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CANADA and the UNITED NATIONS 1964

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OTTAWA, CANADA

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FOREWORD

Thoughtful men and women everywhere are concerned about the constitutional crisis facing the United Nations. Their concern is justified, but the crisis must be placed not only in the perspective of the short twenty years of the United Nations' existence, but also within the framework of the years to come. Setbacks occur in the development of all institutions but if they have a fundamental vitality and fill an essential need the ground lost is in time regained and new advances are made. The immobilization of the nineteenth session was regrettable, but a confrontation was avoided and talks on the issue still continue with almost all members fully convinced that an effective United Nations is essential in the atomic age.

Despite disagreement in the membership as a whole over the constitutional issues related to the authorization and financing of peace-keeping operations, the Security Council was nevertheless able in 1964 to agree on the establishment of yet another United Nations force, to help bring peace to Cyprus. The United Nations system was also able to carry on its large and growing economic and humanitarian programmes. As described in this publication, it mounted the largest and most significant economic conference in its history; continued to direct hundreds of millions of dollars in loans, grants and technical assistance to the developing countries; and proceeded with its work of relieving hunger and caring for the homeless and displaced. Such activities do not capture many headlines, but the contribution they make to bettering the lot of the hundred of millions who live in the under-developed countries is unquestionable.

Pessimism and frustration with the shortcomings of the United Nations are as easy a refuge for the uncritical as are unjustified optimism and complacency about its future. We must regard the current crisis as serious, but we should also maintain a balanced judgment, recognize the distance that has already been travelled and, to paraphrase the words of the Secretary-General, place confidence in the reasonableness of men to reach reasonable accommodations.

Paul Martin

*Secretary of State
for External Affairs*

OTTAWA
June 2, 1965

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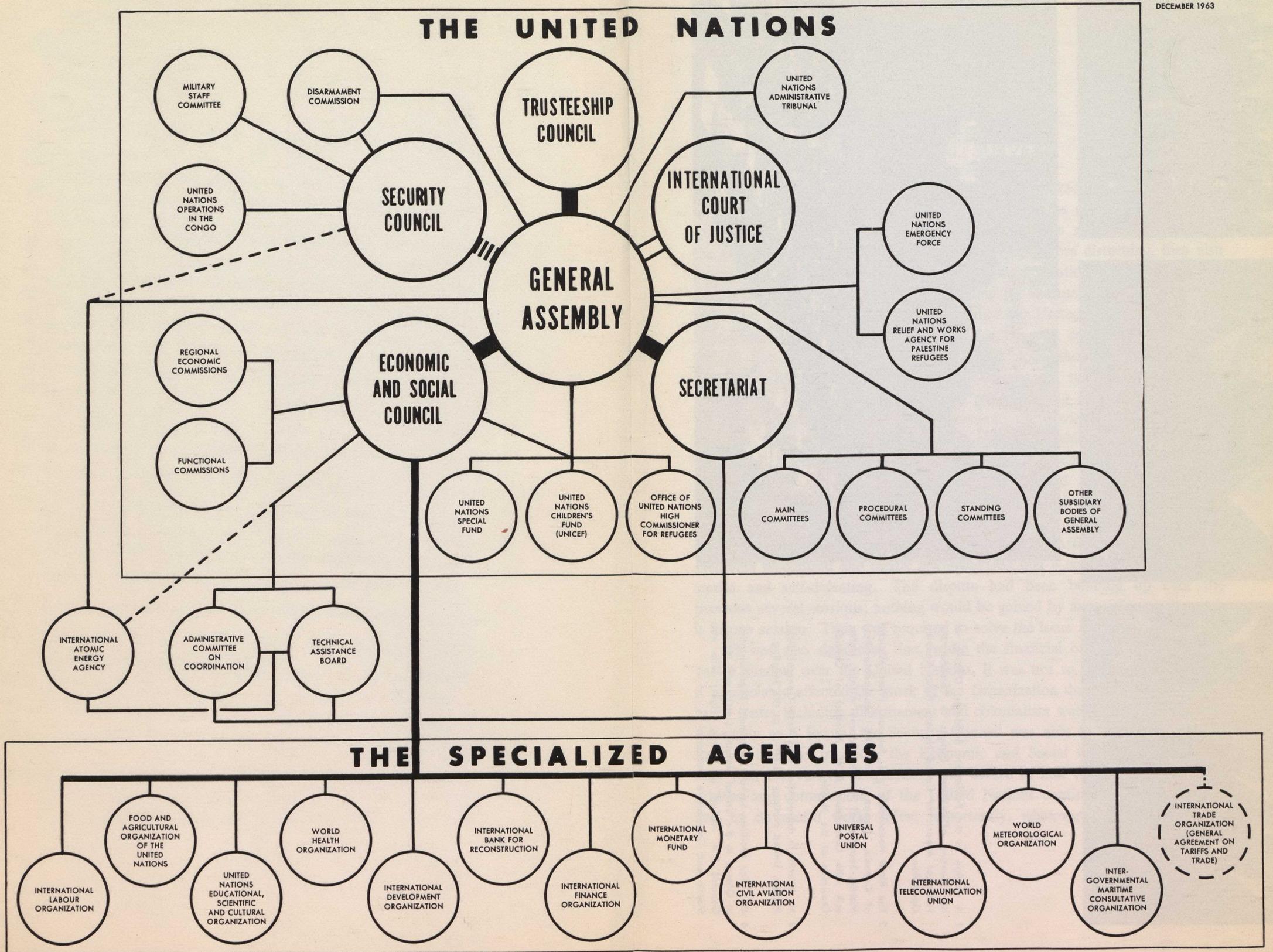
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THE UNITED NATIONS AND RELATED AGENCIES

DECEMBER 1963

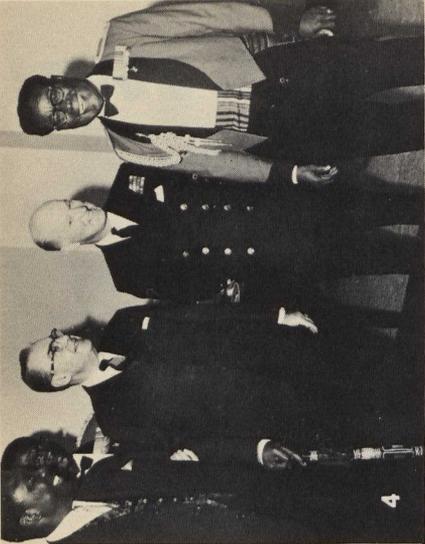




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1 A session in the Parliament Buildings, Ottawa, of the Meeting of Military Experts to Consider the Technical Aspects of United Nations Peace-Keeping Operations.

2 The Right Honourable L. B. Pearson, Prime Minister of Canada, (centre), and the Honourable Paul Martin, Secretary of State for External Affairs, (left), talk with Commodore R. W. Murdoch of Canada, Chairman of the Meeting.

3 Mr. Martin in conversation with Major-General Indar Rikhye, United Nations Observer at the Meeting.

4 Mr. Alex Quaison-Sackey, Permanent Representative of Ghana to the United Nations (left), and Major-General J. A. Ankrab of Ghana (right) with Mr. Martin and Commodore Murdoch.

I

GENERAL SURVEY

The constitutional issues raised by past peace-keeping activities of the United Nations came to the forefront in 1964 in the guise of the financial question and the consequent immobilization of the nineteenth session of the General Assembly. While these developments were disturbing, they also revealed in clear terms how much the United Nations is valued by its members. It was quite apparent throughout the discussions on the financing issue that the overwhelming majority wished the United Nations to continue in existence as an effective instrument for peaceful co-operation. No one walked out because of the financial crisis, none showed any disposition to give up the United Nations and no irrevocable split arose among the membership on the issue of financing peace-keeping operations. The two principal adversaries, the United States and the Soviet Union, continually affirmed their desire for a negotiated settlement which would strengthen the United Nations rather than weaken it and, although they explained and defended their respective positions with energy and determination in the General Assembly, both agreed to the formation of a Special Committee on Peace-Keeping Operations as a forum for further discussion. In refusing to allow a test of strength by confrontation over Article 19, they and all members recognized and tacitly acknowledged that a confrontation would be sterile and self-defeating. The dispute had been building up over the previous several sessions; nothing would be gained by attempting to despatch it in one session. Time was required to solve the issue and time was bought.

It was also significant that, while the financial or constitutional issue cast a shadow over the United Nations, it was not so long or so dark that it appreciably affected the work of the Organization during the year. While many issues including disarmament and colonialism were denied the General Assembly as a forum, the Security Council was able to discharge a heavy load of business in 1964, the Economic and Social Council continued to deal with the variety of questions put before it, and the conferences, committees and commissions of the United Nations continued to be convened and to do useful work. Most importantly, whatever their views on the

financing of peace-keeping operations, no members of the United Nations closed their purses to the financing of the multitude of programmes and projects undertaken by the Organization to promote economic development and to relieve misery throughout the world. Efforts continued to be made to improve public health, train personnel and survey power resources, since, in the long run, such work, by helping to remove poverty and ignorance as a cause of human conflict, may provide the ultimate solution to the problem of peace in the world.

Peace Keeping

The year 1964 witnessed a number of developments in the field of peace keeping in addition to disagreement over the application of Article 19 to peace-keeping expenses. The United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) continued in 1964 to perform its functions of observation and patrol on the borders between Israel and the United Arab Republic, with Canada supplying a contingent of some 950 men who provided such services as communications, air transportation and reconnaissance. The United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) in the Middle East and the United Nations Military Observer Group for India and Pakistan (UNMOGIP) also continued their activities¹. The United Nations Operation in the Congo (ONUC), however, was withdrawn at the end of June and the Canadian contingent, which numbered about 250 officers and men at the time, was disbanded. During the four years of ONUC's existence, 1,926 Canadians served in the Congo, chiefly in the role of providing communications and of operating an air-lift from Italy. On the whole, the United Nations Force in the Congo accomplished its mission, which was to help preserve the territorial integrity and political independence of the Congo and to help maintain law and order.

The United Nations Yemen Observation Mission (UNYOM) also concluded its activities in 1964. It was set up on June 11, 1963, to supervise the cease-fire agreements between Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Republic, but was terminated on September 4, 1964, when these two countries, which had borne all its costs, ended their financial support. The Secretary-General considered that UNYOM, to which Canada contributed 36 men and two "Caribou" aircraft, had made a valuable contribution to peace and stability in the area by preventing an escalation of the Yemeni conflict and by helping to create an atmosphere conducive to a political settlement in Yemen.

¹ For UNMOGIP see also P. 27

The decision in March 1964 to establish in Cyprus a United Nations Force (UNFICYP)¹ was of direct concern to Canada. The Force was authorized on the basis of voluntary financing instead of by assessment of the membership, as had been the case for UNEF and ONUC. The formation of UNFICYP did not affect the principle of whether or not peace-keeping costs were a charge on member countries, but it did raise serious questions of burden-sharing within the United Nations. Canada took the view that it was wrong for a minority of the membership to have to assume the costs of a peace-keeping operation authorized by the Security Council, but it took some comfort from the fact that as many as 35 members of the Organization had volunteered financial support.

Another event of particular concern to Canada was the meeting which took place in Ottawa during the first week of November 1964 to consider the technical aspects of UN peace-keeping operations. Representatives of 23 countries attended the meeting on the invitation of the Canadian Government. The proposal to hold such a meeting was first made by the Prime Minister in his speech to the General Assembly in September 1963. He then suggested there should be an examination by interested governments of the problems and techniques of United Nations peace-keeping operations. Following this speech, arrangements were put in hand to convene a meeting. The aim of the meeting was to hold a frank and confidential discussion of the special military problems which had arisen in the course of peace-keeping operations relating, for example, to matters of logistics, training and personnel. The countries invited were those which had made major contributions in men to past peace-keeping operations or which had formed or announced their intention to form standby units or personnel for this purpose. The Military Adviser to the Secretary-General attended in the capacity of observer. It was not the intention of the governments participating to reach formal or agreed conclusions. It was thought that an exchange of views of this kind would be valuable in itself. This expectation proved correct and the general view after the meeting was that participants had gained a better understanding of each other's problems and that their governments would be able to put this knowledge to use in preparing for future requests from the United Nations for military assistance in emergencies.

Following the Ottawa conference, the Secretary-General, in the introduction to his annual report, raised the question of the co-ordination and planning in advance of peace-keeping operations. He said that a number of member states had offered military units to the United Nations on a stand-

¹ See Page 28

by basis, but that, apart from welcoming these offers, he had not been in a position to do much more than this in the absence of approval by an appropriate organ of the United Nations. He therefore suggested that it might be useful to study the whole question of advance planning and asked for appropriate action which would authorize the undertaking of such a study. A number of countries including Canada welcomed this invitation. Progress was affected, however, by the need to resolve the broader constitutional issues thrown up by the controversy over Article 19. As it happened, the terms of reference of the Special Committee on Peace-Keeping Operations established by the Assembly before it adjourned were broad enough to include both kinds of problem for study.

Disarmament

It was hoped that in 1964 the United Nations would be able to make significant progress in achieving some measure of disarmament to follow such advances as the partial test-ban treaty, the direct communications link between Moscow and Washington, the General Assembly resolution banning nuclear weapons from outer space, the reduction of the military budgets of the Soviet Union and the United States, and the mutual cut-backs in the production of fissionable materials for military purposes by these two countries and Britain. However, the financial crisis not only prevented any substantive discussion of disarmament in the General Assembly but also had an adverse affect on the Eighteen-Nation Disarmament Committee. Nonetheless, while the expectations that existed at the beginning of the year were not realized, interest in the subject remained high as reflected in the inscription on the nineteenth session's agenda of six items in the disarmament field: the question of general and complete disarmament (report of the Eighteen-Nation Disarmament Committee); the prohibition of the use of nuclear weapons; a declaration on the denuclearization of Africa; the non-proliferation of nuclear weapons; the suspension of nuclear tests; the conversion to peaceful needs of the resources released by disarmament. Similarly, in the general debate at the nineteenth session, most speakers placed emphasis on disarmament matters, and it was clear that an extensive and lively discussion would have taken place if the First Committee had met. In his statement during the debate, the Secretary of State for External Affairs, commenting at length on disarmament, stressed in particular the current need of measures to prevent the dissemination of nuclear weapons, pointing out that "the need for such agreement is greater now that the number of nuclear powers has increased". "It is no longer sufficient to depend on the restraint of the nuclear powers

themselves," he said. "What is now required is the elaboration of an international agreement or agreements by which the nuclear states would undertake not to relinquish control of nuclear weapons or to transmit the information necessary for their manufacture to states not possessing such weapons, while the non-nuclear states, for their part, would pledge themselves not to manufacture or otherwise acquire control of nuclear weapons. In the Canadian view, an agreement on these lines would have a significant contribution to make to the enlargement of world peace and security."

Economic and Social Developments

Before 1960, the United Nations was primarily a forum for debate rather than an agent for change, as far as economic matters were concerned. Its activity in this respect was restricted to an objective analysis of world trends and to the establishment of multilateral aid programmes, which, while significant, were small compared to the burgeoning bilateral programmes. However, the great influx of new African states in 1960, all preoccupied by the need to reinforce political independence by rapid economic development, transformed not only the Organization's approach to economic questions but the very nature of the subjects discussed. What the new African states and the other developing countries sought was not just an analysis of trends but action, not just increased financial aid but a recognition of the role of trade in development and the necessity for appropriate international policies to support their own domestic efforts. Unquestionably, the most important manifestation of the new emphasis on action was the convening in Geneva, from March 23 to June 16, 1964, of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), which, with representatives of 120 countries in attendance, was the largest economic conference in history. The Conference adopted some 60 recommendations on a wide variety of subjects including conciliation procedures, the types and scope of commodity arrangements, the granting by the developed countries to the developing of maximum reductions in duties in manufactured and semi-manufactured products, and the general criteria to be followed by industrialized countries in providing financial co-operation through bilateral and multilateral programmes of assistance. But, more important, the Conference drew up recommendations which led to the establishment by the General Assembly in December of the Conference as an organ of the General Assembly and of a 55-member Trade and Development Board to serve as its executive body.¹ Another significant development in Geneva was the emergence of a cohesive group of 77 developing

¹ See Page 24

countries united in their determination to press for substantial alterations in the existing patterns of international trade.

Canada fully endorsed the objectives of UNCTAD. In his statement to the Conference on March 24, the Secretary of State for External Affairs agreed that the world was too much "fettered by restrictions, high tariffs, trade discrimination and other barriers", with the result that the terms of trade had deteriorated for exporters of raw materials and foodstuffs. He announced that, among other things, Canada would work "with other developed countries in eliminating, whenever practicable, tariffs on tropical foodstuffs and industrial raw materials traditionally exported by developing countries" and that it supported a "general removal of quantitative restrictions" by developed countries on manufactured goods from developing countries. In his assessment of the Conference in his address to the General Assembly on December 8, Mr. Martin agreed that it did not go as far as many would have wished but emphasized that it had allowed a stocktaking of the magnitude of the problem of under-development and had provided a much better understanding of the broad lines along which domestic and international efforts should be directed. It could not be judged on its short-term results but should be seen rather as a turning-point in history from which would come developments that would be bound to make a "lasting imprint on the whole pattern of international economic relations".

Although the emphasis at UNCTAD was on aid through trade, it was fully recognized that financial and technical assistance in its traditional form would continue to play a vital part in economic development. The activities of the Bretton Woods Institutions and other Specialized Agencies are particularly important,¹ but the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (EPTA), the United Nations Special Fund and other programmes and agencies of the United Nations have also provided increasingly valuable assistance over the years. EPTA was established in 1950 as the basic instrument of the United Nations system for providing technical assistance to developing countries. Over the past 14 years, it has sent 13,000 experts to about 130 countries and territories and has provided 30,000 fellowships to the nationals of 150 countries and territories to enable them to study in other countries. In addition, EPTA supplies equipment on a limited basis for training and demonstration purposes. This assistance covers a wide variety of fields, from the economic planning and public administration projects of the United Nations through the land and water development work of the Food and Agriculture Organization to public-health administra-

¹ See Page 48

tion of the World Health Organization. EPTA is financed by the voluntary contributions of the developed and developing countries alike and, in 1964, these amounted to over \$51.6 million. This sum, while only a slight increase over that for 1963, was almost double the amount pledged in 1959 and provided for 2,500 experts and 3,000 fellowships. Canada's contribution in 1964 was \$2,325,000 (Canadian).

The Special Fund, which also works through the existing facilities of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, provides pre-investment assistance designed to help governments to survey national resources, develop advanced educational and technical-training facilities, improve their development planning and establish or strengthen applied-research institutes. Since it began work in 1959, it has approved 485 projects in 130 countries and territories. Twelve of these projects, which cost the Special Fund \$5.8 million, have already produced over \$755 million in investments. The Special Fund is also financed by voluntary contributions and in 1964 it was expected that these would reach \$94.6 million by the time all governments had made their pledges. Canada contributed \$5 million.

EPTA and the Special Fund, whose proposed consolidation into the United Nations Development Programme was an item on the agenda of the nineteenth session, are the principal channels through which United Nations aid is funnelled to developing countries. In addition, however, the United Nations-FAO World Food Programme¹ supports pilot projects in economic and social development through the use of multilateral contributions in cash and kind, while the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)² aids projects related to the welfare of children. Of special interest as the largest technical-assistance programme ever mounted by the United Nations in any one country is the United Nations Programme of Technical Co-operation in the Congo (formerly known as the Congo Civilian Fund). In 1964, it sent to the Congo some 570 experts and technicians who provided the backbone of many essential services of the government, such as judiciary and law enforcement, civil aviation, public works, public health, transport, social affairs, and police training. The Programme also provided 800 secondary school teachers representing 47 nationalities and a contingent of 400 Nigerian police. Aside from aid provided by EPTA and the Special Fund, the Congo Programme is financed from a number of sources, including individual governments. Its total cost in 1964 was \$17 million, and Canada's contribution was \$500,000. During the year, the effectiveness of the Programme was much reduced by the rebellions in the Congolese provinces in which a num-

¹ See Page 54

² See Page 62

ber of experts were killed and projects disrupted but, in its report for 1964, the Programme noted that, partly because of the advice and help of the United Nations experts, the country's financial position had nonetheless improved.

Over the past two years, the United Nations has focused special attention on two areas of particular interest to the developing countries. In 1963, the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology was held to examine how these countries could benefit from the application of scientific and technological advances. In 1964, the Advisory Committee established by the Conference recommended to the thirty-ninth session of the Economic and Social Council that it consider the possibility of a concerted attack on a limited number of important research-application problems, that a programme of international co-operation in science and technology be undertaken, and that an examination be made of the institutions needed by the developing countries to enable them to make further advances in this field. In 1963, the General Assembly recommended the establishment of the United Nations Training and Research Institute and, in 1964, about 75 countries pledged, or indicated that they would pledge, contributions to it. The Institute, whose headquarters will be in New York, is designed to train personnel, particularly from the developing countries, for service in member governments and United Nations organizations, and also to study major problems relating to the maintenance of peace and the promotion of economic and social development.

The principal objective of the economic programmes of the United Nations is to help the developing nations to help themselves by giving them sufficient trained personnel, capital resources and technical competence to make their own way, provide for their people an improved standard of living and compete with confidence and profit with the more advanced countries. The difficulties of aid-giving are enormous. The identification of any given economic problem and a decision on how it should be solved are alone considerable, quite apart from the actual process of solution, since many countries have had to embark on their economic development almost from scratch with little reliable knowledge of their own resources and considerable uncertainty as to what priorities to establish. Consequently, the United Nations has stressed the importance of carefully-drawn development plans and programmes based on thorough research. While United Nations assistance is given only at the express request of the recipient government, the very real limits on sources available have led to agreement that sustained impact and high-priority need are paramount considerations in the provision of technical and pre-investment assistance.

The activities of the United Nations in the social sector receive relatively little publicity, but are no less important for that. The Specialized Agencies continued in 1964 to carry the burden of this work in their efforts to eradicate disease, advance education and relieve hunger, while the High Commissioner for Refugees sought to improve the lot of those still under his mandate and UNICEF carried on with its invaluable work on behalf of children. In 1964, the Commission on Narcotic Drugs studied progress in drug-traffic control, while the Human Rights Commission devoted much of its time to the drafting of a convention on racial discrimination and a companion declaration on religious intolerance. It also appointed a committee to recommend activities for the International Year for Human Rights in 1968.

Colonialism and Apartheid

The advance of colonial territories towards independence continued in 1964 and, at the end of the year, Malta, Malawi and Zambia were admitted to the United Nations. However, with the early adjournment of the General Assembly, consideration of colonial issues in 1964 was confined to the Special Committee of Twenty-Four, which had been set up in 1960 to watch over the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples. In its meetings during the year the Special Committee, in dealing with British territories, "deplored the continued refusal" of Britain to implement previous resolutions of the General Assembly concerning a constitutional conference on Rhodesia, again warned of the consequences of a unilateral declaration of independence by the territory, repeated its call for self-determination for Aden and for the implementation of the General Assembly's resolutions concerning the territory and reiterated the General Assembly's request that Britain set a date for the independence of British Guiana. It condemned South Africa's "flagrant disregard" of United Nations resolutions on South West Africa and particularly its refusal to take steps to grant to the inhabitants the right of self-determination and, with regard to Portuguese territories, stated that the Security Council should consider measures to secure Portugal's compliance with United Nations resolutions, particularly with respect to "the immediate cessation of repressive acts" and the transfer of power to freely-elected institutions.

Since, in every instance except the Portuguese territories and South West Africa, the administering power has accepted the principle of self-determination¹, the main issue in colonial questions revolves around the viabil-

¹ Rhodesia is a special case because the British Government considers that it cannot by convention intervene in Rhodesian domestic affairs since the territory has internal self-government.

ity of territories, the pace of preparations for independence and the extent to which the United Nations can interfere in the programme worked out by the administering power. It is difficult to estimate what effect the Special Committee's deliberations and decisions have on the timetable of independence, since the schedule is, in effect, laid down by the colonial power. If it is sympathetic, it may heed the views expressed in the United Nations and do what it can to meet them but, if not, the United Nations cannot enforce them. The Special Committee's function is essentially, therefore, to keep a spotlight trained on colonial issues in the hope that it will have some effect on the granting of independence to it.

The *apartheid* policies of the South African Government remained in the forefront of United Nations issues in 1964 and were discussed in a series of meetings of the Special Committee on the Policies of Apartheid, the Myrdal Committee and the Security Council¹. Particular attention was focused on economic sanctions, and the Security Council set up a committee to study their feasibility — the first time that the Security Council had gone so far in this direction, though in 1963 it called on all states to cease the sale and shipment of arms to South Africa.

Conclusions

The United Nations, to paraphrase the words of Dr. I. L. Claude, the distinguished American scholar, is an instrument in the hands of its members, all of whom have purposes which they would like to have it serve, and the political process within the Organization is, in essence, a continuing rivalry between the advocates of conflicting purposes — a struggle to determine whose ends will be served by the United Nations and whose priorities recognized. The rivalry and conflict of interests between East and West is perhaps best known, but there is also the conflict of priorities between North and South, with the North perhaps more concerned with political issues and the cold war and the South absorbed by the problems of economic development. But, whatever their viewpoint, all recognize that, in answering the question of what sort of United Nations is needed, the only avenue to an accommodation between East and West, North and South, lies in a multi-lateral approach with differences and positions of principle not being pushed to the point of schism. The fact of such recognition is important in itself and the restraint shown so far by the members of the United Nations gives reason to hope that a solution will be found and that a door will be opened on a new era of co-operation and progress in the United Nations.

¹ See Page 33

II

GENERAL ASSEMBLY

The Dilemma of Peace-Keeping Financing

Ostensibly, the dispute over the payment of peace-keeping assessments was financial in character. By the end of the year the arrears owed by member states to the Organization amounted to more than \$135 million. Ninety-five per cent of that amount represented unpaid assessments for the costs of the peace-keeping operations in the Middle East (UNEF) and the Congo (ONUC). By the time the General Assembly convened on December 1, 1964, nine states were so far in arrears — by amounts exceeding their total assessments for the preceding two years — that they stood liable to lose their Assembly vote under the provisions of Article 19 of the United Nations Charter. By February 1965, the number of states liable to Article 19 had increased to 13, including the Soviet Union and all its allies (except Bulgaria), France, South Africa, Belgium¹ and Yemen. A number of other states were in arrears in lesser amounts. The steadily mounting toll of arrears had a serious if not crippling financial effect on the Organization. By early 1965, the operating deficit of the United Nations exceeded \$90 million, and at one stage its ability to meet routine bills — much less take on new peace-keeping commitments — seemed in question.

But the dispute went far beyond the possible insolvency of the Organization and the penalty to be imposed on persistent defaulters. The real issue at stake was the constitutional mechanism for implementing the Charter provisions dealing with the maintenance of international peace and security, and the nature of the obligations devolving as a consequence on individual member states. The financial problems of the United Nations, essentially political in origin and nature, were part of the larger problem of the Organ-

¹ In March 1965, the long-standing claims of Belgium against the United Nations for use of and damage to Belgian-owned installations during the Congo operation were settled. Belgium immediately began to pay its ONUC arrears.

ization's continuing efforts to maintain international peace and security.

So fundamental was the dispute that other activity in the General Assembly ground to a virtual standstill. After two and a half months of inconclusive activity, the nineteenth session went into prolonged adjournment on February 18, 1965, to await the results of negotiations within a newly-appointed 33-member Special Committee on Peace-keeping Operations. Significantly, the Committee's mandate called for a review of all aspects of peace-keeping operations — recognition that the purely financial question was symbolic of the disagreement within the United Nations rather than the root cause of it.

Origins of the Crisis

The financial crisis which came close to paralyzing the United Nations General Assembly in 1964 had been more than eight years in the making. The political crisis which underlay and shaped it, however, had its origins in the very founding of the United Nations and the drafting of the Charter. The Charter was the point of agreement from which subsequent disagreements sprang. Its authors sought, on the one hand, to give expression to the aspirations of the peoples of the United Nations to combine their efforts for the betterment of all mankind and, on the other, to avoid the mistakes of the League of Nations and to provide a firm link with reality in the shape of special responsibilities and authority for the great powers. The United States, Britain, France, the Soviet Union and China were given permanent seats and the right of veto in the Security Council, which in turn was given primary responsibility for the maintenance of peace and security and the right to act in this sphere on behalf of the entire membership of the Organization (Article 24); all member states were obligated to carry out the Security Council's decisions (Article 25). The General Assembly was authorized to discuss any questions relating to peace and security, subject to the proviso that it should not make recommendations regarding any specific dispute or situation while the Security Council was seized of the matter (Article 2).

In what has come to be called the peace-keeping field, the Charter foresaw two general areas of action. Chapter VI (Articles 33 to 38), dealing with the "peaceful settlement of disputes", authorized the Security Council to *recommend* appropriate procedures or methods of adjustment. Chapter VII (Articles 39 to 51), dealing with "threats to the peace, breaches of the peace and acts of aggression", authorized the Council to *decide* on measures to maintain or restore international peace and security. The drafters of the

Charter clearly envisaged the maintenance of peace and security essentially as a task of the Security Council acting collectively in the achievement of a common purpose.

Expectations were rapidly dispelled by the cold war, the assertion of the Soviet hegemony in Eastern Europe and, in 1950, the war in Korea. The Soviet Union resorted to constant use of the veto and Chapter VII became in effect a dead-letter.

Balked by great power differences from proceeding along the path preferred by the San Francisco drafters, the members of the Organization, acting collectively, gradually encouraged, devised and eventually demanded the development of new techniques based on the generalities and the permissive language of Chapter VI. Acting on some occasions through the Security Council, on others through the Secretary-General, and on still others through General Assembly resolutions, the membership established United Nations commissions, watch-dog committees, supervisory bodies for truces and cease-fires, observation groups, special missions and special representatives of the Secretary-General. On a still larger scale were the United Nations Emergency Force in the Middle East (UNEF), the United Nations Operation in the Congo (ONUC), and the United Nations Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP). For nearly 20 years, this process of "perfecting in the crucible of experience" was at work. The Charter was not changed by so much as a comma, but unquestionably, so far as most member states are concerned, it was interpreted in a very different sense. Inevitably, the states whose special authority was being circumvented by the new interpretation, and against whose wishes the *ad hoc* peace-keeping decisions were taken, were bound to protest, to oppose and to dissociate themselves from the new machinery of collective action. The dispute took on financial form when the majority of members agreed not only to launch a full-scale peace-keeping operation involving the use of military forces but to assess the entire membership for its cost.

Origins of the Financial Dispute

Attempting to overcome the deficiencies of the League, the drafters of the United Nations Charter stipulated in Article 19 that :

A member of the United Nations which is in arrears in the payment of its financial contributions to the Organization shall have no vote in the General Assembly if the amount of its arrears equals or exceeds the amount of the contributions due from it for the preceding two full years.

The article went on to provide that the General Assembly might permit such a member to vote if satisfied that failure to pay was due to conditions beyond

the control of the member. It should be noted that there was no question of taking away a defaulting member's vote in the Security Council or any United Nations body apart from the General Assembly, nor of depriving any country of membership in the United Nations for financial default. The one and only Charter sanction against non-payment of assessed shares was loss of vote in the General Assembly itself. There was some discussion at San Francisco as to whether the right to vote disappeared when simple arithmetic decreed, or whether the penalty had to be imposed by the General Assembly. The majority, including the representative of the Soviet Union, were on record as believing that the penalty was both mandatory and automatic. An ancillary Article defining the functions and powers of the General Assembly (Article 17) stipulated that the Assembly would consider and approve the budget of the Organization and went on: "The expenses of the Organization shall be borne by the members as apportioned by the General Assembly."

With the exception of the United Nations intervention in Korea, which, because of the special circumstances involved, did not engage the financing machinery of the United Nations, the costs of all peace-keeping activities authorized before the Suez crisis were included in the regular budget, with the funds coming from assessments on the member states. These early peace-keeping activities were on a relatively modest scale and involved the use of military personnel only in an observer capacity. With the establishment of UNEF in 1956, the Organization was faced for the first time with the problem of meeting heavy peace-keeping costs. The estimate for the initial years of operation was \$25 million (U.S.); by comparison, the regular budget for all other United Nations activities in 1957 totalled only \$50 million (U.S.). Canada took the lead in arguing that it would be inadequate and unworthy of the United Nations to finance UNEF by appeals for voluntary contributions. In Canada's view, it was essential, in the words of the Secretary-General, to assure "this vital United Nations undertaking of the same degree of certainty of financial support as afforded to other United Nations activities which have as their purpose the maintenance of security and peace". There was widespread disagreement about incorporating the costs directly into the regular budget but general agreement on common assessment through a special account. Financing through common assessment was seen by Canada and others as an all-important symbol of collective sharing in the collective effort for peace.

Canada's view prevailed but support was far from unanimous. Fifty-one nations supported the assessment resolution (by which the costs were assessed separately from the regular budget, although in the same manner and at the same rate), but the Soviet bloc, together with Chile and Ecuador,

voted against, and 19 others abstained. Peace keeping, according to the Soviet Union, was the sole prerogative of the Security Council; the General Assembly's action in establishing the force and assessing the membership to pay for it was, therefore, "illegal" and no costs arising from it could be regarded as a binding charge on any member state. A number of Latin American members questioned the binding character of an assessment to provide funds for an extraordinary expenditure not part of the regular budget. Some Arab states took the position that the victim of aggression should be exempted from assessment; other governments simply pleaded poverty.

For the first time in the history of the United Nations, a number of governments began consistently to withhold payment of an assessed contribution. To attract the maximum number of contributors and to isolate those refusing to pay as a matter of principle, the United States and Britain made substantial voluntary contributions over and above their own assessment to be used to reduce the scale of the developing countries by approximately half. The number of defaulters declined slightly. The creeping indebtedness of the United Nations was a nagging worry, but funds were available to meet current costs and Article 19 was only a small cloud on the horizon.

The financial problem and all its legal and constitutional implications were brought to a head by the Congo crisis in 1960, which resulted in a Security Council decision to send troops to the assistance of the Congolese central government, the formation of ONUC and an eventual bill for the operation of approximately \$10 million a month.

The tenuous agreement which had brought ONUC into being was shattered in a matter of days. The United States and the Soviet Union were soon at odds on every substantive point of the operation's conduct. While the sending of troops to the Congo had indeed been approved by the Security Council, thus removing one traditional Soviet objection, the Soviet Union protested the Secretary-General's vigorous direction of the operation (including his exclusion of Soviet-bloc contingents from the force) as well as the General Assembly's subsequent decision to apportion costs by direct assessment. In Soviet theory, control and financing of peace-keeping operations were as much the prerogative of the Security Council as the initial authorization. The Soviet Union refused to pay its ONUC assessments.

The costs of maintaining the 18,000-man force soon outstripped the ordinary budget of the Organization, and the developing countries pressed with increasing vigour for financial relief. At the same time, Soviet arrears mounted to the point where the application of Article 19 became only a matter of time. The Soviet Union was now joined in its protests by France, which, for reasons of its own, also refused to pay its ONUC assessments.

France had always rejected the notion that the United Nations had any of the attributes of a supranational state. In the French view, only decisions by the Security Council under Chapter VII of the Charter could bind a sovereign state. On all other questions, including Council recommendations under Chapter VI, a sovereign state had to consent to be bound. France had consented to be bound by the General Assembly decision to establish and later to finance UNEF. It was not prepared to accept a similar obligation for ONUC.

In 1960, the majority of the Assembly, led by the United States, Britain, Canada and a number of other governments firmly wedded to the principle of collective responsibility, continued to support and adopt resolutions assessing peace-keeping costs for 1961 against the whole membership, including those who refused to pay. At the same time it was necessary to increase the subsidy to the developing countries, which became more and more restive over the financial burden which peace keeping imposed.

In 1961, the financial position had deteriorated to the point where different procedures had to be followed. No assessment was made; instead the Assembly :

- (1) Set up a working group of 15 (later increased to 21) to study all aspects of the problem of financing peace-keeping operations;
- (2) authorized the Secretary-General to float a United Nations bond issue of up to \$200 million and use the proceeds for purposes normally related to the working capital fund, with amortization to be a charge on the regular budget (the Soviet bloc and France denounced this decision as a transparent method of financing UNEF and ONUC from the regular budget, and asserted that they would not pay their share of the bond amortization cost in the regular budget);
- (3) asked the International Court of Justice for an advisory opinion on whether or not peace-keeping costs were "expenses of the Organization" assessable under Article 17 of the Charter (it was widely recognized that an unstated corollary of an affirmative answer would be that Article 19 would be applicable to defaulters).

During the summer of 1962, the International Court published its advisory opinion that the costs of ONUC and UNEF were expenses of the Organization, and this decision was "accepted" by the General Assembly (by a vote of 76 in favour, 17 against and 8 abstentions) at the autumn session in the face of strong Soviet and French opposition. In riposte, the Soviet Union announced that, in addition to bond-issue amortization charges, it would in future refuse to pay such regular budget items as the United

Nations Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine, the United Nations Military Observation Group in Kashmir, and the costs of maintaining the Korean War Cemetery.

The 1962 Assembly also decided that a special session should be convened in mid-1963 for the sole purpose of dealing with the problem of financing peace-keeping operations. Among the more important decisions of the fourth special session was agreement on five basic principles to govern the financing of future operations, the most important of which was that of collective responsibility for meeting the costs of such operations.

Developments in 1964

The possibility of a showdown over peace-keeping financing moved perceptibly closer to reality on January 1, 1964, the beginning of the United Nations fiscal year. On that date the arrears of the Soviet Union, six of its Eastern European allies and a handful of other states exceeded for the first time "the amount of the contributions due from [each] for the preceding two full years". The total arrears owed to the United Nations now exceeded \$126 million. Ninety per cent of that sum represented unpaid assessments to the UNEF and ONUC accounts of previous years. The arrears of the Soviet bloc amounted to more than \$85 million, of which over \$64 million had been incurred by the Soviet Union alone.

No immediate crisis was precipitated. The Article 19 penalty, and thus the wrangle over the applicability of Article 19, did not arise unless and until the General Assembly was in session. The eighteenth session of the General Assembly had adjourned two weeks before and the nineteenth was not scheduled to begin for some nine months. There was, however, little disposition to dispute the significance of the January 1 deadline and diplomatic activity directed at a pre-Assembly settlement intensified. Believing that agreement over the future would facilitate a settlement of the past, Canada joined with the United States and Britain in urging the Soviet Union and France to agree on radical new procedures to govern the authorization and financing of future peace-keeping operations. The proposal was rejected.

The problems raised by the past — the accumulated arrears and the penalty to be imposed on the significant defaulters — began to loom as large as the longer-term problem of devising equitable and adequate procedures for financing future operations. Faced amongst other factors by the threat that there would be a challenge over the Soviet right to vote when the Assembly next met, the membership agreed to postpone the opening of the nineteenth session from the customary mid-September date until mid-November. Members of the Working Group of 21, meeting mainly in informal sessions,

sought strenuously to find some basis for negotiation. The points of difference between the developed Western countries (apart from France) and the Afro-Asian and Latin American countries were soon seen to be reconcilable by developing practical arrangements on the basis of the principles adopted at the fourth special session. The Soviet Union, however, was obdurate in denying any role to the General Assembly in the peace-keeping field and in refusing to pay "one kopeck" to past operations. France, not yet subject to Article 19 but due to exceed the permissible level of arrears on January 1, 1965, also declined to shift its ground. Official visits by the Secretary-General to Paris and Moscow in July produced no modification in the stand of the two most significant defaulters. A few days prior to U Thant's arrival, the Soviet Union hinted that any attempt to deprive it of its Assembly vote would result in Soviet withdrawal from the United Nations.

Against this background of increasing rigidity, the Working Group met in formal session in September in an attempt to deal with its mandated task of working out cost-sharing methods for future operations and exploring ways and means for bringing about the widest measure of agreement on this question.

The United States proposal for new procedures for future operations — hinging on a Peace-Keeping Financing Committee which would include all the permanent members of the Security Council and a number of other major contributors to peace-keeping costs, as well as a geographically representative sample of the membership as a whole — was again put forward and again rejected. The United States proposal would have required any recommendation on financing a future operation to be supported by a two-thirds majority of the Financing Committee before the General Assembly could apportion expenses among the membership in keeping with the principle of collective responsibility. The Soviet Union attacked the idea as an attempt to create a financial veto outside the Security Council. Such a procedure would, in the Soviet view, be "a gross violation of the United Nations Charter". The Soviet representative again asserted in categorical terms the exclusive — and comprehensive — rights of the Security Council to take peace-keeping decisions :

... the only body authorized to take action in the maintenance or restoration of international peace and security is the Security Council. It is likewise within the purview of the Security Council to adopt decisions in all matters relating to the establishment of United Nations armed forces, the definition of their duties, their composition and strength, the direction of their operations, the structure of their command and duration of their stay in the area of operation, and also in matters of financing. No other United Nations body — not even the General Assembly, much less a committee of the Assembly — has the right under the Charter to decide these matters.

The French representative also found the proposal unsatisfactory and repeated his Government's view that, whatever the machinery employed, no government was bound by obligations arising out of recommendations from the Council or the Assembly unless it specifically agreed with those recommendations and accepted the obligations which flowed from them.

In these circumstances, the non-aligned members of the Working Group were unwilling to join in putting forward a majority plan. They were not prepared to contemplate voting against the Soviet Union and France on an issue which might result in two great powers walking out of the General Assembly and possibly quitting the United Nations as well. The Working Group recessed at the conclusion of its general debate without agreeing on any recommendations for action. Its session was the last concerted effort made in 1964 to find a solution on future arrangements which might bring a settlement of past difficulties in its train.

Meanwhile the Committee on Contributions formally reported to the General Assembly that ten member states were in arrears in excess of the limits stipulated in Article 19. Although the Committee report was limited to stating facts and made no recommendations for Assembly action, it was not unanimous: the representatives of Poland, the Soviet Union, France and India dissented. Under such inauspicious circumstances, the Secretary-General, in consultation with the majority of member states, again postponed the opening of the General Assembly until December 1. The objective was simply to buy time in the hope that last-minute negotiations would bring about an agreed compromise on the payment of arrears which would avert direct confrontation between East and West over Soviet-bloc voting rights.

Nineteenth Session of the General Assembly

The immediate problem confronting the General Assembly on December 1 was the exact interpretation to be placed on Article 19. Canada, with most Western governments, had long maintained that the loss-of-vote penalty was mandatory once the permissible level of arrears had been exceeded, and that the Article was relevant to arrears owed to the peace-keeping accounts as well as arrears owed to the regular budget. France, because it regarded the peace-keeping assessments as optional, and the Soviet Union, because it regarded them as illegal, rejected the Articles' relevance to peace-keeping arrears. The developing countries, split amongst themselves on interpretation, were reluctant to take sides in what they increasingly regarded as a straight cold-war clash between East and

West. At the last minute, the voting issue was side-stepped by unanimous agreement to proceed by a "no-objection" procedure; issues requiring a vote would not be dealt with in the first weeks of the session, while negotiations on the settlement of the arrears dispute went on in the corridors. On this basis, itself accepted "without objection", the Assembly elected a President and turned to general debate.

The corridor negotiations, which now turned exclusively to resolving the problem of the past, concentrated on proposals to establish a voluntary fund to rescue the United Nations from the financial problems imposed by its operating deficit of close to \$90 million. There were many variants to the proposal. In essence, they all envisaged voluntary contributions from defaulters and paid-up members alike to rid the United Nations of its financial incubus and to create an appropriate climate which would permit voting to resume, allow substantive Assembly work to get under way and pave the way for eventual negotiations on the financing of future operations. The United States was prepared to agree to the voluntary fund and to contribute to it, provided contributions from defaulters were made before any return to normal business and were sufficiently large to satisfy the minimum requirements of Article 19. The Soviet Union was also prepared to agree and to contribute, but insisted that the Assembly must return to normal business (voting) before the fund was established and that the level of individual contributions must be left to the discretion of the contributor. In short, the United States was determined to uphold Article 19 while the Soviet Union was equally determined to breach it. On this essential point agreement foundered.

By February 1965, it had become apparent that no settlement would be reached on the problems of the past until broad agreement had been secured on guidelines to govern future peace-keeping arrangements. This in turn would require long and arduous negotiations. The General Assembly had, however, long since exhausted the possibilities for action without voting. A lengthy recess thus became inevitable. Accordingly, the members agreed to approve the necessary financial and administrative measures to keep the Organization operating until the Assembly met again in September (including a request that member states make advance payments to the United Nations of not less than 80 per cent of their assessed contribution for 1964), took urgent decisions on which there was no disagreement, and established a Special Committee on Peace-keeping Operations "to review the whole question of peace-keeping operations in all their aspects". A last-minute effort by Albania to precipitate the much-deferred confrontation by rejecting these proposals and returning immediately to "normal business" (including

voting) was defeated by a vote of two in favour (Albania, Mauritania), 97 against (including Canada, the United States, Britain and the Soviet Union), with 14 abstentions.

It was not the least of the ironies of the nineteenth session that the only formal vote taken in two-and-a-half months was used to uphold the decision not to vote. The vast majority of the membership, divided on many points of substance about the financing of past, present and future peace-keeping operations, were nonetheless agreed that there was more to be lost than gained by pushing these issues to a decisive confrontation while the possibility of a negotiated settlement still existed.

Canadian Position

Canada had played a leading role not only in establishing UNEF but in securing a basis for its financing which reflected the belief that the peace-keeping endeavours of the United Nations were in every sense the collective responsibility of its members. From that date onward, Canada had been heavily involved in efforts to place peace-keeping financing on an equitable collective basis, and to prepare the ground for agreed long-term arrangements to replace the less-than-satisfactory *ad hoc* methods which were annually resorted to in order to keep first UNEF, then ONUC and finally UNFICYP in being. At Canadian urging, the right of the General Assembly to levy assessments for UNEF and ONUC had been referred to the International Court of Justice for an advisory opinion and that right upheld. In the fourth special session of the Assembly (1963), Canada had been active in drafting the guidelines for future financial arrangements and in working out new formulae for financing UNEF and ONUC on a collective basis.

In all these negotiations, the constant Canadian objective was to ensure that the United Nations would be equipped with sufficient funds to enable it to fulfil effectively its Charter responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security. To secure this, Canada pressed for the development and general acceptance of long-term financing arrangements, including a special scale of assessments for peace keeping that would be based on the principles of collective responsibility and relative capacity to pay. Collective responsibility was not, to Canada, an end in itself; rather, it seemed the most effective way of ensuring that the funds would be made available when the membership agreed that United Nations action had to be taken. As the Secretary of State for External Affairs was to point out at the nineteenth session:

Canada has always supported the view that the responsibility for maintaining peace and security is one which is shared by all member states of the United Nations. We regard it as a logical consequence of that view that the cost of peace keeping must also be shared equitably by all, with due regard to their relative capacity to contribute. We believe this principle of shared responsibility to be inherent in the Charter, and we find ourselves confirmed in that belief by the advisory opinion of the International Court of Justice.

It is worth noting that, despite the formal adherence of the majority of member states to the principle of collective responsibility, that principle had never, in practice, been fully implemented or consistently adhered to in large-scale operations involving the use of military forces. Twenty-four states had never contributed to UNEF; 33 had defaulted on all ONUC payments. The abated assessments offered to developing countries for both operations in recognition of their limited capacity to pay had been compensated for by voluntary contributions from developed countries. Some peace-keeping operations (e.g. UNTEA in West Irian and UNYOM in the Yemen) had been financed by the parties directly concerned. The bulk of the costs in Korea had been born by the nations providing contingents.

In March 1964, the Security Council established the United Nations Force in Cyprus on the basis of voluntary contributions in troops, cash or both. This decision, which was questioned by Canada as a significant departure from the collective principle, lent new urgency to Canadian efforts to secure agreement on long-term future arrangements which would reflect both collective responsibility and the limited capacity of many to pay.

At the General Assembly, the Secretary of State for External Affairs, the Honourable Paul Martin, made clear Canada's concern at the deteriorating situation:

The crisis we face is not merely a financial crisis. Nor is it limited to constitutional issues. It is a crisis which touches upon our whole conception of the United Nations as the custodian of international peace and security. It is a crisis on the outcome of which hinge the hopes and aspirations of the vast majority of its members for a peaceful and securely-ordered world.

It would be tragic indeed if, in a future crisis, the United Nations were debarred for lack of funds from intervening in the cause of peace.

Mr. Martin went on to emphasize that any solution to the existing dilemma would require concessions on all sides:

It is incumbent on each and every one of us to reflect on the implications of our present course and to explore all avenues of reaching an accommodation to which we can all subscribe

Such an accommodation must be found The search for agreement must be initiated at once and pursued vigorously. The Canadian objective in these discussions will be to achieve an accommodation, not a capitulation It is not enough for the

United Nations to rely on the goodwill of the few. It must be able to count on the response and the responsibility of the whole membership.

To achieve these objectives, Canada agreed that further work in the General Assembly would have to be deferred while the whole complex of issues arising out of the peace-keeping responsibilities of the United Nations were referred to a specialized committee for negotiation. Recognition of Canada's role in earlier efforts to resolve the problems came in its appointment to the new Special Committee on Peace-keeping Operations.

Epilogue

The nineteenth session recessed on February 18, 1965, without having breached or upheld Article 19. To that extent, there had been no change since the Assembly opened its doors on December 1, 1964. A very real change in the situation had, however, occurred in that most governments recognized that the arrears issue was only one part of a much wider and more significant problem, that the strictly financial issue had far-reaching political and constitutional implications, and that the past could not be resolved in isolation from the future. Arrears to the peace-keeping accounts were now seen to be the symptom rather than the disease.

Resolution 2006 (XIX) had left to the President of the General Assembly the task of chairing the Special Committee on Peace-keeping Operations and selecting its members. On February 27, Mr. Quaison-Sackey announced that the 33-member Committee would consist of: Afghanistan, Algeria, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Brazil, Britain, Canada, Czechoslovakia, El Salvador, Ethiopia, France, Hungary, India, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Mauritania, Mexico, the Netherlands, Nigeria, Pakistan, Poland, Roumania, Sierra Leone, Spain, Sweden, Thailand, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Arab Republic, the United States of America, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia. The Special Committee, which was to take into account prior consultations undertaken by the Secretary-General and its Chairman with individual members of the Organization, was to issue a report to the General Assembly by June 15 at the latest. The General Assembly itself was scheduled to resume by September 1. The Special Committee met for the first time on March 26, 1965, to chart its course.

Canada's approach to the task ahead was summarized by the Secretary of State for External Affairs, speaking in Vancouver on February 20:

As far as Canada is concerned, our objectives in the impending negotiations are simple and clear-cut. They are :

First, to restore the United Nations to solvency and to prevent the possibility of a recurrence of the present crisis;

Second, to preserve the capacity of the United Nations to play its rightful part in the maintenance of international peace and security;

Third, to accomplish these objectives on the basis of the broadest possible consensus, which alone will ensure that the solutions devised with regard to peace keeping are effective and durable and that the United Nations is once more enabled to press forward with other urgent business.

Other Items

Although much hampered in its work by being unable to take votes, the nineteenth session did deal with a few matters. It elected Alex Quaison-Sackey of Ghana as its President, admitted Malawi, Malta and Zambia as new members, and filled the four vacancies on the Security Council¹ and the six vacancies on the Economic and Social Council². It extended for a further year the mandate of the United Nations Relief and Works Agencies for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA)³ and approved a resolution concerning the construction in New York of a new United Nations School. It also filled vacancies on the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (ACABQ), the Committee on Contributions, the Board of Auditors, the Investments Committee and the United Nations Administrative Tribunal.

In an important step, the Assembly approved a comprehensive resolution bringing into existence the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) as an organ of the General Assembly⁴. The Conference had first met in Geneva from March to June 1964 and the resolution, in effect, provides new institutional machinery to carry forward the work initiated there by establishing UNCTAD on a continuing basis and by setting up a United Nations Trade and Development Board. The Assembly appointed Mr. Raoul Prebisch as Secretary-General of UNCTAD.

Finally, the Assembly took note that it had received reports on certain items on its agenda, including: the implementation of the declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples; general and complete disarmament; the convening of a conference on the prohibition of nuclear weapons; the need for suspension of nuclear tests; the effects of atomic radiation; international co-operation in the peaceful uses of outer space; and the questions of Korea, Oman and *apartheid* in South Africa. It was also agreed that United Nations bodies with continuing responsibilities

1 See Page 26

2 See Page 36

3 See Page 63

4 See Page 5

should proceed with their work in 1965 and that the unfinished business of the Assembly would be dealt with either when the nineteenth session met again to consider the report of the Special Committee on Peace-Keeping Operations or during the twentieth session, scheduled to convene in September 1965.

Security Council

The Security Council has a primary responsibility in the United Nations for the maintenance of international peace and security; its functions, therefore, are divided mainly between the pacific settlement of disputes and action with respect to threats to the peace, breaches of the peace and acts of aggression. Its decisions are made by an affirmative vote of any seven of its present total of 15 members, including the permanent five or the five permanent members six of the Council, though decisions on procedural matters require only a majority of any seven members. As a matter of fact, it is a duty to refer to the Council, it is required to obtain from voting with respect to matters for the pacific settlement of the dispute.

In 1964, the Security Council was composed of Britain, France, the Soviet Union and the United States as permanent members and Bolivia, Brazil, Czechoslovakia, Ivory Coast, Morocco and Norway as non-permanent members. In December 1964, the General Assembly named the Netherlands and Uruguay to succeed Norway and Brazil for the normal two-year period, and the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand for the two-year period to succeed Czechoslovakia for 1965, and agreed that the remaining vacancy should be filled Jordan from 1965 and that in 1966, Jordan should be replaced by a full two-year term. In the General Assembly of 1965 concerning the Council, the 15 members are divided into 5 by the regular number of member states.

The Security Council met on January 10, 1964, to consider a complaint by Panama that the United States had committed "repeated threats and acts of aggression" against its territory. In the discussion, the Representative of Panama claimed that the situation had reached a critical point on

III

THE COUNCILS, THE COURT AND THE SECRETARIAT

Security Council

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In 1964, the Security Council was composed of Britain, China, France, the Soviet Union and the United States as permanent members and Bolivia, Brazil, Czechoslovakia, Ivory Coast, Morocco and Norway as non-permanent members. In December 1964, the General Assembly named the Netherlands and Uruguay to succeed Norway and Brazil for the normal two-year period, confirmed the split-term arrangement agreed on in 1963, in which Malaysia would succeed Czechoslovakia for 1965, and agreed that the remaining vacancy should be split, Jordan filling it in 1965 and Mali in 1966. Each, however, will receive a full two-year term if the Charter amendments of 1963 enlarging the Council to 15 members are ratified in 1965 by the requisite number of member states.

Panama—United States

The Security Council met on January 10, 1964, to consider a complaint by Panama that the United States had committed "repeated threats and acts of aggression" against its territory. In the discussion, the Representative of Panama claimed that the situation had reached a critical point on

January 9, when the military forces garrisoned in the Canal Zone had opened fire on Panamanian nationals demonstrating over the question of the flying of the Panamanian flag in the Zone. The United States Representative argued that action had been necessary to protect United States property and citizens from assaults by disorderly crowds. The Council adopted a proposal appealing to both governments to restore order; it had earlier been informed that the presidents of the two countries had already conferred over the incident and that the Inter-American Peace Committee of the Organization of American States would go to Panama and recommend measures for a settlement of the dispute.

Kashmir

At the request of Pakistan, the Security Council, on three occasions between February and May, discussed the dispute between India and Pakistan over disposition of the State of Jammu and Kashmir. The Representative of Pakistan charged that certain Indian measures designed to modify the governmental structure of the state not only marked a further step toward the integration of Kashmir into the Indian Union but also threatened to destroy the special status granted to it by the Security Council Commission and by the United Nations Commission for India and Pakistan in 1948 and 1949. In reply, the Indian Representative claimed that these charges were unjustified and that the measures his Government had taken were entirely within India's domestic jurisdiction. The discussions ended on May 18 without a consensus being reached, though all members agreed that the two countries should continue to seek a peaceful solution to the problem.

The Kashmir question was again brought to the Council's attention in July and August by communications from both India and Pakistan pointing to the spread of cease-fire violations. In December, further communications were received from both sides concerning a new Indian law which extended to Jammu and Kashmir the "emergency government" provisions of the Constitution. None of these communications required action by the Council.

In line with its policy of friendship with both India and Pakistan, and of encouraging the solution of international disputes through the maintenance of peace in areas of friction, Canada, at the request of the Secretary-General, agreed during the year to increase from seven to ten its membership in the United Nations Military Observer Group for India and Pakistan. It also provided a "Caribou" aircraft with full crew to UNMOGIP to facilitate its operations.

Cyprus

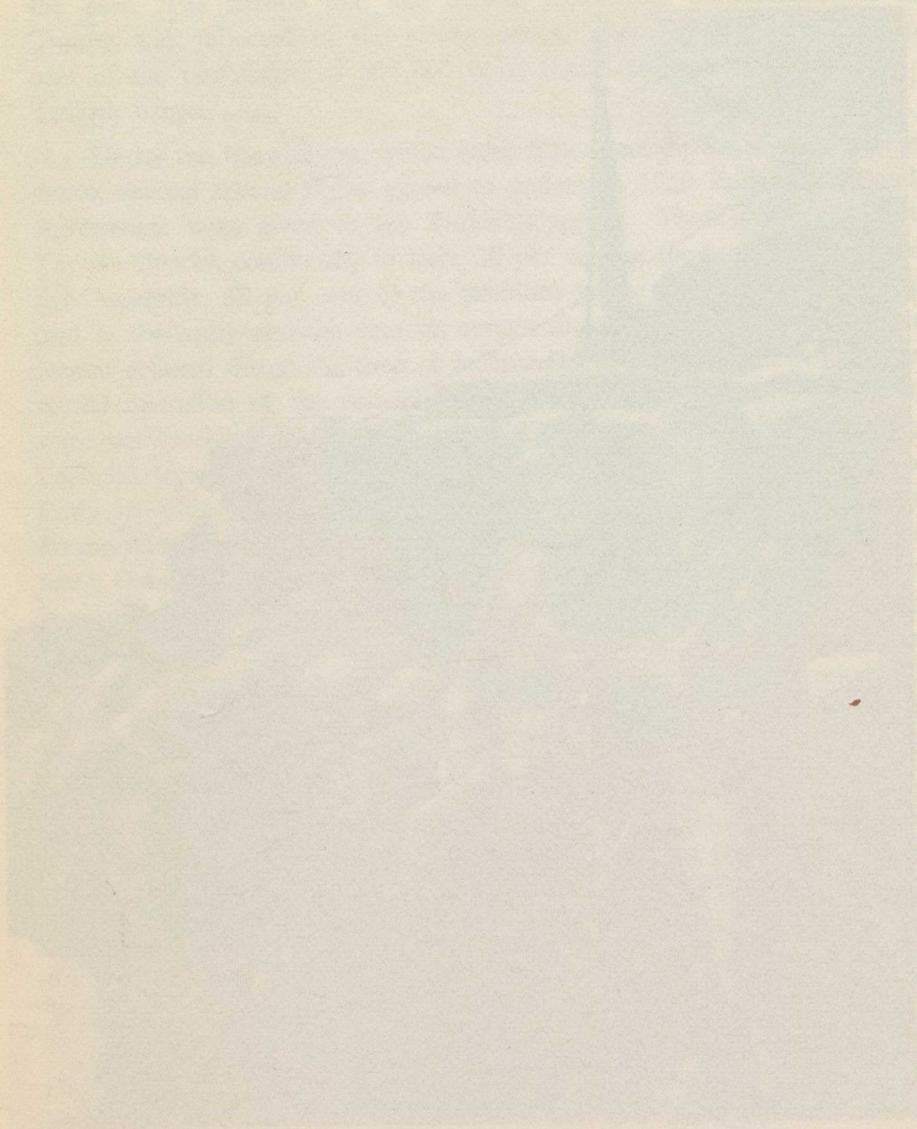
When the Republic of Cyprus became an independent state on August 16, 1960, it carried with it into its new role an unfortunate legacy from the past. The tension that had existed historically between Greece and Turkey was reflected in the young nation where approximately 80 per cent of the population of 600,000 is of Greek origin and 18 per cent of Turkish origin.

Under the constitution, which came into effect on the date of independence, several special rights agreed to under the 1959 Zurich and London Agreements were given to the Turkish-Cypriots. These provided for the Turkish-Cypriot community to have 30 per cent of the seats in the Legislative Assembly, 30 per cent of the positions in the civil service and 40 per cent in the army and the veto on certain important legislation and governmental actions. From the time of independence, numerous difficulties arose in the operation of the constitution. The Turkish-Cypriots, believing they were not receiving their constitutional rights, employed their veto to block financial legislation which the Greek-Cypriot majority deemed necessary. Early in 1963, President Makarios attempted to find a way around the arrangements provided under the constitution for the establishment of separate Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot communal municipalities in the large towns, but the proposals he put forward on this question were declared unconstitutional. In November 1963, he outlined 13 proposed amendments to the constitution, which were designed to make it more workable but would also have removed many of the Turkish-Cypriot entrenched rights. Communal tension, which had been building up for some time, came to a head in the outbreaks of violence which began on December 21, 1963. To prevent the situation from deteriorating further, the Government of Cyprus invited the British Government to use its forces on the island to try to keep the peace. The British acceded to this request but, as the task became increasingly difficult, the British Government held a conference in London with the parties concerned to try to reach an agreement. This attempt, however, was unsuccessful.

The Security Council was first seized of the question of Cyprus on December 26, 1963, when the Government of Cyprus complained of Turkish activity. However, no agreed solution was reached and the situation continued to deteriorate. On February 15, 1964, the Government of Cyprus requested an emergency meeting of the Security Council to consider what it alleged to be the increasing threat to Cyprus from military preparations on the Turkish coast and from the danger of invasion. On the same day, Britain



Second Lieutenant Charles Stamp of the First Battalion, Canadian Guards (left), receives from Guardsman Walter Dominie the report of a foot patrol in the Kyrenia Mountains of Cyprus. Both men are members of the Canadian contingent with the United Nations Force in Cyprus.



asked for an early Council meeting on the grounds of the inability of the Government of Cyprus to agree to an international peace-keeping force proposed by Britain and the serious deterioration of the security situation on the island, especially in Limassol.

The Security Council held ten meetings between February 18 and March 4.¹ On the latter date, the Council unanimously adopted a resolution recommending the creation, with the consent of the Government of Cyprus, of a United Nations Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP). The Force would be stationed on the island for three months and its size and composition would be established by the Secretary-General in consultation with the Governments of Cyprus, Greece, Turkey and Britain. The terms of reference for UNFICYP required it to use its best efforts to prevent the recurrence of fighting and to contribute, as necessary, to the maintenance and restoration of law and order and a return to normal conditions. Lieutenant-General P. S. Gyani of India, the first commander of the Force, was succeeded by General K. S. Thimayya, also of India, at the end of June. The resolution also recommended the designation, in agreement with the Governments of Cyprus, Greece, Turkey and Britain, of a Mediator, who was to use his best endeavours with the representatives of the two communities and the four governments to promote a peaceful solution and an agreed settlement of the problem confronting Cyprus. The first Mediator was Mr. Sakari Tuomioja of Finland but, following his death, he was succeeded on September 16 by Mr. Galo Plaza of Ecuador.

Early in March, the Secretary-General held discussions with a number of member states on the possibility of forming a peace-keeping Force. In its discussions with the United Nations authorities, the Canadian Government outlined a number of conditions that would have to be met before its troops could participate in a Cyprus operation. These were that the Force had to have an association with the United Nations, that it had to be multi-national, that it should be operating with the knowledge and approval of the Government of Cyprus, and that satisfactory arrangements should be made to finance it.

On March 13, 1964, the Canadian Government requested the House of Commons to approve the participation of Canadian troops in the Force. In the debate on the motion, the Prime Minister said :

I think all of us are deeply concerned about the inherent danger of sharp conflict developing out of this Cyprus situation between the neighbouring countries who are,

¹ Throughout 1964, the Security Council devoted 27 meetings to the situation in Cyprus and relations between Greece and Turkey, including two meetings in September to discuss Greek allegations of the mistreatment of Greek nationals in Turkey and Turkish counter-charges of "provocative military action" by Greece against Turkey.

with Canada, members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. In addition to doing anything we can as a member of the United Nations to prevent a conflict between two members of the Atlantic coalition, we also wish to play our part in rendering whatever assistance we can to restore peace and order to Cyprus, which is a fellow member of the Commonwealth of Nations. There is every humanitarian reason . . . for doing what we can to halt violence and bloodshed on that beautiful and once happy island. We in Canada have always regarded participation in United Nations peace-keeping operations as a fundamental obligation of United Nations membership, as our service in Korea, Congo, the Middle East, Kashmir and Indochina testifies.

Parliament approved the motion unanimously and, such was the state of readiness of the Canadian armed forces, which had designated a standby battalion to be available for United Nations service, that an advance party of the Canadian contingent was able to leave for Cyprus by aircraft of the Royal Canadian Air Force the same day. The remainder of the contingent was airlifted to Cyprus during the following week, and their heavy equipment followed shortly after aboard HMCS "Bonaventure". At the same time, the Government opened a resident diplomatic mission in Cyprus to keep it informed of all aspects of the situation there.

The Canadian contingent sent in March was composed of the First Battalion of the Royal 22nd Regiment and of a reconnaissance squadron of the Royal Canadian Dragoons. These units served in Cyprus until September, when the contingent was rotated and they were replaced by the First Battalion of the Canadian Guards and a reconnaissance squadron of the Lord Strathcona Horse (Royal Canadians). The RCAF participated by operating a weekly flight between Trenton and Nicosia and provided transportation for the rotation of the Canadian contingent in September.

On December 4, 1964, Canada's contingent totalled 1,146 officers and men and was the largest contribution to the 6,100-man Force. Ireland supplied 1,060 troops, Britain 1,049, Denmark 996, Finland 962, Sweden 844, and Austria 48. In addition, there were 174 civilian police — 40 each from Australia, Denmark and Sweden, 34 from Austria, and 20 from New Zealand. The Canadian contingent was deployed along the strategic Kyrenia Road, linking Nicosia with Kyrenia on the north coast, with the task of operating a convoy system on that road. It was also responsible for the important Kyrenia Pass and the St. Hilarion areas. Until the beginning of December it patrolled the "green line", which divides the Greek-Cypriot from the Turkish-Cypriot sectors of Nicosia, but in December this responsibility was given to other contingents and the Canadian contingent assumed the responsibility for the Western sector of the Nicosia zone. In addition, Canada provided the commander and most of the headquarters staff of the Nicosia zone and contributed a considerable number of personnel to the UN Force headquarters in the capital city.

The three-month mandate of UNFICYP was renewed by the Security Council in June, September and December. On each occasion, the Secretary-General requested contributing governments to participate until the end of the current period established by the Security Council. The Canadian Government considered each request as it was received and recommitted Canada's contribution for three months at a time. Throughout the year, Parliament showed a continuing interest in the Force and in Canadian participation in it.

The Security Council resolutions which established and continued the Force provided that it should be financed by voluntary contributions. Such contributions were made by some 35 members of the United Nations. Some countries, such as Britain, Ireland and Canada, agreed to provide contingents and to pay themselves the costs of maintaining these contingents in Cyprus. The costs of maintaining the other contingents were met by the voluntary contributions made to the Secretary-General's Special Account for UNFICYP. These contributions were sufficient to enable the Secretary-General to meet until the end of the year those costs of the Force for which the United Nations had assumed responsibility. Canada paid all the costs of maintaining its contingent in Cyprus, including those arising from the positioning of the Canadian contingent there and its rotation in September. Canada decided to pay its own way because it believed that the operation was necessary to prevent an already serious international situation from deteriorating further and because, in view of the financial crisis faced by the United Nations, the Force could not have been financed in any other way. Canada formally advised the United Nations, however, that it was doing this without prejudice to its stated position that the costs of peace-keeping operations should be met by recognizing the principle of collective responsibility of all United Nations members.

For the first six months of UNFICYP's operation, its major effort was focused on the task of bringing inter-communal hostilities to an end, for it was clear that, unless this were done, no progress could be made towards a solution of the Cyprus problem. By the end of 1964, the United Nations' efforts had brought about a considerable improvement in restoring conditions of relative tranquillity to the island. No agreement had been reached, however, on the basic political issues which divided the parties and, in the absence of substantial progress towards such an agreement, it appeared likely that UNFICYP, or some other form of United Nations presence, would continue to be required in Cyprus.

Britain-Yemen

At the end of March, Britain informed the Security Council that Yemen had violated the air space of the Federation of South Arabia and drew special attention to a violation on March 27 as a result of which British aircraft had been forced to deliver a counter-attack the following day on a Yemeni fort. Yemen replied by asking the Security Council to meet to consider Britain's "continuous acts of aggression against peaceful Yemeni citizens" and in the discussion that followed claimed that the air attack was part of a British plan aimed at overthrowing the Yemen Arab Republic. The British Representative reminded the Council of his Government's proposal in 1963 to establish a demilitarized zone in the area concerned and of its continuing willingness to consider solutions to relieve the tension in the area. The Council unanimously adopted a resolution which, amongst other points, deplored the British action of March 28 and all attacks and incidents which occurred in the area and requested the Secretary-General to try to settle the outstanding issues.

Cambodia-United States and Republic of Vietnam

In May and June, the Security Council considered Cambodia's complaint that the United States and the Republic of Vietnam had violated its borders and committed "repeated acts of aggression" against its territory and population. In the debate, a representative of the Republic of Vietnam said that the three violations under discussion were unintentional, argued that they largely arose from poor boundary demarcation and the use of Cambodian territory by Viet Cong rebels, but added that his Government had offered to indemnify the victims of two of the incidents. The United States Representative said that his Government had already apologized to Cambodia for one of the two incidents in which it alleged that United States personnel had taken part, but he denied involvement in the second. The Cambodian Representative claimed that all violations were deliberate and denied that the Viet Cong had infiltrated Cambodian territory. On June 3, the Security Council adopted a resolution requesting that compensation be offered to the Cambodian Government and ordering the dispatch of a small mission to the area concerned to consider such measures as would prevent the recurrence of similar incidents. Subsequently, Cambodia rejected the mission's report on the grounds that it had exceeded its terms of reference and requested that no further action be taken on its original complaint.

Apartheid

There was a growing demand during 1964 that action be taken by the United Nations to force the South African Government to change its *apartheid* policy and in June the Security Council met to consider the report of the Group of Experts (Myrdal Committee) which it had set up the previous year, and to debate the trial and imprisonment of South African nationalist leaders. The Group's report recommended that the Security Council invite the South African Government to call a national convention representative of its whole population to draw up a new constitution guaranteeing human rights and providing for a democratic system of government and that, if it did not give a satisfactory reply, the Council should decide to apply economic sanctions as the only peaceful means left to it. To this end, the Group recommended a practical and technical study of the logistics of sanctions by experts in the economic and strategic fields.

After debating the question, the Council adopted two resolutions, the first of which called on the South African Government to end the Rivonia trial and to grant amnesty to all those sentenced to death or imprisonment for their opposition to *apartheid*, while the second endorsed the proposal for a national convention in South Africa. Most important, however, the resolutions established an 11-member Committee of Experts representing each member of the Security Council at that time to study the "feasibility, effectiveness and implications" of economic sanctions.

In October, the Expert Committee sent to each member state a questionnaire concerning the implications of any measures, such as sanctions, that the Security Council might want to take. In its reply Canada pointed out, in part, that at the United Nations "the Canadian Delegation has repeatedly expressed the Canadian Government's strongest disapproval of the *apartheid* policies of the South African Government and its view that the Government of the Republic should alter its racial policies to conform to the principles of the United Nations Charter, and that these views have been brought to the attention of the South African Government... on numerous occasions..." The reply also pointed out that the Canadian Government gives no military or economic assistance to South Africa and that, in keeping with the Security Council's resolution of August 1963, it had not permitted the sale of military equipment to South Africa.

United States-North Vietnam

On August 4, 1964, the United States requested a meeting of the Security Council to consider "the serious situation created" by the attacks of North

Vietnamese torpedo boats on United States naval vessels in international waters in the Gulf of Tonkin over the previous two days. In the discussion, the United States Representative stated that, as a result of this action, the United States was forced to order aerial strikes against North Vietnamese torpedo boats and their support facilities in North Vietnam. The Soviet Union responded by condemning the presence of United States ships in the Gulf of Tonkin and described the aerial strikes as acts of aggression. The Council did not vote on the substance of the complaint, but agreed to ask North Vietnam to comment on it. The Republic of Vietnam was also invited to submit its views. In its reply, North Vietnam rejected the United States complaint, argued that, in any case, the Security Council had no right to deal with it and claimed that only the Co-Chairmen (Britain and the Soviet Union) and the countries which participated in the 1954 Geneva Conference had the competence to examine it.

Malaysia-Indonesia

On September 9, the Council considered Malaysia's complaint that Indonesia had committed "blatant and inexcusable aggression" in landing paratroopers in South Malaya on September 2. The Malaysian Representative, after providing the details of what had happened, spoke of Indonesia's hostility toward the Federation of Malaysia despite its initial agreement to its formation and pointed to various hostile acts on Indonesia's part towards Malaysia. In reply, the Indonesian Representative charged Malaysia with a number of incursions into Indonesian territory and, while tacitly admitting that Indonesians had entered Malaysian territory on a number of occasions, did not view these activities as "aggression", but as part of the struggle for freedom against "neo-colonialism". A resolution was put forth which, while deploring the incident of September 2, requested both sides to avoid similar recurrences, to resume the talks that they had held in Tokyo in June and to keep the Council informed concerning the development of the situation. The resolution was supported by nine members but vetoed by the Soviet Union.

Syria-Israel

At the request of both Syria and Israel, the Council met on November 16 to consider a serious border incident of November 13, 1964, near the Israeli Kibbutz of Dan close to the Syrian border, in which Syrians fired on an Israeli military patrol travelling on a road whose location in relation to the Armistice Demarcation Line is in dispute. This was followed by exchanges

of artillery and tank fire and attacks by Israeli aircraft on ground targets before the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) was able to bring about a cease-fire. The report by UNTSO, to which Canada is a major contributor, indicated that both sides had some responsibility for the gravity of the incident and made various recommendations to prevent its recurrence, including the completion of previous survey work on the position of the road in dispute. A Moroccan resolution strongly condemning the Israeli air action failed to obtain approval because eight members abstained, while a British and United States resolution deploring the incident and endorsing the recommendations made by UNTSO was vetoed by the Soviet Union.

Congo

After the withdrawal of the United Nations Operation in the Congo, Congolese rebels extended their control over a large section of the north-east part of the country, capturing, in the process, Stanleyville and Paulis. Concerned about the fate of 2,000 Europeans held hostage in rebel hands, Belgium and the United States, with the prior approval of the Congolese Government, staged a military operation to save the hostages at the end of November 1964. Belgian paratroops were dropped by United States aircraft in Stanleyville on November 24 and in Paulis on November 26. They quickly gained control of the two cities, and the released hostage, including 24 Canadians, were flown to Leopoldville. Unfortunately, a number of hostages, including two Canadians, were killed by the rebel troops just before the arrival of the paratroops.

The intervention received much criticism, and 22 countries, 18 of them African, requested the Security Council to discuss the question. At the same time, the Government of Congo asked the Council to discuss the interference in its internal affairs by the United Arab Republic, Algeria, the Sudan, the Soviet Union and Communist China. Debate on these two issues, at times very bitter, took place in the Council during December. A number of African countries accused Belgium and the United States of intervening to save the lives of their own nationals without any regard for the lives of the innocent Congolese involved. They also expressed the view that the operation had been so timed as to ensure the capture of the city by forces of the Central Government who arrived a few hours after the paratroops landed. The Representatives of Britain and the United States defended the intervention, which they emphasized had been undertaken only for humanitarian purposes. The Council approved a moderate resolution which, among other things, requested all states to refrain from interfering or intervening

in the Congo's internal affairs, appealed for a cease-fire withdrawal of the mercenaries from the Congo, and encouraged the Organization of African Unity in its efforts to assist the Congo in achieving national unity.

The Economic and Social Council

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and its subsidiary bodies are the principal groups through which the United Nations endeavours to promote higher standards of living and conditions of economic and social progress. The Council is at present composed of 18 members elected by the General Assembly who serve for staggered terms of three years, one-third of the seats on the Council being filled by elections each year. Its membership will, however, be increased to 27 should the requisite number of member states ratify a 1963 General Assembly resolution amending the Charter to enlarge the Council (Canada ratified it in September 1964). In 1964 Algeria, Chile, Ecuador, France, Iraq and Luxembourg began their current terms while, at the nineteenth session, Canada was elected to the Council with Pakistan, Roumania, Gabon, Peru and the United States. Their terms begin in 1965.

The Economic and Social Council reports annually on its work to the General Assembly. Reporting to the Economic and Social Council are seven Functional Commissions and one Sub-Commission (Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities). These Commissions are responsible for work programmes in specific fields and include the Population Commission, the Commission on the Status of Women, the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, the Commission on International Commodity Trade, the Statistical Commission, the Social Commission and the Commission on Human Rights.

As well as initiating programmes, the Council co-ordinates the economic and social and relief programmes carried out by the subsidiary bodies of the United Nations and by related agencies. The Technical Assistance Committee (TAC), a standing committee of the Council, has general responsibility in the field of technical assistance. The United Nations Special Fund, which provides assistance for relatively large projects beyond the scope of United Nations programmes of technical co-operation (EPTA and the regular programmes), also reports to ECOSOC. In addition, four Regional Economic Commissions provide forums for exchange of information and co-operative endeavours in matters of regional concern. ECOSOC receives yearly

reports from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA), and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

Thirty-Seventh Session of the Economic and Social Council

The Economic and Social Council held its thirty-seventh session in Geneva from July 13 to August 15, 1964. Canada, while not a member of the Council in 1964, was represented by observers at the sessional meetings. Because of the General Assembly's decision to enlarge the Council and to distribute its seats more equitably, it was decided, as an interim measure, to appoint 27 members to the main committees of the thirty-seventh session instead of 18 and, of the nine additional members, eight were from the developing countries.

The thirty-seventh session was, in a sense, an interim meeting of the Council, held before the end of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) but before the recommendations of that conference were considered by the General Assembly. The majority of the members of the Council were determined to see that it did not take any steps which contradicted or called into question any decision of UNCTAD. Consequently, the statement of the Secretary-General of the United Nations to the Council which set forth a number of suggestions for a dynamic new role for ECOSOC did not receive an enthusiastic reception from the developing countries represented on it. While the Council did not review its procedures at this session, as suggested by the Secretary-General, it did adopt two resolutions which should expedite its work in the future with regard to co-ordination between the Council members and the Specialized Agencies, and to procedures which would make available to the Council the budgetary implications of the United Nations Work Programme. The aim of these resolutions was to enable the Council to gain a better perspective of the activities as a whole of the United Nations in fields of interest to the Council.

As well as the review of the Final Act and Report of the UNCTAD, the Council reviewed briefly the reports of the Specialized Agencies, the World Food Programme, UNICEF and the Regional Economic Commissions and questioned their directors about the activities of their organizations. These reports, with the annual reports of the Governing Council of the Special Fund and the Technical Assistance Board (TAB), were noted by the Council after brief discussions. A recommendation of the TAB about housing for experts was accepted and the United Nations programme of technical assistance was approved with the annual report.

On the question of the development of natural resources, the Council considered the third biennial report of the United Nations Water Resources Development Centre, approved a new work programme for it, and noted the progress being made in the desalination of water and the greater possibilities that now exist for harnessing non-conventional sources of energy : solar, winds, and geothermal.

The Council also passed resolutions concerning emergency aid to Costa Rica, town twinning, the World Campaign for Universal Literacy, and the United Nations Disaster Fund. In the field of social and human rights affairs, the Council discussed the report of the Commission on Human Rights, the report of the Committee on Housing, Building and Planning and the question of ratification by governments of the 1956 Convention on Slavery.

Functional Commissions

Of the seven Functional Commissions of ECOSOC, only the Human Rights Commission and the Commission on Narcotic Drugs met in 1964. Canada is a member of both.

Human Rights Commission

At its twentieth session in New York in February and March, the United Nations Commission on Human Rights devoted much of its time to drafting, at the request of the General Assembly, a Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination. It is designed to give the binding force of an international agreement to a Declaration on this subject adopted by the General Assembly in 1963. A 15-member working group, including Canada, began the drafting of a Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Religious Intolerance and submitted to the Commission six draft articles for inclusion in it. In addition to these two items, the Commission appointed a committee to review the Secretary-General's triennial report on developments and achievements in human rights and another committee to recommend a programme of measures and activities to mark the International Year for Human Rights to be held in 1968.

Commission on Narcotic Drugs

The Commission on Narcotic Drugs, to which Canada was elected in 1964 for a further three-year term, represents the major drug-producing countries of the world and those countries where drug addiction and traffic in drugs are serious social problems. Its nineteenth session, held in Geneva in May 1964, studied progress over the preceding year in traffic control,

surveyed the changing trends in traffic in drugs and broadened the technical-assistance programme.

Canada has been a leading participant in the field of international co-operation in narcotic-drug control, and is a signatory to all international treaties on the problem. The Canadian representative at the 1961 conference was chairman of the drafting committee that produced the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs designed to simplify and codify these treaties. This convention came into force in December 1964.

Regional Economic Commissions

The four Regional Economic Commissions of the United Nations are the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), for Latin America (ECLA), and for Africa (ECA). The basic functions of the Regional Commissions are to assist in raising the level of economic activity in their respective regions and to maintain and strengthen the economic relations of the countries within the region, both among themselves and with the countries of the world. All action taken by the Commissions is intended to fit into the framework of the policies of the United Nations as a whole.

The Economic Commission for Latin America, which meets in plenary session every second year, did not convene a regular session in 1964. However, the Committee-of-the-Whole met in March 1964 and, in November 1964, the Trade Committee of ECLA met in Santiago to evaluate the results of the Geneva Conference on Trade and Development, to co-ordinate the positions of Latin American governments with regard to the future meetings of the new UNCTAD machinery, and to consider measures aimed at promoting Latin American economic integration. Canada is a member of ECLA and participated in the meetings held in Santiago during 1964.

Though not a member of ECE, ECAFE or ECA, Canada was represented by observers at the 1964 sessions of the first two. At its twentieth session in Geneva in April 1964, ECE emphasized the value of exchanges of information organized through the permanent committees of the ECE and called on committees to prepare, where practical, long-term programmes of study tours for specialists from participating countries. The Canadian observers participated in several committee meetings and study groups organized by the ECE which provided opportunities for an exchange of views on trade and economic problems. An important part of the ECE work in 1964 was the preparation of a number of papers for consideration at the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. The total membership of the Commission was raised to 31 when Malta joined late in 1964.

The preoccupation of Asian members with trade problems was the predominant feature of the twentieth session of ECAFE, which was held in Tehran in March. The meeting provided a forum for developing countries in Asia to formulate a consensus on their trade relations with advanced countries and their views were embodied in a unanimous resolution. Canada has maintained a continuing interest since 1958 in ECAFE's programme to develop the lower Mekong River Basin and has contributed \$1.3 million to this project under the auspices of the Colombo Plan.

The sixth session of the Economic Commission for Africa was held in Addis Ababa in February. A resolution was passed seeking to invite Angola, Mozambique and South West Africa to send delegations to the next session. Relations between the Economic Commission for Africa and the Organization of African Unity, as well as greater African representation on the ECA Secretariat, were the most prominent items discussed. In 1964, ECA shifted the emphasis in its role from gathering information about Africa's economic life to the implementation of specific projects designed to contribute to the economic development of the continent. During the year, the African Development Bank came into being and decisions were taken to set up permanent inter-governmental machinery for North Africa and to lay the foundations for an all-African Air Transport Organization.

Trusteeship Council

The Charter created an international trusteeship system for the administration of colonial territories placed under United Nations supervision through individual trusteeship agreements. Originally there were 11 trust territories. Today only three remain: New Guinea, which is administered by Australia; Nauru, which is jointly administered by Australia, Britain and New Zealand; and the large Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, which is administered by the United States.

Since its membership is evenly divided between administering members, on the one hand, and non-administering members, on the other, the size of the Trusteeship Council diminishes as the number of Trust Territories decreases. In 1964, the administering members were Australia, Britain, New Zealand and the United States, while the non-administering members of the Council were China, France, Liberia and the Soviet Union. The thirty-first session of the Council was held from May 20 to June 29, 1964.

New Guinea

The Trusteeship Council reviewed the development of New Guinea and its more than 1,500,000 inhabitants and noted with approval that Australia had, among other things, established in 1964 a House of Assembly for New Guinea and Papua, successfully organized elections for it on the basis of universal suffrage and a common roll and, in reconstructing the Administrator's Council, had included in it five indigenous elected members from the Assembly. With regard to the territory's economy, the Council, while appreciative of the increase in Australia's grants to Papua and New Guinea and its efforts to expand and diversify the cash economy, stressed the importance of still more funds and urged that the pace of economic and social development should be greatly speeded up. On the question of the voluntary attainment of self-government, the Council urged Australia to continue "to implement realistic plans and progress reflecting a proper sense of urgency for the rapid and planned advance of the territory in all aspects of its political life".

Nauru

Nauru is a small island of just over 5,000 acres in the central Pacific, over half of which is classified as phosphate-bearing. Since the phosphate deposits are expected to be exhausted within 40 years the resettlement of its 5,000 inhabitants is a pressing problem and therefore, as in the past, most of the discussions about Nauru in the Trusteeship Council in 1964 were taken up with this question. The most likely site of a new home for the Nauruans is Curtis Island, but the Council noted that the Nauru local government council had indicated that the Australian Government's proposals for the transfer of the population were in some respects unacceptable. It urged both sides to work toward a harmonious solution.

Pacific Islands

The Pacific Islands, or Micronesia, is a "strategic trust territory" for which the Security Council is ultimately responsible. It is composed of some 2,100 islands of varying sizes stretching more than 2,700 miles from west to east and 1,300 miles from north to south, with a total population of about 85,000. In February 1964, the Council sent a visiting mission to the Territory and, on the basis of its report and information furnished by the United States as the Administering Authority, noted that two sessions of the Council of Micronesia had been held during the previous year and welcomed the

reaffirmation by the United States of its aim of establishing a territorial legislature by 1965. With regard to economic development, the Council, while expressing pleasure that the Territory had been opened to United States investment capital, hoped for still greater efforts to stimulate economic development and recommended the drafting of a long-term economic plan. The Council noted that the inhabitants have no fully-matured opinions on the future of Micronesia but that the United States was committed to the unity and territorial integrity of the Territory and was willing to consider a range of options for the eventual status of the Territory, including independence.

International Court of Justice

The International Court of Justice, the principal judicial organ of the United Nations, replaced the Permanent Court of International Justice, the judicial organ of the League of Nations. It was established in 1945 by the Charter of the United Nations and its Statute is annexed to the Charter, of which it forms an integral part. The parties of the Statute include all members of the United Nations and three other national entities : Liechtenstein, San Marino and Switzerland. The parties are not obliged to refer to the Court their legal disputes with other states unless they have submitted to the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court by filing a declaration pursuant to Article 36 of the Statute or have agreed to do so in treaties or other international agreements. Thirty-nine countries, including Canada, have filed declarations with or without reservations.

The Court consists of 15 independent judges¹ elected for nine-year terms by the General Assembly and the Security Council from a list of nominees submitted to the Secretary-General by "national groups" in the Permanent Court of Arbitration or by "national groups" similarly appointed. Although they are to be elected "regardless of their nationality", the main forms of civilization and the principal legal systems of the world are to be represented. No positions on the bench fell vacant in 1964. There are no Canadian judges serving on the Court at present, though Judge John E. Read of Canada was a member from 1946 to 1958. The President and Vice-President of the Court are elected for three-year terms and take precedence over the other judges. In March 1964, Sir Percy Spender of Australia was elected President and Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo of China as Vice President.

During 1964, the Court considered the South West Africa cases and the Barcelona Traction case.

¹ See Appendix II (6) for a list of the judges.

South West Africa cases:

Ethiopia v. South Africa : Liberia v. South Africa

In November 1960, Ethiopia and Liberia instituted proceedings against South Africa in relation to the continued existence of its mandate for South West Africa and performance of its duties as mandatory. South Africa contested the Court's jurisdiction to hear the cases and, in December 1962, the Court decided by a vote of 8 to 7 that it did have jurisdiction to adjudicate on the merits of the disputes. South Africa filed its Counter-Memorial on the merits and Ethiopia and Liberia filed their Reply before the deadline of June 20, 1964. The Joinder of South Africa was filed on December 23, 1964, and with its submission the written pleadings were completed.

Barcelona Traction Case (New Application 1962):

Belgium v. Spain

This case was originally instituted by Belgium against Spain in 1958 in connection with the adjudication in bankruptcy in Spain in 1948 of the Barcelona Traction Light and Power Company Limited, an open stock company formed in Toronto in 1911 and registered under Canadian law. The share capital of the company belonged largely to Belgian nationals. The Belgian Government claimed that the measures, acts, decisions and omissions of the organs of the Spanish state by virtue of which the company was declared bankrupt and its property liquidated were contrary to international law and that Spain was responsible for the resulting damage and obligated to restore property rights and interests of the company as they existed prior to its bankruptcy, or to pay compensation to Belgium for the loss of these rights and interests. In April 1961, with Belgium's decision not to continue with the proceedings and Spain's agreement to the discontinuance, the case was removed from the list. Subsequent negotiations between the two parties failed, however, to reach a settlement and, in June 1962, Belgium submitted a new application requesting the Court to declare Spain under an obligation to Belgium to make reparation or pay compensation for the damage caused by the actions of Spain to the Belgian shareholders of the company, and to declare that such reparation or compensation should, as far as possible, annul all the consequences for Belgian nationals of the acts contrary to international law committed by Spain.

In March 1963, Spain filed four preliminary objections to the jurisdiction of the Court, which the Court dealt with in its judgement of July 24, 1964 :

- (1) It rejected Spain's contention that Belgium's discontinuance in 1961 precluded it from bringing the present proceedings.
- (2) It rejected Spain's contention that the jurisdiction of the Court to hear this case was based on an article of a treaty between Spain and Belgium, but that this particular article, which provided for referral of disputes to the Permanent Court of International Justice, had lapsed in 1946 when the Permanent Court came to an end. The Court declared that it was competent to hear the case because the treaty provision had merely fallen into abeyance in 1946 and was reactivated in 1955 when Spain became a party to the Statute of the International Court of Justice.
- (3) It joined to merits Spain's objection that the acts complained of by Belgium took place in relation to a Canadian juristic entity and that Belgium had no right in international law to protect the interests of its nationals who were shareholders in the company.
- (4) It joined to merits Spain's objection that Belgium had failed to exhaust local remedies.

The Court fixed July 1, 1965, as the time limit for filing the Counter-Memorial of Spain.

The Secretariat

The administrative functions of the United Nations have been entrusted to the Secretariat, with a Secretary-General at the helm. According to Article 97 of the Charter, the Secretary-General is appointed by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council and he, in turn, employs the necessary staff for the proper discharge of his duties.

Under the Charter, the Secretary-General's functions are : to act as the chief administrative officer of the Organization and to appoint the staff of the Secretariat under regulations established by the Assembly; to bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which, in his opinion, may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security; and to make an annual report to the General Assembly on the work of the Organization. Consequently, he is responsible both for carrying out the instructions given to him by the Security Council and the General Assembly in connection with the Organization's normal activities and the attainment of its basic objectives under the Charter, and for bringing to the attention of the Council and the Assembly those problems and proposals which he considers require

a decision. In addition, he may be called upon to perform special functions under instructions from the Council or the Assembly, or he may, on occasion, use his good offices to seek a solution to a question without bringing it before any specific United Nations body. Prevailing international conditions and the personality and ability of a particular Secretary-General determine the extent of his involvement in specific problems and the way in which these problems are handled.

The present Secretary-General, U Thant of Burma, was appointed Acting Secretary-General on November 3, 1961, to complete the unexpired term of office of the late Dag Hammarskjöld. In November 1962, U Thant was appointed Secretary-General for a five-year term, to take effect from November 3, 1961.

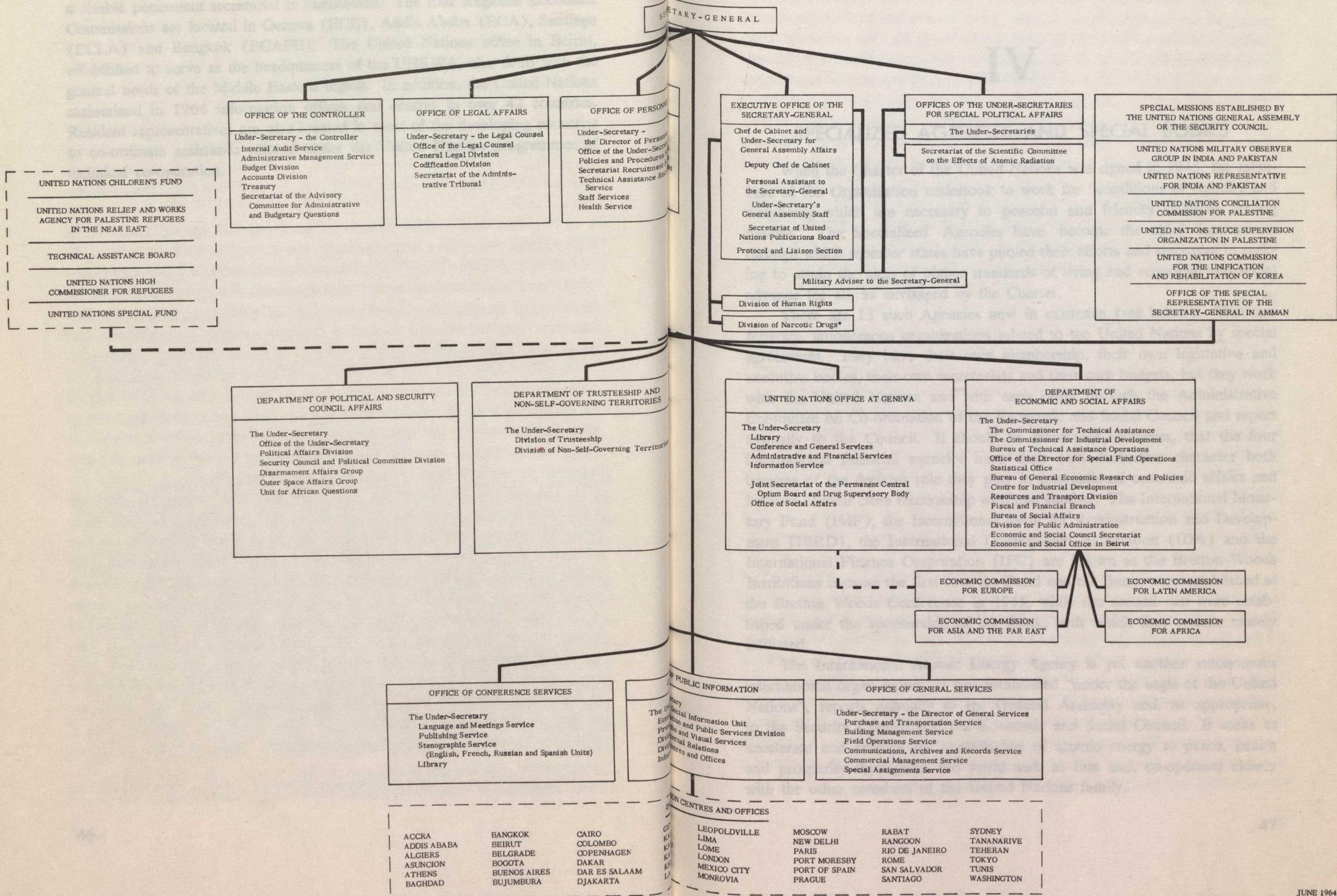
The Secretary-General is assisted by a staff of approximately 4,300 international civil servants representing 106 nationalities. Article 101 (3) of the Charter states that "the paramount consideration in the employment of the staff and in the determination of the conditions of service shall be the necessity of securing the highest standards of efficiency, competence, and integrity. Due regard shall be paid to the importance of recruiting the staff on as wide a geographical basis as possible". To this end, every person joining the Secretariat must take an oath "to exercise in all loyalty, discretion and conscience the functions entrusted to me as an international civil servant of the United Nations, to discharge these functions and regulate my conduct with the interests of the United Nations only in view, and not to seek or accept instructions in regard to the performance of my duties from any government or other authority external to the Organization".

The staff of the Secretariat is divided into three categories: directing staff, professional personnel and general-service personnel. In 1964 there were 19 under-secretaries, 38 directors, and 95 principal officers in the first category. Persons in the professional staff positions, which numbered about 1,835 in 1964, are, like the directing staff, recruited on an international basis under the terms of the Charter, the relevant Assembly resolutions, and the staff rules and regulations. The third category, general service, consisted of approximately 2,300 positions in 1964. General-service personnel are normally recruited locally, either at United Nations headquarters in New York or at the field office in which they will serve. Each member state is assigned a "desirable range" of posts for the approximately 1,400 posts, which are subject to geographical distribution. In 1964 Canada's "desirable range" was 32-42 posts and 39 Canadians were actually employed in this category.¹

¹ The organization of the Secretariat is illustrated in the chart included in this chapter, and a list of the principal officers of the Secretariat during 1964 is given in Appendix II (7)

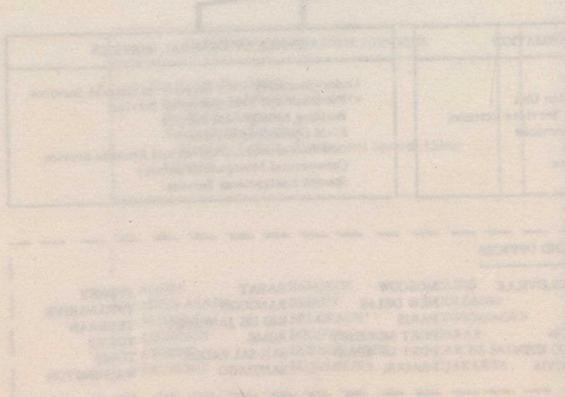
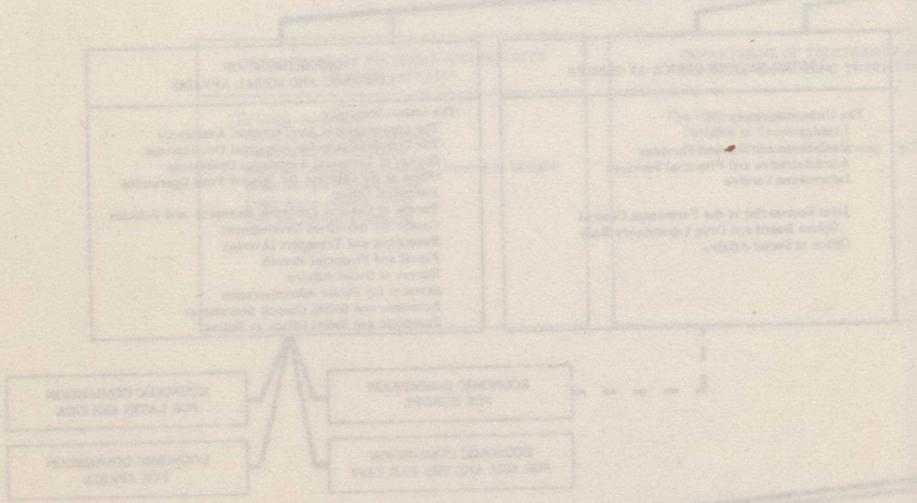
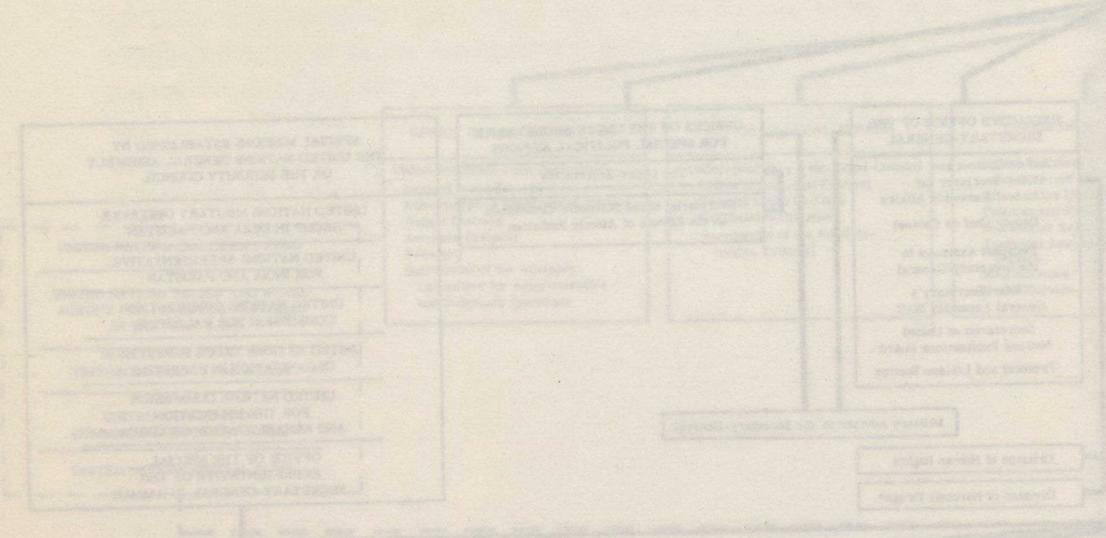
The European headquarters of the United Nations is in Geneva, where a sizable permanent secretariat is maintained. The four Regional Economic Commissions are located in Geneva (ECE), Addis Ababa (ECA), Santiago (ECLA) and Bangkok (ECAFE). The United Nations office in Beirut, established to serve as the headquarters of the UNRWA, also deals with the general needs of the Middle Eastern region. In addition, the United Nations maintained in 1964 information offices and centres in over 42 countries. Resident representatives are also located in most of the developing countries to co-ordinate assistance offered under the United Nations programmes of technical co-operation.

UNITED NATIONS SECRETARIAT



*Forms part of the UN Office at Geneva.

SECRETARIAT



IV

SPECIALIZED AGENCIES AND SPECIAL BODIES

When the Charter of the United Nations was signed in 1945, the members of the Organization undertook to work for "conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary to peaceful and friendly relations among nations". The Specialized Agencies have become the chief instruments through which member states have pooled their efforts and resources in seeking to attain the aims of higher standards of living and economic and social advance for all, as envisaged by the Charter.

There are 13 such Agencies now in existence (see below). They are separate, autonomous organizations related to the United Nations by special agreements. They have their own membership, their own legislative and executive bodies, their own secretariats and their own budgets, but they work with the United Nations and with each other through the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination of the Economic and Social Council and report annually to the Council. It should be mentioned, however, that the four international financial agencies have their own distinctive character both because of the decisive role they play in international economic affairs and because of their close relationship with one another. The International Monetary Fund (IMF), the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the International Development Association (IDA) and the International Finance Corporation (IFC) are known as the Bretton Woods Institutions because the first two, the Fund and the Bank, were established at the Bretton Woods Conference in 1945, while the second two were established under the sponsorship of the Bank, with which they remain closely affiliated.

The International Atomic Energy Agency is yet another autonomous international organization. It was established "under the aegis of the United Nations", reports annually to the General Assembly and, as appropriate, to the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council. It seeks to accelerate and enlarge the contribution of atomic energy to peace, health and prosperity throughout the world and, to that end, co-operates closely with the other members of the United Nations family.

The General Assembly, from time to time, has established special bodies to carry out humanitarian, economic or social assignments, either on a temporary or an indefinite basis. Those bodies now active include the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA). They are not autonomous inter-governmental bodies such as the international agencies. Their budgetary arrangements vary, but in general their programmes are financed by voluntary contributions separate from the United Nations budget. They work with the United Nations and the inter-governmental agencies in projects related to their own objectives.

The Bretton Woods Institutions have been dealt with more extensively in this year's issue than the other organizations in order to provide a fuller description of their purpose, source of funds and activities. In subsequent issues more space will be devoted in turn to the other organizations.

The Bretton Woods Institutions

The *International Monetary Fund* (IMF) provides short-term financial assistance to member countries to help them deal with temporary balance-of-payments difficulties. This activity is closely linked with other efforts made by the Fund — chiefly through regular consultation with member countries under Articles VIII and XIV of the Fund Agreement and technical assistance — to bring about a more balanced international-payments situation and the elimination of exchange restrictions. In general, the Fund works for freer and expanding world trade, thus helping to raise standards of living and to facilitate economic development. Members are requested to orient their fiscal and monetary policies, and their use of the Fund's resources, to these objectives.

The principal authority over the Fund is vested in its Board of Governors, on which each member country is represented by a Governor and an Alternate Governor. The Canadian Governor of the Fund is the Honourable Walter L. Gordon, Minister of Finance, while the Canadian Alternate Governor is Mr. Louis Rasminsky, Governor of the Bank of Canada. The Governors have, however, delegated most of their powers to an Executive Board of 20 members. Five Executive Directors on the Board are appointed by the countries with the highest quotas in the Fund, while the other Directors are elected by the remaining countries. A Canadian has been elected to the Board since its inception. The staff of the Fund is headed by the Managing Director.

One hundred and two countries were members of the Fund on December 31, 1964. One new member, Kenya, was admitted during 1964, and one member, Cuba, withdrew.

The resources of the Fund consist of members' quotas, which are paid in gold and members' currencies. In conformity with the Fund's Articles, Canada paid its quota of \$550 million (U.S.) as follows: 25 per cent in gold and 75 per cent in Canadian dollars in the form of non-interest bearing notes. At the end of the year, the Fund held \$16.5 billion (U.S.) in gold and members' currencies, of which approximately \$3.0 billion (U.S.) was in gold and \$.4 billion (U.S.) represented borrowings by the Fund under the General Arrangements to Borrow.

Twenty-two members of the Fund drew the equivalent of \$1,950 million (U.S.) during 1964, the United States and Britain accounting for \$525 million (U.S.) and \$1,000 million (U.S.) respectively. These drawings were partly offset by repayments equivalent to \$150 million (U.S.) made by 21 members. Canada made repayments equivalent to \$166 million (U.S.) during the course of the year. These repayments eliminated Canada's obligation to the Fund resulting from the 1962 drawing of the equivalent of \$300 million (U.S.). These transactions increased the total amount of outstanding drawings to over \$2.6 billion (U.S.) on December 31, 1964. Total drawings since the beginning of Fund operations in 1947 have been equivalent to \$9.0 billion (U.S.).

The Fund entered into or renewed stand-bys totalling \$2.1 billion (U.S.) in 1964. Stand-by arrangements were introduced in 1952 as a means of giving members advance assurance of access to a stated amount of Fund resources over a period of not more than 12 months. Since the beginning of its operations, the Fund has entered into stand-by arrangements totalling \$9.5 billion (U.S.). Some of the stand-by arrangements lapsed without being fully used. Undrawn balances of current stand-by arrangements on December 1, 1964, amounted to \$.7 billion (U.S.).

The Fund's General Arrangements to Borrow became effective in 1962. Under these arrangements, ten major industrial countries (Britain, Canada, Belgium, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, the United States, the Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden) have agreed to lend their currencies to the Fund up to specified amounts totalling \$6 billion (U.S.) to be used to forestall or cope with an impairment to the international monetary system. Canada's commitment amounts to the equivalent of \$200 million (U.S.). These arrangements were first activated in December of last year at the time of Britain's drawing. The Fund borrowed a total of \$405 million (U.S.) from the eight countries other than the United States

and Britain. The amount borrowed from Canada was equivalent to \$15 million (U.S.).

The *International Bank* (IBRD) operates primarily by making loans, in cases where private capital is not available on reasonable terms, to finance the foreign-exchange costs of productive investments in its member countries. It also provides a wide variety of technical assistance, ranging from full-scale economic surveys of the development potential of member countries to regional investigations and advice on particular projects.

As in the case of the Fund, the principal authority over the Bank is vested in a Board of Governors on which each member country is represented by a Governor and an Alternate Governor. The Minister of Finance is also the Canadian Governor of the Bank, but the Canadian Alternate Governor in 1964 was Mr. A.F.W. Plumptre, Assistant Deputy Minister of Finance. The Boards of Governors of the Bank and the Fund meet jointly once a year. Like the Board of Governors of the Fund, the Board of Governors of the Bank has delegated most of its powers to an Executive Board of 20 members. Five Executive Directors on the Board are appointed by the countries with the highest subscriptions, while the other Directors are elected by the remaining countries. A Canadian has been elected to the Bank's Board since its inception. The staff of the Bank is headed by the President.

The Bank obtains its funds for lending operations from the capital subscriptions of its members, and the sale in the various capital markets of the world of its own bonds and notes and of portions of its loan portfolio and its net earnings. Its authorized capital is \$22.0 billion (U.S.), of which \$21.2 billion (U.S.) had been subscribed by December 31, 1964. Of each subscription, 1 per cent is payable in the form of gold or United States dollars and is fully useable by the Bank in any of its operations, and 9 per cent is payable in the national currency of the member and may be used for loans only with the consent of the country concerned. The remaining 90 per cent of each subscription is not available for lending and is subject to call should the Bank ever need additional funds to pay off its outstanding funded debt. The uncalled subscription is in the nature of a guarantee against which the Bank is able to borrow funds. Of Canada's total subscription of \$750 million (U.S.), \$7.5 million (U.S.) has been paid in gold and United States dollars and the equivalent of \$67.5 million (U.S.) has been paid in Canadian dollars. Canada has given the Bank permission to use this amount freely in its operations.

No new money issues were sold by the Bank during 1964. The only bonds distributed represented a refunding operation. A \$100-million issue

of Two-Year 4¼ percent United States Dollar Bonds were placed at par with central banks and other governmental institutions in 26 countries. In Germany, the Bank placed a further \$100-million equivalent of dollar and *Deutsche Mark* issues as outstanding obligations matured. Its outstanding funded debt was \$2,484 million (U.S.) at the end of December 1964. Sales to investors of portions of the Bank's loan portfolio amounted to \$120 million (U.S.) over the year, of which \$9.6 million (U.S.) was to private Canadian interests. Loan repayments in 1963 were \$285 million (U.S.). Its net income amounted to \$117 million (U.S.), a new peak. Prior to July 1, 1964, all net income and commissions were credited to reserves which aggregated \$894 million (U.S.) on June 30, 1964. Net income earned after June 30, 1964, has been credited to "Net Income Account", which totalled about \$67 million (U.S.) at the end of 1964.

During 1964, the Bank made 31 loans in 24 countries totalling \$728 million (U.S.), compared with \$788 million (U.S.) in 1963 and \$646 million (U.S.) in 1962. There was a sharp increase in loans to Africa, rising from \$11 million (U.S.) in 1963 to \$207 million (U.S.) in 1964. Financing in Australasia was also higher in 1964, but the amount of loans declined in all other areas, the greatest decrease occurring in the Western Hemisphere, where loans fell to \$103 million (U.S.) during the year, compared to \$304 million (U.S.) in 1963. In Asia and the Middle East, loans declined from \$264 million (U.S.) to \$221 million (U.S.) and in Europe from \$201 million (U.S.) to \$164 million (U.S.). The year saw a continuation of the changing emphasis of Bank lending by purpose. Bank lending for electric-power development again decreased from \$308 million (U.S.) in 1963 to \$238 million (U.S.) in 1964, while transportation loans rose again from \$304 million (U.S.) in 1963 to \$356 million (U.S.) in 1964. From its inception to December 31, 1964, the Bank has made 402 loans in 74 countries aggregating \$8.2 billion (U.S.), of which \$6.3 billion (U.S.) has been disbursed.

In addition to its lending activities, the Bank provides important technical-assistance facilities for its developing members. Members of the Development Advisory Service acted as economic or planning advisers in 11 countries in 1964. The Bank continued its programme of project feasibility and sector studies which are designed to assist and speed the preparation and financing of development projects in member countries. Studies were undertaken or continued in eight countries in 1964. The Bank announced plans for the establishment of a "West African Office", and indicated its intention to open a similar office in East Africa to assist in preparation and development of projects. The Economic Development

Institute began its Tenth General Course and gave its second Project Evaluation Course. Other courses during 1964 were the first to be concerned primarily with the evaluation of industrial projects — the third annual course on development planning, given in French — and a regional course on project evaluation held in Jaipur, India. During 1964, the Bank once again sponsored meetings of countries interested in providing development assistance to Colombia, India, Nigeria, Pakistan and the Sudan.

The *International Development Association* (IDA) was established in September 1960 to promote economic development by providing financial assistance to member countries on terms which are more flexible and bear less heavily on their balance of payments than do conventional loans to which the Bank is limited. While the terms of IDA lending are more lenient than those of the Bank, IDA uses the same high standards of project planning and execution when considering a credit operation. On December 31, 1964, IDA had 94 members including Canada, with Belgium, Cameroun, Kenya and Luxembourg joining during the year. In addition, membership applications had been received from four countries.

IDA derived its initial financial resources from the subscription of its member countries. The Articles of Agreement provided for initial subscriptions which would have aggregated \$1 billion (U.S.), payable over five years, if all members of the Bank had become members of IDA at the time the Association was established. For purposes of subscriptions, IDA members are divided into two groups. One group (Part I members), consisting of the more highly industrialized countries, pay their subscriptions entirely in convertible form. The other group (Part II members), consisting of the developing nations, pay 10 per cent of their subscriptions in convertible currencies; the remaining 90 per cent is paid in national currencies, which IDA may use only with the consent of the members concerned. Only Part II members are eligible to receive credits from the Association. By December 31, 1964, a total of \$996 million (U.S.) had been subscribed by members, of which \$776 million (U.S.) was to be paid in convertible form. Of this latter amount, the equivalent of \$767 million (U.S.) had been paid to IDA. In addition, the Association has received special supplementary contributions from Sweden equivalent to \$15.1 million (U.S.) in convertible form. Canada's subscription is \$37.8 million (U.S.). In view of the mounting requirements for IDA-type credits and the dwindling resources of the Association, Part I countries have agreed to provide supplementary contributions totalling some \$745 million (U.S.) to be made available in three annual installments beginning in November 1965. Canada's

additional contribution is \$41.7 million (U.S.). The Bank has approved a grant to IDA of \$50 million (U.S.).

During 1964, IDA extended 22 development credits totalling \$418 million (U.S.) in ten countries. Most of the year's credits went to countries in Asia and the Middle East, which together accounted for \$340 million (U.S.). Four African countries borrowed \$26 million (U.S.); Turkey received credits of \$29 million (U.S.); credits totalling \$23 million (U.S.) went to the Western Hemisphere. All credits were for a term of 50 years and free of interest. Repayment is to start after a ten-year grace period. Thereafter, repayment is to be at the rate of 1 per cent *per annum* for the first ten years, and 3 per cent *per annum* for the final 30 years. A service charge of 0.75 per cent *per annum*, payable on the amounts withdrawn and outstanding, is charged to meet administrative costs. By the end of 1964, IDA had signed credit agreements amounting to the equivalent of \$995 million (U.S.) in 26 countries.

The *International Finance Corporation* (IFC) was established in 1956 as an investment institution designed to supplement the activities of the Bank by encouraging the growth of productive private enterprise, particularly in the developing member countries. The Corporation provides financing in association with private investors (in cases where sufficient private capital is not available on reasonable terms) and seeks to create investment opportunities by bringing together domestic and foreign investors and experienced management. Three countries joined IFC during 1964, raising total membership to 78 on December 31, 1964. The new members are Jamaica, Kenya and Korea; applications from a further five countries were under consideration at the year's end. IFC's investment resources consist of paid-up subscription of members in gold and United States dollars and its authorized capital is \$110 million (U.S.). Of that total, \$99 million (U.S.) had, by December 31, 1964, been subscribed by governments of the member countries, including \$3.6 million (U.S.) by Canada.

In 1964, IFC made 19 new investment commitments totalling \$25.4 million (U.S.) for projects in 14 member countries. As at December 31, 1964, the Corporation had authorized or completed 97 investments in 30 countries aggregating \$127.4 million (U.S.). Cumulative net income to the end of 1964 amounted to \$21.5 million (U.S.).

Food and Agriculture Organization

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) is concerned with promoting international co-operation in agriculture and related fields, including forestry and fisheries, and with disseminating information on these

subjects. Its activities include the encouragement of agricultural education, improved administration, conservation, marketing and nutrition. During 1964, in addition to increasing its work in these fields, the FAO expanded its activities in connection with United Nations programmes of economic assistance, particularly the Special Fund, on whose behalf the Organization undertook 169 projects costing approximately \$300 million. An agreement was also concluded during the year with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development to facilitate the flow of investment funds into agriculture. In addition the FAO provided direct assistance to developing countries in such fields as the control of animal diseases, wildlife management, conservation and desert locust control.

At its meeting in October 1964, the FAO Council reviewed the progress of the "Freedom-from-Hunger" Campaign and noted that some \$221 million has been committed to various projects in participating countries. Of this total, funds channelled through FAO amounted to \$18.6 million. The Council also considered the second annual report of the Inter-governmental Committee of the World Food Programme, which is administered by FAO in conjunction with the United Nations. About 135 projects of various types have been undertaken, based on the provision of food aid. At the end of 1964, pledges amounted to the equivalent of \$92 million, including about \$33 million in cash, against the target of \$100 million. In order to ensure the success of the programme, particularly as regards the purchase of food, those member countries that had not yet made or fulfilled their pledges were urged to do so, preferably on a cash basis. At its October meeting, the Council recognized that the new trade and development institutions in the United Nations, arising out of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, would have important implications for the future work of the FAO, and particularly for the Committee on Commodity Problems. Although it would take some time before these implications would be fully known, it was clear that, in future, greater emphasis would be placed on problems of economic and social development.

The FAO Committee on Commodity Problems reported that the rise in international commodity prices, which began in 1963, reached its peak early in 1964 and that a decline had since set in. The rise in prices and the related expansion in trade tended to benefit exporting countries in temperate zones more than developing countries. The Committee has currently under consideration proposals for possible international action to stabilize prices for tea, cocoa and fats and oils, in line with the recommendations of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development.

In 1964, Canadian senior officials served in various capacities on specialized bodies of the FAO and Canada continued to provide experts to a number of technical-assistance projects in developing countries.

International Civil Aviation Organization

The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), whose headquarters are in Montreal, was set up to establish international standards and regulations for civil aviation. Among other things, it encourages the use of safety measures, uniform regulations for operation, and simpler procedures at international borders. The increasing importance of its work was reflected in recent statistics, which showed that the domestic and international air lines of the 107 member states of ICAO had carried 156 million passengers in 1964, an increase of 16 per cent over 1963.

During 1964, ICAO, in co-operation with the Government of Thailand and the United Nations Special Fund, opened in Bangkok the headquarters of the Regional Civil Aviation Centre for Southeast Asia and continued to assist in operating existing aviation-training centres in six countries in North America, Asia and Africa. In recognition of the increasing needs of Africa, ICAO established two new training institutes in Nigeria and Congo (Leopoldville) and sponsored in Rome in November and December an Africa-Indian Ocean regional air-navigation meeting to draw up a new plan for ground facilities and services for civil aviation in Africa. It also joined the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) in sponsoring in Addis Ababa in November the first Conference on Air Transport in Africa, which agreed to take initial steps to establish a permanent African civil-aviation organ and to reorganize African air transport on the basis of multi-national groupings. Other recommendations by the conference included a request that ICAO complete its study of existing training arrangements in Africa and consider the establishment of additional training centres.

In March 1964 the Council of ICAO announced the appointment of B.T. Twigt of the Netherlands as Secretary-General of the Organization for a three-year term. He succeeds R.M. Macdonnell of Canada, who served as Secretary-General from 1958 to 1964.

International Labour Organization

The International Labour Organization (ILO) was established in 1919 to promote social justice by improving working and living conditions around the world. Its General Conference, usually held in Geneva each June, is attended by national delegations, each consisting of two government delegates, one employer and one worker delegate.

At the forty-eighth International Labour Conference in June 1964, the main debate focussed on methods of modernizing and streamlining the programmes and structure of the ILO. Among other things, it adopted three new conventions on hygiene in commerce and offices, employment injury benefits, and employment policy and, through an amendment to its constitution, changed the procedure for applying ILO conventions to dependent territories. At the Conference, the Canadian Minister of Labour announced that, beginning in 1965, Canada would contribute \$50,000 annually for five years to the International Institute for Labour Studies in the form of an outright grant and through the provision of Canadian fellowships for study and research at the Institute and a further \$50,000 annually for four years toward the International Centre for Advanced Technical Training at Turin, Italy, provided its finances are sufficient for it to begin operations in 1965. Both projects are sponsored by the ILO.

At the June meeting of the Governing Body (of which Canada is one of the ten permanent members of chief industrial importance), the Canadian Government representative was elected as chairman for the following year. At a meeting in November 1964, the Governing Body appointed a working party to examine the question of revising the programme and structure of ILO. Among other subjects discussed at the three sessions in 1964 were the 1965 budget, the Working Capital Fund, the role of various agencies assisted financially by ILO, and the agenda of various meetings, including the American Regional Conference, which will meet in Canada late in 1966.

Since most of the members who have joined ILO over the past 20 years are developing countries, the Organization's programmes of technical assistance have increased steadily, to the point that in 1964 technical-aid expenditures totalled about \$14 million, including administrative costs. Of this amount, projects of the United Nations Special Fund and of the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (EPTA) accounted for \$6.3 million and \$5.75 million respectively, while the balance came from the ILO regular budget. Canada provided numerous experts for these training projects in developing countries, and a growing number of ILO trainees were brought to Canada for courses arranged by the Department of Labour.

In November 1964, the Canadian Government, after obtaining the concurrence of the ten provincial governments, registered with the ILO its ratification of ILO Convention No. 111 prohibiting discrimination in the field of employment and occupation. It was the twenty-first ILO Convention ratified by Canada.

Inter-governmental Maritime Consultative Organization

The Inter-governmental Maritime Consultative Organization (IMCO) was established in 1959 to promote international co-operation on technical shipping problems and the adoption of the highest standards of safety and navigation. Its functions are advisory and consultative. During 1964, IMCO dealt with a wide range of problems, including the revision of the international code of signals, oil pollution of the sea, the carriage of dangerous goods, and fire protection on tankers. In addition to three meetings of its Council and two sessions of the Maritime Safety Committee, an extraordinary session of the IMCO Assembly was held in London from September 10 to 15. It approved amendments to the IMCO Convention designed to expand the membership of the Council from 16 to 18 in order to provide for a more equitable geographical representation.

International Telecommunication Union

The purpose of the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) is to maintain and extend international co-operation in the use and improvement of telecommunications of all kinds. In January and February 1964, the ITU organized in Geneva the first session of the Extraordinary Administrative Radio Conference on Aeronautical Mobile High Frequency Communications, which discussed recent advances in radio spectrum usage and established technical and operational principles for improved plans in this field. In June, the Third Plenary Assembly of the International Telegraph and Telephone Consultative Committee took place in Geneva and approved the results of numerous technical and operating studies relating to inter-continental automatic-telephone operation, routing and network plans. It decided to create four autonomous working parties entrusted with preparing technical information on developing countries; one of them is chaired by Canada. In October, the ITU sponsored in Geneva the African Broadcasting Conference, but it broke up over the question of the participation of delegates from South Africa and Portugal. The majority of delegates voted to exclude them, but the Deputy Secretary-General withdrew the services of the Secretariat on the grounds that the vote could have no effect under the ITU Convention.

Under the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (EPTA) and the United Nations Special Fund, ITU maintained 107 experts in the field in 1964 and awarded 87 new fellowships. New programmes in seven developing countries were approved, bringing to 16 the number of projects for which the ITU had been designated as the Executing Agency. At its

meeting in April and May, the Administrative Council made preliminary arrangements for the ITU Plenipotentiary Conference to take place in Montreux, Switzerland, in September and October 1965. During its sessions, the centenary of the Union will be celebrated.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) seeks to contribute to peace and security by promoting international collaboration through education, science and culture. The major event of 1964 was the thirteenth session of the General Conference, which was held in Paris in October and November. The General Conference is the policy-making body of UNESCO; it meets every two years to plan the programme and approve the budget for the following two years. The 1964 Conference, in agreeing that education should continue to have the first priority in UNESCO's activities, drew up a world-literacy experimental programme to pave the way for the development of universal literacy. The Canadian delegation, in supporting this project, expressed the view that a literacy programme should be an integral part of the whole social and economic development of a country, and that UNESCO's role was that of a catalyst. In the scientific field, the Conference supported a proposal to give UNESCO's science activities, particularly the application of science to development, an impetus similar to that given to education in 1960. In this connection it proclaimed the period 1965-1975 as International Hydrological Decade, and elected Canada, for a two-year term, to the Co-ordinating Council for the Decade. Finally, with regard to cultural activities and the social and human sciences, the Conference decided that UNESCO should continue its role in the dissemination and exchange of information while placing special emphasis on international efforts to assist the developing countries in the mass-communication and exchange-of-persons section of this programme.

To finance all these activities, a majority vote of the Conference approved, after a long debate, a budget of \$48.9 million, an increase of more than 22 per cent over that of the preceding two years. Some members supported a budget of \$50 million, but Canada, with a large number of other countries, preferred one of \$48.1 million, on the ground that, if additional resources were needed to meet unforeseen essential expenses, they should be found through savings and the elimination of marginal projects. In addition to its regular budget, extra-budgetary funds for special projects are allocated to UNESCO by the United Nations Expanded Programme

of Technical Assistance (EPTA) and the Special Fund, and it is expected that these will amount to \$48.2 million in 1965 and 1966.

Apart from the General Conference, there were several other events of significance to Canada. Under its programme of participation in the activities of member states, UNESCO made a grant of \$10,000 to the Canadian National Commission to enable the Association internationale des sociologues de langue française to hold a Congress in Quebec in October with the Canadian Association of French-speaking Anthropologists, Sociologists and Psychologists acting as host. The National Commission also organized Canadian participation in the UNESCO-sponsored International Conference on Youth, which was held in Grenoble, France, in August, and throughout the year co-operated with the UNESCO fellows visiting Canada in answering questionnaires on educational, scientific and cultural matters, and in providing clearing-house services.

Universal Postal Union

The Universal Postal Union (UPU) was established in 1875 for the purpose of forming a single postal territory to facilitate and improve postal services. In May 1964, the Universal Postal Congress, which normally convenes every five years to review the Universal Postal Convention and subsidiary agreements, met in Vienna and decided on several major departures for the UPU. It abandoned the former practice of re-adopting the Convention with changes at each Congress for a permanent constitution now subject to ratification by the member states, declared in its constitution that the offering of technical assistance to developing countries was a basic objective of the UPU and, in increasing its executive body from 20 to 27 members, changed its name from the Executive and Liaison Committee to the Executive Council.

World Health Organization

The World Health Organization (WHO) provides advice on the combating of disease and the improvement of health conditions, as well as such technical services as biological standardization, the dissemination of epidemiological information and the organization of international research projects on certain diseases. By 1964, the World Health Organization's malaria-eradication campaign covered two-thirds of the world's population previously exposed to the disease, and it was expected that the organization's smallpox-eradication programme would be successful even though it had progressed slowly in the African region during the year. In 1964, WHO

assisted 39 countries in an attack on tuberculosis which had accounted for an annual death-toll of three million. Sixty-five centres throughout the world were engaged in cancer research under WHO auspices, and the Director-General was authorized to consult with four Western European members and the United States regarding the establishment of a World Research Agency for Cancer. In the area of medical education, 50 more doctors returned to the Congo in 1964 after completing their studies in France on WHO scholarships. The WHO held its seventeenth annual Assembly in March 1964 in Geneva.

World Meteorological Organization

The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) was set up in 1950 to facilitate and encourage international co-operation in gathering and exchanging meteorological information. Early in 1964, the WMO Commission for Aeronautical Meteorology held a joint meeting in Paris with the Meteorology and Operations Divisions of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) to review the procedures and specifications for meteorological service for international civil aviation. The Executive Committee of WMO met in Geneva in May and June and, among other decisions, established a panel which subsequently met in November and approved a wide range of projects covering upper-air observations, improvements in telecommunications data processing and observational system surveys.

The International Union of Geophysics and the WMO co-sponsored the International Radiation Symposium in Leningrad in early August and the International Ozone Symposium in Albuquerque, New Mexico, in early September. The former represents the first international meteorological symposium to take place in the Soviet Union. Canada was represented at both. The fourth session of WMO's Commission for Maritime Meteorology took place in Geneva early in December; primary emphasis was given to ways and means of improving the coverage of weather observations over the oceans. Canada's representative was unanimously elected president of the Commission for the next four years. Canadians now preside over two of the eight technical commissions of WMO.

The Specialized Agencies and Apartheid

During 1964, the question of *apartheid*¹ in South Africa arose in various forms at conferences of three Specialized Agencies. At the Assembly of

¹ See also ITU Page 57 South Africa withdrew from membership in the FAO in 1963 following the adoption of a resolution directing that it should not until further notice be invited to participate in FAO conferences.

the World Health Organization in March, South Africa's voting privileges were suspended because of its *apartheid* policies and the Executive Board was requested to submit to the 1965 Assembly proposals for the suspension or exclusion of those members who violated the principles of WHO by officially practising racial discrimination. (At its May meeting, the Executive Board was unable to reach a decision on this question.) At the Congress of the Universal Postal Union in May, a resolution was drafted which sought to exclude South Africa but failed to win the necessary support, while the Conference of the International Labour Organization in June drafted a declaration condemning *apartheid* and adopted two amendments to its constitution on this subject. The first provided for suspension and/or expulsion from the International Labour Conference of any member state found by the United Nations to be practising a declared policy of racial discrimination such as *apartheid*, while the second provided for expulsion or suspension from membership of a country which had been expelled or suspended from the United Nations. On all three occasions Canada, while expressing its strong dislike of any form of racial discrimination, opposed attempts to expel or suspend South Africa for its *apartheid* policies because it considered that the question was political in character and as a matter of principle, therefore, should be dealt with not by a Specialized Agency but by the General Assembly and the Security Council as the main political bodies of the United Nations. In keeping with this policy, however, Canada supported and later ratified the second ILO amendment because it made any action by the ILO to expel or suspend South Africa contingent upon similar previous action by the United Nations itself.

* * * *

International Atomic Energy Agency

The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) promotes atomic development as a source of electrical power and as an instrument in the advance of medicine, agriculture and industry. In 1964, the IAEA organized the scientific programme of the Third United Nations International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy, which took place in Geneva in August and September and attracted some 1,800 delegates and 2,000 observers from 75 countries and other United Nations Agencies. It also established a two-year programme of activities, which will concentrate on the peaceful application of atomic energy in medicine, agriculture, industry

and other fields, completely reviewed its safeguards system and decided to extend it to cover reactors with a thermal output exceeding 100,000 kilowatts, a major step forward and a natural outcome of the rapid development of large power reactors. At its Eighth General Conference in Vienna in September, the membership of the Board of Governors was confirmed for the ensuing 12 months. It is composed of 25 member states chosen on the basis of geographical distribution and on the level of achievement in atomic-energy technology and, as Canada is regarded as one of the five leading nations in the field, its place on the Board has been virtually assured. In September the Board elected the Canadian member as its chairman for a 12-month term.

* * * *

United Nations Children's Fund

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) was established by the General Assembly in December 1946. Its purpose is to help developing countries improve conditions for their children and youth by providing assistance in such fields as health, nutrition, social welfare, education and vocational training. It provides assistance at the request of governments for projects which form part of national programmes of development. The United Nations Children's Fund Executive Board, of which Canada is a member, meets twice a year in June and December to approve programmes for the following six months and at its meeting in June to discuss policy questions in detail.

In June 1964, the 30-nation UNICEF Executive Board voted \$30 million in continued assistance to more than 150 projects and in new assistance to 57 projects. In all, UNICEF is now aiding 551 long-term projects in 116 countries and territories. Among the major categories of aid approved at the June session was \$18 million to strengthen health services and combat specific diseases, \$4 million for nutritional projects, \$3 million for educational and vocational training, \$830,000 to child and family welfare services, \$328,000 for help to countries in preparing projects to meet the needs of children and youth and \$3 million in freight charges for supplies. Canada's contribution to UNICEF in 1964 was \$800,000. Canadians participated actively in the sale of UNICEF greeting cards and calendars, which were expected to achieve record world-wide sales in 1964, and in the Hallowe'en "Trick or Treat" collections, which are now being extended

to other countries as well. In October 1964, the Prime Minister announced that Canada's contribution to UNICEF would be increased to \$1 million next year.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) provides care, either under its mandate or through its good offices, for refugees rendered homeless as a result of wars and other conflicts. At present the Office provides help for refugees in Europe, Latin America, Asia and Africa.

The Executive Committee of the High Commissioner's Programme consists of representatives of 30 members of the United Nations or its Specialized Agencies who are elected by ECOSOC on the widest possible geographical basis from those states who have demonstrated interest in the solution of refugee problems. Canada has always been a member of the Executive Committee. The present High Commissioner is Mr. Félix Schnyder of Switzerland.

The total budget of the UNHCR for 1964 was just over \$3 million. Of this amount, a sum of \$660,000 was allocated to refugees in Europe, \$1,400,000 to Africa, \$550,000 to Latin America and slightly over \$400,000 to Asia. Canada pledged \$290,000 as its contribution to the UNHCR's programmes for 1964.

United Nations Relief and Works Agency

The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA) was established by the General Assembly in 1949 to assist the Palestine Arabs who became refugees as a result of hostilities in Palestine in 1948. It is a special non-political agency, which, in co-operation with the "host" governments (Jordan, Lebanon, the Syrian Arab Republic and the United Arab Republic), provides basic rations, health and welfare services and shelter for many of the refugees as well as education and training. In June 1964, 1,246,585 refugees were registered with the Agency, which maintains a total of 54 camps.

The report of the Commissioner General, Dr. Laurence Michelmore, for 1963-64 proposed a future programme for the Agency to include the continuation of relief for needy refugees, but with greater flexibility in its provision, and the development and improvement as funds permit of UNRWA's services in the field of education and training. Since half the refugees are below the age of 18, education and training is an important

aspect of the Agency's programme, but the Commissioner General could only envisage a minimal further increase of vocational-training facilities in 1965 unless special contributions were made available for this purpose. Canada, therefore, pledged and specifically allocated for vocational education an additional \$200,000 for 1965 over and above the level of contributions in the preceding three years. This special extra contribution accords with Canada's traditional interest in and support for UNRWA's training programmes. Canada's total pledge for 1965, subject to Parliamentary approval, is \$1.2 millions — \$500,000 in cash and \$700,000 in wheat flour. During the nineteenth session, the General Assembly unanimously extended UNRWA's mandate for a further year until June 30, 1966.

V

SELECTED COMMISSIONS AND COMMITTEES

Atomic Radiation

The United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation was set up by the General Assembly in 1955 to receive, assemble, summarize and evaluate information on radiation levels and radiation effects on man and his environment and to indicate the research projects which might require further study. It submits yearly progress reports to the General Assembly, and comprehensive reports were released in 1958, 1962 and 1964.

At its two sessions in February and June 1964, the Committee gave particular attention to the problem of the contamination of the environment by nuclear explosions and the question of malignancies in man caused by radiation. On the contamination problem, the Committee made a detailed review of the most recent information available in order to complete its 1962 survey; with respect to the malignancy question, it agreed that, while no breakthrough in current knowledge had taken place since 1962, recent information had made it possible to give a sounder basis for certain risk estimates made in the past, to confirm some that had been adumbrated, and to propose new ones.

Canada has played an active part in the work of the Committee since its inception and, since 1959, has carried out an extensive fallout-collection programme. Each month a number of collection stations provide information taken from air, precipitation and milk samples, and results from examinations of wheat, soil and human bone are reported as they become available. All this material is sent to the Committee for their study of the problem in its world context.

International Co-operation Year

In 1962, the General Assembly adopted a resolution co-sponsored by Canada designating 1965 as International Co-operation Year. The purpose

of ICY is to focus world attention on those areas where international co-operation already exists, to maintain and expand present co-operative ventures and to formulate such plans and programmes as seem to express the objectives of ICY. A United Nations Committee for International Co-operation Year was established to co-ordinate ICY activities. Among the projects that it proposed in 1964 were the ratification by the countries concerned of a number of multilateral instruments of which the Secretary-General is the depository, the issuance by the United Nations and member states of commemorative stamps, the designing of a medallion, the inauguration of a series of seven lectures by distinguished figures on aspects of international co-operation, and the adoption of an ICY calendar to encourage concentration in particular months on specified activities. To publicize the aims of ICY it was suggested that the United Nations, the Specialized Agencies and member states publish booklets on particular aspects of international co-operation, produce television and radio programmes, and stimulate press coverage of ICY events. By the end of 1964, 17 countries reported that they had set up national committees for ICY, and since then many more have done so.

The Canadian Government in 1964 encouraged the establishment of the Canadian Committee for International Co-operation Year. It is composed of representatives of non-governmental organizations and received a grant of \$25,000 from the Government to help it in its work of co-ordinating the activities of the private organizations concerned. Three conferences were held in Canada during the year to enlist interest and support in ICY objectives and, by the end of 1964, 62 organizations had advised the Committee that they were engaging in one or more special projects in a wide variety of areas, including education, the arts and sciences, tourism and direct aid to developing countries through the provision of food, clothing and books. The Canadian Government itself released a special stamp issue to commemorate ICY and is studying the question of the ratification of a number of multilateral treaties and conventions.

International Law Commission

The International Law Commission was established in 1947 to encourage the progressive development of international law and its codification. It is composed of 25 members who are elected not as government representatives but on a personal basis as experts in international law. The Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs, Mr. Marcel Cadieux, has been a member since 1961.

The Commission held its sixteenth session in Geneva from May to July 1964, during which, aside from attention to purely formal matters, two major substantive decisions were made in the adoption of the third and final part of a series of draft articles on the Law of Treaties and the adoption of 16 draft articles on the Despatch of Temporary Envoys on Special Missions. The articles on the Law of Treaties, with the applications, effects and interpretation of treaties, were referred to governments for their observations. In the light of the replies received, they will then be reconsidered by the Commission at its eighteenth session, scheduled to begin in May 1966. The two earlier reports which the Commission had considered dealt with the conclusion, entry into force and registration of treaties and with the invalidity and termination of treaties.

The 16 draft articles on Special Missions covered only the first part of the subject and, in particular, the establishment, operation and termination of Special Missions. The second part of the project, concerning the privileges and immunities of Special Missions and their members, is to be dealt with at a subsequent session.

The sixteenth session also considered its programme of work and the organization of its future sessions. In this regard, it indicated that it hoped to complete the study of the Law of Treaties and of Special Missions before 1966 and then to give priority to its work on relations between states and inter-governmental organizations, on which it has begun a preliminary study. The Commission also expressed its belief that, by 1966, it would be essential for it to have a four-week winter session in order to provide the minimum time necessary for completion of the heavy programme of work it would then have to deal with.

Outer Space

The Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space was established in 1958 by the General Assembly and reconstituted in 1961 to review the area of international co-operation in this field, to examine the possibility of outer-space programmes being undertaken under United Nations auspices and to study the nature of legal problems that might arise from the exploration of outer space. Canada has been a member since the Committee was set up.

The Committee held its sixth session in October and November 1964 and, in its report, made several recommendations concerning the exchange of information, the convening in 1967 of an international conference on outer space, the encouragement of international programmes in space com-

munication and space meteorology, international sounding-rocket launching facilities, the potentially harmful effects of space experiments and the updating of studies on national and international space activities. It reported progress on draft international conventions on liability for damage caused by space vehicles and on assistance to and return of astronauts and space vehicles, and noted that it had continued to receive information from the United States and the Soviet Union concerning vehicles they had put into outer space. In November 1964, these two countries submitted a second memorandum of understanding on the implementation of the sections of the Bilateral Space Agreement of June 1962, dealing with the co-ordinated meteorological satellites programme and world magnetic survey using satellites. This represents encouraging evidence of continuing co-operation between the two space powers.

Early in 1964, Canada participated in negotiations between the United States, the countries of Western Europe, Australia and Japan to establish an international system of satellite communications and, in July 1964, signed two agreements establishing interim, technical and financial arrangements for such a system. In 1964, Canada also signed an agreement with the United States for a multi-satellite upper-atmosphere research programme.

Canadian Participation in the United Nations

1. Canadian Membership on Main United Nations Councils, Standing Committees, and Selected Subsidiary and Ad Hoc Bodies, 1945-1967

(January 1965)

Year	Subsidiary and Ad Hoc Bodies															
	Security Council	Economic and Social Council	ICJ (a)	UNEF Advisory Cttee (b)	Congo Advisory Cttee (b)	UNSCLEAR (b)	Outer Space (b)	Scientific Advisory Cttee (b)	UNHCR Exec Cttee	ILC (a)	UN-FAO World Food Programme Int'l-Govt'l Cttee	Working Group of 21 (h)	Special Cttee on Peace-keeping Operations (b)	ICY Cttee	Trade and Development Board	Committee on Contributions (a)
1945	(c)		(c)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	(c)
1946	-	x(c)	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	(c)	-	-	-	-	-	-
1947	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1948	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1949	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1950	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1951	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1952	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1953	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1954	-	-	x	-	-	-	x(c)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1955	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1956	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1957	x	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	x(d)	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1958	x	x	x	-	-	-	(e)	x(c)	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1959	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1960	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1961	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1962	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
1963	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	x(f)	-	-	-	-	-	x
1964	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	x	x(c)	-	-	-	-	x
1965	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x(c)
1966	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
1967	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x

(a) Members of executive bodies elected as individuals on the basis of personal qualifications and not as representatives of member states.
 (b) Members appointed for an indefinite period.
 (c) Established as a UN body.
 (d) United Nations Refugee Fund Executive Committee discontinued on December 31, 1957, and United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees Executive Committee on Peaceful Uses of Outer Space is a successor to an *ad hoc* Committee established in 1958; Canada was a member of the *ad hoc* Committee.
 (e) Mr. Marcel Cadieux, Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs, elected for a five-year term, January 1962 to December 1966.
 (f) Ceased to exist.
 (g) Began as the Working Group of 15 on the Examination of Administrative and Budgetary Procedures of the United Nations; expanded in 1962 to 21 members.
 (h) Canada also belongs to the Disarmament Commission and the Committee for the Review of the Charter. Since these are committees-of-the-whole, they have not been listed above.

(January 1965)

2. Canadian Membership on ECOSOC, Functional Commissions, and Selected Standing Committees and Special Bodies, 1945-1967

	ECOSOC Functional Commissions							ECOSOC Standing Committee				ECOSOC Special Bodies				ECLA (d)	
	ECOSOC	Statistical	Population	International Commodity Trade	Narcotic Drugs (c)	Social *	Status of Women *	Human Rights *	TAC *	Cttee on NGOs	Cttee for Industrial Development	Cttee on Housing Building & Planning	Special Crite on Co-ordination	DSB	UNICEF Exec Board (g)		Govern- ing Council Special Fund*
1945	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1946	x(e)	(e)	(e)	-	x(e)	(e)	(e)	(e)	-	-	-	-	-	(e)	x(e)	-	-
1947	x	x	x	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1948	x	x	x	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-
1949	-	x	x	-	x	x	-	-	(e)	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	(f)
1950	x	-	x	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1951	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1952	x	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1953	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1954	-	x	x	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1955	-	x	x	(e)	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1956	x	x(a)	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1957	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1958	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1959	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
1960	-	-	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	(e)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1961	-	-	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x(C)
1962	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x
1963	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	(e)	-	-	x	x	-	x
1964	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	x
1965	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	x
1966	x	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	x
1967	x	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	x

* Terms of office expire on December 31.

(a) Since 1955, term of office is four years instead of three for the Population, Statistical, and Social Commissions.

(b) Four-year term 1947-50, and three-year term 1951-53.

(c) For an indefinite period.

(d) No executive body.

(e) Canadian membership.

(f) Established as a UN body.

(g) Established.

(h) By virtue of Social Commission membership (1951-53); but this procedure was revised by eleventh session of UNGA (see "Canada and the United Nations, 1956-57", Page 60).

(i) Terminated.

3. Canadian Membership on Executive Bodies of United Nations Specialized Agencies, GATT and IAEA, 1945-1967

(January 1965)

	Specialized Agencies													GATT Council of Reps	IAEA Board of Governors	
	FAO Council	IBRD Executive Directors	ICAO Council	IDA Executive Directors	IFC Board of Directors	ILO Govern ing Body (a)	IMCO Council	IMF Exec Board	ITU Admin Council	UNESCO Exec Board	UPU Exec Council	WHO Exec Board	WMO Exec Ctee			
1945	x(C)(e)	x(C)(e)	*	-	-	*	-	x(C)(e)	x(C)(e)	*	(h)	-	-	-	-	-
1946	x	x	-	-	-	x(C)(e)	-	x	x	-	x(C)(e)	-	-	-	-	-
1947	x	x	x(C)(e)	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	(C)(g)	-
1948	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x(b)	-
1949	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1950	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1951	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1952	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1953	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1954	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1955	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1956	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1957	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1958	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x(C)(g)	-
1959	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1960	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1961	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1962	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x(d)	-
1963	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1964	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1965	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1966	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
1967	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-

(a) Elected as a state of "chief industrial importance".

(b) Member of Executive Committee of Interim Commission of International Trade Organization, 1948-53.

(c) Date of Canadian membership in the organization.

(d) Council established in 1960, composed of representatives of any member states wishing to participate.

(e) Established as a UN Specialized Agency.

(f) Executive Committee of Interim Commission of ITO terminated in 1953.

(g) Established.

(h) Until 1954, members of executive body elected as individuals on personal qualifications and not as representatives of member states.

*Canadian membership in the organization prior to its UN affiliation.

4. Canadian Contributions to the United Nations Common System in 1964

	Percentage Assessment	Contribution (Cdn \$)
(a) <i>United Nations</i>		
i. Regular Budget	3.12	2,730,031
ii Special Accounts		
UNEF a) assessed	3.12	596,482
b) voluntary	N/A	92,880
ONUC a) assessed ¹	3.12	504,361
b) voluntary	N/A	97,200
UNFICYP ²	N/A	4,971,500
Congo Civilian Fund	"	500,000
UNRWA		
a) (cash)	"	500,000
b) (wheat flour)	"	500,000
World Food Programme		
a) (cash)	"	602,350
b) (commodities)	"	994,400
UNHCR	"	290,000
EPTA	"	2,325,000
Special Fund	"	5,000,000
UNICEF	"	800,000
(b) <i>Specialized Agencies & IAEA</i>		
ILO	3.39	595,278
FAO a) regular budget	4.18	796,688
b) voluntary programmes	N/A	5,000
WHO	2.85	1,060,338
UNESCO	2.98	611,673
ICAO	4.55	219,309
ITU	3.28	127,800
WMO	2.63	32,262
IMCO	1.64	10,082
UPU	2.69	29,480
IDA	N/A	7,872,620
IBRD } ³		
IFC }		
IMF }		
IAEA a) regular budget	2.89	201,914
b) operational budget	N/A	62,208
(c) <i>Related Organizations</i>		
ICEM ⁴	N/A	60,000
International Committee of the Red Cross	"	15,000
United Nations Association in Canada	"	12,000

¹January 1, 1964, to June 30, 1964.

²Estimated — Canada pays all costs of maintaining its contingent in Cyprus but recovers from the United Nations the out-of-pocket expenses of Canadian personnel at Nicosia zone and UNFICYP headquarters. The figure cited above does not include salaries and similar costs that Canada would have had to pay if the personnel had remained in Canada.

³Canada has paid in full its subscriptions to these organizations and was not required, therefore, to make payments in 1964. It is expected, however, that additional subscriptions will be made to the IBRD and IMF in 1965 as a result of the general review of quotas in the IMF that was authorized by its Board of Governors at the annual meeting in Tokyo in 1964.

⁴Canada withdrew from the ICEM in 1962, but has continued to make an annual grant for the transportation of refugees.

5. Canadian Delegation to the Nineteenth Session of the General Assembly - 1964-1965

- Chairman :** The Honourable Paul Martin, Secretary of State for External Affairs
- Vice-Chairman :** Mr. Paul Tremblay, Permanent Representative of Canada to the United Nations
- Representatives :** Dr. Stanley Haidasz, Parliamentary Secretary to the Secretary of State for External Affairs
- The Honourable Eric Cook, Member of the Senate of Canada
- Mrs. Saul Hayes, Former President of the National Council of Women of Canada
- Mr. John Wintermeyer, Former Leader of the Opposition in the Legislative Assembly of Ontario
- Dr. Frank Morley, Editor-in-Chief, *The Lethbridge Herald*
- Mr. Joseph A. Habel, Member of Parliament for Cochrane
- Mr. Chester A. Ronning, Former High Commissioner of Canada to India
- Mr. M. H. Wershof, Assistant Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs
- Special Adviser :** Lieutenant-General E. L. M. Burns, Adviser to the Canadian Government on Disarmament
- Parliamentary Observers :** The Honourable Rhéal Bélisle, Member of the Senate
- Mr. Andrew Brewin, Member of Parliament for Greenwood
- Mr. Jean Berger, Member of Parliament for Montmagny-L'Islet
- Mr. Maurice Côté, Member of Parliament for Chicoutimi
- Mr. Walter F. Foy, Member of Parliament for Lambton West
- Mr. Raynald Guay, Member of Parliament for Lévis
- Mrs. Eloise M. Jones, Member of Parliament for Saskatoon
- The Honourable J. J. Kinley, Member of the Senate
- Mr. Gérard Laprise, Member of Parliament for Chapleau

Mr. Marcel Lessard, Member of Parliament for Lac St. Jean

Mr. George R. Muir, Member of Parliament for Lisgar

Mr. Wallace B. Nesbitt, Member of Parliament for Oxford

Mr. David Orlikow, Member of Parliament for Winnipeg North

Mr. Alexander B. Patterson, Member of Parliament for Fraser Valley

Mr. Gerald A. Regan, Member of Parliament for Halifax

Honourable J.-T. Ricard, Member of Parliament for St-Hyacinthe-Bagot

Appendix II

Membership of the United Nations and Composition of its Principal Bodies

1. Membership of the United Nations and Related Agencies

COUNTRY	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO	UNESCO	WHO	IBRD	IFC	IDA	IMF	ICAO	ITU	UPU	WMO	IMCO	GATT
Afghanistan.....	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		-
Albania.....	X	X	X	-	X	X	-	-	X	-	X	X	X	X	-	-
Algeria.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Argentina.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Australia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Austria.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Belgium.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Bolivia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Brazil.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Britain.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Bulgaria.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Burma.....	X	X	X	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Burundi.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Byelorussia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Cambodia.....	X	X	X	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Cameroun.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Canada.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Central African Republic...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ceylon.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Chad.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Chile.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
China.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Colombia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Congo (Brazzaville).....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Congo (Leopoldville).....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Costa Rica.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cuba.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cyprus.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Czechoslovakia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Dahomey.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

1. Membership of the United Nations and Related Agencies (Cont'd)

COUNTRY	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO	UNESCO	WHO	IBRD	IFC	IDA	IMF	ICAO	ITU	UPU	WMO	IMCO	GATT
Denmark.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Dominican Republic.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ecuador.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
El Salvador.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ethiopia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Federal Republic of Germany	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Finland.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
France.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Gabon.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ghana.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Greece.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Guatemala.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Guinea.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Haiti.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Holy See.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Honduras.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Hungary.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Iceland.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
India.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Indonesia ¹⁰	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Iran.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Iraq.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ireland.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Israel.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Italy.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ivory Coast.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Jamaica.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Japan.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Jordan.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Kenya.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Kuwait.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Laos.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

1. Membership of the United Nations and Related Agencies (Cont'd)

COUNTRY	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO	UNESCO	WHO	IBRD	IFC	IDA	IMF	ICAO	ITU	UPU	WMO	IMCO	GATT
Somalia.....	X	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	-
South Africa.....	X	X	X	-	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Spain.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sudan.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sweden.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Switzerland.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-
Syria.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-
Thailand.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Togo.....	X	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Trinidad and Tobago.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Tunisia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Turkey.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Uganda.....	X	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ukraine.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-
USSR.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
United Arab Republic.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
United Republic of Tanzania.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
United States.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Upper Volta.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Uruguay.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Venezuela.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Western Samoa.....	X	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-
Yemen.....	X	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
Yugoslavia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Zambia.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
TOTALS	115	89	112	107	118	120	102	78	94	102	107	124	126	124	58	64
	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO ²	UNESCO ²	WHO ¹	IBRD	IFC	IDA	IMF	ICAO	ITU ⁴	UPU ⁵	WMO ⁷	IMCO	GATT

¹Associate member.

²FAO has 2 associate members: British Guiana, Mauritius.

³UNESCO has 3 associate members: British Eastern Caribbean Group, Mauritius, Qatar.

⁴WHO has 3 associate members: Mauritius, Qatar, Southern Rhodesia. One former associate member which is now an independent state — Malawi — has not yet become a full member.

⁵The 124 members of ITU include the following not listed above: Rhodesia; group of territories represented by the French Overseas Post and Telecommunication Agency; overseas territories for the international relations of which the Government of Britain is responsible; Portuguese overseas provinces; Spanish provinces in Africa; territories of the United States.

⁶The 126 members of UPU include the following not listed above: Netherlands Antilles and Surinam; Portuguese provinces in West Africa; Portuguese provinces in East Africa, Asia and Oceania; Spanish territories in Africa; overseas territories for the international relations of which the Government of Britain is responsible; whole of the territories represented by the French Office of Overseas Posts and Telecommunications; whole of the territories of the United States, including the trust territory of the Pacific Islands.

⁷The 124 members of WMO include 110 states and 12 territories maintaining their own meteorological services. Besides those listed above, the members are: British Caribbean territories and British Guiana; French Polynesia; French Somaliland; Hong Kong; Mauritius; Netherlands Antilles; New Caledonia; Portuguese East Africa; Portuguese West Africa; Rhodesia; Spanish Territories in Guinea; Surinam.

⁸The 64 Contracting Parties to GATT include Rhodesia, not listed above. An additional 14 countries, marked 8 in the tabular listing, have the following forms of special relationship: Acceded provisionally: Argentina, Iceland, Switzerland, Tunisia, United Arab Republic, Yugoslavia; participating under special arrangements: Cambodia, Poland; applying GATT *de facto* pending final decision as to their future commercial policy: Algeria, Burundi, Congo (Leopoldville), Mali, Rwanda, Zambia.

⁹The Government of South Africa notified ILO on March 11, 1964, of its decision to withdraw from the Organization.

¹⁰On January 21, 1965, the Permanent Representative of Indonesia, Lambertus M. Palar, handed to the Secretary-General, U Thant, a letter from his Foreign Minister, Dr. Subandrio, stating that Indonesia had withdrawn from the United Nations and "from specialized agencies like the FAO, UNICEF and UNESCO".

2. Dates of Admission of United Nations Members

<i>Country</i>	<i>Date of Admission</i>		<i>Country</i>	<i>Date of Admission</i>	
Argentina	Oct.	24, 1945	Israel	May	11, 1949
Australia	"	" "	Indonesia	Sept.	28, 1950
Belgium	"	" "	Albania	Dec.	14, 1955
Britain	"	" "	Austria	"	" "
Bolivia	"	" "	Bulgaria	"	" "
Brazil	"	" "	Cambodia	"	" "
Byelorussian S.S.R.	"	" "	Ceylon	"	" "
Canada	"	" "	Finland	"	" "
Chile	"	" "	Hungary	"	" "
China	"	" "	Ireland	"	" "
Colombia	"	" "	Italy	"	" "
Costa Rica	"	" "	Jordan	"	" "
Cuba	"	" "	Laos	"	" "
Czechoslovakia	"	" "	Libya	"	" "
Denmark	"	" "	Nepal	"	" "
Dominican Republic ..	"	" "	Portugal	"	" "
Ecuador	"	" "	Roumania	"	" "
El Salvador	"	" "	Spain	"	" "
Ethiopia	"	" "	Morocco	Nov.	12, 1956
France	"	" "	Tunisia	"	" "
Greece	"	" "	Sudan	"	" "
Guatemala	"	" "	Japan	Dec.	18, 1956
Haiti	"	" "	Ghana	March	8, 1957
Honduras	"	" "	Malaysia, Federation of ³	Sept.	17, 1957
India	"	" "	Guinea	Dec.	12, 1958
Iran	"	" "	Cameroun	Sept.	20, 1960
Iraq	"	" "	Central African Repub.	"	" "
Lebanon	"	" "	Chad	"	" "
Liberia	"	" "	Congo (Brazzaville) ..	"	" "
Luxembourg	"	" "	Congo (Leopoldville)..	"	" "
Mexico	"	" "	Cyprus	"	" "
Netherlands	"	" "	Dahomey	"	" "
New Zealand	"	" "	Gabon	"	" "
Nicaragua	"	" "	Ivory Coast	"	" "
Norway	"	" "	Madagascar	"	" "
Panama	"	" "	Niger	"	" "
Paraguay	"	" "	Somalia	"	" "
Peru	"	" "	Togo	"	" "
Philippines	"	" "	Upper Volta	"	" "
Poland ¹	"	" "	Mali	Sept.	29, 1960
Saudi Arabia	"	" "	Senegal	"	" "
Syria ²	"	" "	Nigeria	Oct.	7, 1960
Turkey	"	" "	Sierre Leone	Sept.	27, 1961
Ukrainian S.S.R.	"	" "	Mauritania	Oct.	27, 1961
Union of South Africa	"	" "	Mongolia	"	" "
U.S.S.R.	"	" "	Un. Rep. of Tanzania ⁴	Nov.	14, 1961
United Arab Republic	"	" "	Burundi	Sept.	18, 1962
United States of Amer.	"	" "	Jamaica	"	" "
Uruguay	"	" "	Rwanda	"	" "
Venezuela	"	" "	Trinidad and Tobago ..	"	" "
Yugoslavia	"	" "	Algeria	Oct.	8, 1962
Afghanistan	Nov.	19, 1946	Uganda	Oct.	25, 1962
Iceland	"	" "			

<i>Country</i>	<i>Date of Admission</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Date of Admission</i>
Kuwait	May 14, 1963	Burma	March 19, 1948
Sweden	" " "	Kenya	Dec. 16, 1963
Thailand	" " "	Malawi	Dec. 1, 1964
Pakistan	Sept. 30, 1947	Malta	" " "
Yemen	" " "	Zambia	" " "

¹Although Poland was not represented at San Francisco, it was subsequently agreed that it should sign the Charter as an original member.

²Syria was an original member of the United Nations but on February 21, 1958, joined with Egypt to form the United Arab Republic, with one seat in the Organization. Syria resumed its separate membership on October 13, 1961.

³Malaya became Malaysia on September 16, 1963, when Singapore, Sabah and Sarawak joined the Federation.

⁴Tanganyika was a member of the United Nations from 14 December 1961 and Zanzibar from 16 December 1963. Following the ratification, on 26 April 1964, of Articles of Union between Tanganyika and Zanzibar, the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar continued as a single member of the United Nations, later changing its name to the United Republic of Tanzania.

3. Security Council — Non-Permanent Members, 1946-1965

1946	Australia	Brazil	Mexico	Netherlands	Poland	Egypt	1946
1947	Australia	Brazil	Colombia	Belgium	Poland	Syria	1947
1948	Canada	Argentina	Colombia	Belgium	Ukraine	Syria	1948
1949	Canada	Argentina	Cuba	Norway	Ukraine	Egypt	1949
1950	India	Ecuador	Cuba	Norway	Yugoslavia	Egypt	1950
1951	India	Ecuador	Brazil	Netherlands	Yugoslavia	Turkey	1951
1952	Pakistan	Chile	Brazil	Netherlands	Greece	Turkey	1952
1953	Pakistan	Chile	Colombia	Denmark	Greece	Lebanon	1953
1954	New Zealand	Brazil	Colombia	Denmark	Turkey	Lebanon	1954
1955	New Zealand	Brazil	Peru	Belgium	Turkey	Iran	1955
1956	Australia	Cuba	Peru	Belgium	Yugoslavia	Iran	1956
1957	Australia	Cuba	Colombia	Sweden	Philippines	Iraq	1957
1958	Canada	Panama	Colombia	Sweden	Japan	Iraq	1958
1959	Canada	Panama	Argentina	Italy	Japan	Tunisia	1959
1960	Ceylon	Ecuador	Argentina	Italy	Poland	Tunisia	1960
1961	Ceylon	Ecuador	Chile	Liberia	Turkey	U.A.R.	1961
1962	Ghana	Venezuela	Chile	Ireland	Roumania	U.A.R.	1962
1963	Ghana	Venezuela	Brazil	Norway	Philippines	Morocco	1963
1964	Czechoslovakia	Bolivia	Brazil	Norway	Ivory Coast	Morocco	1964
1965	Malaysia	Bolivia	Uruguay	Netherlands	Ivory Coast	Jordan	1965

5. Membership of the Trusteeship Council 1947-1965

	1947	'48	'49	'50	'51	'52	'53	'54	'55	'56	'57	'58	'59	'60	'61	'62	'63	'64	'65
COMMONWEALTH																			
Australia ¹	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Great Britain ¹	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
India	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
New Zealand ¹	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
EASTERN EUROPE																			
U.S.S.R. ²	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
WESTERN EUROPE																			
Belgium	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
France ²	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Italy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
AFRICA-ASIA																			
Burma	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
China ²	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Iraq	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Liberia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Philippines	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Syria ³	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Thailand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
United Arab Republic ³	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
AMERICA																			
Argentina	-	-	-	x	x ⁴	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Costa Rica	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	-	-	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
El Salvador	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Guatemala	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Haiti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mexico	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Paraguay	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
United States ¹	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

¹Administering power. The United States, before the approval of the Trusteeship Agreement for the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, participated as a permanent member of the Security Council. It is now an administering power.

²Permanent member of the Security Council.

³Syria was elected to the Council in 1953; before the establishment of the United Arab Republic, Egypt had not been a member.

⁴Resigned.

6. International Court of Justice

<i>Name</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Term Ends</i>
Abdel Hamid Badawi	United Arab Republic	1967
José Luis Bustamante y Rivero	Peru	1970
Sir Gerald Fitzmaurice	Britain	1964
Isaac Forster	Senegal	1973
André Gros	France	1973
Phillip C. Jessup	United States	1970
Muhammed Zafrulla Khan	Pakistan	1973
V. K. Wellington Koo	China	1967
Vladimir M. Koretsky	U.S.S.R.	1970
Gaetano Morelli	Italy	1970
Luis Padilla Nervo	Mexico	1973
Sir Percy Spender	Australia	1967
Jean Spiropoulos	Greece	1967
Kotaro Tanaka	Japan	1970
Bohdan Winiarski	Poland	1967

President of the Court : Judge Sir Percy Spender

Vice-President of the Court : Judge Wellington Koo

Registrar of the Court : Jean Garnier-Coignet

Deputy Registrar : S.R.A. Aquarone

7. Secretariat

U Thant — *Secretary General*

Principal Advisers to the Secretary-General :

Godfrey K. J. Amachree (Nigeria)

Vladimir P. Suslov (USSR)

Ralph J. Bunche (United States)

Philippe de Seynes (France)

Ibrahim Helmi Abdel-Rahman (United Arab Republic)

Chakravarthi V. Narasimhan (India)

Jiri Nosek (Czechoslovakia)

Hernane Tavares de Sa (Brazil)

Offices of the Secretary-General :

Chef de Cabinet : Chakravarthi V. Narasimhan (India)

Under-Secretaries for Special Political Affairs :

Ralph J. Bunche (United States)

José Rolz-Bennett (Guatemala)

Legal Counsel : Constantin A. Stavropoulos (Greece)

Controller : Bruce R. Turner (New Zealand)

Director of Personnel : Sir Alexander MacFarquhar (Britain)

Military Adviser : Major-General I. J. Rikhye (India)

Other Departments and Offices :

HEADQUARTERS

- Under-Secretary for General Assembly Affairs :
Chakravarthi V. Narasimhan (India)
- Under-Secretary for Political and Security Council Affairs :
Vladimir P. Suslov (USSR)
- Under-Secretary for Economic and Social Affairs :
Philippe de Seynes (France)
- Under-Secretary for Trusteeship and Information from
Non-Self-Governing Territories :
Godfrey K. J. Amachree (Nigeria)
- Under-Secretary for Public Information :
Hernane Tavares de Sa (Brazil)
- Under-Secretary for Conference Services :
Jiri Nosek (Czechoslovakia)
- Commissioner for Technical Assistance :
Victor Hoo (China)
- Director of General Services :
David B. Vaughan (United States)
- Commissioner for Industrial Development :
Ibrahim Helmi Abdel-Rahman (United Arab Republic)

OVERSEAS

- Director of United Nations Offices in Geneva :
Pier P. Spinelli (Italy)
- Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Europe :
Vladimir Velebit (Yugoslavia)
- Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East :
U Nyun (Burma)
- Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Latin America :
José Antonio Mayobre (Venezuela)
- Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Africa :
Robert Gardiner (Ghana)

¹U Thant (Burma) was unanimously elected Secretary-General on November 30, 1962, for a term of office lasting until November 3, 1966, after acting in that capacity since November 3, 1961. He succeeded Dag Hammarskjöld (Sweden), who served as Secretary-General from April 10, 1953, until his death on September 18, 1961. The first Secretary-General was Trygve Lie (Norway), who served from February 1, 1946, to April 9, 1953.

8. Selected Committees and Other Bodies

- (1) *Special Committee of Twenty-four on the Situation with Regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples*

Australia	Iran	Syria
Britain	Iraq	Tanzania
Bulgaria	Italy	Tunisia
Cambodia	Ivory Coast	USSR
Chile	Madagascar	United States
Denmark	Mali	Uruguay
Ethiopia	Poland	Venezuela
India	Sierra Leone	Yugoslavia

- (2) *United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation*
- | | | |
|-----------|----------------|----------------------|
| Argentina | Canada | Mexico |
| Australia | Czechoslovakia | Sweden |
| Belgium | France | USSR |
| Brazil | India | United Arab Republic |
| Britain | Japan | United States |
- (3) *Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space*
- | | | |
|-----------|----------------|----------------------|
| Albania | Czechoslovakia | Morocco |
| Argentina | France | Poland |
| Australia | Hungary | Roumania |
| Austria | India | Sierra Leone |
| Belgium | Iran | Sweden |
| Brazil | Italy | USSR |
| Britain | Japan | United Arab Republic |
| Bulgaria | Lebanon | United States |
| Canada | Mexico | |
| Chad | Mongolia | |
- (4) *Special Fund Governing Council*
- | | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|---------------|
| Argentina | India | Poland |
| Brazil | Indonesia ¹ | Senegal |
| Britain | Italy | Sweden |
| Canada | Japan | Tunisia |
| Denmark | Mexico | USSR |
| Germany,
Federal Republic of | Nepal | United States |
| France | Netherlands | Uruguay |
| Ghana | Norway | |
| | Philippines | |
- (5) *Trade and Development Board*
- | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|
| Afghanistan | Ethiopia | Netherlands |
| Argentina | France | New Zealand |
| Australia | Germany,
Federal Republic of | Nigeria |
| Austria | Ghana | Norway |
| Belgium | Guinea | Pakistan |
| Bolivia | Honduras | Philippines |
| Brazil | Hungary | Poland |
| Britain | India | Roumania |
| Bulgaria | Indonesia ¹ | Spain |
| Cameroun | Iran | Sweden |
| Canada | Iraq | Switzerland |
| Ceylon | Italy | Tanzania |
| Chile | Japan | Turkey |
| Congo (Leopoldville) | Lebanon | United Arab Republic |
| Czechoslovakia | Madagascar | United States |
| Dahomey | Mali | USSR |
| Denmark | Mexico | Uruguay |
| Ecuador | Morocco | Yugoslavia |
| El Salvador | | |

(6) *Committee on United Nations FAO — World Food Programme*

Argentina	Germany,	Nigeria
Australia	Federal Republic of	Pakistan
Brazil	Ghana	Philippines
Britain	India	Thailand
Canada	Indonesia ¹	United Arab Republic
Colombia	Jamaica	United States
Denmark	Morocco	Uruguay
France	Netherlands	Yugoslavia
	New Zealand	

(7) *Committee for International Co-operation Year*

Argentina	Cyprus	Ireland
Canada	Czechoslovakia	Liberia
Centra African Republic	Finland	Mexico
Ceylon	India	United Arab Republic

(8) *International Law Commission*

Roberto Ago	(Italy)
Gilberto Amado	(Brazil)
Milan Bartos	(Yugoslavia)
Herbert W. Briggs	(United States of America)
Marcel Cadieux	(Canada)
Erik Castren	(Finland)
Abdullah El-Erian	(United Arab Republic)
Taslim O. Elias	(Nigeria)
Eduardo Jimenez de Arechaga	(Uruguay)
Victor Kanga	(Cameroun)
Manfred Lachs	(Poland)
Liu Chieh	(China)
Antonia de Luna	(Spain)
Radhabinod Pal	(India)
Angel M. Paredes	(Ecuador)
Obed Pessou	(Dahomey)
Paul Reuter	(France)
Shabtai Rosenne	(Israel)
José Maria Ruda	(Argentina)
Abdul Hakim Tabibi	(Afghanistan)
Senjin Tsuruoka	(Japan)
Grigory I. Tunkin	(USSR)
Alfred Verdross	(Austria)
Sir Humphrey Waldock	(Britain)
Mustafa Kamil Yasseen	(Iraq)

(9) *Working Group of Twenty-one on the Examination of Administrative and Budgetary Procedures of the United Nations*

Argentina	China	Netherlands
Australia	France	Nigeria
Brazil	India	Pakistan
Britain	Italy	Sweden
Bulgaria	Japan	USSR
Cameroun	Mexico	United Arab Republic
Canada	Mongolia	United States

(10) *Special Committee on Peace-Keeping Operations*

Afghanistan	France	Poland
Algeria	Hungary	Roumania
Argentina	India	Sierra Leone
Australia	Iraq	Spain
Austria	Italy	Sweden
Brazil	Japan	Thailand
Britain	Mauritania	USSR
Canada	Mexico	United Arab Republic
Czechoslovakia	Netherlands	United States
El Salvador	Nigeria	Venezuela
Ethiopia	Pakistan	Yugoslavia

(11) *Eighteen-Nation Disarmament Committee²*

Brazil	Ethiopia	Poland
Britain	France ³	Roumania
Bulgaria	India	Sweden
Burma	Italy	United Arab Republic
Canada	Mexico	United States
Czechoslovakia	Nigeria	USSR

¹Indonesia withdrew from the United Nations in January 1965.

²This Committee is not a United Nations body.

³France is not participating.

Appendix III

United Nations Budgetary Information

1. Budget Estimates of the United Nations for 1965

Section	1965 <i>estimates</i> US \$	1964 <i>appropriations</i> US \$
<i>Sessions, Special Meetings and Conference (Part I)</i>		
1. Travel and other expenses of representatives, members of commissions, committees and other subsidiary bodies	1,258,400	1,207,950
2. Special meetings and conferences	1,653,000	4,012,100
<i>Staff Costs and Related Expenses (Part II)</i>		
3. Salaries and wages	49,519,000	45,267,480
4. Common staff costs	11,309,000	10,374,000
5. Travel of staff	2,085,600	1,989,900
6. Payments under Annex 1, Paras. 2 and 3, of the Staff Regulations, hospitality	125,000	105,000
<i>Buildings, Equipment and Common Services (Part III)</i>		
7. Buildings and improvements to premises	4,834,200	7,458,970
8. Permanent equipment	574,600	528,200
9. Maintenance, operation and rental of premises	3,885,800	3,593,500
10. General expenses	4,806,850	4,004,000
11. Printing	1,555,800	1,424,000
<i>Special Expenses (Part IV)</i>		
12. Special Expenses	9,285,200	7,788,300
<i>Technical Programmes (Part V)</i>		
13. Economic development	} 6,145,000	2,250,000
14. Social activities		2,105,000
16. Public administration		980,000
15. Human rights activities		140,000
17. Narcotic drugs control		75,000
<i>Special Missions and Related Activities (Part VI)</i>		
18. Special missions	2,489,200	2,400,000
19. UN field service	1,547,400	1,525,700
<i>Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (Part VII)</i>		
20. Office of the UNHCR	2,384,400	2,293,500

Section	1965 estimates US \$	1964 appropriations US \$
<i>International Court of Justice (Part VIII)</i>		
21. International Court of Justice	1,010,300	955,000
Total appropriation	104,693,750	101,327,600
Less income, other than staff assessment	6,127,600	5,698,400
Net appropriation	98,566,150	95,629,200
Of which staff assessment is	10,560,000	9,488,400

SOURCE : United Nations Budget Estimates for the Financial Year 1965, Document A/5805 and TAC Draft Report to ECOSOC E/TAC/L.346/Add.2.

¹At the time of going to press, the 1965 budget had not been dealt with by the nineteenth session of the General Assembly.

²On the recommendation of the Technical Assistance Committee, the budget sections under Part V have been grouped into three headings for the 1965 and subsequent estimates. However, the five headings and the relevant section numbers, as given in the 1965 budget estimates, have been retained here because of their applicability to the 1964 appropriations.

2. Proposed Percentage Scale of Assessments for 1965 of the Nineteen Largest Contributors to the United Nations and the Larger Agencies

MEMBER STATE	UN	FAO	ICAO	ILO	UNESCO	WHO	IAEA
United States of America.....	31.91	32.02	31.80	25.00	30.00	31.29	31.84
U.S.S.R.....	14.92	—	—	10.00	14.03	13.57	13.77
Britain.....	7.21	10.09	9.82	9.14	6.78	6.87	6.97
France.....	6.09	7.91	7.01	6.07	5.72	5.38	5.47
Germany, Federal Republic of.....	—	7.59	5.77	4.34	6.97	5.17	5.24
China.....	4.25	—	0.67	2.04	2.25	4.14	4.20
Canada.....	3.17	4.15	4.51	3.36	2.98	2.83	2.87
Japan.....	2.77	3.02	2.33	2.00	2.60	2.06	2.09
Italy.....	2.54	2.98	2.56	2.35	2.39	2.03	2.06
Ukrainian S.S.R.....	1.97	—	—	1.00	1.85	1.79	1.82
India.....	1.85	2.70	2.26	2.91	1.74	1.84	1.87
Australia.....	1.58	2.21	2.39	1.83	1.48	1.50	1.53
Poland.....	1.45	1.70	1.18	1.24	1.36	1.16	1.18
Sweden.....	1.26	1.73	1.63	1.58	1.18	1.18	1.20
Belgium.....	1.15	1.60	1.58	1.35	1.08	1.09	1.10
Czechoslovakia.....	1.11	—	1.10	0.92	1.04	0.94	0.96
Netherlands.....	1.11	1.34	2.33	1.13	1.04	0.92	0.93
Brazil.....	0.95	1.37	1.62	1.32	0.89	0.93	0.95
Argentina.....	0.92	1.34	1.21	1.36	0.86	0.92	0.93
TOTAL.....	86.21	81.75	79.77	78.94	86.24	85.61	86.98

Source: Report of the Advisory Committee (ACABQ) on Administrative and Budgetary Questions, Document A/5859 of January 25, 1965.

A dash indicates that a state is not a member.

Appendix IV

Presidents of the General Assembly

First Regular Session, 1946	Paul-Henri Spaak (Belgium)
First Special Session, 1947	Oswaldo Aranha (Brazil)
Second Regular Session, 1947	Oswaldo Aranha (Brazil)
Second Special Session, 1948	José Arce (Argentina)
Third Regular Session, 1948-49	H. V. Evatt (Australia)
Fourth Regular Session, 1949	Carlos P. Romulo (Philippines)
Fifth Regular Session, 1950-51	Nasrollah Entezam (Iran)
Sixth Regular Session, 1951-52	Luis Padilla Nervo (Mexico)
Seventh Regular Session, 1952-53	Lester B. Pearson (Canada)
Eighth Regular Session, 1953	Mrs. Vijaya Lakshmi Pandit (India)
Ninth Regular Session, 1954	Eelco N. van Kleffens (Netherlands)
Tenth Regular Session, 1955	José Maza (Chile)
First Emergency Special Session, 1956	Rudecindo Ortega (Chile)
Second Emergency Special Session, 1956	Rudecindo Ortega (Chile)
Eleventh Regular Session, 1956-57	Prince Wan Waithayakon (Thailand)
Twelfth Regular Session, 1957	Sir Leslie Munro (New Zealand)
Third Emergency Special Session, 1958	Sir Leslie Munro (New Zealand)
Thirteenth Regular Session, 1958	Charles Malik (Lebanon)
Fourteenth Regular Session, 1959	V. A. Belaunde (Peru)
Fourth Emergency Special Session, 1960	V. A. Belaunde (Peru)
Fifteenth Regular Session, 1960	Frederick Boland (Ireland)
Third Special Session, 1961	Frederick Boland (Ireland)
Sixteenth Regular Session, 1961	Mongi Slim (Tunisia)
Seventeenth Regular Session, 1962	Muhammad Zafrulla Khan (Pakistan)
Fourth Special Session, 1963	Muhammad Zafrulla Khan (Pakistan)
Eighteenth Regular Session, 1963	Carlos Sosa-Rodriguez (Venezuela)
Nineteenth Regular Session, 1964-1965	Alex Quaison-Sackey (Ghana)

Appendix V

Addresses, Documents and Publications

1. Addresses of the United Nations, the Specialized Agencies and IAEA

United Nations Headquarters, New York 17, New York

Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)

Headquarters : Viale delle Terme di Caracalla, Rome, Italy

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)

Headquarters : 1818 H Street NW, Washington 25, D.C.

New York Office : Federal Reserve Bank Building,
33 Liberty Street, Room 518,
New York 5, N.Y.

International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)

Headquarters : International Aviation Building,
1080 University Street, Montreal 3,
Quebec, Canada

International Development Association (IDA)

Headquarters : 1818 H Street NW, Washington 25, D.C.

International Finance Corporation (IFC)

Headquarters : 1818 H Street NW, Washington 25, D.C.

International Labour Organization (ILO)

Headquarters : 154, rue de Lausanne, Geneva, Switzerland
New York Office : 345 East 46th Street, New York 17, N.Y.

Inter-governmental Maritime Consultative Organization (IMCO)

Headquarters : Chancery House, Chancery Lane, London, WC 2, England

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

Headquarters : 19th and H Streets, NW, Washington 25, D.C.

International Telecommunication Union (ITU)

Headquarters : Place des Nations, Geneva, Switzerland

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Headquarters : Place de Fontenoy, Paris 7e, France

Universal Postal Union (UPU)

Headquarters : Schosshaldenstrasse 46, Berne 15, Switzerland

World Health Organization (WHO)

Headquarters : Palais des Nations, Geneva, Switzerland

World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

Headquarters : Ave. Giuseppe Motta, Geneva, Switzerland

International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)

Headquarters : Kaerntnerring 11, Vienna 1, Austria

2. United Nations Documents

Printed documents of the United Nations may be obtained in Canada from the following agents : The Queen's Printer, Ottawa, Ontario; The Ryerson Press, 299 Queen St. W., Toronto. Sub-Agents : Book Room Ltd., Chronicle Building, Halifax; McGill University Bookstore, Montreal; Magasin des Etudiants de l'Université de Montréal, Montreal; 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.

Complete sets of United Nations documents may also be consulted at the following centres in Canada :

University of Alberta (English printed documents)

University of British Columbia (English printed and mimeographed documents)

Provincial Library of Manitoba (English printed and mimeographed documents)

University of Toronto (English printed and mimeographed documents)

Library of Parliament, Ottawa (English and French printed documents; also English and French mimeographed documents)

McGill University (English printed documents)

Laval University (French printed documents)

Dalhousie University (English printed documents)

University of Montreal (French printed and mimeographed documents)

University of New Brunswick (English printed documents)

Canadian Institute of International Affairs, Toronto (English printed and mimeographed documents)

Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario.

The United Nations Association in Canada, 329 Bloor Street West, Toronto, operates an unofficial United Nations information service. Questions about the United Nations are answered; some informational materials on the United Nations are available free of charge on request, and the larger publications and pamphlets on the United Nations and its work are available at reasonable prices. Price lists enumerating the publications available can be obtained on request.

3. Publications of the Department of External Affairs

The following is a list of publications relating to the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies issued by the Department of External Affairs during the period reviewed by this work of reference :

1. *Canada and the United Nations*

The following issues are available from the Queen's Printer, Ottawa, Canada, in English and French unless otherwise indicated for 75 cents a copy in Canada, the United States and Mexico; other countries 85 cents: 1947; 1948; 1949; 1950; 1951-52; 1953-54; 1954-55 (English only); 1956-57; 1958 (English only); 1960; 1961; 1962; 1963.

2. *External Affairs*

Monthly Bulletin of the Department of External Affairs. Obtainable from the Queen's Printer, Ottawa; annual subscription, Canada, the United States, and Mexico, \$2.00 a year; students in Canada \$1.00; other countries, \$2.50. Special articles on subjects relating to the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies appear from time to time.

3. *Statements and Speeches*

Obtainable from the Information Division, Department of External Affairs, Ottawa :

- 1/64 *Development Aid and World Citizenship* — Hon. Paul Martin, Advertising and Sales Club, Hamilton, January 6, 1964.
- 3/64 *The UN Conference on Trade and Development* — Hon. Paul Martin, UNCTD, Geneva, March 24, 1964.
- 4/64 *UN Peace-Keeping Operations in Cyprus* — Hon. Paul Martin, Canadian Club, Brantford, March 19, 1964.
- 5/64 *Role of the UN in Maintaining Peace and Security* — Hon. Paul Martin, CIIA-UN Association, London, Ont., March 12, 1964.
- 6/64 *Canada at the Geneva Disarmament Table* — Hon. Paul Martin, ENDC, Geneva, March 26, 1964.
- 7/64 *The UN in an Era of Limited Peace* — Hon. Paul Martin, Empire Club, Toronto, April 2, 1964.
- 11/64 *Cyprus* — Hon. Paul Martin, UN Association, Ottawa, May 4, 1964.
- 12/64 *Keeping the Peace* — Hon. L. B. Pearson, Carleton University, Ottawa, May 7, 1964.
- 14/64 *Diplomacy for Peace* — Hon. Paul Martin, Wayne State University, Detroit, June 18, 1964.
- 20/64 *Canadian Foreign Policy and the Future of the Western Alliance* — Hon. Paul Martin, Atlantic Treaty Association, Ottawa, September 15, 1964.
- 25/64 *Some Reflections on the Twentieth Year of the United Nations* — Hon. Paul Martin, UN Association, Pittsburg, October 20, 1964.
- 26/64 *Education for Responsibility* — Hon. Paul Martin, Loyola University, Los Angeles, October 22, 1964.
- 29/64 *Peace Keeping* — Hon. Paul Martin, Meeting of Military Experts on UN Peace-Keeping Operations, Ottawa, November 5, 1964.
- 30/64 *Peace Keeping* — Hon. L. B. Pearson, Meeting of Military Experts on UN Peace-Keeping Operations, Ottawa, November 2, 1964.
- 32/64 *Peace Keeping; Some Prospects and Perspectives* — Hon. Paul Martin, McGill University, Montreal, November 21, 1964.
- 35/64 *Canada and the United Nations* — Hon. Paul Martin, Nineteenth Session of the General Assembly, New York, December 8, 1964.
- 36/64 *Canada and the International Situation* — Hon. Paul Martin, Interview given to *Le Devoir*, December 23, 1964.

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