

RESTRICTED

SECRET
1953



United Nations
Technical Assistance Programme

*Community Development Programmes in Greece
with Special Consideration of
Welfare through Employment
(Pronoia dia tis Ergassias)*

NEW YORK 1953

1007

*Community Development Programmes in Greece
with Special Consideration of Welfare through Employment
(Pronoia dia tis Ergassias)*

A report prepared for the Technical Assistance Administration of the United Nations

by Mr. PAUL H. GUENAULT and Mr. HOWARD W. BEERS

ST/TAA/R.1
10 December 1952

This report is one of a series of reports by experts submitted to governments in receipt of expert advice under the Technical Assistance Programme. Reports in this series are for the restricted information of the government concerned and of officials and experts of the United Nations and Specialized Agencies and are not made available to other governments or the public.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Many agencies and persons have helped in many ways to expedite our work during the brief time set for this observation and report. We appreciate the cordial and cooperative reception by Mr. Michael Coutos, Secretary General, and Mr. Andreas Psarras, Director General of the Ministry of Social Welfare. We are happy to report that these and other representatives of the Government of Greece extended every possible aid, and were eager to have the mission's work accomplished as successfully as possible. Our chief debt to any single individual has been to Miss Theodora Papaflessa in the Child Welfare Division, who was assigned by the Ministry to work with us. Having a Master's degree from the University of Washington, and with unusual insight concerning the problems and resources of Greece, Miss Papaflessa was more than an interpreter, but became almost a de facto member of the mission. Other members of the Ministry staff who helped are Mr. Demetrios Karademos, who did everything possible to provide statistical materials, and Mr. Marios Raphael, who returned from leave toward the end of our work, but was able to clarify several points for us.

It would have been impossible to complete the two-weeks itinerary which took us into 9 Nomi for study of 22 villages without freely available transport facilities. In this respect we wish to express our gratitude to the field representatives of the Mutual Security Administration with headquarters in Athens, Salonika, Volos and Jannina for so kindly putting their services at our disposal. We wish to acknowledge profitable interviews with several members of the MSA.

The friendly interest of the Near East Foundation staff saw us through several little preliminary difficulties, and in particular offered an haven where our writing could be done, and generous secretarial service in the typing of this report.

Paul H. Guenault

Paul H. Guenault

Howard W. Beers

Howard W. Beers

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
I. INTRODUCTION: THE VARIETIES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT	
PROGRAMMES IN GREECE	1
II. PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN CARRYING OUT THE STUDY	6
III. EVIDENCE FROM THE VILLAGES: A GENERAL REVIEW	10
IV. EVIDENCE FROM THE VILLAGES: ILLUSTRATIVE SITUATIONS	25
V. THE IMPACT OF PRONOIA ERGASSIA ON VILLAGE NEEDS	35
VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	48
<u>APPENDICES:</u>	
A. The Mission's terms of reference	53
B. List of persons interviewed	57
C. Itinerary of field visits	58
D. The Pronoia Ergassia programme: 1948 to 1952	60
E. Statement of progress of the Pronoia Ergassia projects in the villages visited	61
F. Memorandum on related community works programmes	62
G. Report on the community voluntary Labour programme	65

I. INTRODUCTION: THE VARIETIES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN GREECE

Our terms of reference relate to Community Development Employment,

CDE, in Greece.* The official Greek name of the programme is Pronoia diatitiss Ergassias, shortened in documents and in speech to Pronoia Ergassias. Univer-
sally we found English speaking persons - both Greek and American - calling the programme work relief. This confronted us with an initial problem of orientation to terminology, and of examining the appropriateness of terminology to the referent activities. A literal translation of pronoia is welfare, and of ergassias is work or employment. A literal translation of the name of the programme is thus welfare through employment. Pronoia, further refers not directly to communal or general welfare but to preventive welfare measures or protection against conditions in which need might arise. The actual extension of aid to needy persons (social assistance) is antilipsis. The present programme of Pronoia Ergassias is one by which local projects usually of a small-works nature, requiring a minimum of non-labour and skilled labour costs, are carried through by workers who are persons in need and who receive a wage that is lower than the going rate, paid from funds of the Ministry of Welfare.

It was our conclusion that the programme of Pronoia Ergassias is so named and administered, as we found later, as to indicate primarily the objective of relieving the need of underemployed or unemployed individuals, and that while objectives of community development are not absent it seemed to us that they are of lesser importance. In view of this consideration, we have had to choose the literal translation, Welfare through Employment, in the meaning of "the prevention of conditions of need by the provision of employment" (designated W.E. at various points in this report) as more appropriate than either Community Development (CDE) or Work Relief, in discussion of the present programme in Greece.

Recognising that the concern of UNTEAA in W.E. rises from its general interest in community development, we concluded that it would be necessary

* See Appendix A for terms of reference.

to undertake field observations in which we would seek information on all the programmes and methods by which communities undertake developmental projects, or works of general community utility including W.E. and such other programmes as might be discovered.

In orientation to this broadened reference for our mission we examined the characteristics of three other national programmes by means of which local community works are accomplished in Greece. One of these is the strengthening of local government, especially in revenue policies under the Ministry of Finance. Another is named the Voluntary Labour Programme (under the Ministry of Interior), and still another is the Small Agricultural Works Programme (under the Ministry of Agriculture).*

To strengthen local government (in the demes and communes), there has been a return, in Greece, to the procedure of local election. In 1950, for the first time since 1935, each community in Greece elected a council which in turn chose one of its number as president. In addition to this reactivation of the political community there has been instituted an important national revenue change by which the variety of taxes partially returnable to communities is reduced, and a portion of one specified tax (tobacco consumption) reverts to the budgets of the communities if they will apply equal amounts obtained from local taxation, and will apply the funds to community works. As a result, communal councils and presidents are beginning to have revenues to support community enterprises and other costs of local government. The full effects of these developments are not yet clear. (References to community projects supported by community funds make use of the designation C.F. throughout this report).

* See appendix F: Each of these programmes has been or is conducted so far as national financing is involved, under a project agreement between the Government of Greece and the American Mutual Security Administration.

The Voluntary Labour Programme makes available to communities money for non-labour costs of centrally approved projects on condition that the communities arrange to provide what necessary materials they have locally, to accept technical supervision, and to have the work done "voluntarily" by the villagers. The value of the labour thus contributed appears as a regular item of receipts in the community budget. This system elaborates an older law providing for "personal labour" (Prosopiki Ergassia) in turn based on an old and widespread custom in Greece by which a community may call on each able-bodied villager for 10 days annually of "community" work or collect a fee in lieu thereof. We were unable in the time available to trace back any of the several roots said to exist for this programme. Here, too, we encountered a problem of terminology. What the English-speaking people, both Greek and American refer to, is officially "voluntary" labour or "personal" labour. The Greek word prosopiki (personal) seems to bear no special denotation of either voluntariness or involuntariness, and insofar as its application in this programme is concerned, the individual may be required to work ten days or pay to have the work done. Again, under the "voluntary" labour arrangement it would seem that not all persons in a community would be free to decline to work. Perhaps the most distinctive feature of the voluntary and personal labour programmes is that the worker is unpaid. In our community interviews many villagers were unaware of the distinction between the 10 days of personal work which communities are permitted to levy under the older law and the unpaid ("voluntary") labour which communities must provide under the later law to qualify for national aid in undertaking local works. The two seem intermingled in village practice. In our interviews we were given many examples of labour that was clearly volunteered by workers because of their keen interest in the completion of some project. On the other hand we

encountered some instances of work done by villagers because they had to do it. We feel that reference to unpaid labour will convey a somewhat more accurate meaning than would reference to either voluntary or personal labour in this report to the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration.

The fourth programme supporting some types of community projects, is that of small agricultural works, or Mikra Erga, with which we have encountered no problem of language. The form of this programme is now undergoing change, but previously it has been administered to finance the non-labour costs of projects approved by local agriculturists and on which labour is done without charge. It is now proposed that the aid extended be limited to a long time low-interest loan of half the non-labour cost.

One remaining question of terminology is the meaning of Community Development. Is it the same as physical improvement, chiefly by members of a community, in the facilities and utilities needed by them all? Or at another level, is it the development of the sentiments and attitudes of communal living? Or at still another level, is it progress toward such socio-economic strength that the community can "carry its own weight" in the larger Society? We have assumed that UNTAA is interested in all rather than any one of these interpretations, and that results at each level may be called Community Development. However, we concluded that such reconnaissance as we could feasibly undertake would be more likely to find evidence of community development at the level of facilities and utilities than at the level of community sentiment or at the level of maximum achievement of self-responsibility and self-support by a community. In applying this interpretation, completion of a new road outlet or a better water supply, in large part by effort of members of the community, would illustrate community development at the first level, that of physical facilities. The mobilization of voluntary workers to complete a road project for which funds

had become exhausted would suggest the presence of Community Development at the second level. The prosecution of numerous community-wide enterprises by members of a community, with the least possible aid from outside sources, might be taken to reveal community development at the third or highest level.

II. PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN CARRYING OUT THE STUDY

The mission decided at the outset that in order to carry out its duties and report on the matters detailed in its terms of reference it was necessary to observe the relevant programmes in operation in a considerable number of varying situations in Greece. Thus it was that two of our four weeks (the second and third) were spent in the field. Only on this basis was it possible for us to arrive at any satisfactory conclusions on which we could depend. As it is we feel satisfied that our itinerary has covered a sufficiently wide field for our generalisations to be considered well founded although there are still areas of Greece, such as the islands, and special types of projects, such as afforestation, and certain urban projects which we have not seen. Apropos of the last point, in the early days of the programme there were some projects undertaken in urban centers. At present, however, Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) is active only in the villages, and primarily in the villages with the most general distress. Furthermore, representatives of the Ministry of Social Welfare have told us of their objective to eliminate the urban need for work relief through the extension of social insurance. Our procedure, therefore, did not take us into the question of Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) for cities.

Whilst recognising the prime importance of first-hand observation, the mission did not ignore the value of securing the opinions of those concerned with the administration of the programme and those involved in the promotion of projects which were often related in the field with Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.).* Their views were sought not only to secure a clearer idea of the intentions of those who were responsible for the programme but to secure some opinions as to its actual content and its significance for Greek development both now and in the future. Such views gathered before we went into the field, in addition to

* See Appendix B for list of persons interviewed.

suggestions offered by UNIAA personnel in New York, were of the greatest assistance in helping the mission to formulate the questions to which answers were to be sought, in order to arrive at conclusions. In addition to gathering views we also secured what factual material was readily available both on the Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) and similar programmes as described above. This gave us a useful factual background.

In assessing the importance of a particular project and its effect on the community with which it is related, we attempted to consider it from three different viewpoints. Firstly, we held preliminary conversations with local officials intimately concerned with the Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) and its administration within the area and with knowledge of other local programmes. This not only gave us some idea as to the significance of the particular project but also the policies which were being followed within the nomos (province), a matter of importance where there is, as in Greece, a considerable degree of decentralisation. In the second place we felt it vital to secure an inside view of the significance of the project. That is, we felt it essential in all the cases which we studied to gather both facts and opinions from the members of the communities who were concerned with and would be affected by the project. This we wished to secure not from a village official or group of officials but rather from a representative group of villagers. Wherever possible our meetings with the villagers were held in the open air at the platee (village square) or in the village coffee house so that all who wished to listen or join in the discussion were free to do so. Although usually the president or secretary was present and took a leading part in the discussion, the freedom with which others joined in the talk and the interest which they showed confirmed our view of the value of this procedure. On other occasions we spoke to workers on Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) projects and those using roads built under the programme. In the third place we ourselves saw the projects, sometimes with a certain wonder

as in the case of the mountain roads winding delicately along precipitous slopes.

In our enquiry we were confronted with the possibility of either making an intensive investigation of a few projects or a less intensive study of a relatively larger number of projects. The former choice would, we felt, have given us no firm basis for deriving the generalisations required by our terms of reference. Especially in a country such as Greece where the nature of the terrain and the problems confronting the communities differ so considerably we felt it undesirable to limit our investigations in this way. We, therefore, adopted the second alternative, deciding to study what we considered to be a reasonably wide variety of situations in which Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) had entered either in isolation or in conjunction with projects effected by other means. For comparative purposes it was also desirable to study situations where no use had been made of the Pronoia (W.E.) programme. In this way we have been able to arrive at conclusions which we are able to put forward with confidence.

We have already indicated that in our investigation of village situations we endeavoured to secure the opinions of the villagers themselves. In order that results obtained in the different situations should be comparable we endeavoured in each case to cover the same range of questions. The particular questions considered to be critical by us were carefully drafted beforehand and are as follows:

1. What is the village name, population, land area and nomos (province)?
2. What are the main sources of income?
3. What community projects or public work has been undertaken since 1948?
 - a) For each project, what agencies were responsible?
 - b) For each project, what have been the accomplishments?
4. How did it come about that you took advantage of the facilities and schemes for communal improvement?

5. How did you decide upon a particular project (Was the decision by the community, by the nomos, by the national officials?)
6. What difficulties did you encounter in carrying through the project?
7. In general have the people been willing, unwilling or indifferent with respect to working on the project?
8. How were decisions made as to which people would work on the project?
9. What do you think the effects of the project have been? Have they been beneficial or not?
10. Has the project affected some people in the village more than others?
11. From your experience in this village, what changes in procedure would you suggest?
12. Are there plans for other projects?

It hardly needs to be said that the questionnaire itself was not shown to the villagers nor were the particular questions presented in the same order or form. Our object was to secure the information as a result of friendly and informal intercourse in which all parties were at their ease. For this reason, we explained at the commencement of each discussion the reason for our presence and our interest as a United Nations mission in their community. Our reception was uniformly cordial and friendly, and we were appreciative recipients of the conventions of hospitality, whether in coffee shop or village office.

Details of the field itinerary made between October 10th and October 24th are given in Appendix C. At this point it will suffice to say that we were able to investigate some 22 village situations which were distributed over 9 of the 48 nomoi of Greece.

A preliminary understanding of the character of the mission's observations will be afforded by a general review of the interview data, then by case narratives of three villages, each representing a different type of situation of "community development".

III. THE EVIDENCE FROM THE VILLAGES

A GENERAL REVIEW

Any privacy in individual interviewing would be difficult to arrange in a Greek village. An interview is likely to become, within a few minutes, a meeting of many people. So, nearly 450 persons living in 22 villages heard our questions, and the responses interpreted to us came typically out of a lively cross-fire of group discussion.

The largest place we visited had 3,700 people, the smallest 270 (see Table 1). The sample of the regional differences and economic varieties is reflected in the data on general characteristics: the high-up mountain-side village with sheep and goats and with an annual summer movement to the plains to work for wages in wheat and cotton (Zariki); a prosperous village lying well on Boetian lands with olives, grapes, beans, wheat, cotton and sheep (Mavromati); a larger mountain-side village with olives and general crops and local craft products to sell to tourists who go to and come from Delphi (Arachova); a Macedonian shoreside Turkish-refugee village that has had to fight typhoid and that gets its money from work for wages in the forest and from the sale of charcoal (Stavros); a tiny mountain village with small stony fields, evacuated and destroyed during the guerrilla war, dependent on work for wages, especially on a nearby railroad (Zerovi); a village high in Kozani dependent on sheep getting its very first road and being connected along with 4 other villages to the nearest highway (Trigoniko); a larger trade center along a river valley, raising a variety of perishable fruits and vegetables for Kozani and other urban markets (Velvendos); a little northern-Greece settlement of Turkish-speaking people dependent on wheat, barley, corn and tobacco currently busy on a project to drain their fields (Koila); a village entirely dependent on tobacco (Anarachi); an isolated mountain-top community of woodworkers (Sklithron); a village by a formerly malarial swamp in Thessaly,

Table 1. SUMMARY INFORMATION ON VILLAGES STUDIED AND COMMUNITY PROJECTS THEY HAD UNDERTAKEN

Nomos and Village	Number of Group Interviewed	Village Population	Stremmata of Land	General Description	Agencies or Resources Utilized in Projects: *							
					U.L.	C.F.	S.W.	Loan	Other	UMRRA	Min. of Welfare	
Boetia: Zariki	15	1815	Unknown	Mountain Road, 13 kilometers, from village to main road from Levadia.								
Boetia: Mavromati	40	2000	Own: 2000 Rent: 5000	General Agriculture a. water supply (1948) b. Additional water supply & irrigation c. Road: 5 kilometers to main highway d. Roads: 10 kilometers village to field	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Boetia: Arachova	2	not recorded	not recorded	Mountain side; olives weaving. a. Irrigation of olive trees. b. Stairs (up hill-side street) c. Roads to fields	X	X						

* U.L. - welfare employment (Pronota Ergasia) alias Community Development through Employment (CDR); alias Work Relief.
 U.L. - Unpaid Labour, (Personal Labour (Prosopiki Ergasia) and/or Voluntary Labour Programme (Koinotika Erga da Ethelontiki Ergasia)).
 C.F. - Community Funds (Koinotikos Protopolismos) or regular village budget.
 S.W. - Small Works (Mikra Erga); small agricultural works projects.
 Loan - Loans from the Agricultural Bank to a community or a cooperative, or loans from the King's Fund.
 Other - Queen's Fund grants; gifts from emigrants; school committee funds; allocations from church funds, etc.

Nomos and Village	Number of Group Interviewed	Population of Village	Streamata of Land	General Description	Community Projects or Public Work undertaken since 1948	W.F.	U.L.	C.F.	S.W.	Loan	Others
Kozani: Anarachi	6			General agri-culture	a. Four water fountains b. New road (with 4 other villages) c. Flood control d. New school (drainage) e. Miscellaneous, field roads, etc. f. Football field	x	x	x	x		Min. Educat.
LARISSA: Skithron	60	1000	30,000	Mountain Forest	New road from mountain to lowlands	x					
Larissa: Anatoli	1	1600	12,000	Mountain Forest general agri-culture Rest un-known	a. Water supply b. New school c. New road to plain	x	x	x	x		
Larissa: Tsoukani	4	370	9000	Wheat, General agriculture	a. Water supply in village b. Open drains in village c. Field drainage	x	x	x	x	x	Min. of Publ. Hlth., Thessaly Drainage Project School Comm Agr. Service
Volos: Portaria	3	1100	(1900 trees)	Tourism, Olives, Fruit.	a. Fountain b. Fountain c. Irrigation ditches d. Clearing of debris	x	x				Min. Hygiene
Volos: Agias Vlasos	100	1100	7000	General Fruit	a. Road connection b. Irrigation ditches c. Repairing cobblestone streets	x	x	x	x		Agri. Serv.

Nomos and Village	Number of Group Interviewed	Population of Village	Streamata of Land	General Description	Community Projects or Public Work undertaken since 1948	W.F.	U.L.	C.F.	S.W.	Loan	Others
Salonika: Stavros	50	1650		not recorded	shore village; wage work in timber; charcoal, summer visitors	x	x				Rel-fare Ministry
Pellis: Penaytsa	4	not recorded	not recorded	General agri-culture	Road improvement and (Northern Greece)	x					
Pellis: Zeri	12	270	5400	Mountain village; wage work.	Road improvement and remaking; connects three villages	x					
Kozani: Trigoniko	15	630	8000	Mountain village; sheep	a. New road, 4 villages. b. New school. c. New church. d. Village square	x	x	x	x		Queen's Fund
Kozani: Kolla	6	360	3500	wheat	a. Drainage of fields. b. Control of torrents c. Repair of roads. d. Church	x	x	x	x		Special Local Comm.
Kozani: Velvendos	35	3700	not recorded	General agricul-ture.	a. Street repairs. b. Road from village c. Bridge	x	x				
Kozani: Amygdala	30	1900	8750	General agri-culture.	a. Water supply b. Irrigation c. Church d. Road e. Irrigation	x	x	x	x		
Kozani: Ftelona	20	280	9000	General agri-culture	a. Water tank for live-stock b. Water supply					x	

growing chiefly wheat and opening up 6000 additional stremmata for cultivation by drainage (Tsouksani); a picturesque mountain-side community with habits from pre-war days of depending heavily on a summer-resort economy (Portaria); a hill village dependent on a variety of fruits for the city markets - destroyed by Germans in an action of reprisal (Agyas Vlasios); a desperate little band of villages in a pocket surrounded by big Pindus mountains, with practically no resources now - and just opened to the outside world by 27 kilometers of steep and winding Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) road; three or four other villages, far back in the mountains trying to find some new solution to their money problem to replace the earlier one of ranging far and wide in search of work for wages (see Map, p. 17).

We did not seek to visit the better-off villages, but wished especially to sample the types of communities in which Pronoia Ergassia might be expected to have been considered. In the 22 villages we were told of 64 community works projects which had been undertaken since 1948, or since repatriation, in the case of evacuated places.

Total projects	64
Projects using Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) (16 used only W.E.) (6 used W.E. in combination with some other system)	22
Projects using unpaid labour (U.L.) (20 used unpaid labour alone) (19 used unpaid labour in combination with some other system)	39
Projects using community funds (C.F.)	22
Projects using Small Agricultural Works (S.W.)	2
Projects using Loans	4

Other sources of support for Projects:-
 UNRRA (through Ministry of Welfare)
 Queen's Fund
 Special Local Collections
 Ministry of Education
 Ministry of Public Health (Hygiene)

Nomos and Village	Number of Group Interviewed	Population of Stremmata	General Description of Land	Community Projects or Public Work undertaken since 1948.	Other	W.E.	U.L.	C.F.	S.W.	Loans	Other
Karditsa: Argythea	25	600	Unknown by Villagers Mountain locks	a. Road from Nousakt, 27 Kil. b. Church c. School	Greek army Queen's Fund Mn. of Reconst.	x	x	x	x		
Jannina: Kalenzi	6	1000	1200 General Agr-culture.	a. Road reaching 15 villages b. Church c. School	(Former resident Greek American)	x	x	x			
Jannina: Nonolithi	2	1500	"nothing" Mountain, Substence plots and wage work.	a. Road (Kalenzi project) x							
Jannina: Platanocosa	3	1400	Mountain; substence plots and wage work.	a. Road (Kalenzi project) x b. Road from village to main road. c. Church	Special Village collection	x	x				
Arta: Hoespels	2	1900	4000 Mountain; Substence plots and wage work.	a. Road (through 15 villages) b. Church	Bishop's collection	x					

Ministry of Interior
 School committee
 Agricultural services
 Ministry of Welfare
 Greek Army
 Ministry of Reconstruction
 Former Residents (Greek-American)
 Bishop's Collection

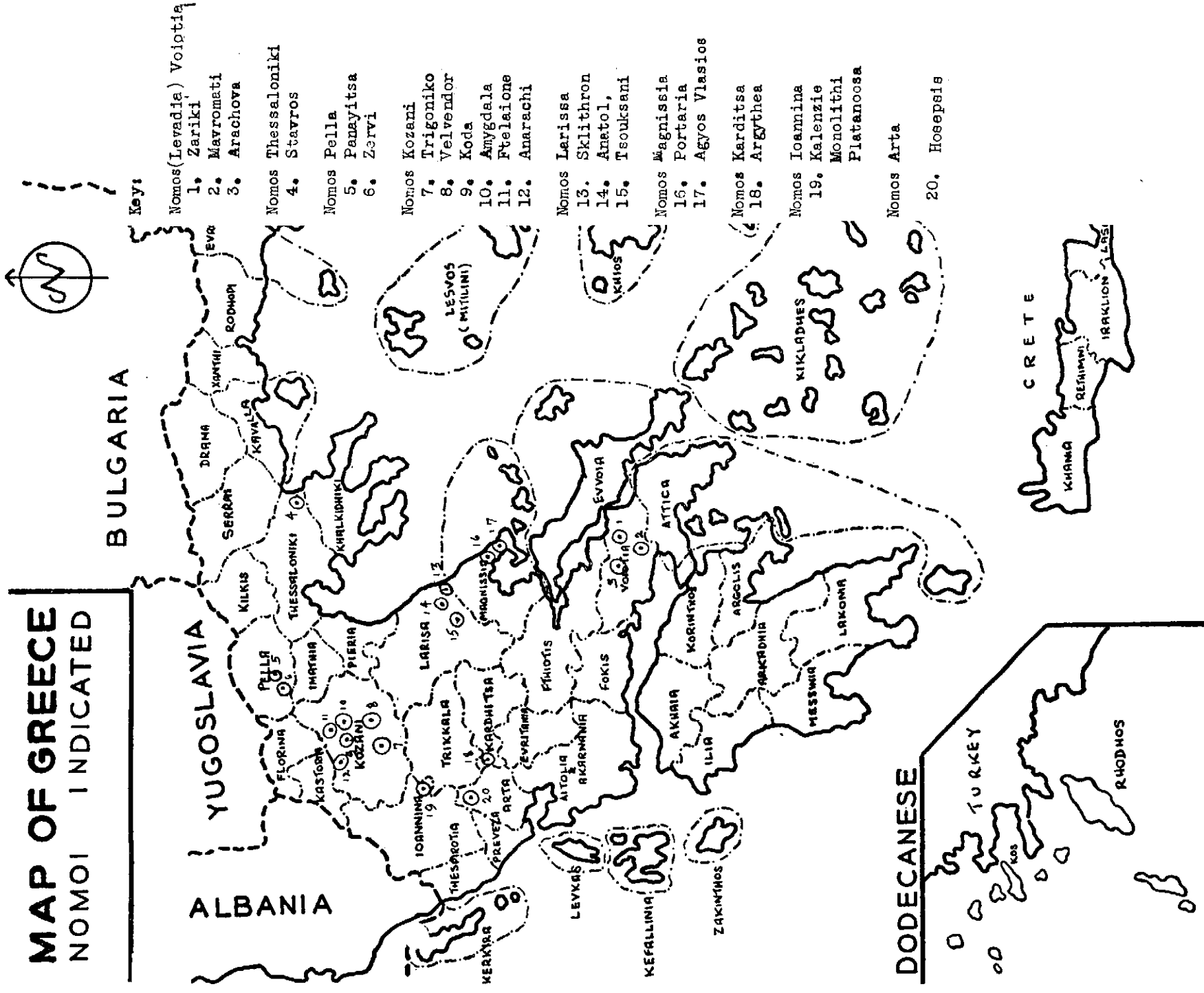
This summary can, in no sense, be taken to reflect a national picture, or a picture of any one region. As has been said above, we did not seek a representative sample of Greek villages, because our focus was on Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.). Only 2 of our 22 villages had made no use whatsoever of W.E. But in these 22 villages, one third of the projects involved W.E. and two thirds involved unpaid labour.

The fact that one third of the 64 projects were W.E. and two thirds were U.L. probably distorts the relative contributions of the two systems. It is quite impossible for us to state the value to the community and to the society of any one project, but typically the W.E. projects were larger in scale and scope in these villages than were the U.L. projects. So the one third of the projects under W.E. may have more value than the two thirds under U.L. The number using community funds was exactly equal to the number using W.E. It is important to note also that in prosecuting these 64 projects, support has been found from thirteen sources other than W.E., U.L., C.F., S.W., or loans.

The usual project was a road, either new, into a region previously accessible only by mule trail or foot path, or repaired. (see Table 2). Using various sources of support 18 of the 22 villages were involved in some road project connecting them with other places, and 4 had roads of a village-to-field type. Thirteen had made, or helped to make new roads; 8 had worked at the repair or improvement of old roads.

MAP OF GREECE

NOMOI INDICATED



Number of villages having projects: Total 22

Road 18
 Drainage 3
 Irrigation 5
 Water supply 8
 School 8
 Church 8

Other projects reported were repair of village streets, building village square, building a bridge, torrent control, making a watering trough for livestock, a football field, village drains, a pasture improvement experiment, and the cleaning of debris from wartime destruction.

The generation of ideas for these 64 community development projects came about in various ways, but was most frequently the expression of a long-felt need on the part of the villagers, or an inevitable response to their losses during the war. In Zariki the Nomarch visited them after their repatriation; they asked for help in getting a road and a new water supply. The road (13 kilometers) was arranged by W.E. The water supply is their next desire.

Table 2. COMMUNITY PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN SINCE 1948 IN VILLAGES STUDIED

Village	Evacuated in guerrilla war.	Community Projects Undertaken under Frontal Brigades (W.E.) and Other Programmes												
		Roads	Repair of New Roads	Repair of Old Roads	Fields	Communities	To other	Drainage	Irrigation	Water Supply	School	Church	Other	
Zariki	yes	X												
Mavromati	no	X	X	X										
Arachova	yes	X	X											
Stavros	no													
Panaytsa	no	X	X											
Zervi	yes	X	X											
Trigoniko	yes	X												
Velvendos	yes	X	X	X										
Kolla	no	X	X	X										
Amygdala	no	X												
Efalionas	yes													
Anarachi	no	X	X	X										
Sklithron	yes	X												
Anatoli	partly	X												
Tsouksani	yes	X												
Portaria	no													
Agys	yes	X	X											
Argythes	yes	X												
Kalenzl-Passia	yes	X												
Monolithi	yes	X												
Platanos	yes	X												
Hosopis	yes	X												

In Mavromati, "It hurt inside, we wanted these things so badly", so the villagers went to the Nomarch - even to Athens to the Ministries and the American Mission asking help.

In Stavros they'd had typhoid and didn't like "treated" water.

In Zervi, the villagers accepted suggestions offered by visiting officials of the Ministry of Welfare and the American Mission.

In Trigoniko: they had always wanted a road, and sought ways to get it.

In Kolla, the farmers went to the Agricultural Service in perplexity and were advised on drainage, so asked for the project.

In Fteleaione: "we had an energetic president!"

In Anarachi; as to drainage: "we always had it in mind".

In Sklithron: "we had to have the road so we could exploit the forest".

And so on, through the village list. The chief points seem to be: all the projects were desired by the villagers. They had been wanting some of them for a long time. The need was so strongly felt, that even though in some cases an official may have made the first suggestion, we have found no evidence of a project being imposed upon an unwilling village, whether undertaken by W.F., U.L., C.F. or other auspices.

The information on difficulties reported to have been encountered is not particularly suggestive. A few of the usual types of complaint against slowness in getting a project started or in getting money released were voiced. More often reference was to problems of getting materials, such as water pipes, or to physical problems like overcoming difficult terrain.

In seeking to discover the attitude of the people towards actually working on community projects, we encountered almost universally the view that the villagers were willing, in fact eager to work. In most instances those paid W.E. wages said that the income had been necessary to them, and they did not know what would have happened to them without it. In a few instances, however, they said their need for the road or the water supply had been so great that they would have had to do the work, wages or no. One case was reported in which the workers had taken some of their wage receipts, as an independent action of their own and had pooled them into a fund to pay for some necessary machine hire for which money could not otherwise have been obtained. We found no instances of unwillingness to work under the unpaid labour schemes except when the timing

involved seasonal conflict with work in the fields. Several instances were reported in which work continued after W.E. funds had run out.

We found not a single instance of feeling that a particular project had unduly benefitted some villagers in discrimination against others. The universal expression of feeling was that all had benefitted in the completion of the projects undertaken, whether under auspices of W.F., U.L., C.F. or any other sources.

In all village interviews, the people were ready to list what they considered to be the effects - and all the effects listed were felt to be beneficial. No dissenters spoke up during our conversations.

"A road is the beginning of civilization"

We can get to and from our work more easily and in shorter time. Transportation of produce out and supplies in costs less.

Our mules were tied up in travel in and out; now we can use them in the fields. (Travel time reduced from 10 hours to 2).

A threshing machine can come here now.

We can grow a better variety of crops now.

Our water will be safe now (reference to typhoid; a similar

reference was to malaria).

People from other villages can now come here to trade.

Busses can come here now.

We can take our sick people to the doctor.

Our lands are now free of flooding.

With irrigation we can raise any crops we choose.

We have had a one third increase in yields on drained land.

We can compete with other accessible places in exploiting our

forest and marketing our wood.

People from cities are beginning to come here for summer.

In nearly every village we were told of plans for other community work to be undertaken in the future.

Zariki has the road and next wants a water supply; Mavromati wants

to finish the irrigation system, then wants electricity, and to make roads

within the village. Stavros wants irrigation. Zervi needs a water supply

and a new school. Trigoniko wants a clean water supply and a short road

leading out of the village to the road passing nearby. Velvendos wants

irrigation and torrent control; Kolla wants another drainage ditch and a

school. Amygdala wants a water supply, a school, and a bridge. Fteleaiona

wants a community tank, a school, a fence around the cemetery, a drilled well,

and a fence around the well to protect apple trees that they will then plant.

Our cryptic comment was: "The road will show us what to do next".

These plans for the future indicate that these Greek villages are looking forward, but they have so recently emerged from the last of a history of great crises that their planning is still on the level of meeting primary community needs. Clearly the day has not come yet when these villages can pause to say, "Now, our community works are done!"

The objective of community development is being approached with conspicuous success in one project which illustrates several possibilities for the application of the several programmes considered in this report. In the Zagori project in north-western Greece (Epirus), 23 villages have been jointly involved in common undertakings. Their experience shows:

1. The use of welfare employment as a first step, applying underemployed labour in the construction of roads where there had been none hitherto.
2. The supplementation of W.E., after initial stages, and its gradual replacement by Unpaid Labour.
3. The eventual decline of both W.E. and U.L. in a more fully developed economy in which labour is competitively bought and paid for.

In the Zagori area including 23 villages, north of Jannina, there are 500,000 streamata of forest, hitherto inaccessible to exploitation because of an absence of roads. These villages have formed themselves into an association, a kind of "community of communities", legally recognized with powers appropriate to prosecution of their common interest. Although they vary in size and wealth (one community has a budget of 500 million drachmas; another but 100 million), each contributes one fourth to public works for the whole area. Labour under Proncia Ergassia (W.E.) has been used to build a network of roads opening up the forest and making connexions with markets. An interest-free loan from the King's Fund will be repaid the first year. The Ministry of Agriculture granted funds under its forestry roads programme. Community budgets provided the rest of the costs by payments to the association of communities.

The Nomarch of Jannina estimates that this enterprise will add 15 billion drachmas per year to the national income of Greece. W.E., U.L., and C.F. thus have all contributed, and these results have been multiplied by the effective co-operation of several communities.

In the foregoing paragraphs of review of observations in the villages, division by auspices of projects has not been made because, except as has been specifically indicated, the findings are equally applicable, whether to W.E., U.L., C.F. or other sources of support.

Something of the nature of the needs which give rise in Greece to welfare employment, unpaid labour and other community works programmes has appeared in the foregoing reports of village situations in which projects had been undertaken.

The most compelling factor, of course, is the urgency to increase the real incomes of very large numbers of people whose labour is not productively engaged. The quantity of unoccupied labour in Greece - not so much through unemployment as underemployment - is very large. It would be impractical in the time at our disposal to offer any estimates or measurements of it, but in none of the villages we visited did the people insist that their time is fully employed, and in some of the northern mountain villages we were told that for eight or nine months of each year there is no work to be done.*

If the resources of a community as presently exploited are so thin that the future holds only an interminable existence without work, there seem to be alternative long-run objectives. One is to increase resources and improve their

* Mr. Zissis, Welfare Director in Kozani, has written that the owner of 30 streamata in that district works 130 days per year.

exploitation; another is for the population to decline, withdrawing to places of greater opportunity.

It cannot be expected that making roads and water supplies will forever offer opportunity to engage large numbers of unemployed or underemployed villagers. During the period while primary needs remain to be met, projects can be of great value. Eventually, however, might come a day of "leaf-raking" or "watering telephone poles", because of the difficulty of devising enough significant projects.

The long-run solution must, therefore, be the improvement in technology, including the diversification of agriculture, or the adjustment of the size of the labour force. The ultimate need in the villages is to occupy the workers so fully in their fields and flocks that incomes will be up and underemployment down.

This long-run objective must not be permitted to get out of our minds, but in the meantime the condition of underemployment and constant poverty persists critically in Greece and populations which cannot work enough to produce to meet their primary needs eventually decline in health, in skills and in spirit.

This general summary of evidence from village interviews can appropriately be supplemented by a fuller presentation of all we know about certain villages with different types of problems and different types of projects. To this end, the cases of three illustrative villages are next presented.

IV. THE EVIDENCE FROM THE VILLAGES

ILLUSTRATIVE VILLAGE SITUATIONS

Three cases: Zariki, Kalenzi, and Tsouksani

I. ZARIKI: Vioittia (Levadia) Nomos (Visited October 11, 1952)

Zariki, in the Nomos Boeotia, is an old mountain village near Mt. Parnassus, established as far as possible from the roadways by Greek people who wanted to isolate themselves from the Turks. With Mr. Economou from the office of the Nomos engineer we went to Zariki over a W.E. project road of 13 kilometers (begun in February 1951 and completed May 1952) crossing a plain to the foot of a mountain, then by tortuous zigzag over an earth and smashed-rock road bed. There are now 1815 people and 370 houses belonging to Zariki. They returned to their village on August 26, 1949, after staying at Levadia during the years of trouble with guerrillas. At Levadia they had not lived in refugee barracks, but had built stone houses.

The first car ever to reach the village brought the Nomarch (provincial governor) to a dedication of completion of the project in May 1952. The roadway is levelled up over hand-piled stone walls, levelled down by blasting the mountain side. It climbs steeply by switch-back hairpins over protruding rock-rib bumps, and a gravel surface that crunches under jeep tires. A beaten path meanders over the new road, trampled by donkeys bringing wood down to Levadia and provisions back to the village.

The houses are of stone hunks cemented together; they were completely rebuilt as the villagers returned. At that time they were permitted to cut their own timber and saw it for floors and frames; the Ministry of Reconstruction gave them two doors and some windows for each house. While some remained below in the Coppais wheat and cotton fields as wage workers, their fellows prepared

the village for re-occupancy.

About 15 villagers gathered while we sat on three chairs and a few 3-stick benches before the coffee house. All the officials were away except the secretary and two members of the gendarmerie. The secretary and one other man (who spoke some broken American; he'd been in Chicago years ago) gave us most of the answers.

The usual annual cycle of work is for all women except those who are old and older daughters who stay with children, to go down to the flats in May for wages in the wheat and cotton fields, living there during the summer months and returning late in October. In wheat harvest, the men too go down. For her work in the wheat a woman gets 10 okes of wheat per day, less than $\frac{1}{2}$ bushel. Averaging 25 days, she brings home 250 okes, so even with a little grown in the fields, more must be bought. For working in cotton, before picking, a woman gets 15,000 drachmas (\$ 1.00), grossing about 450,000 drachmas (\$ 30) for 30 days. But in cotton picking she gets, in kind, 10 percent of what she picks. One woman told us she had picked 80 okes in 15 days, for which she got 8 okes, selling it for 48,000 drachmas. This is a little over \$ 3 for 15 days work!

Although our informants reported selling only cheese and told us they are now not permitted to cut wood, we met probably more than a dozen heavily laden donkeys with wood coming out on the new road. They say the only way their income can be increased is by increasing the number of sheep, or by getting land of their own in Coppais. When asked about how much land they had, they couldn't even estimate it. They graze and take wood from all the surrounding mountain-sides. In thin-soiled hillside or nearby valley plots they grow low-yielding wheat and beans and graze 6000 sheep. They buy their macaroni, supplemental wheat, and even their oil and wine. A village in this region that is not self-sufficient in wine and oil is considered poor indeed.

When they had returned to the village, the Nomarch came to see them; they told him of their needs. The broken pipes from a spring needed to be replaced and a road was needed. The Nomarch said they couldn't have the water supply because there was nowhere to get money for the pipes, but said the road could be done by the W.E. plan, with supervision by the Nomos director of technical services (engineer). Asked if they would have done the work without pay, they said no, they would have had to work somewhere for pay. They had to have the money. They dream of a time when they will get some land of their own on the bed of

drained old Lake Coppais, but they don't think of leaving their mountain homes.

They have no doctor. Their air and water are so good, they said, that they don't need one. They have no school building; school is kept in houses. They have no teacher now; none has come to them. Last year the teacher came 3 months late.

Their young people work in neighboring villages for wages; they are restless to get away and don't seem to want to settle down to live in the village. Perhaps, they say, with the new road, there may be greater willingness on the part of their youth to stay. There is no doubt of their gratitude for their road, their confidence in a "better day to come".

The Nomos engineer pointed out that the road can't be used in the valley-flooded period, and that hand labor can't carry the road to the next stages of improvement. There must be money for machine work.

Asked if they had experienced economic benefits or merely convenience, they said: "In Greece there is a proverb that where a wheel turns, there is progress". "But", we replied, "sometimes nice people prefer to be isolated by themselves". Quickly, they specified (1) the importance of being able to get to and from their work in the valley of Coppais, (2) the reduced cost of things purchased because of the lower cost of transportation, (3) the cheaper transportation of what they sell, (4) the fact that for the first time in their history a threshing machine came, releasing their time for work outside, and (5) the fact

that over 100 people had come for their vacation rest this summer, from Levadia, Thebes, and as far away as Athens, spending money there.

II. KALENZIE: Jannina Nomos
(Visited October 22, 1952)

Travelling southeasterward from Jannina for a couple of hours, in a station wagon followed by the Nomos of Jannina Welfare Director's jeep, we passed over 12 kilometers of road into Kalenzie that had been widened, hardened and roughened by stone laid over dirt in one of the first W.E. projects in this Nomos. It was done by refugee villagers while they were restive in the security centers before repatriation was undertaken after the guerrilla war. We moved then over a stony creek bed (a torrent at times) over 9 more kilometers of completely new road, at the end of which work is being done to finish another 10 kilometers. This road opens up an area with 15 villages, for which Kalenzie is a kind of entrance point and potential trade center.

Kalenzie (with its twin village, Flessia) has only about 240 houses, hence about a thousand inhabitants, and 2400 streamata of remarkably flat land surrounded by steep hillsides. The people depend chiefly on corn and wheat, have practically no grapes nor small animals (sheep and goats) but are beginning now to start some fruit trees. They fled their village during the war, returned in 1944 to find all houses and buildings destroyed. With their own unpaid labor and the usual roof, window and door materials from the Ministry of Reconstruction, they have rebuilt most of the houses but some remain incomplete for lack of roofing. Standing conspicuously were some houses (two storey) built for them by this ministry, but the villagers had much preferred the later plan of building their own with the ministry assisting them with some supplies of lumber. Building their own, they followed hoary customs of simplicity, turning away from the more pretentious two-storey dwellings.

Most of the villagers have, at one time or another, worked on the W.E.

road. On this day only 7 of them - classified as indigents - were so employed. They are greatly pleased to have the road, observing that probably 20 thousand villagers will have a new connection with them and when passing through will stop to buy and sell. "Many cars, trucks and buses are coming through here now".

In addition, a church is being built with money given by an emigrant in America, and with their own labor under U.L. U.L. has also been used in the last two years in rebuilding their school. Their future wants are clearly realized, though not fully planned. They want drainage ditches for wet land and irrigation water for dry land, believing that artesian water is 65 meters below the surface - or that water could be brought from the Arachtos river. They are willing to do the work without pay, but need "machines" to make wells and ditches.

"Did you ever see anywhere in the world people as poor as we are in Greece?" they asked, and they asked us to report on their needs so that they might get the "machines" they so much want!

The 9 kilometers past Kalenzie and up the mountains, one-vehicle width, is graded well and unusually even in surface. The local people are all experts in stone work, the Welfare Director told us. The ubiquitous dry-stone walls and stone dwellings attested to this, so the stone road may be the better for their native skills. Curving around the corners of mountains, past deep and scenic gorges, the road is a shelf blasted from solid rock. Men had hung from ropes to drill the holes for the cement.

We talked to members of two gangs of workers busy with picks, mattocks and shovels, and interviewed people from two of the 15 villages involved. The only machine in evidence was the pneumatic drill boring holes for dynamite. Bare-handed men wrestled with the loosened stone, tumbling it in a succession of little avalanches, or fitting it up as retaining wall for the outer edge. Most of the people of all the villages have worked at one time or another, women and men. Now only men are working, but when the heavy rock work has been done over a long enough new stretch, women will return to work for the lighter tasks.

The workers from Monolithi are two hours on foot from the road, those from Platanosa are still an hour away. The workers express great eagerness to get the road connected into their respective villages, and workers have contributed their labor without pay when W.E. funds wouldn't go around. Neither has there been any conflict among the villages over the distribution of available work opportunities; all are willing to work as needed.

Monolithi is a village of 1500 people, with neither land nor flocks to speak of. The villagers depend on wage work wherever they can find it and range as far afield as Athens, clear across the nation. All the villagers have worked on the road, but now the number is only 25. They camp along the road at night rather than make the long round trip daily. Already the road has brought them so much nearer to Jannina that the cost of transporting their flour rations has been reduced from 2000 drachmas (13 cents) per oke to 300 per oke (2 cents). Their interest, however, is as much in reducing time as cost; the other day, for example, a member of the village died with appendicitis because they couldn't get him out in time.

As we talked with the workers from Platanosa we looked across to the best terracing we have seen in Greece. Green, level plots, stepwise around and up the slope for probably 1000 meters. "Why have you gone to so much trouble to keep up these terraces when you couldn't get your produce out to market?" "We had to have the crops for our own food" was the reply. We had been given some grapes from the generous but sweaty and stooped women from this village trudging along the road with boxes of them slung over their backs.

Platanosa has 350 houses. When the people returned after the guerrilla troubles ended they "couldn't even see where their houses were". They had to carry on their backs the materials made available by the Ministry of Reconstruction in order to rebuilt their houses. They rely only on their fields for food. The winter is so severe here in the Pindus mountains that they keep no small animals. They have no telephone, police station, radio. An agriculturist comes occasionally,

however, and gives them lectures on fertilizers and similar topics.

With P.L. they built 1 kilometer of road out to the road now being constructed, their school, and now they work on a church, the money for which has been contributed by villagers. As to community funds, "we haven't much to tax". One teacher died returning to the village, one left for the Peloponesus, so the village is paying one of its own members to teach now. "If sick, people die, it takes four hours to get to a village doctor". They would complete the present road on P.L. if necessary, they need it so badly. After this they want to complete their water supply.

III. TSOUKSANI: Larissa Nomos
(Visited October 18, 1952)

The coffee house was locked when we arrived in the morning and still closed when we returned at mid-day. This seemed to symbolize the industriousness of this little place. Today there are 370 people in the village if one includes the 15 nomadic shepherds. Originally they came from Bulgaria as refugees in 1906 though the president whom we saw was not one of the original settlers. However, not all of the original settlers stayed in the area, which was malarial because of the nearby swamp, now drained.

Apart from the shepherds, the income of the village comes almost entirely from wheat. In addition to the land outside the village, each house has 3 streamata attached to it, so that the buildings are separated and the plots follow the checkerboard style. Upon receiving their land, they gave some to the church and some to the school so that today the school committee has an income from the land which it rents. Altogether they have 9,000 streamata. of land but only 3000 have been cultivated; 6000 more are coming into production as a result of the current drainage project. Some of the land left by villagers who departed after the malaria scourges were bought by people from Anatoli, the village higher up, to which the new W.E. road leads.

The villagers left in 1946 because they were too near the mountains" where guerrillas were headquartering. They returned in the fall of 1949 to find no roofs or doors on their houses. The Ministry of Reconstruction granted them tile for roofs, wood for doors and window frames; the villagers carried the stone and supplies and did the work - as was typical in repatriated Greek villages during the reconstruction period.

As community projects they have repaired and improved their water supply, made open cement drain ditches in the village, undertaken drainage of fields, built up the school, helped on the road to Anatoli, and undertaken a pasture improvement demonstration. But they "never finish, there's always more to do" they told us. They want to go on to cement all the open ditches they are now draining their fields with and make bridges over them; they want to cement irrigation channels for their gardens for potatoes. When they get through with these "productive" projects they want to go on to beautify the village and build a town hall and a plateau and arrange gardens.

The trend of events, apparently, has built morale here. "Before the war we didn't use the personal labor system; our people were backward here. The swamp came up to the edge of the village. The water supply was under forest ground and roots filled the pipes." But the return to the village with peace, the reconstruction of their homes, the restoration of their water supply, bringing water 5 kilometers from 3 sources on the mountain side, the ditching of their streets, the starting of the road to Anatoli - and above all the promise of tripling their land area - have built up local morale to what seems to be point of near-enthusiasm. Yet we felt that these people must have had some high qualities of esprit de corps at the outset.

In repairing the water supply they received 30 million drachmas from W.E., 5 million from the Ministry of Public Health, 20 million from agricultural services and used 30 million from village funds for skilled labor, supervision and materials (pipes) and they applied 2,500 man days of personal labor. They started the work in

1949 and had finished it by the end of 1950. Everybody worked, both women and men. There had to be laid 9500 meters of pipe.

To make ditches in the village, under the personal labor programme, they got cement and 10 million drachmas for supervision, adding 700 work days of their own personal labor, and are not yet finished. They don't want "work relief" any more. Now that they have their own funds, they want to do it all on their own. W.E. was the "first step". But now they have funds, and if necessary could borrow from the bank. Of community funds, they have 106 millions of which only 1.7 million is returned tobacco tax, most of the rest being from rental of grazing land. The land opened by drainage for cultivation will yield 300 oke per streama, taxed at 3% it will yield 100 millions on what they now receive 12 millions. This is an example of how the new tax law will affect one village. Village levies before were optional; they are now mandatory.

The main drainage ditch is not of their own doing, it is part of a Thessaly-wide reclamation project. But the presence of these ditches now makes it possible for them to prepare lateral drains from their own land. The Nomos engineer made the necessary survey; the community budget is spending 20 millions, and the labor is personal (U.I.). The work is within 8 days of completion, but awaits an excavator or ditching machine for part of the job.

The school is not entirely new, but is a major repair of the old structure. The inputs have been personal labor, plus 5 million drachmas from the village fund and 3 million from the school council for skilled labor and technical direction.

With 34 other villages in the Nomos, Tsouksani has a community experiment in pasture improvement, costing their budget 4 millions and involving the sowing of seed on the village land.

They have an agricultural cooperative organized in 1940, with 45 members, which owns and leases the mechanical equipment we had noted with surprise on entering the village (large grain drills, discs, plows, etc). They sell their potatoes

through this organization.

The coffee house was opened especially for us, we sat at tables in the yard. The Nomarch, his wife and the Nomos engineer were present also, so there's no telling who the president's hospitality was for. But we had ouzo, three varieties of very tasty local cheese, some warm fresh bread, some locally made wine and plenty of apples.

It is impossible to segregate the psychological drives toward self-help from the help of wise officials and the availability of various aids, but here W.E. has been part of a variety-package of methods, and the result is a spectacular demonstration of community development.

V. THE IMPACT OF PRONOIA ERGASSIA ON VILLAGE NEED

A. Description of the Pronoia Ergassia Programme.

It seems unnecessary, in this report, to undertake our own description of the Pronoia Ergassia programme, since we are able to accept completely previous expositions, with the only exception that, in view of its present character and administration we choose to call it Welfare Employment (W.E.) rather than Community Development Employment (CDE). We quote, therefore, from the Neild Report of 23rd October, 1950, to Dr. Gunnar Myrdal, copies of which were placed in our hands as briefing materials in the New York offices of UNIDA. The substitution of W.E. for CDE and certain addenda we have inserted are indicated by brackets.

" The (Pronoia Ergassia programme) is essentially a highly simplified scheme of public works for the relief of unemployment and the development of local resources, adapted to the needs of an underdeveloped economy where there is chronic open and disguised unemployment. It is, crudely stated, a scheme for promoting local public works of the simplest sort by providing central funds for wage payment, while leaving the initiative and responsibility for the execution of the works in the hands of the villages and towns. It is operated primarily in rural areas to which it is most suited, but it has also been extended to certain towns."

" Before (W.E.) was introduced, many forms of social relief existed. Nearly all consisted of direct relief in cash payments or benefits in kind to the recipients. The aid was widely and thinly spread and inadequate. It was clear that, with national income so low, with technically trained staff such as doctors, welfare workers, etc. so scarce, and with administrative machinery so limited in its capacities, direct relief of this sort - regardless of its inherent merits or defects - could not provide an answer to the poverty and

underemployment especially in rural lands. There had, however, existed in the past a fairly strong tradition of communal enterprise in the rural villages. Before the war, a certain amount of rural road building and similar work was undertaken by voluntary labour, each man giving so many days of his time to the purpose. This form of communal work had, however, been virtually extinguished by the ten years of war, occupation and civil war. It was in the light of these conditions that (W.E.) was devised.

" The scheme's objectives were: first, to provide work and income for the underemployed; second, to develop local resources by employing local people with their own tools and simple techniques, at the same time taking advantage of their local self-interest in such work; third, to ensure a system that did not overtax the limited administration of the country. With these conditions and objectives in mind the scheme proposed was roughly as follows: villages (at first an experimental sample) were invited to put up proposals for simple works and were told that if they would draw up plans, in the simplest sense of the word, the government would provide money to pay wages to workers on the project. The proposals were examined by the district government offices and were then sent on to Athens where they were screened and, if approved, funds were allocated for the wage payments.

" The main features of the scheme were as follows: first, it did not depend on any plans drawn up by the central government, but was left entirely to the responsibility of the villages themselves to decide whether they wished to partake in the scheme and what form of work they would like to undertake; second, the wage was set at a level which provided an automatic selective mechanism. It was equal to 11,000 drachma per day (later, 12,000 drachma (80 cents) for women and 14,000 drachma (93 cents) per day for men), or only 70 US cents. This is enough to provide a bare subsistence allowance, or perhaps a little more if several members of a single family work on the scheme. It is, however, so low that nobody would accept it if they could find other wage employment or do

work of any value on their own land. It thus provides a simple means of sorting out the needy and unemployed from those in better circumstances, and work on (W.E. projects was) offered to anybody in the community who (cares) to come and join in. This avoids the necessity for case-by-case assessment of eligibility for work relief which would be quite unpracticable as an administrative procedure in an undeveloped economy such as Greek rural areas. In addition, the wage is one of the factors that tends to direct the scheme into those areas or villages that are poorest and most in need of work. Thus, applications for work under the scheme should tend to come from the poorest areas, whilst the richer ones are not so interested. Third, the scheme manages to operate with the barest minimum of manufactured equipment or materials which are, of course, extremely scarce. It depends essentially on the villages using for the greater part their own tools, such as picks and shovels, and techniques which they understand. At first no funds were available for materials and the communities were told that they must find them out of their own resources. Since then, parallel schemes have been developed for supplying materials. In practice, the requirements are relatively simple, since most of the work consists of making simple dust roads, irrigation ditches, and so on, for which the quantity of materials required is relatively slight. Simple materials such as cement and water pipes are the chief requirements from outside. Finally, the scheme requires relatively little technical skill. The form of work selected by villages to be undertaken with their own tools are usually those which they understand. Technical assistance is available from district engineers who are, however, rather thin on the ground. In practice, they can sometimes do little more than make an occasional visit to the work and give simple advice on the path to be followed by roads, ditches and so on. In other cases, where engineering advice is more plentiful, more ambitious schemes appear to have been undertaken with detailed surveying and planning. It is, however, evident

that even without engineering advice there is still great scope for works that require practically no technical assistance in addition to the common sense of the peasants and perhaps, for example, of a lorry driver on road gradients."

The administration of Pronoia Ergassia seems to have moved through stages of increasing formality in the determination of eligibility of recipients. The first policy was that of allowing the low wage rate to be an automatic screen; needy persons would work for it and others would not. A later stage involved the classification of communities roughly into three categories of need. The determination is said to have been from data on agricultural production and income submitted by the agricultural services, modified by the informal and personal knowledge of provincial (Nomos) officials. One classification of villages (black) was adjudged to have resources to feed its people for less than six months of a year; another classification (red) had resources for 6-9 months, and the third category (green) includes those well-off villages with resources to feed themselves 9 or more months. The classification seems to have drawn some criticism in that (a) some of the statistical data on agriculture were too old (1938), (b) the impressions which national officials had of local situations were not always accurate, and (c) local situations improved, or crop failure caused them to deteriorate so much that many villages needed reclassification after a year. However, this 3-fold grouping of villages has been important in the diversion of Pronoia Ergassia into certain villages rather than into others.

It has been reported to us that there are 6,130 municipalities and communes in Greece, of which about 3,500 were estimated to produce less than six months of sustenance; (symbolized on the maps by the color black). Now, after reclassification the number is about 3,000, in which live about 30 percent of the population of Greece. Also, with reclassification after 2 years, and because of crop failure about 100 communities originally "red" - or estimated to

produce their own sustenance for 6 to 8 months, have dropped to the lowest classification.

Of the 3,500 communities originally classified at the lowest bracket, about 1/2 have had one or more Pronoia Ergassia projects, and the projects have been completed in 350 (or 10%) of the communities in which work was undertaken.

A more recent step has been that of asking all who desire to work on a Pronoia Ergassia project to sign what amounts to an "application" as follows:

Declaration

" The undersigned in knowledge of the law on false declaration and its consequences, declares the following:

1. I need assistance and am able and willing to work at the projects undertaken by the "Pronoia Ergassia" programme.
2. I am the primary (supporter of a family consisting of.....individuals, among whom are children under 15 years of age.
3. The total income in kind and money during the past year did not surpass the amount of 1,200,000 drachmas for each member of my family. In this sum is included the sum of.....coming from wages, pensions, grants or other regular income independently of source.
4. I am willing to work at the projects under the program "Pronoia Ergassia" receiving as wages 14,000 drachmas (for men) and 12,000 drachmas (for women) for an eight hour work day.

I also declare that I shall not ask nor accept added reward for this work.

Date.....

(Signature)

Then a village committee of three: president, priest and teacher, reviews the applications and determines a priority of need. There is, no doubt, much variation among villages in the rigor with which this selective system operates, but villagers in all the places we visited were aware of it. In each village we inquired specifically as to the attitude of villagers toward this procedure and found no expression of disapproval or resentment that some but not all should have been found to have greater need than others.

P. Effects of the Pronoia Ergassia Programme.

The Pronoia Ergassia appears to us to have the merit that it gives relief in a locality and at the same time puts idle resources, in particular labour resources, to work in directions which benefit the community. In our conversations with both the villagers and governmental officials it was clear that both these advantages were considered of importance and were understood and appreciated. Thus where a road was being constructed the employment for cash wages gave relief whilst at the same time the project itself was valued as an important amenity. We are advised that of 16,000 kilometers of roads now in use in Greece, 3,000 have been constructed under the Pronoia Ergassia programme. On no single occasion did we meet with any serious criticism of Pronoia Ergassia on the part of the villagers, workers or the local officials. Indeed the only criticism which we derived from these sources arose out of financial hold-ups due to the exhaustion of allocated funds towards the end of the financial year and inability to secure the use of machinery and material which is often necessary to finish projects such as roads which have often been left without a surface which will not stand continuous use during the rainy season. Such criticisms, however, are not fundamental and in every case it was clear that the programme was a welcome one and what had been accomplished was considered worthwhile.

It should be emphasized that in no case did we see any signs of what may be the detrimental effects of pure relief measures. The wage payment even if it arises from sources outside the local community is a payment for work and where we saw projects in operation it was a payment for hard manual work. The portion which could be used for material and equipment which might be considered a subsidy is small and very necessary to allow the project to be carried through. There is, in the present stage of the programme, no sign of any detrimental effects on the morale of communities affected by Pronoia Ergassia projects. It was found that not only were the projects considered of local

importance by the communities most intimately affected but they were acknowledged

to be of wider significance. Development of communications, irrigation and drainage systems, measures to improve the water supply to groups of citizens not only add to the economic strength of the nation but the welfare of the State. Indeed this too was clearly realised both by the local officials, with whom we spoke, and by members of the Ministry concerned. Our view is, therefore, that the type of project has been wisely restricted to that kind of work which could normally be held to justify State expenditure. This again helps to explain the absence of any deleterious effects on the morale of the local communities or on the attitudes of those responsible for the administration of the programme.

At this point we feel impelled to answer a criticism which we have not had put to us in person here in Greece but which has been raised with us elsewhere. This is the suggestion that the low wage offered is injurious to the efforts of organised labour in improving wage standards and in maintaining existing wage levels. We agree if the interested authorities were able to finance these projects at higher wages this would be preferable both from a social and economic point of view. But with the limited funds available in Greece the Pronoia Ergassia is one method of affording relief in a large number of localities instead of limiting it to a few. Considering the programme from the viewpoint of its accomplishments the low wage is a means of mobilising a greater volume of unused labour and accomplishing more for the community than would otherwise be possible. The result of this might be expected to strengthen wage standards rather than weaken them for the programme tends to reduce the number of those seeking work. There is at any time a considerable volume of unemployed labour and this is perhaps the main reason, in our view, why even at the low wage of the Pronoia Ergassia workers are forthcoming. Indeed where there have been complaints by workers under the programme these have been against the lack of work and not the wage. In general we found that over a considerable

part of the year there was a supply of labour seeking employment, greater than that which could be absorbed in the Pronoia Ergassia projects.

We have mentioned elsewhere that the low wage acts as a type of automatic means test. Those considered eligible are perfectly free to choose whether they wish to offer their services or not. If more remunerative labour is available the worker is not compelled to continue working on the project or if seasonable labour on the land is available, work on the project can be deferred. Thus Pronoia Ergassia is not competitive with other forms of income earning and is not likely to draw labour from more useful employment. We have indeed found that those who have accepted the Pronoia Ergassia wage have been those in genuine need.

Exactly how far relief needs are being met we are not in a position to say but from our observations in the field it seems clear that the need for relief has not by any means disappeared. However, we are advised that for 1952-1953 the national budget item for Pronoia Ergassia has been halved from that of the previous year (24 billion drachmas as compared to 50 billion). At this time of our study, 14 billion drachmas had been apportioned among the Nomi (provinces) and the process of allocating the remaining 10 billion was under way. There are, for example, still 3000 villages classified as black as against 3100 red and green. We consider, therefore, that Pronoia Ergassia still has an important part to play in sustaining the morale and welfare of the rural population in Greece.*

4. The importance of Pronoia Ergassia in satisfying other needs and aspirations of the communities can, we believe, be exaggerated if the fruits of other community effort and other project programmes are ignored. The significance of non-Pronoia effort can be seen in a considerable number of

* The reduction in the allocations for the Pronoia Ergassia programme for the period June 1952 to June 1953 has, so the mission understands, been made on grounds of financial stringency. Thus any curtailment of the programme consequent upon this step must not be taken to indicate any comparable relaxation in the need for relief and assistance to the local communities. If the position of the local communities had been the sole consideration, the mission feels that no substantial contraction in the programme could have been justified.

the case studies of which details are given in the text and the Appendix.

In addition an account of the Voluntary Labour Programme (U.L.) would also demonstrate how it too is contributing towards meeting the needs of communities. We were, for example, given a breakdown of the type of Voluntary Labour (U.L.) projects built or scheduled to be built, on April 30th, 1951.

1. Roads and Bridges	296
2. Water supply installations	367
3. Community buildings	36
4. Drainage works	24
5. Land reclamation and irrigation works	19
6. Sewerage	13
7. Miscellaneous	<u>24</u>
Total	679

Clearly it would have been desirable to have made a careful study of all such programmes but this has not been possible in the time at our disposal nor might it have been considered to have come within our terms of reference. At all events it has become clear to us that the Pronoia Ergassia is only one of the means by which community needs can be met. It is, however, a programme which is particularly suited to dealing with the needs of communities which are poor and which, for example, are in need of relief as well as basic amenities. Where we met conditions of this kind we found that whereas villagers welcomed both the relief and the project components of Pronoia Ergassia they were reluctant to discuss or even contemplate projects demanding voluntary labour. Very often we were given the reason that "they were too poor" and quite often we were told that Pronoia Ergassia projects could not have been accomplished under voluntary labour programmes. These attitudes are not unreasonable. Indeed it would be surprising to expect villagers who were finding it difficult to feed and clothe themselves and who had already had to rebuild their homes with their own hands to be greatly enthusiastic at the thought of very often heavy unpaid manual labour. The road or other project they would realise as useful and desirable but the effort they would feel too great unless they

were given some cash payment with which they could buy extra food and clothing. Our impression was that to people in this condition the Voluntary Labour Programme might place too harsh a burden on them. Where the situation had improved and was less arduous than the programme could be expected to be more effective and appreciated more fully.

If we leave on one side the relief aspect of Pronoia Ergassia, the effectiveness of the programme can be most simply measured by the accomplishments over the period in which it has been in force. Thus in the period from the beginning of 1948 to June 1952:

3,160	kilometers of roads were opened,
4,900	kilometers of roads were repaired and improved,
310,000	trees were planted,
300,000	strommata of land were made productive through irrigation and drainage,
110	water supply systems were installed.

In addition, there were other projects such as the clearing of debris and building of certain airports. In all, this was accomplished by the use of 14 million man-days of labour and the allocation of 174 billion drachmae. But the value of these things to the communities and to Greece cannot, however, be measured by these means. For example, we have seen roads which have been built opening up forest areas and which undoubtedly contribute greatly to the prosperity of the local communities as well as to the nation. On the other hand, we have seen roads built to areas which are very poor in resources and which in our judgment will remain poor, though somewhat better off than before. Indeed Greece as a whole is a poor country and the economic effects of improved communication cannot be expected to be spectacular. The mission feels, however, that although it is impossible at this stage to measure the social and economic value of the programme to Greece and the local communities this contribution has been considerable. In the long run we believe and hope

that the need for a programme of this kind will diminish, for the efforts of the Greek people and the various agencies working in Greece can be surely expected to reduce the need for relief and thereby the need for Pronoia Ergassia which is primarily a relief programme. By improved agricultural technology on the other hand it may be expected that the quantity of rural underemployment and concealed unemployment will diminish. So too may we find the Voluntary Labour Programme diminishing in importance at least in its present form when with the expansion of the financial and economic resources of the community the need for external subsidies of the kind inherent on the Voluntary Labour Programme will no longer be necessary. Furthermore, it may be expected that with the growth of community revenues the need for contributed labour will tend to be replaced by the purchase of labour on the free and open market.

At this point it might be right to mention that the mission had been asked whether the Pronoia Ergassia would have been possible in Greece without the financial aid given to the national budget under the foreign aid programme. It is beyond the scope of the mission's terms of reference to evaluate the importance of foreign aid in this country, but at least we may express our view that neither Pronoia Ergassia nor any other programme involving payments from national funds could be made unless the Treasury were able to secure adequate funds in the first place. Foreign aid has clearly helped in this way to make such programmes possible. Moreover, it is right to indicate that save in exceptional cases these projects will not pay for themselves through widening the tax base quickly enough to compensate the Treasury within a short period. In the long run if the projects are wisely and carefully selected these expenditures might be expected to increase State revenues. Up to the present and in the near future it seems that outside financial support is still necessary for the pursuance and development of these programmes.

In our reflections above we have been commenting upon what we had termed community development at the first level, namely the

improvement of the facilities and utilities needed by all the members of a community. Such provision at this stage is made possible by outside financial and material aid in conjunction with efforts on the part of the community itself. Nevertheless we have observed in many of the villages which we have visited signs or symptoms of more extended community development. There have been clear signs of communal sentiment arising from the possibility of acquiring some amenity if the members of the community are willing to discuss and agree and make plans and take part in the labour of construction. How far this sentiment has been created by these programmes or merely brought to the surface with the new opportunities created, it is difficult to say. Let us note, however, that provided that an environment is created in which economic progress is possible, this communal sentiment will, we believe, continue to further both the economic and social development of the community. We should also wish to note that such communal development may be of great significance in transforming the new formal structure of local government into reality.

We have also seen cases, admittedly few, where one could visualise the community achieving an independent economic status which would be satisfactory within a relatively short time. Such are the cases where projects make possible the fuller utilisation of resources of considerable magnitude. The opening up of extensive forest areas, the draining of swamps which would result in new productive land being taken into cultivation, some irrigation schemes, these practically exhaust the list of occasions where self-sufficiency could be secured by a single project, or even a few projects. In other cases the problem seems much more complex and we feel that the solution must be sought patiently and persistently without the expectancy of spectacular and sudden rewards. Steady improvement in many directions should be the aim of policy. It is important that this should be realised clearly. There are, for example, villages which we have seen for which we find it difficult to

suggest any solution which could lead them towards social and economic independence of a satisfactory kind. Sometimes we were almost tempted to think that the only way was the removal of the villagers to some environment in which their labour might find a more fruitful outlet. In other cases it seemed that although roads and other projects of that kind would afford some improvement in both economic and social conditions, much would still remain to be done through the improvement of agricultural methods, restocking of the flocks and herds, the adoption of cooperative devices for marketing and for the purchase of fertiliser and seeds and many other steps which are well outside the scope of this report. What we feel is that no single programme such as the Pronoia Ergassia in Greece holds the key to community development. We feel that in providing the initial foundation on which one may base community development and in helping to assist the initial impulse which may carry a community forward, such programmes as Pronoia Ergassia have performed a useful function in Greece.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. The Social and Economic Value of the W.E. Programme.

1. The W.E. Programme has made a significant contribution in conjunction with other governmental activities in Greece towards alleviating poverty arising from unemployment and underemployment, improving the position of the rural communities and the community at large and in stimulating the development of communal effort and community feeling.
2. The attitude of the administration towards the operation of such a programme has, in our view, been wise and constructive. There is evidence that decisions relating to projects have been to some extent decentralised and the interests of the rural communities have been preserved not only by consultation with the village councils but by a choice of projects in which the village is an active recipient of benefits both through its share of additional wage income and its improved position as a result of the completed project.
3. We find that to some extent in contradiction to the implications inherent in the English translation "Community Development Employment Programme" which has been frequently used outside Greece, the W.E. programme has come to emphasize primarily the relief aspect rather than community development in the full sense of the words.
4. As a method of giving relief to indigent populations we believe that W.E. is not only sound in principle but is wisely and carefully applied in the circumstances in which Greece today is placed. We find no evidence that the programme is sapping the morale of individuals or weakening the structure of the local communities.
5. We consider the W.E. programme to have been an important contribution to the first stages of rehabilitation of a devastated country. We have noted that in many of the cases observed other types of projects are

being adopted in which the relief component has been reduced. At the moment, however, it cannot be said that the need for some form of relief has passed and, therefore, we believe that this programme still has an important part to play in Greece.

6. We have found that as governmental experience has accumulated more formal procedure has been adopted in the determination of eligibility for relief, and that individuals themselves rather than communities en toto have come to be the recipients of aid.
7. The W.E. programme appears to the mission to have been an economical method of providing certain public facilities such as roads and drainage systems both of local and wider significance with limited financial resources and with larger labour resources.
8. We have found no substantial evidence that W.E. is undertaking work that would otherwise have been undertaken at the moment by public authorities or private individuals, or that is "making" work just for the sake of paying some wages.
9. We have found no evidence that the low wage payments paid under the W.E. have tended to depress wage levels in other fields or to retard acceptance of reasonable wage standards elsewhere.
10. Where W.E. has been used to carry through projects in areas with considerable potential resources it appears to have been an important factor in valorising these resources to the benefit of the local community and the community at large. In cases of this kind W.E. can be considered as an introductory solution to the long term economic problems of the country.
11. Where, however, the programme is operated in areas poor in basic resources it does not seem such a programme can be considered to be a long term solution to the economic and social difficulties of these communities.
12. In areas which are neither very rich nor very poor in basic resources, the W.E. can be of assistance in developing the economic strength of the

community although other means will have to be enlisted in order to place these communities on a sound footing.

13. In many localities W.E. has been an effective complement to other types of projects used to provide community improvement.
14. The form of administration adopted seems to have been compatible with the structure of the village and has sensibly assisted in strengthening local interest in communal development, both politically, socially and economically.
15. The programme does not, however, appear by itself to offer a complete solution to either the problem of poverty or that of community development.
16. Quantitative estimates of the valorisation of resources accomplished by W.E. could be made only through more intensive research than the present reconnaissance can afford. Similarly we have not found it feasible to undertake statistical comparisons of costs with benefits.

It would be exceedingly useful, eventually, to have data which only more intensive research would provide. We offer for consideration the proposition that the underwriting of intensive research of this character could be an important form of technical assistance. *

B. The applicability of Pronoia Ergassia (W.E.) to conditions in underdeveloped countries.

1. In the brief time at our disposal we have not been able to consider any specific cases of undeveloped countries to which these programmes might

* During our stay in Greece and our period of observation we have become aware of the need of much more detailed and thorough studies, if such programmes as the Pronoia Ergassia are to be fully and satisfactorily evaluated in respect of their value to the society. Mention has been made for example of the effects on the community of the release of additional income and the secondary and tertiary effects on employment and production. We have also spoken of the direct effects of Pronoia Ergassia on the utilisation of resources through the reduction of transport costs, drainage and irrigation. We feel that to make any overall reliable quantitative assessment of the effect of this and similar programmes would involve the sponsoring of research in these fields. Such results cannot be obtained by investigations such as those carried out by the mission. We believe, however, that such research would be necessary for a full appraisal of such programmes as the Pronoia Ergassia.

apply. Our attention has had to be focussed on the Greek situation specifically, precluding study of needs in other countries.

2. The mission can merely suggest certain conditions which in its opinion would ensure some substantial benefit from the adoption of such programmes. We hesitate to be dogmatic, for such a programme as the W.E. is clearly capable of adaptation to new circumstances and different conditions.*

3. We consider that such programmes would be valuable:

- i. Where there is a considerable pool of unemployed or underemployed labour which can be utilised to valorise resources which have hitherto only been incompletely utilised.
 - ii. Where the initial steps in such a process of valorisation can be achieved in the main by the use of this labour without diverting it from other useful fields and without requiring large quantities of equipment.
 - iii. Where this program is integrated with other arrangements which enhance the economic and social advancement of the community. Examples of such supporting measures might be the provision of an adequate system of local government, the development of social services, measures to promote the efficiency of agriculture, land reforms where necessary, etc.
- C. The usefulness of a group observation tour for representatives from underdeveloped countries.

1. The mission would submit that if governments in other countries are contemplating attacks on economic and social problems of a nature similar to those confronting Greece, then such a tour might assist them in their work.
2. They would, however, be unlikely in our opinion to find in the W.E. a complete solution to their difficulties.

* W.E. in Greece has recently been observed separately by representatives of Turkey, Indonesia and Japan.

EVALUATION OF THE GREEK COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMETerms of Reference

1. The Mission will proceed to Greece and spend a period of not more than four weeks to survey and evaluate the CDE Programme with specific reference to:
 - (a) its social and economic value in Greece both to the country as a whole and to the local communities themselves;
 - (b) its applicability to conditions of under-developed countries in other parts of the world.
2. The mission will advise the United Nations on the usefulness of arranging a group observation tour for representatives from under-developed countries to study the programme.
3. The mission will prepare during its stay in Greece a report for United Nations containing a brief description of sample projects as well as an evaluation as outlined above.

A SUMMARY OF THEGREEK COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMEPrepared for the Use of the Mission

The Greek Government requested the UNTAA to hold a seminar on Greece's Welfare through Employment Programme, a programme which started in 1948 and was primarily designed to deal with the problem of under-employment.

After careful consideration, the TAA decided to secure the services of two senior experts who will study the whole of the Community Development Employment Project in Greece and advise on:

- a. Its values and importance as a social and economical project in Greece.
- b. Whether it is, in their views, a project that should be of interest to other countries.
- c. Whether it is valid from a social point of view.

If these experts advise us in a positive sense under these three main headings, we should then be willing to organize a further demonstration of this project and attempt to decide the degree of its applicability for other countries by getting representatives of such other countries to visit Greece.

Objectives of the Community Development Employment Programme:

The programme was evolved in Greece after a study of its social and economic conditions. Low productivity, low level of investments, inadequate communication systems, a high percentage of unemployment and underemployment and a somewhat low standard of living were the general characteristics which were

3. We believe, however, that if they were to observe with understanding the problems of Greece and the variety of measures which have been adopted to meet them, then this would aid them in an analysis of their own domestic problems and assist them to devise appropriate measures at home.
4. We also believe that it would be useful to those administering this and similar programmes in Greece to have the benefit of discussion with the representatives of other nations who have had experience in other countries.
5. In the event of a seminar being decided upon, the mission would like to emphasize the need for careful preliminary preparation. Many of the projects are in mountainous country, difficult of access at certain times of the year and a wide survey such as that made by the mission might not be feasible. Thus the field observation might have to be supplemented by material collected and made specially available for the seminar. We have no doubt that with such preliminary organisation a seminar could successfully be undertaken in Greece.

discovered and which strengthened the belief that welfare through an employment programme was an effective method to improve such conditions.

Other objectives were:

- a. To provide work and income for the underemployed.
- b. To develop local resources by employing local people with their own tools and simple techniques, and taking advantage, at the same time, of their local self-interest in such work.
- c. To ensure a system that did not overtax the administration of the country.

Administration:

Villages were invited to put up proposals for simple works and were told that if they would draw up plans, the Government would provide money to pay wages to workers on the project. The proposals were examined by the district government offices and were then sent to Athens where they were screened and, if approved, funds were allocated for the wage payments.

Wages:

About 70 cents per day was paid to the worker. It is enough to provide a bare subsistence allowance, or perhaps a little more if several members of a single family work on the scheme. It is however so low that nobody would accept it if he could find other wage employment or do work of any value on his own land. It thus provides a simple means of sorting out the needy and unemployed from those in better circumstances, and work on the project is offered to anybody in the community who cares to come and join in. The wage is one of the factors that tends to direct the scheme into those areas or villages that are poorest and most in need of work. Thus application for work under the scheme should tend to come from the poorest areas, whilst the richer ones are not so interested.

Limitations of the Programme

1. It does not meet the immediate problems of families with no employable person.
2. It does not help a family when the employable members have full time, year around, employment but with an income insufficient to meet family needs.
3. There are some areas where there is so little local employment and so little local production that the programme can not fulfill its role of supplementary employment, as it is about the only employment that exists. In those areas, the programme payments do not meet the immediate basic needs of large families with only one employable person.
4. It does not eliminate the need for general public assistance, but it reduces the volume of demand for such aid.
5. It is not applicable where underemployment or unemployment does not exist.

6. It is inappropriate for works requiring continuous availability of personnel, as workers must always be free to leave anytime when other employment is available.

7. It cannot be used successfully on works where the benefit to the workers of the works accomplished is not substantial and apparent to them.

8. It cannot be used for work which requires technical resources which are not available.

9. The simplicity of the programme is such that it places little burden on administrative capacity.

Funds and Results:

The funds invested for the implementation of this Programme and the results obtained in the corresponding periods are as follows:

1. From the beginning of 1948 through 30 June 1950 the sum of 75 billion drachmas was allocated. During that period 860 kilometers of new roads were opened and 3,500 kilometers of existing roads were improved. Reforestation projects have been carried out and 150,000 trees were planted. The productivity of 150,000 streamas (about 40,000 acres) of land has been improved by drainage and irrigation. About 50 water supply systems were installed in various communities. In many devastated villages 5,000 cubic meters of crumbling walls were pulled down and the debris cleared. The airport of Alexandroupolis was also built during that period.
2. From the end of June 1950 through 30 June 1951 the sum of 50 billion drachmas was made available. The results of the Programme for that year were as follows:
 - a) 1,000 kilometers of new roads were opened and 1,200 kilometers of existing roads were repaired.
 - b) New reforestation projects were executed and 80,000 trees were planted.
 - c) Through drainage and irrigation works 50,000 streamas of land were made productive.
 - d) 30 water supply systems were built in various communities.
 - e) 4,000 cubic meters of crumbling walls were pulled down and debris cleared.
 - f) Airports were improved.
3. From the end of June 1951 through 30 June 1952 the sum of 49 billion drachmas will have been spent for the following works:
 - a) Opening of 1,500 kilometers of new roads.
 - b) Improvement of 200 kilometers of existing roads.
 - c) Reforestation and planting of 80,000 trees.

d) 100,000 stremmas of land drained and irrigated.

e) 30 water supply systems installed

f) 2,000 cubic meters of crumbling walls pulled down and debris cleared.

g) Improvement of airports and many sanitation projects carried out.

4. Recapitulation:

From the beginning of the operation of the "Welfare through Employment" programme to June 1952 the following works have been completed:

- a) 3,160 kilometers of new roads were constructed.
- b) 4,900 kilometers of existing roads were improved.
- c) Reforestation projects were carried out and 310,000 trees were planted.
- d) The productivity of 300,000 stremmas of land has been improved by drainage and irrigation.
- e) Water supply systems were installed in about 110 villages and communities.
- f) 11,000 cubic meters of crumbling walls were pulled down and debris removed.
- g) The airport of Alexandroupolis was built and many others improved.

The amount of 186.5 billion drachmae was spent for these works.

- h) Many sanitation projects have been carried out (installation and improvement of sewer systems, drainage of swamps), at the cost of 843 million drachmae.

During the period under discussion 25,000 workers were employed and 18 million wage days were paid. The present wage is 14,000 drachmae a day for men and 12,000 drachmae for women.

Appendix B: List of persons interviewed

1. Apergis, John, Nomos Welfare Director, Edessa
2. Correll, John, Labor Attache, U.S. Embassy
3. Dillon, John, Field Representative, MSA, Yiannena
4. Drake, Russell, Civil Government Division, MSA, Athens
5. Economou, Gregorios, Assistant Nomos Engineer, Levadia
6. Gatsos, John, Field Representative, MSA, Volos
7. Goutos, Michael, Secretary-General, Ministry of Social Welfare
8. Johnston, Archie, Field Representative, MSA, Salonica
9. Kitsides, Christos, Nomarch Nomos of Yiannena
10. Kontos, William, Assistant to Chief of Mission, MSA, Athens
11. Macris, Nicolas, Nomarch Nomos of Arta
12. Papadakos, George, Nomarch, Larissa
13. Pope, James, Food and Agriculture Division, MSA, Athens
14. Poutetsis, George, Nomos Welfare Director, Yiannena
15. Psarras, Andreas, Director-General, Ministry of Social Welfare
16. Raphael,ARIOS, Assistant to Secretary-General, Min.Social Welfare
17. Roessing, George, Finance Division, MSA, Athens
18. Strachan, Alan, Director Labor and Manpower Division, MSA, Athens
19. Sterghiades, Euripides, Nomos Welfare Director, Larissa
20. Tsitsikas, Nicolas, Nomarch, Nomos of Arta
21. Walker, John, Civil Government Division, MSA, Athens
22. Wright, Charles, Field Representative, MSA, Salonica
23. Yale, Charles, Food and Agriculture Division, MSA, Athens
24. Zanides, Dionissios, Director of Welfare, Governate of Northern Greece
25. Zissis, Michael, Director, Welfare Center Kozani.

APPENDIX C

Field itinerary during survey of Pronoia Ergassia in Greece

October 1952

Paul H. Guenault and Howard W. Beers
Community Development Experts in Greece, UNTAA

Theodora Papaflessa
Member of the Child Welfare Staff, Ministry of Social Welfare.

- October 10 - Travelled from Athens to LEVADIA, via jeep.
- October 11 - a) Interviewed members of Nomarch's administrative and engineering staff in absence of Nomarch and Welfare Director.
b) Visited ZARIKI to interview villagers, via jeep.
c) Visited MAVROMATI
- October 12 - Visited ARACHOVA to interview local officials, via jeep
Returned from Arachova to Athens.
- October 13 - a) Travelled from ATHENS to SALONICA (via air)
b) Interviewed Mr. Zanidis, Welfare Director (In absence of Nomarch).
c) Visited STAVROS to interview villagers, via car.
- October 14 - a) Interviewed Mr. Archie Johnston, Salonika Field Officer, MSA.
b) Travelled from SALONICA to EDESSA, via car
c) Interviewed Director of Welfare Center.
d) Visited PANAYITSA to interview villagers, via car
e) Visited ZERVY via car
f) Travelled KOZANI via car
g) Interviewed Director Zissis of the Welfare Center (In absence of Nomarch)

- October 15 - a) Visited TRIGONIKO to interview villagers, via car
b) Visited VELVENDOS " " " "
c) Visited KOILA " " " "
d) Visited AMYGDALA " " " "
e) Visited FLETAIONA " " " "
- October 16 - a) Visited ANARACHI to visit villagers " "
b) Travelled from KOZANI to LARISSA (via TAE)
- October 17 - a) Interviewed Nomarch Papadakos and Director Steriadis of Welfare Center.
b) Visited SKLITHERON to interview villagers, via car
- October 18 - a) Visited ANAFOLI road project to interview villagers, via car.
b) Visited TSOUKSANI to interview villagers, via car.
c) Travelled from LARISSA to VOLOS, via car.
d) Visited PORTARIA to interview villagers, via car.
e) Visited AGYAS VIASIOS " " via car.
- October 19 Sunday.
- October 20 - a) Visited ARGYTHEA to interview villagers, via jeep, (in Karditsa Nomos).
- October 21 - a) Travelled from VOLOS to LARISSA, via car.
Travelled from LARISSA to JANNINA (via TAE)
b) Interviewed Director Poutetsis, Jannina Welfare Center.
- October 22 - a) Visited KALENSIE area road project - interviewed villagers, via car.
From KALENSIE, FLESSIA, MONOLITHI and PLATANOOSA
b) Interviewed Mr. Kitsides, Nomarch of Jannina.
- October 23 - a) Travelled from Jannina to ARTA, via car.
b) Interviewed Nomarch of Arta, and Tsitsikas, Welfare Director.
c) Visited HOSEPSIS to interview villagers, via car,
d) Returned to JANNINA, via car
- October 23 - Travelled from JANNINA to ATHENS, via TAE

APPENDIX F

Related Community Work Program

Excerpts from a manuscript memorandum by C. William Kontos, Civil Government Division, Mutual Security Administration, Athens, Greece, July 30, 1951.

I. Allocation of tobacco tax revenues to demes and communes.

It has been agreed by the Minister of Finance that one-half of the revenues of the state-collected tobacco consumption tax be allocated to demes and communes, beginning with the next fiscal year. Based on estimates in the budget, this will yield approximately 320 billion drachmae. This allocation will be in lieu of all present state-collected, locally shared taxes now in existence and which amount approximately to 120 billion drachmae. This has been distributed heretofore only to demes and about a dozen communes. The over-all additional amount of revenue accruing to demes and communes will accordingly be about 200 million drachmae.

Roughly, this will mean 25,000 drachmae per capita. This amount will be earmarked for public works projects, including maintenance. The demes and communes will have to raise at least an equal amount of money from locally collected sources. The money will be deposited to the credit of the demes and communes. The nomarch will see to it that it is properly itemized in the budget of the deme and commune as public works expenditure and his certification will be necessary before money can be used. In case a deme or commune will not be able to raise an equal amount for general expenses, this amount will be withheld until the next fiscal year in the name of the deme and commune through which it was allocated. In case, then, a matching amount still is unable to be raised, the nomarch will be given the power to have the amount spent anywhere within the nomos for public works, with the requirement that an equal amount is matched.

II. The Community Voluntary Labor Program

This program is designed to extend reconstruction activities to the smaller communities in rural areas by utilizing the tradition in Greece of voluntary labor or self help. This self help takes the form of villages contributing their labor voluntarily in a community effort to build small works of real value to their village.

The program has operated very successfully during the past year. Including a recent supplemental allocation of 2 billion, it has been given a total of 7 billion drachmae. By end of June, 1951, 679 projects were completed in counterpart. On the average, 478 drachmae have been spent on each project whose final value is usually at least three times the initial investment.

The majority of the projects during the past year have been water supply systems, roads, bridges and culverts.

The program's administration is completely de-centralized with the nomarch's approval being the final level of governmental control.

The past year's program was the pilot project. With the incorporation of a number of changes based on experience, its procedure has been made simpler and more effective. The program is ready to be considerably expanded, 4 billion drachmae for the next fiscal year.

IV. Work relief.

Work relief program sometimes known as Community Development Employment is a plan for providing relief through employment to guerilla-stricken and indigent villages. Funds are allocated to nomarchs, to be issued as advance payments to those unemployed who qualify for work under the program. The people to be employed are chosen by determination of their need, except in repatriated refugee villages where individual need certification is not needed. Ten per cent of project funds are authorized for tools and rental of equipment.

The present figure tentatively allocated for work relief for fiscal year 1951-52 is 60 billion drachmae. This amount will be allocated for the most part to nomis with refugee villages. It is anticipated that very little of this amount will remain for other nomi. In the event that there is a balance, the poorer nomi and those with the greatest unemployment will be given second priority.

V. Small community improvement projects under agricultural extension program (Project Agreement #64, Amendments #3 and 5.)

During fiscal year 1950-51, this program had a total allocation of 8½ billion drachmae. The distribution of funds is made through the nomos Agricultural Service for the building of small agricultural projects such as irrigation works, stock watering units, minor drainage of flood control systems, village roadway repair improvements and miscellaneous improvement projects.

Projects up to 20 million drachmae are approved locally. Beyond that sum, they are referred to the Ministry of Agriculture for approval. The villages granted drachmae assistance for building of projects must match this sum by an equal amount in either labor or cash.

Food and Agriculture Division proposes to ask for 26.2 billion under project agreement for this program during fiscal year 1951-52.

VI. Distribution and repayment of goods sold to guerilla-stricken farmers.

This is a program agreement whereby certain non-consumable goods furnished to guerilla-stricken farmers are sold to them by the Ministry of Agriculture. The administration and collection of this program is undertaken by the Agricultural Bank acting as agent for the Ministry. As regards payment, the following is stated under the terms of the agreement.

Report on the Community Voluntary Labour Programme

By: C. William Kontos

4. Payment may be made either in cash or in labor at prevailing wages on projects of public benefit which have been approved by the relevant nomarchs committee.

5. Amounts paid in labor on approved projects will be credited to the account of the borrower.

The farmers have two years grace after receiving the goods. They must then pay their debts within a period of 10 years.

Since the agreement was signed on March 1950, it will be some time after March 1952 before payments begin to be due. The Food and Agriculture Division have not yet worked out a procedure for repayment of loans through labor in lieu of cash.

In Greece there has long been a practice in rural communities for villagers to contribute labor on projects of public benefit to their community. Despite the handicaps of ten years' disruption, this tradition has retained a considerable vitality. Combined with such a precedent there exists throughout the country both underemployment and wide-scale seasonal unemployment. Also, there is a tremendous need for community works which the ravages of war, occupation and guerilla destruction have increased. Nonetheless, this great reserve of potential energy had gone largely to waste for lack of direction and the small sums of money required to put it to work. Local enterprise is still today handicapped by the highly centralized nature of government in Greece. Taxes, for example, are collected by the central government with little of the revenue being returned to communities.

Upon such a background, the Community Voluntary Labor Program was designed to extend reconstruction activities to smaller communities and rural areas primarily and to reestablish the principle of local initiative and group work for community benefit. Essential materials would be provided to villagers who would propose a community project, provide whatever materials they themselves could and furnish voluntary labor for its completion. (Under no circumstances could and furnish voluntary labor for its completion. (Under no circumstances were wages to be paid for labor). By allowing the villagers to determine and to be responsible for these projects the program becomes one of the preliminary steps to local self-government familiarizing the people in running their own affairs while giving them a chance to help themselves.

The Community Voluntary Labor Program emphasizes the building of small works projects of the type that could have been built had the communities their own resources. Illustrative of the type of project acceptable under the program is the construction, repair and maintenance of farm-to-market roads, repair or improvement of essential community buildings, improvement of irrigation and water systems, small flood control and land reclamation projects, etc.

The ECA Mission proposed that a sum of \$324,000 in counterpart funds be made available for the purchase of necessary materials and whatever technical assistance might be indispensable. The program was purposely limited during its first year in order to make sure that its administration would be worked out as efficiently as possible and to judge the extent of the villager's response.

Under the terms of the project agreement concluded with the Greek government, funds were allocated to the nomarchs (the regional "prefects") by the Ministry of Interior in the proportion that the number communes in each nomos bears to the total number of communes in Greece. Such a precise method of allocation was decided upon in order to avoid political

patronage pressures on nomarchs and on the Ministry of Interior which a less definite division of funds would have allowed and every nomos was given the same chance to utilize its local resources, both human and material, in its own building program.

The essential purpose of the program has not been a welfare one, hence a criteria of need was not primarily considered. (An allied program designed to serve welfare ends was already in existence called the Work Relief Program, sometimes known as Community Development Employment. It is a plan for providing relief through employment to guerilla-stricken and indigent villages. The people are employed to work on community projects after a determination of their need except in repatriated refugee villages where individual need certification is not necessary. Ten percent of project funds are authorized for tools and rental of equipment. Generally funds have been allocated to those nomoi with refugee villages.)

The main concern of the ECA Mission was to devise as decentralized an administration of the aid given through the Community Voluntary Labor Program as was possible while at the same time maintaining safeguards that the funds be well spent. The nomarch and a local advisory council, including other such interested nomos officials as the nomos engineer, were given the responsibility for judging a project to be both desirable and feasible. The criteria for choice from among the projects submitted to them by the villages was left flexible but was based on the relative importance of the project as compared with other requests and on the availability of funds. However, projects calling for any major construction work or large-scale technical supervision are excluded from the program.

After a project has been approved, the nomarch sends a staff engineer to draw up a simple design, if this is required, who assigns some technically proficient person from within the village to act as project foreman. The village is supplied with the material necessary, e.g. lumber, water pipe, cement, etc., and the work is begun by the village, which is responsible for its completion.

In working out the administrative procedure for operating this program a number of problems had to be ironed out. A ratio had to be determined on a percentage of the voluntary labor to be supplied to the materials needed. This ratio would vary according to different projects and a margin of flexibility was left to the discretion of the nomarch and council. However, the minimum lines were drawn at no less than 30% of labor for water supply projects, which often necessitate more expensive materials and proportionately less contribution in labor, and no less than 50% in labor for other projects.

Bidding procedure for the purchase of materials is used only in case the value of the material procured exceeds the amount of 10,000,000 drachmae.

In the original project agreement the nomarch was held solely responsible for the accounting of funds dispersed to him. It became apparent that his work load was substantially increased by this obligation and to relieve him, the accounting procedure was changed so that management of credits could be delegated to local civil servants.

A protective clause was inserted in the agreement between the ECA Mission and the Greek government whereby any nomos which had not seriously begun construction during the first six months of the program's operation would have its funds withdrawn and re-allocated to other areas. Because of a 100% response from all nomoi in Greece, this clause did not have to be invoked. However, at the conclusion of every quarter a report from the nomarch on all projects in his area must be submitted and an inspection of work programs takes place in order that allocated funds favor those areas willing to work. It was felt that competition between nomoi for funds would benefit the program considerably.

Distribution of funds was made in two allotments. The first half (\$162,500) was allocated for use during the first six months of the program; the second half, at the beginning of the succeeding six-month period. By the end of the fiscal year, June 30, 1951, the program had been actually in effect for nine months and \$325,000 had been spent. The program's initial phase as a pilot project ended most satisfactorily. Over 679 projects at approximately \$478 per project were completed.

The following is a breakdown of the type of voluntary labor projects built or scheduled to be built as of April 30, 1951:

1. Roads and Bridges	296
2. Water supply installations	267
3. Community buildings	36
4. Drainage works	24
5. Land reclamation and irrigation works	19
6. Sewerage	13
7. Miscellaneous	24
	<hr/>
	679

GREECE TODAY

To gain some idea of Greece today; it is necessary to briefly scan Greece of former days.

Greece reached her greatest power and glory in the fifth century B.C. under Alexander the Great of Macedonia. It became a province of the Roman Empire in 46 B.C.; of the Byzantine Empire 395 A.D. and was conquered by the Turks in 1456 from whom it gained its independence in 1830 with the aid of England, France and Russia, and became a kingdom under the guarantee of these countries.

The first king was a Bavarian Prince, who later fled the country and was succeeded by the son of the King of Denmark; and it is from the descendants of this king that the people are ruled today.

In 1925, after the great disaster in Turkey; when the Greeks lost over two hundred thousand troops, due to the ill advised invasion of that country; the monarchy was overthrown and the country once more declared a Democracy and placed under the virtual dictatorship of that greatest of all modern Greeks Venizelos, a Cretan Patriot, for a period of ten years. It was under the guidance of this great man that Greece made more progress than in a hundred years under the monarchy.

It was under his administration that a redistribution of land was made to the Deportees; the church having acquired, during the reign of the monarchy, over 75% of all the tillable land. New roads were constructed, thousands of acres of land drained and put under cultivation. A thirty million dollar match monopoly deal was devoted to the erection of schools. Education was made compulsory. Prior to his administration, approximately 80% of the present population was illiterate. An appeal was made to the League of Nations for the

services of a Mission to make a thorough study of Health conditions in the country. This request was granted and the speaker was fortunate enough to have been chosen as one of that Mission. Lack of general sanitation in the country was notorious. Modern and safe water supplies were provided for the larger cities, and a general campaign for improving water supplies for smaller towns and villages was gotten under way; but there was no measure that required more urgent attention than the control of Malaria in the country; which had been a curse for centuries. A complete survey was made, the types and number of cases determined; the kinds of mosquitoes and their relative importance from the standpoint of Malaria transmission. The Rockefeller Foundation had charge of this work and spent close to a half million dollars carrying out the work. It was from the results of these studies that the speaker was able at a later date to put through a campaign of eradication by improved measures, made possible by the proper use of DDT, and reduce the number of annual cases, which had been in non epidemic years about one seventh and in epidemic years close to one half of the population of a little over seven million, to less than fifty thousand including relapses. It is hard to realize that this little country, at one time, used close to one fourth of the world's supply of quinine.

It might be well to state here that it was under the administration of Venizelos, that one of the greatest transfers of a population in history took place. Over 1,500,000 Greeks were forced out of Asia Minor into an already over populated country. Books could and have been written about the problems involved in the care of these people, health being one of the greatest. The speaker was present during a great part of this struggle and saw the almost im-

possible accomplished. It would have been almost if not impossible had not Greece almost doubled in size in the Balkan War of 1913, when the Turks and Bulgarians were driven out of Thrace and Epiris. It was in 1935 that Venizelos was forced out of power, due in large part to betrayal on the part of those whom he had befriended and the fact that he refused to play the part of a real Dictator, and his insistence that the country be a democracy, not in name only, but in administration.

The country was again declared a monarchy and the King restored to the throne after a phoney plebiscite, with the country in the hands of the army.

We will not attempt to give the details of the rule of the Dictator Metaxa, who followed the practices of Mussolini and Hitler in his rule of the country. In many instances, he used methods more extreme than his instructors; but in spite of this the Greeks rose to a man and put up a united front against the Italians when they attacked the country. We are all familiar with the wonderful fight they waged against overwhelming odds, in both manpower and equipment.

It was the German War Machine, which came to the aid of Mussolini, that crushed the Greek organized resistance in 1941. The country was honey combed with Guerrilla bands, who harassed the Germans up to the last day they occupied the country. It was the persistence of the Guerrillas that forced the German command to keep a large force of badly needed troops in this theater throughout the war. It was the irony of fate that these Guerrillas, which were supported by the British with money, food and military equipment, should in the end be the force to be crushed, by their erst while friends and supporters.

Area of Greece:

Greece has an area of 50,257 sq. miles, of which less than twenty-three (23%) percent is tillable. Over sixty percent of the country is so poor, it will not raise good food. Over 70% of the population lives in the ^{central} central area. The country is practically depleted of forests, though a strenuous effort was made during the Venizelos' regime to start a systematic system of reforestation. Many of these projects were destroyed during the war period.

Population:

It is not possible to give an accurate figure of the population as there has not been a census since 1940, but the estimate is 7,450,000. Resources and Industries:

The country is primarily agricultural. The most important being olives, which provides the peasants with their main food supply. A failure of the olive crop, which occurs ever so often is a national disaster; as olive oil is almost a perfect food, and universally used to take the place of fats.

Greece also produces a large percent of our so called Turkish tobacco for blending American cigarettes.

Due in large part to land reclaimed under the Venizelos' regime Greece was able to increase her wheat production from 15% of her requirements to 85%. Improved seed and methods of cultivation has increased the production of cotton materially. Prior to the war, her production of wool just about covered the demands of her local woolen mills.

The country produces sufficient oranges, lemons, apples, apricots, cherries, plums and berries to meet the demands of the population. One of her principal exports is currents of an excellent variety. Figs are grown but not in large quantity. The country produces a large

variety of garden vegetables which are plentiful and cheap.

Little or no corn is grown in the country due to lack of rain and where irrigation is not possible; the lack of rain in the summer months causes a serious shortage of pasture and other forage.

The industries of the country are limited, in large part due to the lack of cheap power; although the country has an almost unlimited source from rivers that could be developed at a reasonable cost.

The country has iron, zinc, lead, lignite and salt; but such mining as has been done in the country has been very crude and a proper Geological survey of the country as a whole has never been made.

Having given you a very brief and I might say inadequate picture of the country; let us now look at what we in the U.S. and Greece as a country are faced with today.

First: The United States has been given a ward that it will be forced to nurse and care for at an enormous cost for years to come, or shamefacedly withdraw and let the country drift into utter chaos. We were very cleverly forced by Churchill into supporting a reactionary tory government; that believes in everything that our Constitution and very foundation of government opposes.

Second: Greece as a country can support, under a liberal form of government, a population of approximately five and a half million people. It has at present close to seven and a half million, and increasing at the rate of about two hundred thousand a year.

There was a time when the principal export from Greece was its immigrants, and it was close to two hundred thousand a year; but now the doors of practically the entire world are closed. We, at one time, were taking in over sixty thousand a year. Today the quota

for Greece is 390. The American Consul informed me in 1948; that they had on hand sufficient applications for visas to cover the quota for forty years. These applications have to be renewed every six months. The same or stricter restrictions have been put into effect by India, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Egypt, Argentine, Brazil and other South American countries that at one time had an open door for these people. The same holds for other countries of the world.

Third: It has been conservatively estimated that in politics; the country is divided about as follows: 80% Liberal and Democratic, 15% Tory and for the Monarchy, 5% Communistic and for Russia. Due to the fact that Greece is as completely a police state as Hitler, Mussolini or Stalin ever put in force; there is little chance that the people will ever be given a real say in their government. Any talk of past or future free elections is purely eye wash. To oppose a government candidate openly is social and economic suicide to put it mildly.

Fourth: The United States Government and its' private citizens have donated over a billion dollars to Greece during and since World War Two. The large percentage of which has gone for food and clothing. Very little of this money has been spent on developing industry; so badly needed to provide employment for the army of unemployed.

Fifth: The question of taxation under the present government is a disgrace, as is the case in many other countries of Europe. The rich go free or practically free; while every cent possible is drained from the peasant. My personal experience is a point in case. In order to get a place to live; it was necessary for me to sign two contracts with my landlord; one in which I agreed to pay him two hundred dollars a month rent and another which he presented to the government

tax collector showing that I was paying him twenty dollars a month. Similar tactics are employed by the upper or moneyed class in all of their dealings with the government.

On the other hand taxes are collected from the laboring class by payroll deductions on a percentage basis. In factories, this is very cleverly worked by having two payroll sheets; one showing that the employees receive a stated wage 20 to 50 percent under what is being paid, and the government tax computed from that; while the second payroll shows the actual pay received and the percentage withheld required by law. The difference between what is withheld from the actual pay and the dummy makes a very handsome refund to the owners. Taxes collected from the peasants is done by the old Roman method; by dividing the country into regions and subdivided into sections and put up for bid. The successful bidder is entitled to all he can collect over and above what he pays the government. Collecting stations are placed at convenient places, near markets, on roads, at ports, and a further check made through cooperativas. Needless to say, the peasant has little chance of dodging his taxes as the courts stand solidly behind the contractors.

It was this unfair and ancient tax system which Venizelos attempted to correct, along with lower interest rates that made him many enemies among the ruling classes, and in the end brought about his downfall.

The American Mission is making a strong effort to correct some of these abuses, but are making slow headway; as they are strictly limited in their power to act by Washington; which defines their power as purely advisory. This power to the Greeks is a joke and they treat it as such. The time may come when we will make our dollars count in Greece, by having a competent man placed in each of the

Ministeries who will review and pass on all proposals, before they are turned over for final approval to our Chief of Mission for execution. At present there is nothing but confusion.

Greece has just ended a long, bitter, costly and unnecessary Civil War from which it will take a long time to recover and it will take intelligent administration over a long period of time to bring about normal conditions. The American people must face the fact that they must be prepared to nurse and care for this sick baby for years to come. Since this is the case, measures should be taken to see that our aid is not abused, but used for the good of all the people in so far as this is possible. Until such time as world conditions will make it possible to absorb about one third of the population of the country.

IS OUR EFFORT TO CONTROL THE SPREAD OF COMMUNISM IN THE WORLD BEING INTELLIGENTLY ADMINISTERED?

Having spent the greater part of forty years of my life in foreign countries, there is nothing that has interested me more than to observe the attitude of the average American to the natives of countries in which they may be visiting or with whom they may be doing business.

Let us take the average American visitor that one contacts in foreign lands and analyze the object of his visit. One in a hundred - a liberal estimate - is anxious to profit by using the limited time at his disposal to study the people, their customs, living conditions, and general outlook on life. The other ninety-nine follow a beaten path that years ago was laid out by Thomas Cook, the American Express, and other tourist organizations that felt that what the American visitor wanted is only the best that the country visited had to offer; and their years of experience has proven this correct. The net result of this system is that on returning home the general public is given, through our daily papers and magazines, a series of articles that in no way portray the conditions existing as a whole in the country described. Unfortunately the man or woman who takes the time and patience to study real conditions is either content to obtain the knowledge for self-satisfaction or embody it in a book, that when written, will reach a very small ^{percent of} American ^{public.} ~~business firms.~~

Until a comparatively few years ago, very few American business firms sent American representatives abroad. Such business as they did was done through foreign agents, the exception being our tobacco and oil companies. These organizations carefully trained their young men for these posts abroad, and then had them understudy the older, more seasoned men for a number of years before putting them on their own.

We have other Americans abroad of a different strata: those in the Diplomatic Service; and it is from this group that we should get our guides and authentic information. But, unfortunately, due to traditions and customs, these men, taken as a whole, know little of actual conditions existing in the countries in which they serve.

I have personally known hundreds, scattered through countries in which I have worked, that, except for visiting some special place of interest as a more or less official guest, spent the time of their assignment in a very limited area; and, worst of all, in the company of a very restricted number of friends, which resulted in their hearing only what they were supposed to hear, and that from the chosen few.

On many occasions I have been in gatherings when economics and other internal questions were being discussed by ambassadors, ministers, secretaries and consuls; and it was astonishing to see how completely mis-informed these gentlemen were of actual conditions existing. In most cases they were simply parroting what they had heard at some cocktail party from someone whose task it was to pass the mis-information along.

You may wonder why all this preamble which has no apparent bearing on the text of my talk. As a matter of fact, this is an effort to show in a few words some of the reasons why, to date, ^{we have} made such poor headway in our task of establishing Democracy on a sound basis by spending billions in foreign countries; for, it all sums up to the simple fact that we sadly lack trained personnel for service abroad; and, what is equally as fatal is the ignorance of the American public of the conditions with which we are faced.

Now, before getting into the heart of this talk, I want to assure you, one and all, that it is not my desire, in any way, to champion, nor in any way praise, communism, fascism, nazism or socialism, nor any other ism, for that matter; for, while there is some good in all of them, anyone of them carried out in their entirety leads to but one ultimate end - totalitariansim; and this means tyranny and general chaos.

Let us briefly scan conditions existing before the War in some of the countries with which I am personally familiar. Taking one of the smaller countries first, we will choose Greece - country in which we have poured over a billion dollars, most of which has gone for food and clothing. The people of this little, mountainous, poverty stricken country have been ground under foot for centuries - five hundred years under the Turks; and, then, for ninety-odd years ^{by} a Danish royal family, which was transplanted bodily into the country by the English after they had assisted in destroying Turkish rule.

During this time there were countless uprisings among the peasants who were taxed to the limit to support the bureaucracy in Athens and pay the salaries of the appointees that governed them, and saw that they paid every cent in taxes that could possibly be drained from them. It might be interesting, at this point, to briefly outline the system employed.

The government very cleverly worked out a plan that was more or less fool-proof. The country was divided into provinces, and the provinces into regions; and every year the taxes on the various products produced in the areas was put up for bid. The individual or group of individuals making the highest bid agreed to pay the government a flat sum for the privilege of collecting the taxes, they, of course, receiving anything in excess as their profit, over and above what was paid the Government. Needless to say, the peasant had little chance to avoid paying the limit. All roads leading to markets, had their stations where vehicles or other means of conveyance were stopped and thoroughly examined and appraised. If possible the tax was collected at once; but where this was not possible a due bill was signed on which collection was made after the produce had been disposed of. As the collectors were out to make a profit over and above what they were paying the Government, and had the unqualified support of the courts, they had little trouble collecting. This type of taxation kept the peasant just about one step ahead of starvation, and his family in poverty. This method of taxation was carried on until 1922, when the King was deposed and the republic set up after the Turkish fiasco brought on by international power politics and greed - but this is another story.

The people elected as the head of their republic that greatest of all Greek statesmen of modern times, Venezelous, who at once started a series of reforms, one of the most important being a redistribution of land. How important this was, can be understood when one considers the fact that approximately eighty-five percent of all tillable land in the country was owned by the church and a few old families.

Peasants were permitted to purchase small tracts of land at a reasonable price and given twenty years to make payment. Venezelous also brought interest rates down from 200/o to 50 o/o a year to 10 o/o; and a general revision of the tax system was attempted in an effort to spread the taxes more justly.

By the granting of a match monopoly, he was able to raise thirty million dollars for the construction of schools in the various villages of the country, while making education compulsory. This in its self was a great forward step, when one considers that under the old regime over ninety percent of the population was illiterate.

I had the opportunity of working in the country for a period of ten years while these reforms were being put into effect; and it was marvelous to see the revived spirits of the masses. They had new hopes for the future and ambition to improve their living conditions and that of their families. But, as so often happens, they were lulled into a sense of false security; and, before they realized what had happened, the strong bureaucracy that had fattened on the bounty of the ^{exiled} King managed to get control of the ~~Army~~, and Venizelous was forced out; and the country again placed under a dictatorship appointed by the King, after a phoney election had recalled him to the throne. It did not take long for the old group to entrench themselves, and drift back to the old methods of oppression.

However, another opportunity to unshackle themselves from the privileged groups came to the Greek people with the second World War. In spite of the dictatorship, the Greek people put up a united front against Italy; but, eventually, of course, they were over-powered by Germany who only withdrew her troops when her war was lost in Europe. Here was another opportunity to establish a republic.

The King and his court had escaped to Egypt with the assistance of the English. Their dictator, under the King, General Metaxas, had died in office. It was they who had carried on a relentless guerilla warfare against the Germans, right up to the time the last troops were withdrawn from the country. But they were doomed to disappointment. For, that great war-time - but dangerous peace-time Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, decreed otherwise. He thought of Greece with her King as a Constitutional Monarchy; but in Greece a Constitutional Monarchy is practically impossible, because of the power of the old privileged groups.

When we entered the country in October, 1944, we brought not only food and clothing but tanks, guns, airplanes, and soldiers. And the Greeks were informed by action, if not in so many words, that while their German masters were gone, their old silent masters, the English were taking over.

I saw the effects of this move from 1944 to 1948. The civil war had started, a three-way fight between the Government sponsored by Churchill, the Communists and the republicans, finally resolving itself to a fight between the Government and the Communists. The British finally, as you know, were unable to carry the financial burden of maintaining the Government and were forced to toss it into the lap of Uncle Sam, in 1946. Ours is the problem of trying to ~~to~~ ^{some of} rectify the many mistakes of the British.

UNRRA, in spite of many reports to the contrary, did everything possible to perform the task for which it was organized from the time its personnel landed in Greece in 1944 until it was terminated in January of 1947, when many of its functions were taken over by the World Health organization; and a civilian and military mission was sent over from the United States. These missions, for the most part were composed of men and women that had never been out of the United States before; and yet they were supposed to take over and carry on the work started by UNRRA. Many of them learned through sad experience the real problems of the people, and rendered valuable service.

UNRRA spent approximately \$475,000,000.00 in Greece, the great bulk of which went for food and clothing. It was over the distribution of this that a great fight occurred. The Chief of the UNRRA Mission was a man that believed that the American people were donating supplies for all the people, and not for any one political group, which was contrary to the views the Greek government. Their decree was that any man or woman accused of not approving this monarchist government should starve and freeze along with their children - and many hundreds did just that, in spite of the efforts to see justice done by the Chief of the Mission.

There are hundreds of incidents of stupidity and downright cruelty on the part of the Greek government that might be mentioned, but to little purpose at this time. However, one outstanding incident might be mentioned which occurred early in 1947 when a notice of amnesty was sent out all over the country to all those agreeing to lay down arms and swear allegiance to King and country. A group of a hundred and fifty came into the town of Kalamata and complied with the requirements. They were all headed into a jail, and told that their individual cases would be disposed of in the morning. That night a band of government bandits raided and killed every member of the group. And there were hundreds of individual cases where similar fate was handed out in different

parts of the country. The result of our Government tolerating such behaviour on the part of the Greek government, a government it was aiding in many vital ways, only prolonged this state of internal chaos at the cost of thousands of lives and millions of American dollars. For revenge begot revenge and a desire for revenge.

To call attention to the millions of dollars spent for equipment, live stock, and supplies in no way suited to the needs of the country would be tiresome, if carried out in detail; but, attention might be called to the tractors, gang-plows, and combines that made us the laughing stock of the country, where the average peasant farm is under 10 acres. I saw tractors, with trailers attached, hauling passengers on the roads, and big combines being dismantled, and the metal being used to make tools the natives could use. Hundreds of Missouri mules and thoroughbred cattle died for lack of proper food.

I might spend hours describing how I have seen American dollars squandered in China, Burma, India, Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Lebanon, Persia, Eritrea and Italy; not to mention the Western countries and England where we sunk untold millions in our war effort. It is also possible for me to describe, from personal experience and observation, a parallel case of conditions existing in countries like Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Poland, Hungary, Austria and Albania, before the war, to those existing in Greece. But each would be a story in its self; and, when analysed would differ very little in its ultimate end, the exploitation of the little fellow.

A summary of what has been given you would be about as follows:

We were catapulted into taking a task for which we were not prepared.

We have attempted to solve the problem from the top down; and, not from the bottom up.

We have been forced into the position of dealing with "set-ups" in Governments that are contrary to the very principle on which our Government was founded.

Although our representatives abroad had the power to force the relief of the peasant, they did not dare exercise their power, as they did not have the support of our State Department which, having no foreign policy, was anxious to follow ^{the} Alfonso, Gaston act, when a positive, realistic action was necessary.

A good example, is over populated Italy with its half-staved millions, while hundreds of thousands of acres of idle land is left in the hands of the large land owners.

My observation has been that the average peasant does not want charity, but does want a chance to work and earn an honest living.

Our policy^{to} date of feeding and clothing the people, but failing to assist them properly in providing a means of livelihood for the time when our charity ceases, can not help resulting in our being hated, and condemned, leaving behind us a strong incentive for a try at Communism or any other kind of "ism" of the totalitarian brand.

*China
France*

N E W S L E T T E R

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

Vol. VI, No. 2

Office of Publications

May, 1959

We deeply regret reporting that Mr. Thomas Veale died on May 9, at the age of 48, after an illness of several months. Mrs. Veale, a daughter, and three sons survive.

Mr. Veale came to the Foundation in 1951 as a staff member of the Office Service Department. His courtesy, helpfulness, and dignity earned him the affection and respect of his immediate co-workers, and the high regard of all those with whom he came in contact.

Before joining the Foundation Mr. Veale had served successively as a cottage parent, a youth parole officer, and clinic social worker at the New York State Training School for Boys, in Warwick. Mr. Veale had studied social work at New York University while on the staff of the school.

A Rosary will be said at 8:00 P.M. on Wednesday, May 13, at the Paris Funeral Home, 151 West 131st Street. Services will be held at the Church of the Resurrection, 276 West 151st Street, at 10:00 A.M. on Thursday morning.

-- STAFF TRAVEL AND ACTIVITIES --

Mr. RUSK attended a conference, which included representatives of government, education, and international organizations interested in the education of foreigners in the United States, on April 4 in Annapolis. On April 27 Mr. Rusk spoke to the Industrial College of the Armed Forces in Washington.

Dr. WARREN WEAVER has accepted membership on the Visiting Committee for Biological Sciences of the Johns Hopkins University and attended a meeting of the group in Baltimore on May 6. The following day he attended a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Sloan-Kettering Institute, and on May 8 a meeting of the Board of Trustees of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. Dr. Weaver expects to attend a meeting of the Board of Managers of Memorial Center on May 19, and to be in Washington on May 24 and 25 for a regular meeting of the National Science Board.

Dr. J. G. HARRAR and Dr. ROBERT F. CHANDLER, Jr., have scheduled a trip to the Philippine Islands from June 4 to 14 to discuss rice research in Southeast Asia. They will be accompanied by the vice-president for overseas operations of the Ford Foundation.

Dr. RICHMOND K. ANDERSON left New York on May 4 for a five-week visit to India and Japan.

Dr. GUY B. BAIRD, of the Colombian Agricultural Program, visited the New York office recently en route to India, where he will spend several weeks with the Indian Agricultural Program. He is expected back around May 17.

On May 12 Dr. JOHN C. BUGHER plans to be in Washington for a meeting of the National Committee on Radiation Protection. From May 18 to 20 he will be in Pittsburgh for the annual meeting of the Radiation Research Society, and on May 25 and 26 in Upton, Long Island, for a meeting of the Brookhaven National Laboratory Medical Department Visiting Committee. On the afternoon of May 27 Dr. Bugher will attend a meeting of the New York City Mayor's Technical Advisory Committee on Radiation, of which he is chairman.

During the latter part of May Dr. ROBERT P. BURDEN plans to visit Puerto Rico briefly in connection with the preparation of the final report on the Bureau of the Budget survey of agricultural services on the island.

Mrs. MIRIAM R. CHARNEY joined the staff of the Reference Service on April 13 to replace Mrs. HARRIET C. BARRY, who is resigning on May 29. A 1957 graduate of Antioch College, Mrs. Charney came to the Foundation from the New York Guild for the Jewish Blind where she did case work.

Mr. GARTH P. COOGAN, of the Comptroller's Office, and his wife have announced the birth of a daughter, Catherine Marie, on April 20.

Dr. WILBUR G. DOWNS spent several days in the New York office and the Virus Laboratories recently and returned to Trinidad on May 3.

Mrs. JANET EARICH, who came to the Foundation early in April, has joined the Medical and Natural Sciences staff as one of Dr. Kumm's secretaries. Mrs. Earich is British, and worked for the British government in Washington during the war and subsequently for the director of public relations of the British Information Services.

Dr. U. J. GRANT and his family arrived in New York on May 6 to spend accumulated leave in the United States. After staying in the New York area for several days, they will visit relatives in the Southwest and then go on in June to Colombia where Dr. Grant will serve as Acting Director of the Agricultural Program.

During mid-May Dr. LUCIEN A. GREGG and his family will spend several weeks in Kashmir on local leave.

Miss CAROL HADDOCK, of the Comptroller's Office, plans to leave on May 14 for a month's vacation in Europe.

Dr. GUY S. HAYES flew from Geneva to spend ten days in the New York office recently. He returned to Switzerland on April 29.

Miss GRACE KLOTZ, of the Purchasing Department, is spending three weeks of vacation at Daytona Beach, Florida.

Miss RITA KRELL, former secretary to the dean of the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, has joined the staff of the Medical and Natural Sciences as secretary to Dr. Richmond K. Anderson. Miss Krell was born in South America, but has lived in England most of her life. During the war she served in the women's division of the Royal Air Force, and on a visit to the United States worked briefly in the pediatric clinic of the University of Chicago.

During the week of May 4 Dr. JOHN MAIER visited colleges in Minnesota and Ohio. He is leaving for Europe on May 17 to visit laboratories in the United Kingdom, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Yugoslavia, and France, and expects to return to New York on June 22.

Mr. JOHN MARSHALL left New York on May 9 for a six-week visit to Europe, principally Italy.

From the middle of May through the first week in June Dr. J. J. McKELVEY will be traveling in Peru, Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil, and Venezuela. Dr. I. M. ROBERTS, who will be transferred to the New York office in August, will accompany Dr. McKelvey.

Dr. HARRY M. MILLER, Jr., and Dr. VIRGIL C. SCOTT flew to Mexico on May 11 for a two-week visit to medical education and research centers.

Dr. ROBERT S. MORISON will attend the Symposium on Basic Research to be held at the Caspary Auditorium, in New York, from May 14 to 16 under the auspices of the National Academy of Sciences, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. On May 15 Dr. Morison

will speak on "Support of Basic Research from Private Philanthropy." On May 21 Dr. Morison will go to Boston to participate in dedication ceremonies for the Ziskind Research Building of the Pratt Diagnostic Clinic - New England Center Hospital.

Miss ANNE E. NEWBERRY, of the Office of Publications, recently spent two weeks in Mexico to help prepare plans for the Mexican Agricultural Program annual report for the current year.

"The Late-Blight of Potatoes," by Dr. JOHN S. NIEDERHAUSER and Mr. WILLIAM C. COBB, appeared in the May, 1959, edition of the Scientific American. The article was derived from an earlier one in the Trustees' Bulletin.

Mr. RICHARD H. NOLTE will again deliver two lectures on Middle Eastern countries, on June 4 and 5, at the NATO Defense College in Paris.

Mrs. GLORIA OBLUCK, who joined the agriculture staff last October, will replace Mrs. BARBARA TUNISON as secretary to Mr. Cobb after May 15.

Dr. OSLER L. PETERSON and Dr. VIRGIL C. SCOTT attended meetings of the American Society for Clinical Investigation and the Association of American Physicians in Atlantic City from May 3 to 6.

Dr. and Mrs. J. A. RUPERT, of the Chilean Agricultural Program, are spending accumulated leave in Europe. En route they stopped in New York on April 17, and they plan to return to Chile on June 4.

We are pleased to report that Dr. KENNETH C. SMITHBURN is recuperating at his home, 10 Burton Road, Larchmont, New York, after his recent illness.

The March 16, 1959, issue of Christianity and Crisis included "The Permanent Lesson of Berlin" by Dr. KENNETH W. THOMPSON. Late in March Dr. Thompson delivered the Lilly Endowment Research Program lectures on "Christian Ethics and the Dilemmas of Foreign Policy" at Duke University, and from April 1 to 20 visited Beirut, Istanbul, Ankara, and London. On May 2 Dr. Thompson chaired a meeting of the Nominating Committee of the American Political Science Association in Washington.

Mrs. BARBARA TUNISON is resigning from the staff of the Office of Publications on May 15. On June 6 she will be married in the First Presbyterian Church of New York to Mr. Charles J. Hartenstine, Jr., a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania and the New York Law School, who is an Assistant District Attorney for the Southern District of New York.

Dr. JOHN M. WEIR spent the week of April 27 conferring with officials in Bogotá, Colombia.

HENRY W. KUMM

Dr. Henry W. Kumm, who re-joined the staff in April as Associate Director for Medical and Natural Sciences, was first associated with the Foundation as a young man just graduated from the Johns Hopkins Medical School. A friend of a friend of Miss Florence Read, he was introduced to several of its staff on his way to intern at the Peking Union Medical College. After a



one-year stay in China he took time off for travel and further study, and was appointed a special member of the IHD staff in 1928.

During the next 23 years Dr. Kumm was an active participant in the impressive advances in tropical medicine that highlight the history of the IHD. His first post was with the Yellow Fever Commission in West Africa, where the virus strain which later became the successful vaccine was found and where, in spite of the precautions taken on the basis of still scanty information concerning the hazards of laboratory research on yellow fever, three members of the commission staff gave their lives for the conquest of the disease. One of them was Dr. Kumm's particular friend and roommate, Dr. Theodore B. Heyne.

Completing his African assignment in 1930, Dr. Kumm spent several months in the New York laboratory and then sailed for Brazil to work under Dr. Fred L. Soper on yellow fever control. The original idea, that Aedes aegypti was the only mosquito involved in yellow fever transmission, was disproved in 1932 in the Valle do Chanaan, State of Espírito Santo, Brazil, and thereafter Foundation staff members in several South American laboratories were engaged in

intensive studies of the epidemiology of jungle yellow fever. Dr. Kumm was next assigned to Jamaica, to study the transmission of yaws by a small West Indian fly known as Hippelates pallipes, but after two years he was called back to Brazil to help with field investigations of jungle yellow fever, which had by then become a serious problem.

Later Dr. Kumm was transferred to Central America, where he assisted in carrying out malaria surveys, initiating malaria control work, and studying the distribution of immunity to jungle yellow fever. During a trip by dugout canoe down the Usumacinta river, which flows between Mexico and Guatemala, no evidence was found of the recent presence of jungle yellow fever, but within the past decade that isolated region has been reinvaded by this virus. In Costa Rica Dr. Kumm discovered and named a mosquito, Haemagogus mesodentatus, which has been found naturally infected with the virus of jungle yellow fever in Guatemala.

During the war Dr. Kumm was stationed for a time in Panama studying the distribution of immunity to yellow fever in that country and helping with the program to control yellow fever mosquitoes. He was then sent to Colombia to take over the yellow fever laboratory in Bogotá after Dr. Bugher's transfer to Africa. In 1944 the Foundation loaned Dr. Kumm to the Public Health Sub-commission of the Allied Control Commission in Italy as a consultant on malaria control. With several other Foundation staff members, Dr. Kumm was assigned the interesting problem of how best to use DDT for malaria control under the conditions prevailing in Italy.

Dr. Kumm's last assignment with the Foundation was as head of IHD activities in Brazil. From headquarters in Rio de Janeiro he supervised field investigations directed at determining the reasons for the continual maintenance of jungle yellow fever in certain "reservoirs" and the mechanisms by which it spread so rapidly to other areas.

When the Foundation closed down the Rio Laboratory in 1951, Dr. Kumm and his wife returned to this country. By that time their children, two of whom were already in college, needed a permanent home in the United States. He therefore accepted a post with the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, serving first as Assistant Director and then as Director of Research from 1953 to 1958. Now that the young people are launched on their own careers, Dr. Kumm is coming "back home" to the Foundation.

Dr. Kumm was born in Wiesbaden, Germany, the son of a geographer and missionary director whose greatest interest was in Africa. This background was the source of his son's concern with tropical medicine. The family came to the United States when Dr. Kumm was 14, and he was educated at Haverford College, where he finished the four-year course in three years, and at Johns Hopkins where he received M.D. and D.P.H. degrees. He became a United States citizen in 1945.

Dr. Kumm met his wife, the former Annie Joyce Beale, while he was studying for the D.T.M. and H. degree at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and she was a student at the Royal Academy of Music. Their oldest child, Bill, was born in Bahia, Brazil, and educated at Amherst. He is now with the Air Arm Division of Westinghouse and the father of the Kumm's two grand-children, John Henry and Elizabeth Ann. Their daughter, Joceline Anne, was born in Pernambuco, Brazil. Largely on the advice of Miss Mary Elizabeth Tennant, Joceline went to the Yale School of Nursing after graduation from Smith and is now working for an M.P.H. degree at Johns Hopkins. Fred, the youngest, joined Westinghouse International after graduating from Dartmouth but is at the moment on a tour of duty with the army. Dr. and Mrs. Kumm live in Greenwich, Connecticut.

January 1958

The WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, now groups 88 countries with the aim of protecting the health of all peoples. WHO works with national health services to prevent infectious disease (malaria, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.), and to train health workers. It gives technical assistance to improve sanitary conditions in over 100 countries, warns of outbreaks of epidemic disease, co-ordinates research, and recommends international standards for drugs and vaccines.

Dr. M. G. CANDAU is Director-General, in charge of a staff (including field staff) of about 1000 professionals of 54 nationalities. WHO's budget, contributed by Member States, is \$13,500,000 for 1958.

WHO celebrates its 10th Anniversary this year at a Special Session of its governing body, the World Health Assembly, to be held in Minneapolis, beginning 26 May.

THE WORLD HEALTH ASSEMBLY

The governing body of WHO, the World Health Assembly, will hold its Eleventh Session, beginning 28 May 1958, in Minneapolis, Minn., on the invitation of the US Government and the City of Minneapolis. The meeting is expected to last three weeks.

The World Health Assembly, composed of delegations from WHO's 88 Member States, decides the Organization's policies, Programme and budget. Thus it is not a conference or a convention, but a business meeting taking decisions necessary for the Organization's continuing and effective work.

WHO WILL BE THERE?

Each Member State is entitled to send three delegates, plus a certain number of alternates and advisers. In addition there are observers from non-Member States, United Nations bodies, and from numerous non-governmental organizations. When secretariat and conference staff are added, there will be a total of about 600 people coming to Minneapolis for the meeting.

THE PRESIDENT

A new president is elected at each session. Dr. Sabih Hassan AL-WAHBI, former Minister of Health for Iraq, was last year's President, and will therefore open this year's session and preside until his successor is elected. Three Vice-Presidents are also elected each year.

The Director-General (Dr. M. G. CANDAU) not only acts as Secretary of the World Health Assembly, but may at any time make either oral or written statements concerning any questions under discussion.

M. Gandy R. University of Minnesota

TOWER OF BABEL

Since WHO has 88 Member States, speakers of most of the major languages of the world are to be found among the 300 or more delegates who attend. Obviously, it would be impossible to have each speaking his own language and the rules of procedure of the Assembly therefore lay down that there shall be two working languages, English and French, into which all documents are translated, while all speeches made in plenary session and in the main committee meetings are translated from and into English, French, Russian and Spanish.

The system used during meetings is simultaneous interpretation. Each seat in the Assembly Hall or the main committee rooms is equipped with earphones and a switch with five positions, one amplifying whichever speaker has the floor and the others carrying the simultaneous interpretations into the three other languages made by expert interpreters each seated in a sound-proof box.

THE JOB TO BE DONE

While all Member States and the Director-General have the right to submit agenda items for discussion, the main business of the World Health Assembly is to do the following things:

- *To consider the Annual Report of the Director-General on the work of the World Health Organization for the preceding year (at Minneapolis this will be for 1957).
- *To consider and approve the programme and budget for the coming year (i.e. at Minneapolis for 1959).
- *To elect Member States entitled to designate persons to serve on the Executive Board of the World Health Organization, and
- *To consider all applications for membership which have reached the Director-General at least 30 days before the opening of the Assembly Session.

HOW THE ASSEMBLY WORKS

The World Health Assembly starts with a general debate - in plenary session - which lasts from two to four days. National delegates follow each other on the rostrum, give an account of the progress made in their countries towards better health during the preceding year, relate those national activities to what is being done in other countries, and explain how they fit into the overall pattern of international health work which is the responsibility of the World Health Organization.

While this General Debate is going on, two committees are busy behind the scenes; the first one of these is the Committee on Credentials, consisting of 12 delegates, which examines the credentials of delegates and reports back to the Health Assembly. The other is the Committee on Nominations, consisting of 18 delegates of as many Members, chosen with regard to equitable geographical distribution and to experience and personal competence, which prepares nominations for the offices of President and three Vice-Presidents of the World Health Assembly, for the offices of chairmen of the main committees, and for the members of the General Committee, or Steering Committee.

ASSEMBLY SPLITS

As soon as the recommendations of the Committee on Nominations are before the Assembly, the election of the President and the three Vice-Presidents, as well as of the chairmen of the main committees, takes place. The General Debate concludes as soon as the list of speakers is exhausted, and the Assembly thereupon splits up into the two main committees, on each of which every national delegation is represented. They are the Committee on Programme and Budget, and the Committee on Administration, Finance and Legal Matters.

Further plenary meetings are held from time to time to set the seal of approval upon the recommendations made by each of these Committees or, occasionally, to reopen debate and to reach different decisions.

The Committee on Programme and Budget goes through the programme and budget for the coming year (the 1959 programme will be decided at Minneapolis) and produces, if it can, a recommendation for the total budget figure (for 1958 this was adopted by last year's Assembly at \$ 13,500,000). The Committee also goes into questions of health policy and sometimes decides to recommend a change of emphasis, and consequently a change in the programme, in the light of needs and of recent developments.

The Committee on Administration, Finance and Legal Matters deals with relations with Member States, and with matters arising out of the running of the six regional offices of the World Health Organization (for Africa in Brazzaville, for the Americas the Pan American Sanitary Bureau in Washington, for the Eastern Mediterranean in Alexandria, for Europe in Copenhagen, for South East Asia in New Delhi and for the Western Pacific in Manila). It concerns itself with questions concerning staff, administration and finance. It usually elects a legal sub-committee to make recommendations on purely legal matters.

Both these main committees make recommendations which are finally dealt with by the Assembly in plenary session.

SPIRIT OF CO-OPERATION

While the delegates attending the World Health Assembly, like those at the General Assembly of the United Nations, are government representatives, the great majority of them are something more than this - they are also public health workers. As such, they have a common bond and a common objective. Their principal aim is to improve the health standards of their own countries and their whole training and experience have been geared to this aim. They have also become convinced that, just as the health of the individual depends on the health of the community, national standards of health are dependent upon international co-operation.

For this reason there is a spirit of common purpose among these public health experts, although they represent different national points of view, which is rarely to be found at gatherings of purely political representatives.

Many of the decisions taken by the World Health Assembly are unanimous and do not require a vote. When voting is necessary, each delegation carries one vote, as in the General Assembly of the United Nations.

When the World Health Assembly comes to an end after the final plenary sessions, the delegates of the 88 Member States go home with the sense of a purpose achieved and with the resolve to intensify future co-operation in raising national health standards through international effort.

SPECIAL TENTH ANNIVERSARY SESSION

On the two days preceding its Eleventh Session, 26 and 27 May, the Assembly will meet in Special Session to mark the Tenth Anniversary of the World Health Organization. Presided over by last year's President, Dr. S. H. Al-Wahbi (Iraq), this special session will take the form of commemorative speeches by delegates in plenary session.

The WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, now groups 88 countries with the aim of protecting the health of all peoples. WHO works with national health services to prevent infectious disease (malaria, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.), and to train health workers. It gives technical assistance to improve sanitary conditions in over 100 countries, warns of outbreaks of epidemic disease, co-ordinates research, and recommends international standards for drugs and vaccines.

Dr. M. G. CANDAU is Director-General, in charge of a staff (including field staff) of about 1000 professionals of 54 nationalities. WHO's budget, contributed by Member States, is \$ 13,500,000 for 1958.

WHO celebrates its 10th Anniversary this year at a Special Session of its governing body, the World Health Assembly, to be held in Minneapolis, beginning 26 May.

HOW WHO WORKS

The World Health Organization is an international co-operative for health. The members of this co-operative are the nations of the world. Eighty-five countries are full members, while three territories which are not responsible for the conduct of their international relations have been admitted as Associate Members. (For list of members see p.4).

Membership in WHO is open to all States.

All members contribute each year to WHO's budget, and all members are entitled to the services and aid provided by the Organization.

WHO'S CONSTITUTION

WHO's Constitution, adopted by the International Health Conference in New York in 1946, embodies a new approach to world health.

- *It defines health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.
- *It states that the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is a fundamental human right.
- *It declares that Governments have a responsibility for their people's health.
- *It says that unequal health development in different countries is a common danger and that the health achievements of any State are of value to all.
- *It asserts that the health of all peoples is fundamental to the attainment of peace and security.

THE WORLD HEALTH ASSEMBLY AND THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

Each year, WHO's member states send their representatives to the World Health Assembly which reviews current activities and decides:

*The policies that govern WHO's work.

*The programme to be undertaken in the next and succeeding years.

*The amount of the budget necessary to carry out the programme for the following year.

The Assembly is also attended by observers from international bodies and medical and technical associations connected with health work.

The Eleventh World Health Assembly will meet in Minneapolis (Minn.) on 23 May 1958 Sessions usually last three weeks. The current President is Dr. Sabih Hassan AL-WAHBI, former Minister of Health for Iraq.

All member countries have an equal standing and equal voting rights in the Assembly. This ensures that WHO's activities shall be those which best serve the interests of its Members.

Each year the Assembly elects six countries entitled to designate a person to serve on WHO's Executive Board.

The Executive Board is a technical, non-political group of 18 health experts, each designated by one of the countries elected for the purpose by the World Health Assembly. Six Board members retire each year.

The Executive Board gives effect to the decisions of the Health Assembly, and scrutinizes the programme and budget proposed by the Director-General before its presentation to the Assembly. It generally meets twice yearly. It will hold a brief meeting in Minneapolis immediately following the Assembly.

Current Chairman: Sir John CHARLES, Chief Medical Officer, Ministry of Health, United Kingdom.

WHO'S SIX REGIONS

WHO's Constitution recognizes the desirability of decentralizing WHO's activities, and provides for regional organizations to be set up to meet the special health needs of a given area.

WHO has therefore divided the world into six regions, each with its regional committee and regional office. They are: the Americas (Office: the Pan American Sanitary Bureau in Washington, DC); Europe (Office in Copenhagen, Denmark); Eastern Mediterranean (Office in Alexandria, Egypt); Africa south of the Sahara (Office in Brazzaville, French Equatorial Africa); South-East Asia (Office in New Delhi, India); and the Western Pacific (Office in Manila, Philippines).

The Regional Committees, each composed of all the WHO Member States in the region, meet each year to plan health co-operation on the regional level and to consider what health programmes can render the most effective assistance to the countries of the region. The programme suggestions, after being endorsed by the Regional Committee, are sent on to WHO's Geneva headquarters where they are welded into a world programme to be presented to the World Health Assembly for final approval.

The administrative organ of the Regional Committee is the Regional Office which is also responsible for carrying out WHO's programmes in the region. Thus the regional machinery enables WHO's activities to be adapted to the evolving health needs of individual countries in each region.

THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL AND THE SECRETARIAT

The World Health Assembly appoints the Director-General, who, subject to the authority of the Executive Board, is the chief technical and administrative officer of the Organization. The Director-General appoints the staff of the secretariat (at present about 1000 all over the world). At the head of each Regional Office is a Regional Director, appointed by the Executive Board in agreement with the Regional Committee.

EXPERT COMMITTEES

To ensure that the Organization has the best possible advice when drawing up its policies and programmes, it has appointed over 1000 of the world's leading health authorities and medical scientists to serve on more than 30 Expert Panels, each covering a major field of health activity. As need arises, members of these panels may be invited to attend meetings of Expert Committees or Study Groups which formulate recommendations and proposals on specific aspects of WHO's programmes, and keep the Organization in step with current medical and scientific advances.

WHO'S BUDGET

When the World Health Assembly has approved the programme for a given year, it the decides the amount of money needed to carry it out. This annual Budget (\$ 13,500,000 for 1958) is then contributed by all of WHO's Member States according to a fixed "Scale of Assessment".

In this way the largest contributor, USA, pays in 1958 \$ 4,666,480 while over a dozen of the smallest Member States pay each the minimum contribution which, for 1958, is \$ 5,760.

In addition to this budget, contributed directly by Member States, WHO receives a certain sum from the United Nations Technical Assistance Fund. This Fund is composed of voluntary contributions made by a number of countries in addition to their regular contributions to the budgets of the United Nations or the agencies, and is intended to promote the economic development of under-developed countries.

As it is now an accepted truth that health and prosperity go hand-in-hand, a portion of this "technical assistance" money is handed over to the World Health Organization to enable it to undertake additional health projects in countries where special need exists. The amount varies from year to year, but it is generally around five million dollars.

WHO AND THE UNITED NATIONS

The World Health Organization is a Specialized Agency of the United Nations. This means that it was brought into being by the United Nations and is inspired by the principles laid down in the UN Charter.

When it came into official existence, however, it took on a large measure of independence: it has its own independent membership, its own governing body (the World Health Assembly) and its own independent budget.

WHO reports each year to the UN Economic and Social Council, and, through various co-ordinating bodies, its activities are linked with those of the United Nations and the other UN Agencies wherever their fields of interest touch WHO's.

WHO'S MEMBER STATES

Afghanistan, Albania, Argentina, Australia, Austria.
Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burma, Byelorussian S.S.R.
Cambodia, Canada, Ceylon, Chile, China, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia.
Denmark, Dominican Republic.
Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia.
Finland, France
German Federal Republic, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala.
Haiti, Honduras, Hungary.
Iceland, India, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Indonesia.
Japan, Jordan (Hashemite Kingdom of).
Laos, Lebanon, Liberia, Libya, Luxembourg.
Mexico, Monaco, Morocco.
Nepal, Nigeria, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway.
Pakistan, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippine Republic, Poland, Portugal.
Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Romania.
Saudi Arabia, Sierra Leone, South Korea, Spain, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Syria
Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey.
~~Union of South Africa, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay,~~
U.S.S.R.
Venezuela, Viet Nam.
Yemen, Yugoslavia.

The WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, now groups 88 countries with the aim of protecting the health of all peoples. WHO works with national health services to prevent infectious disease (malaria, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.), and to train health workers. It gives technical assistance to improve sanitary conditions in over 100 countries, warns of outbreaks of epidemic disease, co-ordinates research, and recommends international standards for drugs and vaccines.

Dr. M. G. CANDAU is Director-General, in charge of a staff (including field staff) of about 1,000 professionals of 54 nationalities. WHO's budget, contributed by Member States, is \$ 13,500,000 for 1958.

WHO celebrates its 10th Anniversary this year at a Special Session of its governing body, the World Health Assembly, to be held in Minneapolis, beginning 26 May.

(17)

HOW WHO BEGAN

The World Health Organization, like the United Nations, was an outcome of the world-wide longing for peace and international understanding which inspired the United Nations Charter.

In April 1945, the San Francisco Conference which set up the United Nations Organization approved a joint proposal from Brazil and China that an international health organization should be established.

In June 1946, the United Nations summoned an International Health Conference in New York, at which the Constitution of the World Health Organization was drafted, adopted and signed by representatives from 61 countries.

It was decided that the Constitution should come into force when 26 member states of the United Nations had ratified their signatures. This happened on 7 April 1948, a date now observed each year as World Health Day.

Meanwhile an Interim Commission had been carrying on essential international health services and preparing the way for the World Health Organization, to which it formally handed over responsibility in September 1948.

Meeting for the first time in June 1948, WHO's governing body, the World Health Assembly, approved the programme and the budgets for 1948 and 1949, and appointed Dr. Brock Chisholm (Canada) as Director-General.

A CENTURY OF EFFORTS

The World Health Organization is the culmination of a century of efforts towards international health co-operation.

In earlier times sickness was considered a purely personal misfortune, and governments had little concern for health matters.

From the 14th century onwards, some countries and ports introduced harsh and often cruel quarantine measures in an effort to protect themselves against the plagues of history, but with little success.

By the 19th century these ineffective quarantine regulations, mostly directed against plague, cholera and yellow fever, were causing enormous hardship and costly delays to shipping and trade, and from 1851 onwards a series of international conferences were called, in Europe and in America, to try to come to some agreement on methods of protection against epidemics and to bring some order into the confusions, contradictions and abuses of existing quarantine regulations. By 1900, several international sanitary conventions were in force.

It was not until the early years of the present century, however, that sufficient agreement was reached for international health organizations to be set up.

The Pan American Sanitary Bureau was created by the American republics in 1902. It was designed "...to lend its best aid and experience towards the widest possible protection of public health of each...republic, in order that diseases may be eliminated and that commerce between the said republics may be facilitated." It was given broader public health authority by the Pan American Sanitary Code of 1924, a treaty ratified by all of the 21 American republics. In 1949 the Bureau assumed an additional role as the Regional Office for the Americas of the World Health Organization

The Office International d'Hygiène publique (OIHP), set up as a result of discussions at international health conferences held in Paris in 1903 and in Rome in 1907, was the first truly world-wide international health organization. The IHP was finally constituted in 1908, and in 1909 its secretariat was established in Paris, France. It was a technical commission for the study of epidemic diseases, a permanent body for revising and administering the numerous International Sanitary Conventions, and a centre for the rapid exchange of epidemiological information, in which it collaborated with the Pan American Sanitary Bureau and other centres. Fifty-five countries were represented on its governing body.

The Health Organization of the League of Nations was established in September 1923, and undertook a varied range of activities. It received and distributed intelligence concerning the occurrence of epidemic diseases, set up an epidemiological bureau at Singapore (now operated by WHO), began the establishment of international standards for vaccines, sera and certain important drugs, and undertook expert studies on nutrition and housing as well as on a number of diseases and health problems of international importance.

The Health Organization of the League marked a new departure in international health work which was no longer concerned merely with the erection of sanitary barriers, but embraced a wide and ever-growing range of health fields.

The work done both by the OIHP and the Health Organization of the League has been taken over and expanded by the World Health Organization.

At the end of the war, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) was established, and its Health Division was given the task of restoring and assisting national health services dislocated as a result of the war, providing medical care for displaced persons, and reviving the machinery for international exchange of information on epidemic diseases. When the work of UNRRA was terminated in 1946, \$ 3 million were made available from its funds to WHO's Interim Commission to enable it to continue to provide direct technical assistance to countries in the field of health.

WHO HAS CARRIED ON

The World Health Organization has carried on the international duties inherited from all these earlier bodies; it broadcasts daily warnings of the occurrences of pestilential disease to health administrations, port health officers, airports and ships at sea; it has replaced all the earlier international sanitary conventions by one uniform set of sanitary regulations governing travel and trade; it has published the first International Pharmacopoeia giving international standards for the strength and purity of important drugs, and has recommended standards for a large number of vaccines, sera, antibiotics and other biological substances.

NEW RESPONSIBILITIES

But the World Health Organization has taken on new and even more important responsibilities. Where many of the earlier health bodies were concerned above all with trying to prevent disease from spreading across frontiers, the World Health Organization, by its very Constitution, refuses to accept as part of the natural order the existence of preventable disease and suffering over a large part of the world. It has therefore set out to aid national health authorities in stamping out pestilential diseases in source areas, in strengthening their health services, and in bringing about the basic sanitary reforms essential for better health. It acts as a clearing house for the exchange of information, and enables all countries to profit from new discoveries and techniques in the field of health. WHO is founded on the concept that only united action by all countries can bring about that improvement in levels of health which is essential for world peace and prosperity.

IS OUR EFFORT TO CO-TECT THE SPREAD OF COMMUNISM IN THE WORLD BEING EFFICIENTLY ADMINISTERED?

Having spent the greater part of forty years of my life in foreign countries, there is nothing that has interested me more than to observe the attitude of the average American to the natives of countries in which they may be visiting or with whom they may be doing business.

Let us take the average American visitor that one contacts in foreign lands and analyze the object of his visit. One in a hundred - a liberal estimate - is anxious to profit by using the limited time at his disposal to study the people, their customs, living conditions, and general outlook on life. The other ninety-nine follow a beaten path that years ago was laid out by Thomas Cook, the American Express, and other tourist organizations that felt that what the American visitor wanted is only the best that the country visited had to offer; and their years of experience has proven this correct. The net result of this system is that on returning home the general public is given, through our daily papers and magazines, a series of articles that in no way portray the conditions existing as a whole in the country described. Unfortunately the man or woman who takes the time and patience to study real conditions is either content to obtain the knowledge for self-satisfaction or embody it in a book, that when written, will reach a very small ~~percentage~~^{number} of American business firms.

Until a comparatively few years ago, very few American business firms sent American representatives abroad. Such business as they did was done through foreign agents, the exception being our tobacco and oil companies. These organizations carefully trained their young men for these posts abroad, and then had them understudy the older, more seasoned men for a number of years before putting them on their own.

We have other Americans abroad of a different strata: those in the Diplomatic Service; and it is from this group that we should get our guides and authentic information. But, unfortunately, due to traditions and customs, these men, taken as a whole, know little of actual conditions existing in the countries in which they serve.

I have personally known hundreds, scattered through countries in which I have worked, that, except for visiting some special place of interest as a more or less official guest, spent the time of their assignment in a very limited area; and, worst of all, in the company of a very restricted number of friends, which resulted in their hearing only what they were supposed to hear, and that from the chosen few.

On many occasions I have been in gatherings when economics and other internal questions were being discussed by ambassadors, ministers, secretaries and consuls; and it was astonishing to see how completely mis-informed these gentlemen were of actual conditions existing. In most cases they were simply parroting what they had heard at some cocktail party from someone whose task it was to pass the mis-information along.

You may wonder why all this preamble which has no apparent bearing on the text of my talk. As a matter of fact, this is an effort to show in a few words some of the reasons why, to date, ^{we have} made such poor headway in our task of establishing Democracy on a sound basis by spending billions in foreign countries; for, it all sums up to the simple fact that we sadly lack trained personnel for service abroad; and, what is equally as fatal is the ignorance of the American public of the conditions with which we are faced.

Now, before getting into the heart of this talk, I want to assure you, one and all, that it is not my desire, in any way, to champion, nor in any way praise, communism, fascism, nazism or socialism, nor any other ism, for that matter; for, while there is some good in all of them, anyone of them carried out in their entirety leads to but one ultimate end - totalitariansim; and this means tyranny and general chaos.

Let us briefly scan conditions existing before the War in some of the countries with which I am personally familiar. Taking one of the smaller countries first, we will choose Greece - country in which we have poured over a billion dollars, most of which has gone for food and clothing. The people of this little, mountainous, poverty stricken country have been ground under foot for centuries - five hundred years under the Turks; and, then, for ninety-odd years under a Danish royal family, which was transplanted bodily into the country by the English after they had assisted in destroying Turkish rule.

During this time there were countless uprisings among the peasants who were taxed to the limit to support the bureaucracy in Athens and pay the salaries of the appointees that governed them, and saw that they paid every cent in taxes that could possibly be drained from them. It might be interesting, at this point, to briefly outline the system employed.

The government very cleverly worked out a plan that was more or less fool-proof. The country was divided into provinces, and the provinces into regions; and every year the taxes on the various products produced in the areas was put up for bid. The individual or group of individuals making the highest bid agreed to pay the government a flat sum for the privilege of collecting the taxes, they, of course, receiving anything in excess as their profit, over and above what was paid the Government. Needless to say, the peasant had little chance to avoid paying the limit. All roads leading to markets had their stations where vehicles or other means of conveyance were stopped and thoroughly examined and appraised. If possible the tax was collected at once; but where this was not possible a due bill was signed on which collection was made after the produce had been disposed of. As the collectors were out to take a profit over and above what they were paying the Government, and had the unqualified support of the courts, they had little trouble collecting. This time of taxation kept the peasant just about one step ahead of starvation, and his family in poverty. This method of taxation was carried on until 1822, when the king was deposed and the republic set up after, the Turkish fiasco brought on by international power politics and greed - but this is another story.

The people elected as the head of their republic that greatest of all Greek statesmen of modern times, Venizelous, who at once started a series of reforms, one of the most important being a redistribution of land. Now important this was, can be understood when one considers the fact that approximately eighty-five percent of all tillable land in the country was owned by the church and a few old families.

Peasants were permitted to purchase small tracts of land at a reasonable price and given twenty years to make payment. Venizelous also brought interest rates down from 200% to 50% a year to 10%; and a general revision of the tax system was attempted in an effort to spread the taxes more justly.

By the granting of a match monopoly, he was able to raise thirty million dollars for the construction of schools in the various villages of the country, while making education compulsory. This in its self was a great forward step, when one considers that under the old regime over ninety percent of the population was illiterate.

I had the opportunity of working in the country for a period of ten years while these reforms were being put into effect; and it was marvelous to see the revived spirits of the masses. They had new hopes for the future and ambition to improve their living conditions and that of their families. But, as so often happens, they were lulled into a sense of false security; and, before they realized what had happened, the strong bureaucracy that had fattened on the bounty of ~~the~~^{exiled} King managed to get control of the army, and Venizelous was forced out; and the country again placed under a dictatorship appointed by the King, after a phoney election had recalled him to the throne. It did not take long for the old group to entrench themselves, and drift back to the old methods of oppression.

However, another opportunity to unshackle themselves from the privileged groups came to the Greek people with the second World War. In spite of the dictatorship, the Greek people put up a united front against Italy; but, eventually, of course, they were over-powered by Germany who only withdrew her troops when her war was lost in Europe. There was another opportunity to establish a republic.

The King and his court had escaped to Egypt with the assistance of the English. Their dictator, under the King, General Metaxas, had died in office. It was they who had carried on a relentless guerilla warfare against the Germans, right up to the time the last troops were withdrawn from the country. But they were doomed to disappointment. For, that great war-time - but dangerous peace-time Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, decreed otherwise. He thought of Greece with her King as a Constitutional Monarchy; but in Greece a Constitutional Monarchy is practically impossible, because of the power of the old privileged groups.

When we entered the country in October, 1944, we brought not only food and clothing but tanks, guns, airplanes, and soldiers. And the Greeks were informed by action, if not in so many words, that while their German masters were gone, their old silent masters, the English were taking over.

I saw the effects of this move from 1944 to 1948. The civil war had started, a three-way fight between the Government sponsored by Churchill, the Communists and the republicans, finally resolving itself to a fight between the Government and the Communists. The British finally, as you know, were unable to carry the financial burden of maintaining the Government and were forced to toss it into the lap of Uncle Sam, in 1946. One of the problems of trying to ^{sole of} fix the many mistakes of the British.

UNRRA, in spite of many reports to the contrary, did everything possible to perform the task for which it was organized from the time its personnel landed in Greece in 1944 until it was terminated in January of 1947, when many of its functions were taken over by the World Health Organization; and a civilian and military mission was sent over from the United States. Those missions, for the most part were composed of men and women that had never been out of the United States before; and yet they were supposed to take over and carry on the work started by UNRRA. Many of them learned through sad experience the real problems of the people, and rendered valuable service.

UNRRA sent approximately \$475,000,000.00 in Greece, the great bulk of which went for food and clothing. It was over the distribution of this that a great fight occurred. The Chief of the UNRRA Mission was a man that believed that the American people were denying supplies for all the people, and not for any one political group, which was contrary to the views the Greek government. Their decree was that any man or woman accused of not allowing this monarchist government should starve and freeze along with their children - and many hundreds did just that, in spite of the efforts to see justice done by the Chief of the Mission.

There are hundreds of incidents of stupidity and downright cruelty on the part of the Greek government that might be mentioned, but to little purpose at this time. However, one outstanding incident might be mentioned which occurred early in 1947 when a notice of amnesty was sent out all over the country to all those agreeing to lay down arms and swear allegiance to King and country. A group of a hundred and fifty came into the town of Kalamata and complied with the requirements. They were all herded into a jail, and told that their individual cases would be disposed of in the morning. That night a band of government bandits raided and killed every member of the group. And there were hundreds of individual cases where similar fate was handed out in different

parts of the country. The result of our Government tolerating such behaviour on the part of the Greek government, a government it was aiding in many vital ways, only prolonged this state of internal chaos at the cost of thousands of lives and millions of American dollars. For revenge begot revenge and a desire for revenge.

To call attention to the millions of dollars spent for equipment, live stock, and supplies in no way suited to the needs of the country would be tiresome, if carried out in detail; but, attention might be called to the tractors, gang-plows, and combines that made us the laughing stock of the country, where the average peasant farm is under 10 acres. I saw tractors, with trailers attached, hauling passengers on the roads, and big combines being dismantled, and the metal being used to make tools the natives could use. Hundreds of Missouri mules and thoroughbred cattle died for lack of proper food.

I might spend hours describing how I have seen American dollars squandered in China, Burma, India, Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Lebanon, Persia, Eritrea and Italy; not to mention the Western countries and England where we sunk untold millions in our war effort. It is also possible for me to describe, from personal experience and observation, a parallel case of conditions existing in countries like Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Poland, Hungary, Austria and Albania, before the war, to those existing in Greece. But each would be a story in its self; and, when analysed would differ very little in its ultimate end, the exploitation of the little fellow.

A summary of what has been given you would be about as follows:

We were catapulted into taking a task for which we were not prepared.

We have attempted to solve the problem from the top down; and, not from the bottom up.

We have been forced into the position of dealing with "set-ups" in Governments that are contrary to the very principle on which our Government was founded.

Although our representatives abroad had the power to force the relief of the peasant, they did not dare exercise their power, as they did not have the support of our State Department which, having no foreign policy, was anxious to follow ^{the} Alfonso, Gaston act, when a positive, realistic action was necessary.

A good example, is over populated Italy with its half-staved millions, while hundreds of thousands of acres of idle land is left in the hands of the large land owners.

My observation has been that the average peasant does not want charity, but does want a chance to work and earn an honest living.

Our policy of feeding and clothing the people, but failing to assist them properly in providing a means of livelihood for the time when our charity ceases, can not help resulting in our being hated, and condemned, leaving behind us a strong incentive for a try at Communism or any other kind of "ism" of the totalitarian brand.

January 1958

The WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, now groups 88 countries with the aim of protecting the health of all peoples. WHO works with national health services to prevent infectious disease (malaria, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.), and to train health workers. It gives technical assistance to improve sanitary conditions in over 100 countries, warns of outbreaks of epidemic disease, co-ordinates research, and recommends international standards for drugs and vaccines.

Dr. M. G. CANDAU is Director-General, in charge of a staff (including field staff) of about 1000 professionals of 54 nationalities. WHO's budget, contributed by Member States, is \$13,500,000 for 1958.

WHO celebrates its 10th Anniversary this year at a Special Session of its governing body, the World Health Assembly, to be held in Minneapolis, beginning 26 May.

THE WORLD HEALTH ASSEMBLY

The governing body of WHO, the World Health Assembly, will hold its Eleventh Session, beginning 28 May 1958, in Minneapolis, Minn., on the invitation of the US Government and the City of Minneapolis. The meeting is expected to last three weeks.

The World Health Assembly, composed of delegations from WHO's 88 Member States, decides the Organization's policies, programme and budget. Thus it is not a conference or a convention, but a business meeting taking decisions necessary for the Organization's continuing and effective work.

WHO WILL BE THERE?

Each Member State is entitled to send three delegates, plus a certain number of alternates and advisers. In addition there are observers from non-Member States, United Nations bodies, and from numerous non-governmental organizations. When secretariat and conference staff are added, there will be a total of about 600 people coming to Minneapolis for the meeting.

THE PRESIDENT

A new president is elected at each session. Dr. Sabih Hassan AL-WAHBI, former Minister of Health for Iraq, was last year's President, and will therefore open this year's session and preside until his successor is elected. Three Vice-Presidents are also elected each year.

The Director-General (Dr. M. G. CANDAU) not only acts as Secretary of the World Health Assembly, but may at any time make either oral or written statements concerning any questions under discussion.

M. Farouk P. ...

TOWER OF BABEL

Since WHO has 88 Member States, speakers of most of the major languages of the world are to be found among the 300 or more delegates who attend. Obviously, it would be impossible to have each speaking his own language and the rules of procedure of the Assembly therefore lay down that there shall be two working languages, English and French, into which all documents are translated, while all speeches made in plenary session and in the main committee meetings are translated from and into English, French, Russian and Spanish.

The system used during meetings is simultaneous interpretation. Each seat in the Assembly Hall or the main committee rooms is equipped with earphones and a switch with five positions, one amplifying whichever speaker has the floor and the others carrying the simultaneous interpretations into the three other languages made by expert interpreters each seated in a sound-proof box.

THE JOB TO BE DONE

While all Member States and the Director-General have the right to submit agenda items for discussion, the main business of the World Health Assembly is to do the following things:

- *To consider the Annual Report of the Director-General on the work of the World Health Organization for the preceding year (at Minneapolis this will be for 1957).
- *To consider and approve the programme and budget for the coming year (i.e. at Minneapolis for 1959).
- *To elect Member States entitled to designate persons to serve on the Executive Board of the World Health Organization, and
- *To consider all applications for membership which have reached the Director-General at least 30 days before the opening of the Assembly Session.

HOW THE ASSEMBLY WORKS

The World Health Assembly starts with a general debate - in plenary session - which lasts from two to four days. National delegates follow each other on the rostrum, give an account of the progress made in their countries towards better health during the preceding year, relate those national activities to what is being done in other countries, and explain how they fit into the overall pattern of international health work which is the responsibility of the World Health Organization.

While this General Debate is going on, two committees are busy behind the scenes; the first one of these is the Committee on Credentials, consisting of 12 delegates, which examines the credentials of delegates and reports back to the Health Assembly. The other is the Committee on Nominations, consisting of 18 delegates of as many Members, chosen with regard to equitable geographical distribution and to experience and personal competence, which prepares nominations for the offices of President and three Vice-Presidents of the World Health Assembly, for the offices of chairmen of the main committees, and for the members of the General Committee, or Steering Committee.

ASSEMBLY SPLITS

As soon as the recommendations of the Committee on Nominations are before the Assembly, the election of the President and the three Vice-Presidents, as well as of the chairmen of the main committees, takes place. The General Debate concludes as soon as the list of speakers is exhausted, and the Assembly thereupon splits up into the two main committees, on each of which every national delegation is represented. They are the Committee on Programme and Budget, and the Committee on Administration, Finance and Legal Matters.

Further plenary meetings are held from time to time to set the seal of approval upon the recommendations made by each of these Committees or, occasionally, to reopen debate and to reach different decisions.

The Committee on Programme and Budget goes through the programme and budget for the coming year (the 1959 programme will be decided at Minneapolis) and produces, if it can, a recommendation for the total budget figure (for 1958 this was adopted by last year's Assembly at \$ 13,500,000). The Committee also goes into questions of health policy and sometimes decides to recommend a change of emphasis, and consequently a change in the programme, in the light of needs and of recent developments.

The Committee on Administration, Finance and Legal Matters deals with relations with Member States, and with matters arising out of the running of the six regional offices of the World Health Organization (for Africa in Brazzaville, for the Americas the Pan American Sanitary Bureau in Washington, for the Eastern Mediterranean in Alexandria, for Europe in Copenhagen, for South East Asia in New Delhi and for the Western Pacific in Manila). It concerns itself with questions concerning staff, administration and finance. It usually elects a legal sub-committee to make recommendations on purely legal matters.

Both these main committees make recommendations which are finally dealt with by the Assembly in plenary session.

(3)

SPIRIT OF CO-OPERATION

While the delegates attending the World Health Assembly, like those at the General Assembly of the United Nations, are government representatives, the great majority of them are something more than this - they are also public health workers. As such, they have a common bond and a common objective. Their principal aim is to improve the health standards of their own countries and their whole training and experience have been geared to this aim. They have also become convinced that, just as the health of the individual depends on the health of the community, national standards of health are dependent upon international co-operation.

For this reason there is a spirit of common purpose among these public health experts, although they represent different national points of view, which is rarely to be found at gatherings of purely political representatives.

Many of the decisions taken by the World Health Assembly are unanimous and do not require a vote. When voting is necessary, each delegation carries one vote, as in the General Assembly of the United Nations.

When the World Health Assembly comes to an end after the final plenary sessions, the delegates of the 88 Member States go home with the sense of a purpose achieved and with the resolve to intensify future co-operation in raising national health standards through international effort.

SPECIAL TENTH ANNIVERSARY SESSION

On the two days preceding its Eleventh Session, 26 and 27 May, the Assembly will meet in Special Session to mark the Tenth Anniversary of the World Health Organization. Presided over by last year's President, Dr. S. H. Al-Wahbi (Iraq), this special session will take the form of commemorative speeches by delegates in plenary session.

The WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, now groups 88 countries with the aim of protecting the health of all peoples. WHO works with national health services to prevent infectious disease (malaria, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.), and to train health workers. It gives technical assistance to improve sanitary conditions in over 100 countries, warns of outbreaks of epidemic disease, co-ordinates research, and recommends international standards for drugs and vaccines.

Dr. M. G. CANDAUI is Director-General, in charge of a staff (including field staff) of about 1000 professionals of 54 nationalities. WHO's budget, contributed by Member States, is \$ 13,500,000 for 1958.

WHO celebrates its 10th Anniversary this year at a Special Session of its governing body, the World Health Assembly, to be held in Minneapolis, beginning 26 May.

HOW WHO WORKS

The World Health Organization is an international co-operative for health. The members of this co-operative are the nations of the world. Eighty-five countries are full members, while three territories which are not responsible for the conduct of their international relations have been admitted as Associate Members. (For list of members see p.4).

Membership in WHO is open to all States.

All members contribute each year to WHO's budget, and all members are entitled to the services and aid provided by the Organization.

WHO'S CONSTITUTION

WHO's Constitution, adopted by the International Health Conference in New York in 1946, embodies a new approach to world health.

*It defines health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.

*It states that the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is a fundamental human right.

*It declares that Governments have a responsibility for their people's health.

*It says that unequal health development in different countries is a common danger and that the health achievements of any State are of value to all.

*It asserts that the health of all peoples is fundamental to the attainment of peace and security.

THE WORLD HEALTH ASSEMBLY AND THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

Each year, WHO's member states send their representatives to the World Health Assembly which reviews current activities and decides:

- *The policies that govern WHO's work.
- *The programme to be undertaken in the next and succeeding years.
- *The amount of the budget necessary to carry out the programme for the following year.

The Assembly is also attended by observers from international bodies and medical and technical associations connected with health work.

The Eleventh World Health Assembly will meet in Minneapolis (Minn.) on 23 May 1958 Sessions usually last three weeks. The current President is Dr. Sabih Hassan AL-WAHBI, former Minister of Health for Iraq.

All member countries have an equal standing and equal voting rights in the Assembly This ensures that WHO's activities shall be those which best serve the interests of its Members.

Each year the Assembly elects six countries entitled to designate a person to serve on WHO's Executive Board.

The Executive Board is a technical, non-political group of 18 health experts, each designated by one of the countries elected for the purpose by the World Health Assembly. Six Board members retire each year.

The Executive Board gives effect to the decisions of the Health Assembly, and scrutinizes the programme and budget proposed by the Director-General before its presentation to the Assembly. It generally meets twice yearly. It will hold a brief meeting in Minneapolis immediately following the Assembly.

Current Chairman: Sir John CHARLES, Chief Medical Officer, Ministry of Health, United Kingdom.

WHO'S SIX REGIONS

WHO's Constitution recognizes the desirability of decentralizing WHO's activities, and provides for regional organizations to be set up to meet the special health needs of a given area.

WHO has therefore divided the world into six regions, each with its regional committee and regional office. They are: the Americas (Office: the Pan American Sanitary Bureau in Washington, DC); Europe (Office in Copenhagen, Denmark); Eastern Mediterranean (Office in Alexandria, Egypt); Africa south of the Sahara (Office in Brazzaville, French Equatorial Africa); South-East Asia (Office in New Delhi, India); and the Western Pacific (Office in Manila, Philippines).

The Regional Committees, each composed of all the WHO Member States in the region, meet each year to plan health co-operation on the regional level and to consider what health programmes can render the most effective assistance to the countries of the region. The programme suggestions, after being endorsed by the Regional Committee, are sent on to WHO's Geneva headquarters where they are welded into a world programme to be presented to the World Health Assembly for final approval.

The administrative organ of the Regional Committee is the Regional Office which is also responsible for carrying out WHO's programmes in the region. Thus the regional machinery enables WHO's activities to be adapted to the evolving health needs of individual countries in each region.

THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL AND THE SECRETARIAT

The World Health Assembly appoints the Director-General, who, subject to the authority of the Executive Board, is the chief technical and administrative officer of the Organization. The Director-General appoints the staff of the secretariat (at present about 1000 all over the world). At the head of each Regional Office is a Regional Director, appointed by the Executive Board in agreement with the Regional Committee.

EXPERT COMMITTEES

To ensure that the Organization has the best possible advice when drawing up its policies and programmes, it has appointed over 1000 of the world's leading health authorities and medical scientists to serve on more than 30 Expert Panels, each covering a major field of health activity. As need arises, members of these panels may be invited to attend meetings of Expert Committees or Study Groups which formulate recommendations and proposals on specific aspects of WHO's programmes, and keep the Organization in step with current medical and scientific advances.

WHO'S BUDGET

When the World Health Assembly has approved the programme for a given year, it the decides the amount of money needed to carry it out. This annual Budget (\$ 13,500,000 for 1958) is then contributed by all of WHO's Member States according to a fixed "Scale of Assessment".

In this way the largest contributor, USA, pays in 1958 \$ 4,666,480 while over a dozen of the smallest Member States pay each the minimum contribution which, for 1958, is \$ 5,760.

In addition to this budget, contributed directly by Member States, WHO receives a certain sum from the United Nations Technical Assistance Fund. This Fund is composed of voluntary contributions made by a number of countries in addition to their regular contributions to the budgets of the United Nations or the agencies, and is intended to promote the economic development of under-developed countries.

As it is now an accepted truth that health and prosperity go hand-in-hand, a portion of this "technical assistance" money is handed over to the World Health Organization to enable it to undertake additional health projects in countries where special need exists. The amount varies from year to year, but it is generally around five million dollars.

WHO AND THE UNITED NATIONS

The World Health Organization is a Specialized Agency of the United Nations. This means that it was brought into being by the United Nations and is inspired by the principles laid down in the UN Charter.

When it came into official existence, however, it took on a large measure of independence: it has its own independent membership, its own governing body (the World Health Assembly) and its own independent budget.

WHO reports each year to the UN Economic and Social Council, and, through various co-ordinating bodies, its activities are linked with those of the United Nations and the other UN Agencies wherever their fields of interest touch WHO's.

WHO'S MEMBER STATES

Afghanistan, Albania, Argentina, Australia, Austria.
Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burma, Byelorussian S.S.R.
Cambodia, Canada, Ceylon, Chile, China, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia.
Denmark, Dominican Republic.
Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia.
Finland, France
German Federal Republic, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala.
Haiti, Honduras, Hungary.
Iceland, India, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Indonesia.
Japan, Jordan (Hashemite Kingdom of).
Laos, Lebanon, Liberia, Libya, Luxembourg.
Mexico, Monaco, Morocco.
Nepal, Nigeria, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway.
Pakistan, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippine Republic, Poland, Portugal.
Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Romania.
Saudi Arabia, Sierra Leone, South Korea, Spain, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Syria
Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey.
~~Ukrainian S.S.R., Union of South Africa, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay,
U.S.S.R.~~
Venezuela, Viet Nam.
Yemen, Yugoslavia.

The WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, now groups 88 countries with the aim of protecting the health of all peoples. WHO works with national health services to prevent infectious disease (malaria, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.), and to train health workers. It gives technical assistance to improve sanitary conditions in over 100 countries, warns of outbreaks of epidemic disease, co-ordinates research, and recommends international standards for drugs and vaccines.

Dr. M. G. CANDAU is Director-General, in charge of a staff (including field staff) of about 1,000 professionals of 54 nationalities. WHO's budget, contributed by Member States, is \$ 13,500,000 for 1958.

WHO celebrates its 10th Anniversary this year at a Special Session of its governing body, the World Health Assembly, to be held in Minneapolis, beginning 26 May.

(17)

HOW WHO BEGAN

The World Health Organization, like the United Nations, was an outcome of the world-wide longing for peace and international understanding which inspired the United Nations Charter.

In April 1945, the San Francisco Conference which set up the United Nations Organization approved a joint proposal from Brazil and China that an international health organization should be established.

In June 1946, the United Nations summoned an International Health Conference in New York, at which the Constitution of the World Health Organization was drafted, adopted and signed by representatives from 61 countries.

It was decided that the Constitution should come into force when 26 member states of the United Nations had ratified their signatures. This happened on 7 April 1948, a date now observed each year as World Health Day.

Meanwhile an Interim Commission had been carrying on essential international health services and preparing the way for the World Health Organization, to which it formally handed over responsibility in September 1948.

Meeting for the first time in June 1948, WHO's governing body, the World Health Assembly, approved the programme and the budgets for 1948 and 1949, and appointed Dr. Brock Chisholm (Canada) as Director-General.

A CENTURY OF EFFORTS

The World Health Organization is the culmination of a century of efforts towards international health co-operation.

In earlier times sickness was considered a purely personal misfortune, and governments had little concern for health matters.

From the 14th century onwards, some countries and ports introduced harsh and often cruel quarantine measures in an effort to protect themselves against the plagues of history, but with little success.

By the 19th century these ineffective quarantine regulations, mostly directed against plague, cholera and yellow fever, were causing enormous hardship and costly delays to shipping and trade, and from 1851 onwards a series of international conferences were called, in Europe and in America, to try to come to some agreement on methods of protection against epidemics and to bring some order into the confusions, contradictions and abuses of existing quarantine regulations. By 1900, several international sanitary conventions were in force.

It was not until the early years of the present century, however, that sufficient agreement was reached for international health organizations to be set up.

The Pan American Sanitary Bureau was created by the American republics in 1902. It was designed "...to lend its best aid and experience towards the widest possible protection of public health of each...republic, in order that diseases may be eliminated and that commerce between the said republics may be facilitated." It was given broader public health authority by the Pan American Sanitary Code of 1924, a treaty ratified by all of the 21 American republics. In 1949 the Bureau assumed an additional role as the Regional Office for the Americas of the World Health Organization

The Office International d'Hygiène publique (OIHP), set up as a result of discussions at international health conferences held in Paris in 1903 and in Rome in 1907, was the first truly world-wide international health organization. The IHP was finally constituted in 1908, and in 1909 its secretariat was established in Paris, France. It was a technical commission for the study of epidemic diseases, a permanent body for revising and administering the numerous International Sanitary Conventions, and a centre for the rapid exchange of epidemiological information, in which it collaborated with the Pan American Sanitary Bureau and other centres. Fifty-five countries were represented on its governing body.

The Health Organization of the League of Nations was established in September 1923, and undertook a varied range of activities. It received and distributed intelligence concerning the occurrence of epidemic diseases, set up an epidemiological bureau at Singapore (now operated by WHO), began the establishment of international standards for vaccines, sera and certain important drugs, and undertook expert studies on nutrition and housing as well as on a number of diseases and health problems of international importance.

The Health Organization of the League marked a new departure in international health work which was no longer concerned merely with the erection of sanitary barriers, but embraced a wide and ever-growing range of health fields.

The work done both by the OIHP and the Health Organization of the League has been taken over and expanded by the World Health Organization.

At the end of the war, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) was established, and its Health Division was given the task of restoring and assisting national health services dislocated as a result of the war, providing medical care for displaced persons, and reviving the machinery for international exchange of information on epidemic diseases. When the work of UNRRA was terminated in 1946, \$ 3 million were made available from its funds to WHO's Interim Commission to enable it to continue to provide direct technical assistance to countries in the field of health.

WHO HAS CARRIED ON

The World Health Organization has carried on the international duties inherited from all these earlier bodies; it broadcasts daily warnings of the occurrences of pestilential disease to health administrations, port health officers, airports and ships at sea; it has replaced all the earlier international sanitary conventions by one uniform set of sanitary regulations governing travel and trade; it has published the first International Pharmacopoeia giving international standards for the strength and purity of important drugs, and has recommended standards for a large number of vaccines, sera, antibiotics and other biological substances.

NEW RESPONSIBILITIES

But the World Health Organization has taken on new and even more important responsibilities. Where many of the earlier health bodies were concerned above all with trying to prevent disease from spreading across frontiers, the World Health Organization, by its very Constitution, refuses to accept as part of the natural order the existence of preventable disease and suffering over a large part of the world. It has therefore set out to aid national health authorities in stamping out pestilential diseases in source areas, in strengthening their health services, and in bringing about the basic sanitary reforms essential for better health. It acts as a clearing house for the exchange of information, and enables all countries to profit from new discoveries and techniques in the field of health. WHO is founded on the concept that only united action by all countries can bring about that improvement in levels of health which is essential for world peace and prosperity.