

CURRENT PILOT STUDIES

Coastal Water Pollution



Pilot : Belgium, Co-pilots : Canada, France, Portugal.

Inland Water Pollution



Pilot : Canada, Co-pilots : Belgium, France, United States.

Advanced Health Care



Pilot : United States, Lead Countries : Canada, Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, United Kingdom.

Waste Water Treatment



Pilot : United Kingdom, Co-pilots : France, Federal Republic of Germany, United States.

Urban Transportation



Pilot : United States, Lead Countries : Belgium, France, Federal Republic of Germany, United Kingdom.

Disposal of Hazardous Wastes



Pilot : Federal Republic of Germany, Co-pilot : United States.

Solar Energy



Pilot : United States, Co-pilot : France.

Geothermal Energy



Pilot : United States, Co-pilots : Italy, Turkey.

Energy Conservation



Pilot : United States, Co-pilots : Canada, France, Italy.

COMPLETED PILOT STUDIES

Disaster Assistance



Pilot : United States, Co-pilots : Italy, Turkey.

Environment and Regional Planning



Pilot : France, Co-pilots : United Kingdom, United States.

Road Safety



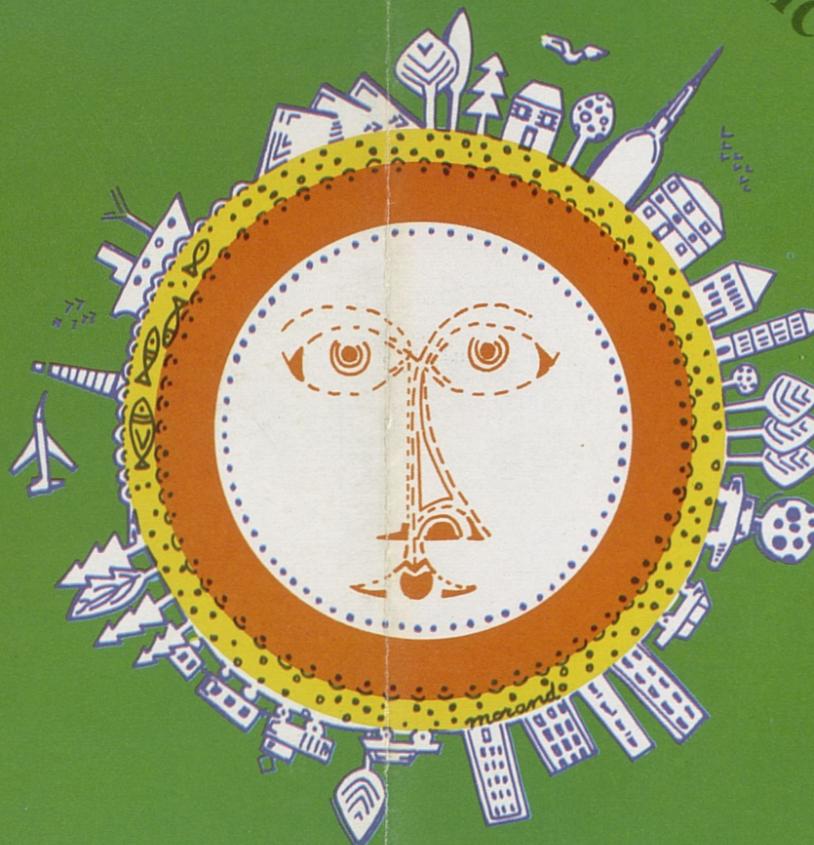
Pilot : United States, Lead Countries : Belgium, Canada, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Netherlands.

Air Pollution



Pilot : United States, Co-pilots : Federal Republic of Germany, Turkey.

man's environment and the atlantic alliance



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CCMS CONCEPT AND METHODS

"One is struck above all by the CCMS recourse to the mechanism of the pilot country, which does not have a counterpart to my knowledge in any other international organization, whether concerned with the environment or not."

Joseph M.A.H. Luns,
Secretary General of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization

Three concepts are pivotal :

- the pilot country idea;
- the orientation towards action, rather than research;
- the policy of open publicity.

The pilot country concept is indeed new and original. It grew out of experience in NATO and other international organizations with the "rapporteur country" method of seeing a particular project or study through. Rapporteur countries, however, are not responsible for getting action, nor are they expected to pay for the studies. And under this system, the secretariats of international organizations are heavily involved.

In the **pilot country** method, one country takes over responsibility for a project which CCMS had decided is worth doing. The pilot country plans the study, pays for it, prepares all the necessary reports, and — if it can — tries to see that action ensues.

Not only has this avoided an enlargement of the NATO international secretariat and budget, but it has insured that the work is properly motivated : a country volunteers as a pilot only if it has serious intentions to do the work well.

Under the pilot country method, another member country can be a "co-pilot" if it wants to make a significant

contribution, and any other member is equally welcome if its interest and capabilities fall short of a desire for formal association, yet it still wishes to participate at any level.

The **action-orientation** concept, has grown too out of NATO's experience. Research takes time and money; CCMS wants to collect and boil down existing research (actually a vast amount of it is available) with respect to a given problem, lay facts and recommendations before the members, and stimulate them to act.

Each pilot project will have a finite lifetime, with the goal of translating largely existing knowledge into practical application in a reasonable time, specifically by the creation of national legislation.

The third CCMS concept — **open publicity** — is a radical departure for NATO. Of necessity, much of its work in the past has had to be done in secret, as it directly affected the security of every member.

Even though the subjects dealt with by CCMS, indirectly but in the deepest sense, affect security too, they are of an entirely different sort. Social and environmental issues are matters of global concern and they are most imperfectly understood; hence everyone, including non-members of the Alliance, can only gain if the results of CCMS studies are made widely available, without limitations.

No CCMS papers bear security restrictions. Other intergovernmental organizations may be permitted to send observers to any CCMS activity. And there is a liberal policy with respect to other outside observers in CCMS-sponsored meetings; the United States, for example, has invited the USSR, as well as other countries not in NATO, to attend meetings concerned with its pilot projects. Finally, the North Atlantic Council will make available the results of all CCMS studies to other international organizations and to any country, anywhere.

WHY SHOULD NATO BE DOING THIS KIND OF JOB ?

In April 1969 when the CCMS was originally proposed, there were three basic considerations underlying it :

1. That there existed within the nations of the Alliance a powerful, if still somewhat latent, concern with the deterioration, indeed, in many instances, the degradation, of the national environments under the impact of technologically based industrialisation. Correspondingly, that there existed an equally widespread conviction that the opportunities provided by that same technology to create a significantly more fulfilling and meaningful social environment had only begun to be realised.

2. That there was already in existence a considerable body of technical knowledge that, if applied with sufficient vigour and purpose, would enable industrial societies to halt and to reverse the degradation of the natural environment and also that the methodologies of contemporary social enquiry offered considerable possibilities for social advances and

3. That NATO countries, in the course of two decades of military alliance and political consultation, had acquired the governmental skills which would enable them to act in concert with respect to those aspects of the natural and social environment which either required international action or which might best respond to a multinational effort.

In determining whether or not NATO can or should play a role in environmental protection, point (3) above is the heart of the matter.

To the extent that the problem of creating a better environment for man is a question of the transfer and application of technology, NATO has impressive qualifications.

To link together in peacetime alliance the human and material resources of fifteen nations, spanning a sizeable portion of the earth's surface, is no mean achievement. Under modern conditions, it has meant that NATO had to organize multinational military commands and training systems, build supply depots and airfields all over Europe, construct new roads and pipelines from the North Cape to Anatolia, put up a vast communications and air-warning network, and create harmonized logistical and armament systems for its forces. All of this — and much more — was accomplished in an incredibly brief span of time.

NATO, almost uniquely among international organizations, is geared to achieving physical results, quickly.

Because NATO can work fast, and is geared to action.

The problems of diplomacy, defence, and high politics with which NATO is accustomed to deal usually call for decisions or other action by governments or international authorities. Over the years, NATO has developed an impressive capability to sift through major problems in multinational teams, to marshal facts from highly diverse sources, and to hammer out agreements and plans for action between governments representing highly individualised peoples and political systems.

The Alliance, much more than just a military organization, has a charter and a history which fit it for a wide variety of tasks.

Finally, there is the Alliance's position as a vital hinge in the US-European relationship. Western Europe and North America share several fundamental interests : security from aggression, the prosperity of an interdependent trans-Atlantic economy, the provision of effective aid to the Third World, and the development of a stable world peace system. The Alliance represents the political institutionalisation of these vital interests and of a common set of ideals and political traditions, the heart of an old and yet nascent community. It is therefore eminently appropriate that the Alliance take on the defence of still another set of common interests : the preservation and improvement of the quality of life in Western society.

NATO'S APPROACH TO THE CHALLENGES OF MODERN SOCIETY



It is true that a great deal of the environmental effort must involve long-range study and research, often basic scientific research. In the environmental and social fields, this kind of research is best left to other international organizations. But to mount an effective attack will also require international **action**, and this NATO has shown itself well-qualified to bring about.

Urbanisation, burgeoning population and the looming food shortage, the energy crisis and the full force of the "technological revolution" gave rise to unprecedented forces of sudden change threatening a potential global breakdown.

Why is this an International Crisis ?

For some decades, to be sure, local and national authorities in most countries have been dealing with such obvious problems as the contamination of water and, more recently, air pollution. Yet even if local action is forceful and well-considered, it cannot always be effective. For the winds, the oceans, and many rivers know no national boundaries. Pesticides used on the fields of India, or Denmark, or California can — and do — find their

way through the air and the seas to such far-away places as Antarctica.

In recent years, a curious red snow has fallen at times on parts of Norway; chemical analysis traced the particles to factory emissions in such distant places as the Ruhr and the British Isles.

In such a densely populated and developed an area as Northwestern Europe, with several countries linked tightly by geography and economics, the need for common regulations and enforcement procedures to control various forms of pollution — for example, in the Rhine, River — seems evident. Many planners and scientists believe these countries must go even further, and develop common strategies for the use and development of their precious land.

In a remarkable report to the Economic and Social Council of the UN (in May 1969), U Thant, then Secretary General of the UN, portrayed the extraordinary world-wide dangers to man's environment. He said :

"It has become clear that we all live in one biosphere within which space and resources, though vast, are limited."

Shaping the Human Environment: an International Challenge

"It is the paradox of our times that the very progress achieved by man in the technological and social fields originally intended to improve his way of living, now poses challenges to present and future generations."

Manlio Brosio,
Fourth Secretary General of the
North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

The survival of human society as we know it — perhaps the survival of Man himself as a species — is threatened now by a new factor : the rapid deterioration of the globe itself as an ecological system.

Ecology — the study of the relationship between life forms and their environment — was until only yesterday a little noticed, esoteric discipline of chiefly academic interest. Ecologists pondered over the totality of living things in a copse, for example, or around a pond, or in some exotic bit of land in, say, the sub-Arctic wastes.

But in the last years of the 1960s the perspective of the ecologist, who looks at an "ecosystem" as a whole, was

absorbed by other scientists, city planners, politicians, and public administrators, and projected onto a world-wide plane. First by a few, then by significantly larger numbers of the general public, the balance of the entire planet and its future as a home for Man, was seen to be at stake.

The world-wide ecological crisis (for crisis it is) has three main components : urbanisation, now a universal phenomenon; the population explosion; and the damaging encroachment of man's technologies on his physical and socio-cultural environments.

As technological innovation takes over in agriculture, the farm population (and especially in the industrialised countries) has moved inexorably into urban areas. In turn, the impact of headlong urbanisation is compounded by the rising curve of population growth : unless curbed, the planet's population could well stand at six times its present level of 3 1/2 billion, by the year 2080. And although there have been dramatic new breakthroughs in food production recently, it seems impossible, at this juncture, to see how such a densely populated world could feed itself.