes in the less-developed countries.

All the major wheat exporting nations were agreed that surplus disposal measures should have as important objectives the promotion of specific economic development projects in the recipient countries and the improvement of nutritional levels. Since these objectives are not always easy to attain, the Conference agreed that their efforts should be directed toward:

- a) Projects to raise consumption directly among specially deficient groups in the population as, for example, through direct feeding programmes, such as school lunch projects, refugee feeding and resettlement, and other related economic and community projects.
- b) Projects to aid economic development on a basis which will permit the most effective use of national currency accruing from the sale of surplus foods.
- c) Projects to establish national food reserves which would utilize existing idle storage facilities or newly constructed ones.

The Conference was most anxious to ensure that the consultation needed to attain these agreed objectives would be provided. It was decided to establish immediately a consultative Wheat Utilization Committee, which would include those governments represented at the Conference and would be composed of Ministers or officials having policy responsibilities. The Committee was given power to consult with representatives of recipient and other countries, when this seemed appropriate.

The Consultative Committee was directed to consider, among other things, the possibilities of expanding the world's commercial trade in wheat, ways of increasing and making more effective the utilization of wheat surpluses, and the co-ordination of disposal programmes for economic development with other development activities in the recipient countries.

The Wheat Utilization Committee held its first meeting in Washington from June 15 to June 17, 1959. Mr. Gordon Churchill, Minister of Trade and Commerce, reported on the meeting to the House of Commons on June 30:

The Wheat Utilization Committee established by the Food for Peace Conference, on which I reported to the House on May 7 last, held its first meeting on June 15-17 in Washington.

Membership of the Committee comprises Argentina, Australia, Canada, France and the United States. The FAO is represented in an observer capacity. The representation at this meeting was at the same level as the preministerial meeting

of senior officials held last April. The Canadian Delegation on this occasion was led by Mr. John H. English, Deputy Minister of Trade and Commerce, and included officials from the Departments of Trade and Commerce, Agriculture, Finance and External Affairs, and from the Canadian Wheat Board.

The purpose of this meeting was chiefly organizational. The principal outcome was the establishment of procedures for the operations of the Committee, and guide lines concerning concessional sales of wheat to apply in the selection of recipient countries and the determination of minimum commercial quotas.

Possible schemes of market development and the setting up of national food reserves were also discussed. In this connection a working group at the embassy level was appointed to study and report on these two items for consideration at the next meeting of the Committee.

The administrative procedures of the Committee were left simple and flexible. The U.S. Foreign Agricultural Service will serve as a permanent focal point of contact. The Committee will normally convene in the spring and fall of each year at a place to be decided by the Committee

One of the great values of this Wheat Utilization Committee is that there will be close consultation with regard to all matters dealing with the disposal of surplus food. There will be an avoidance of difficulties among exporting nations when this knowledge is available to them, and available in advance. I think nothing but good is going to come from the meetings of this Committee. Heretofore surplus disposal transactions have been carried on and exporting countries have perhaps heard about them after they were completed. Now the hope is, and I believe it will be fulfilled, that proposed surplus disposal projects will be announced to the Committee. There will be consultation and there will be an opportunity for all the exporting nations to participate in some of these projects. That is a great advance over what has prevailed in the past.

Exhibition of Canadian Books in Paris

ONE of the most important exhibitions of Canadian books to be held abroad in recent years took place from June 2 to June 11 in the salons of the Hotel France-Amérique in Paris. The exhibition, organized by the Canadian Embassy, was held under the auspices of the Comité de France-Amérique and the Institut de France-Canada. More than 450 people attended the opening and were greeted by M. Jean Serrailh, Director of the University of Paris, who was patron of the Exhibition, the Duc de Lévis-Mirepoix, President of the Institut France-Canada, and M. Pierre Dupuy, the Canadian Ambassador. Among those present were officials of the French Government, diplomats, members of the two most important French Academies, French writers, publishers, and literary critics, and many Canadians living in Paris.

About 1000 contemporary Canadian books in English and French were displayed. These were supplied by the National Library of Canada, the Canadian Government Exhibition Commission, the Canadian Embassy in Paris and by the Montreal publishers, Fidès and le Cercle du Livre de France. The volumes were arranged under general headings: the land and people of Canada, Canadian history written in English, Canadian history written in French, works on the arts in Canada, scholarly works on such subjects as sociology, philosophy and linguistics, Canadian literature in French and English, works on economics and political science, and books by Canadians or on Canada published in France.

Noteworthy Exhibits

Special attractions at the exhibition were the showcases containing 24 rare books on Canada loaned by the National Library of France, manuscripts and first edition of books written by famous French Canadian poets, and other items of interest to bibliophiles. The old and rare French books on Canada included such items as an edition of Champlain's writings published in 1632, a book published in Paris in 1635 on Canadian plants and a book published in 1669 containing the first scientific description of the Canadian beaver. Among the French Canadian poets given special attention were Louis Fréchette, Octave Crémazie, Emile Nelligan, Paul Morin, St-Denys Garneau and Alain Grandbois. Large photographs of some 30 contemporary literary figures of both English and French Canada were displayed at the exhibition.

The Exhibition was well received by the Paris public and press. The literary journal *Nouvelles Littéraires* drew special attention to how effectively the Exhibition had demonstrated the "Co-existence of the two languages in Canada's culture".

Peaceful Uses of Outer Space

MAY and June of this year saw the first meetings of a new United Nations body created to keep pace with developments in an age of cosmic exploration. By resolution 1348 (XII) of December 13, 1958, the General Assembly established an ad hoc Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space, composed of the representatives of Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, India, Iran, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Poland, Sweden, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America, and requested it to report to the General Assembly at its fourteenth session on the following:

- a) The activities and resources of the United Nations, of its Specialized Agencies and of other international bodies relating to the peaceful uses of outer space;
- b) the area of international co-operation and programmes in the peaceful uses of outer space which could appropriately be undertaken under United Nations auspices to the benefit of states irrespective of the state of their economic or scientific development;
- c) the future organizational arrangements to facilitate international co-operation in this field within the framework of the United Nations;
- d) the nature of legal problems which may arise in the carrying out of programmes to explore outer space.

The United Nations created the Committee "recognizing the common interest of mankind in outer space, and recognizing that it is the common aim that outer space should be used for peaceful purposes only".

During Assembly debate the question of the composition of the Outer Space Committee had proven to be a source of dispute between East and West. The U.S.S.R. had demanded parity between the numbers of Soviet bloc nations represented on the one hand and Western powers on the other, with "uncommitted" nations forming a third group. When the General Assembly failed to take the Soviet demand into account in forming the eighteen-member Committee, the U.S.S.R., Poland and Czechoslovakia indicated that they would not participate in the work of the Committee. Subsequent attempts to persuade the Soviet Union to modify its stand proved ineffective. The Committee convened on May 6, 1959, and the three Soviet bloc countries were therefore absent, which in turn induced the United Arab Republic and India not to participate. Canada was among the thirteen remaining members of the Committee represented.

First Meeting of the Committee

The Committee began its work with an election of officers and a discussion of its terms of reference and objectives. Dr. Koto Matsudaira, the Permanent Representative of Japan to the United Nations, was elected Chairman.

In his speech of acceptance, Dr. Matsudaira said, "the Committee will never be permitted to act in any sense whatsoever as an instrument of the cold war. . . . We are determined to fulfill the mandate given us by the General Assembly, which we consider to be our highest commandment".

The United States Representative, Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, suggested that the space age demanded immediate international co-operation. "When we go about the business of exploring the universe, the rivalries of men and nations really do look petty and ridiculous", he said. "The job is far too big for any one nation, no matter how big and how advanced in technology that nation may be. Every nation has a part to play and all people stand to gain from the results". Mr. Lodge recalled that eleven earth satellites had been projected into space since 1957, that five of them were still in orbit, and that two rockets had been put in orbit around the sun. He observed that the future in space had become far more important to man's life on earth. Among the probable future benefits from space exploration, Mr. Lodge listed long-range weather forecasting by means of earth satellites, satellite aids to radio communication, the use of geodetic satellites to map the earth's surface, and improved navigation by means of signals from satellites.

The Canadian Representative, Mr. Charles S. A. Ritchie, expressed the recognition of his Government that international co-operation would lead to greater achievements than could be won by nations working independently or in small groups. It was, therefore, Mr. Ritchie continued, to be regretted that some members of the Committee were not represented, and to be hoped that these members would decide to participate at a later stage. Space research was in its infancy, and the International Geophysical Year had shown what could be accomplished by international co-operation in scientific matters, particularly when there was a free exchange of information, and research workers could meet without restrictions imposed by governments. The Canadian Representative concluded with a hope that a spirit of objectivity would guide the Committee's proceedings and would be reflected in its report.

The Committee decided to establish two committees of the whole — one on the scientific aspects of outer space and the other on the legal issues involved in outer space exploration. The Committee also decided to request the United Nations Secretary-General to report at an early date on the activities and resources of the United Nations, of its Specialized Agencies, and of other international bodies relating to the peaceful uses of outer space, in accordance with paragraph (a) of the Committee's mandate.

The work programmes of the two committees were considered in meetings on May 7. During the discussions, the Canadian Alternate Representative, Dr. Donald C. Rose, of the National Research Council, and Chairman of the Canadian Committee for the International Geophysical Year, commented that launchings of satellites or more expensive space probes would, in so far as could be envisaged at present, be limited to countries with appropriate engineering and technical capabilities, but that this limitation need not prevent other countries from taking part. The opportunities for small countries to participate already existed in the offer, made by the United States to the Committee on Space Research (COSPAR) of the International Council of Scientific Unions, to consider satellite experiments proposed by other nations and to give "satellite space" to research groups in other nations willing and capable to undertake the work.

Technical Committee

The Technical Committee convened on May 26 and elected Dr. Rose as its Chairman. Private discussions held on that day resulted in agreement on procedures to be followed, including a decision that subsequent meetings remain private with the exception of a final public meeting.

Dr. Rose commented during this initial meeting that the general pattern of scientific advance developed over a long period during which background research accumulated, followed by what was known in common parlance as a scientific breakthrough. He proposed the following main topics for discussion by the technical group:

- 1) Supporting research, theoretical and experimental, in laboratories;
- 2) rockets;
- 3) earth satellites; and
- 4) space probes.

Each of these topics would be examined in the context of

- a) scientific investigation,
- b) applications,
- c) manned exploration, and
- d) international co-operation.

The series of private meetings of the Technical Committee followed from May 27 to June 12, and the report compiled during these meetings was adopted in an open meeting on June 13. The report suggests areas of space activity in which international co-operation should be strengthened, and it contains a number of conclusions on specific problems. The possibility of international agreements is envisaged for such matters as the allocation of radio frequencies, the registration of orbital elements, termination of radio transmissions by and removal of satellites after their useful life is over, re-entry and recovery of space vehicles, return of equipment, identification of origin of space vehicles, and measures against contamination of outer space. The report also notes the possibility of international co-operation in joint projects, such as simultaneous sounding-rocket launchings, the international use of launching ranges, instrumentation of satellites and deep space probes, tracking and telemetering, data processing, interpretation of data and international exchange of data. The report observes "activities in outer space now expand at such a rate and into so many fields that the international scientific unions must share the load of international organization in this whole field with a number of other and different international organizations Amongst typical topics falling well within the scope of the international scientific unions can be cited: the planning and co-ordination of general programmes for earth satellites and space probes, the stimulation of research supporting space science, and the possibility of directing the attention of scientists from many definite specialities to common problems in space exploration

"There can be no monopoly of the research activities that are a part of space science. . . . these (activities) including atmospheric physics, ionospheric physics, aurora studies, meteor studies, many branches of astro-physics, and the physics, psychology, and biology (of outer space.)"

The report goes on to list the requirements for a country wishing to start or further research in space science, including the provision of specific assistance, fellowships and visiting professorships, travelling grants and the allocation of facilities and time for the undertaking of original work in home institutions. It says, "there is a need for greater and more up-to-date exchange of scientific information, preferably through existing channels, which require clearing and broadening States with capabilities for launching satellites should be supported in including in them scientific experiments devised by other countries."

The report cites the need for "open and orderly conduct of space activities" including improvement of the means for distribution of knowledge of space activities throughout the world. In its general conclusions the report cites the allocation of radio frequencies for space activities as the first technical area in which immediate international action is required. It then goes on to state that there is a need for a suitable centre related to the United Nations which can act as a focal point for international co-operation in the peaceful use of outer space, and that progress, plans and needs in connection with the peaceful use of outer space should be reviewed by the United Nations in about one year.

Legal Committee

The Legal Committee also convened on May 26, and elected Professor Antonio Ambrosini of Italy as Chairman. Initial meetings discussed the aims the group should pursue. Mr. H. Courtney Kingstone, speaking for Canada on May 28, commented that "there was general agreement" as to the objective of the Legal Committee's work. "It was", he said, "the setting up of an 'ordered catalogue' of legal questions which might arise in connection with the peaceful uses of outer space". The Committee had not been asked by the General Assembly to establish a comprehensive code of substantive legal rules for outer space, since this — in view of the present state of scientific knowledge in this field — might prove to be an unrealistic endeavour. Although the Committee was not called upon to provide solutions for the legal problems involved, it was nevertheless necessary, in the Canadian view, to discuss the substance of such problems. Therefore, he stressed, it would be useful and helpful to go "a little further" than simply listing problems that might arise, by indicating the nature of such problems, and also the order of their priority. "Also, it would be helpful", Mr. Kingstone said, "to discuss now 'the beginning of an outline' of the Committee's report". The main questions the Committee should consider were the following:

- 1) Did national sovereignty in outer space extend *ad infinitum* or should an upper limit of sovereignty be established?
- 2) If such an upper limit should be established, what should that limit be?
- 3) What was the legal status of outer space beyond such an upper limit?
- 4) Should there be intermediate zones subject to special international regulations between the inner zone of sovereignty and the zone of outer space?
- 5) What was the legal status of celestial bodies in outer space?

At the third meeting of the Legal Committee a working group consisting of the representatives of France, Japan, Mexico, the United Kingdom, and the United States was established to prepare a report, which was duly approved by the Committee in an open meeting of July 9. The following legal problems were considered worthy of priority consideration by the General Assembly:

- 1) Freedom of outer space for exploration use;
- 2) liability for injury or danger caused by space vehicles;
- 3) allocation of radio frequencies;
- 4) interference between spacecraft and aircraft;
- 5) identification and registration of space vehicles and co-ordination of launchings;
- 6) re-entry and landing of space vehicles.

Other less urgent problems were:

- 1) The question of defining outer space;
- 2) protection of public health and safety; safeguards against contamination of or from outer space;
- 3) exploration of celestial bodies; and
- 4) interference among space vehicles.

Report by the Secretary-General

As an adjunct to the Secretary-General's report, experts from United Nations Specialized Agencies were invited to address the meetings of the two committees, and representatives from the World Meteorological Organization, the International Telecommunications Union, the International Civil Aviation Organization and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, addressed either the Technical or Legal Committee. Their reports were received as part of the Secretary-General's study on the activities and resources of the United Nations, its agencies and other groups.

Working Paper on Future Organizational Arrangements

In addition to the reports of the Technical and Legal Committees and the report by the Secretary-General, a working paper was submitted by the Chairman, Dr. Matsudaira, for the Committee's consideration. The paper notes that the two Committees suggest in their reports certain general functions and tasks that might appropriately be undertaken within the framework of the United Nations at the present time, and expresses the view that the questions involved might be such as to require consideration at governmental level. Accordingly, the working paper suggests the General Assembly might wish to consider establishment of an Assembly Committee to perform these functions, to report to the Assembly and to make recommendations as appropriate.

The working paper also expresses the view that it would not be appropriate at present to establish any autonomous inter-governmental organizations for international co-operation in the field of outer space or to ask any existing

autonomous inter-governmental organization to undertake over-all responsibility in this field. A small unit within the Secretariat of the United Nations could serve as the "suitable centre", recommended by the Technical Committee.

Final Meetings

The Committee met between June 23 and 25 to consider and approve the final version of its report to the General Assembly. The Secretary-General's report was presented by the Rapporteur of the Committee, Mr. Joseph Nisot of Belgium, and subsequent modifications suggested by the United Kingdom, Japan, the United States and Mexico were incorporated in it. Finally a draft presented by the Rapporteur on the outline of the report as a whole was considered and the final report approved unanimously on June 25.

The Canadian Representative, Mr. Charles S. A. Ritchie, made the following statements about the work of the ad hoc Committee as a whole on June 23:

It seems to my Delegation that a great deal more has been accomplished by the Committee in the very short time since it was convened than one might have expected about six weeks ago. During the intervening period we have had seated around these tables scientists, legal experts and national representatives, of countries with a considerable range of development in scientific, technological and economic capabilities. During the discussions we have achieved a meeting of minds in a preliminary survey of the opportunities for peaceful international co-operation in a new field. Both because of the newness of the field and in the light of the terms of reference of the Committee, the conclusions in our report must, we think, be considered as tentative in character and we hope that in due course those governments which are absent from our deliberations today will be able to co-operate. The discussions of the past few weeks, particularly in the Technical Committee, have reinforced our belief that there are already available to the scientific community of the world effective organizations for international co-operation at the scientific level in this field of outer space, as well as in other fields.

Because more mature consideration must be given before firm recommendations of a far-reaching nature can be made, my Delegation considers that the Committee would be wise to limit itself to whatever modest proposals seem to be necessary to provide for the most pressing needs and for continuing study and review of the future possibilities for international co-operation.

The Chairman of the Committee, Dr. Matsudaira, expressed appreciation for, among other contributions, that of Dr. Rose as Chairman of the Technical Committee, and in his closing statement mentioned:

... with satisfaction the fact that the work of the Committee has been carried out with a spirit of fairness and determination — especially the determination that outer space shall have a peaceful, orderly and international development.

He added:

... largely because of this spirit, it has been a sober, earnest and constructive international endeavour, as well as being, I am happy to say, a down-to-earth, unpretentious and efficient effort.

Development of Responsible Government in Singapore

IN the fourteen years since Singapore was liberated from Japanese military rule there has been an accelerating development toward responsible government. Under the new Constitution which was inaugurated on June 1, Singapore attained full self-government except in the fields of foreign affairs and defence, which will remain the responsibility of the United Kingdom Government, and in internal security, which will be the responsibility of a Singapore-United Kingdom-Malaya Internal Security Council on which the Malayan Representative will have the casting vote. The present United Kingdom Governor will retain his position for six months and will then be replaced by a Singapore official. The United Kingdom retains the power to suspend the Constitution in an emergency. The stages of government have been these:

1945 — 46: British Military Administration

1946 — 48: Colonial Administration

1948 — 51: 6 elected out of 22 members of advisory Legislative Council

1951 — 55: 9 elected out of 22 members of advisory Legislative Council

1955 — 59: Rendel Constitution: 25 elected out of 32 members of Legislative Council and Governor in practice did not use his Reserve Powers.

1959 June 1: full internal self-government by fully elected Legislative Council of 51 members.

Before the Second World War Singapore was for the most part a commercial city of transients — British, Chinese and Indians — who came there to make money and remit it to their homelands. Of course, there were the indigenous Malays and a small long-established community of Straits-born Chinese. But the majority did not regard Singapore as home until the Japanese occupation cut them off from their homelands. The Japanese also demonstrated that British colonial control was not immutable.

With the liberation, attention was chiefly directed toward the restoration of Singapore's trading position in South-East Asia. The Communists, however, were active in seeking to exploit the changed political consciousness of the people. This was a time of many problems: the restarting of the economy and trade, communal relationships, the pull of external loyalties, the need to provide mass education and to decide its content and language, the separation of Singapore from its pre-war partners in the Straits Settlements, Penang and Malacca, the separation of Singapore from Malaya, the restoration of the British base — and under all, a growing desire on the part of the Singaporeans to assume more and more control over their own affairs.

Development of Self-Government

After the restoration of civil government in 1946, an Advisory Council of seven officials and ten nominated non-officials was created. Steps were taken in 1947 for the voluntary registration of citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies. Twenty-two thousand registered as voters, more than half of whom were Indian and Ceylonese. The 1948 Constitution provided for a Legislative

Council of 22 members presided over by the Governor. Only six members were to be popularly elected and another three chosen by the Chambers of Commerce. There were only two political parties then: the Progressives and the Malayan Democratic Union. The M.D.U. decided to boycott the elections because it considered that the provision for popular representation was quite inadequate. There was no organized party campaigning; each candidate had an individual symbol and election manifesto on which to appeal by personal canvas to the two or three thousand electors in his constituency. There were no mass meetings, no radio broadcasts. Candidates had to be English-speaking and their appeal was to the English-educated white collar class. Altogether only 14,000 of the 22,000 eligible went to the polls. Three of the six seats were won by the conservative Progressive Party.

Although popular representation was limited, the principle and practice of elections had been established and there was now a channel, albeit a small one, for the expression of popular opinion. The Legislative Council, even though dominated by officials and nominated members, initiated parliamentary procedure in passing legislation and finance bills. The public became accustomed to the concept of parliamentary government even if it was not representative.

In 1951 popularly elected members were increased from six to nine and the electorate from 22,000 to 48,000. Fifteen of the 22 candidates were Indians and they won four of the nine seats. Six seats went to the Progressives, two to the new Labour Party, and one to an Independent. Although the elected members of the Legislative Council were still a minority, a major constitutional advance was made by provision that the Executive Council should be made up of six non-officials (two elected by the unofficial members of the Legislative Council from among themselves) and six officials. The powers of the Executive Council remained purely advisory but the Governor gave his assurance that if the six non-officials were unanimous in support of a recommendation, except for certain reserved subjects, the Governor would accept their advice.

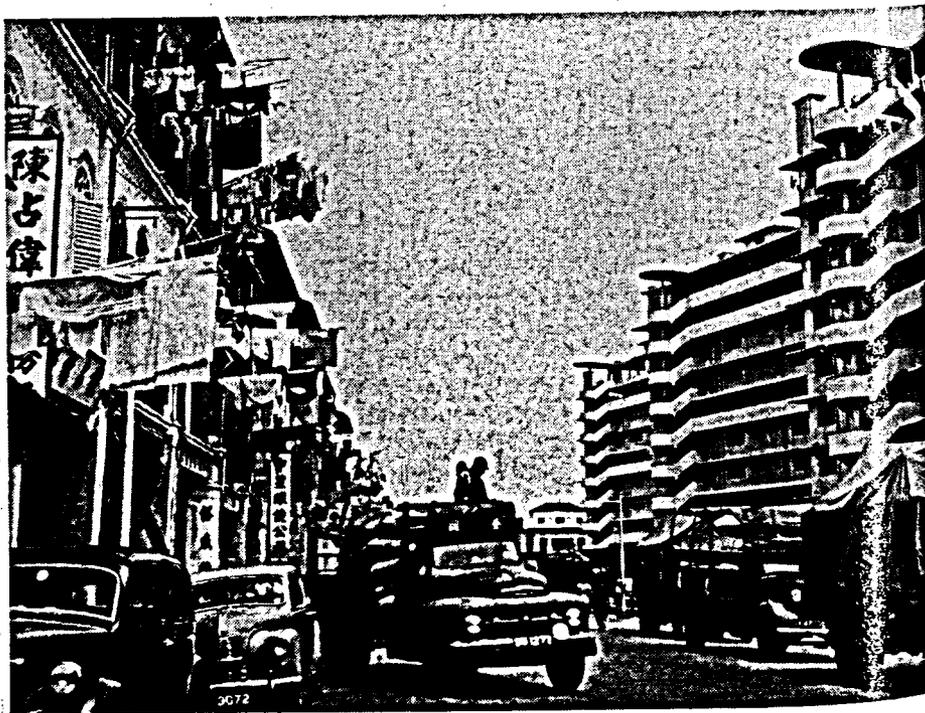
The Rendel Constitution

In the normal process the popularly elected members would have been increased at the end of three more years from nine to twelve which, taken together with the three representatives of the Chambers of Commerce, would have given the elected member a majority in the 28-member Legislative Council. This majority of elected members would have been able to deny laws and refuse funds to the Government without being able to introduce their own policy. Since this would have been unsatisfactory, a Commission consisting of eight members of the Legislative Council was established in 1953, under the chairmanship of Sir George Rendel, to recommend a new constitution. The Rendel Constitution, which was ushered in by the elections of April 2, 1955, established a Legislative Assembly of 32 of whom 25 were to be popularly elected. The special representation of the Chambers of Commerce was discontinued. There was automatic registration of all citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies and this increased the electorate from 48,000 to 300,000, half of whom voted. The elected members were to determine who should constitute Government and what its policies should be. The Governor had to choose a Chief Minister who could command the support of a majority of the Assembly according to the normal procedure of Cabinet government. The

Council of Ministers held the reins of government; they laid down the policies and instructed the civil service. Although the Governor retained reserve powers, in the event they were never used.

Automatic registration of electors introduced mass politics and released new forces. Of the 59 candidates who stood for election, 54 were Chinese and only 14 Indian. The Labour Front and the Peoples Action Party introduced techniques of mass propaganda in languages other than English because they had to concentrate on issues of interest to non-English speaking voters. The old Progressive Party failed to grasp the change so that only four of their 22 candidates survived. A new Democratic party sought to appeal to Chinese communalism with the support of the guilds but only two of its 22 candidates were elected. The Progressives then linked with the Democrats to form the Liberal-Socialist Party. The Labour Front, with the support of the United Malays National Organization and the Malayan Chinese Association (both branches of Federation parties), won a working majority and David Marshall became Chief Minister.

After a disagreement with the Governor over the appointment of assistant ministers, Marshall secured agreement from London that the Rendel Constitution should be reviewed after it had been in operation for a year. The 1956 Constitutional talks failed to reach agreement on the prickly problem of control of internal security in Singapore. David Marshall resigned and was replaced by Lim Yew Hock. The latter led an All-Party delegation to London in 1958 which worked out an acceptable formula for the new constitution which was to go into force on June 1, 1959.



A STREET SCENE IN SINGAPORE

A new low-rental housing project on the right in contrast to the old buildings on the left.

1959 Elections

One of the most striking features of the May 30 elections for the new 51-seat Legislative Council was the enfranchisement of 324,000 new voters. Under the Singapore Citizenship Law all those who have resided in Singapore for eight years and are of good character may become citizens. The provision for compulsory voting quadrupled the number of voters. With four languages (English, Mandarin Chinese, Malay and Tamil) to be used in the Legislative Assembly all groups were given a chance to be represented.

Although there was some speculation that the number of new voters with an unknown political allegiance might have an unexpected effect on election results, observers generally predicted that the first government under the new Constitution would be formed by the opposition People's Action Party. Not only did the People's Action Party have a wide appeal based on socialism and anti-colonialism and strong backing from the trade unions, but the governing Labour Front Party had failed to produce a policy with popular appeal and suffered increasingly from a split among its moderate backers. In an effort to overcome these dissensions, the then Chief Minister, Lim Yew Hock, formed a new party, the Singapore People's Alliance. The move, however, failed to avoid a split in the moderate vote and the People's Action Party won an overwhelming victory, gaining 43 of the 51 seats in the new Legislature. The Singapore People's Alliance won four, the combined United Malays National Organization and Malayan Chinese Associated won three, and there is one independent seat.

Singapore's Future

Many observers doubt whether the victory of the People's Action Party will mean any drastic change in the political scene in Singapore. The port is still economically dependent upon an entrepôt economy and consequently upon private capital and private enterprise. The employment provided by the British bases is still an important factor in the economic picture. Politically, the People's Action Party supports eventual union with Malaya. The New Prime Minister, Lee Kuan Yew, has emphasized that his Party is non-communist and the moderates of the Party have indicated their determination not to allow the Party's extremist wing of communist sympathizers to gain control.

While the changes in the constitutional framework for Singapore may not bring about a radical alteration in the political and economic life of the port, they are, nevertheless, significant. In the short space of fourteen years Singapore has gained the institutions of responsible government. The Government elected on May 30 has effective control of the affairs of the state, in keeping with its position as a great British base in South-East Asia and its special relationship with the Federation of Malaya.

United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees

ONE of the most important and difficult subjects to be considered by the United Nations General Assembly at its forthcoming session this autumn is the question of the renewal of the mandate of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA). This body was set up by a General Assembly resolution of December 8, 1949, to supersede an organization known as the United Nations Relief for Palestine Refugees, which had been established the previous year largely in order to co-ordinate the activities of the voluntary agencies which had stepped in initially to cope with the immediate emergency.

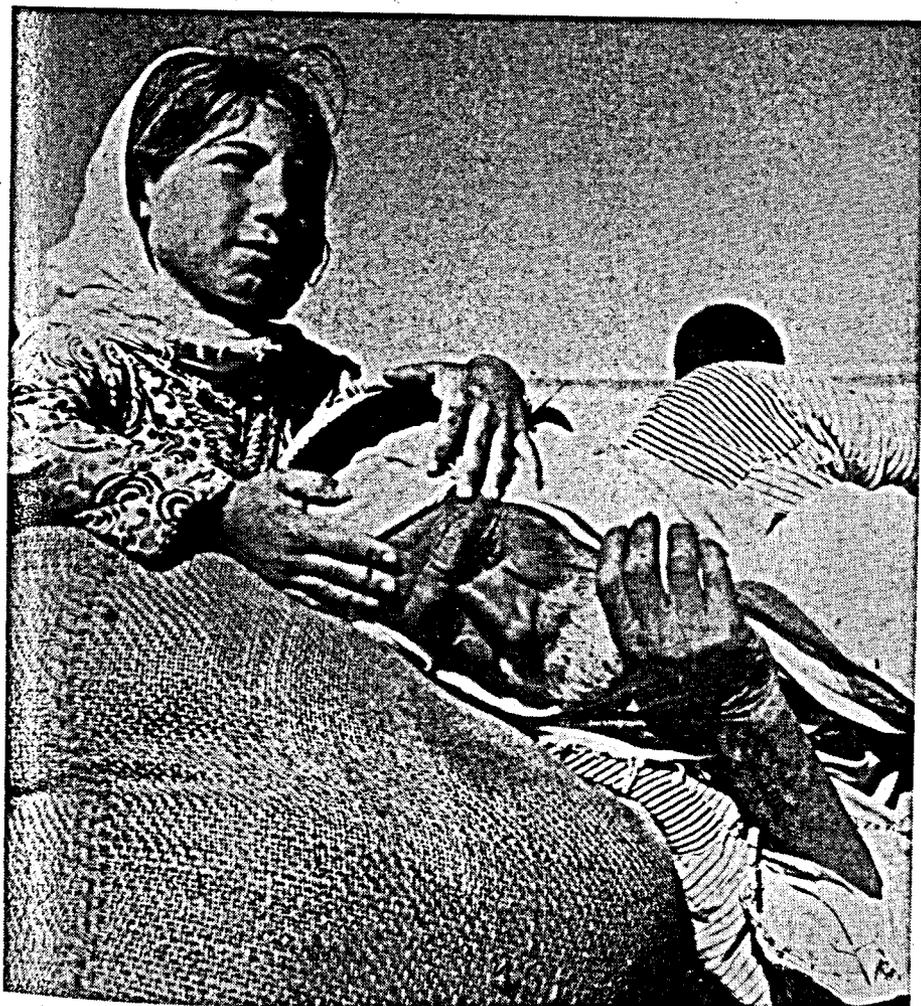
UNRWA's task was defined in various Assembly resolutions as being "to carry out . . . direct relief and work programmes" and to work towards "reintegration of the refugees into the economic life of the Near East, either by repatriation or resettlement". The Agency now provides relief, education and rehabilitation facilities to some 960,000 refugees who lost their homes and means of livelihood in the hostilities which accompanied the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948. After the disappointment of early hopes for a speedy solution of the refugee problem through a political settlement and through economic measures, the General Assembly decided, in 1954, to extend the mandate of UNRWA for a period of five years, ending on June 30, 1960. It is the approaching end of this period that will oblige the Assembly this autumn to take a decision in principle on UNRWA's future. In the meantime, the details of UNRWA's affairs and in particular its budget have continued to be considered on a regular basis by the Assembly each year.

The Problems to be Faced

UNRWA's task has been a difficult one from the start, since its responsibilities have brought it up against many of the most intractable political and economic problems of the area. In view of the limitations under which it has had to operate, its accomplishments have been remarkable. Furthermore, the cost of its operations has been surprisingly low; total expenditures for both relief and rehabilitation amount in 1958 to less than ten cents per refugee per day.

Of the approximately 960,000 refugees currently under UNRWA's care, 540,000 are located in Jordan, where they constitute about one-third of the total population; 225,000 are in the Gaza Strip, where refugees make up at least two thirds of the total; 96,000 are in the Syrian region of the United Arab Republic; and 102,000 are in Lebanon. There are also 89,000 refugees registered with UNRWA who have become wholly or partly self-supporting, and accordingly receive no rations. An important category which UNRWA considers definitely in need of rations, but which has had to be excluded from the ration rolls because of the Agency's continued financial difficulties, is made up of many thousands of frontier villagers who have lost their lands, as well as certain Bedouins who are stated to have been obliged to leave their traditional grazing grounds in Southern Israel some time after the end of the 1948 hostilities.

UNRWA's relief programme concentrates on the fundamental subsistence items — food, shelter and health. The basic rations supplied by UNRWA to the refugees consist mainly of flour, with smaller quantities of beans, sugar, rice and fats, and provide about 1500 to 1600 calories per day per person. (The average Canadian consumes about 3050 calories per day.) In addition, UNRWA provides skimmed milk and certain other dietary supplements to children, pregnant women and nursing mothers. In the four host countries UNRWA runs 57 camps, which provide shelter for about 39 per cent of the refugees. In these camps tents have now for the most part been replaced by huts. The remaining refugees find shelter on their own, or with relatives, in the cities and towns, or as squatters near the official camps. The Agency also has a well-developed health programme. The emphasis is placed on preventive medicine and health



—United Nations

PALESTINE REFUGEES IN THE GAZA STRIP

In 1948, following the Palestine war, 200,000 Arabs took refuge in the Gaza strip; since 1950 they have received help from the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA). UNRWA has distributed food rations and clothing, and set up clinics and general health services, schools, social welfare centres and recreation facilities.

education, but the Agency also maintains static and mobile clinics, and subsidizes some 2,000 hospital beds in government and private institutions. In general, the health of refugees under the Agency's care has continued to be satisfactory. UNRWA pays freight on donations of used clothing from outside sources, but does not at present supply clothing itself. Financial difficulties forced the Agency to bring to an end in 1957 a short-lived programme for children's clothing.

UNRWA's education programme, from which 173,000 children are currently benefitting in schools either run or subsidized by the Agency, is considered one of the most important means for preparing the refugees to become self-supporting, wherever they may ultimately live. The Agency's object is to provide elementary education for all refugee children, secondary education for a proportion of the refugee school population roughly equivalent to the proportion of indigenous school population receiving it in the host country, UNRWA university scholarships for a small number of gifted students, and as much vocational training as the Agency can afford.

Rehabilitation is, of course, ultimately the most vital of UNRWA's tasks, but political and financial difficulties have so far impeded substantial progress. The Director of UNRWA has reported that the refugees maintain their collective hostility towards major development projects which, to them, imply permanent resettlement away from their ancestral homes in Palestine and the abandonment of their hopes of repatriation; that the refugees are in general supported in this stand by the Arab host governments; and that there has been no affirmative action by Israel to facilitate the implementation of the 1948 General Assembly resolution concerning repatriation and compensation. He concludes that in the absence of a solution for this political problem, UNRWA's efforts to effect the reintegration of the refugees into the economic life of the area will continue to be hampered. The Director has added, however, that the picture is not entirely black, and that there are continued signs that the refugees have a growing appreciation of the desirability of self-support and of rehabilitation, in the broad sense of an improvement in their conditions of life and prospects for the future. Considerable disappointment, for example, was caused among the refugees when the small grants programme for individual refugees to establish productive enterprises in Jordan and Syria had to be suspended in 1957 due to lack of funds; this programme had originally been opposed by refugees on the suspicion that its success would prejudice their right to repatriation. It is also significant that huts are now being willingly accepted in place of tents and that applications for vocational training are more than UNRWA can handle with its existing facilities. As a result, in large measure, of a supplementary Canadian flour contribution and a large U.S. matching contribution in 1958, the Agency's financial position improved last year to an extent where it was able to resume some of the most useful of its small-scale rehabilitation schemes, such as the individual grants programme and the development of vocational training centres. Graduates of these centres are able to find employment in various parts of the Arab world almost immediately on completion of their training, so great is the area's need for competent specialists. Among other aspects of the Agency's more recent rehabilitation activities have been assistance with the establishment of small agricultural settlements, an afforestation project in Gaza, and a Development Bank in Jordan; the Agency also runs placement services and assists refugee emigrants.



—United Nations

THE YARMUK-JORDAN VALLEY PROJECT

Building the access road from the town of Irbid to the site of the Yarmuk-Jordan Valley irrigation and hydro-electric scheme, which will provide employment and irrigated farm land for refugees in this area.

Canada's Contribution

Canada has been closely concerned with aspects of the Palestine problem ever since the 1947 Assembly discussions leading to the Palestine partition resolution of November 29, 1947, and has from the start taken a keen interest in the welfare and rehabilitation of the Palestine refugees, not only for humanitarian reasons but also because of UNRWA's important role in helping to promote stability in the area. In this respect, Canada's support for UNRWA forms a logical complement to Canadian participation in the United Nations' peace-keeping bodies in the area, the UN Truce Supervision Organization and in particular the UN Emergency Force. In recent years Canada has been the third largest contributor to UNRWA, the Canadian contribution being exceeded only by those of the United States and the United Kingdom, which pay about 70 per cent and 10 per cent respectively of UNRWA's expenses. Canadian contributions to Palestine refugee relief and rehabilitation from 1948 until the end of 1957 totalled over \$5,300,000 in money and kind, and in each of the years 1958 and 1959, special contributions of \$1,500,000 worth of Canadian flour were given in addition to regular monetary contributions of \$500,000. These special flour contributions were made in the light of UNRWA's

particularly grave financial shortages, and in the hope, justified by events, that the Agency would be able to use the savings effected on food costs through our gift in flour to revive some of its more constructive rehabilitation activities. News of the special Canadian flour contribution was disseminated widely amongst the refugees, and numerous spontaneous expressions of gratitude were received by Canadians in the area.

A number of private Canadian charitable organizations have also provided valuable assistance to the refugees. The Unitarian Service Committee of Canada, for example, provided in 1958 some 20 tons of clothing for the refugees, 10,000 layettes sewn by thousands of groups across the country, and funds for commercial and nurse-midwife training courses. The Canadian Red Cross Women's Work Committee supplied over \$19,000 worth of new clothing to UNRWA in 1958, and other significant contributions have been made by the Canadian Lutheran World Relief and the Committee on Overseas Relief of the United Church of Canada. A Canadian, Major-General Howard Kennedy, now Chairman of the National Capital Commission, served with distinction as the first Director of UNRWA, and a number of other Canadians have held posts on UNRWA's comparatively small non-Arab staff, making particularly important contributions in the establishment of UNRWA's comprehensive education programme.

The Secretary-General's Report

The General Assembly's discussion of UNRWA's future will undoubtedly centre around a report on "proposals for the continuation of UN assistance to Palestine refugees" issued on June 15 by the Secretary-General, in accordance with an undertaking made during the Assembly's 1958 debate on the annual report of UNRWA. The Secretary-General's view is unequivocal:

I strongly and unreservedly recommend the continuance of the United Nations activities in support of the refugees, for all the time and to all the extent necessary, pending the reintegration of the refugee population into the productive life of the area for which there are economic reasons to hope in connection with its general development. This will require the prior, or at least concurrent, resolution of political and psychological problems

Mr. Hammarskjöld argues that reintegration of the refugees is possible, over the long term, provided that the area can be developed through sufficient capital formation; that the refugees constitute a reservoir of manpower which will assist in the creation of higher standards for the area's whole population; and that humanitarian reasons apart, assistance to the refugees is indicated as a sound part of any programme of economic development for the area.

The Secretary-General goes on to draw attention to political difficulties which hamper this economic development: the Palestine problem, regarding which no progress towards a solution is immediately in view; the problem of inter-Arab relationships; and the problem of Arab economic co-operation so framed as to render possible exploitation of natural resources to the full benefit of all countries. The Secretary-General points out that progress has been made with these last two problems, and gives as an example the recent establishment of an Arab development fund; but he comments that fairly complete mobility of capital within the area can only be regarded as a long-range objective.

The Secretary-General emphasizes that the refugee question is basically a human problem; reintegration must be freely accepted if it is to yield lasting results in the form of economic and political stability. The views now voiced indicate that the refugees would not voluntarily accept reintegration unless they have been given freedom of choice between repatriation and compensation in accordance with the 1948 resolution. However, in the Secretary-General's view, a *de facto* economic integration would not prejudice any rights established by the resolution. The Secretary-General expresses the hope that during the lengthy process of economic development, ways will be found to bring about a mutually satisfactory adjustment of stands on all sides which would resolve the psychological difficulties by the time integration of most of the refugees becomes economically possible.

The Secretary-General also recommends certain technical changes in the operation of UNRWA: a review of those entitled to receive assistance; assumption of administrative responsibility for the general education programme by host governments, with subsidization by UNRWA; development of rehabilitation activities such as vocational and agricultural training and individual self-support grants, with appropriate financial support from contributing governments as an essential element; and revision of UNRWA's agreements with the host governments.

Whatever the Assembly's decision may be, the Secretary-General's report will help it to realize one fundamental fact — that the solution of the refugee problem will be a gradual and long-term process, calling for a great deal of patience and tolerance on the part of all concerned.

Canada's Approach

The Canadian Government's approach to the problem was outlined last November by Mr. W. J. Browne, Chairman of the Canadian Delegation, in the Special Political Committee of the General Assembly. He spoke in part as follows:

I have already said that it is the belief of the Canadian Delegation that the onus of assistance to the refugees is an inescapable one for the Assembly and that, given the present political situation, it seems to us inevitable that any examination of the question of the Palestine refugees by the Assembly will be based upon the premise that future assistance will continue along the lines of the present programmes with, perhaps, some fresh and imaginative elements which could command the interest of the refugees and host governments alike. It is clear that, although we might grow impatient with the problem that has existed without sign of a solution for over a decade, we cannot by reason of our impatience abandon our efforts at assistance, and it is on the basis of this belief that the Canadian Delegation will view any recommendations that appear before this Committee. We are realistic enough to be aware that the sort of assistance which the United Nations has been rendering to the refugees through UNRWA must continue for some time to come, although we hope that there will be a decline in the numbers of persons concerned

It is the wish of my Delegation that we will by our actions at this time lay the foundation for a thorough and enlightened discussion of the problem at the next session of the Assembly. We express the hope that another attempt will be made to solve the question so that this tragic human problem, which is at the root of so many recurring crises, can be dealt with in a spirit of justice, equity and understanding and compassion for the victims of a problem too long without solution.

Schemes for Union in Western and Equatorial Africa

There can be no doubt that such a union of West African States will enhance the influence and prestige of African peoples throughout the world, and will be able to achieve more rapidly the peaceful liberation of oppressed peoples throughout the Continent of Africa. — *Obafemi Awolowo of Western Nigeria.*

I think that most of us would like to spare our countries the miseries of small-minded nationalism — just as we should like to spare them the misery of an economic anarchy that is without planning or subordination to the common good . . . African history has so often been the history of large units. But what the organizers of those old feudal states did by conquest, we in our day will do by federalism and by free consent . . . My own deep hope is that we are moving towards the federal unity of the whole of West Africa — whether French or British or other. — *Gabriel D'Arbousier of Senegal.*

These two statements, both made last year, are noteworthy because they show that representative leaders of both British and French West Africa have for some time shared the view that the emerging states of Africa should pool their limited resources in some form of loose federal union. There has been considerable agreement on the basic idea of unification, but on questions of detail concerning the scope and form of such groupings, there has been considerable divergence of views. Outlined below are the main schemes for association which are currently being discussed.

Union of Independent States of Africa

The most ambitious of all schemes of union is Prime Minister Nkrumah's long-cherished dream of a United States of Africa which presumably was thought of as eventually including the whole continent. This was the vision of Nkrumah in his early period, but after Ghana attained independence more was heard from Accra about a smaller but still extensive federation confined to West Africa, where most of the independent "Black African" as distinguished from "Arab African", states are situated. On November 23, 1958 during the visit to Accra of the Prime Minister of Guinea, a joint declaration was issued agreeing "to constitute our two states as a nucleus of a nation of West African States". This West African grouping apparently was intended to include, of former French West Africa, Ghana, Nigeria, Liberia, Togo, the Cameroons, and the small British colonies of Sierra Leone and Gambia. This would encompass some 65 million people and an area of over 2.5 million square miles.

In the latest joint declaration in Conakry on May 1, 1959, Dr. Nkrumah of Ghana and M. Sekou Touré of Guinea announced agreement between them on the creation of a broader "union of independent states of Africa". As reported in the press, the draft constitution will be based on twelve principles, including a common citizenship (in addition to the citizenship of one's own state), a common defence policy (though each state would have its own armed forces), a common flag, and a co-ordinated economic policy with a single bank of issue to back the individual currencies of the proposed union. The membership would be open to all independent African states which are prepared to adhere to these principles.

role may be its preoccupation with internal problems, for it contains within its own borders diverse tribes, cultures, languages, and regional governments. Nigerian leaders have expressed their intentions to co-operate closely with their neighbours, especially in the economic field. However, there have been indications that they may be reluctant to join any political union led by much smaller nations in which Nigeria's important position did not receive full recognition.

Mali

Senegal and Soudan are the strongest proponents of a federation of the states of French West Africa within the French community. Mr. Senghor, the veteran Senegalese leader of the P.R.A. Party (Parti du Regroupement Africain), which has widespread support in French West Africa, has explained that both his state and his party advocate large federations in order to prevent the Balkanization of the area. Advocates of federation claim that it will strengthen all the small states whose borders, they assert, were arbitrarily imposed and often make little ethnic or even economic sense.

Following a preliminary meeting in Bamako, the Soudanese capital, at the end of December 1958, the states of Senegal, Soudan, Dahomey and the Voltaic Republic set up a Federal Constituent Assembly which on January 17 adopted a draft constitution for the Federation of Mali. This called for a federal government, assembly and court, established a federal capital at Dakar, adopted a flag, a motto, and a procedure by which states might adhere to the federation. Subsequently Dahomey and Volta have withdrawn, and only the contiguous states of Senegal and Soudan have joined the federation.



Mr. Sekou Touré, now President of Guinea, addressing the Grand Council of French West Africa.

The new federal Cabinet, announced on April 5, is headed by Premier Keita of Soudan as Prime Minister, and Premier Dia of Senegal as Deputy Premier, with the other six positions being evenly divided between the two states.

Sahel-Benin Union

Holding different ideas is Mr. Houphouët-Boigny, a veteran African member of the French Cabinet and a leading figure in the ubiquitous RDA Party (Rassemblement Démocratique Africain) which controls over half of the French African states. He is also the Premier of the Ivory Coast which is considerably richer than its neighbours in French West Africa. He recognizes the need for some economic co-operation among neighbouring states, but has long stood for a policy of continuing co-operation between the African states and Metropolitan France. Apparently as a counter-attraction to Mali, he organized a much looser four-state association under which the components have stronger ties with France than with each other. This Sahel-Benin Union includes the contiguous states of the Ivory Coast, Volta, Dahomey and Niger. It offers its members economic co-operation and a voice in the operation of the Ivory Coast port of Adibjan, the most important in the area.

Recently there have been indications that a compromise has been reached between the leaders of the Mali and Sahel-Benin groups. The press has reported that in June the six members of the two groups, plus Mauretania which had previously remained aloof from any group (probably because of its ethnic ties with North Africa), decided to form a customs union. Both Mr. Keita of Mali and Mr. Houphouët-Boigny said that they hoped that the customs union would be a success and would be followed by other agreements.

Togo

A Ghana-Togo union is a possibility after this French trust territory attains independence next year and there will be considerable pressure for this, in order to unite the important Ewe tribe which is divided by the present border. However, such a union is unlikely to come about until there has been a change in the present rather cool relations between the two neighbours. There is also a possibility that Prime Minister Olympio might consider uniting his million people with neighbouring Dahomey as had once been mooted.

Association of African States

Liberia recently proposed an association of African states which would not be a political union but a system to facilitate co-operation between independent states. It would be modelled on the Organization of American States. Up to July 1959, there had been little response to this suggestion from other African countries.

Customs Union of French Equatorial Africa

Soon after attaining independence within the French Community, the four states of French Equatorial Africa formed a customs union. The whole area had been administered as a unit by the French, and lines of communication and trade link the four states which are now called Gabon, the Congo Republic, the Central African Republic (C.A.R.), and Chad. There has also been considerable sentiment in three of the states for the formation of a close



LEGISLATIVE ELECTIONS IN FRENCH WEST AFRICA
Senegalese women casting their votes at a polling booth in Dakar.

"primary federation" between all four states. This, however, has been discouraged by Premier M'ba of Gabon who is anxious to maintain and strengthen economic links with his neighbours, but prefers direct links with France which do not first proceed through the intermediary of a primary federation.

The Congo Union

The Bakongo tribes are regarded by some observers as the most militant and politically conscious people in Equatorial Africa. It was this group, largely united in a political-cultural association known as Abako, who were involved in disturbances in the Belgian Congo, the Congo Republic and according to some reports, in the adjacent region of Angola as well. Abako is inspired by a vision of resurrecting the old Bakongo kingdom which included the whole tribal group in northwest Angola, Lower Belgian Congo, and Lower Congo Republic. They have seemed relatively uninterested in the non-Bakongo hinterlands of all three territories. There is a tendency for these peoples to look for leadership to Premier Youlou of the Congo Republic, who is a member of the tribe. However, such a Bakongo union seems unlikely to come about because of opposition by the Belgian and Portuguese authorities and by some of the tribes in the area. A programme has been announced under which the Congolese may, if they choose, gradually attain independence but the Belgian Government has said it will resist any Abako attempt to break up the Congo into ethnic units which would tend to be uneconomic, disruptive to channels of communication, and disturbing to other tribes who fear Bakongo domination. The Portuguese Government regards Angola as an overseas province of Portugal and does not contemplate its dismemberment.

United States of Latin Africa

The late Premier Boganda, of the C.A.R., who before the new Constitution was the equivalent of federal Prime Minister of French Equatorial Africa, was the leading proponent of a scheme to link all Equatorial Africa where Latin influences predominate. This would include the four French states, the Belgian Congo and Portuguese Angola. This grandiose plan may have some political appeal in the area but it probably would run into Belgian, Portuguese and possibly Gabonese opposition. With the death of its main advocate, less is likely to be heard of it.



PRIME MINISTER OF GHANA

*Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, who visited Canada in July 1958, photographed with
Prime Minister John G. Diefenbaker of Canada.*

APPOINTMENTS AND TRANSFERS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mr. P. E. Uren posted from the Canadian Embassy, Washington, to Ottawa. Left Washington June 30, 1959.
- Mr. H. F. Clark posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada London. Left Ottawa July 2, 1959.
- M. W. P. McLeod posted from the Canadian Consulate, Hamburg, to the Canadian Embassy, Paris. Left Hamburg July 4, 1959.
- Mr. G. P. Kidd posted from Ottawa to the National Defence College, Kingston. Left Ottawa July 7, 1959.
- Mr. G. R. Harman posted from the Canadian Legation, Prague, to Ottawa. Left Prague July 8, 1959.
- Mr. A. S. McGill posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, New Delhi, to Ottawa. Left New Delhi July 9, 1959.
- Mr. R. W. MacLaren posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Legation, Prague. Left Ottawa July 10, 1959.
- Mr. J. A. Donald posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Kuala Lumpur to the Canadian Consulate, Hamburg. Left Kuala Lumpur July 11, 1959.
- Mr. R. E. Reynolds posted from the Canadian Embassy, Copenhagen, to Ottawa. Left Copenhagen July 12, 1959.
- Mr. W. E. Bauer posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Rome. Left Ottawa July 14, 1959.
- Mr. J. M. Cook posted from the Canadian Embassy, Rome, to Ottawa. Left Rome July 17, 1959.
- Mr. J. W. Graham posted from Education Leave at Cambridge University, to Ottawa. Left London July 21, 1959.
- Mr. S. M. Scott posted from the National Defence College, Kingston, to Ottawa. Left Kingston July 24, 1959.
- Mr. J. Montpetit posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Moscow. Left Ottawa July 24, 1959.
- Mr. J. I. Gow posted from Ottawa to the Delegation of Canada to the North Atlantic Council, Paris. Left Ottawa July 25, 1959.
- Mr. J. M. J. Hughes posted from the Canadian Embassy, The Hague, to Ottawa. Left The Hague July 27, 1959.
- Mr. F. M. Meech posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Accra, to the Canadian Military Mission, Berlin. Left Accra July 29, 1959.
- Mr. N. R. J. Gwyn posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Accra. Left Ottawa July 29, 1959.
- Mr. Y. Beaulne posted from the Canadian Embassy, Buenos Aires to Ottawa. Left Buenos Aires July 29, 1959.
- Mr. A. E. Blanchette, Acting Canadian Commissioner posted from the International Supervisory Commission for Cambodia, to Ottawa. Left Phnom Penh July 31, 1959.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

Australia

Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia for co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy.
Signed at Ottawa August 4, 1959.

United States of America

Exchange of Notes between the Government of Canada and the Government of the United States of America governing the establishment of an integrated communications system to support the ballistic missiles early warning system (BNEWS).
Signed at Ottawa July 13, 1959.
Entered into force July 13, 1959.

Multilateral

International Labour Convention (105) concerning the abolition of forced labour, adopted by the Conference at its fortieth session, Geneva, 25 June 1957.
Canada's Instrument of Ratification deposited July 14, 1959.

International Wheat Agreement, 1959.
Signed by Canada April 22, 1959.
Canada's Instrument of acceptance deposited July 16, 1959.

CURRENT UNITED NATIONS DOCUMENTS*

A Selected List

a) Printed Documents:

UN

National Laws and Regulations Relating to the Control of Narcotic Drugs. 80 p. price .70c (E-NL. 1958-Index) Cumulative index 1948-1958.

Off the Beaten Track. Technical Assistance experts describe seldom-visited communities. 84 p. price .40c.

Food and Agriculture Price Policies in Asia and the Far East: Study prepared by the ECAFE/FAO Agriculture Division, Bangkok, 1958. 110 p. Sales No. 58.11.7.2, \$1.25.

ECAFE

Economic Survey of Asia and the East. 1958. 225 p. price \$2.50.

ICAO

Route Facility Charges (Statement by the Council to Contracting States), Doc 7941-C/913, Trilingual, 21 pages, 25 cents.

Statistics Division Report of the Third Session, Montreal, 18 November-8 December 1959, Doc 7952-STA/530, 164 pages, \$1.75.

Second Special North Atlantic Fixed Services Meeting, Report of the Meeting, Paris, 12-21 January 1959, Doc 7953, SP/NAT-FS/2, English and French editions only, 42 pages, 50 cents.

Radiotelephony Training and Reference Manual, Doc 7948-AN/869, 75 pages, \$1.00.

Aviation Training Films, Second Edition, 1959, 95 pages, 15 cm x 23 cm (6 inches x 9 inches). .50 cents.

ILO

Report 1 (Part 1) of the Director-General, Current Problems and Trends. Employment and Un-Employment. Social Problems and Economic Development. Institutions and Social Policy. 132 p. price \$1.00 also available in French.

Report IV (2). Organization of Occupation Health Services in Places of Employment. 57 p. price .40c also available in French.

Report VI (2). Protection of Workers Against Radiations. 131 p. price \$1.00 Also available in French.

Collaboration between Public Authorities and Employers' and Workers' Organizations at the Industrial and National Levels. 76 p. price .75c also available in French.

Trade Union Rights in the U.S.S.R. 159 p. price \$1.25 Also available in French.

Freedom of Association. A workers education manual. 157 p. price. .75c Also available in French.

UNESCO

Technical and Vocational Education in the U.S.S.R. A bibliographical survey by M. I. Movsovic. No. 30. 50 p. \$1.00.

Education Abstracts. Text Books and International Understanding. Paris, 1959. UNESCO, April-May 1959, Vol. XI-Nos. 4-5, 26 p. Annual subscription \$1.50.

*Printed documents of the United Nations may be obtained in Canada at the following address: Agents: The Ryerson Press, 299 Queen Street, W., Toronto; Sub-Agents: Book Room Ltd., Chronicle Building, Halifax; McGill University Bookstore, Montreal; Magasin des Étudiants de l'Université de Montréal, Montréal; University of Manitoba Bookstore, Winnipeg; University of Toronto Press and Bookstore, Toronto; University of British Columbia Bookstore, Vancouver.

Mimeographed United Nations documents are available to the general public by annual subscription from the United Nations Secretariat, New York; and to university staffs and students, teachers, libraries and non-governmental organizations from the United Nations Department of Public Information, New York.

For more complete information see "External Affairs" for April-May 1958, page 117.

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CANADA

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THE QUEEN IN OTTAWA

Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II presenting new colours to the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders in Ottawa on July 1.

The Queen's Tour

ON THE LAST EVENING of the Royal Tour of Canada of 1959 the Queen spoke at a dinner in Halifax:

... For all the great sights we saw and all the wonderful achievements, it will still be the people who will live in our memories. We shall always remember your individual kindness and consideration, your warm-hearted welcome and friendliness....

The Prime Minister voiced the appreciation of the Canadian people:

It is my privilege as Prime Minister to present the full-hearted thanks of the people of Canada for your residence in your Canadian home. The tour has been memorable and inspiring....

The Queen had been in her Canadian kingdom for forty-five days. The immediate purpose of her visit had been to open officially the St. Lawrence Seaway. Near Montreal on June 26, Her Majesty and the Pre-



AT THE COMMONWEALTH AIR FORCES MEMORIAL

Her Majesty, accompanied by Mr. C. B. Fuller, Secretary-General of the Imperial War Graves Commission (Canada), and Prince Philip with Mr. A. J. Brooks, Minister of Veterans Affairs, at the Commonwealth Air Forces Memorial which the Queen unveiled in Ottawa.



AT ARVIDA

The Queen, accompanied by the manager, Mr. D. N. Ferguson, visiting the Aluminum Company of Canada plant at Arvida, Quebec.

sident of the United States formally declared the Seaway open in a ceremony during which the Queen spoke of "this magnificent monument to the enduring friendship of our two nations and to their partnership in the development of North America". Moving up the Seaway on the royal yacht, Her Majesty, joined by the Vice-President of the United States, dedicated the St. Lawrence hydro-electric power project:

Before and after this occasion the Queen and Prince Philip visited every province, the Northwest Territories and the Yukon Territory. Little more than a day was spent in Ottawa. From Ottawa on July 1 Her Majesty broadcast to the nation by radio and television, speaking of the meaning of Dominion Day, of the past and future of Canada, and of her desire to see as many Canadians as possible. "Canada," as she said, "is simply too big" to be fully covered in one tour.

Yet the Queen and Prince Philip did find it possible to visit a remarkably large number of places, large and small. By water, air, rail and automobile, they travelled from the East to the West Coasts and back. There were, of course, many formal occasions, but Canadians in many centres also had oppor-

tunities of seeing Her Majesty and Prince Philip as they drove slowly through streets, visited factories, mines and farms, schools, universities and hospitals, athletic events, and gatherings of children in and out of doors. At Stratford the Queen attended a performance at the Festival Theatre, outside which people had waited all day to see her. Not a few Canadians, too, had some opportunity for conversation with Her Majesty, whose wide interests were seen to extend to all sides of Canadian life. In Saskatchewan the Queen visited a farm, where she was shown about by the owner, and had tea with the family.

For one busy day early in July, Her Majesty and the Duke of Edinburgh visited Chicago, accompanied by the Prime Minister and Mrs. Diefenbaker. An enthusiastic welcome awaited the Queen of Canada on the soil of Canada's great neighbour. Then, after many other events in Canada, the Queen proceeded to the Atlantic coast for the return to the United Kingdom. In Halifax Her Majesty attended a meeting of Cabinet, and in the evening sailed past the rows of vessels of her Royal Canadian Navy to the airport. As the aircraft flew into the dark night the strains of "Will ye no come back again" followed it.



Canada - Australia Agreement on Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy

ON AUGUST 4 the Australian High Commissioner and the Secretary of State for External Affairs signed an agreement between Australia and Canada for co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy. It is the fifth bilateral agreement of this type to be signed by Canada and is the second with another nation of the Commonwealth. The others, in the order of their signing, are with the Federal Republic of Germany, Switzerland, Pakistan, and Japan. They are general "framework" agreements intended to facilitate the exchanges between the parties, of information, equipment, staff and nuclear materials. All of them contain a "safeguards" clause providing that both parties shall be permitted to assure themselves that the terms of the agreement are complied with, including the provision that materials or services supplied shall be used for peaceful purposes only.



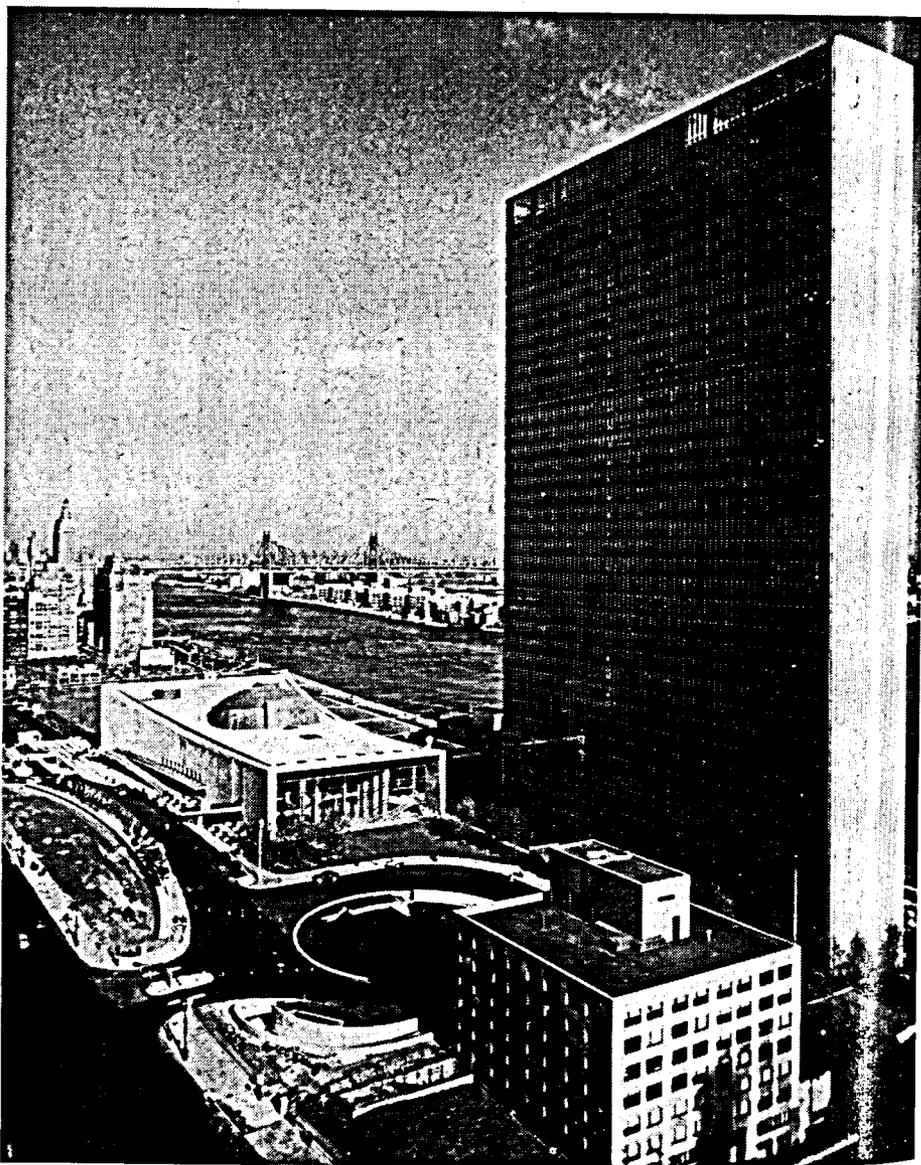
SIGNING OF ATOMIC ENERGY AGREEMENT

Mr. Howard Green, Secretary of State for External Affairs, right, and Sir William Cawthron, Australian High Commissioner, centre, signing the agreement between Canada and Australia for co-operation in the peaceful uses of atomic energy. Standing from left to right are Mr. J. Y. Grenon, Department of External Affairs, and Mr. F. T. Homer, First Secretary, Officer of the High Commissioner for Australia.

Mutual Benefits

Canada and Australia already have close and friendly relations in the field of atomic energy research and development and the agreement will give formal recognition to the existing working arrangements. Australia, which like Canada is a producer of uranium, will be interested in the extensive research that has been carried out in this country on the technology of natural uranium-fuelled, heavy water-moderated reactors, and particularly in their use for the production of electric power. Two power reactors are now underway in Canada. NPD2 (Nuclear Power Demonstration), at present under construction at Rolphton near Chalk River, is expected to be in operation by 1961 and will develop 20,000 kilowatts of electricity. The second project is CANDU, (Canadian Deuterium Uranium), plans for the construction of which were announced at the last session of Parliament. This large power plant will develop 200,000 kilowatts of electricity and should be completed by late 1964 or early 1965.

The exchanges between the two countries will not, however, be entirely one-sided. The Australian research programme is already well under way and is working on a different type of reactor system from that which is being developed in Canada. An exchange of information between the two countries is therefore of interest to both Australia and Canada which are thus indicating their intention to pursue to the fullest extent the beneficial possibilities of atomic research.



UNITED NATIONS HEADQUARTERS

The permanent UN Headquarters in New York, showing from background to foreground, the General Assembly Hall, the Secretariat and the Library.

Canada and the United Nations— The Record After Fourteen Years

CANADIANS have often referred to the United Nations as the cornerstone of their foreign policy. The frequency with which Canada and Canadians have appeared in the record of the United Nations during the fourteen years of its existence bears witness to the truth of this statement.

Hopes for a new world based on a secure peace, economic and social justice and effective international co-operation were high in the spring of 1945 when delegates of 50 nations assembled in San Francisco in the dying days of the Second World War to draft the Charter of the United Nations. The ideals and aspirations of the delegates, who represented more than 80 per cent of the world's population, were summarized in the Preamble of the Charter which stated in part:

WE THE PEOPLE
OF THE UNITED NATION
DETERMINED

to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and

to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and

to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and

to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom....

Drafting of Articles

The Chapters of the Charter which follow the Preamble define in 111 Articles the purposes, principles, and methods of the organization and establish the structure of each constituent part. These Articles were hammered out in final form in San Francisco during two months of intensive negotiations. Twelve technical committees responsible for drafting the various sections held nearly 400 meetings. The results of their efforts inevitably reflected the serious clashes of opinion and divergencies of outlook which might have wrecked the Conference if a spirit of conciliation and compromise had not prevailed; but the seeds of later procedural disputes had been sown in a number of the Articles of the Charter. Without the compromise they represented, the Charter could not have been written.

The records of the San Francisco Conference indicate that the Canadian Delegation played an important part in drafting the Charter. The Delegation sought in the debates on security measures to ensure adequate scope for the influence and capacities of the middle powers. Largely as a result of Canadian initiative, Article 23 of the Charter provided for the election of non-permanent members with due regard to their contribution to peace as well as to geographical distribution. The Canadian Delegation also was responsible for the

inclusion of Article 44, under which the Security Council is required to invite a member to participate in decisions concerning employment of that member's armed forces. Canada helped to ensure recognition in the Charter for the role of the International Court of Justice; obtained inclusion of Article 109 which provides for the question of review of the Charter to be considered at the tenth session of the General Assembly; helped strengthen the international position of the Secretariat and establish the relationship of the General Assembly and the Security Council as organizations of varying functions but with equality of status. Among the amendments submitted by the Canadian Delegation to the Conference was a complete revision of the important chapter in the Dumbarton Oaks proposal on international economic and social cooperation. Proposals put forward by the Canadian Delegation to strengthen the position of the Economic and Social Council and clarify the relationship between the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies were adopted by the Conference. Referring to the role of the Canadian Delegation in the drafting of the chapters on the Economic and Social Council in his book "The Four Cornerstones of Peace", D. M. Dean wrote: "Canada . . . made an outstanding contribution in its carefully thought out proposals for expansion of the functions and authority of the Economic and Social Council."

Canada served on the Security Council from 1948 to 1949 and from 1958 to 1959 and was a member of the Economic and Social Council from 1946 to 1948, from 1949 to 1952 and from 1956 to 1958. The then Secretary of State for External Affairs, Mr. L. B. Pearson, presided over the special session of the General Assembly in 1947 and he was President of the seventh session of the Assembly in 1952. Canada holds membership in all the Specialized Agencies (one of them, the International Civil Aviation Organization, has its headquarters in Montreal). Canada participated in the drafting of the Statute of the International Court of Justice, and a Canadian, Mr. J. E. Read, was a member of the Court from the date of its inception until February 1958. Lieutenant-General E. L. M. Burns of Canada is now serving as Commander of the United Nations Emergency Force in the Middle East.

Korea a Challenge

The chronicle of the United Nations shows that one of the greatest challenges to its principles came in 1950 with the invasion of South Korea. The record proves the organization met its responsibilities promptly and squarely. The boycott of the Security Council maintained at the time by the Soviet Delegate prevented him from vetoing the decision of the Security Council to take collective action against aggression in Korea. Canada was one of the 16 nations which contributed military forces to the United Nations Command. She was represented in land battles by a specially-recruited army combat unit, at sea by destroyers and in the air by the transport planes which ferried men and munitions across the Pacific towards the war zone. Canada provided the third largest number of armed forces from the outside and many Canadian servicemen gave their lives in the United Nations cause in Korea. In every stage of the difficult negotiations that finally led to an armistice in Korea, Canada tried to show that she recognized all her duties as a member of the United Nations.

The Korean action made it clear that a Soviet veto could have nullified the determination of other members to resist aggression. A number of member states, including Canada, therefore took action at the fifth session of the General Assembly in 1950 to establish new procedures and machinery through which the Assembly could cope with breaches of the peace or acts of aggression when the Security Council failed to exercise its primary responsibility in such matters. Canada became one of the sponsors at the fifth session of the General Assembly of the "Uniting for Peace" resolution which provided for the calling of an emergency session of the Assembly on 24 hours notice; the establishment of a Peace Observation Commission; a request to each member state to maintain elements within their armed forces for prompt use as United Nations units; the establishment of a Collective Measures Committee; and a call for intensified respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and social progress. "The Uniting for Peace" resolution in effect authorized the General Assembly to assume the peace-making and peace-safeguarding responsibilities of the Security Council, if the latter were unable to act in a crisis.

Hungary

The Hungarian crisis of 1956 was one of the few occasions in the history of the United Nations when the organization was unable to make any observable contribution to the progress of events. In spite of repeated resolutions by the General Assembly, the Soviet Union refused to withdraw its troops, and the Soviet and Hungarian Governments have refused to permit United Nations observers to visit Hungary.

The Canadian Delegation has continued to support efforts to keep the Hungarian question before the United Nations. As the Canadian Representative pointed out at the eleventh session of the General Assembly, "there should be no abating of the concern of the United Nations about the situation created by the brutal and bloody intervention of Soviet armed forces in the internal affairs of a small neighbour."

Middle East

Middle Eastern problems have been almost continuously before the United Nations, either in the Security Council or in the General Assembly, ever since these organs began to function in January 1946, and in November 1956 the Middle East presented the United Nations with what was perhaps its most serious challenge since the Korean question. In that year the outbreak of hostilities between Egypt and Israel and the intervention of France and the United Kingdom placed Canada in a particularly difficult position, since her closest allies were deeply divided over the issues. The deadlock was broken, however, by the General Assembly's acceptance of a Canadian proposal to establish a United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) "to secure and supervise the cessation of hostilities". Canada now contributes almost a thousand men to UNEF, which is commanded by Lt. Gen. E. L. M. Burns of Canada, and which has had remarkable success in preserving peaceful conditions along the formerly disturbed Egyptian-Israeli frontier.

Seventeen Canadian officers also serve with the UN Truce Supervision Organization which has the main responsibility on other sections of the Arab-Israeli borders, and Canadian military observers formed part of the staff of the UN Observation Group in Lebanon, which played an important

role in reducing tension during the Lebanese crisis of 1958. In addition, Canada, which in 1947 had taken a prominent part in the Assembly discussions on the partition of Palestine, continues to be a principal contributor to the UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees.

Canadian Influence in Disarmament

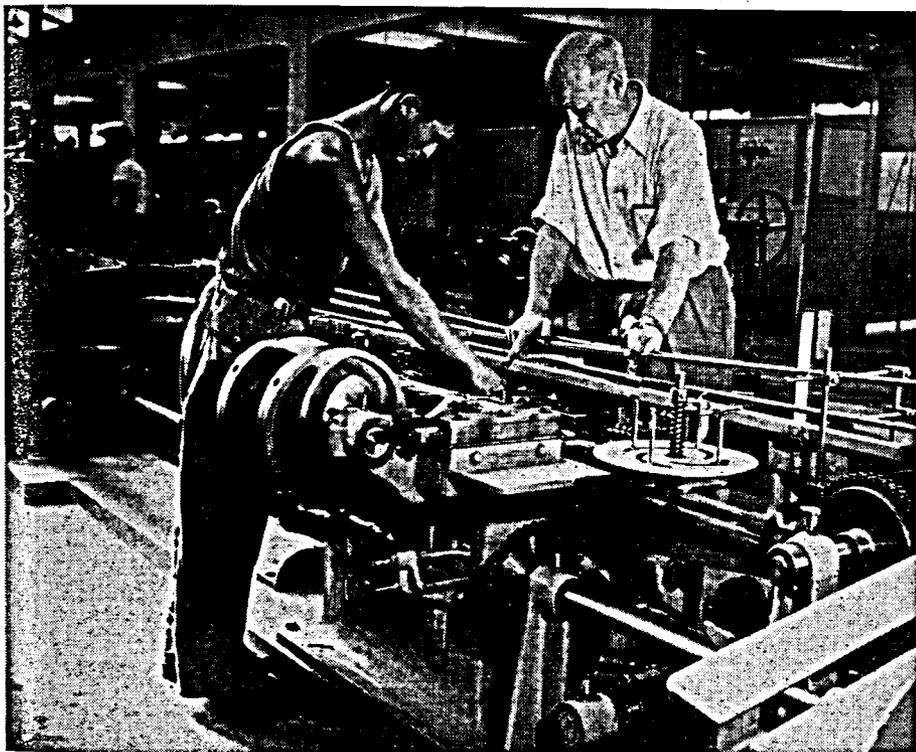
Canada has been closely concerned with the problem of disarmament since the beginning of the United Nations. As a member of the Atomic Energy Commission and later of the Disarmament Commission (established in 1952 to combine responsibilities of the Atomic Energy Commission and the Commission for Conventional Armaments), Canada has shared in the quest for an agreed programme of measures for the reduction of armaments and armed forces and the elimination of weapons of mass destruction under a reliable system of verification. Canada was a member (together with the United Kingdom, the United States, France and the U.S.S.R.) of the Sub-Committee, initiated at the eighth session of the General Assembly, to seek in private an acceptable solution. After four years of fruitless negotiations in the Sub-Committee, the U.S.S.R. indicated that it would no longer negotiate in the Disarmament Commission or its sub-committee as then composed. Canada took a leading part in the negotiations at the twelfth session concerning the Commission's membership which resulted in its expansion to twenty-five. However, the U.S.S.R. still refused to participate and disarmament discussions moved outside the formal framework of the United Nations.

During 1958, three series of talks were held in Geneva. Two series of technical discussions were held between the experts of several countries, including Canada, one on the methods of detecting nuclear explosions and the other on safeguards against surprise attack. The success of the former provided the basis for political negotiations on the suspension of nuclear tests which were begun in October between the United States, the United Kingdom and the U.S.S.R. and are still continuing. The expert discussions on surprise attack, however, did not even reach agreement on the scope of their talks. Discussion of the substantive problems of disarmament during the thirteenth session was inhibited by the concurrent discussions at Geneva. However, a resolution expanding the Disarmament Commission to include all members of the United Nations was adopted with Canadian support.

Economic and Social Problems

Canada has actively supported the United Nations' efforts to promote higher standards of living, improved health, economic co-operation, respect for human rights, and recognition of accepted standards of international law. There are three separate but related fields of activities in which programmes are being carried out by the United Nations and its agencies for the purpose of furthering these objectives:

- a) programmes organized by the Economic and Social Council under which member states combine their resources and knowledge to help less economically developed countries and territories;
- b) programmes for social progress and the achievement of human rights, and
- c) widespread operations of the ten Specialized Agencies in close co-operation with the Economic and Social Council.



TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

Guided by an experienced hand, a Korean printer trying new technique. The instructor, a Canadian, is helping a Korean printing shop technician master modern methods under the auspices of the United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA).

Canada has been participating in all of these programmes. The major undertaking of the Economic and Social Council in the field of economic aid has been the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance. This is an imaginative plan for exchanging technical skills and assisting under-developed countries in their development work, particularly in the fields of industry, health and education. The Expanded Programme is financed through voluntary contributions. Canada, who ranks as third largest contributor, has to date contributed \$11.2 million to this programme. In addition, Canada participates in the regular programmes of technical assistance of the United Nations through contributions to the annual budgets of the Specialized Agencies and by the training it provides to a large number of fellows studying under United Nations auspices.

The problem of how to increase the flow of public and private capital for financing the economic development of under-developed countries has been under consideration over the years in the Economic and Social Council and in the Assembly. The possibility of establishing a Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development (SUNFED) to provide capital to that end was discussed at several sessions of the Council and Assembly. Canada took the position during these discussions that the creation of SUNFED did not appear justified so long as resources available from the international commu-

nity remained insufficient to allow such an institution to make a significant and worthwhile contribution in that field. Canada supported at the twelfth and thirteenth sessions of the Assembly a resolution setting up a United Nations Special Fund designed to enlarge the scope and the magnitude of the technical assistance programmes of the United Nations.

The Fund is designed to assist relatively large projects in the fields of resources, industry, agriculture, transport and communications, building and housing, health, education, statistics and public administration. The Fund's practical contributions in these fields will take the form of surveys, research work, the provision of training, experts or equipment, and the establishment of pilot projects and demonstration centres. Canada's contribution will make it the third largest contributor to the Fund. The Fund started its operations on January 1, 1959.

The Secretary of State for External Affairs, the late Mr. Sidney E. Smith, in speaking of Canadian support for the Special Fund, said:

the possibilities which this new project opens up for the betterment of all concerned are virtually limitless and in some respects no less exciting than the dramatic issues of war and peace which tend to over-shadow the more pedestrian activities of the United Nations.

Financial Contributions*

Canada subscribes 3.11 per cent of the administrative budget of the United Nations and is sixth in the list of contributors. The Canadian Government has contributed \$7,750,000 in cash and \$750,000 worth of Canadian salted cod for United Nations Relief and Reconstruction programmes in Korea. Contributions in cash and kind amounting to over \$7 million have been made to the United Nations programmes for relief and rehabilitation of Palestine refugees. To UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) the Canadian Government has contributed \$11,325,000, plus a gift of ten million pounds of skim milk. (Canada served as a member of UNICEF's Executive Board from its inception in 1946 until December 31, 1958). The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees received contributions from Canada totalling \$650,000 during the Refugee Fund's four-year programme which ended on December 31, 1958. Canada has taken a strong interest in the work of the Specialized Agencies as the instruments for achieving the Charter objectives of "higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress". Each of the Specialized Agencies carries out specific economic or social activities according to the functional purpose for which it has been created. Each operates on the basis of a separate constitution and independent budget; and most maintain close co-ordination with the Economic and Social Council.

Some of the Specialized Agencies — notably the International Telecommunications Union (ITU), the Universal Postal Union (UPU), the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative

*Figures given are to the end of 1958.

Organization (IMCO) — are mainly functional in their operations. They facilitate commerce and communications among nations of the world by establishing uniform practices and removing technical difficulties. The others — the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Bank and the International Monetary Fund — devote themselves primarily to the task of improving the economic and social conditions of the people of the world. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) is not a Specialized Agency, although in practice its position is comparable. It was established following President Eisenhower's "Atoms for Peace" proposals to the General Assembly in 1953. Canada was made a member of the Agency's Board of Governors, in recognition of her advanced atomic energy programme and of her position as a major producer of uranium.

Internal Divisions of the United Nations

Within the United Nations the smaller powers have often found that their position had particular advantages. Lacking the broad commitments of the great powers, they are often also free of the rigidities which accompany those commitments. In the United Nations Canada has taken advantage of this flexibility of viewpoint and room for manoeuvre to try to reconcile opposing interests and blocs. Most of the more serious internal divisions have of course resulted from East-West tensions, but there are other frictions which also tend to reduce the effectiveness of United Nations machinery. Disagreements between anti-colonial countries and those administering dependent territories account for much of the heat and ill-will engendered in debates in the organization. As a non-administering country which achieved its independence by evolutionary processes, Canada has sometimes been able to mediate differences arising on the colonial issues. In these matters Canada's policy has been to weigh carefully her sympathies with the legitimate aspirations of dependent peoples against the desirability and necessity of recognizing the domestic jurisdiction, the experience and the special responsibilities of the parent states.

One of the better examples of Canada's usefulness as a mediator took place at the tenth session of the General Assembly when Canada was largely instrumental in breaking the deadlock which had existed for so many years over the admission of new members. Sixteen new members were admitted that year and five the next. As new nations come into being and are able to satisfy the requirements of Article 4 of the Charter that members be "peace-loving states which accept the obligations contained in the Charter and . . . are able and willing to carry out these obligations" they are experiencing no difficulty in being accepted as members of the United Nations.

Assessment

As the United Nations enters its fifteenth year, the strengths and the weaknesses of the organization are becoming clearer. Because hopes were high in San Francisco fourteen years ago, because the aims of the organization were far-reaching, and because the United Nations has often fallen

far short of them, there are those who are to some degree disillusioned with what the United Nations can accomplish. Such disillusionment is just as unrealistic as the first over-optimism.

It should not be forgotten that the United Nations is simply a tool, which can be either well or badly used, and which can accomplish only what its members agree to accomplish. The delegates who met at San Francisco fourteen years ago did not create a super state, nor did they give the organization the ability to enforce its decisions over the veto of any one of the great powers. In this they were only reflecting the realities of the situation, particularly the over-riding concern for national sovereignty which all nations have in common.

Placed in this perspective, the accomplishments of the United Nations during its lifetime are indeed impressive, and the successes far outweigh the failures, not only in the more serious and spectacular crises, but also in the lesser disagreements which have been settled before they could develop into something serious. As Prime Minister Diefenbaker has said, "the United Nations has performed an important function If it has done less than we hoped, this is not an argument for abandoning the United Nations but strong reason for seeking in association with other members, ways and means of making the United Nations more effective in its role of helping to keep the peace."



AT THE UNITED NATIONS

A view of the opening meeting of the fourteenth session of the General Assembly, showing representatives of the 82-Member States. Dr. Victor A. Belaunde of Peru (centre on the platform) is addressing the meeting.

Foreign Ministers' Conference on Germany and Berlin

THE Foreign Ministers' Conference on Germany and Berlin, which met in Geneva from May 11 to June 20 and from July 13 to August 5, broke off without significant agreement and without setting a date for the resumption of its deliberations. Nevertheless, the situation at its conclusion was less tense than at any time since the Soviet Union, in notes of November 27, 1958, challenged the right of the Western powers to retain their garrisons in Berlin. In part, this relaxation was brought about by the announcement of exchange visits to be made by President Eisenhower and Premier Khrushchev, and the renewed possibility of a summit conference. It was also due, however, to the comparatively calm and constructive tone which prevailed during the Foreign Ministers' talks and to the fact that differences on some points had perceptibly narrowed. Progress was made toward an interim agreement on Berlin which could ease the situation for some years. At the end of the Conference, the Soviet threats of unilateral action, while not specifically withdrawn, had been permitted to recede into the background.*

Although the Western powers reacted sharply to the Soviet threats of late 1958 to terminate unilaterally the special status of Berlin, they indicated in various statements a willingness to discuss with the U.S.S.R. the German question as a whole and the problem of European security.

On January 10, 1959, the U.S.S.R. proposed a peace treaty conference composed of all the countries which had been at war with Nazi Germany. The Western powers countered on February 16, with a proposal for a conference of the Foreign Ministers from the four countries with occupation rights in Berlin. Their notes also proposed that German advisers should attend. Mr. Khrushchev accepted the proposal in principle, but attached a number of unacceptable conditions concerning the agenda and composition of the conference. Subsequently, these conditions were modified and the Western powers made a concession to the U.S.S.R. by agreeing that a summit conference should be called if progress at the Foreign Ministers' meeting justified it.

The Foreign Ministers' Conference opened on May 11. Each of the four powers with occupation rights in Berlin was represented by its Foreign Minister: Mr. Christian Herter of the United States, M. Couve de Murville of France, Mr. Selwyn Lloyd of the United Kingdom and Mr. Andrei Gromyko of the U.S.S.R. The first meetings were marked by disputes over the seating of Representatives of Poland and Czechoslovakia and of Delegations from the two parts of Germany. However, the U.S.S.R. did not press its demand for Polish and Czech participation and it was subsequently agreed that the two German Delegations should be seated in the conference room, but not at the conference table; they were given the right to speak provided none of the four Foreign Ministers objected. Dr. Heinrich von Brentano, the West

*See External Affairs Bulletin for January-February 1959, for the background to the Berlin crisis.

German Foreign Minister, led his Delegation from outside the conference chamber; the actual spokesman for West Germany was Dr. Wilhelm Grewe, German Ambassador in Washington. The Foreign Minister of the so-called German Democratic Republic, Dr. Lothar Bolz, was the spokesman for his Government.

Western Peace Plan

For the first fortnight the Conference took the form of formal meetings in which each side presented its proposals; all statements were made available to the press. Mr. Herter first put forward the "Western Peace Plan" for European security and German reunification. This Plan was built around the need for a settlement of the German problem and provided for progressive solutions which would lead to this goal and also to certain measures for European security. The four powers would also agree to discuss disarmament. East and West Berlin would be united through free elections and the city would remain under four-power guarantee until it became the capital of a reunited Germany. The Plan went beyond previous Western proposals by providing for staged progress toward reunification. It called for the formation of an all-German committee representing the two parts of Germany, which would formulate proposals for the holding of free elections. To allow the committee ample time, it was proposed that a considerable period could elapse between its establishment and the date of elections. Mr. Gromyko rejected the Plan and presented in its place the Soviet draft peace treaty for Germany which had previously been put forward on January 10 by the U.S.S.R. This had been rejected by the Western powers at the time, not only because of its unacceptable content, but also on the grounds that a German peace treaty could be negotiated only with a reunified Germany. It was again declared unacceptable.

Reunification through Free Elections

On May 26, Mr. Herter advanced on behalf of the Western powers, a detailed plan for the reunification of the two halves of Berlin through free elections. This was an expansion of the proposals made in the Western Peace Plan. As before, the city would have a special status which would last until the reunification of Germany. The four powers would continue to be entitled to maintain forces in the city and unrestricted access would be assured. This plan did not commend itself to the Soviets.

After a two-day adjournment to permit the four Foreign Ministers to attend the funeral of John Foster Dulles in Washington, the Conference began on May 29 to hold private informal meetings of the Foreign Ministers in addition to the formal semi-public sessions. The private discussions proved much more useful and during them considerable progress was made toward an interim agreement on Berlin.

On June 10, Mr. Gromyko faced the Western powers with the demand that they terminate the present status of West Berlin within a year. Mr. Herter replied that the West would "never negotiate under deadlines, threats or duress". This was the low point of the Conference which seemed on the

verge of breakdown. Nevertheless, on June 16, the Western powers presented again their plan for Berlin in a modified form. At Mr. Gromyko's request, meetings were put off for two days. On June 16 he rejected the Western plan and presented counter proposals. At this point it was decided to adjourn the Conference until July 13.

Canada's View

In the House of Commons on July 9, Mr. Howard Green, Secretary of State for External Affairs, commented on the first phase of the negotiations in the following terms:

It is disappointing that no agreement was reached during the six weeks of negotiations, but at the same time one should not underrate the benefits of the discussions which took place. The attitudes of both sides have been clarified, and there are some common elements in the proposals advanced, on the Berlin issue which might possibly lead to progress

It is to be hoped that during the period of recess of the Foreign Ministers' Conference the Soviet leaders will come to realize that nothing is to be gained by an attitude of challenge and impatience. If progress is to be made it will be necessary for the East-West talks to be conducted in an atmosphere free of implied threats or peremptory demands.

As hon. members are aware, the Canadian Government has consistently supported proposals for negotiation with the Soviet Union on the question of Berlin, and on other issues. Since, in this thermonuclear age, war is unthinkable, there is no alternative to negotiation for the solution of these problems. In our view negotiation implies a preparedness on both sides to do more than exchange views across the conference table. Each side must go some way to meet the basic interests of the other. If it is possible to arrive at some settlement on the Berlin question, the way should be opened for the solution of broader problems.

For these reasons we have watched with satisfaction the patient and determined efforts of the three Western negotiating powers at Geneva to find some basis for reaching agreement. We commend the willingness shown by the Western powers to make modifications concerning the terms of their presence in Berlin, which take account of expressed Soviet concerns. At the same time we support the principle, on which the Western powers have been united, that no agreement would be acceptable which placed in jeopardy the security of Berlin or the freedom of its citizens, or which could have the effect of foreclosing the prospect of the reunification of Germany. Unfortunately, circumstances do not seem propitious for great or sudden progress on the basic problem of reunification. This should not, however, preclude us from attempting to create an atmosphere in which reunification can more easily be brought about

The Canadian Government has held to the view that progress toward settlement of some international issues might be achieved by discussions amongst heads of government, in other words, at a summit conference. It is the hope of the Canadian Government that such a meeting can be arranged

Conference Resumed

When the Conference resumed on July 13, Berlin continued to be the dominant theme. The two sides seemed to be in harmony on the points which an interim agreement should cover, and the differences over the substance of these points was progressively narrowed. There was full agreement that there should be no atomic weapons or missiles located in Berlin and the Western powers agreed to limit the number of their troops in the city; they had not accepted the Soviet figure of from three to four thousand, but compromise on this issue seemed possible. It seemed probable that agreement could be reached that "questionable" propaganda and espionage activities in both parts of Berlin should be restricted, that the procedures relating to access to Berlin should be maintained in their present form, and that any agreement should last for a specific period of years.

Full agreement on all these points might have been reached had the Soviet side acknowledged that, at the end of the interim period and subsequent negotiations, the Western juridical position in Berlin would remain unimpaired. Although the Soviets promised that there would be no unilateral action taken during this time, they failed to give satisfactory assurances concerning what might follow. For their part, the Western powers remained adamant that their forces must remain in Berlin until a satisfactory permanent solution for the city and Germany could be found.

The Soviet side also pressed for acceptance of its proposal for a committee representing the two German Governments which would promote reunification and prepare for a peace treaty. Superficially, this proposal resembled an element of the "Western Peace Plan". However, the Western plan rejected the principle of parity between the two Germanys and provided for a plebiscite of the German people in the event the committee failed to agree on an electoral law for the whole of Germany. The Soviet proposal contained no such provision and seemed to the Western side to be simply a device to enhance the status of the East German Government without improving the prospects for reunification. Furthermore, the link between this proposed committee and the interim arrangement for Berlin threatened to create a situation in which pressure might be brought to bear on the Western position in West Berlin, and in which the relationship of the Western powers to the reunification question was weakened.

The Western side countered with a proposal that the Conference, as constituted at that time, might continue in being for the purpose of facilitating the consideration of the German problem as a whole; it might meet at whatever time, level or place would seem appropriate.

The decision to wind up the second session of the Geneva Conference was preceded by the announcement of the exchange visits between President Eisenhower and Premier Khrushchev. The Conference did not set a date for subsequent sessions, but it could be reconvened quickly should developments warrant such action. The four Foreign Ministers could, for example, take up their discussions again when they meet at the next United Nations Assembly.

Western Unity

An outstanding feature of the Geneva talks has been the teamwork displayed by the Western negotiators. On some aspects, there have been differences of emphasis. The United Kingdom Delegation, for example, has been consistently more optimistic about the prospects of a summit meeting. Nevertheless, any Soviet hopes that the Western camp would split were disappointed. The West German Foreign Minister went out of his way to praise the particularly effective manner in which his United Kingdom colleague argued the Western case during the talks. The West also displayed a willingness to agree to considerable adjustments in the arrangements for Berlin in order to meet Soviet concerns, provided, of course, the rights of the West Berliners to remain free were respected.

Results of Conference

While it is a matter of regret that full agreement was not achieved, such a conclusion was unlikely in view of the complications and clash of interests involved. The course of the discussions in Geneva did make it easier for the U.S.S.R. to modify the extreme position which it took up last November, and an area of possible agreement over Berlin was exposed. The stage was thus set for fruitful negotiations in the coming months. It seems more realistic to expect that progress will be made through a series of discussions at various levels than through any single encounter, however dramatic the circumstances. The results of the Conference to date have also demonstrated the advantages of informal confidential discussions as opposed to deliberations which are given full press coverage; these circumstances increase the difficulty of maintaining the give and take approach which is essential if a mutually satisfactory and lasting agreement is to emerge.

The International Geophysical Year

THE IGY has been over for the better part of a year. Its effects on science, however, can hardly be assessed as yet; nor can anyone evaluate the extensive goodwill which it generated. We hope that in a political sense the IGY has been an influence for peace.

The IGY objectives were to make investigations in geophysics which required either simultaneous or synoptic measurements over the whole world. To do this the co-operation of many countries was needed on all fronts, and a full exchange of scientific information was essential — for reasons quite apart from academic traditions or altruistic considerations.

The IGY included 14 special studies, or "disciplines". These studies were concerned with the earth's interior, its crust, its shape, its oceans, its magnetic field, the circulation of its mantle of air, and the nature of the earth's upper atmosphere as it merges into the environment of the solar system.

Scientists are constantly being asked whether any breakthrough occurred during the IGY. "Breakthrough" to a scientist is a rather objectionable term because so often it denotes nothing more than one step among the hundreds of experiments leading to a goal. The only distinctive feature of the step is that it reaches a point where something spectacular can be shown to the public, such as an atomic bomb or an artificial satellite.

Space Research

Although the first satellites were launched during the IGY as part of the IGY programme, it is probable that these would have been launched at about the same time even if the IGY organization had not existed at all. More important is the fact that the IGY gave scientists in the large countries involved in satellite work a chance to discuss their problems, and it afforded the smaller countries an opportunity to learn what was going on. Many countries took part in the satellite tracking programme to an extent which made the whole effort look somewhat international.

The satellites, spectacular as they are, were by no means the whole programme in space research. Sounding rockets, loaded with many kinds of measuring instruments, were launched by several countries, including the United Kingdom, France, Japan, Australia, and Canada, the latter with considerable help from the United States. Returns from these studies have been pooled at international data centres, to be redistributed in the same manner in which all IGY measurements are shared among the 67 participating countries.

Meteorology

In meteorology the scale of international co-operation was considerable. Here the aim was to measure the world-wide circulation of the atmosphere and also the heat exchange between the earth and the atmosphere and between

the earth, including its atmosphere, and the sky. The World Meteorological Organization, an agency of the UN, undertook to reproduce on microcards the raw data from all meteorological stations during the IGY and to provide these at cost to anyone interested. Since there were over 2,000 stations reporting, more than a million forms were involved which are reproduced on 18,500 microcards. This data will be invaluable for world climatology. Its analysis will form the substance of many a Ph.D. thesis, and much original work by experienced scientists is sure to develop.

Earth's Surface and Interior

Disciplines dealing with the earth's surface and its interior — such studies as gravity and seismology — were well organized before the IGY took shape. These studies were willing partners in the IGY, not because they needed an enhanced international organization, but because the IGY made measurements possible at remote locations — for example at the many stations established in Antarctica. In fact, the time was about ripe for extensive scientific measurements in the south polar regions, and the IGY organization gave just the impetus required to get the establishment of Antarctic stations well supported.

The Antarctic is the most inaccessible part of the earth, and the most severe and difficult climatically. Prior to the IGY not much was known about the geography of the interior or its climate. Now, however, eleven countries are active in the Antarctic area. Extensive expeditions have been undertaken and stations established at and near the south pole itself. These are going to fill in much of the information which was lacking in our knowledge of the earth's surface.

Solar — Terrestrial Relations

One interesting scientific advance made by the IGY is a greatly increased understanding of "solar-terrestrial relations". It is now believed that the environment of the earth outside its atmosphere is really the atmosphere of the sun, with a density of perhaps 1,000 times the density of average interstellar space. There is a constant flow of gas, as well as radiation, away from the sun. This flow of gas involves particles of considerable energy, right up to cosmic ray energies. The gas is very hot, highly ionized (and therefore electrically conducting), and interacts in a complicated way with the earth's magnetic field. These interactions are made apparent at the surface of the earth through magnetic storms, visible aurora, ionospheric disturbances (measured by radio transmission techniques), and changes in the intensity of cosmic rays.

Correlations between these effects have been observed for years, but the correlations have never been very good and have therefore been difficult to understand. The advent of rockets and satellites has made direct measurements possible in the space where the earth's atmosphere merges with that of the sun. Indeed it was a satellite project, designed to measure cosmic rays as a means of determining the symmetry of the earth's magnetic field, that led to the discovery of the Van Allen layers of intense radiation. These layers

are two doughnut-like rings extending from about 600 miles above the earth's surface to a distance of several earth's radii. Scientists will never be happy till they know much more about these zones of radiation — whether they are always there with the same intensity, or decrease when the sun is in its "inactive" state; whether changes in the layers are responsible for magnetic storms; and whether the aurora phenomena, most intense at latitudes surrounding the earth's geomagnetic poles, are really only tails of the Van Allen layers, or in fact some other quite different solar-terrestrial effect. Such problems are not new. Theories of the structure of near space have been debated for years. The final solution of these mysteries can be resolved only by direct measurement, and this is now made possible by the new rocket and satellite technology.

Canadian Programme

The Canadian IGY programme was of considerable magnitude, though scarcely a study was undertaken in which Canadian scientists were not already active. During the IGY the Canadian emphasis was on upper atmosphere physics, meteorology, and cosmic rays — though in fact Canadian scientists took part in all the 14 disciplines listed in the IGY. In ionosphere research Canada has long held an important position. The study has close practical applications in radio communications, which are vital to life and defence in the Far North. Meteorology of the North American continent relies heavily on data from Canadian stations; and measurements in geomagnetism, gravity, and seismology on a well organized basis are all the more important in Canada because of the great area of the country and its location. Because the tilt of the earth's geomagnetic axis is towards the Canadian Arctic the aurora is more easily observed here than in any other country; and during the IGY Canadian scientists, aided by hundreds of volunteer observers, carried out a detailed mapping of the northern aurora. The Canadian programme in meteor studies was also outstanding, involving extensive observations of this phenomenon in Canada supplemented by reports from volunteer observers in many parts of the world. The Canadian effort was significant in other fields — in recording the sun's activity, in the study of the oceans, cosmic rays, latitudes and longitudes, and nuclear radiations. Canadian scientists gave valuable aid in tracking the first satellites; they also participated to some extent in the United States rocket programme at Fort Churchill.

A very significant part of the total American rocket programme was carried out at Fort Churchill, where about 100 rockets were fired during the IGY period. Though essentially a United States venture, background support was given by Canadian scientists; our armed services supplied the base camp; the Defence Research Board supplied the laboratory space; Canadian measurements were taken on infra-red radiations, using two rockets provided by the United States group; and the Department of Transport contributed meteorological services and some aid in communications.

The Canadian report on the IGY lists more than 200 stations from which data from Canada flowed to the international data centres. At no less than 80 of these stations special work had been organized to support the world programme of the IGY. A report on the Canadian IGY programme will be published shortly by the National Research Council.

Value of the IGY

There is no doubt about the value of the IGY in international scientific co-operation. In many scientific activities co-operation is essential and the IGY was a suitable organization to lead the way. At the suggestion of the U.S.S.R. National Academy Committee for the IGY, a considerable portion of the activities have been continued through 1959 under the title (International Geophysical Co-operation (1959), IGC (1959)). This continued programme was convenient for some disciplines but not for others and in some cases longer term organizations have been set up in specific areas. These are mostly organized as special committees of ICSU, the International Council of Scientific Unions. Three such committees have been set up within the past two years which results directly from experience gained in IGY activities. These committees are: SCOR — Special Committee on Oceanographic Research; SCAR — Special Committee on Antarctic Research; and COSPAR — Special Committee on Space Research. The constitution and membership of these committees varies considerably but they follow a definite pattern of rules accepted by the ICSU. Since the ICSU is a council of international scientific unions, representation by unions takes a prominent place in the membership. Countries having large programmes in the area of investigation concerned are given membership, the representative being from the National Academy or the National Research Council of the country, rather than from its government. Canada holds a membership in COSPAR because of the Canadian programme and its association with the U.S. programme at Churchill. An Associate Committee on Space Research has recently been formed by the National Research Council and the Defence Research Board, which will be the National Committee co-operating with COSPAR.

The enhancement of international co-operation in geophysical research represented by the IGY is in itself an advance in scientific understanding. Needless to say, it is not without problems. Purely academic scientists in different countries have never had much difficulty working together in the common objective — advancing the knowledge of natural phenomena. When experiments must be carried out on a very large scale, when they border on areas that may be considered close to areas of national security, then governments and politics become involved. Sometimes considerable effort has to be spent on finding the right compromise between the open and independent scientific point of view and different approaches due to varying forms of the necessary government support in different countries.

The European Free Trade Association

THE END OF 1958 was marked by two developments of considerable importance for European (and world) trade: the breakdown of negotiations for a Free Trade Area of the seventeen countries which were members of the OEEC and the initiation of the first measures to implement the Rome Treaty, establishing the European Economic Community (EEC). The Rome Treaty is designed to create a common market consisting of the economies of Germany, France, Italy, and the Benelux countries, and provides for a common external tariff. The Free Trade Area was to have been a wider and somewhat looser trading association comprising the six countries of the EEC and most of the other major trading nations of Europe; each member country would have retained the right to set its own external tariff. After the breakdown of the Free Trade Area discussions in late 1958, the EEC undertook to work out a new basis for negotiations and instructed the Common Market Commission to present proposals by March of this year. These proposals were not adopted by the six countries, and the matter was referred to another EEC committee which has not yet reported.

The Outer Seven

Parallel with these developments in the EEC, some of the other European countries which had been involved in the Free Trade Area negotiations—the United Kingdom, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Portugal, Austria, and Switzerland—began exploring the possibilities of entering into a limited free trade area among themselves. Finland also showed some interest in such an arrangement, and there is a possibility that the Finnish Government will seek to be associated with this group. The new group which, by analogy with “The Six” countries of the Common Market, is often referred to as the “Outer Seven”, has a combined population of 86 million, with imports of some £3 billion per year.

Draft for Free Trade Area

During the first half of 1959 officials of the Outer Seven worked out a draft plan for establishing the proposed free trade area. Among the important parts of the plan are rules for the abolition of tariffs and quantitative restrictions, for ensuring fair competition, and for identifying the goods which move freely between the members. The immediate objective is to reduce tariffs among the Outer Seven by 20 per cent on July 1, 1960. Also included is a special agreement on agriculture and certain arrangements for fish and other marine products. In addition to setting out the plan for the establishment of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), the officials' report indicates that one of the purposes of the organization would be to facilitate negotiations with the EEC and the other members of the OEEC.

Meeting of Ministers

On July 20-21, Ministers from the Outer Seven countries met in Stockholm to discuss the report which had been prepared by officials. At this

meeting Ministers decided to recommend to their governments that the proposed European Free Trade Association be established, and instructed officials to draft a convention on the basis of the draft plan. A text is to be submitted to Ministers on October 31, 1959.

Following is the text of the Communiqué issued at the end of the meeting in Stockholm:

Communiqué

Ministers from Austria, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom met at Stockholm on 20 and 21 July, 1959, under the Chairmanship of Mr. Lange. The following Ministers took part —

Austria,	Mr. B. Kreisky, Mr. F. Bock,	Minister for Foreign Affairs, Minister of Commerce and Reconstruction:
Denmark,	Mr. J. O. Krag, Mr. B. Dahlgard,	Minister for Foreign Affairs, Minister of Economic Affairs and Nordic Relations:
Norway,	Mr. A. Skaug, Mr. T. W. Bratteli,	Minister of Commerce, Minister of Finance,
Portugal	Mr. J. G. Correia de Oliveira,	Minister of Commerce:
Sweden,	Mr. G. Lange, Mr. G. Netzen,	Minister of Commerce, Minister of Agriculture:
Switzerland,	Mr. M. Petitpierre, Mr. T. Holenstein,	Federal Councillor Head of the Federal Political Department, Federal Councillor Head of the Federal Department of Public Economy:
United Kingdom,	Right Honourable D. Heathcoat Amory, Right Honourable R. Maudling,	Chancellor of the Exchequer, Paymaster General.

Ministers decided to recommend to the governments that a European Free Trade Association among the seven countries should be established. The object of this association would be to strengthen the economies of its members by promoting expansion of economic activity, full employment, raising standard of living, and financial stability. Ministers affirmed that in establishing a European Free Trade Association it would be their purpose to facilitate early negotiations, both with the European Economic Community and also with the other members of the OEEC who have particular problems calling for special solutions. These negotiations would have as their object to remove trade barriers, and establish a multilateral association embracing all members of the OEEC. Governments would thus be able to reinforce European economic co-operation within the OEEC, and to promote the expansion of world trade.

Ministers approved the draft plan for a European Free Trade Association which they decided would be published, and instructed officials to draft a convention using the draft plan as a basis in the light of discussion at the Ministerial Meeting and to present a text for submission to Ministers by October 31, 1959.

They also decided that the senior officials who would be engaged in drafting the convention should be constituted as an official committee to advise governments on questions regarding other countries arising out of the establishment of the Free Trade

Association, and in particular to study the problem of future negotiations for a wider association in order to facilitate relations with the European Economic Community. All governments represented at the meetings have expressed their wishes to accredit representatives to the community. Denmark has already taken that action.

In respect of industrial products the plan includes rules for the abolition of tariffs and quantitative restrictions for ensuring fair competition and for identifying the goods which would move freely between the members. The immediate objective is to reduce tariffs by 20 per cent on July 1, 1960.

Ministers decided that there should be a special agreement on agriculture. This would set out agreed objectives of agricultural and food policy, would provide where appropriate for consultation, and would be designed to facilitate expansion of trade between members having regard to the need to achieve a sufficient degree of reciprocity between them. Ministers noted that in order to achieve the desired reciprocity, bilateral arrangements had already been concluded between certain member countries and that other such arrangements were in prospect.

Fish and other marine products would be treated as an independent problem separately from agriculture. Proposals for a special agreement to achieve freer and increased trade in these products were made and these will be given careful consideration.

There will be further discussion of this problem between governments. Ministers decided that the institutional arrangements should be as simple as possible. The governing body will be a Council of Ministers. All decisions involving new obligations will be taken by unanimity. Provisions for majority decisions in certain defined cases not involving new obligations are envisaged.

During the meeting Mr. Krag, Foreign Minister of Denmark, made the following statement on behalf of the Danish, Norwegian and Swedish Delegations, with reference to the negotiations for a common Nordic market:

The negotiations for a common Nordic market to which Finland is also a party are already in an advanced stage. There will be questions arising out of the relationship between the Nordic market and the Free Trade Association to which we will have to revert. The negotiations between the Nordic countries have resulted in a draft plan on Nordic economic co-operation including a Nordic common market. This plan was submitted to ministerial delegations of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden which met at Kungälv on July 11 and 12. The delegations were of the opinion that the plans for Nordic economic co-operation ought to be adapted to the proposed European Free Trade Association between the seven countries. The Nordic countries are determined to continue their work on economic co-operation between them, and its adjustment to the new circumstances. The Nordic Delegations will keep the other countries informed on the further development of their plans for economic co-operation. They will be prepared to discuss with the other members of the Free Trade Association any problems of mutual interest arising out of their plans.

Ministers invited Mr. Lange to inform OEEC and the Executive Secretary of the GATT, on their behalf, of their recommendation to establish a European Free Trade Association.

In view of Finnish membership of the Nordic Group and the Group's plan for Nordic economic co-operation, the Finnish Minister for Trade and Industry, Mr. Karjalainen, was invited to make a statement to the conference explaining the attitude of the Finnish Government to the plan for a Free Trade Association. Mr. Karjalainen referred

to Finland's participation in the Nordic plans for close economic co-operation and also drew attention to the economic interest and significance for Finland of the Free Trade Association plan. He pointed out, however, that in this connection Finland would only make agreements on tariff and trade in a way consistent with her declared foreign policy based on existing international agreements, and with her traditional trade relations, including trade based on bilateral agreements.

As the Government of Finland had not had the opportunity of following the discussions about the Free Trade Association plan, and as the Finnish legislative state organs had not considered the matter, Mr. Karjalainen stated that it was not possible at the present stage to define the final attitude of Finland. His Government hoped to be provided with facilities to follow further discussions on the Free Trade Association plan more closely. Ministers of the seven countries took note of the Finnish statement and agreed that Finland as a member of the Nordic Group should be afforded such facilities.



NATO Forces in Germany

AFTER protracted discussions lasting over a period of nearly four years, the negotiations on Supplementary Arrangements to the NATO Status of Forces Agreement with respect to foreign forces stationed in Germany have been concluded. For the purpose of conducting these negotiations the North Atlantic Council convened the Bonn Status of Forces Conference in October 1955, to which were invited delegations from the governments of those NATO states having forces stationed in Germany (Canada, Belgium, France, The Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States) and from the Government of the Federal Republic. The signature of the agreements involved in these arrangements by the Federal Republic of Germany and states having forces stationed in the Federal territory took place on August 3, 1959, in Bonn, Germany. This marks a signal step forward in integrating the Federal Republic more closely into the NATO family, and the lengthy negotiations have served to dramatize the importance and the intricate and detailed nature of the matters covered by these arrangements.

Supplementary Arrangements

The main arrangements are contained in five multilateral agreements and, as far as Canada is concerned, these have been supplemented by a special Canada — United Kingdom — Federal Republic agreement and five bilateral agreements between Canada and the Federal Republic. These arrangements supplement the NATO Status of Forces Agreement of 1951 which constitutes the general framework governing the status of forces of a NATO state when stationed in the territory of another. Canada is a party to the 1951 NATO Status of Forces Agreement which was implemented in this country by the Visiting Forces (North Atlantic Treaty) Act.

The Supplementary Arrangements became necessary as a result of the admission in 1954 of the Federal Republic into NATO and also as a result of the special conditions existing in regard to the visiting forces stationed in the Federal Republic. The complex of these agreements will not come into force until they have been ratified or approved by the signatory states. Upon this taking place the final step will be for the Federal Republic to accede to the main 1951 Status of Forces Agreement, the North Atlantic Council having provided that such accession should become effective only after the supplementary arrangements have been ratified or approved.

Thus, at that time, the status of visiting forces in Germany will be governed by several interrelated instruments: the main NATO Status of Forces Agreement of 1951 and the Supplementary Arrangements to the NATO Status of Forces Agreement with respect to the foreign forces stationed in Germany, supplemented, as far as Canada is concerned, by the additional agreements principally of a bilateral character which have been already mentioned. The main NATO Status of Forces Agreement deals in general with matters arising in connection with the stationing of visiting forces. These

matters include such subjects as those relating to criminal and non-criminal jurisdiction over members of visiting forces, customs, taxation and currency privileges, procedures for dealing with damage claims and procedures relating to passport, immigration and visa requirements. The Supplementary Arrangements have developed intricate and detailed provisions to implement the terms of the main Status of Forces Agreement so as to meet the particular conditions applicable to the Federal Republic. It may be said that supplementary arrangements of this general character are by no means peculiar to Germany alone, it having been found necessary in other instances to work out supplementary arrangements of a comparable type, usually in the form of bilateral agreements between the sending and receiving states in connection with visiting forces stationed in other NATO states.

Historical Background

As historical background it may be of interest to recall that in 1949 the military governments in Germany were replaced by the Allied High Commission. The latter, in the exercise of the special authority jointly assumed by the Occupying Powers, authorized the stationing of forces in the Federal territory and enacted Law No. 69 dated December 24, 1951, which assimilated the Canadian forces and their personnel to the British-United States and French occupying forces, for purposes of rights, privileges, immunities, and restrictions.

When the occupation regime was terminated on May 5, 1955 the continued presence of foreign forces, including the Canadian forces, in the Federal Republic was authorized by the "Convention on the Presence of Foreign Forces in the Federal Republic of Germany" between the three powers, namely France, the United Kingdom and the United States, and the Federal Republic. To this Convention Canada, among other states having forces stationed in the Federal Republic — Belgium, Denmark and The Netherlands — acceded. From that date onwards the actual status of visiting forces in the Federal Republic has been governed by the "Convention on the Rights and Obligations of Foreign Forces and their Members in the Federal Republic of Germany" (known as the "Forces Convention") and the "Agreement on Tax Treatment of the Forces and their Members" ("Tax Agreement"). The Forces Convention and the Tax Agreement are to remain in force until the entry into effect of the main NATO Status of Forces Agreement and the NATO Supplementary Arrangements as between the Federal Republic and the other NATO states concerned.

The Federation of Malaya

ON AUGUST 31 the Federation of Malaya completed two years of independence since its Merdeka Day in 1957. This summer a House of Representatives and a Senate were elected to replace the partly appointed Federal Legislative Council, and Legislative Assemblies were elected in each state to replace partly elected predecessors. With the creation of these new parliamentary institutions, Malaya's federation of eleven states completed its transition into a democratic constitutional monarchy under the rule of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong (Paramount Ruler). Since long before these final constitutional steps were taken, the Federation of Malaya has been providing an example to the world of democratic and responsible government based on the co-operation of all groups in a multi-racial society.

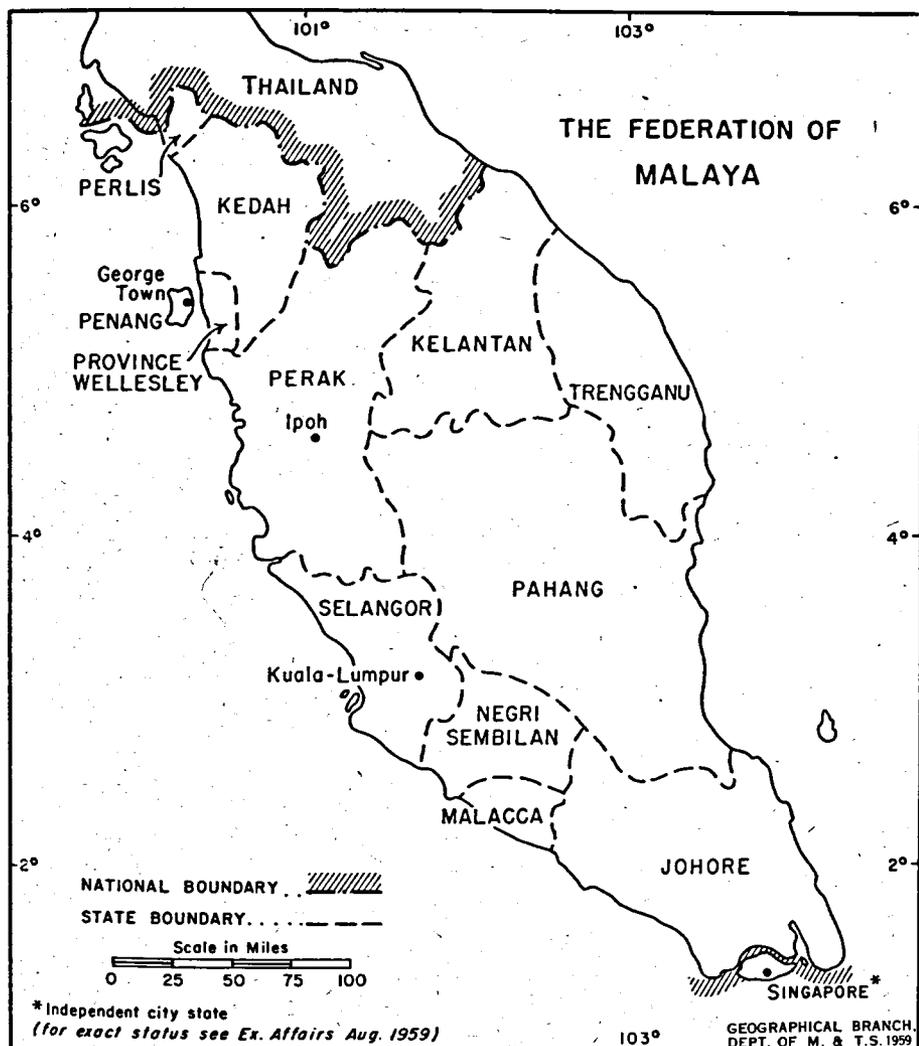
The racial harmony which exists in Malaya is one of the Federation's outstanding features. It is also a feature shared with Canada. Prime Minister Diefenbaker pointed this out in a speech in Kuala Lumpur on November 28, 1958. "John Stuart Mill said it would be impossible to build a system of parliamentary government in any country unless that country was homogeneous and had only one language. Canada is the first of the confederations, Malaya the latest, but not the last in this family of nations. We have in common two particular facts: one is, that each has its multiplicity, if I may use that expression, of races, different in religion; each has been able to bring together in a unity of common dedication, races, varying races, which in other parts of the world have not been able to achieve in the past that measure of peace which is our wish. In addition, we practise the same democracy."

Origin of People

According to the census of 1957 there were 6,278,763 people in the Federation. Of these about 50 per cent were Malaysian; about 37 per cent of Chinese origin; about 11 per cent of Indian, Pakistan, or Ceylon origin; and two per cent from elsewhere. A portion of the first group has been in Malaya for centuries. The first Chinese and Indians to go to the Federation were probably traders early in the Christian era. The first European settlements in Malaya date from the arrival of the Portuguese in Malacca in the sixteenth century. They were replaced in the seventeenth century by the Dutch, and the latter in the nineteenth century by the British.

Religion and Language

Section 3(1) of the Federation's Constitution states that "Islam is the religion of the Federation; but other religions may be practised in peace and harmony in any part of the Federation." All the Malays in the Federation are Muslims. A number of faiths are held by other citizens of the Federation, including Buddhism, Hinduism, Confucianism, Taoism, Sikhism and Christianity. Malay is the national language of the Federation and is widely spoken.



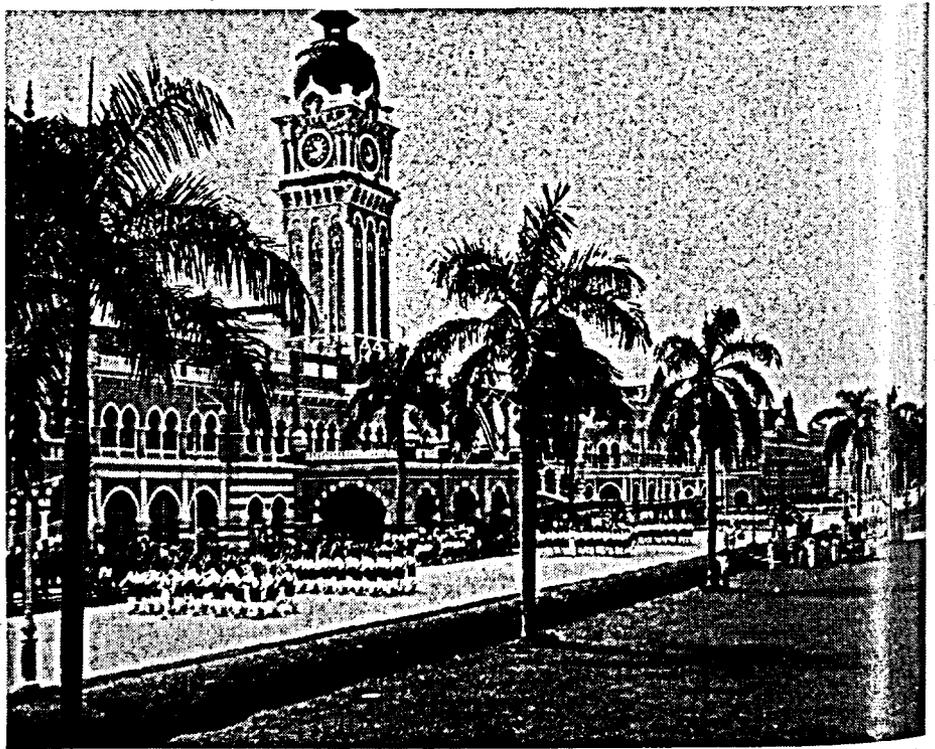
Under the terms of the Constitution English may be used for all official purposes "for a period of ten years after Merdeka Day and thereafter until Parliament otherwise provides." Various Chinese, Indian, Pakistani and Ceylonese languages are also spoken in the Federation. Most residents of Malaya, whatever their origin, religion and first language are Federal citizens owing a common allegiance. Malaya's schools give instruction in the national and other languages but all foster Malayan consciousness and loyalty and teach subjects in common.

Physical Description

The Federation is a green and fertile tropical land occupying the lower and larger portion of the Malayan peninsula which also contains the southern strips of both Burma and Thailand. The country covers an area of about

50,690 square miles, slightly larger than Nova Scotia and New Brunswick put together. On the north Malaya is bounded by Thailand. On the south its closest neighbour is the island State of Singapore at the southern tip of the peninsula, to which it is connected by a road and railway causeway across the Straits of Johore. Another near neighbour is the Republic of Indonesia. Sumatra is separated from the West Coast of Malaya by the narrow waters of the Straits of Malacca which at one point are less than twenty miles wide.

A range of mountains extends down the middle of the peninsula but rather nearer the West Coast. They vary in height from about 4000 to 7000 feet. The highest is Gunong Tahan, 7,186 feet, on the boundary between the states of Pahang and Kelantan. The rivers are short and in their upper reaches fast flowing. Lower down they become slower and muddy from the silt of the plains. Much of Malaya is tropical forest and jungle. The majority of the population lives in the western part of Malaya where there is much cultivation and mining. Kuala Lumpur, the capital, and also Malaya's largest city with a population of well over 300,000, celebrated its centenary this year. Georgetown on the Island of Penang and Ipoh in the large state of Perak are the next biggest cities in the Federation. Kuala Lumpur is a handsome city of varied architecture set in an amphitheatre of hills. Most of its new



IN KUALA LUMPUR

A ceremonial parade of Malay Regiment troops passing the Federal Secretariat in Kuala Lumpur, the capital of the Federation of Malaya.

buildings are in an attractive contemporary style which is to be found throughout Malaya in many public and private buildings. Kuala Lumpur's temperature is the same as that found throughout the plains of the Federation with slight variations on the East Coast and in the north. It is typically tropical with temperatures ranging from the low 90s during the day to the low 70s at night and a high humidity in the nineties. Malaya has a number of hill resorts where lower temperatures prevail. The average rainfall is about 80 to 100 inches a year.

Economy

The Malayan climate is excellent for rubber-growing, which has been the Federation's major export industry since the end of the last century. Rubber estates and small holdings are mainly concentrated in Western Malaya as is the mining of tin which is the country's second major export industry. Malaya is now the largest single producer of tin in the world and probably its largest producer of natural rubber. These two industries are the main basis of Malaya's favourable economic position as compared with many other countries in Asia. Other exports include palm oil, copra and pineapples. Rice is an important crop in Malaya especially in the north and east. Fishing is a busy industry off both the East and West Coasts. The Government is making vigorous efforts to improve the welfare of Malayan fishermen and to encourage their organization into co-operatives.

Malaya's large tin and rubber exports make its Government a firm supporter of international commodity stabilization arrangements. At home the Government is encouraging industrialization by the provision of special inducements to new industry and capital investment from within the Federation and abroad. This programme should help to absorb Malaya's fast increasing labour force. More than half of the Federation's exports and imports pass through the neighbouring free port of Singapore. The free ports of Penang and Port Swettenham are the major ports within the Federation. The Malayan economy benefits from a fine system of roads and bridges which are now being extended to the more sparsely populated areas and the Malayan Railways provide a very modern and efficient service.

Historical Background

Since Malaya is a compact country the railways did not play such an important role in creating the Federation as did the transcontinental railway systems in Canada, but modern communications did play a significant part in unifying the Malayan economy and bringing the Malay states into closer association. The first major step to the present Federation took place in 1895 when the Sultans of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang agreed to join in a federation under British protection. At different times and singly the unfederated Malay states of Kedah, Kelantan, Trengganu, Perlis and Johore also reached agreement with the United Kingdom for British protection. In 1948 the nine Malay Rulers signed the Federation of Malaya Agreement with His Majesty King George VI which linked the nine states together in a Federation. The former British settlements of Penang and Malacca joined the Federation at Merdeka in 1957; with Singapore they had previously formed the Straits Settlements.



TAPPING A RUBBER TREE IN MALAYA

A Tamil tapper collecting the latex from a rubber tree. Malaya produces some 40 per cent of the world's supply of rubber. The rubber tree is not indigenous to Malaya, but was first introduced into the country in 1888.

Political Development

On August 31, 1957 the Ruler of the State of Negri Sembilan was chosen by his fellow Rulers to become the first Yang di-Pertuan Agong (Paramount Ruler) to serve as head of state and constitutional monarch for the Federation. Each Yang di-Pertuan Agong will serve for five years and be selected in the same way. The hereditary Sultans serve as the constitutional heads of their states and have special responsibilities for the Muslim religion and Malay customs, both in the state and federally through the Conference of Rulers. In Penang and Malacca, Governors are the constitutional heads of the state governments.

The first general election in the Federation was held in July 1955 when the Alliance of three parties, the United Malays National Organization (UMNO), the Malayan Chinese Association (MCA) and the Malayan Indian Congress (MIC), gained an overwhelming majority. Tunku Abdul Rahman, the President of UMNO, became the first Chief Minister of the Federation and he became Prime Minister with Merdeka in 1957. Councils of State were established in each state with some appointed members and some elected members and these were replaced by fully elected Legislative Assemblies in the summer of 1959.

The rapid development of Malaya into a fully independent parliamentary democracy since the end of the war is all the more remarkable an achievement in view of the emergency created by communist terrorists which began in 1948. In a speech in Kuala Lumpur on November 28, Mr. Diefenbaker declared that "if there is one thing above all others for which we in Canada pay our tribute to you and your administration and to the people of Malaya, it is for the fact that you in this nation have realized the danger of an authoritarianism that challenges in all parts of the world, and are maintaining the parliamentary system, freedom and all those things that flow from freedom and are here in South-East Asia acting, as it were, as an experiment for other nations to see what can be achieved under our system of government and democracy." The combined and sustained efforts of Federation and Commonwealth security forces have rid the Federation of more than 10,000 communist terrorists since 1948. There are now only a few hundred terrorists at large, most of them in the area of the northern border with Thailand. After Malaya achieved its independence in 1957 the Federation Government signed a Defence Agreement with the United Kingdom under which United Kingdom, Australian and New Zealand forces are based in Malaya as part of the Commonwealth Strategic Reserve pledged to the Defence of Malaya. These forces have also been playing an important role in the anti-terrorist campaign.

International Relations

The Federation's Commonwealth links are a very important component of its international relations. In defence and other fields Malaya co-operates closely with the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand. The Federation retains important economic and other ties with Singapore and a new relationship was created in June 1959 when Singapore's new Constitution came into effect. The Malayan and the United Kingdom Governments are represented with the Singapore Government on the Internal Security Council which has control over this field in the new state.

Canada's links with the Federation are growing stronger. Mr. J. M. Macdonell represented Canada at the celebration of Malaya's independence in 1957. Mr. Arthur Menzies presented his credentials to the Yang di-Pertuan Agong as Canada's first High Commissioner to the Federation of Malaya in March 1958. Two Federation Cabinet Ministers, Mr. H. S. Lee, Minister of Finance, and Mr. Tan Siew Sin, Minister of Commerce and Industry, visited Canada for the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference in 1958, and Prime Minister Diefenbaker and Mr. Donald Fleming,

Minister of Finance, both visited the Federation later in 1958. The Prime Minister was a State Guest for four days which enabled him to establish friendly personal relations with Malaya's leaders and to further Canadian co-operation with the Federation through the Colombo Plan.

Canada contributed about \$200,000 worth of capital assistance under the Colombo Plan to the cost of an airborne magnetometer and scintillation counter survey completed in 1958. The survey, which was carried out and interpreted by Canadian companies, is helping the further development of Malayan mineral resources. As Prime Minister Diefenbaker announced during his visit to Kuala Lumpur in November of last year, Canada allocated under the Colombo Plan \$500,000 to Malaya in 1958-59. A larger amount is being allocated in the current year. Projects being discussed between the two Governments for the use of these allocations are the provision of refrigeration and other equipment to Malaya's East Coast fisheries co-operative development and of civil aviation equipment. Canada has been providing technical assistance to Malaya for some years in the form of experts, training and equipment. Trade is another important Malayan link with Canada. Malayan exports to Canada much exceed imports from Canada but flour, outboard motors and automobile parts are important Canadian exports to the Federation. Malaya is Canada's principal source of natural rubber; and tin is another important Canadian purchase. Total pan-Malayan (including Singapore) exports to Canada amounted to \$19,903,815 in 1958 including rubber exports to the value of \$12,507,230. A number of Canadian firms have offices and investments in the Federation. There has been a Canadian Government Trade Commissioner's office in Singapore responsible for furthering Canadian trade with the Federation since 1934.

The Federation was elected a member of the United Nations in 1957. It has since performed a very constructive and independent role in the work of the United Nations. The Federation Government has taken the lead in seeking closer economic and cultural co-operation between the countries of South-East Asia through treaty arrangements and a form of investor's charter to guarantee outside private investment in the area. Malaya's strategic position, its important economic assets, its considerable participation in international trade, its successful example of racial harmony and its links with Asia and the West enable the Federation to make a significant contribution to Commonwealth and world affairs.

Recent Developments in Indonesia

INDEPENDENCE did not come easily to Indonesia, and the years since the Republic was proclaimed in 1949 have seen dissension, revolt and civil war. The breakdown of internal security, increasingly serious economic difficulties, and the threat posed by the well-organized communist movement in Java, combined to intensify the political instability of succeeding governments — there have been 17 Cabinets in 14 years — and to undermine confidence in the democratic institutions adopted by the new republic. The deteriorating political and economic situation gave rise to speculation that the country was heading for a military dictatorship. President Sukarno himself had for some time advocated a new approach to the problems of government which would be better suited to Indonesian capabilities and traditions. It was against this background that he submitted concrete proposals to the Constituent Assembly and, when this body reached a deadlock on the issue, took the step on July 5 of re-instating by decree the Revolutionary Constitution of 1945.

Democracy with Guidance

President Sukarno has thus begun to implement his concept of "guided democracy" or, as the Indonesians prefer it to be called, "democracy with guidance". This concept, it is claimed, is embodied in the 1945 Constitution and could not be followed under the Provisional (1950) Constitution. The 1945 document refers to a "democracy led by wise guidance through consultation/representation, ensuring social justice for the whole Indonesian people". This concept of President Sukarno's is not therefore of recent origin. As early as 1956 he had expressed doubt as to the wisdom of the multi-party system for Indonesia, and said that for the time being Indonesian democracy should be guided democracy. In a major speech in February 1957 these ideas were enunciated more fully when he set forth his recommendations for a drastic change in Indonesia's political system. The whole structure of government, he argued, had to be rebuilt from the foundations. Noting that every Cabinet had had to cope with recurrent crises arising because of a lack of authority and because of sustained opposition from various groups in Parliament, he concluded that the main source of the country's difficulties lay in the attempt to practice a system not suited to the needs or traditions of the people, that is, a Western democratic system that was incompatible with the Indonesian outlook. The principle of Western parliamentary democracy incorporates the concept of an active opposition — a concept which is, he said, alien to the Indonesian way of life.

From December 1956 to March 1957 there was a series of coups by military commanders in Sumatra and the Celebes and elsewhere, arising from local dissatisfaction with what were considered to be discriminatory central government policies. A state of "War and Seige" was declared followed by the resignation of the Cabinet and its replacement by an "extra-parliamentary Cabinet of experts" headed by Dr. Djuanda. Conditions within the country deteriorated and early in 1958 dissidents declared a revolutionary government in Sumatra. By May the Government's military operations had broken organized rebel



PRESIDENT SUKARNO OF INDONESIA

resistance but the basic political and economic causes of regional dissatisfaction which gave rise to the revolt remained, and the Central Government still had to face the considerable task of devising solutions to these problems.

Early in 1959 consultations between the President, the Cabinet, and leaders of the major political parties took place on President Sukarno's concept of guided democracy. These discussions resulted in a decision by the Government to adopt the President's proposal to reinstate the 1945 Constitution — which was, he claimed, the only way by which the concept could be carried out. The proposals were submitted to the National Advisory Council — an

appointed body created in 1957 by the President — which was intended to represent regional and functional groups and advise the Cabinet. The Council approved the outline of the message in which the President conveyed his plans to the Constituent Assembly, a group of 500 elected representatives which had been working on a final constitution since 1956. However, a stalemate developed in the Constituent Assembly over the issue of having an Islamic foundation to the State with the result that the proposal failed to receive the required two-thirds majority on three successive votes. The Assembly recessed indefinitely leaving the issue unresolved.

The President was out of the country at the time. Faced with mounting political tension, the Chief of Staff, Lt. Gen. Nasution, as Central War Administrator and after consulting the Cabinet, banned all political meetings and activities and alerted troops for signs of trouble. There were no further significant developments until the President returned from his world tour.

Presidential Decree

On his return, the President held intensive discussions with political leaders, and on July 5, issued a Presidential decree dissolving the Constituent Assembly, re-instating the 1945 Constitution, and discontinuing the Provisional (1950) Constitution. President Sukarno declared that he had had to dissolve the Constituent Assembly because:

the decision of the majority of the members . . . to attend no more sessions (means) it is no longer possible for the Constituent Assembly to conclude the tasks entrusted to it by the people; . . . this creates a situation . . . which endangers the unity and safety of the state, the nation and the people

The following day the Prime Minister, Dr. Djuanda, and his Cabinet resigned (after 27 months in office) and almost immediately a new Government was formed. This new Government consists of an "inner Cabinet" of ten including Dr. Sukarno as President and Prime Minister, Dr. Djuanda as Chief Minister and Minister of Finance, and General Nasution as Minister of Security and Defence. There is also an "outer Cabinet" composed of about thirty "junior" ministers. The Government's programme was announced as follows:

- a) To satisfy the people's needs for food and clothing in the shortest possible time;
- b) To maintain the security of the people and the state;
- c) To continue the struggle against economic and political imperialism (including the struggle for West Irian).

Provisions of 1945 Constitution

Under the 1945 Constitution the institutional structure of government is somewhat complex. In addition to the President, Prime Minister and his Cabinet there are also the following:

The Provisional Supreme Advisory Council (45 appointed members), which has a member from each major political party and most of the minor parties, eight representatives from the regions and twenty-four from "functional groups". Like the old National Council, it will advise the Cabinet.

The National Planning Council which has 77 members, roughly one-third of whom are drawn from the out-lying regions and two-thirds from functional groups. It has the task of co-ordinating and initiating plans for national economic development.

The People's Consultative Congress, which will comprise the House of Representatives sitting in conjunction with representatives of regional and functional groups. This body, which has not yet been established, will elect the President and Vice-President and is to meet at least once every five years. It is not yet clear how members of the House of Representatives and the functional and regional members of the Consultative Congress are to be selected, but the Congress is conceived as the repository of national sovereignty.

The House of Representatives (Parliament) which is to be reconstituted so that it will also include representatives of functional and regional groups (50 per cent of the House) as well as representatives of the defence and security services appointed by the President.

These constitutional changes will give Indonesia a government more closely akin to the United States executive and Congressional system than to the European. The chief repository of power will be the President who will appoint Ministers, and to whom Ministers will be responsible. This is in line with the President's view that a strong executive is necessary to stable government and the Indonesian executive, which cannot be removed by Parliament, will remain in office for five years. It is proposed to introduce legislation reducing the number of parties and altering the present electoral law system. President Sukarno holds the view that much of Indonesia's political instability has been due to the system of proportional representation which fostered a multiplicity of parties and loosely-knit coalition governments. General elections under these new laws are to be held sometime in the future.

Interpretation of President's Action

The President's action in revoking the Constitution and dissolving the Constituent Assembly has been interpreted by many as another example in Asia of the collapse of parliamentary democracy and its replacement by an authoritarian, army-backed regime. The Indonesian Ambassador to Canada, His Excellency Mr. I. N. Palar, in a speech given on August 11, 1959, before the Lake Couchiching Conference of the Institute of Public Affairs, discussed this interpretation of events in Indonesia. He said in part:

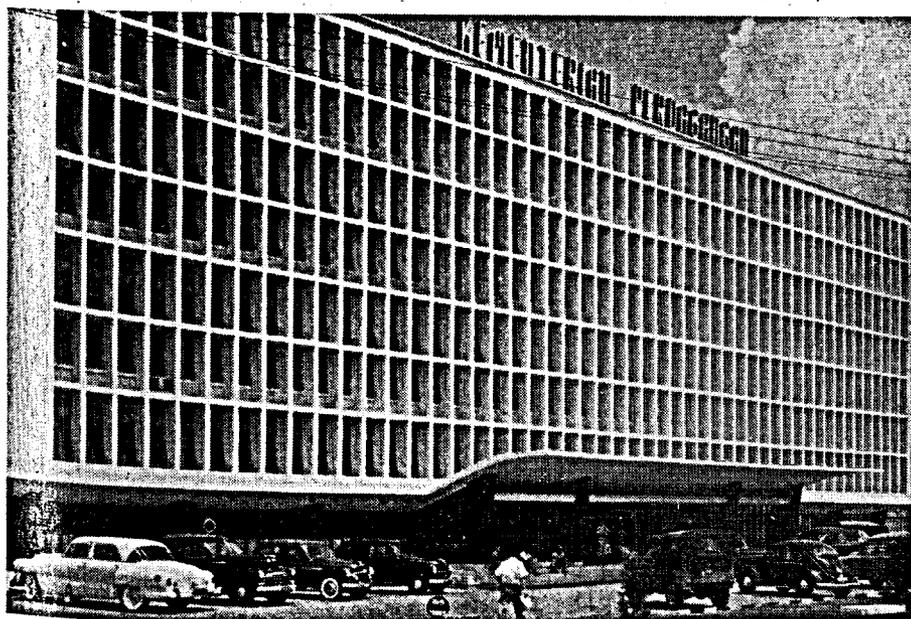
The newly free countries of Asia . . . are hardly one decade old as politically free nations. They are still entitled to make mistakes in their experiments with parliamentary democracy. They are bound to make mistakes because of their inexperience and mass poverty. . . . Village democracy is a good basis on which to build the more complicated modern parliamentary democracy. But modern parliamentary democracy is cumbersome and can only be properly handled by those who are experienced in the democratic game and who know by experience the rules of the game. A people can only learn to handle parliamentary democracy by practising it and while practising it, they are bound and entitled to make mistakes.

The newly independent Asian nations, when they started as free countries, . . . took over the whole apparatus of the most highly developed parliamentary democracies in the world. . . . After a difficult period of about a decade, Burma, Pakistan and

some Middle Eastern states adopted a system under military leadership and by doing so taught their peoples democratic discipline by going through a tough military discipline. . . . A good working democracy, adapted to their own characteristics and qualities, is still the aim of these newly free nations. . . .

This is the background against which we have to view the application of Western parliamentary democracy in newly-free Asian countries. Small wonder that understandable mistakes are being made, but it is equally not surprising that the countries concerned are in a rush in trying to correct or avoid these mistakes. Some of them endeavour . . . to use military methods for correction. Others try to adapt parliamentary democracy to their own usages in the hope they may be able to handle parliamentary democracy in a more satisfactory way.

Indonesia is one of these countries. We think that we can keep parliamentary democracy, if democracy can be given the necessary guidance. This guidance should have the task of correcting and avoiding errors and mistakes made when applying Western parliamentary democracy. Guidance in the Indonesian guided democracy means guidance to correct and avoid mistakes inherent in parliamentary democracy.



NEW BUILDING IN DJAKARTA

The front view of the modern Ministry of Trade Building in Djakarta, the capital of Indonesia.

Canadian Films in Latin America

THE popular image that one country or people holds of another is often highly inaccurate—based, as often as not, on hearsay rather than knowledge, on romantic fiction and “the movies” rather than factual information.

Thus to many Canadians the term “Latin America” may suggest an amorphous and somewhat mysterious section of the Western Hemisphere, inhabited by a carefree people who speak Spanish or Portuguese, devote an alarming amount of time to afternoon siestas, and frequently engage in local revolutions of doubtful merit.

Every child of high school age has, of course, learned that Brazil is a large country which supplies most of the world's coffee; that Argentina is Canada's chief rival in the production of top quality beef and wheat; that *Ecuador* is the Spanish name for *equator* and that Quito, its capital, is situated almost exactly astride the waistline of the world. But beyond these and a few other fundamentals of geography, Canadians as a whole know far too little of the diverse nations and peoples whose boundaries stretch from the southern borders of the United States to the southern tip of South America.

It is not surprising, then, to learn that the Latin American suffers from a similar ignorance of things Canadian. Exposed as he is to his more immediate *yanqui* neighbor, seeing and hearing little of our way of life, it is inevitable that he should encounter considerable difficulty in getting to know and understand a people and a social structure so far removed from his own.

It is unfortunate that this should be so, for, both economically and politically, the future of Canada and the entire Western world may depend critically upon what happens in — and to — Latin America in the years immediately ahead.

The southern continent is today in the early stages of an industrial revolution, accompanied by social reform and political unrest. Canada has experienced many of these same adjustments, yet she is still a young nation vigorously engaged in developing her resources. Many of her economic problems are similar to those faced by Latin American countries. Possibly most important in Canadian relations with peoples so jealously proud of their national identities — Canada is known to Latin Americans as an independent nation free from imperialistic ambitions.

With so much in our favour, it is evident that we in Canada have a priceless opportunity to foster common understanding and good will by providing our southern neighbors with a better-defined picture of our country and its people.

The National Film Board

It is doubtful if any single medium of communication is better designed for so vast an educational task than is the film, combining as it does the double impact of pictorial representation and verbal commentary.

The fact that the Canadian Government recognizes this fact is illustrated in the broad directives given to Canada's National Film Board in the National Film Act. The Board, comprising a Chairman (usually referred to as the Government Film Commissioner) and eight Board members, was instructed —

... to produce and distribute and to promote the production and distribution of films designed to interpret Canada to Canadians and to other nations.

In the 20 years since its inception, the National Film Board has produced or promoted the production of more than 3,500 separate films — for use in technical instruction, as educational aids, or “to interpret Canada to Canadians and to other nations”. Some 600 titles are today in distribution abroad — in Europe, Asia, Africa, Central and South America — and many hundreds of others are in use on the home front.

Some of these — films such as *Peoples of Canada*, *Farm Calendar*, *Industrial Canada* — are designed to provide a better understanding of the land and its people to those who are newly arrived in Canada, or foreign audiences who have never seen this country. Others, like *The Rising Tide* and *Down North*, picture the challenges faced by Canadians in their everyday life, and the manner in which they are met and conquered. Still others, such as the *Accidents Don't Happen* series, to which new instalments are regularly added, provide helpful instruction that may be just as appropriate for the vocational student or worker in Montivideo as for the one in Toronto or Montreal.

According to Mr. Len Chatwin, the Film Board's Director of Distribution:

Our films can gain good will and prestige for Canada in Latin America, as they have in many parts of Europe and Asia, and can create a degree of popular understanding and appreciation difficult to attain by any other means.

Whether through their immediate usefulness as training aids, through the picture they show of Canadian efforts in many fields of endeavour, or simply through their general excellence as films, I believe they can do a tremendous amount to further Canada's interests in Latin America.

Problems of Distribution

Some of the difficulties lie in the nature of the area that must be reached. The term “Latin America” covers a great deal of territory — Mexico, Central America and some of the Caribbean islands such as Cuba in addition to the entire continent of South America. Different peoples, different customs, widely varying economic conditions — all these and many other problems have to be met and solved before anything like an adequate programme of film distribution can be put in motion.

Another problem, and a difficult one, is language. In one sense, Canadian films are ideally suited for Latin American use. “Most of our films”, Mr. Chatwin points out, “are made primarily to inform Canadians. They are not intended as ‘propaganda’. This puts the foreign audience in the position of being invited to ‘read over our shoulders’, as it were, to profit from our technical information and instruction; to observe and enjoy our culture *without being asked to absorb it.*”

But if the foreign audience is to “read over our shoulders”, the words must be in a language they understand. This, for Latin America, means Spanish or Portuguese, since only a small proportion of the audience we are trying to reach speaks either English or French.

Here cost becomes an important factor; "dubbing in" another language in place of the original English in which the film was made, may cost from \$600 to \$800 for a 1-reel film. Once the "master" film is complete, distribution to a mass audience requires from a dozen to several hundred prints, cost of which varies from \$15 to \$200 per print — depending upon film size, colour etc. It goes without saying that all films thus produced cannot simply be "given away"; they must, wherever possible, produce some revenue for the Film Board to enable it to obtain the greatest possible mileage from its budget.

Considering this problem from the Board's point of view, the demand for a film must exist — and some firm indication of the extent of the demand be known — before it can be decided to "version" that film in a foreign language. Gauging this demand, nurturing and encouraging it to grow, are among the Film Board's toughest problems in improving Latin American distribution of Canadian films.

Media of Distribution and Film Board Survey

There are essentially three avenues for distribution of Canadian films in Latin America: theatres, television, and local projection.

For theatrical and television showings, films are made in 35 mm or 16 mm sizes. For local projection — in classrooms, to technical, business or professional groups — either 16 mm motion pictures or "filmstrips" are used. (The filmstrip is a series of "still" pictures, similar to those used in slide projectors, and popular for lectures and instructional purposes.)

Virtually all motion pictures produced by the Film Board are made with sound. For foreign distribution some of these are "versioned" into the local language; others are distributed with music and sound effects only, and may be accompanied by a spoken commentary done by someone on the spot from a script provided for the purpose.

In film language, motion pictures are classified either as "features" or "shorts". The feature film, apart from its greater length, is intended primarily as entertainment. Many commercially produced shorts (such as the cartoon) are also aimed mainly at entertainment. Film Board shorts, on the other hand, are basically media of information or instruction — but this does not mean that the entertainment value can be ignored, if the interest of the audience is to be maintained. The majority of shorts are from one to three reels in length, and run from 10 to 30 minutes. Many of those referred to in this survey are of the "documentary" type — a narrative based on actual people and events.

In November 1958 the National Film Board, handicapped in formulating a long-term programme for Latin America through lack of knowledge of the potential demand, sent the Distribution Director, Mr. Chatwin, on a six-week tour. His assignment: to meet South American theatrical distributors, television officials and agents, educators and government personnel to discover what could be done to reach a wider audience for Canadian films.

Mr. Chatwin's report of his survey, completed early this year, suggests that there are excellent possibilities in Mexico and Central America, and in the larger countries of South America such as Brazil and Argentina, for "the effective use of films in support of Canada's information programme".

The following are some of the promising signs — and the problems — he encountered.

Theatrical Distribution

The theatrical distributor, as a businessman, is interested in promoting films that will bring him a profit. He is willing to pay high prices for feature films that draw large crowds because he knows he will have no trouble "booking" them. Shorts, however, are another proposition.

In most of the theatres involved, shorts — when used at all — are intended simply to "pad out" the programme. They are not, in themselves, revenue producers for the theatre. The distributor cannot, therefore, expect to sell them at an attractive price. Often he cannot sell them at all, but supplies them to the theatres as part of a "package" deal.

Conditions in different parts of the area differ widely in this respect. In Brazil, for example, the theatre industry is in a very poor state, with admission prices frozen early this year at the equivalent of 12 cents. As a result, theatre owners are disinterested in shorts: they run their programmes through quickly, to get the greatest number of showings and the maximum revenue from each picture.

In Argentina, Chile and Colombia there are high import costs on all foreign films. In Mexico, theatre programmes usually carry two or three reels of "sponsored" news and documentary material, interspersed with the advertising of the sponsors; this of course restricts the use of non-sponsored shorts.

For these and similar reasons many theatrical distributors are hesitant to make commitments for films unless they can obtain them free — which indeed they have been doing in the case of films distributed by some foreign embassies. (In the past, many of the films thus distributed by foreign governments have been made primarily for free distribution rather than commercial release, and are generally available on this basis in all countries.) Distributors who need Canadian shorts would like to obtain them in the same way.

Mr. Chatwin discovered, however, that when the distributors learned something of the reputation of Canadian film shorts, and became more familiar with the extent of their world-wide commercial theatrical distribution, they were usually prepared to do business. "I would estimate", he reported, "that over a 5-year period a Film Board short could be booked into from 1,000 to 1,500 theatres in South America, depending upon the arrangements we were willing to make".

The largest and most effective theatrical distribution agency in South America is a firm called Peliculas Mexicanas. As one concrete result of his visit, typical of what Mr. Chatwin believes can be accomplished by personal contact and close follow-up, this organization agreed to take four Canadian films on a commercial basis for showings in Central America, Brazil and Venezuela. Two of these have now been versioned into both Spanish and Portuguese (the latter, of course, intended for Brazil) and the completed films — *Canada's Atom Goes to Work* and *Struggle for Oil* — will soon be telling audiences in Latin America something about the research being done in Canada to find peaceful uses for atomic energy, and the methods employed in oil exploration in the Canadian West.

Mr. Chatwin believes that similar methods can be used to book from six to twelve shorts a year in most Latin American countries. He points out that United Artists is already distributing several to theatres in Peru, Colombia,

Venezuela and Uruguay as well as in Central American cities; and with the added distribution obtained through the Películas organization, Canadian films are now being shown in theatres in most Latin American countries.

One notable exception is Argentina. Here, although shorts are needed and distributors would be glad to have good ones, import duties were increased at the end of 1958 to a point where the distributor may find it difficult to break even on foreign films. The Argentine film industry, meantime, is receiving strong financial assistance from its Government: a portion of theatre admission prices (called a "seat tax") is funnelled back to the producers to finance new films, and showings of Argentine-produced shorts are enforced by law.

However, although present prospects for use of Canadian films in Argentina are not glowing, several Argentine distributors are interested. Most promising of these is David Goldberg & Co., who have contracts with 700 theatres in the country and are anxious to try a sample group of Canadian shorts as soon as import restrictions are clarified. This company also has a television department and is interested in television distribution rights to the same films.

Television Distribution

Television in Latin America is in many different stages of development, ranging from "not yet started" to "highly developed". Mexico and Cuba, for example, have had TV for several years, and Brazil had seven stations in operation in April 1959, with others scheduled for later in the year. Uruguay's single station, on the other hand, is a small one located in Montivideo, reaching about 10,000 set-owners; and since the import ban on new sets declared in 1958, development in Uruguay has been at a standstill.

Argentina has only one station — in Buenos Aires — but its audience comprises probably a million or more viewers, with 300,000 television sets in operation. Peru, which had only one station at the beginning of 1959, now has two, with several others making ready to enter the field. (N.F.B. have already received requests for films from Peru, and plan to supply these from a library of 40 "free distribution" films reserved for such purposes.)

Not only the widely diverse stages of development, but the varied *kinds* of station in operation make the Latin American television picture a somewhat confused one. There are government-subsidized stations, partly-subsidized stations, commercial systems and non-commercial systems. There are stations which depend entirely on advertising revenue, those which depend partly on advertising revenue, and those which will not accept *any* advertising.

However, the field is divided mainly into two groups: the stations which must depend essentially on advertising revenue for their support, and those which do not. The latter, Mr. Chatwin believes, offer N.F.B. its best medium for the achievement of its "broad distribution aims" — for it is they who are most likely to have sufficient use for non-sponsored (or "sustaining") programme material such as Canadian film shorts.

"But if we wish to have films from Canada telecast", observes Mr. Chatwin, "we must be prepared to meet the conditions of the market. Programme directors of many stations have expressed a real interest in Canadian films, but we cannot expect to get revenue from every film we send them."

This comment is the key to the Film Board's new Latin American policy which has gradually been taking shape during the months since the survey was made. As an arm of the Canadian Government, the Board is charged with the task of aiding Canada's information programme. But as an organization empowered to buy and sell property and to carry on business in the name of the Crown, it must also find ways of procuring the necessary revenue to enable it to fulfill its first purpose in the most effective manner possible. Hence the Board's slowly formulated policy: to strike a "delicate balance" between free and revenue-producing films for Latin American television — and, in some cases, theatrical — use.

A promising indication of the likely success of this policy is provided in an agreement reached a few weeks ago with *King Distribuidora de Servicos Ltda.* of Rio de Janeiro, who in December 1958 were authorized to distribute N.F.B. films for television use in Brazil. King have now arranged for the telecast, by a station in Rio, of 50 Canadian films of which 24 are being supplied free and the other 26 on a commercial basis.

This marks the first time that one South American television station has contracted for so many Canadian titles. Canada's Film Board has reason to feel that, however modest the victory might appear to those unfamiliar with the problems involved, it is an extremely important event in the future of Canadian film distribution.

Some of the problems that had to be solved before arrangements could be completed for these showings will perhaps serve to suggest why film distribution is not always easy:

- 1) Because of the time and cost involved in "dubbing in" Portuguese dialogue where so large a number of films was involved, it was necessary to choose those containing music and sound effects only. These will be accompanied by a commentary by a local announcer, guided by a script provided by N.F.B. (This, however, is not the long-term solution to the multi-language problem in N.F.B.'s opinion. The most effective films are those produced entirely in the local language. More Spanish and Portuguese versions are needed, and will be provided.)
- 2) Brazilian import licenses are valid for only 6 months. Within that period the distributor must obtain the film, distribute it to every station that can use it, and return it to the supplier. Only the distributor himself can cope with this difficulty, and considerable persuasion may be required before he is prepared to do it.
- 3) Customs duties present another impediment. In this case it was overcome by the fact that the films involved could be classified as "educational and cultural", thus avoiding duties.

And, in addition to these and a host of similar difficulties, one may add the fact that the Brazilian *cruzeiros*, in which all business is transacted, is subject to wide fluctuation in value within relatively short period of time.

At the end of seven months occupied in following through this transaction by correspondence between Montreal and Rio de Janeiro, N.F.B.'s Commercial Section Chief, Mr. Wilfred S. Jobbins, reported:

I am confident that this deal can be followed by others, and that we can use the experience gained in Brazil to assist us in getting distribution in other parts of Latin America.

A sample of the titles being televised during the coming months on the Rio station helps indicate the wide variety of information and subject matter covered: *Here's Hockey*, *Horizons of Quebec*, *Summer is for Kids*, *Coho Salmon on the Fly*, *Man against a Fungus*, *Pulp and Paper from Canada*, *Small Fry*, *Story of Peter and the Potter*, and — one title which will doubtless find as many sympathetic viewers in Latin America as in Canada — a film called simply "Shyness".

Educational-Instructional Films and Filmstrips

Sixteen mm films and filmstrips for private showings, classroom use and similar purposes are distributed for the N.F.B. in Latin America largely by diplomatic posts, who maintain libraries of from a few dozen to two hundred titles. Altogether there are some 400 titles in distribution throughout the area, but this figure is not, in fact, an accurate indication of the effective available supply of titles. Only about 20 per cent of the films in distribution, for example, are in Spanish, and a somewhat smaller proportion in Portuguese. More than half of these are older films produced during the 1940's.

Why, then, are more up-to-date films not available in the languages of the countries concerned? Once again, the first reason is cost: unless the wide and continued use of the films justifies it, N.F.B. is hesitant to invest sizeable sums of money in versioning into other languages.

But there is another reason — one which helps explain why wider and more effective use is not already being made of those films now in distribution. The cold fact is that Canadian Government posts, which are at present entirely responsible for circulating these films, are simply not properly equipped to do the job. Embassy staffs, charged with many and varied duties, are not able to devote enough time to the details of film distribution and promotion. They, in turn, are further handicapped by the small number of films available in the local language. Effective contacts have at times been built up, only to be lost because of the lack of a continuing supply of usable films.

This could, of course, be considered a vicious circle. But Canada's Film Board does not intend to allow it to become one. To ensure a better supply of Spanish and Portuguese titles, the Board has already completed this year the versioning of 22 films, and 10 others are now in production. This compares with a total of only seven versions for Latin America completed last year, and marks a long step toward the goal of an integrated educational film programme.

That Latin America is ready for everything that can be supplied is beyond doubt, for every government throughout the area is struggling with the dual problems of economic development and improved education. Government agencies concerned with these activities showed a genuine interest, at meetings with Mr. Chatwin, in obtaining Canadian films both of a general and technical nature.

An increasing number of film projectors, flowing into schools and vocational institutes, aids in classroom instruction. Social service agencies such as the SESSI (Social Service for Industry) in Brazil and the Latin American

Film Institute in Mexico are keenly interested in instructional film and filmstrips. The Institute, jointly financed and sponsored by the Mexican Government and UNESCO, produced last year 104 filmstrips in a carefully planned and well-integrated programme to meet the needs of teachers. They have distributed as many as 6,000 filmstrip prints in one month, and have more than a casual interest in exchanging filmstrips with Canada.

A Brazilian agency is sufficiently interested in N.F.B.'s *Accidents Don't Happen* series to be willing to produce Portuguese versions; and 10 N.F.B. labour films are currently being versioned into Spanish, sponsored by the International Co-operation Administration of the U.S. Technical Aid Centre for Latin America. There was, everywhere Mr. Chatwin went, a special interest in films showing the Canadian way of solving social and economic problems — labour unions and their methods of operation, accident prevention in factories, and similar subject matter. One film in which particular interest was evinced was *The Rising Tide*, a 3-reel documentary depicting the rise of the co-operative movement in the Maritime Provinces.

Contract with the "Consumer"

Perhaps the greatest difficulty faced by the Film Board in Latin America is the lack of representation on the spot. The distance involved in travelling into the field from Montreal headquarters makes a field survey such as that carried out by Mr. Chatwin a necessarily infrequent event. . . . And lack of continuing contact, in a situation where events are moving rapidly and conditions changing almost overnight, can well mean missed opportunities.

"Successful film distribution", says Mr. Chatwin's report, "calls for complex and precise supervision". The Board has built good distribution facilities in Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States and Europe because it has had the supervisory skill available on the spot. "Without the continuity of effort provided by such experience, film distribution in any area must remain a fraction of its potential."

There can be little doubt that the National Film Board would like to see the appointment of an N.F.B. officer to Latin America. Since there is equally little doubt of the Government's real interest in promoting more effective information services in this area, the possibility of such a step may not be too remote.

One fact seems certain: should such an appointment be made, the man concerned will find no lack of challenging opportunities awaiting him in the great continent that stretches more than 4,500 miles from the Caribbean to the Scotia Sea. One may hope, should this prove to be the effective means of carrying Canada's story to Latin America, it may also help provide an avenue through which we in Canada may learn to know and understand our southern neighbors better.

APPOINTMENTS, TRANSFERS AND RESIGNATIONS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mr. R. M. Macdonnell resigned from the Department of External Affairs effective July 20, 1959.
- Mr. G. L. Hearn posted from the Canadian Embassy, Lima, to Ottawa. Left Lima July 28, 1959.
- Mr. L. D. Wilgress appointed Chairman, Canadian Section, Canada-United States P.J.B.D., effective August 1, 1959.
- Mr. T. B. B. Wainman-Wood posted from the Canadian Legation, Warsaw to the Canadian Embassy, Paris. Left Warsaw August 1, 1959.
- Mr. L. A. D. Stephens posted from the Canadian Embassy, Bonn, to Ottawa. Left Bonn August 2, 1959.
- Mr. A. C. E. Joly de Lotbiniere seconded from the Department of External Affairs to Government House effective August 4, 1959.
- Mr. P. F. Bennett resigned from the Department of External Affairs effective August 4, 1959.
- Mr. W. K. Wardroper posted from temporary duty with the Government of Ghana to Ottawa. Left Ghana August 4, 1959.
- Mr. J. M. F. Shoemaker appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective August 4, 1959.
- Mr. L. P. Tardif appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective August 4, 1959.
- Mr. J. A. Irwin posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Cairo. Left Ottawa August 5, 1959.
- Mr. C. E. Campbell posted from the Canadian Embassy, Washington, to Ottawa. Left Washington August 7, 1959.
- Mr. J. R. McKinney transferred from the Canadian Embassy, Djakarta, to the Canadian Embassy, Copenhagen. Left Djakarta August 9, 1959.
- Mr. P. D. Scott posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Warsaw. Left Ottawa August 11, 1959.
- Mr. G. A. Cowley posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Tokyo. Left Ottawa August 11, 1959.
- Mr. J. B. Seaborn posted from the Canadian Embassy, Paris to the Canadian Embassy, Moscow. Left Paris August 12, 1959.
- Mr. A. D. Ross posted from the National Defence College, Kingston to the Canadian Embassy, Caracas. Left Ottawa August 16, 1959.
- Mr. A. D. Thackray appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1, effective August 17, 1959.
- Mr. S. M. Scott posted from the National Defence College, Kingston to Ottawa. Left Kingston August 18, 1959.
- Mr. J. O. Parry posted from Ottawa to the Permanent Mission of Canada to the United Nations, New York. Left Ottawa August 20, 1959.
- Mr. S. G. LeFeuvre posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, London to Ottawa. Left London August 21, 1959.
- Mr. P. A. Bissonnette posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Kuala Lumpur. Left Ottawa August 21, 1959.
- Mr. A. M. Nicholson posted from Ottawa to the Middle East Centre for Arab Studies, Shemlani. Left Ottawa August 21, 1959.
- Mr. J. A. Chapdelaine, appointed Canadian Ambassador to Brazil. Left Ottawa August 24, 1959.
- Mr. P. V. Lyon resigned from the Department of External Affairs effective August 24, 1959.
- Mr. J. L. Delisle posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Paris. Left Ottawa August 25, 1959.
- Mr. R. C. O'Hagan posted from the Canadian Military Mission, Berlin to Ottawa. Left Berlin August 26, 1959.
- Mr. K. Goldschlag posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Vienna. Left Ottawa August 27, 1959.
- Mr. D. M. Miller appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective August 31, 1959.

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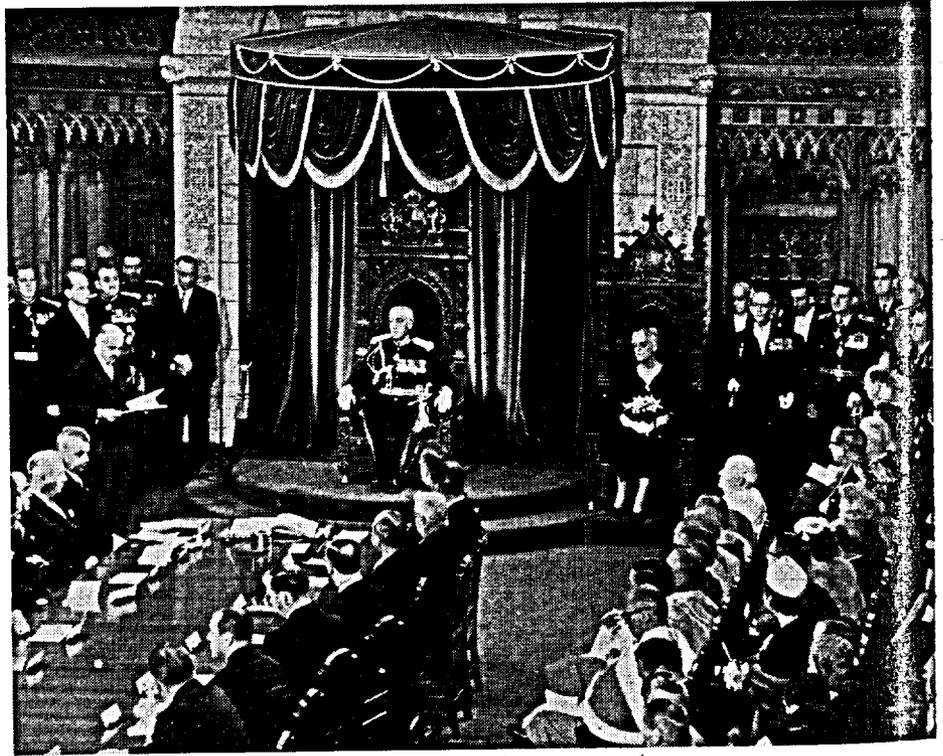
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NEW GOVERNOR-GENERAL

In a ceremony held in the Senate Chamber of the Parliament Buildings, Major-General Georges P. Vanier, D.S.O., M.C., C.D., was installed on September 15, 1959, as Canada's nineteenth Governor-General since Confederation.

Above, the new Governor-General is seated on the Throne Chair, with Mrs. Vanier to his left. Prime Minister Diefenbaker and members of the Cabinet are seated at the table in the foreground, with the Justices of the Supreme Court to the right.

Canada's Perspective on World Problems

An address to the fourteenth session of the General Assembly of the United Nations on September 24 by Mr. Howard Green, Secretary of State for External Affairs.

In opening my remarks today, Mr. President, I wish to congratulate you upon attainment of your present high position and to assure you that Canadians have the utmost confidence in your judgment. Down through the years, representatives of our nation have admired your devotion to the aims and ideals of the United Nations, and we consider ourselves fortunate to have a presiding officer of your experience and achievements. Your record is another example of the splendid contribution leaders from the Latin American countries have made — and are making — to the success of this world organization.

In this general debate, I do not intend to discuss all of the important problems in which Canada is interested. Instead, I shall deal with only those on which my Government believes the Canadian position should be made known at once.

Disarmament

One problem that is of universal concern is disarmament, a problem the military, political and psychological complexities of which have so far defied solution. Yet we must find a solution. The risk of war arising from crises continues to grow. Technological advances have increased immeasurably the destructive power of new weapons and have shortened to minutes the period of warning of an attack. Nuclear warfare means annihilation. Now, as never before, it is imperative that all states agree on measures to place these new weapons under effective control and progressively to outlaw them, and at the same time to limit and control conventional arms.

I listened with much interest to the disarmament plans outlined last week by Mr. Selwyn Lloyd for the United Kingdom and by Mr. Khrushchev for the Soviet Union. We shall of course want to study these plans carefully and shall reserve detailed comments on them for a later occasion. For the moment let me say that I am entirely sympathetic with the general objective stated by Mr. Khrushchev's proposal — namely, a world without arms. We would all like to see general and complete disarmament. However, we are looking forward to more detailed proposals designed to this end, particularly with respect to control.

The central question of disarmament turns on the ability of states to find a basis of mutual confidence, and this is realistically reflected in Mr. Lloyd's proposals. That confidence must be such as to enable states to strike a balance between the obvious advantages of liquidating the burden of armaments, and the political and military risks of reducing defence against aggression. This balance can be reached, I believe, only through supervised disarmament. There is, therefore, an inseparable relationship between disarming and control and this must be reflected in any practical plan. The two must be negotiated in parallel and must be put into effect together. Without control, the mutual

confidence required to disarm would be lacking, particularly in a time of great political and ideological conflict. Without disarmament, control, of course, would be irrelevant.

I was gratified, therefore, to hear Mr. Khrushchev say that his Government was — and I quote — “in favour of strict international control over the implementation of the disarmament agreement when it is reached.” He added, however, — and again I quote — “We are in favour of genuine disarmament under control but we are against control without disarmament.” He went even further and suggested that the Western powers had tried to obstruct genuine disarmament by advancing demands for control more far-reaching than were necessary to ensure implementation and more far-reaching than they themselves were prepared to meet. I cannot accept this suggestion. The record does not bear out the charge.

Mr. President, Canada's unique geographical position as a neighbour of both the United States and the Soviet Union gives Canadians a special interest in disarmament. We believe that this goal should be pursued with determination and with patience, using whatever forum is most appropriate, whether in the United Nations or outside. Last year, for example, we participated in technical studies concerning the discontinuance of nuclear tests, and in discussions on the problem of surprise attack.



AT THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

Mr. Howard Green, Secretary of State for External Affairs, and leader of the Canadian Delegation, right, and Mr. Wallace Nesbitt, Parliamentary Assistant to the Secretary of State for External Affairs, at the opening of the fourteenth session of the General Assembly.

In the latter discussions we consistently asserted, as my Prime Minister did last week, our readiness to open Canadian territory for inspection, particularly in the Arctic area, under an equitable and reciprocal system. We continue to hold the opinion that such a system would do much for the restoration of international confidence.

With a view to taking a fresh look at some of the problems of disarmament, the United States, the United Kingdom, France and the Soviet Union recently announced the establishment of a 10-power negotiating committee, the creation of which has been noted by the United Nations Disarmament Commission. Consistent with our policy of using any forum appropriate for disarmament negotiations, Canada accepted an invitation to participate in this committee. This body may not be linked with the United Nations to the extent that many nations would prefer, but I wish to emphasize that the Canadian Government has assumed this responsibility in the belief that it will facilitate direct negotiations among the great powers. The activities of the 10-power committee are intended not to replace but to supplement the responsibilities of the United Nations in the field of disarmament.

With respect to the link between this committee and the United Nations, it is our view that it would be in the interest of all concerned not only that the committee report from time to time to the United Nations but also that the United Nations, probably through the Disarmament Commission, discuss the progress of the committee's work; encourage its activities; and evolve further ideas in this general field. In this way those members of the United Nations not participating in the 10-power committee would have an effective means of expressing their interest in its objectives. Clearly, the middle and smaller powers must have an opportunity of being heard; for disarmament is of the deepest concern to all mankind. In Canada's work on the committee, we will at all times keep these points in mind.

It is my understanding that this committee will begin work early in 1960 and I hope that its negotiations will be extended in an orderly manner to a broad range of measures relating to nuclear and other modern weapons and to conventional weapons and armed forces. We welcome the fact that the great powers already are preparing proposals for the committee and I may say that Canadian studies are also in progress.

One aspect of disarmament from which we can all draw some encouragement is the fact that there now exist 17 agreed articles of a draft treaty on discontinuance of nuclear tests, being negotiated by the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union. The Canadian people are unanimous in their wish to see an end to nuclear testing. It is true that the principal difficulties have yet to be resolved; again they centre on the question of control.

Whatever the solution, it is of the utmost importance for the three nuclear powers to reach agreement on this central question of the control system. Unless this problem can be solved with respect to the relatively narrow and specific question of nuclear tests, we can hardly expect early progress in other aspects of disarmament where verification and inspection of even greater complexity are likely to be required.

Outer Space

Another aspect of disarmament which should prove susceptible of early negotiation is disarmament in relation to outer space. Two years ago, my

Prime Minister urged that the passage of time should not be allowed to bring to the problem of outer space the complications which failure to reach agreement on nuclear weapons has brought to that problem.

Today the pace of scientific and technological progress is staggering to the imagination. An event took place a few days ago which lends further urgency to the need for international consideration of the many problems which may arise as man continues his penetration of outer space. I refer to the tremendous feat of the Soviet Union in hurling a dead weight of considerable magnitude from the earth to the moon. This was a magnificent achievement which is deserving of the greatest praise.

It does, however, emphasize the urgent necessity of having the international community establish adequate regulation where none exists. In particular, early consideration must be given to establishing rules determining the limits of national sovereignty in space.

The Ad Hoc Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space which was set up at the last session has made a useful start in considering the scientific, technical and legal aspects of co-operation within the United Nations. Canada served on that Committee and provided the Chairman for the Scientific and Technical Committee whose work forms the basis for a large part of the report we shall be considering. Our great regret is that one of the two nations which have the greatest accomplishments in space technology did not participate in the preparation of this initial report. I do not think that report contains anything to which the Soviet Union should take exception.

We trust that further arrangements to pursue these matters will have the co-operation of the Soviets. Their continued non-participation cannot fail to limit the value of any proposals that may be considered. Canada will of course continue to co-operate to the fullest extent in any international consideration of these problems whether this be at the inter-governmental level as in the United Nations or in the highly important area of international co-operation among scientists.

Radiation

I should like now to touch upon another question of vital importance — the hazards resulting from the addition of man-made radiation to that which already occurs in nature. The United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation, in its report this year to the General Assembly, has outlined what appears to my Delegation to be an admirable and useful programme for the next few years.

All mankind is concerned that knowledge of the biological and other effects of radiation and of the present extent of the hazard should be enlarged. We must also realize that even if the nations agree to stop testing nuclear weapons, the problem of radiation will not vanish. The large and growing use of radiation in medicine; the atomic era in industry with the possibility of accidents, for example in power stations soon to become a familiar sight in many lands; the risks connected with the disposal of radioactive waste; all these, and similar perils unforeseeable now, will be with us henceforth. They will present complex problems demanding constant observation, study and precaution.

There is an urgent need to fill the substantial gaps which continue to exist in our knowledge of the phenomenon of radiation. In a matter which is of such concern to human life and future generations, all member states have an equal interest in ensuring that research into the biological effects of radiation is based on the fullest and most reliable information. For this purpose, scientists must have at their disposal data on radiation from fallout and other sources which would be as nearly as possible world-wide in its scope and collected by standardized methods.

All member states can make a vital contribution towards this objective by co-operating to the fullest possible extent in the collection of data and in remitting it to a central agency for collation. The collated data would then be available to governments and to scientific and medical research institutions for investigation of the biological effects and industrial hazards of radiation. The pooling in turn of the results of such research through the United Nations Radiation Committee can make a further valuable contribution to the world's collective knowledge of this common problem.

We believe that mankind would derive relief from anxiety if the nations of the world were to acknowledge an obligation to do what they can to ensure that the world-wide physical measurement of the intensity and distribution of radiation is made as accurate and complete as possible.

At this session the Canadian Delegation intends to submit a proposal which we sincerely hope will encourage the world-wide collection of more accurate data on radiation and will provide for its central collation.

Economic and Social Matters

I turn now to certain economic and social questions.

First I should like to re-emphasize my country's concern for economic development in less-developed areas.

Much good work has already been accomplished in this field both inside and outside the United Nations. A great deal more remains to be done for which we believe vigorous action is required to accelerate the social and economic progress of people throughout the world.

The Canadian Government has always strongly supported multilateral United Nations economic assistance programmes. We will be providing our share of the increased resources of the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. In the past year we gave \$2 million to the expanded technical assistance programme and another \$2 million to the newly established Special Fund. Canadian delegates participated actively in the establishment of this new organization. My Government's contribution in the first year of the Fund's operation indicated our confidence that it will become an important source of assistance in fields essential to the integrated development of less-developed countries.

Members of the United Nations will be aware that, apart from the multilateral programmes under the aegis of the United Nations, other substantial and useful aid programmes exist. The Colombo Plan is one of them with which my country has been happily associated. We have found that these plans, in which the donor and receiver countries work in close co-operation, have had good results. The impetus and the prime effort must come from the recipient; only then can a healthy relationship exist between donor and recipient.

My Delegation will at this session, as in the past, work closely with delegations, both from recipient and from donor countries, to continue building up the sound patterns of economic co-operation which have been laid down in the United Nations in the past years.

World Refugee Year

Mr. President, one of the world's most pressing social problems is that of refugees. This is World Refugee Year, during which most member states are pledged to make a determined assault on the problem.

Delegates know the active interest Canada has always taken in the plight of the millions of unfortunate people uprooted by the Second World War and by political unrest during the post-war years. Many scores of thousands of them have made a new start in Canada and have enriched our national life.

In addition, Canada has for many years contributed to programmes to alleviate the distressing conditions in which refugees, through no fault of their own, are compelled to exist in camps throughout the world. We have made substantial financial contributions to the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees, to the programmes of the High Commissioner for Refugees, and to the Far Eastern Operation of the Inter-governmental Committee for European Migration. Canada can be counted on again this year to assume its share in maintaining these international programmes.

The essence of the World Refugee Year is, however, that governments should make an extra effort. In considering what special contribution would be most appropriate and effective, my Government noted that the camp clearance project of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees had been assigned a top priority. If increased efforts could be made, it appeared possible to close the European camps and thereby terminate one entire United Nations refugee programme.

We are all aware that the remaining population of these European camps contains a high proportion of people who are difficult to re-locate elsewhere because they fail to meet the medical regulations of countries which might provide a new home. A great many of these so-called "hard core" cases are suffering from tuberculosis; in many instances whole families have had to face the prospect of remaining indefinitely in the camps because one member had contracted that disease.

I am pleased to announce, therefore that, as its special contribution to the World Refugee Year, the Canadian Government will waive normal immigration requirements and admit to Canada a substantial number of tubercular refugees and their families. This group will be brought to Canada and treated in sanatoria at Canadian expense. Furthermore, a family unable to support itself while a member is under treatment will receive maintenance payments. It is my hope that the first refugees selected will reach Canada by the end of this year.

In this undertaking the Canadian Government will have the co-operation of provincial governments and the active support of a private organization, the Canadian Committee for World Refugee Year.

I am aware that a number of other members of the United Nations have outlined imaginative plans to receive handicapped refugees. Our collective efforts should have the effect of easing or bringing to an end the disproport-

tionate burden which some European countries have carried since 1945. Above all, Canada welcomes the occasion offered by World Refugee Year to give a group of human beings, whose plight is particularly tragic, an opportunity to rebuild their lives in dignity and happiness.

United Nations Emergency Force

One other item on the agenda which is of special interest to Canada is the United Nations Emergency Force. This Force has for another year admirably carried out the tasks set for it by the General Assembly. Canadians are proud of the part which their armed forces are playing, with those of other contributing states, in attaining this satisfactory result.

In view of the relative quiet which now prevails in that area some member states might be of the opinion that the time has arrived to curtail UNEF's operations. I think we should bear in mind, however, that the reduction of frontier incidents between the United Arab Republic and Israel is due in large measure to the presence of the Force. It would therefore be unfortunate if the contribution of UNEF to more stable conditions in the area should now be jeopardized by a premature limitation of its operations.

All member states have an equal interest in ensuring the continuing effectiveness of the Force. We support the efforts of the Secretary-General to consolidate its financial position. We hope these efforts will receive a degree of co-operation commensurate with the political significance of the UNEF operation and the collective responsibility of all members to maintain international peace and security.

Laos

Finally, Mr. President, I turn to conditions in the Far East. May I say that in our view a notable effort was made at the Geneva Conference in 1954 to establish equilibrium in Indochina. It was an effort at peace-making fully compatible with the United Nations Charter. The principles underlying the Geneva agreements, in particular the principle of non-alignment, should be respected in order to lessen the tension existing in that troubled area.

The United Nations for its part has an important role to perform, not — as has been charged — in upsetting the regime established at Geneva, but in supplementing it with arrangements essential for the long-term stability of the area.

It seems to us that the United Nations must look ahead at this long-term future. True, we have in Laos at present a sub-committee set up by the Security Council and we must await its report upon the facts of the situation there. However, the very presence of this United Nations body seems already to be having a pacifying effect.

There exist in that part of the world a number of newly-established states which are finding their feet as nations in conditions of international tension. These new nations have many needs but by far the greatest are peace and other conditions for material development. We believe that the United Nations has a proper and legitimate interest and concern in this area in which a number of its members are located, including Laos.

Admittedly the efforts of the United Nations to help preserve peace may be seriously hampered by the attitude towards the organization of certain non-

member states directly interested in the problem, but we must hope that such states will as time goes on come to recognize the useful contribution the United Nations can make.

For all these reasons, should the United Nations not now find a way to express its continuing interest in Laos? Such an approach, if it were welcome to Laos, could make a most valuable contribution to stability. We, for our part, have come to the view that some appropriate and continuing expression of United Nations concern is desirable, not only in the interest of the people of Laos but also in the general interest of world peace and security.

In conclusion, Mr. President, I believe this session of the Assembly can go far to bring renewed hope to the people of all lands; they desire, above all else, permanent world peace. We meet in a period when there is some diminution in world tension — largely due to the friendly exchange of visits this year between the leaders of great powers. These visits could be the starting point on a new road which would lead away from all the friction and distrust which have developed since the Second World War. Whether or not they do lead in that direction may very well depend, in large measure, upon the words and actions of the delegates to the present Assembly — and I am sure that we will not fail to meet this great challenge.

The Canadian Delegation

Supporting Mr. Green, the Canadian Delegation to the fourteenth session of the General Assembly, which opened in New York on September 15, is as follows:

Representatives

Mr. Wallace Nesbitt, Q.C., M.P., Vice Chairman of the Delegation.

Senator Gustave Monette, Montreal, Quebec.

Dr. Percy Vivian, Member of Parliament for Durham, Ontario.

Mr. C. S. A. Ritchie, Canadian Permanent Representative to the United Nations in New York.

Alternative Representatives

Mrs. Elaine Holt, Alderman, Peterborough, Ontario.

Mr. Heath N. Macquarrie, Member of Parliament for Queen, Prince Edward Island.

Professor Maxwell Cohen, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec.

Mr. Morley Scott, Department of External Affairs.

Mr. Arthur Irwin, Department of External Affairs.

The Atlantic Congress — The Next Ten Years of NATO

In effect it (the Atlantic Congress) should be outward-looking in terms of geography and forward-looking in terms of time. Given that the Congress is to be on a large scale — indeed perhaps the major event of the Western world since the Congress of Europe in 1948 — it seemed logical that it should include representatives of politics, industry, commerce, finance, labour, education and mass media, in short, the most influential sections of public opinion in our countries.

(J. J. Fens, President, NATO Parliamentarians Conference).

The Atlantic Congress, consisting of more than 600 Parliamentarians and distinguished citizens from NATO countries, met in London from June 5 to 10 to examine the record of the first ten years of NATO and to discuss the prospects for the next ten years. Her Majesty the Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh attended the colourful inaugural ceremonies in Westminster Hall on June 5 at which the opening address was given by the Queen. Mr. Harold Macmillan welcomed the Congress in the name of Her Majesty's Government.

Over 60 Canadian delegates attended the Congress, of whom approximately one-third were Members of Parliament. The remaining delegates had been chosen from the many regions and professions in Canadian life. The Delegation was headed by Mr. H. F. Jones (M.P. for Saskatoon), the Canadian Representative on the Standing Committee of the NATO Parliamentarians Conference (which was responsible for organizing the Congress as a whole). Mr. H. R. Jackson, Q.C., of Toronto, and Mr. P. E. Lafontaine of Montreal, who also represented Canada during preparations for the Congress, assisted Mr. Jones as Deputy Heads of the Canadian Delegation. Senator W. McL. Robertson was a member of the Canadian Delegation as well as participating in the Congress as the Honorary Life President of the NATO Parliamentarians Conference.

Origins of the Congress

Plans for holding an Atlantic Congress, first mooted at the 1957 Conference of NATO Parliamentarians, developed through discussions held among distinguished citizens from the NATO countries. National committees of NATO Parliamentarians were established to promote the project. At the Fourth Annual Conference of NATO Parliamentarians in 1958 final plans for the Congress were agreed upon and made public.

In his role as a patron of the Congress, Prime Minister Diefenbaker extended his best wishes for its success. "NATO", he said, "is not simply a military alliance artificially created to preserve our individual and collective integrities; it is an association of peoples who share a common cultural background, common traditions of respect for the rule of law and common concepts of freedom and human dignity." Mr. Diefenbaker also suggested that the Congress might initiate work which would lead to the Western world restating and defining its purposes and principles in a way which "would give to the

uncommitted world a solemn pledge of willingness to work with them for better economic conditions in which human dignity, equality and tolerance will be universally recognized. The aim should be to achieve a world in which personal liberty, freedom of thought, expression, association and religion will be assured for the betterment of all mankind."

Purposes of the Congress

Certain basic principles guided the organizers of the Congress. They agreed that the success of the Congress would depend on the merit of its theme, the quality of discussion and calibre of the participants. Furthermore, the Congress was to be outward-looking in terms of geography and forward-looking in terms of time. Its task was to examine NATO, and the relations between member countries, but more particularly the relations of the Atlantic Community with the free and uncommitted countries as well as with the Communist bloc. Finally, the Congress was to discuss those subjects on which governments would hesitate to act without a possible and influential public support such as the Congress might provide. The objective of the Congress was summarized by the President of the NATO Parliamentarians Conference as follows:

The first ten years of the Atlantic Alliance have shown that democracies in peacetime can unite for their defence. The next ten years must show that our countries can be as effective, indeed more so, in pursuing a co-ordinated common policy in their relations with each other as partners in a Community, with the nations of the free and uncommitted world, and in the dealings with the Communist bloc.

Congress Schedule and Organization of Debates

It had been agreed in advance that delegates to the Congress would take part in the work of five main committees:

- 1) the Atlantic Spiritual and Cultural Committee,
- 2) Atlantic Political Committee,
- 3) Atlantic Economic Committee,
- 4) Free World Committee,
- 5) Communist Bloc Committee.

Each Committee in its turn was divided into a number of subcommittees.

It was essential that the Congress work quickly and intensively. On June 5 and 6 the topic of each of the main committees was introduced by a distinguished speaker in plenary session, after which the subcommittees met for two days to debate and subsequently to draft reports and resolutions to their main committee. The main committees then drafted a report on behalf of their subcommittees which was submitted to plenary session on June 8 and 9 for adoption. Finally, when these main committee reports and resolutions had been debated and voted in the plenary session, they were turned over to the Congress Declaration Committee, whose principal task was to prepare a declaration containing the essence of the Congress and to present it in such a way as to have the maximum effect on public opinion, both in member countries and outside. The *rapporteur* of this committee, one of the most important in the Congress, was Dr. Northrop Frye of Toronto.

On the final evening a number of distinguished speakers addressed the Congress. These included Mr. Harold Macmillan (Prime Minister of the United Kingdom), Mr. H. Lange (Foreign Minister of Norway), and Mr. P.-H. Spaak (Secretary-General of NATO). Each emphasized the importance of the Congress as a means of making NATO and the Atlantic Community better known and understood among its citizens.

So much for the mechanical structure of the Congress, which was the product of a year's patient planning. The first wish of the organizers had been realized — throughout the Congress, its speakers and officers were persons of repute and influence in public affairs. It remained to be seen whether such complex and important problems could be debated effectively in the time available.

Highlights of the Congress

It is impossible in a short article to do justice to the preparatory studies submitted to the Congress and the subsequent vigorous debates which took place. Indeed it may be some time before the full significance of the Congress is felt, since this in large measure will depend on the degree to which participants can make their point of view, as citizens of the Atlantic Community, felt and appreciated in their own parliamentary and professional circles. Over 100 papers were submitted to the Congress, written by experts, and dealing with spiritual, cultural, political and economic problems of the Alliance, and its relation to the rest of the world.

It is, however, possible to review the highlights of the Congress and its committees as a whole.

“Declaration of Atlantic Unity”

A petition was submitted to the Congress in its early stages by the original sponsors in the United Kingdom and the United States on the declaration of Atlantic Unity and supported by a large number of signatories from each country.

The petition emphasized the need for greatly increased NATO co-operation over a large field of subjects, although it was recognized that it would perhaps be difficult at this stage to seek far-reaching institutional changes in the existing NATO machinery. In the political field the petition asked the Congress to support the following:

- 1) a continuing conference of government-appointed leading citizens on Atlantic Community problems (this resolution also formed part of the NATO Parliamentarians Conference resolutions of 1957);
- 2) annual meetings of heads of NATO governments;
- 3) the according of higher status to Permanent Representatives on the NATO Council in order to give them the equivalent of cabinet rank;
- 4) the adoption by the North Atlantic Council of “certain decisions” by less than unanimous vote;
- 5) the appointment of a small group of “wise men” to advise the NATO Council;

- 6) the co-ordination of policies where possible within the United Nations and other international agencies;
- 7) recognition of the right of the NATO Parliamentarians Conference to advise the NATO Council and in turn receive an annual report from the Secretary General.

In the economic field the petition recommended general economic measures appropriate to an Atlantic Community and, more specifically, recommended the evolution of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation into an Organization for Atlantic Economic Co-operation; in addition the petition recommended an Atlantic investment and development fund. In the cultural field the petition supported the establishment of an Atlantic Institute to be the intellectual focus of the Atlantic Community.

While the petition was never voted on as a whole by the Congress, its individual points were pursued by its signatories in the various committees and subcommittees. It was generally agreed that on the basis of the final resolutions, the sponsors of the petition could be well content that most, if not all, of their main proposals had found their way into the final reports and resolutions of the Congress, either in whole or in part.

Atlantic Spiritual and Cultural Committee

The work of this Committee was introduced in plenary session by the Archbishop of York and dealt with the moral and spiritual values of the Atlantic Community, as well as with education and information matters.



ATLANTIC CONGRESS

Her Majesty the Queen opening the Atlantic Congress in Westminster Hall, London, on June 5, 1959.

In common with the other main committees, the Spiritual and Cultural Committee emphasized that the Atlantic Community must be outward-looking and cognisant of problems outside its own area. Following a general statement of moral and spiritual values, it passed a series of resolutions on information, education in schools and universities and on the proposal for an Atlantic Institute. The resolutions on education in schools and universities were largely concerned with teaching of international affairs and further exchanges of professors and students. The free world was also asked to do more to ensure that Asian and African languages were studied in Western countries.

The field of information is always a difficult and even an abstract subject for debate. However, the Congress agreed that there was a need for a more active information programme since public opinion in the free world itself seemed poorly informed about NATO and about the marked increase in political consultation within NATO which had taken place over the last two years. As the Secretary-General of NATO and others have publicly stated many times, the habit of political consultation within the Alliance is indeed a new and exciting form of diplomacy and one about which the public should be better informed. The Congress also considered that national governments should increase their information programmes regarding NATO and that much more assistance should be given to the various voluntary organizations in support of NATO.

The establishment of an Atlantic Institute was the subject of vigorous debate. This subject had been mooted in many forums for many years and the officers of the relevant subcommittee had prepared for discussion a recommendation that an institute be established somewhat along the lines of Chatham House in the United Kingdom. The majority of the subcommittee and of the Congress as a whole appeared from the outset to favour the establishment of such an institute. However, a number of speakers opposed the establishment of any new institute. While recognizing the importance of research and seminar work with regard to the Atlantic Community in its many fields of endeavour, the opponents emphasized that existing universities and institutions could be used with less risk of failure and less expense. Some speakers also pointed to a reluctance in some academic circles to view the Atlantic Community as an entity for purposes of academic study.

However, both in the subcommittee and in the final plenary debate a large majority voted for a separate institute which was to be planned by a group of persons chosen by the Congress Preparatory Committee.

Political Committee

The subcommittee in the Political Committee dealt with (1) co-ordination of and settlement of disputes between member countries, (2) Atlantic institutions and, (3) military questions.

The majority of members in this group took a practical view of the difficulty of effecting any fundamental institutional changes in NATO machinery, while emphasizing the necessity for a marked increase in Atlantic co-operation in many fields. This committee supported the appointment by governments of a special conference of not more than 100 leading citizens to study greater co-operation and unity within the Atlantic Community. They also supported

the proposal for annual meetings of NATO heads of government. A proposal to set up a NATO Court of Justice to deal with, amongst other things, inter-member disputes, was debated and considered to be too complex for immediate recommendation. Accordingly, this question was deferred for further study. The committee also recommended that the powers of the Secretary-General to express "even more fully the point of view of the Alliance" should be strengthened. In conclusion the North Atlantic Council and member governments were requested to inform the next NATO Parliamentarians Conference of the measures taken to implement these various resolutions.

There was considerable discussion, in this committee and elsewhere, of the current international situation and of the position of satellite countries. A motion was passed endorsing the determination of the Western nations to safeguard the freedom of the people of West Berlin. With regard to the satellite nations, it was generally agreed that while the West could not contemplate the liberation of these countries by force without causing a general conflict, the free world must stand ready to help them in every other way possible to achieve the political liberty of which they have so long been deprived.

The subcommittee dealing with defence problems debated in particular NATO strategy, control of atomic weapons, defence production problems and command structure. In general this group, and subsequently the Congress, expressed concern that the NATO forces in Europe had not reached the standard required by the NATO military authorities, nor had co-operation in defence production been achieved to the desired degree. Delegates were worried about the continuing apparent lack of unification in European air defence and what they considered to be certain command structure problems. There was considerable discussion, both in committee and in plenary sessions, about the desirability of designating a small group of NATO nations to plan NATO global strategy, but in general the Congress was opposed to any change in the present machinery. The Congress also noted both progress and problems with regard to the stationing of atomic weapons on the soil of member countries, but expressed the hope that NATO governments would "urgently re-examine the size, structure and control of NATO's atomic forces".

Atlantic Economic Committee

Inevitably, committee discussions overlapped. One of the main subjects of discussion at the Congress, regardless of the committee structure, was the need for the West to remain economically as well as militarily strong, and at the same time, to provide "massive assistance" to the under-developed countries. The Atlantic Economic Committee, while dealing generally with these subjects, was not unique in coming to the above conclusions.

The Atlantic Economic Committee proposed that any economic gap in the Atlantic Community should be bridged by transforming the Organization for European Economic Co-operation into an Atlantic Economic Co-operation Organization. The Committee also proposed the establishment of a "world development corporation in which the peoples of the world will have an opportunity to be investors and owners, and which will provide long-term credits or equity capital, either directly or by subsidiary companies, in each nation. This will reinforce governmental aids and credits with private capital flowing from and to peoples."

Free World Committee

The work of the Free World Committee was closely linked with that of the Atlantic Economic Committee. It was originally designed to focus on what was, by general agreement, the major problem discussed by the Congress — that is, the relationship between the Atlantic Community and the rest of the world. In this problem moral, spiritual and political considerations loomed large in debate, but it was agreed that “freedom from want is the positive aspect on which the Atlantic Community must concentrate its immediate efforts”. Speakers emphasized time and time again that the Atlantic Community was in fact larger than the present membership of NATO.

Here, too, opinion was deeply split over whether economic aid to the less-developed countries should be channeled through a new agency of the free world, or whether such aid should be channeled as much as possible through the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies. This division of opinion was subsequently carried to the floor of the plenary session where those who supported a new free-world agency again gained a slight majority. Voting remained to the end almost evenly divided. The adoption of an agreed final resolution was only possible through the inclusion of a provision for an international development association, providing that it “could work either directly or through and with appropriate existing international and regional organizations, including the World Bank and other organs of the United Nations”. The proposed international development agency was to include “all nations willing to participate, and should be broader than and independent of NATO”.

In addition to the provision of development funds, this Committee discussed technical assistance and trade policy problems relating to the relations of the free world with the less-developed countries. The discussions regarding technical assistance emphasized the large amount of experience now available in that field. The Committee stressed that aid and technical assistance were not substitutes for trade and that particular attention would therefore have to be given to providing markets for goods from less-developed countries and from countries heavily dependent on one or two export items.

Communist Bloc Countries Committee

In common with the others, the Communist Bloc Countries Committee placed particular emphasis on the need for the West to maintain its defensive strength in order to deal with military problems in its own area, while turning to the field of economic aid to less-developed countries as the principal field for positive free-world action. Once again emphasis was placed on the need for low-interest, long-term credits and loans, provision of development funds, along with trade policy adjustments and technical assistance.

There was disagreement about the role, if any, NATO should play in propaganda work. A majority supported the following two specific recommendations:

- 1) the creation of a NATO division for ideological warfare with liaison agencies in member states and,
- 2) the establishment of an international unofficial organization “for the purpose of diffusing throughout the world basic information which

will help people to understand more clearly the ideological aggression of totalitarian Communism and to appreciate the true value of liberty".

Declarations Committee

The Declarations Committee, of which Dr. Frye of Toronto was *rappor- teur*, intended to make a synthesis of the various resolutions in the form of a declaration which would sum up the essence of the Congress in a manner designed to appeal to public opinion, both in NATO countries and outside. In the event, it proved difficult to get agreement on more than a declaration listing the main points of agreement as they appeared in the final resolutions of the various committees. Nevertheless, the message of the declaration was clear: the Atlantic Community not only exists and continues to develop, but must increase its co-operation and activities. It must, in short, be less apologetic and identify itself in a positive way before world opinion. Without any drastic changes in its structure or its purposes as stated in the Treaty, NATO should act now, particularly with regard to economically less-fortunate areas of the world. At the same time its spiritual, political and defensive strength would have to be made better known to public opinion, both in member countries and elsewhere.

Canadian Delegation

The Canadian Delegation was one of the largest and most active at the Congress. A number of papers were prepared by members of the Canadian Delegation for submission to the Conference in advance to assist in discussion. Many of its members played prominent parts as officers of the Political Committee, the subcommittee on the Atlantic Institute, the Free World Economic Committee and, of course, the Declarations Committee. The size and structure of the Canadian Delegation, and the part played by its members in debate, was excellent evidence of Canada's interest in NATO.

Conclusion

It is inevitable that, in this article, there has not been space to single out individual contributions to the Congress. There were over 600 delegates, who at one time were meeting in over 20 subcommittees, and there was an agenda of great variety and interest to cover in a short period of five days.

It has also been impossible to do justice to the vigorous and well-informed quality of the debates and of the study papers submitted to the Congress. If the final reports and resolutions were inevitably the result of hard-fought compromise, this was an indispensable requirement for debate and the formulation of ideas.

Of the many important ideas that were put forward at the Congress, the concept of an outward-looking Atlantic Community, interested in a true partnership with other nations of the world, came forward as the dominant theme. The Congress agreed that economic aid had not in the past been given enough consideration. Such aid would have to come from an Atlantic Community whose spiritual and moral values had led it to understand the problems of

the less-developed countries, and to take an interest in the solution of these problems for their own sake, and not purely as part of current international strife.

The Congress also contributed proposals of specific interest to be followed up and given immediate study. The idea of an international development fund remains to be clarified, and the division of opinion in the Congress further investigated in order to get the best-informed opinion on the provision of development funds to less-developed countries. A committee of the Congress will also begin intensive work on the organization and the financing of an Atlantic Institute to do research and seminar work on Atlantic Community problems. The Atlantic Congress warned that the free world was in danger of splitting into three economic groups and therefore the idea of an organization for Atlantic economic co-operation should stimulate new thought on these problems. Moreover, the Congress put forward many suggestions regarding the further development of NATO as a political organization, and these presumably will remain under active consideration by the NATO Parliamentarians Conference.

There seemed little doubt at the Atlantic Congress that a vigorous Atlantic Community existed and would continue to exist. There was a healthy and frank variety of opinion on the best means of making this Community express itself in international affairs. It seems fair to say that the effects of the Congress will therefore be long-term and based on the continuing work of its participants in support of NATO, rather than purely on the discussions and resolutions of their five memorable days in London.

The Santiago Conference

THE Fifth Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the twenty-one member republics of the Organization of American States (OAS) took place in Santiago, Chile, from August 12 to August 18, 1959, to consider the international tension in the Caribbean area.

Meetings of Consultation are held in accordance with articles 39-47 inclusive of the Charter of the OAS, which provide *inter alia* that any member state may call for such a meeting to be held "to consider problems of an urgent nature and of common interest to the American states." The urgency of the Caribbean situation in the eyes of the American republics is indicated by the fact that Meetings of Consultation are held only rarely and that it was the only one of the five meetings held since 1939 to study a problem involving only the members of the OAS. Previous meetings had considered world-wide questions:

1. The Panama City meeting of September 1939 considered the ways and means of maintaining the neutrality of the American Continent in the light of the war which had just broken out in Europe.
2. The Havana meeting in July 1940 looked into the consequences of the possible transfer of European possessions in America to another non-American power in view of the German occupation of France and The Netherlands.
3. The third meeting, in Rio de Janeiro, in January 1942, was called to adopt measures for the defence of the Western Hemisphere following the Japanese attack against the United States in December 1941.
4. In Washington in 1951, the fourth meeting devised the co-ordination of common measures for resisting the aggressive activities of international communism, in the light of the aggression in Korea.

Background of Events

The Caribbean region has been in a state of extreme tension most of this year due to rumours and threats of impending invasions against one country or another. Beginning in late April, three countries — Panama, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic — stated that they had been invaded by small groups of "revolutionaries", many of whom appeared to be soldiers of fortune and nationals of countries other than the one being invaded. In the first two cases, meeting with little local support, the invaders soon surrendered to government forces.

The third invasion, which took place in the Dominican Republic in mid-June, was put down by Government forces within a few days. The Dominican Government claimed that this invasion was of an "international character" and called upon the Organization of American States to condemn Cuba and Venezuela for alleged moral encouragement and provision of military equipment to the invaders. The Cuban and Venezuelan Governments argued that this invasion was a purely Dominican affair, beyond the scope of the OAS, and stated that they would not permit the OAS to investigate their alleged complicity in the incident. The Rio Treaty (Inter-American Treaty of Reci-

procal Assistance), under which the signatories agree that an armed attack against one American state is an attack against all, was of little use in settling this conflict, since the Council of the OAS was unable to decide whether the Dominican invasion was an internal affair or international in character. The majority of the Council decided that only the Foreign Ministers of the American republics could deal adequately with this delicate issue with any hope of stabilizing the whole Caribbean area. A Meeting of Consultation was accordingly called.

Fifth Meeting of Consultation

The Agenda for the meeting read as follows:

1. For the purpose of maintaining peace in the Americas, consideration of the situation of international tension in the Caribbean area in its general and several aspects, in the light of the principles and standards that govern the inter-American system, and of means to assure the observance by states of the principles of non-intervention and non-aggression.
2. Effective exercise of representative democracy and respect for human rights, including:
 - a) doctrinal study, taking into account the strict maintenance of the principle of non-intervention, of the possible juridical relation between the effective respect for human rights and the exercise of representative democracy, and the right to set in motion the machinery provided by American positive international law;
 - b) procedure that will make it possible to measure compliance with two fundamental principles of American international law: the effective exercise of representative democracy and respect for human rights; and measures that should be taken in cases of noncompliance with those principles.

President Jorge Alessandri of Chile inaugurated the meeting on August 12. In his address, he urged the American republics to seek peaceful settlements of disputes and to strengthen the inter-American system, since it is imperative that peace, freedom and law prevail throughout the Western Hemisphere. Touching on a theme that was reiterated by the majority of the American Foreign Ministers in their speeches, President Alessandri referred to non-intervention as a fundamental principle of the American states, remarking that: "What is at stake is the very basis of our American institutions. Intervention is a plot against liberty, and we can never accept any relaxation of the principle of non-intervention".

United States Secretary of State Christian A. Herter then outlined the four principles of the OAS Charter which he considered were particularly pertinent to the situation facing the Organization in the Caribbean. The first two were the principles of non-intervention and collective security, which he described as forming the basis for peace and independence on this continent. The last two were the principle of the effective exercise of representative democracy and respect for human rights, and the principle of co-operation for economic and social progress. Mr. Herter observed: "Our problem today is to restore the traditional balance between peace on the one hand, and freedom and progress on the other, by giving a proper emphasis to each of these four outstanding principles".

During a series of speeches made by the Foreign Ministers on the second day of the Conference, Mr. Herter spoke again and outlined the position of his Government as follows:

We are concerned about this situation first of all because the United States borders upon the Caribbean — we therefore cannot escape involvement in many of the effects produced by the international tensions in that area.

We are also concerned about these tensions as a member of the Organization of American States. Any breach in the peaceful and friendly relations among the American states has repercussions throughout the inter-American community. Any weakening in efficiency of the inter-American procedures and principles is a threat to the important structure of the relationship developed within the Organization of American States.

Finally, the United States is concerned over the Caribbean situation from the standpoint of the position of the Americas in the world as a whole. The inter-American system, and the Organization of American States, constitute one of the bulwarks of freedom in a world that continues to be threatened by the aggressive and imperialistic designs of international communism. The maintenance of a strong inter-American system is therefore an integral part of the supreme effort in which all of us participate to preserve our liberties and the finer aspects of civilization itself.

* * *

Today throughout the Caribbean area we find the ferment of popular demand for improvement and change. In common with the peoples of most other parts of the world, the peoples of the Caribbean area are seeking to increase their material welfare, to raise their cultural standards, and to win for themselves a greater degree of individual liberty. This movement for change has focused upon two great objectives: the development of the economies of the countries of the region, with a view to raising the levels of living of the common people, and the more effective exercise of representative democracy based upon respect for the rights of man.

This is as it should be. The Government and people of the United States share these objectives, and wish to lend all friendly and proper support to their achievement by the peoples of all the American republics.

This movement for change which has made such significant progress in some respects, has also created difficult problems for the governments of this region. During the past few months at least three countries have been attacked by armed expeditions coming from outside their borders. Other governments have indicated their concern over threats of attack from abroad. During this period several governments have been menaced by viciously hostile propaganda attacks originating in other countries. Thus, both internal and international tensions have grown throughout the Caribbean region. Our concern at this meeting is not with these individual cases, but with the effect of the present situation in the Caribbean upon the cooperative efforts of the American states to preserve their peace and to promote the political, economic and cultural welfare of their peoples.

The most important foundation stone of the relationship which has been developed in this hemisphere is the principle of non-intervention by any American state in the affairs of any other American state.

The United States has accepted this principle and with the years has become increasingly convinced of its importance to the entire inter-American relationship. The non-intervention principle is essential to confidence among the 21 member Governments of this Organization — and that confidence is, in turn, essential to creative effort and progress in the collective achievement of the great purposes set forth in the charter of our organization.

However, in the Caribbean the principle of non-intervention has been subjected to serious strain. Information gathered by the committees appointed by the Council of the OAS, acting under the Treaty of Rio de Janeiro, established that several of the revolutionary efforts directed at governments in the Caribbean area have set out from other countries, despite the provisions of the Havana Convention of 1928. Moreover, it appears that at least some of these expeditions were organized in other countries with the knowledge and consent of officials whose governments were pledged to prevent such action. Expeditions have obtained arms from official sources in other countries, despite public declarations of policy to the contrary.

* * *

I do not wish to speculate on what the motives may have been behind these interventionist activities. Yet, whether or not they were commendable, we cannot conduct our inter-American relations on the theory that the end justifies the means, and that the Charter and other treaties may be flouted at will.

* * *

We are equally convinced, however, that the basis for the soundest and most durable growth of democratic institutions within a country stems from the people themselves. History has shown that attempts to impose democracy upon a country by force from without may easily result in the mere substitution of one form of tyranny for another. We therefore believe that there is a great distinction to be observed between moral support for democratic principles which will encourage the peoples of all countries to work toward democratic goals, and attempts by other countries to promote the overthrow of governments by use of force in the hope of establishing democracy.

* * *

The United States recognizes that the lack of democratic fulfillment has been an important factor contributing to recent unrest and tensions in the Caribbean, and at other times elsewhere in the Americas.

I suggest that the approach of the Organization of American States to this problem should be essentially of a positive, rather than a negative character.

* * *

The United States stands ready to consider sympathetically proposals of the other member states of the Organization which offer a genuine opportunity to assist progress toward the achievement of effective democracy and respect for human rights. We realize, of course, that it may be necessary to provide for further study by the competent organs of the Organization of matters which cannot be satisfactorily and definitely resolved at this emergency meeting.

After two days of plenary session and a meeting of the General Committee, the Conference created working committees on August 14 to deal with several resolutions which had been submitted by 16 of the member countries. The first working committee dealt with political tensions, the second handled various resolutions on human rights, democracy and non-intervention. A third working committee, which was actually a sub-committee of the second, was eventually created, consisting of delegations sponsoring human and political rights resolutions.

Final Act

The Provisional Final Act of the Fifth Meeting of Consultation was signed by the Foreign Ministers on August 18. It included 16 resolutions accepted with a minimum of reservations on the part of all participants. The most significant of these resolutions appear to be No. I, the Declaration of Santiago de Chile; No. IV, on the Inter-American Peace Committee; and No. XI, on Economic Under-development and Preservation of Democracy.

The Declaration of Santiago expresses the general aspiration of the American people to live in peace under the direction of democratic institutions free from all intervention and all totalitarian influence; considers the several past resolutions of the OAS taken to further these general aims; and declares:

1. The principle of the rule of law should be assured by the separation of powers, and by the control of the legality of governmental acts by competent organs of the state.
2. The governments of the American republics should be derived from free elections.
3. Perpetuation in power, or the exercise of power without a fixed term and with the manifest intent of perpetuation, is incompatible with the effective exercise of democracy.
4. The governments of the American states should ensure a system of freedom for the individual and social justice based on respect for fundamental human rights.
5. The human rights incorporated into the legislation of the various American states should be protected by effective judicial procedures.
6. The systematic use of political proscription is contrary to American democratic order.
7. Freedom of the press, of radio and television, and, in general, freedom of information and expression, are essential conditions for the existence of a democratic regime.
8. The American states, in order to strengthen democratic institutions, should co-operate among themselves within the limits of their resources and the framework of their laws so as to strengthen and develop their economic structure, and achieve just and humane living conditions for their peoples.

Resolution IV of the Final Act re-constitutes the Inter-American Peace Committee (IAPC), which was formed in 1940 with the duty "of keeping constant vigilance to ensure that states between which any dispute exists or may arise of any nature whatsoever may solve it as quickly as possible and of suggesting, without detriment to methods adopted by parties or to procedures which they may agree upon, the measures and steps which may be conducive to a settlement". The IAPC was used for the first time in 1949, when the Dominican Republic called upon it to resolve a controversy with Haiti, and it handled seven more cases of conflict in the Caribbean and Central American areas during the early 1950's. The committee had not been active since 1956.

Before the Fifth Meeting of Consultation of OAS Foreign Ministers, the Organization also had the mechanism of the 1947 Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance (Rio de Janeiro Treaty) for dealing with major conflicts involving the American states. This Treaty responded only to clear-cut cases of aggression between two states and a positive vote by 14 of the 21 American republics was required before action could be taken. As was indicated earlier, it was the fact that neither the Rio Treaty nor the IAPC seemed adequate instruments to handle the recent Caribbean disturbances which resulted in the convening of the Santiago meeting. In the operative part of Resolution IV, the American states now resolve:

1. To entrust to the Inter-American Peace Committee the study of the questions that were the subject of the convocation of this meeting, without prejudice to the special competency of other agencies, and to this end it shall examine:
 - a) methods and procedures to prevent any activities from abroad designed to overthrow established governments or provoke instances of intervention or acts of aggression as referred to in treaties in force, such as the Convention on Duties and Rights of States in the Event of Civil Strife and without impairment to:
 - (i) the rights and liberties of political exiles recognized in the Convention on Territorial Asylum; (ii) the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man; and (iii) the national constitutions of the American states;
 - b) the relationship between violations of human rights or the non-exercise of representative democracy, on the one hand, and the political tensions that affect the peace of the hemisphere, on the other; and
 - c) the relationship between economic under-development and political instability.
2. The Committee may take action, in the performance of its duties, in regard to the subject matter referred to in paragraph 1 of this resolution at the request of governments or on its own initiative, although in either case its activity is subject to the express consent of the states in the case of investigations that would have to be made in their respective territories.
3. The Committee shall immediately initiate broad studies on the questions to which paragraph 1, of this resolution refers, except for those situations governed by other international instruments, and it shall prepare a preliminary report so that the American governments may formulate their observations. This report shall be followed by a definitive report, which is to be presented at the Eleventh Inter-American Conference or, if necessary, to the Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, so that any pertinent decisions may be made.
4. The new powers that this resolution grants temporarily to the Inter-American Peace Committee shall be effective until the close of the Eleventh Inter-American Conference, which shall make the decision as to their definitive inclusion in the statutes of the said Committee.

Resolution XI, finally, calls for increased economic co-operation among the member states of the Organization and the prompt and effective implementation of existing recommendations. The operative part of this Resolution reads as follows:

To recommend that, in view of the forthcoming Eleventh Inter-American Conference, the American governments exert every effort to the end that the Council of the Organization of American States and the other organizations from which action has been called for will promptly and effectively implement the measures proposed by the Special Committee to Study the Formulation of New Measures for Economic Co-operation, of the Council of the Organization of American States, which have already been approved by the Council of the Organization and are designed to establish new foundations for economic co-operation among the American states.

Spain and the OEEC

ON JULY 20, 1959, after years of active economic isolation, Spain became a full-member of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation. The stabilization programme now to be put into effect will bring the structure of the Spanish economy much more in line with that of other Western countries. This development is welcomed by Canada as an important move by Spain towards liberalization and multilateralism in its international trade relations.

The accession of Spain to the OEEC required a fundamental change in her economic, trade and financial policies. After the Second World War, Spain declined to take part in the Marshall Plan, which was implemented at the same time that the OEEC was created; neither did Spain participate subsequently in the different international organizations for economic co-operation and European integration.

Since 1954, the development of the Spanish economy has been marked by strong inflationary pressures and increasing balance of payments difficulties; imports have risen rapidly in keeping with increasing domestic requirements, while exports have remained relatively stable. In the first six months of 1959, however, a levelling of inflationary pressures has permitted relaxation in import restrictions and the reorientation of economic policies to meet the requirements of the OEEC membership, without further weakening Spain's financial position.

External Economic Activities

In 1955, Spain began participating in the agricultural work of the Organization and acquired observer status in some of its other activities. At that time Spain's economy was clearly not in a position to permit the multilateral liberalization of trade and the elimination of multiple rates of exchange.

In early 1958, Spain became a member of the International Monetary Fund and of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and an associate member of the OEEC. Thus she could participate in all of its activities without immediately having to meet the obligations of full membership. In April 1958, on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the Organization, Spain's Foreign Minister presented a stabilization plan providing for the progressive liberalization of Spain's trade restrictions. This plan was based largely on Spain's ability to obtain substantial credit facilities from abroad. The proposals were limited to possible target dates for the abolition of restrictions on a number of imports, but the principle was recognized that liberalization should proceed as fast as the balance of payments permitted and as fast as the economy could sustain increasing production to supply the domestic market and expand exports.

In the autumn of 1958 the first steps were taken to reach a uniform exchange rate by extending the import tariffs to cover the majority of imports, thus eliminating a strong element of discrimination existing between different import commodities. Following renewed consideration of the Spanish application in May 1959, an OEEC mission was sent to Madrid to discuss a final

draft for a stabilization plan with the Spanish authorities. These discussions led to agreement on a programme providing for a realistic rate of exchange for the peseta (60-\$1U.S.), the abolition of the import licence system and the liberalization of some 50 per cent of total imports, mostly raw materials and spare parts. Quotas on most of the remaining goods were to be "globalized" (i.e. put on a world basis) and certain imports amounting to 10 per cent of the total were to remain under specific quotas for bilateral agreements.

The plan was finally approved by both parties and on July 20 Spain became a full Member of the Organization for European Economic Co-Operation.

The Chicago Diversion

THE 86th Congress of the United States, on the first day of its session on January 6, 1959, had introduced before it a Bill, entitled HR1, which would have authorized a temporary increase in the amount of water which the Chicago Sanitary District would be permitted to divert from Lake Michigan into the Mississippi River Basin. Since this water would be lost to the Great Lakes Basin, the Canadian Government registered its objections to any such authorization in a number of Notes to the United States Government.

Following are the texts of the exchanges which took place between the two Governments on this matter between January 6, 1959 and September 1, 1959. The complete exchange during this period includes:

An Aide-Memoire delivered to the Department of External Affairs on February 9, 1959.

An Aide-Memoire delivered by the Department on February 20, 1959.

Note Number 184 delivered by the Canadian Embassy in Washington on April 9, 1959*.

Note delivered to the Canadian Embassy in Washington on June 12, 1959.

Note Number 368 delivered by the Canadian Embassy in Washington on June 22, 1959.

Note Number 530 delivered by the Canadian Embassy in Washington on August 20, 1959.

Aide-Mémoire of February 9, 1959

The Canadian Government has on various occasions in the past furnished the Department of State with the Canadian views on proposed United States legislation aimed at increasing the diversion from Lake Michigan into the Illinois Waterway. The most recent comments of this nature were contained in an Aide-Mémoire received on January 6, 1958, from the Canadian Embassy in Washington.

Once again this year, as in recent years, a considerable volume of legislation looking to increased diversion from Lake Michigan at Chicago has been introduced in the 86th Congress. Some of this legislation is similar to former legislation with regard to which Canadian views have previously been expressed. A number of other pending Bills, however, such as H.R. 1, a copy of which is enclosed, call for one-year additional diversion period to be made as part of a three-year study of the effect on Lake Michigan and on the Illinois Waterway of such an increased diversion.

Congressional hearings on this legislation are scheduled to begin in the near future. During the course of these hearings it is anticipated that the Department of State will be asked to submit a statement as to the present Canadian views. It is hoped, therefore, that the Canadian Government will be able to transmit to the Embassy at an early date its views with respect to that proposed legislation which would authorize an additional 1,000 cubic feet of water per second to be diverted from Lake Michigan into the Illinois Waterway, for a period of one year as part of a three-year study.

Embassy of the United States of America,
Ottawa, February 9, 1959.

*Note — No 184 appeared in the June issue of "External Affairs".

Aide-Mémoire of February 20, 1959

On a number of occasions in the past, the Canadian Government has expressed its objections to proposals envisaging increased diversions of water from Lake Michigan at Chicago. Once again, and at the invitation of the Government of the United States through the United States Embassy's Aide-Mémoire of February 9, 1959, the Government of Canada is anxious to make known its views on legislative proposals now before Congress such as Bill H.R.1, which are intended to authorize an increased diversion of water from the Great Lakes Basin into the Illinois Waterway.

While recognizing that the use of Lake Michigan waters is a matter within the jurisdiction of the United States of America, it is the considered opinion of the Canadian Government that any authorization for an additional diversion would be incompatible with the arrangements for the St. Lawrence seaway and power development, and with the Niagara Treaty of 1950, and would be prejudicial to navigation and power development which these mutual arrangements were designed to improve and facilitate.

The point has been made repeatedly by Canada that every withdrawal of water from the Basin means less depth available for shipping in harbours and in channels. Additional withdrawals would have adverse effects on the hydro-electric generation potential on both sides of the border at Niagara Falls and in the international section of the St. Lawrence River, as well as in the Province of Quebec, and would inflict hardship on communities and industries on both sides of the border.

The Government of Canada therefore protests against the implementation of proposals contained in H.R.1.

Ottawa, February 20, 1959.

U.S. Note of June 12, 1959

Excellency:

I have the honor to refer to your Note No. 184 of April 9, expressing the concern of your Government with regard to legislative proposals to increase the diversion of water from Lake Michigan at Chicago, which are now pending before the United States Congress.

The Department transmitted copies of this Note to the Committee on Public Works of the United States Senate on April 16. Additionally, the Department has been giving careful study to its contents with particular regard to the allegations therein that certain enumerated agreements and understandings between the United States and Canada would be broken should unilateral action be taken to increase the diversion from the Great Lakes Watershed at Chicago. It is to be noted in this connection that the Department is not in accord with all of the points made by your Government in the aforesaid Note and consequently must reserve its position with respect to those allegations of a legal nature contained therein.

The Department considers that further consultation between representatives of our two Governments might prove useful. Accordingly, we would be pleased to receive the views of your Government on the desirability of such consultation taking place in the near future.

Accept, Excellency, the renewed assurances of my highest consideration.

Ivan B. White
for the Acting Secretary of State.

Department of State,
Washington, D.C.,
June 12, 1959.

Canadian Note of June 22, 1959

No. 368

Sir,

I have the honour to refer to your Note of June 12 in reply to my previous Note No. 184 of April 9, concerning legislative proposals to increase the diversion of water from Lake Michigan at Chicago, which are now pending before the United States Congress. Your Note was tabled in the House of Commons on June 17 by the Secretary of State for External Affairs. A copy of the Statement made on this occasion by my Minister is attached.

In reply to the proposal contained in your Note that further consultations be held between representatives of our two Governments, I am instructed by my Government to say that a substantive reply on this matter will soon be made.

A. D. P. Heeney

The Canadian Embassy,
Washington, D.C.,
June 22, 1959.

Canadian Note of Aug. 20, 1959

No. 530

Sir,

I have the honour to refer to my Note No. 184 of April 9, 1959, concerning legislative proposals to increase the diversion of water from Lake Michigan at Chicago.

I am instructed to inform you that the Government of Canada has taken note of the recent legislative developments in the United States concerning this matter. In this connection, I am to advise you that the Government of Canada explicitly reaffirms the position set forth at length in the above-mentioned Note. In the view of my Government any additional diversion of water out of the Great Lakes Watershed would be inconsistent with existing agreements and arrangements which together constitute an agreed regime with respect to these waters. The proposed unilateral derogation from the existing regime therefore occasions serious concern in Canada.

A. D. P. Heeney

The Canadian Embassy,
Washington, D.C.,
August 20, 1959.

The Laotian Crisis before the Security Council

IN a dramatic and sudden appeal made on September 4, 1959, to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, the Government of Laos requested assistance of the international body and, in particular, the despatching to Laos of an emergency force with the greatest possible speed "to halt aggression and prevent it spreading". The Laotian appeal was the result of a situation which had been building up in that country during the previous months. This communication was the final step in a series of initiatives undertaken by the Royal Laotian Government to focus the attention of the United Nations on the increasing difficulties it had been encountering since the beginning of this year.

Background of Present Situation

To understand the current troubles, one has to go back to the Geneva Agreements of 1954 which ended the Indochinese War. These agreements guaranteed the independence of the small kingdom of Laos but in fact left the country divided, since, pending a political settlement, the fighting units of the Communist-oriented Pathet Lao were to be concentrated in the northern provinces of Phong Saly and Sam Neua. An International Commission, composed of India, Poland and Canada, was set up to supervise the implementation of the Cease Fire Agreement for Laos. Laotian unity appeared to have been restored when the Royal Laotian Government and the Pathet Lao signed the Vientiane Agreement in November 1957, constituting the political settlement foreseen by the Cease Fire Agreement. A government of national unity was to be formed, including members of the Neo Lao Haksat, political successor to the Pathet Lao; the two northern provinces were to be brought under the jurisdiction of the central government; and the Pathet Lao forces were to be integrated into the National Army. After the holding of supplementary elections in May 1958, the International Commission decided to adjourn *sine die*, and left the country in July 1958. Following a period of coalition Government, Mr. Phoui Sananikone came into power in August 1958 and the Neo Lao Haksat members of the Cabinet were dropped. Two months later the first border incident between Laos and North Vietnam was reported. In May 1959, difficulties arose in connection with the integration of the two Pathet Lao battalions into the National Army. One refused to accept the Government's terms and escaped in the direction of the North Vietnam border.

United Nations Informed

This situation in Laos entered a new phase at the beginning of last August when the Government of Laos, on receiving reports that fighting had broken out in northeastern Laos between the Pathet Lao and government forces, informed the Secretary-General of the situation and claimed that North Vietnam was giving active assistance to the rebels. In this communication, however, the Royal Government did not appeal for assistance. Later, on

August 14, it was announced that Laos was sending a special envoy to New York to request the Secretary-General to suggest ways of achieving a peaceful settlement between Laos and Communist China and North Vietnam.

In a press release issued on August 27, the Secretary-General noted that he had on occasion sent a personal representative to assist in resolving a conflict at the joint request of the countries concerned. He had also, in problems concerning only one member country, acted on the invitation of that country. He could not, however, arrange a mission to Laos without prior decision by the General Assembly or the Security Council, or an invitation from Laos and the other country concerned. He stated that an alternative might be a joint initiative by the two Co-Chairmen of the Geneva Conference. He could, of course, send a representative to Laos only, with terms of reference limiting his task to developments proper to Laos itself, but this would not seem to serve the intended purpose.

Appeal for UN Emergency Force

It was against this background and a reported deteriorating military situation that Laos appealed for a United Nations emergency force on September 4. On September 7, at the suggestion of the Secretary-General (he cut short a South American tour and flew to New York upon receipt of this appeal), a meeting of the Security Council was called by its current President, Aegidio Ortona of Italy, to take up the Laotian complaint. The Soviet Delegate, Mr. Sobolev, objected strongly to the holding of this meeting and to the adoption of its agenda on the ground that the Government of Laos had not appealed to the Security Council itself, and that the Secretary-General was not doing so under the powers that are granted to him by Article 99 of the Charter. The agenda, however, was adopted by a vote of 10 to 1 (U.S.S.R.) under the heading "Report by the Secretary-General on the Letter Received from the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Royal Government of Laos, Transmitted by a Note from the Permanent Mission of Laos to the United Nations September 4, 1959".

The Secretary-General was then given the floor to present his report in which he reviewed briefly the story of his consultation with interested parties up to the last Laotian Note of September 4. In the course of the first half of the year, he went on to say, various communications on the difficulties encountered by Laos were received by the United Nations and he himself had consultations with interested people in this connection. These consultations and communications provided him with the background necessary for informal studies "regarding the possibilities open to the organization to be of assistance, obviously without impairing the Geneva Agreements or interfering with the arrangements which are based on them". The main aim of these studies was "to help towards an agreement on procedures which might be applied in an effort to overcome the difficulties Laos was facing".

Proposal for Fact-Finding Mission

Following this introduction, the United States Representative presented a draft resolution sponsored by the U.S.A., France, and the United Kingdom, which read as follows: "The Security Council decides to appoint a Subcommittee consisting of Argentina, Italy, Japan and Tunisia and instructs



UN FACT-FINDING SUBCOMMITTEE

The United Nations fact-finding subcommittee on Laos at Bangkok en route to Laos. From left to right are shown Ambassador Habib Bourquiba, (Tunisia); Ambassador Shinichi Shibuzawa (Japan), Chairman; Brigadier General Heriberto Ahrens (Argentina); and Mr. Ludovico Barattieri di San Pietro (Italy).

this Sub-Committee to examine the statements made before the Security Council concerning Laos, to receive further statements and documents, and to conduct such enquiries as it may deem necessary and to report to the Security Council as soon as possible". All the members of the Council except the Soviet Union spoke in favour of the three-powers resolution, stating that the Laotian appeal could not be ignored by the United Nations and that more facts were needed before consideration could usefully be given to the substance of the question. The Canadian Representative concurred in these views. He stressed particularly that, while Canada was prepared to consider any step which would help to reduce tension in the area, it had been the consistent position of his Government "that the principles of the Geneva settlement be maintained in Laos as elsewhere in Indochina and that the obligations arising out of that settlement rest on all the parties who participated in it".

The U.S.S.R. Representative, for his part, concentrated almost entirely on developments within Laos, placing the blame for the present situation on alleged violation of the Geneva Agreements and the Vientiane Agreement by the Royal Laotian Government. The main burden of his argument was that strict adherence to these agreements and the use of the International Com-

mission were keys to the establishment and maintenance of peace in the area; these agreements could not be by-passed and the U.S.S.R. would therefore vote against the draft resolution.

Before the resolution itself was put to a vote, a discussion developed as to whether this resolution would be considered procedural or non-procedural, in which case the veto would apply. The draft resolution contained no reference to Article 34 which enables the Security Council to investigate disputes and which would have made the resolution subject to the veto by past Council rulings. The three-powers resolution instead was introduced under Article 29, which permits the Security Council to establish such subsidiary organs as it deems necessary for the performance of its functions. It was the President's view, shared by the Western powers, that resolutions under Article 29 should be considered procedural. He pointed out that the subcommittee was merely to report to the Council without recommendations, and the Security Council itself would make its own decision on the basis of the facts as ascertained by the subcommittee. It was Mr. Sobolev's view that the establishment of the proposed Sub-Committee should be subject to the unanimity rule in accordance with the "San Francisco Declaration" of June 1945 and could not in any way be considered as procedural since the nature of the action proposed could only have far-reaching implications. This position was rejected by the other members and it was decided by a vote of 10 to 1 (U.S.S.R.) that the resolution was a procedural one. The Soviet Representative held that this was a flagrant violation of the Security Council procedures.

Proposal Adopted

The vote in favour of the resolution itself also was 10 to 1. After the vote, the Soviet Representative declared that the President's statement to the effect that the resolution was adopted was not in conformity with the Charter. A permanent member of the Council, he stated, had voted against the resolution and therefore it had "no binding force on anyone" as it had been adopted by "illegal procedure". The President of the Council, for his part, declared that he had acted "in perfect good faith and consistent with the Charter". There was no doubt in his mind, he added, "that the resolution is valid".

After meeting for the first time on September 8, the "Security Council Sub-Committee" left New York for Laos on Saturday, September 12. The Japanese and Tunisian Representatives were elected Chairman and Vice-Chairman respectively.

Preparations for a Session of the General Assembly

ON September 15 the General Assembly of the United Nations met to begin its fourteenth regular session. The provisional agenda of 63 items, a supplementary list of 6 items, and one additional item, were before it for its consideration. Many of these items are not of primary importance to Canada, but all of them must be disposed of in some manner, so that it is necessary to evolve policy towards all of them.

The Agenda

Certain items are placed on the agenda each year because the Charter of the United Nations or the Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly provide for them. Items such as elections or appointments to offices, councils and committees of the United Nations are among these. So are several reports: those of the Secretary-General, the Economic and Social Council, the Security Council, and the Trusteeship Council. In this class also are items pertaining to the budget for the next financial year and reports on the accounts for the last financial year. Certain items appear because their discussion follows from decisions taken at previous sessions, and others because they have been referred to subordinate bodies for further investigation and study. Member governments may request the inscription of items on the agenda and so may non-members in certain circumstances. The Secretary-General may place items before the General Assembly and there are usually items proposed by other principal organs.

The Charter gives very wide powers of discussion to the General Assembly, providing in Article 10 that it "may discuss any questions or any matters within the scope of the present Charter. . .". The main restraint is found in Article 2(7) (the "domestic jurisdiction" clause of the Charter) which states: "Nothing contained in the present Charter shall authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any State. . .". In general it may be said that the Assembly has always interpreted its powers of discussion and recommendation as widely as possible. There is also a procedural restriction laid down in Article 12, which provides that the General Assembly shall not make any recommendation with regard to a dispute or situation while the Security Council is exercising its Charter functions with respect to that matter.

The provisional agenda is drawn up by the Secretary-General and communicated to the members at least sixty days before the opening of the session. Supplementary items may be added until thirty days before the opening of the session and additional items "of an important and urgent character" at any time if the Assembly so decides. Once the election of officers for the session has taken place, the Assembly proceeds to the adoption of its agenda. A simple majority is required to inscribe an item on the agenda.

Canadian Delegation to General Assembly

The Canadian Delegation to the General Assembly has always been led by a member of the Government, usually the Secretary of State for External Affairs, and frequently has included other Cabinet Ministers. The other Representatives and Alternate Representatives are chosen from the ranks of Senators, Members of the House of Commons, distinguished Canadians from public and academic life and officials of the Department of External Affairs, including the Permanent Representative in New York. These Representatives and Alternates act as Canadian spokesmen in the General Assembly and in its seven committees. In addition, Parliamentary Observers drawn from the Government party and from the main Opposition parties usually attend. They have no special duties but are given an opportunity to acquire experience in international conference procedures and familiarity with the issues before the Assembly. Members of the Delegation are assisted by advisers drawn from the Permanent Mission in New York and from the Department in Ottawa. Similarly, stenographic and administrative help are provided by both the Permanent Mission and the Department.

The Permanent Mission

Canada maintains a full-time Permanent Mission at United Nations Headquarters in New-York, with a Permanent Representative holding the rank of Ambassador, supported by an official and administrative staff. Throughout the year the Permanent Mission reports on and participates in the work of the many and various subordinate United Nations bodies, including committees, commissions and agencies of the General Assembly, and functional commissions of ECOSOC. When Canada has been on the Economic and Social Council the Mission has, of course, had the responsibility for Canadian interests there also. The Permanent Representative represents Canada on the Security Council. (Canada is a member for 1958-1959.) Thus the New York office has general negotiating and reporting duties on subjects liable to come before the General Assembly.

Instructions for Delegation

Even before the provisional agenda of a session is circulated in mid-July, a beginning is made in outlining Canadian policy on the prospective items. Consultations take place between the Department of External Affairs and other Government Departments in Ottawa which may have an interest in the items which are expected to be discussed.

While these discussions are being carried forward, detailed guidance for the Canadian Delegation to the General Assembly is drawn up on every item of the agenda. The guidance includes a description of how the item has fared in the past (if it has arisen in the General Assembly before), an outline of past Canadian policy on the subject and an account of any new factors that have arisen which would influence the Canadian position during the forthcoming session. Some attempt is made to envisage how the item will be handled, and guidance is given to enable the Canadian Delegation to vote in accord with

Canadian policy on the item in question, and to assist in the behind-the-scenes discussions which are so important in arriving at a satisfactory final result. The broad instructions, to which the detailed guidance is a supplement, are submitted to Cabinet for approval. They are necessarily general and in some cases tentative, since the course of events in the Assembly can never be fully predicted beforehand. During the course of the Assembly, the Delegation is in daily consultation with the Department and further guidance and assistance are continually being sought by telephone and telegraph.

In addition to its confidential report to the Government, reports on the activities of the Delegation and of Canada's participation in the work of the Assembly are regularly made available to the Canadian public by press releases, in this publication, and in "Canada and the United Nations".

Canadian Consular Work Abroad

CANADIAN consular work embraces services provided both to Canadian citizens and to citizens of other countries. Most of the consular work abroad is handled by members of the Department of External Affairs either at diplomatic missions or at consular offices. In some countries, officers at a diplomatic mission may hold concurrent appointment as consuls and thus be empowered to perform, in addition to their diplomatic duties, consular duties such as the protection of Canadian citizens, trade promotion and information work; elsewhere consular work may be handled either by diplomatic missions direct, where the volume of consular work is relatively small, or by consular offices separate from the mission itself, in countries where consular work is too complex and voluminous to be dealt with at one diplomatic post. Where, as in the United States, Canada has Consulates General and Consulates as well as a consular section at the Embassy, the separate consular offices are under the general jurisdiction of the Head of the diplomatic mission, and do consular work within a given consular district or territory in the country.

Although the Department of External Affairs bears the major responsibility for providing consular services abroad through the Canadian diplomatic missions, High Commissioners' Offices and consular posts, much consular work is also performed, in countries where there is no External Affairs representation, by officials who are not members of this Department. Certain services, such as issuance and renewal of passports, issuance of visas, arrangements for naval visits, and certain duties under the Canadian Citizenship Act, are provided by Canadian Trade Commissioners' Offices abroad. In addition, United Kingdom posts perform many consular services on behalf of Canada in countries in which there are no Canadian Government posts.

Canadian consular work abroad may be examined under two general classes: (1) matters involving entry into and exit from Canada of Canadians and non-Canadians, and (2) the performance of activities in the general public interest and the extension of particular services to individual Canadian citizens.

Travel Documents

Matters involving entry into or exit from Canada take up a large part of the time of officers performing consular duties abroad, especially since the services are rendered not only to Canadians but to foreigners. The work involves issuance of travel documents of various kinds and issuance of visas. A number of different travel documents are issued. The most important of these are passports. Canadian passports are issued to Canadian citizens only, who have established their Canadian citizenship and their personal identity. There are three types of passports: ordinary, special and diplomatic. Ordinary passports are issued to private Canadian citizens who are abroad or are proceeding abroad on private business or as tourists. They have a blue cover. Special passports, which have a green cover, are issued to persons on official Canadian Government business as well as to certain groups of persons holding positions in the Federal and Provincial Governments. Diplomatic passports

are issued to the Governor-General, to members of the Cabinet and certain other holders of high office under the Crown, as well as to Ambassadors, Ministers, High Commissioners and other persons proceeding abroad on official government business having a diplomatic character. Emergency Certificates, another kind of travel document, are issued to persons who are Canadian citizens but to whom it is not feasible to issue Canadian passports — such as to merchant seamen who have been left behind by their ships and persons who have lost their passports and are repatriated at Government expense. Emergency certificates are a form of temporary travel document issued for a direct journey to Canada and are surrendered by the bearers to the Immigration authorities at the ports of entry. Collective Certificates, also known as group passports, are only granted by the Passport Office at Ottawa. They are granted to groups of Canadian citizens travelling abroad together, for example to athletes taking part in a competition, orchestral groups, and choirs. Certificates of Identity are also issued only by the Passport Office at Ottawa, but they may be renewed by consular officers serving abroad. They are issued only to non-Canadians, legally landed and permanently resident in Canada, who are stateless or who for certain other reasons do not have passports of the country of their nationality.

When consular officers abroad issue passports, they are required to attach to them a Notice and Warning. The Notice advises Canadian citizens who intend to visit Sino-Soviet-bloc countries that for their own protection they should inform the Canadian mission of their intentions and travel plans on arrival and of their intended departure when they are leaving. The Warning states that Canadian citizens who were born abroad or whose parents were born abroad may be considered by the governments of the countries of their origin or birth to be nationals of these countries, although by Canadian law they are citizens of Canada; they are therefore reminded that when they are in these countries it may not be possible for Canada to give them effective protection.

Visas are issued by Canadian consular officers abroad to persons who wish to enter Canada either for a permanent or a temporary stay. There are many types of visas, the most important being immigrant visas, ordinary non-immigrant visas, courtesy visas and diplomatic visas. Immigrant visas are issued to those persons who are entering Canada for permanent residence as immigrants. For the most part such visas are issued by officers of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration stationed abroad, but they may also be issued by officers performing consular duties who are members of the Department of External Affairs or the Department of Trade and Commerce in those countries where there are no Canadian Immigration officers. Ordinary non-immigrant visas are issued to persons entering Canada for a temporary period either as tourists or on private business. They also are issued by Immigration officers, as well as by Canadian diplomatic and consular posts and by Trade Commissioners' Offices. Courtesy visas are issued by External Affairs and Trade and Commerce posts, primarily to officials of foreign governments not holding diplomatic rank who are proceeding to Canada on official business. Diplomatic visas are usually granted only to persons holding diplomatic passports and are issued to heads of state, to members of diplomatic and consular services, to Cabinet Ministers and persons proceeding to Canada on business of a diplomatic character.

Other Responsibilities

The second broad classification of consular responsibilities abroad is the performance of duties in the general public interest and the extension of particular services to individual Canadian citizens.

Among the duties in the general public interest, such matters as trade and tourist promotion and the general representational and information responsibilities of consular officers are of special importance. Indeed, one of the primary duties of consular officers abroad, whether they are members of the Department of External Affairs or of the Department of Trade and Commerce, is to promote the expansion of Canada's export trade and to foster good commercial relations with foreign countries. The work done in the promotion of tourism is also of great benefit because it is an important source of foreign exchange for Canada, and particularly of hard currency. The representational duties of consular officers involve their attending various functions within their consular district and thereby making Canada better known. Information work too is an important part of the duties of a consular officer. By public speeches to various clubs and associations, by the showing of films, and by various other means, it is a consular officer's responsibility to make Canada well known in his consular district, to make it in addition well liked, and to present the Canadian viewpoint on matters affecting the relations between Canada and the country concerned.

Services to Canadian Citizens

Services to individual Canadian citizens involve safeguarding their rights and interests. One of the most important of the services rendered to Canadian citizens is their protection in time of emergency, riot or insurrection, in the event of their arrest for some offence, or in the event they fall into general distress or difficulty. For the purpose of such protection, particularly in time of emergency or war, Canadian citizens planning to remain in a foreign country (other than the United States) for more than three months are advised to register at a Canadian diplomatic or consular post. They are asked to complete a registration card giving their vital statistics and citizenship, whether they are also citizens of any other country besides Canada, and the names and addresses of the members of their family and their close relatives. Registration of Canadian citizens by consular officers gives the Government the information necessary to enable it to advise and protect Canadian citizens in any emergency that may arise in the country concerned, or internationally. Occasions also arise when Canadian citizens are arrested abroad for a criminal offence and appeal to Canadian posts for advice, assistance and sometimes protection. In such cases, the consular officer abroad must decide, in consultation with the Department at Ottawa if necessary, whether there is evidence of discrimination or denial of justice such as would warrant Governmental intervention. If formal representations are not considered justified, other informal measures are sometimes taken to help the petitioner. The consular officer may help the person accused to obtain proper legal aid, especially when he does not have money to pay for it; if he has been sentenced already, the consular officer may ascertain whether and when he will be eligible for parole and deportation; and eventually the consular officer may assist with arrangements for release of the prisoner and his transportation to Canada. In the same way, aid of

various kinds is given to persons who find themselves in other forms of distress. For instance, Canadian citizens abroad sometimes sustain financial losses in circumstances in which legal recourse is indicated. A consular officer may assist by suggesting names of lawyers, put the persons in touch with such local organizations as the Better Business Bureau, the Chamber of Commerce, or the Bar Association and maintain a general interest in the matter to ensure that justice is done. Also, Canadians sometimes claim forceable conscription in the armed forces of foreign countries, some find themselves in foreign mental institutions and seek to return to Canada, and others get into minor difficulties of various kinds with foreign local officials. One of the primary duties of Canadian officers performing consular duties abroad is to assist Canadians in distress by all appropriate means.

Sometimes Canadian citizens may find themselves destitute abroad. Canadian tourists, for instance, not infrequently find themselves bereft of their wallets including very often their passports and other identification. Sometimes they turn to the Canadian diplomatic or consular post for advice and assistance. The consular officer may tell them what steps they can take to try to locate their wallets or passports. If unsuccessful, the consul may wire to their home town to get an advance of funds from their families or other relatives. If they have some money left or a small bank account on which they can draw, they are advised where they may stay cheaply until their return to Canada is arranged. One bit of advice that might be given to all Canadian tourists is to purchase their return tickets to Canada before setting out for foreign countries and to keep the tickets in a safe place rather than in their wallets. It sometimes happens that Canadians abroad who are bereft of funds have no resources whatsoever for their return to Canada. When circumstances justify it, the Canadian consular officer may be authorized to advance funds to get the distressed Canadian back to Canada as quickly as possible. Of course, the distressed Canadian is required to sign an undertaking that he will repay to the Canadian Government the amount expended on his behalf.

Assistance to Canadian citizens abroad is not limited to the granting of protection in emergencies or assistance in case of distress or destitution. The range of advice and assistance is very broad and stretches from the care of Canadian beach-combers who, in their escape from civilization, have wandered as far as Tierra del Fuego at the southernmost tip of Chile by the Straits of Magellan, to the answering of letters from a housewife living abroad requesting the consular officer to collect labels from Canadian grocery tins to help the lady win a new car in a competition.

A consular officer must always be on the alert to safeguard the interests of Canadian citizens abroad. For example, some Canadian citizens, not native born, are in danger of losing their Canadian citizenship through lengthy residence abroad. If such persons come to the notice of consular officers, they are given advice on the risk they run and the steps they should take to protect their citizenship should they wish to do so. Other persons seek to bring to Canada as immigrants their close relatives or friends. Although immigration matters are the concern of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration, Canadian consular officers frequently must deal with such problems and give advice to prospective applicants in those countries in which Canadian immigration officers are not located. Canadian babies born abroad of Canadian

parents must be registered with the Registrar of Canadian Citizenship within two years, if they are to have the status of Canadian citizens. Such registrations of births are carried out at Canadian diplomatic and consular posts abroad.

Legal Matters

There are numerous legal problems, also, with which consular officers abroad must deal, particularly such matters as the authentication of legal documents and the protection of the interests of Canadian citizens in an estate opened abroad. The consular officer may be required, when he learns that there are Canadian beneficiaries to an estate opened within his district, to get in touch with the next-of-kin in Canada so that they may assert their claim. He may advise them of lawyers to represent them and in due course may transmit the proceeds of the estate to the Canadian beneficiaries. A Canadian citizen who dies abroad also may have an estate to which next-of-kin in Canada have a claim. If he dies intestate and without known kin, the consular officer may accept the proceeds of the estate and request the Department to locate and notify the heirs or creditors in Canada. Such heirs or creditors are often traced with the assistance of the Canadian Red Cross Society or the city police. According to circumstances, a consular officer may also be obliged to look after the burial arrangements for a Canadian citizen who dies abroad.

Finally, among the many other services rendered by consular officers to Canadian citizens may be mentioned the forwarding of pension cheques to Canadian pensioners residing abroad, assistance to Canadian seamen who have been left behind by their ships, and putting persons who are looking for missing relatives or friends in touch with agencies able to help them.

In general, the consular officer abroad must be a jack-of-all-trades, always willing to lend an ear to the troubles of Canadian citizens, always ready to help them to the limit of his powers, but at the same time always bearing in mind that there are practical limits to the help he can give, as expressed in the rules under which he must operate. These rules indeed are sometimes irksome to Canadian citizens wishing a speedy — and sometimes magical — resolution of their troubles or an immediate fulfilment of their wishes after the manner of the immigrants in Menotti's light opera "The Consul", who were unable to understand why the Consul could not simply admit the immigrants to his country, seeing that the cases were so deserving from the humanitarian point of view. All things considered, the Consul's task is the rewarding but delicate one of reconciling the claims of Canadian citizens in trouble or distress with the rules and regulations of his service. But he is helped by the knowledge that the rules of his service, despite their impersonality, do take humanitarian considerations into account.

APPOINTMENTS, POSTINGS AND RESIGNATIONS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mr. I. W. Robertson posted from the Delegation of Canada to the North Atlantic Council, Paris to Ottawa. Left Paris August 25, 1959.
- Mr. W. K. Wardroper posted from Ottawa to the National Defence College, Kingston. Left Ottawa August 27, 1959.
- Mr. M. Gauvin posted from the Canadian Embassy, Caracas, to the Canadian Embassy, Buenos Aires. Left Caracas August 31, 1959.
- Miss L. Cote resigned from the Department of External Affairs effective September 1, 1959.
- Mr. G. Hampson posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Accra. Left Ottawa September 2, 1959.
- Mr. W. T. Delworth posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Stockholm. Left Ottawa September 2, 1959.
- Mr. d'I. Fortier posted from Ottawa to the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina. Left Ottawa September 3, 1959.
- Mr. O. A. Chistoff posted from the Canadian Legation, Warsaw, to Ottawa. Left Warsaw September 6, 1959.
- Mr. W. G. M. Olivier posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Madrid. Left Ottawa September 7, 1959.
- Mr. R. Y. Grey posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, London. Left Ottawa September 10, 1959.
- Mr. R. Garneau posted from the Canadian Embassy, Paris, to the Canadian Embassy, Brussels. Left Paris September 13, 1959.
- Mr. J. Wilson appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Junior Administrative Officer effective September 14, 1959.
- Mr. A. C. Anderson appointed Canadian Ambassador to Cuba. Left Ottawa September 17, 1959.
- Mr. P. E. A. Romeril appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective September 21, 1959.
- Miss M. M. Hutcheson retired from the Department of External Affairs effective September 21, 1959.
- Mr. M. N. Bow posted from the Canadian Embassy, Madrid, to Ottawa. Left Madrid September 22, 1959.
- Mr. H. D. Peel appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective September 24, 1959.
- Mr. O. G. Stoner posted from the Canadian Embassy, Brussels, to Ottawa. Left Brussels September 25, 1959.
- Mr. P. M. Roberts posted from the Canadian Embassy, Moscow, to Ottawa. Left Moscow September 25, 1959.
- Mr. D. A. B. Molgat appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective September 28, 1959.
- Mr. R. E. Branscombe posted from the Canadian Consulate General, Chicago, to Ottawa. Left Chicago September 30, 1959.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

Federal Republic of Germany

Air Transport Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany.

Signed at Ottawa September 4, 1959.

United States of America

Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Government of the United States of America to provide for co-operation on the uses of atomic energy for mutual defence purposes.

Signed at Washington May 22, 1959.

Entered into force July 27, 1959.



EXTERNAL AFFAIRS

Monthly Bulletin of the Department of External Affairs

CANADA

Vol. XI No 11

In this Issue

November 1959

UNITED NATIONS ANNIVERSARY

WORLD REFUGEE YEAR

CONFERENCE ON THE ANTARCTIC

A NORTH AMERICAN DEFENCE PARTNERSHIP

INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS

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United Nations Anniversary

A STATEMENT ISSUED BY PRIME MINISTER DIEFENBAKER

ON UNITED NATIONS DAY, OCTOBER 24

FOURTEEN YEARS ago today, the Charter of the United Nations entered into force and a new world organization was born. I am sure that I express the feelings of all Canadians in reaffirming on this occasion Canada's whole-hearted support for the United Nations, which has acquired in its short existence such stature, prestige and influence in world affairs.

In 1945, fifty-one governments signed the Charter. Eighty-two countries are attending the current session of the General Assembly in New York. This is striking evidence of the emergence of new nations on the world scene and of the growing faith which the newly developing nations are ready to place in the world organization. Canadians take it as a sign of encouraging progress that nations achieving independence should, as so many have done, seek admission to the United Nations as one of their first acts of foreign policy.

Doubters and cynics complain at the futility of United Nations debates. It is true that too often the organization has been used for unworthy purposes, for the prosecution of cold war propaganda and for the advancement of extreme nationalism. Although the justification for such criticism has not disappeared, the fact is that the United Nations is no better than its members make it. On this United Nations Day it is well to remind ourselves that the vitality of the organization depends on the sense of responsibility shown by its members and the continuing moral support of their peoples.

The achievements of the United Nations have not always been clearly defined or spectacular. That is not to be expected, for nations which live side by side in close alliance frequently find that common traditions and common objectives are not in themselves enough to guarantee solution of common problems. It is to the United Nations and its Agencies that we look for the means of harmonizing the difficult interplay of interests among nations of varying creeds, values and objectives, in order to achieve peaceful settlements of their outstanding differences.

During the past year Canada has continued to work towards the attainment of the goals of the United Nations. Canada's acceptance of international responsibility has been demonstrated by the discharge of a second term of service on the Security Council, a term which comes to an end on December 31 of this year.

Canadians continue to provide an important contribution of manpower and services to the United Nations Expeditionary Force which is helping to preserve stability along the frontier between Israel and the United Arab Republic.

An outstanding example of the assumption by Canada of a position of responsibility in world affairs is apparent in the announcement by the Honourable

Howard Green, the Secretary of State for External Affairs, to the General Assembly on September 24, concerning the hazards of radioactive fallout. Within the next few days the Canadian Delegation will submit to the General Assembly a resolution, the central purpose of which is to promote improved and more widely representative collection of radioactive fallout and to provide for its analysis in a manner which will ensure that the statistics can be studied, to the end that the problem may be clearly defined and action taken, if found necessary.

In the economic and social field, Canada is continuing its yearly contribution of \$2 million to the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance. Furthermore, the Canadian Government has pledged, subject to the approval of Parliament, to contribute \$2 million to the new United Nations Special Fund for economic development.

Canada has continued to support strongly the humanitarian work of the United Nations in aid of refugees. As a special Canadian contribution to the World Refugee Year, the Government is waiving normal immigration requirements and admitting to Canada 100 refugees needing special care, and their families as well.

On United Nations Day, Canadians renew their pledge of support for the United Nations and their determination to foster and strengthen its development to the end that the nations of the world may move forward in unity of purpose towards the realization of peace, freedom and prosperity for all.

World Refugee Year

THE IDEA of World Refugee Year originated with four private citizens in the United Kingdom who reportedly were impressed with the progress made through concentrated and co-ordinated efforts by the International Geophysical Year. As a result of this group's suggestion, the United Kingdom delegation to the 9th (Special) Session of the United Nations Refugee Fund Executive Committee submitted a draft resolution expressing support for the proposal to proclaim a World Refugee Year. The Executive Committee adopted the resolution and requested the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees to bring it to the attention of the United Nations General Assembly at its thirteenth session. World Refugee Year, to begin in June 1959 and end on July 1, 1960, was instituted by the General Assembly in its resolution 1285 (XIII) of December 5, 1958. The text of that resolution, which was supported by Canada, states:

The General Assembly,

Having considered the report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, together with the resolution adopted by the Executive Committee of the United Nations Refugee Fund at its ninth (special) session on 26 September 1958,

Convinced of the need to make a further world-wide effort to help resolve the world refugee problem,

Having considered the proposal for a World Refugee Year to begin in June 1959,

Noting that this proposal has two aims, namely:

- a) To focus interest on the refugee problem and to encourage additional financial contributions from governments, voluntary agencies and the general public for its solution,
- b) To encourage additional opportunities for permanent refugee solutions, through voluntary repatriation, resettlement or integration, on a purely humanitarian basis and in accordance with the freely expressed wishes of the refugees themselves,

1. *Urges* States Members of the United Nations and members of the Specialized Agencies to co-operate, in accordance with the national wishes and needs of each country and from a humanitarian point of view, in promoting a World Refugee Year as a practical means of securing increased assistance for refugees throughout the world;

2. *Requests* the Secretary-General to take such steps as he may think fit to assist in the promotion of a World Refugee Year in accordance with the present resolution.

Scope of World Refugee Year

Although the resolution initiating World Refugee Year was adopted by the General Assembly during consideration of the report of the High Commissioner for Refugees, it has been generally acknowledged from the outset that the scope of World Refugee Year should not be restricted to refugee programmes within the jurisdiction of the High Commissioner. On the contrary, it is intended that all international refugee programmes, some of which have no direct connection with the High Commissioner for Refugees, should benefit from the special efforts requested of member governments and voluntary agencies during the 12-month period. The following are the fields of interest of several international agencies concerned with refugees:

(a) *United Nations Refugee Fund (UNREF)*

This was established under the direction of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), whose headquarters are in Geneva. He in turn received policy directives from the UNREF Executive Committee, composed of representatives of United Nations member nations. A four-year programme for UNREF was set up that terminated on December 31, 1958, at which time UNREF as such ceased to operate. Certain UNREF projects, however, are still in the process of being wound up. The terms of reference for UNREF have focussed the activities of the High Commissioner for Refugees primarily on the following groups of refugees:

- (1) Refugees in Europe who have fled their homeland, or are unable to return there, because of valid fear of political persecution. These refugees are located chiefly in Austria, Italy, Greece and Germany. A few of this group are in the Middle East.
- (2) European refugees in the Far East. The High Commissioner shares with the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration the responsibility for re-locating these.
- (3) Chinese refugees in Hong Kong are not within the High Commissioner's jurisdiction, but he is authorized to use his good offices in their behalf. The Government of Hong Kong accepts primary responsibility for this group of about one million.
- (4) Algerian refugees in Tunisia and Morocco are not deemed to be within the High Commissioner's mandate. The General Assembly, however, has authorized him to continue his efforts to encourage assistance to these refugees, who are estimated to number about 180,000.

(b) *The Executive Committee of the High Commissioner's Programme*

As the end of 1958 approached, it became clear that the refugee problem would not be overcome by the time UNREF was due to expire. The General Assembly therefore ordered the UNREF Executive Committee to disband on the prescribed date, but made provision for the formation of an Executive Committee of the High Commissioner's Programme (to which 25 member nations, including Canada, were subsequently elected). During 1959 the Chairman of the Executive Committee is the Canadian Permanent Representative to the United Nations in Europe, Mr. M. H. Wershof. This Committee guides the High Commissioner for Refugees in carrying out responsibilities similar to those with which he was previously charged, and in liquidating the old United Nations Refugee Fund. Under the new arrangement the High Commissioner continues to report to the General Assembly through the Economic and Social Council.

(c) *The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA)*

This is a completely separate agency, which does not come within the High Commissioner's jurisdiction. UNRWA was set up after the Arab-Israeli war to provide assistance for the Arab Refugees (numbering about a million) who fled from Israel to Jordan, the Syrian and Egyptian regions of the United Arab

Republic, the Gaza Strip, and Lebanon. It has its headquarters in Beirut. Canada is not represented on the Advisory Commission that assists the Director of UNRWA, but is one of the largest contributors to the UNRWA programme.

(d) *Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM)*

This organization has served partly to replace the International Refugee Organization, an agency that was active among refugees for a number of years following the Second World War. ICEM is concerned with the relocation of Europeans (both ordinary immigrants and refugees) in areas such as the Western Hemisphere and Australia. It also carries on a Far Eastern operation in conjunction with the High Commissioner for Refugees by which Europeans (mainly White Russians) in China are re-settled elsewhere. At present, twenty-eight nations, including Canada, are represented on this committee.

During World Refugee Year it is hoped that some refugee problems of long standing may be largely cleared up and that other problems may be reduced to manageable size. Unfortunately, the political circumstances surrounding several refugee situations, notably that of the Palestine refugees, makes it improbable that substantial progress towards a permanent solution will be made during World Refugee Year. On the other hand, it seems realistic to hope that the clearance of refugee camps in Europe and the movement of European refugees from China may be nearly completed in 1960.

Financing

To carry out the projects envisaged, the Executive Committee of the High Commissioner's Programme established a target for 1960 of \$12 million in contributions. This compares with \$4.7 million in 1959. For 1960 \$4.7 million will be allocated for the regular programme and the remainder of the \$12 million will be a special target for World Refugee Year. Priority will be given to the camp-clearance programme in Europe and to the relocation of European refugees from China. It is worthy of note that a large percentage of the approximately 30,000 refugees in European camps and of the 9,500 European refugees in China are "hard-core" cases suffering from diseases or other disabilities that make it difficult to arrange for their admission to most countries of immigration.

Along with sixty-two other nations, Canada informed the United Nations Secretary-General that it would participate actively in the programme for World Refugee Year. On June 28, when World Refugee Year officially began in Canada, the Prime Minister issued a statement in which he pointed out the seriousness of the refugee problem and welcomed the inauguration of World Refugee Year. After referring to the support which Canada has traditionally given to refugee programmes, Mr. Diefenbaker urged Canadians to give most sympathetic consideration to the appeal for funds that was to be made by the Canadian Committee for World Refugee Year. The Prime Minister also stated that the Government would be announcing its plans for participation in the programme of World Refugee Year.

The advent of World Refugee Year was also welcomed on June 22 in the House of Commons by the Secretary of State for External Affairs. Mr. Green pointed out the broad scope of this co-operative international effort and also voiced his support of the Canadian Committee for World Refugee Year. After reviewing the substantial contributions which Canada has made to United Nations refugee programmes in the last two years (totalling \$1,650,000 in cash and a further \$3 million-worth of food), Mr. Green noted that the Government was "giving particular attention to the possibility of a scheme whereby a limited number of tubercular cases might be admitted to Canada together with their dependents and given treatment in Canadian institutions". He stressed the need for close consultation with the provinces, which are responsible for the sanatoria that would receive these refugee cases.

Admission of TB Sufferers

On July 9 Mr. Green informed the House of Commons that arrangements for the proposed admission of a number of tuberculous refugees and for their treatment were under discussion. These consultations continued throughout the summer and involved the Departments of Finance, Citizenship and Immigration, External Affairs and National Health and Welfare. At an early date, approaches were made both to the High Commissioner for Refugees in Geneva and to the provincial governments. A great many communications were exchanged before it was possible to develop a firm outline of a workable plan. By September, however, it was apparent that such an undertaking was indeed feasible and that a sufficient number of provincial governments were prepared to co-operate in the joint project. Accordingly, the Secretary of State for External Affairs announced in the United Nations General Assembly on September 24 that, as Canada's special contribution to the World Refugee Year programme, a substantial number of tuberculous refugees along with their families would be brought to Canada, with costs of transportation, hospital treatment and maintenance to be borne by Canada. At a press conference immediately following his speech in the Assembly, Mr. Green stated that the number of families involved would certainly be not less than 100. Families would be selected from refugee camps in Europe in co-operation with the High Commissioner for Refugees and transported to Canada at Canadian expense in aircraft chartered by the Canadian Government. Costs of treatment in sanatoria and, where necessary, the maintenance of dependants during treatment would also be the responsibility of Canadian authorities.

Cost of TB Programme

Although it is not possible to estimate with accuracy the cost of this special programme, it is clear that it will be a very expensive undertaking. In addition to the costs incurred during World Refugee Year itself, there will also be considerable expenditures in succeeding years. A number of provincial governments have volunteered to accept some or all of the costs of hospitalization in connection with this project, and the Federal Government will underwrite all other expenses.

The detailed negotiations with the provinces concerning the relocation of refugee families, the placement of tuberculous members of the families in suitable sanatoria and the cost-sharing formula are still being worked out. It is expected, however, that the first refugee families selected for this programme will arrive in Canada before the end of 1959.

The Secretary of State for External Affairs has received from the High Commissioners for Refugees a letter referring to the special Canadian project in the following terms:

This important action on the part of your Government will not only mean a new life for many refugees under my mandate, but will also spur other governments to follow the example of your country during World Refugee Year.

The most eloquent thanks for your action could only come from the refugees who have been given fresh hope, and on their behalf I want to thank you most warmly for the magnanimous decision announced by your Government.

A number of other countries have indicated that they will be making increased efforts during World Refugee Year. The United States, it is reported, will increase its normal programme of about \$40 million by \$4 million, of which \$1,630,000 will be a special World Refugee Year contribution. The United Kingdom Government has donated \$560,000 to the United Kingdom Committee for World Refugee Year. Belgium has undertaken to be responsible for the permanent resettlement of 3,000 refugees now in camps in Austria, Greece and Italy, either in their country of first asylum or in Belgium or elsewhere. Countries such as Sweden, the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand, in addition to special contributions to the programme of the High Commissioner for Refugees, have announced projects for the admission of handicapped refugees who would not normally meet immigration requirements.

Canadian Refugee Year Committee

In Canada a Canadian Committee for World Refugee Year has been organized with headquarters at 113 St. George Street, Toronto. It is under the patronage of His Excellency the Governor-General. The Committee, which will be making a national appeal for funds to assist various refugee programmes, meets frequently and has set up a permanent Executive Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Reuben Baetz of the Canadian Red Cross Society. Miss Muriel W. Jacobson is National Director of the Canadian campaign. Working closely with officials of the Committee is Mr. Peter Casson, the Special Representative of the High Commissioner for Refugees for World Refugee Year in Canada.

The Canadian Committee has defined its aims as follows:

- (a) to focus attention on the refugee problem, and to promote among the people of Canada a sympathetic interest in the plight of refugees throughout the world;
- (b) through its publicity, to help those participating organizations which are already engaged in refugee work to raise more money than they would normally be able to do, and

(c) to establish a central fund to which contributions can be made, for United Nations refugee programmes.

Among the organizations participating in the work of the Committee are the Adoption Committee for Aid to Displaced Persons in Europe, the Anglican Church of Canada, the Canadian Association for Adult Education, the Canadian Citizenship Council, the Canadian Council of Churches, the Canadian Federation of University Women, the Canadian Federation of Mayors and Municipalities, the Canadian Friends (Quakers) Service Committee, the Canadian Jewish Congress, the Canadian Labour Congress, the Canadian Lutheran World Relief, the Canadian Mennonite Board of Colonization, the Canadian Red Cross Society, the Canadian Save the Children Fund, the Canadian Welfare Council, Canadians for United Nations, Care of Canada, Caritas-Canada, the Catholic Immigrant Services, the Catholic Immigration Bureau, the Catholic Women's League of Canada, the Federated Women's Institutes of Ontario, Fédération des Sociétés Saint-Jean-Baptiste, Fellowship of Reconciliation, Imperial Order Daughters of the Empire, the Jewish Immigrant Aid Services, Jewish Labour Committee of Canada, Junior Leagues of Canada, National Council of Jewish Women, National Council of Women of Canada, North American Baptist Immigration and Colonization Society, Student Christian Movement of Canada, Unitarian Service Committee, United Nations Association in Canada, Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, World University Service, YMCA of Canada, YWCA of Canada.

The Canadian Committee is affiliated with the International Committee for World Refugee Year, an organization with headquarters in Geneva that is sponsored by more than seventy world-wide voluntary organizations. This is thought to be the greatest number of non-governmental organizations ever to unite in a co-operative international undertaking. To ensure the success of the Canadian campaign, local committees are being set up in communities across Canada. A warm response by the Canadian public to the national appeal for funds will constitute a significant contribution towards the solution of the refugee problem.

Conference on the Antarctic

AN UNUSUAL experiment in international co-operation on the grand scale is under consideration at a conference in Washington. Since October 15, 1959, the representatives of twelve countries have been meeting in that city in an effort to draft a treaty designed to prevent the use of the Antarctic for any but peaceful purposes and to ensure continued international co-operation in the conduct of scientific studies there.

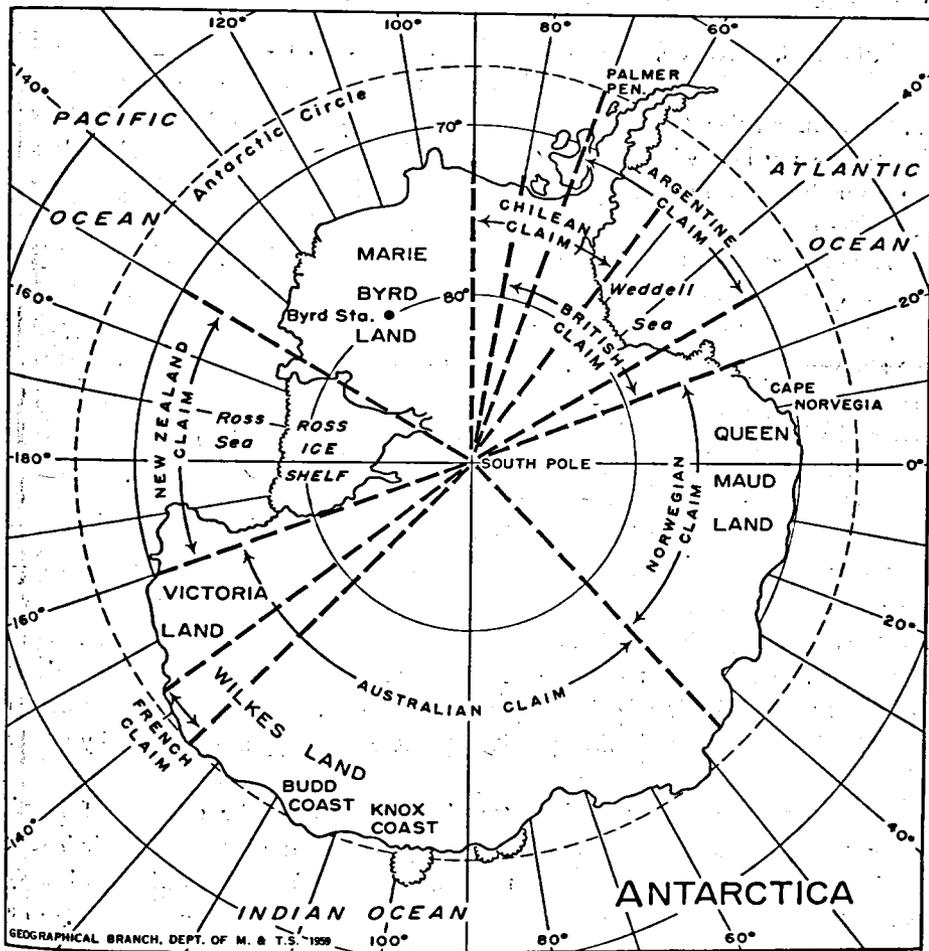
Sometimes referred to as a "cold weather factory," the Antarctic continent is almost as large as Europe and the United States put together. The total area of its ice-cap and seaward extensions is estimated at more than five million square miles. In places the thickness of the ice exceeds 10,000 feet. The world's greatest desert and the highest and coldest of the world's continents, Antarctica exercises a very great influence on climate, particularly in the southern hemisphere. The seas of Antarctica teem with life, but the largest land animal yet found there is a wingless mosquito.

Seven countries — Argentina, Australia, Chile, France, New Zealand, Norway and the United Kingdom — have advanced claims to sovereignty over particular areas of the continent and its surrounding seas on the basis of effective occupation, discovery or the sector theory. These seven countries participated in the 1957-58 Antarctic programme of the International Geophysical Year along with Belgium, Japan, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United States of America, and the Union of South Africa.

On May 2, 1958, President Eisenhower proposed that the governments of the twelve nations engaged in this programme come together in Washington to discuss ways and means to provide for the freedom of scientific investigation in the Antarctic for the citizens, organizations and governments of all countries, the continuation of international scientific co-operation and the use of the continent for peaceful purposes. He suggested that a treaty be concluded that would protect the historic rights of participating nations, provide certain joint administrative arrangements and insulate the continent from undue political pressures.

In response to the President's invitation, informal conversations among representatives of the twelve nations began on June 13, 1958. The diverse views, policies and interests of the participating nations have been thoroughly explored in a series of meetings extending over an eighteen-month period and a substantial measure of agreement has been reached on various solutions for the complex problems involved.

If an acceptable treaty can be drafted demilitarizing the continent, freezing international claims, establishing an inspection system and solving the many problems peculiar to the Antarctic, a useful precedent will have been established in the field of international relations.



Claims by various countries in Antarctica.

A North American Defence Partnership

S/259/35

SPEECH BY MR. GEORGE R. PEARKES, MINISTER OF
NATIONAL DEFENCE, TO THE NATIONAL DEFENCE TRANSPORTATION
ASSOCIATION, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON, OCTOBER 12, 1959

... I have been asked to speak today about Canada-United States mutual defence. I will open my talk with a few remarks about Canada's international position. We Canadians find ourselves situated between the two most powerful nations on earth, the United States and the Soviet Union.

The implications of such a geographic location are obvious, but, in spite of the difficulties that arise from time to time between Canada and the United States, we have acquired a certain maturity which leads us to believe that our problems can all eventually be worked out. I feel that this maturity which I have mentioned can be attributed in part to our connection with the British Commonwealth of Nations, which brings us into intimate contact with countries spread throughout the four corners of the globe.

Canada and the United States are today closely associated in their efforts to achieve peace through the instrumentality of peaceful negotiations. We cannot accept as inevitable the thought of a world devastated by a nuclear conflict — yet we cannot deny that possibility. We realize this fact and we know that we must maintain sufficient military strength to deter any aggression, while, at the same time, through the medium of diplomacy, we must endeavour to establish the necessary foundation for international confidence. May I say that the recent efforts of your President in the pursuit of peace are greatly appreciated by all the free peoples of the world.

Our two countries have joined together to share in the defence of North America. We are also joined within the framework of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. We have taken these measures because for the first time in history the nations on the North American continent are exposed to the possibility of a massive attack.

Need for Defence Teamwork

Canada by herself cannot provide a complete defence in a modern war. The United States of America, strong and powerful as she is, cannot, on the North American continent, defend herself effectively without Canadian co-operation and without defence facilities on Canadian territory. Our close relationship makes it natural that we should join in an alliance for we have a common heritage of freedom and a common aspiration for peace.

The origin of this intimate collaboration in defence which exists between our two nations at the present time can be traced to the Ogdensburg Declaration which

established the Permanent Joint Board on Defence in August 1940. This Board is still an important element in Canadian-United States relations and in the defence organization of the West.

At the end of hostilities in 1945, the United States Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy forwarded joint letters to the Canadian authorities requesting that the co-operation for defence which had existed throughout the war should continue in peacetime. The Canadian Government readily agreed to these arrangements and the Canadian Chiefs of Staff were authorized to initiate defence planning for the defence of North America with the United States Chiefs of Staff.

With the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty in April of 1949, it was decided that the defence of the North American part of the NATO area would now become the responsibility of our two countries and would be guided by the Canada-United States Regional Planning Group.

Joint-Defence Committee

Another important development which I would like to mention is the establishment of the Canada-United States Ministerial Committee on Joint Defence which was announced in a joint statement in July of last year by President Eisenhower and Prime Minister Diefenbaker. The function of this Committee is to consult on any matters affecting the defence of our two countries and to exchange information and views at the ministerial level on problems that may arise with a view to strengthening further the close and intimate co-operation between our two countries. We are, therefore, jointly responsible for the land, sea and air defence of North America.

Should our efforts to prevent the outbreak of a war fail, all of us in the United States and Canada realize the ghastly consequences which would result if a nuclear attack were launched against this continent. It is only sensible, therefore, to prepare in advance the measures which would have to be taken if a major war were to commence suddenly.

Canada's Civil Defence Measures

You may be interested to hear something of the steps which have been taken in Canada in this field. We now have ready facilities from which a central core of the Government can carry on outside of Ottawa under conditions of nuclear war even if there is serious radioactive fallout in this area. What we have tried to do in my country is to plan an organization which will preserve some degree of governmental and economic organization during the initial period of a nuclear war. The purpose we have had in mind has been to decentralize as far as possible.

Recent studies of the probable economic situation arising from conditions of a nuclear attack indicate that the problem of providing and distributing essential commodities for both military and civilian purposes would be critical and complicated. It would be necessary to have not only an organization with clear unified control over supplies of all types, but one that could be decentralized not only to regional but, if necessary, local areas.

In the uncertain conditions to be expected as a result of a nuclear attack, it is considered that the flexibility and widespread distribution of transport would be of major importance in helping us to survive and reorganize the economy. No one can foresee what part of our transportation resources will be left in an operating condition following a nuclear attack on this continent. Decisions will have to be taken promptly and any doubt as to where authority lay would result in serious delay and confusion. It is necessary then that we plan in advance of such a contingency in order to have unified control of all types of transportation in an emergency.

Wartime Transport Problems

I would, for a moment, like to refer to some of the problems involved in the different forms of transportation which would be brought about with the outbreak of a war.

Civil aviation is subject to some government control in peacetime and the switch-over to a complete system of security control which would be required in an emergency should not present too much difficulty. The main task during the survival period will be the preservation of aircraft, airfield equipment and operating personnel. Plans for the use of air transport after the initial period of attack will be based on the principle of pooling resources in the national interest.

I might point out that a nuclear war will pose some serious problems with respect to aircraft operations. Aircraft may become contaminated with the radioactive residue by flight through the radioactive cloud or by fallout descending upon them. Aircraft contaminated in either way may be refuelled, rearmed and flown without undue hazard to the ground crews or aircrew. If time permits and the aircraft is not needed for immediate operational missions, simple wash-down with water will remove a large portion of the contamination.

In looking at the matter of water transport, allow me to begin by saying that deep-sea shipping is a world-wide enterprise and basic plans are now being developed in co-operation with the Planning Board for Ocean Shipping under the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

We realize that, with the opening of hostilities, a considerable quantity of ships moving in the Atlantic or Pacific may have to be diverted to Canadian anchorages until the situation is clarified and the surviving port's capacity assessed. Any ships in probable Canadian target areas would have to be evacuated and directed to a safe anchorage. An organization for receiving and dealing with ships seeking refuge in Canadian anchorages and with ships evacuated from Canadian ports is being built up within Canada at the present time.

Great Lake shipping may prove vital for internal transportation and must be preserved. In this connection, control planning will take into account the preservation of the canals and locks facilities on the St. Lawrence Seaway. It will also be necessary to develop measures aimed at preventing, as far as possible, the blocking of canals and narrow channels by sunken ships.

Expert knowledge in railway operation will also be required in the event of war. The principal task of governments in this respect will be to guide the railways in the development of plans for the preservation of railway equipment. For instance, it will likely be necessary to evacuate railway equipment from target areas as soon as warning is received. Moreover, bomb damage may cut the railway system in a number of vital places. An important part of the strategic position which must be assumed could possibly involve construction or extension of sidings in localities clear of target cities and also construction of belt lines joining together the lines radiating from major cities to enable railway communication to be maintained after bomb damage has occurred. In other words, we must be prepared to take action to protect railway equipment and put surviving railway facilities to work on priority tasks.

During World War II we realized the essential role that road transportation played in the defence of this continent. One example which I might cite was the construction and use of the Alaska Highway. In any future war our road transport systems will be vital to our security.

There has been a great deal of progress and co-operation in understanding the mutual problems between our countries regarding the necessity of preparedness in the field of transportation.

There have been regular exchange visits between transportation representatives of the Office of Civil and Defence Mobilization and Canadian Civil Defence authorities, together with attendance at each other's transportation forums and study groups.

I have only touched on some of the problems involved in defence preparedness in the transportation field. Looking at the overall picture of mutual defence, we must all agree that the collaboration which has existed between our countries during the past two decades has indeed been great. There are, and in all likelihood, there will continue to be some weak points in the structure of our partnership but in no sense do they threaten the strength of our unity.

The aims of the United States and Canada — the ideals of the American and Canadian peoples are by tradition basically the same and it is hoped that they will remain so. I trust that in our relations with each other on this North American Continent we will see the development of even greater strength and still more confident mutual understanding within this unique association of our two nations.

International Atomic Energy Agency

THIRD GENERAL CONFERENCE

FROM SEPTEMBER 22 to October 2, 1959, the third regular session of the General Conference of the International Atomic Energy Agency was held in Vienna. Again this year the Austrian Government had made available for the Conference premises in the palace of the Neue Hofburg and it was in these imposing surroundings, recalling the splendours of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, that delegates assembled to discuss one of the most significant questions facing the international community today, the application of atomic energy to peaceful purposes. Attending the Conference were representatives from 65 of the 70 member states that had ratified the Statute of the Agency before or since it came into force in July 1957. Observers from two non-member states were also present, as well as representatives from several Specialized Agencies of the United Nations, and from inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations interested in the work of the Agency.

Canada was represented at the Conference by Mr. M. H. Wershof, Q.C., Ambassador and Permanent Representative to the European Office of the United Nations. Alternate delegates were Mr. J. L. Gray, the President of Atomic Energy of Canada Ltd., and Mr. W. H. Barton and Mr. Klaus Goldschlag, both from the Department of External Affairs.

Elections

Unlike last year, when the choice of President of the Conference had been by acclamation, the election for this office was contested at the third session by two candidates, Professor Nadjakov of Bulgaria and Ambassador Furuuchi of Japan. After some debate the Conference elected Ambassador Furuuchi to serve as its President. The other important election that took place was for the Board of Governors. The Statute of the IAEA provides that this permanent body shall consist of representatives from 23 member states, of whom 13 are designated by the outgoing Board itself each year, and 10 additional members are elected by the General Conference for a two-year term. Five of these elective seats had to be filled at this session, and to them the General Conference elected Bulgaria, Ceylon, the Philippines, Mexico and Spain. Canada was among the countries designated to the Board, on which it had served from the beginning as one of five countries "most advanced in the technology of atomic energy".

The General Debate

Most of the first week of the Conference was devoted to the general debate in which the representatives of more than thirty states took the opportunity to express their opinion on the progress the Agency had made in the course of its

relatively short life and to comment on those of the Agency's activities to which they attached special importance. Since the IAEA had until recently been primarily concerned with setting up the necessary organizational structure, many of the activities it was established to perform had only got properly under way during the year preceding the third session of the Conference. The majority of delegates participating in the general debate voiced satisfaction with the positive achievements of the Agency. Singled out for favourable comment by many delegates were the development of the Agency's work in the technical assistance field, its regulatory activities in establishing health and safety standards connected with atomic energy programmes, and the contribution it was making to the wider dissemination and exchange of technical information through the holding of seminars and symposia.

Contrasting with this general feeling that the Agency was developing into a beneficial and important instrument fostering international co-operation in the use of the atom for peaceful ends was the critical attitude taken by the delegate of the U.S.S.R., supported by the other countries of Eastern Europe, towards several aspects of the Agency's work. The U.S.S.R. representative attacked particularly the task the Agency had undertaken, in accordance with the terms of its Statute, to develop a system of safeguards to prevent the diversion of nuclear materials from peaceful to military purposes. In opposition to the views of Canada and many other Western countries, the Soviet delegate persisted in describing safeguard procedures as an attempt by atomic "have" countries to dominate the less-developed nations of the world. The size of IAEA's regular administrative budget was also the subject of severe criticism by the Soviet Bloc.

Statements by the United States and Canada

In an important statement delivered in the general debate, the United States representative pledged that his country would increasingly rely on the Agency as a major institution for making available U.S. technical aid for non-military atomic programmes, especially in under-developed countries. Referring to the Agency's role as a supplier of nuclear materials, the United States delegate said that his Government intended to encourage its bilateral partners to draw upon the materials available to the Agency, and was prepared to channel through IAEA as much of its nuclear material allocated for foreign distribution as the Agency needed to meet the requests of its members. He also urged that IAEA undertake the planning of an enlarged technical assistance programme, expand its role as a co-ordinator of research, and assign a high priority to health and safety studies, particularly the question of waste disposal.

Speaking for Canada, Mr. Wershof expressed moderate satisfaction with the progress made by the Agency during 1959 and reaffirmed the wholehearted support of the Canadian Government for the purposes to which the Agency is dedicated. He noted that during the past year a number of Canadian scientists had been made available to participate in the work of panels of experts and at conferences, and that the first group of students holding Agency fellowships

had arrived in Canada to receive training in research institutions. In March 1959, he recalled, Canada had been the supplying party in the first transaction involving the provision of nuclear material under the auspices of the Agency to a member government, Japan, and had made available the revenue resulting from the sale of the three tons of uranium involved, an amount of some \$100,000, as a gift to the Agency to develop its programme of research and technical assistance. In the course of his speech Mr. Wershof also announced to the Conference the opening of a Reactor School at Chalk River, which would offer its first 12-week course starting February 1, 1960. Twenty students would be admitted to each course, in which special emphasis would be placed on the study of power reactors fuelled with natural uranium. Canada, he added, would be prepared to accommodate five applicants sponsored by the Agency in each of these countries.

Programme and Budget

The general debate concluded, the Conference turned to its principal task, the examination of the programme and budget for 1960. The Statute of the Agency divides its expenses into two categories, an administrative section and an operational section. The former is met by assessment of the membership, and the latter by voluntary contributions and by any excess of revenues over expenditures from Agency projects. For 1960 the Board of Governors recommended to the Conference a regular administrative budget of \$5,843,000 (about \$600,000 higher than last year's) and an operational budget of \$2,390,000. Within this latter figure the amount to be met from voluntary contributions was set at the same level as for 1959 — \$1,500,000. The balance of the operational budget was provided for from anticipated revenues from the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (\$600,000), a carry-over of \$200,000 from last year of the special contribution made by the United States for the Agency's laboratory, and from miscellaneous sources.

In the discussion of the budget, the Soviet-Bloc delegations took strong exception to certain parts of the Agency's programme, such as the study of waste disposal in international rivers, the Agency's laboratory and, as noted above, safeguards and the size of the administrative staff. Other member states, however, while recognizing the need for economy, accepted the administrative budget as presented by the Board of Governors. After considerable discussion in Committee, the General Conference approved the budget as a whole, both its administrative and operational parts, by a vote of 45 in favour, none against, and 10 abstentions (the Soviet Bloc and Iraq).

Voluntary Contributions

For the purpose of receiving pledges to the "General Fund", as that portion of the operational budget covered by voluntary contributions is called, a "committee of the whole" was established by the Conference. Pledges announced in this committee by 24 member states totalled approximately \$910,000 and subsequent pledges by 3 other members brought voluntary contributions announced

during the Conference to \$927,000. Although this figure represents an improvement over the \$850,000 announced at last year's Conference, it falls well short of the target of \$1,500,000 that must be attained during the coming year if the Agency's technical assistance programme as envisaged for 1960 is to be implemented in its entirety.

The United States' pledge to the General Fund was of the same order as last year, \$500,000, plus an additional \$250,000 on a matching basis once the total pledged passes the \$1 million mark. An encouraging sign was the number of smaller donors that increased their contributions. On the other hand, the U.S.S.R. did not make a pledge at the Conference, its representative stating merely that consideration would be given to a contribution once his country's offer of 500,000 roubles worth of equipment from the Soviet Union was utilized. Canada pledged for 1960 an amount equal to its 1959 contribution of \$50,000, and promised, subject to the condition that other member states contribute on a sufficient scale, that consideration would be given to an additional grant of \$25,000.

Other Matters

Among the many resolutions passed by the Conference, two may be selected for special mention. The first concerned assistance to less-developed countries in developing their own nuclear power programmes. Pursuant to a resolution adopted at the second session of the Conference, the Board of Governors had prepared a report on the progress which had been made in studying the needs of less-developed countries in this field, in developing studies into the technology of small and medium-scale nuclear power reactors, and in assisting less-developed countries to establish appropriate training programmes. The great interest taken by the less-developed countries in this subject led to the adoption by this Conference of another resolution requesting *inter alia* that the Board of Governors take steps to accelerate the programme outlined in the original resolution, and asking the Board to submit annual reports to the Conference on the progress achieved.

The other resolution, which precipitated a long debate with a marked political bias, concerned a motion by Czechoslovakia on the subject of nuclear tests. This motion was regarded by a majority of delegates as dealing with matters that could be handled more effectively by other United Nations organs and international bodies than by an essentially technical organization such as IAEA. In the face of strong opposition by Soviet-Bloc delegations, the Conference adopted, by a large majority, a proposal by Sweden that no action be taken on the Czech resolution since the subject of nuclear tests and disarmament was already under discussion "in other more appropriate forums".

To complete this account, three events should be mentioned that, although they fell outside the framework of the session proper, contributed to the Conference's work by highlighting significant developments in the atomic-energy field. On the first day of the Conference an open symposium was held at which three distinguished atomic scientists, from England, France and India, read

papers on different aspects of atomic-energy programmes and afterwards invited questions from the floor. Their papers stimulated numerous questions that demonstrated the keen interest their audience took in the subject. Secondly, during the Conference, a ceremony was held at the site of the Agency's laboratory to mark the beginning of construction work on this project. On completion this laboratory will make an important contribution to the scientific work the Agency performs. Finally, the holding of talks in Washington between Mr. McCone, Chairman of the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, and Professor Emelyanov, Chairman of the Soviet Atomic Energy Board, during Mr. Khrushchev's visit to the United States, excited the keen interest of delegates. The outcome of these talks, which coincided with the meeting in Vienna, gave delegates attending the Conference some grounds for hoping for increased co-operation between the United States and the Soviet Union in the exploitation of atomic energy for peaceful purposes, a development that could not fail to strengthen the International Atomic Energy Agency.



Members of the Canadian Delegation to the Third General Conference of the IAEA from left to right: Mr. H. Wershof, Q.C., Permanent Representative and Ambassador to the European Office of the United Nations (Delegate); Mr. Klaus Goldschlag,

Department of External Affairs (Alternate Delegate); Mr. J. L. Gray, President of AECL (Alternate Delegate); Mr. R. M. Tait, Department of External Affairs (Adviser); Mr. W. H. Barton, Department of External Affairs, (Alternate Delegate)

Canada and the United Nations

NATIONALITY OF MARRIED WOMEN

ON OCTOBER 21, 1959, Canada became the 18th country to accede to or ratify the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women.

The Canadian Government's instrument of ratification was deposited at UN Headquarters by Mrs. Alene Holt, Alternate Canadian Representative to the UN General Assembly. It was received by Constantin A. Stavropoulos, UN Legal Counsel, to whom Mrs. Holt made the following statement:



Mrs. Alene Holt, Alternate Canadian Representative to the UN General Assembly, with Mr. Constantin A. Stavropoulos, UN Legal Counsel, with whom she deposited

the Canadian Government's instrument of ratification of the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women.

... I am both proud and pleased to deliver to you for deposit the instrument of ratification by Canada of the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women.

For a very long time, the absence of any uniform practice governing the nationality of married women has brought about difficult situations. Frequently great hardships have been suffered because the nationality of the wife was tied to that of the husband. Seventeen countries have now ratified the Convention. I warmly hope that many other countries will also accede to it with the result that an old anachronism will at long last be eliminated.

In Canada, some women's organizations have expressed their strong support for the Convention. Other groups have perhaps not yet formally recorded their views, but I am sure that the Convention is held in high regard by them also. I am therefore convinced that the eyes of a great number of Canadian women are on me when I now deposit with you, Sir, this instrument of ratification.

The Convention, which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in January 1957 and entered into force on August 11, 1958, was drafted by the Commission on the Status of Women. It provides that neither marriage nor its dissolution, nor the change of nationality by the husband during marriage, shall automatically affect the nationality of the wife. Contracting states also agree that an alien wife may, at her request, acquire her husband's nationality through specially-privileged naturalization procedures.

The 18 countries now parties to the Convention are: Byelorussia, Canada, Ceylon, China, Cuba, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, the Federation of Malaya, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Ukraine, the U.S.S.R. the United Kingdom and Yugoslavia.

Ten countries have signed the Convention but have not yet ratified it: Chile, Colombia, Czechoslovakia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Hungary, India, Pakistan, Portugal, and Uruguay.

The League of Arab States

THE ORIGINS of the League lie in the Arab intellectual revival that took place in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Nurtured by the spread of the idea of nationalism throughout the world, the Arab cultural awakening led, in the early part of the twentieth century, to the gradual emergence of powerful political trends towards the goals of independence and unity. This twin struggle, with the emphasis on the former objective, occupied Arab leaders between the world wars. Towards the end of the Second World War, when the goal of independence had been largely achieved or seemed within reach in most Arab countries, the quest for unity was intensified. Discussions took place between representatives of the seven independent Arab states with a view to giving institutional effect to the ill-defined but widespread desire for unity. On September 25, 1944, representatives of Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Saudi-Arabia, Syria, Transjordan and Yemen attended a conference in Alexandria convened to consider means of increasing co-operation among the Arab states. Although there was more agreement on the principle of unity than on the form it should take, the delegates resolved upon a form of loose association. This decision was formalized in the Protocol of Alexandria, which set forth the objectives and proposed constitution of the League of Arab States. On March 22, 1945, the Pact of the League was signed in Cairo by representatives of these seven countries. Four newly-independent Arab states have subsequently joined the League—Libya in March, 1953, Sudan in January, 1956, and Morocco and Tunisia in October, 1958.

The Pact of the Arab League

This Pact, while designed to co-ordinate the policies of the Arab member-states and thus to achieve an increasing degree of co-operation among them, testified to the reluctance of the individual states, after twenty-five years of separate political experience, to delegate the exercise of their individual sovereignties. The framers of the Arab League were not thinking of organic unity; rather, they set out gradually to achieve a "limited functional unity" by promoting practical co-operation among the member states. According to the preamble of the Pact, the League aims at "strengthening the close relations and numerous ties which bind the Arab states" while respecting their independence and sovereignty. Article II lists certain fields of endeavour in which co-operation is to be specially promoted: economic and financial matters; social affairs; cultural matters; legal affairs; communications; and health problems. Provision is also made for the peaceful settlement of disputes (Article V), non-interference in each member's internal affairs (Article VIII) and the establishment of a loose collective-security system (Article VI). This last article (providing for joint consultation in case of aggression against a member state) foreshadowed the conclusion on January 17, 1950, by the founding members of the League, of the Treaty of Joint Defence and Economic

Co-operation. In this treaty the contracting states recognized "the desire of their peoples to co-operate for the realization of mutual defence and the maintenance of security and peace according to the principles of both the Arab League Pact and the United Nations Charter" and pledged themselves to "consider any act of armed aggression made against any one or more of them, or against their forces, to be directed against them all". They also undertook to go without delay to the aid of the state or states against which an act of aggression had taken place. Under the Treaty, the signatory states also undertook to co-ordinate their economic activities to raise the standard of living of their peoples.

The Structure of the Arab League

The relatively simple structure of the Arab League as outlined in the Pact has three main levels — the Council, six permanent committees and the Secretariat headed by a Secretary-General elected by the Council. Other organs, such as specialized committees, several bureaux and departments within the Secretariat, have been added since 1945.

The supreme organ of the League is the Council, consisting of representatives of all the member-states, each of which has one vote. According to the Pact, the Council is invested with the responsibility for "realizing the purposes of the League" (Article II), supervising the negotiation and observance of agreements concluded by members on matters falling within the League's jurisdiction (Articles II and IV), and considering certain types of international disputes involving member states (Articles V and VI). Unanimous decisions of the Council are binding on all members, while majority decisions are binding only on those states that have accepted them. In either case, there is the reservation that decisions are "to be executed in each state in accordance with the fundamental structure of that state".

For each of the six fields in which Article II calls for special co-operation (see above), the Pact provides for the establishment of a special committee on which all members, and in certain cases other Arab states, are represented (Article IV). These committees are responsible for formulating draft agreements on general principles within their respective fields of competence, and for submitting these to the Council prior to their submission to the member states (Article IV).

In addition to the organs envisaged by the Pact, several other bodies have subsequently been established. Chief among these are the Economic Council, the Joint Defence Council, the Permanent Military Committee (all three of which were called for in the Joint Defence Treaty of 1950), and several special bureaux. One of these bureaux, the controversial "Boycott Office", reflects the continuing concern of the member states with the Palestine problem.

What may turn out to be one of the most far-reaching decisions of the Economic Council was its approval of the establishment of the Arab Monetary Fund for Economic Development (AMFED). The agreement to establish AMFED, which last January received sufficient signatures to bring the Fund into existence, provides that the Fund will have a capital of £20 million (Egyptian), which will be

subscribed in accordance with the scale of assessment of the Arab League. The Fund represents an earnest effort to promote the economic development of the Middle East by mobilizing for this purpose the capital resources of the area and is therefore of great potential importance.

Relations with the United Nations

The framers of the Arab League, who were meeting at a time when proposals for the establishment of the United Nations were being considered, were anxious for the League to establish co-operation with the new world organization. They therefore provided, in Article III of the League's Pact, that the Council of the League should determine "the means whereby the League will collaborate with the international organizations which may be created in the future to guarantee peace and security and to organize economic and social relations". Article XIX also provided for the possibility of amending the Pact for the purpose of "regulating the relations of the League" with these new international organizations. Similarly the Treaty of Joint Defence and Economic Co-operation gives recognition in its preamble to the principles of the United Nations Charter and states in Article XI that no provision of the Treaty should in any way affect the rights and duties of the member states under the United Nations Charter or the responsibilities borne by the United Nations Security Council for the maintenance of international peace and security.

The desirability of co-operation between the League and the United Nations was given expression by the United Nations General Assembly in its resolution of November 2, 1950, inviting the Secretary-General of the Arab League to attend, as an observer, sessions of the General Assembly. The Arab League has also been represented by an observer at meetings of the United Nations Economic and Social Council pursuant to the Council's resolution of August 10, 1951. In addition, the League has concluded formal agreements with both the International Labour Office (ILO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). Recognition of the importance of the role of the Arab League in promoting inter-Arab co-operation was also contained in the resolution passed on August 21, 1958, by the third emergency session of the General Assembly, which was called to deal with the Lebanese and Jordanian crises.

Future of the League

The Arab League, like most international organizations, must encompass both the collective and the individual aims of its members. While the League is likely, therefore, to continue to be an important symbol of the many common aspirations shared by the Arab states, and in particular of the aspiration for some institutional expression of the Arab sense of unity, it would be unwise to expect the League to be immediately successful in translating these aspirations into practical forms of co-operation. The League thus reflects at once the present political realities of the Arab world and Arab hopes for the future.

The Indus Waters Problem

THE INDUS RIVER rises in Tibet and empties into the Arabian Sea after flowing for 1700 miles through Kashmir and West Pakistan. It is among the major rivers of the world. In the basin drained by the Indus and its tributaries civilized societies arose as early as 2500 B.C., as the recent archaeological investigations at Harappa and Mohenjodaro show. Over the 4000 or 5000 year history of civilization in this vast area the local population has been vitally dependent upon the Indus waters because the whole region is arid or semi-arid.

Three-quarters of the people living in the Indus Basin are dependent on the land for their living, as elsewhere in India and Pakistan, and upon water for irrigation. The limited amount of rain that falls in the Indus Basin is confined almost entirely to a period of a few weeks in the summer when the southwest monsoon blows in from the Arabian Sea. If agriculture is to be reasonably productive in these conditions, irrigation water must be supplied to the crops in the dry months. About sixty years ago, in what was then British India, an irrigation system began to be developed which, by the time India and Pakistan became independent in 1947, covered 26 million acres and was probably the largest such system in the world. But, with the partition of the Indian sub-continent in 1947, political boundaries were drawn across the vast canal network. The upper reaches of the Indus and its main tributaries, with several canal headworks, are now within the area of Indian control while the larger part of the canals themselves and about 80 per cent of the land irrigated at the time of partition are within Pakistani territory.

Root of the Problem

Partition, then, is at the root of the Indus waters problem or "The Canal Waters Dispute", as it is sometimes called. Unfortunately, the partition of British India brought in its train a number of other sources of friction that embittered Indo-Pakistani relations and made it very difficult for the two countries to agree amicably upon a sharing of the Indus waters. Millions of people migrated across the new frontiers to the accompaniment of bloodshed and large-scale privation. The question of the future of some of the princely states, notably that of Jammu and Kashmir, developed into a matter of fierce controversy. The location of the Indo-Pakistan boundary in a number of places became a matter of sharp dispute. Property and financial settlements between the two new nations proved very difficult to achieve.

India and Pakistan signed an agreement on the supply of water to the canals of the Indus system in 1948.

The 1948 agreement did not, however, prove to be a satisfactory basis for a permanent settlement and the waters question remained a source of serious contention between the two countries. One of the major difficulties that became



Indus River and its Tributaries

apparent after 1947 was that both India and Pakistan needed and wanted to use more of the water in the Indus system. Despite the extensive irrigation network that had been constructed, two-thirds of the water available at flood periods in the Indus Basin was still flowing unused into the sea at the time of partition.

Both India and Pakistan have rapidly growing populations that are exerting increasing pressure on the available land. Both have made plans to improve their agricultural production by greater use of irrigation and also to facilitate industrial development by generating more hydro-electric power. Pakistan has a particularly acute problem of irrigated land going out of production through "water-logging". Hundreds of thousands of acres have been lost to cultivation

by seepage from the older canals. Pakistan needs both extensive drainage systems to recover this land and new supplies of irrigation water. Among other projects, Pakistan proposes to build a large dam and reservoir on the Jhelum River at Mangla. India has under construction one of the world's largest dams at Bhakra on the Sutlej River, and has started a 500-mile canal to bring irrigation to a huge tract of desert land in Rajasthan.

Role of International Bank

The apparent inability of India and Pakistan to reach agreement on a long-term plan for sharing the Indus Basin waters led the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development to tender its good offices in 1951. The offer was accepted and the Bank has since 1952 held a long series of talks with both sides in the dispute. In 1954 the Bank made a proposal which has become the basis of all subsequent discussion and negotiation. In summary, this proposal was that India should be given the right to exclusive use of the waters of the three easternmost tributaries of the Indus. These are the Sutlej, Ravi and Beas Rivers. Pakistan would get exclusive use of the waters of the "western rivers" — the Chenab, the Jhelum and the Indus itself. Certain minor uses of the upper reaches of these rivers would be reserved for the people of Kashmir.

As many of the canals in Pakistan are dependent on water from the eastern rivers that would be assigned to India, it would be necessary, under the 1954 proposal, to build replacement works to maintain supplies to the Pakistani canals. These replacement works would take the form chiefly of "link canals", carrying water from the western rivers to the canals formerly supplied by the eastern rivers. It was proposed that India bear the financial cost of the replacement works in return for being given the right to the water formerly feeding the Pakistani canals.

Discussion on the basis of the IBRD proposal of 1954 continued intermittently for nearly five years without success. India and Pakistan proved to have widely divergent ideas of the works necessary for the replacement scheme and the costs involved. The IBRD representatives were unsuccessful in their attempts to assist in reconciling the positions of the two countries. The Bank performed a very important mediatory role in this period, however, by reducing tension and helping India and Pakistan to reach a series of *ad hoc* agreements on water supplies for limited periods.

IBRD Plan

Earlier this year the IBRD decided to make an attempt at ending the deadlock by presenting to both sides an engineering and financing plan of its own. This plan was presented to the Governments of India and Pakistan in May 1959 by Mr. Eugene Black, President of the IBRD, and both Governments accepted it in principle. The Bank's 1959 proposal retains the basic feature of the 1954 proposal that India should be accorded use of the water of the three eastern rivers and Pakistan of the three western rivers. It goes beyond the question of replacement works, however, and attempts to take account of the development needs of both

countries. The new IBRD plan is therefore wider in scope than the possible bases for settlement discussed previously. It also breaks new ground by setting up a scheme for international financing of the works required in the Indus Basin over a ten-year period. The International Bank envisages making loans to the two countries for some of the development works as part of its normal pattern of operations. It has asked Commonwealth countries including Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand to join with the United States and other countries in contributing the necessary foreign exchange. India and Pakistan will themselves undertake a large part of the expenditures required.

Toward an Indus Treaty

Having secured agreement in principle to the scheme from India and Pakistan and obtained assurances of international financing from prospective contributors, the Bank has proceeded to use its good offices in assisting India and Pakistan in negotiating toward an Indus Waters Treaty. Discussion of the terms of such a treaty began in London in August, 1959. The Vice-President of the IBRD, Mr. W. A. Iliff, who participated in these discussions, has said that he hopes an international waters treaty will be signed between India and Pakistan in the first half of 1960. After eleven years of unsuccessful attempts at negotiation, there appears to be a real prospect that a lasting settlement of the Indus waters problem will be achieved.

Canada, as has been mentioned, was one of the countries approached by the International Bank with a request for a financial contribution to the 10-year development plan. The Secretary of State for External Affairs, Mr Howard Green, informed Parliament on July 9, 1959, of the Government's decision on this request in the following terms:

The Canadian Government agreed in principle to participate in the programme on the understanding that the funds required for this purpose would be provided as part of our increased Colombo Plan contribution. I am confident that the House will endorse the Government's view that it is in Canada's interest to help in the solution of a problem which has stood in the way of better relations between two of our Commonwealth partners in Asia.

Heather Week in Ede

EACH YEAR EDE, a town of 60,000 in the Netherlands, commemorates the traditions of the Dutch moorland with a week-long Heather Festival. This year Canadians and Dutch alike came to Ede in August to commemorate the liberation of 1945 with a mingling of the country traditions of the two nations.

The Heather Festival has its origins in the folklore of the moorlands. It is still based on walks through the heather, the annual roundup of the sheep from the moors and displays of the clipping, spinning and weaving of the wool. Superimposed on this traditional base is a cultural fair which has developed apace with the influx of foreign visitors to the Netherlands during the summer months. This year Ede's Heather Week was given an international twist when the Festival was dedicated to Netherlands-Canada friendship. This was a gesture of gratitude on the part of Ede's residents for the role played by Canadian troops in freeing Holland in 1945.

Preparations for the Festival were intensive and enthusiastic. An old school house on the Market Square emerged, heavily disguised with posters, flags and yards of bunting, as "Canada House" for the week. Thirty thousand people came here to look at exhibits of Canada's life and arts, and to watch Canadian films. Although there were seats in the film room of "Canada House" for only 40 people, between 150 and 200 squeezed in for each of the hourly showings.

The streets of Ede, like "Canada House" itself, were decked with Canadian flags. Maple leaf motifs were placed by the Town Council on the main thoroughfares and intersections. Some 5,000 paper Canadian flags were enthusiastically waved by Ede school children at every opportunity. An unsuspecting visitor who strayed into Ede between August 15 and August 22 must surely have been convinced that he had stumbled upon an outpost of Canada in Europe.

One hotel, which had been the headquarters of the Canadian troops at the time of the liberation, threw itself into the task of recreating the liberation atmosphere by putting up Dutch and Canadian flags and unearthing copies of wartime posters. The owner of the hotel and his waiters, who had once served as interpreters to the Canadian troops, resurrected their old Winnipeg Rifles uniforms for the occasion.

The new State Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Mr. van Houten, accompanied by the Canadian Ambassador to the Netherlands, Mr. C. P. Hébert, came to Ede on August 15 to open the Festival. The Heather Queen, traditionally elected from the residents of Ede to reign over the week-long festivities, was Mrs. Betty van Drosselaar, a former resident of Ede who now lives in Prescott, Ontario.

Opening Day ceremonies began at Arnhem on the morning of August 15 when the Queen's Commissioner for Gelderland Province received the State Secretary, the Heather Queen, Canada's representatives and the town officials of Ede at

Provincial House. When the official party reached Ede for its first call on "Canada House", the band of the Princess Patricia Canadian Light Infantry was already in attendance, playing outside the building. The opening of this new unofficial Canadian mission was marked by the presentation of an elaborate housing permit and the key of the building to the Canadian Ambassador.

Perhaps the most striking exhibit within Canada House was a representative display of children's paintings depicting their impressions of Canada, a country they had never seen. The paintings were the winning entries of a competition in which more than 5,000 Dutch school children had participated.

Canada's contribution to the Heather Festival took a variety of forms — innumerable band concerts, the showing of Canadian films throughout the week and — certainly a most unusual entertainment at a Heather Festival — a "Cowboys and Indians" show put on by members of the RCAF and the Canadian Army.

By sheer chance, the Canadian champion Ladies' Synchronized Swimming Team from Quebec City were in the Netherlands at the time of the Festival. Accompanied by the PPCLI Band, the eight teen-age Canadian champions gave a demonstration of synchronized swimming to the 1,200 people who managed to crowd round the swimming pool.

Canada's NATO forces in Europe were the music makers of the Festival. Parades, concerts and instrumental accompaniments were all part of the PPCLI Band's week-long holiday in the Netherlands. For three days of the week they were enthusiastically assisted by the RCAF Central Band, whose stay in Ede was part of a European tour. It was the RCAF's cowboy band and square-dance group that sparked the old-time Western show, Canada's distinctive contribution to this year's Festival. The advance billing of this show as a "great Canadian cowboy and Indian show complete with horses and wagons", was a bit disconcerting to our "cow-hands", but horses were mustered from undisclosed sources and a covered wagon was improvised from materials at hand, so that the cowboy band could be escorted into the open-air theatre with plausible Western trappings. Soon the square-dancers from the RCAF Station at Metz, all in Western garb, joined the "cowboys-for-a-day" to demonstrate their spirited and intricate numbers, before they invaded the audience to bring out on to the great grass stage the eager members of a Dutch group who had been learning to square dance.

Over 600,000 people came to this town of 60,000 to watch and to join in this traditional festival which had been given a touch of New-World flavour. Enjoyment was the one criterion of success, and enthusiasm the only passport required of participants and spectators alike.

Visit of Mexican President to Canada

PRESIDENT Adolfo López-Mateos of the United Mexican States, Mrs. López-Mateos and their daughter, Miss Eva López-Mateos Samano, paid an official visit to Ottawa on October 15 and 16. It was the first time that a Mexican Head of State had visited Canada. They were accompanied on this occasion by the Mexican Secretary of External Relations, Mr. Manuel Tello, and Mrs. Tello.

On their arrival at Ottawa, the distinguished visitors were greeted by Their Excellencies the Governor-General and Mrs. Vanier, the Prime Minister of Canada and Mrs. Diefenbaker, and the Secretary of State for External Affairs and Mrs. Green.

In welcoming the President, the Governor-General and the Prime Minister assured him of the pleasure of all Canadians in being hosts to the distinguished Head of the United Mexican States. They pointed out that the President's visit to Ottawa, together with his recent visit to Washington, emphasized the strong ties



First Mexican Head of State to visit Canada, President Adolfo López-Mateos, of the United Mexican States (centre) is greeted on his arrival at Uplands Airport, Ottawa,

on October 16, by Prime Minister John G. Diefenbaker (left) and the Governor General of Canada, Major-General Georges P. Vanier (right).

among the three countries of the North American continent, an alliance which stands at the service of the peoples of the American hemisphere and of humanity as a whole.

In reply, President López-Mateos expressed his pleasure at being the first Mexican Head of State to visit Canada. He said that Mexico's attachment for Canada was based not only on pleasant official contacts and important commercial exchanges, but on a community of ideals in the field of international affairs. The President added that one of the main purposes of his visit was to strengthen still further the existing ties between the two countries.

On his way from the airport to Government House, where he was to be for the duration of his stay in Ottawa the guest of the Governor-General, the President stopped to lay a wreath at the National War Memorial. Later that day, President and Mrs. López-Mateos called on the Speaker of the Senate, the Hon. Mark Drouin, and Mrs. Drouin, and visited City Hall, where they were greeted by His Worship George Nelms, the Mayor of Ottawa, and Mrs. Nelms. The following day, the President had a private discussion with the Prime Minister, held a press conference and visited the National Research Council.

In addition to the discussion which the President had with the Prime Minister, the Mexican Secretary of External Relations had talks on matters of common interest with the Secretary of State for External Affairs and with the Under-Secretary.

On October 17, the Presidential party visited Niagara Falls, Ontario, where they spent the day and night privately before starting on their return journey to Mexico on Sunday.

Diplomatic Privileges and Immunities

AT THE PRESENT session of the United Nations General Assembly in New York, the Sixth Committee, the legal committee of the Assembly, will consider a Draft Convention on Diplomatic Intercourse and Immunities. When it is finally concluded, this Convention will constitute a landmark in the historic development of diplomatic practice.

Historic Background

Some of the antecedents of the rules and principles of diplomatic privileges and immunities reach back to the beginnings of recorded history. In ancient times ambassadors enjoyed certain privileges and a special protection. In II Samuel X the Old Testament describes the extermination of the Ammonites by David for mistreating his ambassadors. The inviolability was derived not from law but from religion, the ambassador's person being regarded as sacrosanct⁽¹⁾.

Until the close of the Middle Ages ambassadors were appointed for specific and temporary purposes only. In the XIIIth century the practice developed in Italy of one republic stationing a representative in the capital of another. By the XVth century several Italian republics had established permanent missions in France, England, Spain and Germany. Other nations soon began to follow suit. Although Grotius wrote in his "*De Jure Belli et Pacis*" that permanent legations were unnecessary, the institution had become well established in Europe by the end of the XVIIth century.

The rise of the modern state with the attendant development of communications, growth of trade and industry, the expanding scale of political alignments confronted the heads of state of Europe with the need to maintain continuous official contact with each other. There can be little doubt that the development of the complex of diplomatic institutions and practices, as we know them today, was a feature of the emergency of the modern state.

By the time of Louis XIVth French had replaced Latin as the diplomatic "lingua franca" and the protocol at the courts of Europe had become overlaid with a heavy gloss of diplomatic niceties and rules. Precedence, in particular at diplomatic functions had become a highly sensitive issue. Since the Middle Ages diplomatic precedence had been fixed by the Pope. Evidence that this was not a satisfactory arrangement became increasingly evident. Spain was particularly incensed that France should rank before her and it was apparently this feeling of injured pride which inspired the Spanish Ambassador to attempt to press his coach in front of the coach of the French Ambassador in the course of a procession in London, in 1661. The street battle which ensued led to a rupture of diplomatic relations and an actual threat of war between Spain and France.

⁽¹⁾ Oppenheim, Vol. 1, 8th ed., p. 769.

Earliest Diplomatic Rules

It was to overcome this sort of wrangle that a first set of diplomatic rules was drawn up and signed at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. The "Règlement" of the Vienna Congress determined that precedence should be by the date of accreditation of the diplomatic representative. The Règlement also divided diplomatic representatives into different classes — ambassadors and papal legates, ministers plenipotentiary and chargés d'affaires. It decided that the order by which plenipotentiaries should sign treaties should be determined by lot⁽¹⁾ and subsequently, when amended by the Protocol of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1818, by alphabetical order of countries in French.

The privileges and immunities accorded to diplomats were firmly fixed in English law by the Diplomatic Privileges Act (7 Anne C. 12, 1709), the greater part of which is still in force. The Act is not considered to have created new law but to be declaratory of customary international law⁽²⁾. The adoption of this statute was the direct outcome of an incident involving Count Andrew de Mathveof, the Russian Ambassador to England, who was arrested on a London street with "some degree of violence" for failure to pay debts amounting to 300 pounds. Mathveof protested vigorously to both the Queen and the Czar and the officials responsible were tried and punished⁽³⁾. A United States statute enacted about 80 years later was drafted in very similar terms to the Act of Anne⁽⁴⁾.

Customary International Law

With the conclusion of numerous bilateral treaties since the beginning of the XIXth century containing articles on diplomatic agents, there developed a fixed pattern of rules which carried the force of customary international law. It is indicative of the very special interest which Latin America has in this field that out of 100 of these treaties Latin American states were parties to about one-half of them⁽⁵⁾. The only multilateral instrument dealing with diplomatic privileges and immunities which has been signed to date, apart from those concerning international organizations, is an exclusively Latin American enterprise. This was the *Convention regarding Diplomatic Officers* adopted at the Sixth International American Conference and signed at Havana in 1928⁽⁶⁾.

For almost a century, however, there have been codification projects relating to diplomatic privileges and immunities undertaken by private groups and individuals. One of the earliest is Bluntschli's Draft Code, drawn up in 1868. In 1895 the Institute of International Law, meeting at Cambridge, adopted a number of draft regulations concerning diplomatic intercourse and immunities. Similar codification projects were prepared in 1925 by the American Institute of Inter-

⁽¹⁾ Harold Nicholson, *The Congress of Vienna*, p. 219.

⁽²⁾ Oppenheim, Vol. 1, 8th ed., p. 789.

⁽³⁾ Satow's *Guide to Diplomatic Practice*, p. 177, 4th ed.

⁽⁴⁾ Act of Congress of April 30, 1790, R.S. secs. 4062-4066.

⁽⁵⁾ *Research in International Law*, Harvard Law School, Diplomatic Privileges (Harvard Research), Cambridge, Mass., 1932, p. 26.

⁽⁶⁾ *League of Nations Treaty Series*, Vol. 155, No. 3581, p. 261.

national Law and by the Japanese Branch of the International Law Association in 1926.

League of Nations Code

The first major attempt to secure international approval for a codification of diplomatic privileges and immunities never reached the final stages of preparation. In 1925, under the auspices of the League of Nations a committee of experts selected diplomatic privileges and immunities as one of 11 subjects which it considered could be usefully codified. Subsequently, questionnaires were sent to member governments requesting their views on most of these subjects. However, in 1927 the Assembly of the League retained only 3 subjects — nationality, responsibility of states and territorial waters — as topics suitable for codification at the first conference for the Codification of International Law which met at the Hague in 1930. The Assembly concluded that it would be difficult to reach universal agreement on diplomatic intercourse and immunities and that it was not "important enough to warrant insertion in the agenda of the proposed conference"⁽¹⁾.

Theories of Immunity

One of the theories used to explain diplomatic immunity during its most rapid period of development in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was the theory of extra-territoriality. According to this theory, the foreign ambassador, although resident within the territory to which he was accredited, was not subject to local jurisdiction. Later writers, including Hugo Grotius, recognized the doctrine of extra-territoriality as merely a convenient way to describe the status of the ambassador, and were at pains to stress that the "fiction of extra-territoriality" was not based on law but rather on a philosophical notion.

There are, in fact, two principal theoretical bases for the privileges and immunities of a diplomat. One is the so-called functional theory that a diplomat ought to be at liberty to devote himself fully to the service of his own sovereign. The second basis is that the diplomat owes no allegiance to the state to which he is sent and is therefore not subject to the laws of that state. This theory encompasses the notion that to subject an ambassador to the authority of the state receiving him is tantamount to an indignity toward the sovereign he represents.

Privileges and Immunities in Canadian Law

As the opening of foreign diplomatic missions in Ottawa is still very recent Canadian history, the first being the United States, France and Japan in 1929, Canadian courts have had few occasions to consider questions of diplomatic privileges and immunities. The leading cases are the *Foreign Legations Case* (1943)⁽²⁾ and the *Rose Case* (1947)⁽³⁾. The primary question with which the courts were confronted was the application of customary international law in Canada,

⁽¹⁾ U.N. Doc. A/C.N. 4/98, 21 February 1956, p. 17.

⁽²⁾ (1943) 2 D.L.R., p. 481.

⁽³⁾ (1947) 3 D.L.R., p. 640.

having particular reference to the rules of diplomatic intercourse and immunities. In the *Foreign Legations Case*, Chief Justice Sir Lyman Duff indicated that international law should be applied by Canadian courts only in so far as its principles are accepted and adopted by our law. Applying international law in this case, the court concluded that municipalities in Canada could not levy rates on high commissions or legations. The theories underlying immunity were discussed in this case and in the *Rose Case*. The functional theory was expounded by Justice Bissonette in the latter case in which he stated that "the function of the diplomatic agent can be effectively exercised . . . only if he enjoys complete liberty in a foreign state . . ."

The Draft Convention

"Diplomatic intercourse and immunities" was among the topics selected for codification at the first session in 1949 of the International Law Commission. The General Assembly requested that it should be given priority. Following a full study in the light of the views submitted by member states, the Commission recommended to the General Assembly that the Draft Convention should be considered by member states with a view to concluding a convention.

The Draft Convention has as its objective the codification of the rules and practice of nations which have hardened into customary international law and the creation of new rules where this has been considered necessary. The Convention itself contains 45 articles and is divided into six sections preceded by an article defining some of the expressions used in the Convention. Section 1 deals with diplomatic intercourse in general. It enumerates the main functions of a diplomatic mission. These include representing the sending state and protecting the interests of its nationals, inter-governmental negotiations and the promotion of friendly relations. The section also outlines the right of the receiving state to declare a member of a foreign mission *persona non grata*, together with the receiving state's right to admit only missions with a reasonable size of staff. The section also divides heads of mission into three classes, namely: ambassadors or nuncios, envoys, ministers and internuncios and chargés d'affaires, and provides that the precedence of heads of mission in their respective classes shall be based on the order of their arrival or on presentation of their Letters of Credence, without prejudice to existing practice regarding the representative of the Pope.

Section 2 outlines the diplomatic privileges and immunities and includes provisions establishing the inviolability of the mission premises and its archives and the exemption of mission premises from national, regional or municipal duties or taxes. The facilities which should be accorded to the mission, freedom from travel restrictions of its personnel and the right of a mission to the normal means of communication, are set out. The section covers the personal privileges and immunities of the diplomatic agent. The person, private residence, correspondence, papers and property of a diplomatic agent are inviolable and he is, generally speaking, immune from the criminal, civil and administrative jurisdic-

tion of the receiving state. Nor is he obliged to give evidence as a witness. The exemptions of members of a mission from taxation, customs duties and inspection of the receiving state are dealt with in some detail. For example, the baggage of the diplomatic agent is exempt from inspection unless there are serious grounds for presuming that the baggage contains unauthorized articles. The procedure by which this immunity may be waived is also dealt with in this section.

Persons Entitled to Immunity

Article 36 of this section is one of the most important articles, as it defines the persons entitled to diplomatic privileges and immunities. This is an attempt to clarify the much controverted question of immunities and privileges of the administrative and technical staff of a mission, together with their families, by stating that these persons shall enjoy the same privileges and immunities as those accorded to the diplomatic agent and his family. However, members of the service staff of a mission who are not nationals of the receiving state are to enjoy immunity only in respect of acts performed in the course of their duties and exemption from duties and taxes on emoluments they receive by reason of their employment. It is also stipulated that a third state through which the diplomatic agent or his staff may be travelling should respect the inviolability of these persons.

Section 3 of the Article records the important rule that it is the duty of all persons enjoying diplomatic privileges and immunities to respect the laws and regulations of the receiving state while Section 4 provides for the termination of the diplomatic agent's duties, requiring that even in times of emergency or in the event of a severance of diplomatic relations the receiving state shall facilitate the departure of the diplomatic agent and his staff and shall ensure the protection of the premises, archives and interests of the mission.

Section 5 embodies the notion of reciprocity of treatment, stipulating that in the application of the foregoing rules the receiving state shall not give more favourable treatment to one state than to another. The final section provides that any dispute between states concerning the interpretation and application of the convention, which cannot be settled through diplomatic channels, is to be referred to conciliation or arbitration. Failing a settlement through these means a dispute is to be submitted to the International Court of Justice at the request of either of the parties.

APPOINTMENTS, POSTINGS AND RESIGNATIONS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Mr. R. W. A. Dunn appointed Canadian Consul General at Chicago. Left Ottawa October 1, 1959.
- Mr. D. C. Reece posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Kuala Lumpur, to the Canadian Embassy, Bonn. Left Kuala Lumpur October 1, 1959.
- Mr. A. P. McLaine appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective October 1, 1959.
- Mr. J. P. Schioler appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective October 1, 1959.
- Mr. J. M. Fraser posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Belgrade. Left Ottawa October 2, 1959.
- Mr. F. G. Ballachey posted from the Canadian Embassy, Stockholm, to Ottawa. Left Stockholm October 3, 1959.
- Mr. G. W. Seymour posted from Ottawa to the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina. Left Ottawa October 7, 1959.
- Miss M. A. MacPherson posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Accra, to Ottawa. Left Accra October 9, 1959.
- Mr. K. P. Kirkwood retired from the Canadian Diplomatic Service effective October 14, 1959.
- Mr. D. W. Stevenson resigned from the Department of External Affairs effective October 16, 1959.
- Miss D. Armstrong posted from Ottawa to the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, New Delhi. Left Ottawa October 20, 1959.
- Mr. W. H. Barton posted from the Canadian Legation, Vienna, to Ottawa. Left Vienna October 23, 1959.
- Mr. J. M. Weld posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Rio de Janeiro. Left Ottawa October 23, 1959.
- Mr. C. M. Bedard posted from the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina, to Ottawa. Left Indochina October 31, 1959.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

Euratom

Agreement between the Government of Canada and the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) for co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy.
Signed at Brussels October 6, 1959.

Greece

Exchange of Notes between Canada and Greece concerning visa requirements for non-immigrant travellers of the two countries.

Signed at Athens September 9 and 10, 1959.

Entered into force October 30, 1959.

Netherlands

Supplementary Convention modifying the Convention between Canada and the Netherlands for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion in respect of taxes on income signed at Ottawa April 2, 1957.

signed at Ottawa October 28, 1959.

Switzerland

Exchange of Notes between Canada and Switzerland constituting an agreement for the avoidance of double taxation with respect to enterprises operating ships and aircraft.

Signed at Berne September 22, 1959.

Entered into force September 22, 1959.

Venezuela

Exchange of Notes between Canada and Venezuela concerning visa requirements for non-immigrant travellers of the two countries.

Signed at Ottawa October 5 and 8, 1959.

Entered into force November 1, 1959.

Multilateral

Convention on the nationality of married women adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations at its eleventh session.

Signed by Canada February 20, 1957.

Canada's Instrument of Ratification deposited October 21, 1959.



EXTERNAL AFFAIRS

Monthly Bulletin of the Department of External Affairs

CANADA

Vol. XI No 12

In this Issue

December 1959

PROSPERITY AND PEACE

MR. GREEN IN PARIS AND LONDON

NATO TODAY — THE CANADIAN VIEW

THE STUDY OF NUCLEAR RADIATION

GENERAL AND COMPLETE DISARMAMENT

TOKYO SESSION OF GATT

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS

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Prosperity and Peace

ADDRESS BY THE PRIME MINISTER, MR. JOHN G. DIEFENBAKER,
TO THE MEN'S AND WOMEN'S CANADIAN CLUB, HALIFAX,
NOVA SCOTIA, NOVEMBER 14, 1959

ALL PLANS for economic prosperity within Canada depend on the maintenance of international peace.

There are some signs of a new spirit in the relations between the Western world and the Soviet bloc. The discussions between Prime Minister Macmillan, President Eisenhower and Premier Khrushchov have contributed in large measure to a reduction of world tension.

On the Soviet side, threats, abuse and suspicion appear to have given way to an attitude of greater moderation and understanding. Many different interpretations have been placed on the new Soviet approach. There are those who see it as reliable evidence of a genuine determination on the part of the Soviet Union to negotiate settlements of outstanding differences. There are others who cannot bring themselves to believe that Mr. Khrushchov's words of moderation are anything but a deceitful cloak for continued Soviet pursuance of aggressive aims. It is difficult to decide where the truth really lies, but it is necessary for the Western nations to keep under constant review the policies and tactics which are best calculated to advance the cause of greater international stability.

No Fundamental Alteration

Nothing which emerged from Mr. Khrushchov's visit to the United States and nothing he has said publicly since that time justifies the conclusion that any of the basic Soviet positions have been abandoned or modified. The Soviet hold on Eastern Europe has not been relaxed. The German problem is as intractable as ever. There are no signs of a falling-off in Soviet defence preparations. There is still much room for scepticism as to the real substance of Soviet disarmament proposals. We should not leap to the conclusion that the differences we have lived with for more than a decade are on the point of being swept away, or that trouble may not arise again in areas which are at present in a state of quiet.

If these things are true, what then has changed and what basis for optimism or hope exists? I believe that, so long as we do not suffer from the illusion that Soviet foreign policy has undergone a basic change, it is possible to identify and to welcome certain modifications in the Soviet approach to international problems. There has been some recent concrete evidence to support this view.

It was a positive gain that, out of the talks which Mr. Khrushchov and President Eisenhower held at Camp David in September, the Soviet Government undertook to remove the pressure of a time element from the Berlin situation. It is now possible for the parties concerned in this dispute to approach a new

stage of negotiation free from the shadow of an ultimatum. While no substantive advance towards a settlement of the Berlin issue was made, the Soviet Government evidently considered that it would be in its interest to remove a sore spot in its relations with the Western nations.

In his appearance before the United Nations, Mr. Khrushchov brought forward sweeping proposals on disarmament. Time alone will serve to test the real significance of that much advertised presentation, which left many questions unanswered. It may, however, be of some importance that in subsequent public statements Mr. Khrushchov has sought to counteract the impression that the Soviet Government would not agree to a realistic system of control and inspection in the implementation of disarmament measures. Progress on disarmament cannot be anything but slow, but we should not disregard the fact that the U.S.S.R. has agreed to participate in a committee of ten nations, including Canada, which will begin, after the New Year, to examine the whole range of disarmament problems. More recently the Soviet Government has agreed to co-operate in technical studies of United States data on the problem of detecting underground nuclear tests.

Question of Motives

What is one to think of these developments in the field of disarmament? Perhaps the Soviet Government wants only to avoid being revealed as the stumbling-block in negotiations. But again, the Soviet leaders now have the opportunity to demonstrate in concrete terms their desire for progress towards a world disarmament system.

Another example of the new atmosphere is to be found in Premier Khrushchov's speech of October 31 reporting to the Supreme Soviet on foreign affairs. Compared with previous Soviet statements on foreign policy, it was remarkable for its moderation. Four times Mr. Khrushchov acknowledged the need for mutual concessions if any progress was to be made in solving international problems. Once he went so far as to state that the Western nations had themselves already made concessions to the U.S.S.R. This speech contained only commendation of President Eisenhower, Prime Minister Macmillan and President de Gaulle for their peaceful intentions. Even on Algeria, a favourite subject of Soviet vilification of France, Premier Khrushchov commented on the difficulties of the French position and spoke favourably of President de Gaulle's proposals for self-determination.

Again, it must be recalled that Premier Khrushchov has not weakened any position of Soviet power by making these statements. Past experience with the Soviet Union will warn us that we should not assume uncritically that these sentiments are proof of a change of heart among the Soviet leaders.

It is an open question in a totalitarian society such as the Soviet Union how much importance should be attached to public statements. Some people claim that such statements mean nothing because the Soviet leaders do not have to take account of public opinion. I believe that this is too superficial a view. Although public opinion in the Soviet Union does not have the powerful force it has in

Canada and other Western countries, it cannot be denied that Premier Khrushchov is circumscribed by what he says in public.

When he publicly urged India and Communist China to settle their frontier differences, could the Communist leaders of China consider that they were being fully backed by the U.S.S.R.? And what must have been the Chinese reaction when, in Peking, Mr. Khrushchov seemed to imply the possibility of compromise with the United States as a long-term solution? One thing seems clear — that these views reveal that the Soviet Union has vested interests which do not always coincide with those of Communist China.

One could speculate indefinitely on Soviet motives for desiring a relaxation of tension. It seems clear that one of Mr. Khrushchov's main concerns is to modernize Soviet society and to raise the standard of living of the Soviet people. To this end he no doubt requires the assurance of a long period of peace, with some relief from the burden of armaments production and with time to broaden and consolidate the Soviet economy.

Origin of New Attitude

Mr. Khrushchov is a realist. He knows that modern war is self-defeating and cannot be employed in the traditional way to back up the aims of foreign policy. The thought of nuclear war is no less appalling to Mr. Khrushchov than it is to the West. Perhaps too, he has discovered in his talks with President Eisenhower and Prime Minister Macmillan a reflection of the longing for peace which imbues the Western nations. In other words, it may have come home to Mr. Khrushchov as a result of his talks with Western leaders, that, despite long years of Soviet propaganda to the contrary, the launching of a war is not the intention of the West.

The fresh look which Mr. Khrushchov has given to Soviet foreign policy arises primarily from a deep-seated Soviet fear of nuclear war and its consequences. It might be influenced by possible Soviet concern about the long-range implications of the policies of Communist China. It accords better with the image of benevolence and reasonableness which the Soviet Union hopes to project in the underdeveloped world. Of more direct concern to Canada, a Soviet policy of conciliation offers a better prospect of driving wedges into the ranks of his diplomatic adversaries, of creating splits among members of NATO.

Whatever the accurate assessment may be of Mr. Khrushchov's motives, the problem before the Western nations is to determine how to respond to and encourage these changes in the Soviet attitude and yet at the same time avoid falling into a mood of complacency or divided counsels among the nations of the Western world.

Western Harmony Essential

The first requirement today is to keep striving for a high degree of Western unity. In the search for an acceptable basis for living with the Russians, the Western nations must remain true to each other, and must keep working to perfect their understanding. Earlier this month, when the Secretary of State for External Affairs, the Honourable Howard Green, visited Paris and London, this was the purpose he had in mind. In speaking to French and British leaders and to the

NATO Council, he emphasized the Canadian view that NATO is an alliance of partners, that there is no place in NATO for different classes of membership, and that NATO's purposes cannot be fulfilled in the absence of full and candid consultation among its members large and small.

A distinguished Soviet visitor will be in Halifax next week in the person of the First Deputy Premier, Anastas Mikoyan, who will be stopping over for part of a day *en route* on an official visit to Mexico.

The process of consultation must be a constantly flowing stream. In addition to normal diplomatic exchanges between governments and in the NATO Council, it draws periodic infusions of renewed strength from exchanges of visits between Heads of Government and Foreign Ministers, and from meetings of the NATO Council at the ministerial level.

Another important type of consultation took place one week ago at Camp David, Maryland, at the Canada-U. S. Ministerial Meeting on Joint Defence.

One month from now, the regular Ministerial Meeting of the NATO Council will be held, immediately prior to the discussions scheduled for December 19 and 20 between President Eisenhower, Prime Minister Macmillan, President de Gaulle and Chancellor Adenauer. In this way the four heads of government will have the benefit of the up-to-date views of the other members of the Alliance. Furthermore, when the so-called Western "summit meeting" has been concluded, a direct and immediate report on the outcome of that meeting will be made to the Foreign Ministers of NATO. The strengthening of Western unity and understanding is a major requirement.

Conciliatory Climate

It is equally important that the Western governments should not fail to maintain the climate of conciliation achieved in recent months. The Canadian Government has consistently advocated the early beginning of a series of summit meetings between the East and West, for there is no denying the value of personal diplomacy as an element in the process of fostering mutual understanding.

What should be the course followed by Canada in promoting the general Western effort to improve relations with the Soviet world? Subject always to the essential conditions of maintaining Western unity and preventing the growth of a mood of complacency or appeasement, there are certain general considerations which may help to guide our conduct.

It is to the advantage of the West to encourage the development of more normal societies in the U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe and gradually to bring them into more normal relationships with the West. Despite the discouraging history of Western dealings with the Soviet world, the possibility exists that in the face of modern armaments and in the light of the requirements of internal development, the Soviet leaders are truly prepared to move towards a more reasonable relationship with the West.

There are certain specific avenues or progress which can help to increase our knowledge of the Soviet Union and Soviet knowledge of Canada and, in this way, to establish a basis for more normal dealings.

The Government continues to be interested in the possibilities of increased trade with the Soviet Union. Our experience in recent negotiations has not been encouraging, but we continue to believe that trade is a stabilizing element which should be developed in the fullest measure possible.

In general, therefore, while remaining watchful and realistic we should restrain ourselves from automatically placing the worst construction on Soviet actions. While standing united with our allies, we should not be afraid to match gesture with gesture with the Soviet Union and to meet, on our side, any genuine move that they are willing to make on theirs, towards living together in a better atmosphere.

In addition to the situation in Europe, there is also the need for the free world to raise standards everywhere and to this end assistance to under-developed nations and areas is important. Material aid, however, has carried with it a suspicion among Asian and African peoples as to the objectives that the free world has in mind as it distributes the largesse of humanitarian aid.

The Government has also encouraged exchanges of visits between Soviet and Canadian individuals and delegations in the cultural and scientific fields on a reciprocal basis.

Mutual Knowledge

The general principle which underlies Canadian thinking in this regard is that no reasonable effort should be spared to develop an inter-flow of knowledge and ideas which will help in creating a better understanding between Canada and the Soviet Union. Mutual knowledge helps to dispel mutual suspicion.

It is important in this respect that normal courtesy and restraint be shown towards Soviet visitors and Soviet diplomatic representatives.

What the forces of freedom stand for is little known to the peoples of the uncommitted world. I believe that there should be a joint declaration similar in kind to the Atlantic Charter, which will set forth the idealism and dynamic aspects for good of the forces of freedom and emphasize the willingness to work for the achievements of better economic conditions in an atmosphere in which equality and tolerance, personal dignity and freedom, can be assured to peoples everywhere, whatever their colour or race.

I would turn now for a few minutes to a discussion of another subject of great importance to all of us as Canadians. I refer to the relations in the economic field between the countries of the Commonwealth, and to the place they occupy in the broader context of world trade.

As you all know, Canada took the initiative in holding a Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference in Montreal in September of 1958, and I think it would be useful to pause briefly to look back on that event in the perspective of the developments of the past year and to assess what it has meant to Canada. The central theme of that Conference was "An Expanding Commonwealth in an Expanding World". In other words, the main emphasis was placed on the inter-dependence not only of the member countries of the Commonwealth itself but of all the trading nations of the Free World.

The conference re-affirmed the common objective of freer trade and payments, and agreed that dollar discrimination should be progressively reduced and ended as soon as possible.

Of equal importance was the agreement reached at the Conference on the need to mitigate the adverse effects of protection afforded to basic agricultural commodities.

In the field of finance, the Commonwealth Ministers welcomed proposals for the expansion of the resources of the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

What has happened since then? I would not, of course, suggest to you that every favourable development can be traced to this Conference, but I have little doubt that the signposts set up by the Conference, have helped to point the way in the right direction and have given added impetus and encouragement to many of those trends in the Free World that were already emerging from the long and arduous postwar period of recovery.

Removal of Trade Restraints

For example, just under a year ago the United Kingdom, France and many other major trading countries moved a long way towards full convertibility of their currencies and concurrently lifted restrictions on a wide range of dollar imports. Progressive steps have since been taken by a number of Commonwealth countries to reduce further the scope of their remaining restraints on trade. The most recent moves in this direction were announced by the United Kingdom on November 4 and by France on November 5. These have followed closely on the finding by the International Monetary Fund at its annual meeting in Washington last September that there is no longer any balance of payments reason for most countries to maintain discriminatory import control.

In another sector, the Contracting Parties to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade have established three committees on the programme for the expansion of international trade:

- (1) the problem of agricultural protectionism;
- (2) further reductions in tariff barriers to trade;
- (3) the problems of under-developed countries.

I think it would not be too bold to say that we stand on the threshold of a full return to those conditions of trade which we would regard as normal and which the world has not witnessed since a brief period between the two great wars.

It is these conditions that Canada and the other Commonwealth countries so earnestly desire to see restored and preserved, for they cannot fail to benefit Canada as one of the world's greatest trading nations. Moreover, they provide a promise of a better life for peoples all over the world. In a world where trade could flourish and living standards rise, the age-old enemies of mankind — want, hunger and social unrest — will be kept in check.

Under the general heading of economic aid, three important decisions were reached and announced by the Canadian Government:

- (1) The decision to increase the annual contribution to the Colombo Plan

programme from \$35,000,000 to \$50,000,000 annually, and to pledge such a contribution for a period of three years in advance;

- (2) The decision to establish a programme of technical assistance designed to benefit those countries of the Commonwealth which are not participating members of the Colombo Plan;
- (3) The decision in principle to establish a Commonwealth scholarship scheme at a total estimated cost of approximately \$1,000,000 per year. This programme was the subject of a Commonwealth Conference held at Oxford, England, in July of this year, at which the Canadian proposal for a Commonwealth scholarship plan was warmly received and approved. Measures are now being taken to complete the necessary administrative arrangements to receive the first intake of scholars under this plan in the fall of 1960.

In addition to these decisions reached at the Montreal Conference, the Government has recently approved a programme of assistance to The West Indies amounting to \$10,000,000 over a period of five years.

Atomic Control

The atomic age is still a very new era of mankind — less than two decades — but even so it has brought perils as well as blessings. We may look to nuclear fission as the most powerful source of energy with the exception of solar energy. But we must be vigilant that these mighty powers are properly used for the benefit of men, women, and children. As we all know there are dangers in the radio-activity which, unless checked, could pollute our atmosphere to the point that lives are threatened and future generations born maimed, twisted or deformed.

Our foreign policy will always seek the peaceful uses of the atom. We stand against the testing of nuclear bombs, and we have made our position known at the United Nations.

We have gone further than that. Before the United Nations, Canada has taken the initiative in proposing a world-wide study of atomic radiation. From the start of the current Session, our delegates have been busy meeting day and night with delegates of other countries, to line up the support for some form of united world action. Canada wants to know — exactly and without guesswork — the amount of atomic radiation in each part of the world. We want this information to be available — in as exact measurements as scientists can devise. We propose that radiation be studied in the atmosphere, and in the soil — so that the air we breathe and the food we eat will be safe for life.

I think that I should point out that our scientists are satisfied that the amount of radiation over our country is well below the danger level.

But present safety will not satisfy us. We want the world to be aware of the problem of radiation, not in terms of a scare not related to facts, but in terms of reality based on scientific information. Then we may expect that the collective wisdom of the nations will ensure that we do not find ourselves in a race for the testing of nuclear weapons which could only turn the present threat of radiation into a hazard.

Mr. Green in Paris and London

THE SECRETARY OF STATE for External Affairs, Mr. Howard Green, visited Paris and London from October 25 to November 3. He was accompanied by the Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs, the Canadian Ambassador to the United States and officials of the Department.

In Paris, Mr. Green presided over the annual meeting of the heads of Canadian diplomatic missions in Europe and the Middle East. The object of this meeting was to enable him to discuss with Canadian diplomatic representatives the broad aims of Canadian foreign policy, various questions affecting Canadian relations with the countries to which they are accredited, developments of direct Canadian interest in the areas concerned and general administrative matters. Twenty-eight heads of missions took part in these sessions, which were held from October 26 to 29.

During his stay in the French capital, Mr. Green was received by President de Gaulle. He was accompanied by Mr. Pierre Dupuy, Canadian Ambassador to France. He also called on the Prime Minister, M. Debre, and the Foreign Minister, M. Couve de Murville. These calls afforded an occasion for a full exchange of views on questions of common concern to Canada and France and on the international situation. "When we are in France," Mr. Green later told a group of journalists, "we feel rather at home, and discussions are not only friendly but take on a family turn."

In the course of his visit, Mr. Green had conversations with the Secretary General of NATO, M. Spaak, and the Supreme Allied Commander in Europe, General Norstad. At a regular meeting of the NATO Council which he attended on October 28, he was introduced by Mr. Jules Leger, Canadian Permanent Representative. Mr. Green recalled that the defence of North America was as important to NATO as the defence of Western Europe and that the maintenance of Canadian forces in Europe was a contribution to NATO over and above heavy commitments now being undertaken by the Canadian Government in the defence of North America. He insisted on the need for frequent and frank consultations between NATO partners, so that, in the formulation of their national policies and in advance of national action, the governments of member states would fully understand each other's points of view and preoccupations. However, he regarded as undesirable the setting up of machinery for political consultation on a regional basis outside the NATO framework, which might tend to produce pre-fixed positions by a number of member countries on problems of interest to the Alliance as a whole. He suggested that the increased financial strength achieved by the European members of NATO should permit of more liberal commercial policies, increased foreign investment and a more direct participation in plans for the assistance of under-developed countries, whether inside the Alliance or outside. An economic split not only in Europe but between Europe and North America

and the rest of the free world should not be allowed to develop. "In the Canadian view", Mr. Green said, "regional economic arrangements should stimulate progress towards the expansion of international trade, freed from the burden of restrictions and discrimination".*

On his return journey, Mr. Green spent three days in London, where he was received by Her Majesty the Queen. He called on Prime Minister Macmillan, Foreign Secretary Lloyd, and the Secretary of State for Commonwealth Relations,



Mr. Howard Green, Secretary of State for External Affairs, is greeted by the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Couve de Murville at the Quai d'Orsay in Paris.

—AFP Photo

*The full text of Mr. Green's address appears in the *Series Statements and Speeches, No. 59/38.*

Lord Home. A dinner was given in his honour by Mr. George Drew, Canadian High Commissioner in the United Kingdom.

To newspapermen who interviewed him on his return to Canada, Mr. Green expressed his admiration for President de Gaulle, "a devoted leader of the French people, who does not waste any time on trivialities." His conversations with British and French leaders on the question of the forthcoming summit conference had convinced him that their views were by no means as far apart as might have appeared from press reports. They agreed on the advisability of consultations in the NATO Council of Ministers before and after the meeting of the heads of government of the United States, United Kingdom, France and Western Germany which will take place on December 19 in Paris. In Mr. Green's opinion, the Western nations negotiating at the summit conference with the Soviet Union should take into account the views of the whole alliance.

NATO Today — The Canadian View

A STATEMENT BY MR. GREEN

TO THE NATO COUNCIL, OCTOBER 28, 1959

I AM very glad on my first official visit to Europe to have this opportunity of calling on the Council. In the few months since I took up my present position I have been impressed by the importance of the Council as a forum in which my country and others can make known their views. There is a refreshing quality of informality here which is seldom found in other diplomatic forums.

Support for NATO

At the outset of my remarks I wish to state once more that the Canadian Government is devoted to the purposes of the North Atlantic Treaty and that we continue to give it high priority among Canada's international obligations. The most recent example of our continuing support for NATO is the recent decision of the Canadian Government to re-equip the Canadian Air Division in Europe with the most modern aircraft — a decision which we took at a time of budgetary deficits when we were unable to increase total defence expenditures.

The North Atlantic Treaty binds us together for the defence of North America and Europe. Unlike most members of the Alliance, the Canadian defence effort cannot be concentrated only in Europe. We must provide, in co-operation with the United States, for the defence of the long frontier bordering the Soviet empire in the north. In the age of missiles and long-range bombers, the defence of North America is as important to NATO as a whole as is the defence of Western Europe. The requirements of the defence of North America are expanding and costly. The maintenance of Canadian forces in Europe is a contribution to NATO over and above heavy commitments now being undertaken by the Canadian Government in the defence of the Canada-United States region.

Interdependence

One of the principles underlying the North Atlantic Alliance is that no state, however powerful, can guarantee its security and welfare in the nuclear age by national action alone. To all its members — large, medium and small — NATO brought, in the face of a serious Soviet military challenge, a measure of security and purpose, and today endows us with a sense of mutual confidence and responsibility for the negotiations which lie ahead which no member, by itself, could have attained.

By the same token, the very interdependence of a grouping of states of varying sizes and responsibilities means that the action of one can affect, and often vitally, the security and welfare of all. Interdependence requires above all mutual confidence. It must exist to a very high degree, and it is of the utmost importance that

it be maintained. In the Canadian view the most effective way of preserving our faith and trust in each other is through frequent and frank consultations.

Political Consultations

The Canadian Government has consistently emphasized the great significance of political consultation within the Alliance and we are encouraged by the considerable progress which has been achieved. It is now accepted practice that member states should not, without advance consultation, adopt firm policies or make major political pronouncements on matters which significantly affect the Alliance or any of its members.

We are confident that member states are prepared to live up to this recommendation and there is, we believe, an increasing sense of responsibility and obligation regarding consultation. During the last few months, consultations have been particularly useful on the Berlin issue and during the Geneva conferences.

There have also been fruitful and intimate exchanges on a variety of problems arising outside of the NATO area but capable of possible repercussions on the interest of the Alliance or its members. We are entering into this field in the knowledge that the purpose of such consultations is not the formulation of common NATO policies in parts of the world outside the NATO area or the widening of the commitments of the individual members. Rather, the object is to discuss questions of common concern so that NATO governments in the formulation of their national policies will fully understand each other's points of view and preoccupations. I am sure this approach is shared by all governments represented around this table.

Adequacy of NATO Machinery

It is to the credit of its authors that the Treaty is as adequate to the problems we face today as it was ten years ago. It is up to us to use it. Of late we have had indications that some members of the Alliance are considering the possibility of setting up special machinery for political consultation on a regional basis outside the NATO framework. We welcome exchanges generally and continue to use our own bilateral and multilateral contacts with other countries. It has always seemed to us undesirable, however, that such consultations should take the place of or frustrate political consultation within the Council. In particular, we would view with concern any development which might tend to produce pre-fixed positions by a number of member countries on problems of interest to the Alliance as a whole. We hope that this view is generally shared and that no decision will be taken the results of which would be to weaken the effectiveness of consultation within NATO.

During the next few weeks the Council will move to its new headquarters. The process of consultation will surely be intensified by the mere presence under one roof of all member delegations and of the Secretary-General and his staff. Indeed it would be quite normal in these new surroundings for some permanent delegations to meet informally and discuss problems of more immediate concern to their countries. The Council on the other hand could remain in more or less

permanent session and be available at the call of the chair at a few minutes' notice. It seems to us therefore that, given goodwill on all sides, the Council could fulfill with a minimum of complications most if not all of the responsibilities which the new international situation may call for. As far as Canada is concerned I can assure you that we will continue to co-operate fully and whole-heartedly. The Canadian Government strongly endorses what President Eisenhower said here in this Council last month about no member nation having to take a second place in our organization. NATO is and must remain animated by a spirit of equality. In practical terms, this surely means that NATO policies should continue to be determined by all NATO members.

Economic Co-operation

Today the position of the North Atlantic Alliance as a whole is one of unprecedented economic strength; and almost without exception our individual countries are economically more prosperous than ever before. This economic growth and strength should serve as convincing evidence as to the efficacy of our own economic systems. Now that the economic scene has changed somewhat we should satisfy ourselves that our actions and programmes are still wholly appropriate to present circumstances.

We all share the conviction made explicit in Article II of our Treaty that conflicts in our international economic policies should be eliminated and hence that the possibility of an economic split not only in Europe but between Europe and North America and the rest of the free world should not be allowed to develop. In the Canadian view, which I trust is shared by all, regional economic arrangements should stimulate progress towards the expansion of international trade, freed from the burden of restrictions and discrimination.

We must see to it that our own economic techniques are used in such a way as to increase the economic strength of the free world at the greatest possible rate. Our world economic institutions and our codes of international economic conduct, if properly used and applied, will go a long way toward relieving some of the economic burdens of the under-developed countries. Equally important is a recognition of the need for increased financial and technical assistance from those countries which are now finding themselves in highly improved economic conditions. What I am suggesting, of course, is that the increased financial strength which the European members of our Alliance have been successful in achieving should permit of more liberal commercial policies, increased foreign investment and a more direct participation in plans for the assistance of less-developed countries, whether inside the Alliance, or outside. I am not suggesting that the NATO machinery should be used to develop plans to these ends. There are other organizations designed for economic co-operation and more suited to this purpose. But discussions of political and economic problems in NATO should be carried out against the background of these objectives.

Summit Meeting

With the visit to the U.S.A. of Mr. Khrushchev we have entered a new phase of diplomatic activity and it does present NATO and NATO governments with problems as well as opportunities. While we do well to take stock of those problems, it would, I think, be a great mistake to be so preoccupied with them that we neglect the negotiating opportunities which may be before us. It is equally true, of course, that we must not be so enthusiastic about what we hope will emerge from negotiations that have not yet taken place that we neglect the very real basis of strength which is and will remain a necessary prerequisite for successive negotiations until real disarmament has been achieved.

We now look forward to a summit meeting. The question is no longer whether such a meeting should be held but when and where and on the basis of what Western positions. The Western negotiating powers will be expected to keep the Council in their confidence in the preparation of the questions under consideration. If negotiations are to be fruitful between the great powers, the West will have to continue to work together. The Council should become the laboratory of the West in the formulation of its policies.

Conclusion

In the competition or co-existence which we face, I believe that what unites us is always more important than any issues which may temporarily divide us. The function of leadership must be to place our internal differences in the broader and so much more important perspective of the values that unite our peoples.

Mekong River Survey

ON OCTOBER 1959, Canada signed an agreement in Phnom Penh, Cambodia, with the Governments of Thailand, Cambodia, Laos and South Vietnam to provide for Canadian participation in the complete survey of the Mekong River Basin. These Southeast Asian countries are members of the Colombo Plan, and Canadian assistance to the project is being provided as part of Canada's Colombo Plan programme. Canada's role will be to undertake the aerial survey and mapping of the Lower Mekong River and some of its tributaries at an estimated cost of \$1.3 million.

The Mekong is one of the great rivers of the world. Like many of the rivers of South and Southeast Asia, the Mekong gathers its headwaters in the Sino-Tibetan region. During its 2,800-mile course, to the South China Sea, it passes through eastern Tibet, China's Yunnan province, Burma, Laos, Thailand, Cambodia and Vietnam.

In 1951, the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) initiated a series of field investigations and studies of the Mekong River. The interest of ECAFE was based on the benefits the successful harnessing of the river might be expected to yield to the riparian states in the forms of flood control, irrigation, hydro-electric power and improved navigation. For the purposes of the ECAFE studies, the river includes a drainage area within Laos, Thailand, Cambodia and Vietnam of some 235,000 square miles, or roughly the area covered by the province of Saskatchewan. It is this area that is commonly referred to as the Lower Mekong River Basin.

In 1957, the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration, at the formal request of the riparian states, appointed Lieutenant General Raymond A. Wheeler to head a mission with the object of studying and investigating on the spot a number of projects that had been formulated by ECAFE for the development of the Lower Mekong. The Wheeler Mission submitted its report in January 1958. This document concluded that, before any particular projects (such as the construction of dams) could effectively be started, further investigations and the collection of basic technical data would be required. Accordingly, the Wheeler Mission recommended a five-year programme of planning, at an estimated cost of \$9.2 million. The programme outlined includes aerial surveys, levelling, hydrologic observation, and soil surveys. The report of the Wheeler Mission was endorsed by the states concerned as members of the "Committee for Co-ordination of Investigations of the Lower Mekong Basin".

A number of countries and international agencies have already agreed to co-operate in the programme recommended by the Wheeler Mission. The United States has pledged \$2,200,000 for river-gauging and the co-ordination of hydrologic and river-flow measurements. France has contributed about \$140,000 for the



Left to Right: Mr. U. Nyun, Executive Secretary of the UN Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East; H. E. Sonn Yoeun-Sai, Cambodian Representative on the Mekong Co-ordination Committee; Mr. Oukéo Souvannavong, Laotian Member and this year's

President of the Committee; Mr. d'Iberville Fortier, Representative of the Canadian Government; Dr. Boonrod Binson, Member for Thailand; Mr. Pham Minh-Duong, Representative for Vietnam and Mr. Hart Schaaf, Executive Agent of the Committee.

purchase of hydrologic instruments. New Zealand has made a contribution of \$100,000 for the acquisition of four survey launches, one for each of the riparian states. Japan has appropriated the equivalent of \$54,000 towards a survey of the major tributaries of the Mekong. Various agencies of the United Nations have also offered the services of experts to assist in the different phases of the Mekong project.

In 1958 the Executive Secretary of ECAFE expressed the hope that, since aerial surveying and mapping appeared to be an important element of the programme recommended by the Wheeler Mission, Canada would consider participating in this phase of the programme. The Canadian authorities subsequently selected Lieutenant-Colonel G. S. Andrews, Surveyor-General of the Department of Lands and Forests of the province of British Columbia, to make a detailed study of the problems and estimated costs involved in the proposed aerial survey and mapping of the Lower Mekong River Basin.

Lt. Col. Andrews submitted his report to the Canadian Government on October 31, 1958. The report endorsed the basic conclusions of the Wheeler Mission. It agreed, in particular, that the surveying and mapping of the river

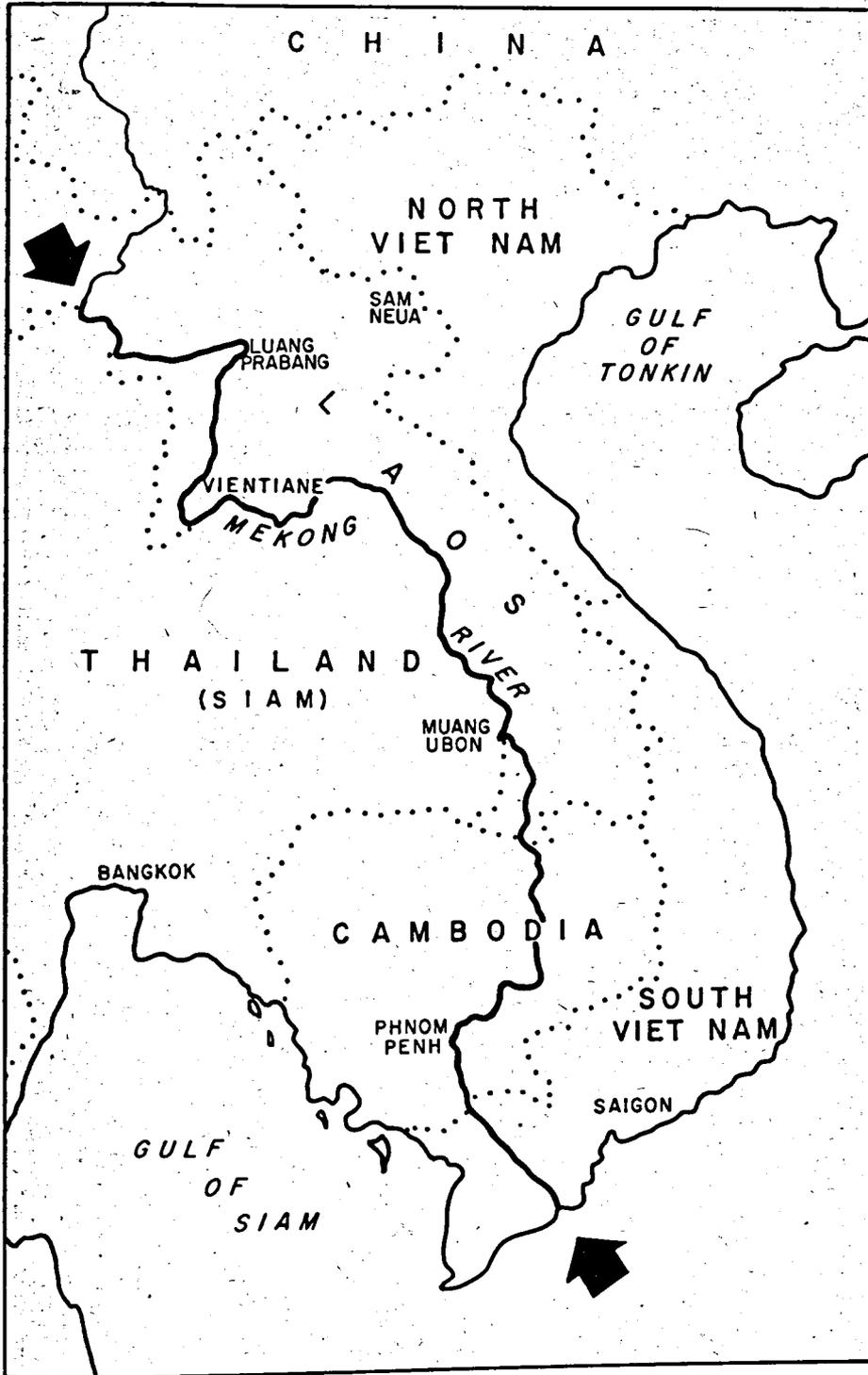
was an essential first step towards "the realization of the ultimate physical modifications to the river which will unlock its great potential service to the region". The project will be carried out on the general lines set down in Lt. Col. Andrews' report.

There were a number of reasons for deciding that an aerial survey of the Mekong Basin would constitute an effective Canadian contribution to the economic development of Southeast Asia. Foremost among these was the need to increase the food production of the area substantially in the very near future. It has become evident in recent years that the rapidly advancing economic development of the area is resulting in a much greater demand for food. Economists and agriculturalists agree that the expansion of agricultural development must keep pace with economic and industrial development if serious food shortages and foreign-exchange problems are to be avoided. The Mekong River development project was specifically designed to expand agricultural production in one of the world's major rice-producing areas, by means of flood control and guided irrigation planning.

Moreover, member countries of the Colombo Plan are anxious to encourage national development projects in Southeast Asia that will take into account the interests of the region as a whole. The Mekong project is a good example of a co-operative endeavour that will yield benefits to more than one country in the region. Indeed, because the Lower Mekong River Basin is one of the relatively uncongested areas of South and Southeast Asia (with a population density of only one-quarter that of India, China, Java or Japan), it is likely to be one of the areas to which the rest of the region will look for an expansion of food supplies to satisfy the requirements of rapidly growing populations elsewhere.

The agreement covering Canadian participation in the Mekong Project, under the terms of which each of the four riparian states is to contribute the equivalent of \$25,000 in local currency, was signed on October 19. On October 22, the Canadian Government announced that all of Canada's principal air survey companies would be employed on the two-year aerial survey programme. Photographic Surveys Corporation of Toronto was at the same time appointed by the Canadian Government to act as management engineers for the survey. The 1600-mile stretch of the Mekong under survey extends from the Laotian border to the South China Sea. In length, the section of the river that will be covered by the Canadian survey is equivalent to the straight-line distance from Winnipeg to Halifax; in flow, the Mekong is approximately comparable to the St. Lawrence River.

In late October, some 20 Canadian surveyors and more than 200 Asians began six months of ground work to establish precise river levels and geodetic points along the survey route. During this preliminary ground-survey stage, which is to precede the aerial photographic survey, Canadian personnel will, for the most part, be working only in Laos and Thailand, between the Burman and Cambodian borders. One or two of the Canadian staff from the headquarters in Vientiane



Mekong River Basin

(Laos) will make periodic trips to inspect the field work being done in Cambodia and Vietnam by sub-contractors.

The survey parties will do the greater part of their work along the banks of the Mekong River. Only in Thailand and on some of the major tributaries will they be working more than 10 kilometres from the edge of the river itself. About five Canadians will be based at headquarters in Vientiane, Laos. Another 14 Canadians will be heading the seven field-survey parties working independently in the field, and will report directly to Vientiane. Two of the field-survey parties will run horizontal control surveys along the river, while the other five establish elevations along the river and within a narrow band along both shores.

The river itself is to be the main line of transportation for the field-survey groups. Each survey party has been provided with several fifteen-foot aluminum boats, while locally-acquired river craft will be used to move the camps downstream. Where roads or trails are passable, "Landrover" pickups and a "Landrover" stationwagon will also be used. A "Beaver" amphibian aircraft based at Vientiane will service all seven working groups in the field, moving supplies, delivering and picking up mail, and shifting personnel. A base radio at headquarters will link all the field groups with Vientiane, allowing a daily work-schedule to be co-ordinated with central planning.

An advance party of aerial surveyors has also moved into the area to begin the photographic survey. A Canadian DC-3 aircraft, manned by a Canadian crew and six Canadian technicians and equipped with high-level photographic devices, has arrived in Laos. By the time the two-year aerial survey has been completed, about 10,000 square miles of terrain along the Mekong and its tributaries will have been photographed at altitudes of 5,000 to 25,000 feet. The DC-3 is also equipped with a radar device for profile-recording, i.e., for noting changes in the terrain as the flight proceeds. This will be particularly valuable during the air survey of the Mekong tributaries, including the Upper Nam Chee in Thailand, the Nam Ngun in Laos, the Battambang in Cambodia and the Upper Se San in Vietnam. Between May 1960 and December 1961, topographic and engineering maps covering the 1600-mile stretch of river will be produced in the laboratories of the participating Canadian survey companies. Detailed maps at engineering scales will be made covering selected potential dam-sites.

This is not the first time Canada has carried out an aerial survey under the Colombo Plan. The aerial surveys of resources undertaken for India, Pakistan, Malaya and Ceylon were earlier demonstrations that this specialized Canadian skill could be put to good use for the economic development of South and South-east Asia.

The Study of Nuclear Radiation

STATEMENT BY MR. HOWARD GREEN, CANADIAN SECRETARY OF STATE
FOR EXTERNAL AFFAIRS AND CHAIRMAN OF THE CANADIAN DELEGATION,
IN THE UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY ON NOVEMBER 17, 1959

OF ALL THE scientific and technological achievements of recent years the unleashing of the power of the atom has undoubtedly been the most spectacular and far-reaching. Henceforth mankind must live with the atom. Already many ways in which this new force can serve man, in his pursuit of a better life, are known or are foreseeable. Yet, at the same time we must learn to control the terrifying potential of the atom for destruction.

The position of the Canadian Government on this question has already been made abundantly clear. For example, we are convinced of the need to reach agreement on the cessation, under appropriate controls, of all nuclear weapons test explosions. We hope that negotiations to this end and in the general field of disarmament will soon lead to an agreement stopping further such explosions.

However, even when this desirable result is achieved, the problem of ionizing radiation will still exist. There will continue for several years to be fallout of radioactive particles already in the atmosphere. There will also be long-term effects from the movement of radioactive isotopes through food chains. Even more important, there will continue to be for a long time genetic and biological effects from radiation, both man-made and natural, on the health of human populations.

In a manner of such concern to human life and to future generations, we believe it is vital to fill the gaps that continue to exist in our knowledge of the phenomenon of radiation. There is widespread concern that we should be able to assess more accurately than is now possible the nature and extent of the hazard resulting from the addition of man-made radiation to that which already occurs in nature.

Radiation Committee

The United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation, which was set up essentially for the purpose of enquiring into these questions, has done very useful work since it was established four years ago. Following its first comprehensive report, which was considered at the last session of the General Assembly, the Committee has gone on to prepare a programme of work for its forthcoming sessions. This programme appears to my Delegation to be well balanced and practical.

The Committee plans to continue its study of the physical aspects of fallout, the physical and biological problems concerning the transmission of fission pro-

ducts through food chains, and also the relationship between radiation dose and effects. It plans also to study genetic problems and the physical and biological problems concerned with Carbon-14, which remains radioactive for centuries.

In its work the Committee has received co-operation from many governments, from Specialized Agencies, from the International Atomic Energy Agency, from international non-governmental and scientific organizations as well as from individual scientists. It appears that useful arrangements have been worked out for co-operation between this Scientific Committee and the agencies concerned, which is a source of satisfaction to my Delegation.

However, it is clear that, notwithstanding this co-operation and the fact that the Committee has received much useful information on fallout, radiation levels and radio-biological questions from many member states, it requires more information on these questions in order to discharge its full responsibilities, and in order to make the maximum use of the scientific knowledge and skills available to it. Indeed, the Committee itself has found it necessary to invite member states to provide further data of the type already contained in its earlier comprehensive report and to suggest that this collection of information be supplemented in various other ways.

Information Gathering

For the purpose of filling the gaps that continue to exist in our knowledge of the phenomenon of radiation, we believe the scientists should have at their disposal the fullest and most reliable information possible. This can be obtained only by the widest co-operation of member states and the international organizations concerned. We consider it important that a greater effort should be made to obtain such information and to enlist the necessary co-operation. We wish to place the authority of the General Assembly squarely behind this effort.

For this purpose my Delegation, in company with the delegations from Argentina, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Ghana, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Mexico, New Zealand and Norway, has presented the draft resolution which is contained in Document A/L 268.

In its simplest terms, what the resolution is designed to do, in addition to approving the various recommendations of the Scientific Committee, is to ask that Committee to examine the possibility of making arrangements, which I hope will be more effective, for the collection and analysis by member states of radiation samples of air, water, soil and food, on the basis of uniform standards; and also for the encouragement of genetic and biological studies of the effects of exposure to radiation.

In its examination of these questions, in consultation with the agencies concerned, the Committee may discover gaps in the technical resources of member states that would prevent them from contributing to this co-operative programme as they would like. If this should be the case, I hope that the agencies concerned will consider the possibility of extending assistance to fill these gaps.

In addition, the resolution asks member states having facilities for laboratory analysis to assist in analyzing radiation samples. The Canadian Government, for its part, is prepared to give assistance of this kind to other member states wishing to avail themselves of Canadian laboratory facilities.

We are prepared to receive from other states radiation samples collected according to methods recommended by the Scientific Committee in consultation with the appropriate Specialized Agencies, and to analyze such samples in the Canadian Government laboratories which handle Canada's domestic sampling programme. If other governments indicate their readiness to participate in such a co-operative programme of collection and analysis, the Canadian Government, as an initial offer, is prepared to receive and analyze on a regular basis samples of air, water, soil and food from 20 to 25 foreign sampling stations in each category.

Canada's Offer

Once it is known that others are prepared to co-operate in such a programme, these analyses could be undertaken within the space of the few months required to expand existing Canadian laboratory facilities and analytical staff. The Canadian Government is, of course, prepared to undertake that the analytical procedures used in its laboratories will be such as to ensure the comparability of results with those produced by other governments co-operating in a programme of this nature. We believe arrangements of this kind will materially assist the Scientific Committee in its task and we invite other governments to consider how they might participate in such a programme either through the collecting of samples or through providing facilities for analysis.

If, as we hope, there is a widespread response to our offer, as well as offers by other governments to make their facilities available, it is our understanding that the Secretariat of the Scientific Committee would be kept informed step by step as appropriate arrangements are made between member states offering samples and those offering analytical facilities. The Secretariat would be notified of the availability of radiation samples by member states willing to collect them; it would also be notified by member states, and perhaps by the International Atomic Energy Agency, if they are able to receive and analyze samples in addition to those they have collected themselves. It is our hope that in this way arrangements between governments can be made whereby samples available for analysis are forwarded to the most convenient or appropriate laboratories. The results of the analyses would of course be communicated both to the Scientific Committee and to the country providing the samples.

In making this offer and in presenting this draft resolution for the General Assembly's consideration, the intention of the Canadian Delegation is to strengthen the Scientific Committee's hand and to authorize it to work out practical arrangements designed to secure more of the information it requires. The resolution leaves it entirely up to the Committee to decide how this can best be done and does not attempt in any way to direct or influence the Committee's scientific work.

All the suggestions in the resolution are within the terms of reference established for the Scientific Committee, which is already authorized to receive radiation data and to recommend uniform standards with respect to procedures for sample collection and instrumentation. The Committee has in fact already requested member states to co-operate along these lines.

The draft resolution before the Assembly is the result of lengthy negotiations among delegations representative of various geographical areas and political opinions. We therefore trust it will commend itself to all members of the General Assembly. It is a practical expression of what we judge to be a widespread desire that the Scientific Committee be strengthened in its work, to the end that man's knowledge of the biological effects of ionizing radiation may be as complete as possible. For this purpose it is important that the world-wide physical measurement of the intensity and distribution of radiation should be accurate and comprehensive and that research into the biological effects of radiation be based on the fullest and most reliable information.

General and Complete Disarmament

STATEMENT IN THE FIRST COMMITTEE OF THE UNITED NATIONS

GENERAL ASSEMBLY BY MR. W. B. NESBITT,

VICE-CHAIRMAN OF THE CANADIAN DELEGATION, ON NOVEMBER 2, 1959

THE COMMITTEE is committed by the draft resolution before us to the proposition that disarmament is the most important problem facing the world today. This idea is not new, since disarmament has been recognized as an important problem throughout most of the twentieth century and as both an urgent and important one ever since the end of the Second World War. The new fact in the present situation is that 82 countries, by putting their names to the draft resolution, have subscribed directly to this proposition.

A Previous Resolution

Of course we have had resolutions in this Assembly before which have recognized the importance of comprehensive disarmament and have set out procedures for dealing with it. We have even had resolutions on the subject with joint East-West co-sponsorship. For example, in 1954 there was a resolution, the original draft of which was prepared by the Canadian Delegation of the day, and which was eventually co-sponsored by Canada, the U.S.S.R., the U.S.A., the U.K. and France. That resolution, which was adopted unanimously, expressed the General Assembly's recognition that the continuing development of armaments increased the urgency of the need for a solution to the disarmament problem and concluded that a further effort should be made to reach agreement on comprehensive and co-ordinated proposals to be embodied in a draft international disarmament convention. We all know only too well the fate of the negotiations which were undertaken in response to that unanimous General Assembly appeal. This is no time to look backwards, but it does seem to me to be necessary to point out, as others have done, that unanimity with respect to an objective does not necessarily mean that the objective can easily be realized.

I think that the question at issue at the moment is not whether the goal of comprehensive disarmament under effective control is desirable — we seem all to have subscribed to that — but rather what steps we are ready to take to avoid the risk of mutual destruction.

The broad objective of a world without arms is one which the Government and the people of Canada have long cherished. During the years we have sought to devise means of arriving at that objective by contributing to a number of outline plans for comprehensive disarmament, as well as to plans for an initial stage. All of these plans have foundered, not on differences over objectives but rather on problems relating to the stages of transition from the present situation to a

disarmed world. It is in this light that the various proposals put forward must be analyzed in detail in due course. It would not be appropriate for such analysis to be attempted here at this stage. It is appropriate for all proposals, together with other comments and suggestions made, to be considered in detail in the ten-power Committee which, under the terms of the resolution before us, will have all of the relevant records available to it.

It seems to my Delegation that it is useful to draw a distinction between the discussion of principles which must underlie any viable international agreement to which all states are to be parties and the process of negotiation designed to find a solid basis for agreement on specific measures. In the field of negotiation it is clear that the initiative rests with the major powers. Our satisfaction at the establishment of the ten-power Disarmament Committee is based primarily on the fact that a forum in which the major powers have agreed to pursue such negotiations has been created. In agreeing to serve on that Committee Canada was motivated by the desire to facilitate successful negotiations and will direct every effort towards that end.

Assembly Role

At the same time the General Assembly, both in the present discussions and in subsequent discussions in its Disarmament Commission, can make a useful contribution by trying to establish the principles under which disarmament and the general regulation and reduction of armaments in accordance with the terms of Article 11 of the Charter can be carried out. The ultimate responsibility of the United Nations for disarmament is generally recognized and the Disarmament Commission should, of course, be kept in being and informed of the progress in the ten-power Committee. That Committee in turn will have the benefit of views expressed here at the present session of the General Assembly and subsequently, we hope, in the Disarmament Commission. In this way those members of the United Nations which are not members of the ten-power Committee will have an effective means of expressing their views as to how the Committee's objectives can best be carried out. As the Canadian Secretary of State for External Affairs said in his statement in the general debate on September 24, the middle-sized and smaller powers must have an opportunity of being heard, for disarmament is of the deepest concern to all mankind. In Canada's work on the committee we shall at all times keep these considerations very much in mind.

It is apparent from what I said earlier in my remarks that the Canadian Delegation, in common with other delegations, is in complete sympathy with the broad objectives of the resolution before us. Even in the absence of concrete solutions to particular political problems the general international political climate is itself important to the solution of disarmament. We have already had evidence of this during the present debate. The series of meetings which the principal powers have embarked upon this year, the establishment of personal contacts through exchanges of visits by leading statesmen and the improvement of social and cultural relationships between states have all contributed to the creation

of an atmosphere favourable to the initiation of negotiations of the sort which are now envisaged. The recent declaration by the President of the United States and the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. that differences must be settled by negotiations and not by force can only contribute to the same ends. This specific undertaking, reinforcing as it does the undertakings contained in the Charter, certainly helps to create a favourable atmosphere for the negotiations which are to begin in the New Year in the Disarmament Committee. On the other hand, any revival of the cold war would make the process of negotiations on disarmament more difficult and would impede the achievement of the goals we all so earnestly desire.

Any development is useful which contributes to the search for a basis of mutual confidence which is a precondition for disarmament and secure peace. Whether it be in the political arena or in the field of armaments control and limitation, every opportunity should be seized, as long as the balance of security is maintained at each stage. There are several areas where measures could be taken which, while not properly disarmament, would contribute substantially to the necessary restoration of confidence between nations and at the same time provide experience in the mechanism of inspection, control and verification which could be of the utmost value in tackling the much more complex problems of disarmament proper.

Nuclear Test Suspension

One such area is the suspension of nuclear weapons test explosions. The extensive and serious negotiations on this subject have already demonstrated clearly that even in a relatively narrow and specific problem there is a wide range of complex issues to be resolved. We hope that the pioneering work which has been done by the U.S.A., the U.K. and the U.S.S.R. and is proceeding in the conference which has just resumed in Geneva will provide a pattern which in some respects at least will be applicable to other problems of disarmament. In particular we hope that a solution will be found to the central problem of how one reaches decisions in the control organ regarding inspections which may provide a useful guide for other deliberations. The basis of confidence which is necessary for the success of negotiations on any of the wider problems can only be achieved where there is supervised disarmament. There is therefore an inseparable relationship between disarming and control, which must be negotiated in parallel and put into effect together.

The same considerations, that is, the establishment of confidence and the gaining of experience in methods of inspection and supervision, apply to measures for the prevention of surprise attack. My Delegation sincerely regrets that the negotiations on this matter, in which Canada was participating, were suspended at the end of last year, for reasons which have already been made known. We consider those negotiations should be resumed and hope that the creation of the ten-power Committee will provide an opportunity for further consideration of measures for preventing or controlling the danger of surprise attack.

Several delegations have already made in the present debate suggestions concerning matters which might appropriately be taken up by the Disarmament Commission. I am thinking in particular of the questions suggested by the distinguished Representative of the U.S.A. concerning institutions to preserve international peace and security and to promote the rule of law when all nations will have laid down their arms. Specifically he asked what type of international force should be established, what principles of international law would govern the use of such a force and what internal security forces, in precise terms, would be required by the nations of the world if existing armaments were abolished. In addition the distinguished Representative of Italy has reminded us that total and general disarmament would imply revision of those provisions of the Charter which assumed that we might achieve partial but not total disarmament and which therefore presupposed the existence of national forces which could be placed at the disposal of the United Nations when needed for the maintenance of peace.

Collective Security

These are big and fundamental questions, which would have to be looked into by the international community in connection with discussion of means to achieve the goal of total disarmament. The Disarmament Commission of the General Assembly would seem to be an appropriate body to consider such matters. In this connection it would seem necessary to give careful attention to each of the interim stages on the path to total disarmament. During this period it is evident, as has been stated by several representatives, that progress in disarmament would be greatly facilitated by the development of effective institutions for collective security. This is a good time for the United Nations to take a fresh look at the provisions of the Charter in this respect. The collapse 12 years ago of the negotiations leading to measures for implementing Article 43 was due to reasons which were both political and technical. In the present political atmosphere, it may be that some of the technical reasons for the collapse — such as factors relating to disproportions in forces of various types — are no longer as relevant as they were. It may be timely therefore to re-examine together the relevant provisions of Chapter VII of the Charter. In any event, during the period while national forces are being reduced in a step-by-step approach to comprehensive disarmament, we feel from our own experience that greater use might be made of the procedures which already exist for the provision of national contingents for United Nations observational and supervisory work. Another look might also be taken at the various suggestions for standby arrangements with a view to greater utilization of such procedures.

Economic Development of Under-developed Countries

STATEMENT BY DR. R. P. VIVIAN,

CANADIAN REPRESENTATIVE IN THE SECOND COMMITTEE

OF THE UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY, ON NOVEMBER 18, 1959

MANY SPEAKERS in the general debate on economic development of under-developed countries have undertaken to analyze the major economic problems facing the world at this time. A great deal of stress has been laid on the unequal rates of growth in the under-developed countries as compared with that of the more developed countries. The situation has been described in somewhat pessimistic terms by many speakers. All speakers have agreed on one point: the United Nations must continue assuming its responsibilities for finding answers to the complex economic and social problems which the world faces today.

In considering the problem of development, my Delegation was struck by a remark made by Mr. Philippe de Seynes, Under-Secretary for Economic and Social Affairs, in his admirable statement at the beginning of our debate on this item. He said: "Equilibrium cannot be achieved by any simple, universally applicable prescription". A little later, he spoke of the "mutual interaction of the various economic sectors". My Delegation wishes to take a little time to comment upon these ideas and perhaps enlarge upon them.

The world is witnessing a unique phenomenon. By a process which began about 10 or 15 years ago, we have come to see all parts of the globe embark upon determined efforts to develop their resources; to industrialize; to break the age-old pattern of subsistence living, with its accompanying ills of malnutrition, disease and short life expectancy. Certain successes have been achieved already, but paradoxically, these have compounded the problem in its other aspects.

Great advances have been made in the application of elementary rules of hygiene. As a result of this, there has been a rapid increase in the live birthrate and a significant reduction in the rate of infant and child mortality. The population figures predicted for the end of the century are truly alarming; increasingly, more people will have to be fed. At the same time the rate of agricultural production in under-developed areas is not increasing as rapidly as necessary to keep pace with their population increase, and at the same time improve the general level of nutrition.

Self-Help Essential

In a country's effort to develop its human and physical potential, especially in the early stages, economic and technical aid is essential. It is, however, even more important for a country to reach a stage, as soon as possible, when it can generate

its own capital for development by the products of its own industries and by the processes of international trade. My colleague from Ceylon has made an excellent summation when he said:

The real answer to the problem lies in international action which will enable under-developed countries to generate increased incomes through their own sources and sustain them at reasonable levels.

The phrase "the processes of international trade" is a simple one, but these processes are fraught with very serious problems, which are not so simple to overcome, as every trading nation knows. Trade is basic to Canada's livelihood; without it we could not continue to enjoy our present standard of living or hope to better it.

At the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference held in Montreal in September 1958, the subject of trade was discussed at some length. The Conference, in its report, reaffirmed the common objective of "freer trade and payments". In so doing it recognized the basic fact that a significant increase in trade was obligatory if countries, especially those in the less-developed regions, were to improve the levels of living of their people.

One of the principal economic lessons the world has learned, is that narrowly bilateral trading arrangements are frequently self-defeating policies, and also work against the expansion of world trade.

Agencies of Multilateral Trade

The establishment of the General Agreements on Tariffs and Trade and the International Monetary Fund has been of great significance in breaking down the barriers which the former complex of narrow and restricting agreements had erected. Canada has firmly supported both institutions and has played an active part in them. By the terms of membership in these institutions, countries are committed to non-discrimination in trade, as the GATT and the IMF are designed to achieve currency convertibility and the elimination of trade and exchange difficulties.

The prevalence of severe foreign exchange difficulties in many parts of the world following the Second World War frustrated the achievement of the multilateral system for a number of years. More recently, however, with the improvement of economic and financial conditions, especially in Europe, there has been considerable progress.

While we can express some satisfaction at this trend, there still remains the necessity to guard against the dumping of commodities, or the distribution of subsidized goods to the detriment of other producer countries who must live by fair trade at world market prices. We have seen in recent years the serious adverse effects on the economies of primary producers of the dumping of such products as wheat, cotton, tin and aluminum.

... It is certainly the prerogative of this Committee to examine general commodity problems and give its advice and recommendations on them. The United Nations, however, has its organs for dealing with specific commodities and their

problems. My Delegation does not believe that the Assembly is a particularly appropriate forum for the examination of one or other particular commodity. We would hope that under this item of our agenda, no proposals for the consideration of particular commodities will be pressed. If they are, my Delegation will view them in the light of what I have just said. We would, however, hope that this Committee will adopt a resolution on trade and commodities re-emphasizing its belief in the objectives of the GATT, the CICT and the other international bodies which are working for the progressive liberalization of trade and payments and for some solution to the vexing situation caused by severe fluctuations in commodity prices.

At the outset of our general debate on development, the distinguished Chairman of the Brazilian Delegation analyzed for us the importance of the process of industrialization in the general framework of economic development. We in Canada can testify to the fundamental changes which industrialization brings about in a country.

Before the 1939-1945 war, Canada relied almost exclusively upon the production of primary commodities. A tremendous expansion of our industrial capacity occurred during this war. Although we still rely heavily on our primary commodities for our world trade, our manufactured products are contributing increasingly to this trade. Many of our industries still serve only the home market, but these allow us to save our foreign exchange for the purchase of goods which we cannot produce economically.

Need for Industry

My Delegation therefore welcomes the initiative of the Brazilian Delegation focussing attention on the need for providing a new impetus in the field of industrialization. The United Nations has already undertaken useful work in this field, but we believe that it would be appropriate at this time for the Economic and Social Council to examine the work which the UN has done. The Council would then be able to advise the General Assembly on what machinery, such as a functional commission or other type of body, could be useful in filling such gaps as exist, and co-ordinating the activities already being undertaken in this field. My Delegation believes that the Economic and Social Council should be given broad scope in making its evaluations of this problem. We should not attempt to tie the hands of the Council by restricting its examination to one pre-conceived solution.

... I should now like to turn to the question of capital assistance through the United Nations. Canada recognizes that multilateral programmes have a significant part to play in aid to under-developed countries. There exists a need on the part of these countries for much greater amounts of capital than are now available. The Honourable Donald Fleming, Minister of Finance, expressed the Canadian Government's recognition of this need at a recent meeting in Washington to discuss a new multilateral capital assistance institution, the International Development Association. In giving Canada's views Mr. Fleming said:

We in Canada have examined carefully the various features of the United States proposal. We are satisfied that funds, beyond the amounts which the Bank can be expected to provide, and on terms less onerous than those which the Bank must, in its nature, charge, should be made available to the less-developed countries for economic development.

Mr. Fleming concluded his remarks by emphasizing that the opinions which would be expressed at the time that the articles of agreement for the Association were formulated would have a bearing on the attitude of members when making their final decision regarding the Association, and I quote, "each country remains free to consider the report of the Executive Directors and to decide, in the light of all the circumstances, whether or not to become a member of the new Association."

The Second Committee has for many years discussed the setting up of a capital development fund, the Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development. The basic problem of creating a multilateral source of capital for development, of a size sufficient to make a worth-while contribution to the many needs, was in the minds of all who took part in the Washington discussions on IDA. These same preoccupations are the ones which have stimulated the SUNFED discussions over the years.

Capital Assistance

My Delegation, although subscribing to the principles of a UN capital development fund, has in the past cautioned against the establishment of SUNFED in the prevailing circumstances. The major potential contributors were, and still seem to be, unwilling to support the early establishment of SUNFED. They have argued that the demands of defence preclude the release of large sums for development. In recent months we have seen the beginning of a more promising political climate in the world. We can only hope that this will lead to a workable agreement on disarmament and genuine peace. We have, however, been disappointed in this in the past. Certainly, the question is not an easy one and could well take much more time before it is resolved. It seems to me that, whatever the disarmament prospects are at this time, something must be done to increase the available amount of capital assistance. Canada is therefore examining the proposals for IDA with particular sympathy, although we have expressed certain reservations concerning the arrangements as viewed by some. IDA would seem to have the approval of the major potential contributors, whether or not there is an early agreement on disarmament. IDA therefore offers concrete prospects at this time.

In these circumstances, Canada must reserve its position on any other new capital assistance organization until there has been sufficient experience with the operation of IDA to judge its effectiveness and determine whether any additional arrangements are needed.

Many delegations have expressed views on how the IDA might be set up and what methods and procedures might be used for the formulation of its programmes and policies. Arrangements have been made so that the Governors of the Bank would be kept informed on these discussions. To emphasize the importance of

these views, this Committee might formally pass the records of its debates on IDA to the Bank. The Governors of the Bank, while drafting the Charter of IDA, will doubtless wish to take note of the opinions expressed in this Committee.

My Delegation stated during the consideration of the progress and operation of the Special Fund that there were many forms of assistance available to the less-developed countries. Each has its advantages. Countries requiring assistance are able to select the type of aid which is best suited to the task which they have in mind. The United Nations document on assistance available to under-developed countries is a useful guide. The United Nations has performed a valuable task in making this information available. My friend and neighbour from Ceylon analyzed most cogently the various sources of capital for development, both bilateral and multilateral, governmental and private. He gave instances how each in turn assists the development of his country. It was a valuable illustration of a co-ordinated approach to the problem.

We in Canada are particularly aware of the usefulness of private investment. We believe that this form of investment has many advantages and Canada has relied upon it heavily for its own development. Some delegations, on ideological grounds, have expressed doubts about private investment. Canada can testify that the dangers attributed to it have been exaggerated . . .

In conclusion . . . my Delegation would like to reaffirm its belief in the usefulness of the free and frank discussions which annually take place under the development item in this Committee. The task with which we are all concerned here is one of devising means, as rapidly as possible, for the social and economic improvement of the condition of the vast majority of mankind.

As I stated at the outset of my remarks, the task is extremely complex since, as I have tried to point out, the problem is made up of a series of interrelated factors, some weighing more heavily on some parts of the globe, others affecting a different group of countries. The consideration here of all these problems—assistance, surpluses and dumping, trade and trade barriers—at one time, serve to underline their complexity and . . . their interrelation. It also serves to keep in proper balance the suggested ways of dealing with individual aspects of the problem. We would hope that continued use is made of this forum for general discussion, so that the more specialized United Nations bodies will receive guidance in their particular work, and be enabled to carry out their functions more effectively . . .

The Sino-Indian Border Dispute

IN ONE SENSE it would have been difficult to choose a more unlikely area for an international border dispute. The Central Asian cordillera, with its vast mountain ranges — the Kunlun, the Karakorum and the Himalayas — that separate the subcontinent from the lofty plateaus and mountains of Sinkiang and Tibet, forms one of the least-known areas of the world. One might have expected little concern over the limits of national sovereignty in such harsh country. In another sense, however, the very remoteness and inaccessibility of wind-swept passes, isolated valleys and high tablelands provide scattered and obscure border situations over which bitter disagreement can arise. It is in locations such as these that the present Sino-Indian dispute developed and has now come into the open after several years of confidential charge and counter-charge. The differences between the two countries are focussed mainly on each end of the 2500-mile border area — in the eastern part of India known as the North-East Frontier Agency (NEFA), and in the Kashmir province of Ladakh in the west.

Both sides have presented claims based on little-known agreements, old maps, custom and convention. In the east the dispute revolves round the acceptability of the McMahon Line as a boundary. This is a logical line following the crest of the Himalayas eastward from northeast Bhutan across the great bend of the Brahmaputra River to the junction of the Chinese, Indian and Burmese borders. It was drawn at the Simla Conference of 1913-14, in which Chinese and Tibetan officials participated with the representative of British India, Sir Arthur Henry McMahon. The purpose of the conference was to indicate clearly where the limits of India's control reached the limits of Tibet. Despite the new line, maps published for some years after the conference showed the Indian border as running along the foothills of the Himalayas. This is the border now claimed by the Chinese. It would include as part of Tibet virtually all the land north of the Brahmaputra, from the southeastern corner of Bhutan to the border junction with Burma, some 34,000 square miles. Communist China has based its claim on the fact that the McMahon Line had never been accepted by any Chinese central government. Writing to Mr. Nehru on the matter in January 1959, Premier Chou En-lai said: An important question concerning the Sino-Indian boundary is the question of the so-called MacMahon (*sic*) Line . . . As you are aware, the "MacMahon Line" was a product of the British policy of aggression against the Tibet Region of China and aroused the great indignation of the Chinese people. Juridically, too, it cannot be considered legal. I have told you that it has never been recognized by the Chinese central government. Although related documents were signed by a representative of the local authorities of the Tibet Region of China, the Tibet local authorities were in fact dissatisfied with this unilaterally drawn line.

To this Mr. Nehru replied in March as follows:

Contrary to what has been reported to you, this line (MacMahon) was, in fact, drawn at a Tripartite Conference held . . . between the Plenipotentiaries of the Governments of China, Tibet and India. At the time of acceptance of the delineation of this frontier . . . the Tibetan Plenipotentiary, in letters exchanged, stated explicitly that he had received orders from Lhasa to agree to the boundary as marked on the maps appended to the Convention. The line was drawn after full discussion and was confirmed subsequently by a formal exchange of letters; and there is nothing to indicate that the Tibetan authorities were in any way dissatisfied with the agreed

boundary . . . There is no mention of any Chinese reservation in respect of the India-Tibet frontier either during the discussions or at the time of their initialling the Convention.

It is interesting to note in passing that, although Chinese and Russian maps at present in circulation show the border in the east as claimed, a Chinese spokesman at the time of the Dalai Lama's escape must have failed to read the correct map. He announced that the Tibetan leader had entered India at the post just north of Tawang, that is, the McMahon Line.

In the west (Ladakh), the Chinese are pressing claims that take in some 6,000 square miles of high, thinly-populated but fertile valleys believed to contain considerable mineral wealth. They have disavowed a treaty of 1842 between Tibet and Kashmir, claiming that no Chinese representative was present. Their maps show a boundary which they say followed more or less that shown in a map of "Punjab, Western Himalaya and adjoining parts of Tibet" published in 1854. The Indians, on their side, have said that custom, usage, surveys and numerous maps have established their claim. In answering the Chinese assertions Mr. Nehru wrote on September 26, 1959 to Premier Chou En-lai:

It is true that the 1842 treaty referred merely to the 'old established frontiers'. This was because these frontiers were well-known and did not require any formal delimitation . . . References in the Ladakhi Chronicles of the seventeenth century indicate that the boundary was well-established . . . it is clear that for nearly two centuries the boundary between Ladakh and Tibet was well-known and recognized by both sides. There was a constant flow of trade between Ladakh and Tibet during these centuries (17th to 19th) . . . and no boundary conflicts ever arose.

Mr. Nehru went on to list seven survey parties between 1868 and 1900 that had determined the location of the customary frontier on the basis of natural features in the Aksai Chin area of Ladakh claimed by the Chinese.

There have been disputes over the ownership of other small sections of the border between the NEFA and Ladakh. These differences, as in Bara Hoti, for example, have not assumed the magnitude of those in the two main areas. Chinese maps show some 40,000 square miles, all told, of territory, generally considered by Indians as part of the subcontinent, lying within the People's Republic.

In most cases it would appear that access to the disputed territory is easier physically from Tibet. The Chinese have used this to advantage and have entrenched themselves firmly in eastern Ladakh. They have as well remained in possession of the Longju outpost in the NEFA which they seized last August. They have been aided in these penetrations, particularly in the west, by a communication system superior to that of the Indians. The road through Aksai Chin (the bulge of Ladakh) has contributed to their success as well. This route, part of the Sinkiang-Tibet Highway, was the subject of a note from the Government of India in October 1958, in which, after a general explanation that the terrain was historically part of India, the Government expressed surprise and regret that it had neither been asked for permission to build nor informed of the proposed construction. This mild approach illustrates what was, until recently, the general attitude of the Indian Government to the border areas. Indian effectiveness on the spot was likewise in direct contrast to that of the Chinese. Small and widely scattered outposts have been garrisoned, often during the summer months only, by civil border police. Roads to link the region more closely to

the rest of the country and to improve communication with New Delhi have either not been completed or have yet to be started. In November Mr. Nehru said it was a "bad show" that a 200-mile road from Srinagar in Kashmir to Leh, the capital of Ladakh, was only about half finished. He said the Indian Army had been asked to take charge of the road after Kashmir State engineers had been accused of embezzlement. The details of the clash on October 21 took some 48 hours to filter through to New Delhi, by which time the Chinese had already presented their version to the Indian Government.

At the end of August 1959, Mr. Nehru, replying to questions in the Indian Parliament, brought the border problem into the open. He revealed a story of frontier skirmishes and intrusions dating back to 1954, which had become more serious and threatening during the previous three months. The Indian Government's concern was indicated in the note of August 28, 1959, to the Chinese following the seizure of Longju. The note stated in part:

The Government of India strongly protest against these repeated violations of Indian territory by Chinese armed forces. Until now the Government have observed discreet reticence about these incidents although there is a good deal of concern among the Indian public and in Parliament about the security arrangements on India's northern frontier. The Government of India would urge once more that the Chinese authorities should issue immediate instructions to all their frontier forces not to violate Indian territory . . . It occurs to them that all this show of force is entirely uncalled for. If the Chinese Government have any dispute about any point on the international frontier, it should be possible to resolve the dispute by negotiations between two friendly governments rather than by the unilateral application of force by one side against the other.

In conclusion the communication reiterated the view Prime Minister Nehru had expressed in his letter of March 22 to Mr. Chou En-lai and with which he had understood the Chinese to agree, that the position as it was before recent disputes arose should be respected by both sides and that neither side should try to take unilateral action in exercise of what it conceived to be its right.

Prime Minister Chou En-lai's letter of September 8 came as a shock to Mr. Nehru. Despite the more determined note of the protest over Longju, the Indian idea of a solution for the problem appeared to be one of minor rectifications of the border here and there. Instead the Chinese Premier laid claim to some 40,000 square miles of border country in NEFA and Ladakh and suggested that India was trying to profit from what he called British imperialistic territorial expansion into China's Tibet Region. In expressing this opinion the Chinese leader wrote:

Unexpectedly to the Chinese Government . . . the Indian Government demanded that the Chinese Government give recognition to the conditions created by the application of the British policy of aggression against China's Tibet Region as the foundation for the settlement of the Sino-Indian boundary question. What is more serious, the Indian Government has applied all sorts of pressures on the Chinese Government, not even scrupling the use of force to support this demand.

Mr. Nehru's reply, his letter of September 26, was therefore stiffer than his March letter and undertook to refute the Chinese claims in detail. He rejected the bid for 40,000 square miles of Indian territory and made it clear that no discussions could be held on the basis of maps showing portions of NEFA and Ladakh as Chinese. While asserting that no change could be made in a boundary

established by long usage, custom, geography and treaties, Mr. Nehru repeated, nevertheless, his willingness to discuss minor border adjustments over which disputes had arisen. He concluded:

India was one of the first countries to extend recognition to the People's Republic of China and for the last ten years we have consistently sought to maintain and strengthen our friendship with your country. When our two countries signed the 1954 agreement in regard to the Tibet region I hoped that the main problems which history had bequeathed to us . . . had been peacefully and finally settled. Five years later you have now brought forward . . . a problem which dwarfs in importance all that we have discussed in recent years and, I thought, settled. I appreciate your statement that China looks upon her southwestern border as a border of peace and friendship. This hope and this promise could be fulfilled only if China would not bring within the scope of what should essentially be a border dispute, claims to thousands of square miles of territory which have been and are an integral part of the territory of India.

The revelation of the extent and frequency of border incursions caused profound uneasiness within India and more questioning by the press and Parliament of the Government's attitude toward China. The Government was criticized on the grounds that it had not taken action to maintain the security of the northern border. The clash in eastern Ladakh in late October aroused feelings to a higher pitch. It contributed to a stronger stand by the Government over an area concerning which there was more possibility of negotiation. Mr. Nehru's statements had made it clear that, while he was still prepared to discuss minor border rectifications, he was not going to abandon the McMahon Line. He had been less firm regarding Ladakh. He had continued to counsel patience and calm while warning that any new incursions would be resisted. The affair south of Kong Ka Pass, some 45 miles inside the Ladakh border, in which nine Indians were killed and ten captured, forced the Indian press and public to take stock realistically of the probable magnitude of the Chinese penetration. It appeared that the Chinese were in effective control of 75 per cent of the portion of Ladakh they claimed on their maps. There was strong criticism of Mr. Nehru for his moderate reaction to Chinese pressure. Never before had he been assailed so sharply. The *Hindustan Times* of New Delhi wrote:

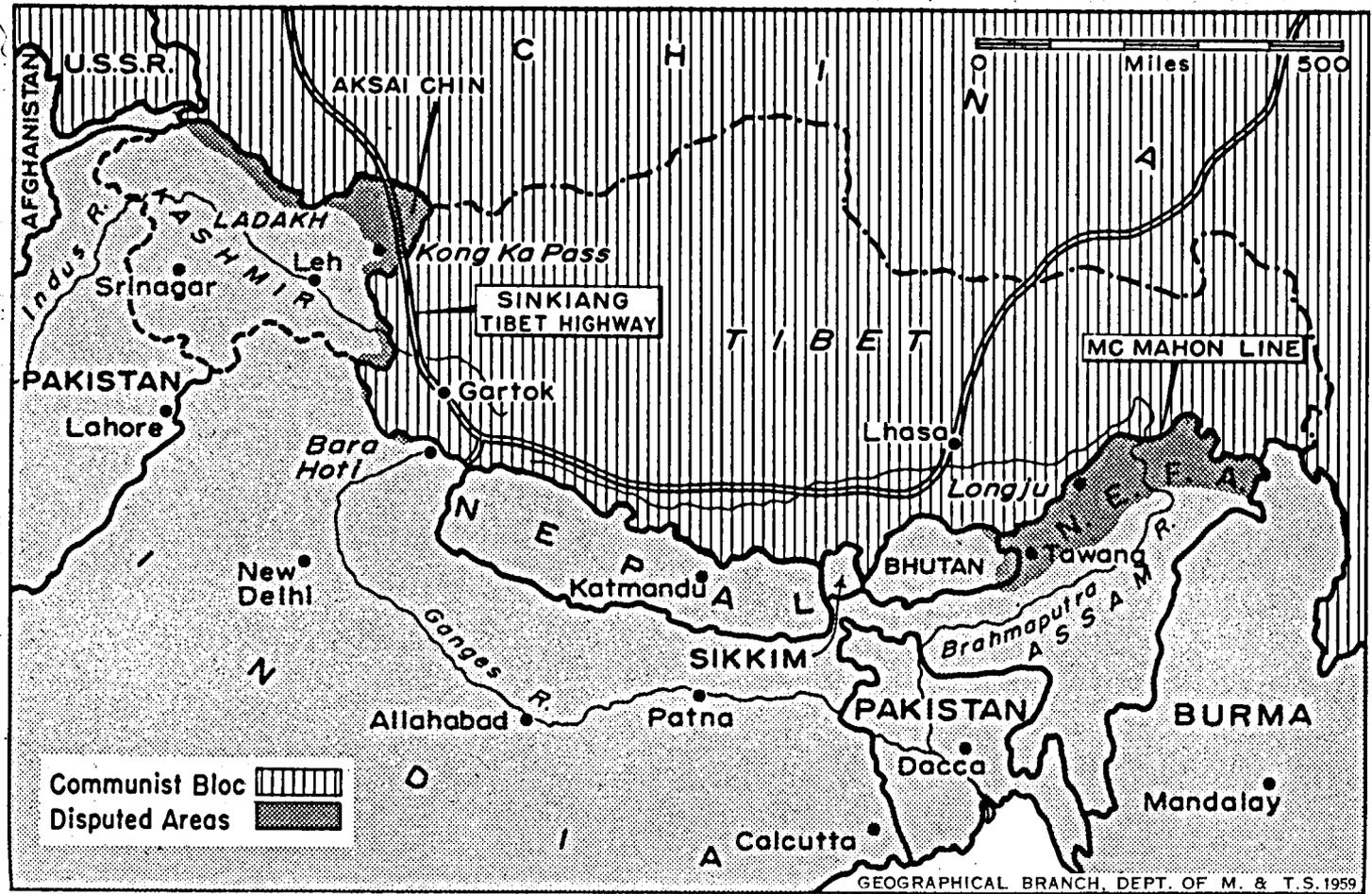
Mr. Nehru has warned us against brave talk and action taken in anger. Let us warn him in turn that he may not have many more opportunities to unite the country behind him if China is allowed to go on heaping contumely and humiliation on us.

The *Times of India* attacked the Indian response to the Kong Ka clash:

Even those in complete agreement with New Delhi's foreign policy no longer can hesitate in condemning Mr. Nehru's reaction to the latest Sino-Indian border affray as totally inadequate. The Prime Minister's continued platitudes — he has again been stressing long friendship — on the subject of Sino-Indian cultural relations are a remarkable example of evasion at a time when certain unavoidable and unpalatable realities must be squarely accepted for what they are. His references to friendship . . . cannot obscure the dominating fact of Chinese aggression on Indian soil.

As much as the clash itself, the Chinese memoranda, which very quickly and efficiently reached New Delhi, helped to harden the official attitude of the Indian Government. Peking accused Indian border policemen of intruding unlawfully on Chinese territory and rejected the claim of compensation for loss of life. It also reserved the right to order Chinese troops to patrol south of the border claimed by India in NEFA unless the latter stopped sending patrols into parts of Ladakh said to be Chinese. The Indian reply therefore was couched in language

Sino Indian Border



much stiffer than that used in the previous correspondence. It charged China with aggressive attitudes "reminiscent of old imperialist powers against whom both India and China struggled in the past". It rejected completely the Chinese version of the clash and the assertion that the territory concerned belonged to China. The note called upon the Chinese Government to remove its forces from Indian territory and to seek to resolve minor disputes by peaceful means.

A letter of November 4 from Premier Chou En-lai coincided with the Indian note concerning the clash in Ladakh. The Chinese Premier wrote:

In order to maintain effectively the *status quo* of the border between the two countries, to insure the tranquillity the border requires and to create a favorable atmosphere for a friendly settlement of the boundary question, the Chinese Government proposes that the armed forces of China and India each withdraw 20 kilometers (12.4 miles) at once from the so-called McMahon Line in the east, and from the line up to which each side exercises actual control in the west, and that the two sides undertake to refrain from again sending their armed personnel to be stationed in and patrol the zones from which they have evacuated their armed forces, but still maintain civil administration personnel and unarmed police there for the performance of administrative duties and maintenance of order . . . The Chinese Government has never had the intention of straining the border situation and the relations between the two countries. I believe that Your Excellency also wishes to see the present tension eased . . . The Chinese Government proposes that in order to discuss the boundary question and other questions in the relations between the two countries, the Prime Ministers of the two countries hold talks in the immediate future.

Acceptance of the Chou proposals was regarded immediately by the Indians as requiring territorial concessions on their part, since the withdrawal of forces some 12½ miles from the line of actual control in Ladakh would leave the Chinese still in possession of an appreciable portion of that area, including the Sinkiang-Tibet Highway. Despite the implication in the proposal for NEFA that China was prepared to accept the McMahon Line as a basis for negotiations, the Indians were reluctant to pull back from Longju and a boundary they felt was based soundly on agreement and usage.

Because of the disadvantages which the Indians saw in the Chinese proposals, and the aroused feeling throughout the country still expressed in the newspapers and public demonstrations, Mr. Nehru did not accept the Chinese proposals. While he agreed that the two governments should come to an arrangement without delay that would end the risk of border clashes and that the two prime ministers should meet soon to discuss the boundary and other issues, he suggested alternative proposals for handling the disputes in Ladakh and the NEFA. For Ladakh he suggested as an interim arrangement that India should pull back all her personnel to the west of the line which the Chinese claim as the boundary. Similarly, Chinese personnel should retire to the east of what India has said is the boundary. Since the two lines are separated by long distances, there should not be the slightest risk, Mr. Nehru felt, of border clashes and as the area is almost entirely uninhabited it would not be necessary to maintain administrative personnel. With regard to the McMahon Line, he pointed out that since it would be extremely difficult in practice to establish a new line of outposts to the rear of the boundary at any distance and since there was no doubt that Longju was on her side, India could not agree to any arrangement except Chinese withdrawal from Longju which on her side India would not re-occupy.

Double Taxation

DEVELOPMENTS DURING 1959

A NUMBER of developments took place during 1959 in the extension of Canada's network of conventions for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion.

A convention with Finland, negotiated late in 1958, was signed in March and should go into force upon ratification within the next few months. The taxes covered by this agreement are the Canadian Federal Income Tax, including surtaxes and the Old-Age Security Tax on personal and corporate income, and the Finnish National Income Tax on individuals and corporations. The major principle followed to avoid the imposition of double taxation is the extension of reciprocal tax credits. As a general rule, the country of residence grants credit to individuals and corporations in respect of the taxes paid to the country where the income originates. For certain defined categories, however, the principle of exclusive taxation by the country of residence is applied. These include income of shipping and aircraft companies, pensions conferred in recognition of past services, purchased annuities, royalties from certain artistic activities and business profits and other income not derived from a permanent establishment. Remuneration (other than pensions) paid by one of the governments to individuals residing in the other country is taxed by the country of origin. This flexibility between the two principles of taxation, by the country of origin and by the country of residence, characterizes most of Canada's double taxation conventions and greatly facilitates the equitable solution of such administrative problems as arise. Other standard features of this agreement are a maximum withholding tax rate of 15 per cent on certain transfers of income and the provision for the exchange of administrative information between the two governments upon request.

On September 24 an exchange of notes took place bringing into force a convention with Switzerland for the avoidance of double taxation on air and shipping profits. The principle of exclusive taxation by the country of residence is again applied as most appropriate to this type of business operation. The taxes involved are the Canadian Federal Income Tax, including surtaxes and the Old-Age Security Tax, and the Swiss Federal and Cantonal Income or Profit Taxes. This agreement is retroactive to January 1, 1957.

Another development was the revision of the Canada-Netherlands Tax Convention, which resulted in a supplementary convention signed on October 28. The problem of concern to Canada in re-negotiating this Convention of 1957 was the rate of its withholding tax on dividends going from a company resident in Canada to a company resident in the Netherlands. Under the original convention Canada had agreed not to levy any tax if the Netherlands company owned at

least 50 per cent of the shares of the Canadian company. This provision was amended so that in future the Canadian company will have to be 100 per cent owned by the Dutch parent company and the rate will be 2½ per cent. If the company is 100 per cent owned, however, and all of its income is received from sources outside Canada, the tax exemption provision will continue to apply.

Finally, in September a Norwegian delegation came to Ottawa and preliminary discussions were held. Early in November the Minister of Finance announced that, for the purpose of revising the Canada-United States Succession Duty Convention, discussions would be held with United States officials, in order to take account of the new Canadian Estate Tax Act which had replaced the Dominion Succession Duty Act.

In these last two cases the Minister of Finance announced in advance that discussions would be held and the public was invited to make their views known.

Canada has now eleven comprehensive income tax conventions (of the type outlined above for Finland) with the United States, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, France, Sweden, Netherlands, Ireland, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Union of South Africa and Australia. Conventions with Belgium and Finland, and the supplementary convention with the Netherlands, are expected to come into force within the next few months. There is also one other convention, limited to air and shipping profits, with Argentina, in addition to four conventions, on the double taxation of shipping profits only, with Greece, Italy, Japan and Norway.

Moreover, Canada has entered into agreements for the avoidance of double taxation of estates with the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Ireland and the Union of South Africa.

Tokyo Session of GATT

The Fifteenth Session of the Contracting Parties of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was held in Tokyo from October 26 to November 21. This was the first regular session to be held anywhere but at GATT headquarters in Geneva. In accordance with a custom established during recent years, the conference began with a three-day meeting of Ministers from most of the Contracting Parties.

Ministerial statements dealt with five main themes:

- (a) The need to do away promptly with trade discrimination and to remove remaining import restrictions, in keeping with the improved balance-of-payments position of most Contracting Parties;*
- (b) the importance of pressing on with the GATT programme for the expansion of trade — in particular, the solution of the problems of under-developed countries;*
- (c) the problem of imports from low-cost countries;*
- (d) the significance of the European Economic Community (EEC) and of the proposed European Free Trade Association (EFTA);*
- (e) the harmful effects of agricultural protectionism.*

Mr. Léon Balcer, Solicitor General of Canada, represented the Canadian Government at the Ministerial Meeting. The text of his important statement on current international trading problems follows:

BOTH CANADA and Japan are countries of the Pacific. Japan is one of Canada's most important markets and my country is a growing importer of Japanese goods. We value our trade relations with Japan and the close links between our two countries. Canada and Japan have exchanged most-favoured-nation treatment through the GATT. We have found that, when problems arise in our trade, it is possible, in a friendly and constructive way, to find workable solutions acceptable to both countries. We look forward to a steady growth in trade in both directions to the mutual advantage of our two countries. We are most grateful for the hospitality of the Japanese Government on the important occasion of the Fifteenth Session, and especially in connection with the current meeting of Trade Ministers. I trust our deliberations will be as fruitful as our reception in Japan has been gracious and generous.

Canada continues to attach great importance to the basic principles and objectives of the General Agreement and their faithful implementation. This flows naturally from our profound interest in international trade and from the conviction that trade problems are best dealt with on the broadest possible multilateral basis. The GATT embraces over forty countries, which together are responsible for 90 percent of world trade. At this Session, we welcome the participation of Israel

and Yugoslavia, and the Contracting Parties have before them a declaration providing for the establishment of closer and more effective relations with Poland. The family of GATT countries is growing and this is as it should be. It is recognition also of the mounting appreciation throughout the world of the value of multilateralism in world trade.

The GATT is the only instrument of international co-operation in the trade field which brings together trading countries on a world-wide basis. It is vital that full use be made of it not only in dealing with the familiar and continuing problems of the past but also with the challenges of the future as we move from the period of postwar recovery and consolidation into the new era of the Sixties.

We may look to the years ahead with a good deal of hope and optimism. New problems there will no doubt be, and some of them will require a high degree of understanding and co-operation if they are to be resolved to the common good of the world trading community. But if we compare the trading world as it is today with the dislocation and difficulties which faced our countries at the time of GATT'S inception, we must be impressed with the very great progress which has been made and take heart for the future.

Times Propitious

I doubt whether since, before the First World War, the international environment has at any time been more propitious for attainment of the broad objectives embodied in the General Agreement. The industrial countries have recovered from the recession of 1957-58. The reserve and payments position of the majority of countries has greatly improved. There has also been a strengthening demand for the exports of primary producers, an enlargement of the resources of the International Bank and the International Monetary Fund, and a growing understanding of the needs and potentialities of the less-developed countries. These are all evidence of the health and vigour of our world trading community. World trade is at record levels. The recent recession in North America has again demonstrated that periodic declines in economic activity on that continent need not have magnified repercussions in the rest of the world. Indeed, the maintenance of North American imports at a high level was a marked feature of the 1957-58 contraction.

Given sound domestic policies, we should be able to look forward to progressive growth of world trade in the years to come, unfettered by the restrictions which have plagued international commerce in the postwar years. The time has come to close the book on the postwar transitional period and the special international provisions which were made to accommodate the difficulties of that era.

Canada gives its full support to the programme for the further expansion of international trade which was decided upon at the last Ministerial Meeting. Committee One has made good progress in developing the necessary arrangements for the next round of tariff negotiations in 1960-61. These negotiations will provide a further opportunity to secure mutual advantageous lowering of tariff barriers and we recognize the value of the initiative taken by the U.S.A.

in proposing this new round of negotiations. It is significant and welcome that the countries of the European Economic Community have indicated their intention to participate in meaningful tariff negotiations. Canada will participate in these important negotiations and we trust that no trading country with a contribution to make will be absent from the negotiating table. Committee One has recommended rules for the negotiations and we shall be discussing the Committee's proposals during the Session. We wish to see these rules as simple and flexible as possible and believe that they should be based largely on those accepted for previous negotiations which have proved their worth in practical terms.

In Committee Two, consultations with individual Contracting Parties in the field of agriculture are continuing. When this process has been completed, it will be important to follow through. The emerging picture is one of widespread agricultural protectionism significantly interfering with the flow of trade. No one can realistically expect that national measures to support agriculture will be eliminated. For many reasons, social, political and economic, this is not possible. On the other hand, collectively we should be prepared to examine whether significant downward adjustments in the level of agricultural supports and the lowering of tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade in agricultural products are not possible and desirable both from the trade and domestic points of views. The vast array of impediments to trade in agricultural products stands out clearly as one of the areas to which the Contracting Parties must now address themselves.

Under-developed Countries

Another area warranting the close attention of the Contracting Parties is the export trade of the less-developed countries. The desirability of greater stability in raw material markets has been widely recognized both as a trade matter and as it relates to the financing of development in the materially less-advanced areas. I am convinced that the best contribution which the industrialized countries can make in this field lies in the steady expansion of their economies, which will be reflected in orderly and growing demand for basic raw materials. International commodity arrangements have their place but are not the whole answer. Some commodities lend themselves to international marketing agreements, but others do not. Canada is a member of the International Agreements on Wheat, Sugar and Tin. We remain ready to examine individual commodity situations to see whether there is additional scope for arrangements of this kind which will take fully into account the interests of both producers and consumers.

But the interests of many of the less-developed countries are no longer related simply to trade in foodstuffs. Some of them in fulfillment of their aspirations to diversify their economies are emerging as competitive suppliers of manufactures goods and this is to be expected as their economies are developed. Contracting Parties must recognize this dynamic change and adjust to it. But the adjustment should be orderly, so that the sudden disruption of established industry in other countries is avoided. It would seem the wise and more forward-looking course for the highly industrialized countries to approach the problem of low-cost

industrial competition in a positive manner and with a view to finding a solution which will allow these exports to find an appropriate place in world markets. Similarly, the new suppliers should be prepared to take measures which would permit them to increase their exports without disrupting the internal markets of the importing countries. Orderly adjustment to the new pattern will require the co-operation of exporting and importing countries alike and there is reason to believe that solutions can best be found through the GATT, where most trading countries are represented. Bilateral arrangements cannot provide complete answers to these problems.

I have spoken of some of the problems of the future, but there are a number of current matters to which I would like to direct attention. It will come as no surprise if I refer first to the question of restrictions and discrimination. Since the Ministerial Meeting last October events have moved fast and in a most desirable directions. The introduction of convertibility for the world's main trading currencies, reflecting as it does the basic strength of the countries concerned, has created circumstances making possible the achievement of non-discrimination in world trade. Most countries now finance all or most of their trade in convertible currencies. The International Monetary Fund, in an important decision last week, has given formal recognition to the requirements of the current payments situation. We must now take full account of this decision in our work in GATT. We must make sure that the vestiges of quota discrimination are eliminated so that each of us may truly enjoy the benefits of most-favoured-nation treatment in the markets of the others. We welcome the substantial progress that has been made in dismantling restrictions and eliminating discriminations, but much still remains to be done. Now that the payments justification for discrimination has disappeared, we must ensure here in the GATT that discrimination in the trade field is not perpetuated under any other guise. We must also ensure that restrictions are only maintained in circumstances where they are fully justified by the payments position of the country concerned. If restrictions and discrimination are used when they are no longer justified, a severe strain would be placed on trade relations between countries. We must take care to avoid unnecessary strains of this kind.

At this Session we shall again be considering the question of German import restrictions, this time within the framework of the waiver negotiated at the Fourteenth Session. We hope that Germany will proceed to dismantle its remaining restrictions more quickly than envisaged under the waiver. We look forward to examining the non-discriminatory administration of Germany's present quotas as required under Article XIII. We look forward also to reviewing the possibilities which exist for increased access to German markets for products still under restriction, particularly in the field of agriculture.

European Common Market

The Canadian Delegation considers that another important task at this Session will be to discuss the European Common Market.

I wish to reiterate our sympathy for and understanding of the broad political and economic objectives of the Rome Treaty. We are well aware of the benefit and advantage that could flow for the trading world from a stronger and more prosperous EEC. We believe, however, that these benefits can only be realized if the policies pursued by the six are such as to strengthen and not impair commerce between the member countries and the rest of the world, consistently with the requirements of the General Agreement.

I understand that, by the end of this year, the Common Market countries expect to be in a position to give other Contracting Parties complete information concerning their proposed common tariff. Our next session will no doubt provide an opportunity to discuss and examine the level of this tariff and to make any recommendations that may be necessary. I feel certain that the Common Market countries will take fully into account their tariff obligations under the agreements and will wish to demonstrate their interest in expanding world economy by setting the common rates of duty at levels that will encourage trade with the outside countries. This is particularly important for Canada in the field of raw materials, many of which are on list "G", the tariffs for which as yet remain undecided. In a sense, the decisions of the six on the list "G" items will be a test of their intentions. Do they, as major manufacturers and exporters, wish to take advantage of world availability and world prices for necessary raw materials or do they prefer to insulate themselves to varying degrees from the world markets and to protect limited local productions without adequate regard to the higher economic costs involved? The world awaits the answer.

Agricultural Policy

We are looking forward also to hearing from the Six about the common agricultural policy which is to be adopted by Common Market countries. This is a matter of major concern to many Contracting Parties. The policies of the Six in this field are being developed at a moment when, in Committee Two, the Contracting Parties are addressing themselves to the fundamental problems which arise in agricultural trade. Although the Rome Treaty spells out certain principles and methods, the contracting Parties have not, to date, had sufficient information to enable them to appreciate fully what is intended and what the implications will be for outside countries. I should like, here, to remind the Six of the necessity of avoiding a restrictive policy in this field, and to take into account fully the major trading interests of other countries. I assume that as soon as the plans of the Six in the agricultural field have been developed an opportunity will be provided for the Contracting Parties to review the proposed arrangements in the light of GATT objectives and principles and the requirements of Article XXIV. To permit a timely and expeditious review, various procedures can be considered in the GATT, but there should be no unwarranted delay. There is also the outstanding question of the association of the overseas territories of the Six with the Common Market. We have welcomed the opportunity which the consultations under Article XXII have provided to place before the Six

the concerns to which the proposed Association gives rise, particularly, but not exclusively, for the under-developed countries. It is not enough to think only in terms of mitigating damage when it occurs. Statesmanship requires consideration of measures to avoid unnecessary damage before it arises.

The Treaty of Rome is a fact of life and its provisions hold great hope for the future. To the extent that it poses problems for outside countries in the trade field, solutions must be found which will prejudice neither the legitimate objectives of the Six nor the Multilateral objectives of the Contracting Parties as a whole. I am confident that, given goodwill on both sides, common and fertile ground can be found. We have already heard a preliminary report on the proposed Convention for a Free Trade Association between the United Kingdom, the Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, Austria and Portugal, and we may be given further information later in the meeting. This new grouping, like the European Common Market, must, at the appropriate time, be examined by the Contracting Parties. The sooner the Contracting Parties can be informed of what is planned, the sooner it will be possible to form judgments and make any necessary recommendations. As in the case of the Rome Treaty, Canada is prepared to examine these proposals judiciously and sympathetically. We shall have to satisfy ourselves that what is proposed will conform with the objectives and principles of the GATT and in particular with the requirements of the relevant Articles of the Agreement.

... I have listened carefully to the statements made by Ministers and Heads of Delegations who have so far spoken. When I return to Ottawa, I shall be reporting to the Canadian Government on the many important points which have emerged. More than ever I am convinced of the need for maximum co-operation in the field of international trade and of the importance to this end of maintaining and strengthening the GATT. It is at Ministerial Sessions such as these that we are able to take stock and to chart the way ahead. Trade relations and political relations go hand in hand. We must ensure that trade continues to provide a beneficial link between our many countries. We must take care that through lack of foresight or understanding it is not permitted to become a divisive force between nations.

U.A.R. Students in Canada

THE SECRETARY of State for External Affairs, Mr. Howard Green, recently announced the arrival of a group of students from the United Arab Republic to undertake advanced science studies at Canadian universities.

Mr. Green said that the Government of the U.A.R. had requested the help of Canadian authorities in placing a number of science students from the Republic in Canadian universities for the current year. The Department of External Affairs had consulted Dr. H. H. Saunderson, President of the National Conference of Universities and Colleges, and, in spite of the short time remaining before the beginning of the academic year, the response of the NCCUC and the universities had been encouraging. An NCCUC team had been sent to Cairo to interview applicants in order that successful candidates might start their studies without undue delay.

During their fortnight's stay in Cairo, Dr. T. H. Matthews, Executive Secretary of the NCCUC, and Dr. F. E. W. Wetmore, Associate Dean of Arts at the University of Toronto, reviewed the applications of some fifty students. In spite of the highly specialized nature of the studies involved, sixteen of the candidates interviewed were placed in Canadian universities. These students, all of whom are at the post-graduate level, have been admitted to the Universities of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba, to Western University, the University of Toronto, the Ontario Agricultural College, Macdonald College and McGill University. Their fields of study include physics, chemistry, electrical and chemical engineering, metallurgy, soil science, soil chemistry and botany. All their expenses will be paid by the U.A.R. Government. The students, some of whom were accompanied by their parents, were met upon arrival by the World University Service.

Mr. Green said that he welcomed the initiative of the United Arab Republic in seeking additional cultural relations with Western countries and was gratified that the request on behalf of the U.A.R. students had been met so promptly and generously by the NCCUC and the Canadian universities.

APPOINTMENTS, POSTINGS AND RESIGNATIONS IN THE CANADIAN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

- Miss L. M. Gauthier appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Officer 1 effective November 2, 1959.
- Mr. J. P. J. Robichaud appointed to the Department of External Affairs as Foreign Service Officer 1 effective November 9, 1959.
- Mr. R. S. MacLean posted from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, New Delhi, to Ottawa. Left New Delhi November 12, 1959.
- Mr. J. J. M. Cote posted from the Canadian Embassy, Rio de Janeiro to Ottawa. Left Rio de Janeiro November 13, 1959.
- Mr. K. W. MacLellan posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Rome. Left Ottawa November 15, 1959.
- Miss C. Gillies posted from Ottawa to the Canadian Embassy, Cairo. Left Ottawa November 16, 1959.
- Mr. T. D. Hayes resigned from the Department of External Affairs effective November 23, 1959.
- Mr. K. A. McVey posted from the Canadian Embassy, Cairo, to Ottawa. Left Cairo November 26, 1959.
- Miss P. A. McDougall posted from the International Supervisory Commissions, Indochina, to Ottawa. Left Indochina November 28, 1959.
- Mr. H. B. M. Best, Executive Assistant to the Secretary of State for External Affairs, resigned.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Action

Bilateral

Euratom

Exchange of Notes between the Government of Canada and the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) bringing into force the Agreement between the Government of Canada and EURATOM for co-operation in the peaceful uses of Atomic Energy which was signed at Brussels October 6, 1959.

Brussels November 18, 1959.

Entered into force November 18, 1959.

Federal Republic of Germany

Agreement between Canada and the Federal Republic of Germany on the settlement of disputes arising out of direct procurement.

Bonn August 3, 1959.

United States of America

Exchange of Notes between Canada and the United States of America renewing permission for the use by the U.S.A. of the Haines cut-off road for the winter maintenance of the Haines-Fairbanks pipeline.

Ottawa August 17 and 20, 1959.

Entered into force August 20, 1959.

Multilateral

Eighth Protocol of rectifications and modifications to the texts of the Schedules to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Done at Geneva February 18, 1959.

Signed by Canada November 6, 1959.

Declaration on relations between Contracting Parties to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade and the Government of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia.

Done at Geneva May 25, 1959.

Signed by Canada November 6, 1959.

Declaration on the Provisional Accession of Israel to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Done at Geneva May 29, 1959.

Signed by Canada November 5, 1959.

Ninth Protocol of rectifications and modifications to the Texts of the Schedules to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Done at Geneva August 17, 1959.

Signed by Canada November 6, 1959.

Agreement to supplement the Agreement between the Parties to the North Atlantic Treaty regarding the Status of their Forces with respect to Foreign Forces stationed in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Signed at Bonn by Canada August 3, 1959.

Protocol of signature to the Supplementary Agreement.

Signed at Bonn by Canada August 3, 1959.

Agreement to implement paragraph 5 of Article 45 of the Agreement to supplement the Agreement between the Parties to the North Atlantic Treaty regarding the Status of their Forces with respect to Foreign Forces stationed in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Signed at Bonn by Canada August 3, 1959.

Administrative Agreement to Article 60 of the Agreement to supplement the Agreement between the Parties to the North Atlantic Treaty regarding the Status of their Forces with respect to Foreign Forces stationed in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Signed at Bonn by Canada August 3, 1959.

Agreement between Canada, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland concerning the conduct of manœuvres and other training exercises in the Saltau-Luneburg Area.

Signed at Bonn by Canada August 3, 1959.

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