FROM A REPUBLIC OF SCHOLARS TO A COMMUNITY OF RESEARCHERS
From a Republic of Scholars to a Community of Researchers

*Perspectives on the History of the International Union of Academies (UAI), 1919-2019*

*Edited for the UAI by*

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TAE-JIN YI

Interpreting the Creation of the UAI within the Context of the International Peace Movement in the Early Twentieth Century: From Wiesbaden 1899 to Paris 1919*

Introduction

In 1919 Paris was a city blanketed by a grim aura. Its streets were dotted with collapsed buildings, and the painful scars of the World War could be seen virtually everywhere. It was the time when the Paris Peace Conference, assembled in the aftermath of the First World War, was moving toward its end. In that peace conference, the participants reached agreement on the creation of the League of Nations in order to foster cooperation among nations and prevent the outbreak of another devastating great war. Against such a backdrop, the representatives of the national academies of 11 countries met in Paris on October 15–18, and, along with the national academies of the 3 other countries that were not represented, jointly agreed to the formation of the International Union of Academies, or the Union Académique Internationale (UAI). The fact that the UAI was launched at the same time and in the same city as the League of Nations, the first organization in human history that was ever established for the purpose of peaceful coexistence among humankind, suggests that these two international bodies likely shared certain ideals and goals in their origins.

In 1995, the UAI headquarters located in the Palais des Académies, Brussels, put forth a 76-page booklet entitled 75th Anniversary (Soixante-quinzième anniversaire). According to the preface (Avant-Propos) by Philippe Roberts-Jones, Permanent Secretary of the Académie royale de Belgique and Administrative Secretary of the Union Académique Internationale, the 75th anniversary of the UAI’s founding was celebrated at the 68th General Assembly in Brussels in 1994 and at the 69th General Assembly in Prague in 1995. The two occasions

* The three basic reference materials for this paper – (1) Actes de la cinquième session de l’Association internationale des Académies (St. Petersburg, 1913), (2) Bulletin No. 1 of the American Council of Learned Societies, and (3) International Conciliation No. 154 – were provided by UAI’s Deputy Secretary General Jean-Luc De Paepe in Brussels. In particular, I would like to thank Dr. Renaud Bardex of the Université libre de Bruxelles, Professor Shoichi Sato of the Japan Academy, Professor Walter Prevenier of Ghent University, and Michael Alram, Vice-President of the Österreichische Akademie der Wissenschaften for their generous help in obtaining other necessary documents and informative advice.
served as an opportunity to ‘review the past, measure the achievements of the present, and reflect on the future’ (regarder le passé, mesurer le travail réalisé, réfléchir à l’avenir).

Following this preface was ‘An Assessment of 75 Years of Academic Cooperation and Prospects for the Future’ (Bilan de 75 ans de collaboration académique et perspectives d’avenir) written by Gerard Verbeke (1910–2001, Permanent Secretary of the Koninklijke Vlaamse Academie van België). This text is noteworthy as it describes the period encompassing the formation of the UAI.

Along with a sketch of the 50th anniversary event held on 10 June 1969, Gerard Verbeke describes how World War II interrupted the Union’s annual conferences for over seven years from 1939 until it was resumed in 1947. He proceeds to relate a most memorable scene of the 1947 conference: In the opening session, Sir David Ross (perhaps as a moderator) read aloud a letter from the representative of the American Council of Learned Societies, Mr Waldo G. Leland, which included the memorable line, ‘In the first place the Union must declare itself to be, and must in fact become, champion of intellectual freedom.’ Verbeke then referred to the cultural climate (le climat culturel de cette époque) around the time of the 1919 proposal of the UAI’s foundation – namely, a renewed vibrancy pursuing peace amidst the ruins of war that stimulated an atmosphere of high-level intellectual and scientific (intellectuel et scientifique) discussion in all fields of study. And while international cooperation toward such pursuits was being actively sought, the International Union of Academies was born (pp. 7–8).

Verbeke noted in this passage that international cooperation among national academies was initiated 20 years earlier with the International Association of Academies (Association internationale des Académies or AIA) meeting in Wiesbaden, Germany, in 1899. This Association, according to Verbeke, was established as an organization not only for humanities but also for exact sciences (sciences exactes), but its activity ceased due to the First World War. After the end of the war, a modest meeting was held on October 15–18 1919, where representatives from 11 countries expressed their support for the creation of a new international union of academies in lieu of the defunct AIA. The 11 member nations were as follows:

- The United States (États-Unis), the United Kingdom (Royaume-Uni), Belgium (Belgique), Denmark (Danemark), France (France), Greece (Grèce), the Netherlands (Pays-Bas), Italy (Italie), Japan (Japon), Poland (Pologne), and Russia (Russie). Three other nations – Norway (Norvège), Romania (Roumanie), and Spain (Espagne) – agreed to send representatives in the future.

This article by Gerard Verbeke is a rare description of the birth of the International Union of Academies. However, it does not contain a detailed discussion of the purpose and intent behind the creation of the UAI. Rather it merely emphasizes the determination to pursue peace in order to overcome the devastation of the first global war suffered by humanity. This point was reiterated later in the article when describing the memorable line in the letter from the U.S. representative W. G. Leland to the UAI conference resumed in 1947 after the end of the Second World War. It is a fact that the early history of the International Union of Academies was greatly impacted by the two World Wars. However, was this organization of the world’s most renowned intellectuals formed merely to overcome the devastation of war? With this question in mind, I will trace the history of the UAI and that of the AIA, referred to by Gerard Verbeke, from 1899 onward.
An Analysis of the AIA: from its 1899 Founding in Wiesbaden to the 1913 St Petersbourg Conference

Gerard Verbeke described how the formation of the AIA in Wiesbaden in 1899 preceded the UAI’s formation in 1919 by twenty years, commenting that this earlier organization was not only for the humanities but also for the exact sciences (*sciences exactes*). Is it true that this association was the forerunner of the UAI?

Fortunately, there is a report describing the Association from its fifth conference entitled *Actes de la cinquième Session de l’Association internationale des Académies, St Pétersbourg, 1913*. This report is very useful in understanding the Association’s history in that it describes not only the Fifth Conference but it also has an organized history of all the resolutions passed from the First Conference in 1899 onward. The report is divided into two parts: (I) Rapport de l’Académie de St Pétersbourg; and (II) Session de St Pétersbourg. Procès verbaux.

Part (I) is a comprehensive report by the Academy of St Petersburg on the information and records starting from the 1899 Wiesbaden meeting to just prior to the 1913 St Petersburg Conference. Part (II) is the minutes of the 1913 St Petersburg Conference.

Thus the history of this Association launched in 1899 in Wiesbaden can be gleaned from the records in Part (I). The Table of Contents of Part (I) are as follows.

Contents (Chapters):
1) Liste des Académies faisant partie de l’Association
2) Liste des présidents et vice-présidents
3) Liste des délégués à l’Assemblée de St.-Pétersbourg
4) Liste des membres du Bureau administratif
5) Statuts de l’Association Internationale des Académies et Dispositions réglementaires
6) Rapport du Bureau de St.-Pétersbourg
7) Annexe No.1–14
   Compte-rendu financier de la Reale Academia des Lincei pour la période de 1908–1910
   Compte-rendu financier de l’Académie Impériale des Sciences de St.-Pétersbourg pour l’année 1911
   Compte-rendu financier de l’Académie Impériale des Sciences de St.-Pétersbourg pour l’année 1912
   Liste des questions à discuter à la Session de 1913
   Programme 28 avril/11 mai – 5/18 mai

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2 The Association Internationale des Académies was founded in 1899 and lasted until 1914, but for the purposes of this paper the main source material was the minutes of the 1913 St Petersburg meeting. After finishing this paper, I was able to confirm that the Royal Academy of Belgium possessed collective data from 1899 to 1914 on the AIA. However, given the time constraints and also the fact that the paper’s focus was to examine the formation process of the UAI, I was not able to utilize those materials.

3 Author’s note: (I) and (II) have been added to the headings for ease of discussion.
Actes
de la
cinquième session
de
l'Association internationale des Académies,
St.-Pétersbourg, 1913.

St.-Pétersbourg.
Imprimerie de l'Académie Impériale des Sciences.
1913.
Chapter 1 is the roster of the current 22 member academies – i.e., the participants of the 1913 St Petersburg Conference. The member academies are listed below. The natural sciences and the humanities are noted as (b) and (c), respectively. Among them, the four cities (countries) without a representation in the humanities are Geneva (6), Madrid (12), Stockholm (19), and Washington (21).

List 1:
1) Amsterdam, Koninklijke Akademie van Wetenschappen (b, c)
2) Berlin, Königlich Preussische Akademie der Wissenschaften (b, c)
3) Bruxelles, Académie Royale des Sciences, des Lettres et des Beaux-Arts (b, c)
4) Budapest, Académie Hongroise des Sciences (b, c)
5) Christiania, Videnskaps Selskab (b, c)
6) Geneva, Société Helvétique des Sciences naturelles (b)
7) Göttingen, Königlich Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften (b, c)
8) Kopenhagen, Kongelige Danske Videnskabernes Selskab (b, c)
9) Leipzig, Königlich Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften (b, c)
10) London, Royal Society (b)
11) London, British Academy (c)
12) Madrid, Real Academia de Ciencias exactas, físicas y naturales (b)
13) München, Königlich Bayerische Akademie der Wissenschaften (b, c)
14) Paris, Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres (c)
15) Paris, Académie des Sciences de l’Institut de France (b)
16) Paris, Académie des Sciences morales et politiques de l’Institut de France (c)
17) Saint-Pétersbourg, Académie Impériale des Sciences (b, c)
18) Rome, Reale Accademia dei Lincei (b, c)
19) Stockholm, Konliga Svenska Vetenskaps-Akademien (b)
20) Tokyo, Imperial Academy of Sciences (b, c)
21) Washington, National Academy of Sciences (b)
22) Wien, Kaiserliche Akademie der Wissenschaften (b, c)

* (b) = natural sciences, (c) humanities.

Next, Chapter 2 lists the president and vice-president for each Conference.

List 2:
1) 1899 Wiesbaden: (president) M. Auwers (Berlin)\(^4\)
2) 1900–1901 Paris: (p) M. Darboux (Paris); (v) M. Diels (Berlin)
3) 1902–1904 London: (p) Sir M. Foster (London); (v) Lord Reay (London)
4) 1905–1907 Wien: (p) M. Suess (Wien); (v) M. V. Lang (Wien)
5) 1908–1910 Roma: (p) M. Blaserna (Roma); (v) M. Guidi (Roma)
6) 1911–1913 St Petersbourg: (p) M. Backlund (St Petersburg); (v) M. Nikitine (St Petersburg)

From this list, we can see that after Wiesbaden in 1899, the conferences were held every third year, except in 1900–1901, in Paris, London, Vienna, Rome, and finally St Petersburg

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\(^4\) The names of the member academies in parentheses in List 2 are added by the author of this paper.
in 1913. Following its creation, five conferences were held through 1913; it became inactive the following year with the outbreak of the First World War.

Chapter 3 lists the representatives of each national academy at the 1913 St Petersburg Conference (65 individuals, see Attached Table 1), and Chapter 4 gives the list of the executive members of the conference. These will be discussed separately.

Chapters 5 and 6 contain 16 pages under the combined title Statuts de l’Association Internationale des Académies et dispositions réglementaires (Statutes of the International Association of Academies and its regulatory provisions), divided into Sections A and B. Section A is entitled Statuts adoptés dans la Conference tenue à Wiesbaden les 9–10 Octobre 1899 (Statutes adopted in the Conference held in Wiesbaden on 9–10 October 1899) listing 11 resolutions. Section B is entitled ’Dispositions réglementaires (Regulatory provisions),’ listing comprehensively the five sets of regulations from the 1901 Paris Conference, the 1904 London Conference, the 1906 Vienna Conference, and the 1909 Rome Conference.

Among these, in Chapter 5 on ‘Statuts,’ Article 1, Paragraph 1 relates to the creation of the Association. Namely, the various representatives of the national academies (Académies) and sociétés (Sociétés) agreed in Wiesbaden to form a central international academic union (union internationale), to be called the ‘Association Internationale des Académies,’ and Paragraph 2 lists the 10 member national academies in alphabetical order as follows.

List 3: List of member academies of the 1899 Conference
1) Berlin, Königlich Preussiche Akademie der Wissenschaften
2) Göttingen, Königlich Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften
3) Leipzig, Königlich Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften
4) London, Royal Society
5) Munich, Königlich Bayerische Akademie der Wissenschaften
6) Paris, Académie des Sciences
7) Rome, Reale Accademia dei Lincei
8) Saint-Pétersbourg, Académie Impériale des Sciences
9) Vienne, Kaiserliche Akademie der Wissenschaften
10) Washington, National Academy of Sciences

Following this, Paragraph 3 lists nine academies to be invited in the future as follows:
List 4: List of national academies to be invited as decided at the 1899 Conference
1) Amsterdam, Koninklijke Akademie van Wetenschappen
2) Bruxelles, Académie Royale des Sciences, des Lettres et des Beaux-Arts
3) Budapest, Académie Hongroise des Sciences
4) Christiania (Oslo), Videnskabs Selskab
5) Copenhagen, Kongelige Danske Videnskabernes Selskab
6) Madrid, Académie Royale de l’Histoire
7) Paris, Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres

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5 Reale Accademia dei Lincei in Rome seems to have joined the AIA immediately after the Wiesbaden conference. According to the translation of a report made to the Paris Academy of Sciences by M. Gaston Darboux, permanent secretary of the Academy, translated and published in the journal Nature (July 12, 1900, p. 249), there were “the delegates of the nine Academies represented at the Conference held at Wiesbaden ... .” And also see Peter Alter, “The Royal Society and the International Association of Academies 1897-1919,” Notes and Records of the Royal Society of London, vol. 34, no. 2, 1980, p. 245.
8) Paris, Académie des Sciences morales et politiques
9) Stockholm, Konliga Svenska Vetenskaps-Akademien

Paragraph 4 states that in order to join the Association, each academy (invited above) shall notify its intention to do so prior to the Berlin Conference scheduled for May 1, 1900.

Next, Article 2 specifies the conditions for new membership. Namely, prospective member academies must have the recommendation of at least 2 of the existing member academies.

Article 3, Paragraphs 1 and 2 describe the purpose and intent for forming the Association, which is transcribed verbatim as follows:

1. L’Association a pour but de préparer ou de promouvoir des travaux scientifiques d’intérêt général qui seront proposés par une des Académies associées et, d’une manière générale, de faciliter les rapports scientifiques entre les différents pays.
   (The object of the Association is to prepare and promote scientific work of general interest which may be proposed by one of the constituent Academies, and generally to facilitate scientific relations between different countries.)
2. Chaque Académie se réserve, dans chaque cas particulier, le droit de prêter ou de refuser son concours, ainsi que le choix des voies à prendre et des moyens à employer.
   (In any particular case, each Academy reserves to itself the right to give or refuse its support, or decide the choice of methods and the means to be employed.)

What is noteworthy here is that such mutual cooperation and utilization of facilities are expressly confined to natural sciences and that no reference is made to humanities. Perhaps this suggests that the AIA felt a greater need of cooperation among academics in the natural sciences than in humanities. This supposition is also corroborated by a survey of the specialities of the Conference presidents and vice-presidents listed earlier. The table below shows the results.

Table 1: Survey of the specialities of the Conference Presidents and Vice-Presidents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Places</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Names (Academy)</th>
<th>Speciality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wiesbaden</td>
<td>1899</td>
<td>p. George Friedrich von Arthur Auwers (Berlin)</td>
<td>Astronomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Petersburg</td>
<td>1911–1913</td>
<td>p. O. Backlund (St Petersburg) v. P. Nikitine (St Petersburg)</td>
<td>Astronomy Philology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the table above, the majority of the presidents and vice-presidents specialized in the natural sciences, with eight of them majoring in natural sciences, and three in humanities and social sciences.

Next, Article 4 states that the Association shall have a General Assembly (Assemblée générale) and a Committee (Comité), and in Article 5 the General Assembly shall be composed of two sections: a Section of Science (Section des Sciences) and a Section of Literature (Section des Lettres). It also states that the conference could be held in one or two divisions. It is also possible to gauge the Association’s emphasis on the natural sciences by looking at the order of precedence of the science section over the literature section. This preponderance of the natural sciences, which can be seen all the way from the 1899 inaugural meeting in Wiesbaden, is visible again in the analytical breakdown of the specialities of the participants of the 1913 meeting in St Petersburg (Attached Table 1). Out of the total of 65 participants, 51 of them had their specialities identified, with 30 in the natural sciences, 15 in the humanities, and 6 in Oriental studies and Indology.

Chapter 6 of Part (I) is a ‘Rapport du Bureau de Saint-Pétersbourg’ (Report by the St Petersburg Bureau) describing the academic activities undertaken from the 1899 formation to the 1913 Conference, divided into the natural sciences and the humanities. Here as well the activities in the natural sciences carried far greater weight. There were ten projects in the natural sciences and only one in the humanities. A brief introduction is as follows.

In the natural sciences, there were: a study of the brain (cerveau), a study of volcanos (1912 Munich–1913 St Petersburg); a study of the response to colour (chromotaxie); a standard time project (1904 London); utilizing observatory facilities in Frankfurt am Main to observe asteroids (1899?); unifying calendar revisions and fixing the date of Passover (Pâques) (1913 St Petersburg); measuring magnetism (1910), publishing annual tables of constants and numerical data of chemistry, physics and technology; classification of lunar calendars (mois lunaire); and operation of a solar research committee. Chapter 7 consists of Annexes No.1–14, all of which are concerned with natural sciences.

The single topic of research in humanities was a research project submitted by the Royal Academy of Copenhagen (Académie Royale de Copenhague). It was submitted on 25 March 1912 in the name of its president (Vilh. Thomsen) and vice-president (H. C. Zeuthen). At the request of the chairmen of the 15th International Congress of Orientalists (Congrès international des Orientalistes), a proposal was submitted for the 1913 St Petersburg Conference to consider and discuss a plan for research on the results of the explorations (Expéditions) of the ancient cultures of the Far East over the past decade or so, during which archeological studies identified abundant remnants of ancient cultures, as well as Buddhist, Manichaean and Christian literature recorded in various languages.6

Given its clearly strong bent toward the natural sciences, it is difficult to view the AIA founded in Wiesbaden in 1899 as the forerunner of the UAI established in 1919, which is centered around humanities. The fact that there were so many topics of research coop-

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6 Although various sources indicate that there were other projects in the humanistic field that were sponsored by the International Association of Academies, such as the Encyclopaedia of Islam, it is not listed in the report as reproduced in Chapter 6. It is interesting to note that the Association is referred to as ‘the International Association of Scientific Academies [emphasis added]’ when the publication of this encyclopaedia is mentioned in the American Historical Review, Vol. 13, No. 4 (Jul. 1908), pp. 922–54.
eration in the natural sciences among national academies suggests that the Association was organized by scientists from various countries who felt an urgent need for mutual cooperation amid the rapid development of natural sciences in the nineteenth century. The fact that the topics in humanities and social sciences predominantly related to the Far East, oriental cultures and scripts, and philology implies that an international movement driven by the widely felt necessity to maintain or cultivate the spirit of the humanistic studies was yet to take center stage.

**Context and History of the 1919 Founding of the UAI**

*The Early Twentieth-Century International Peace Movement and the U.S. Preparation for the League of Nations*

The term ‘imperialism’ emerged in the early 1870s as the Western powers competed for overseas colonies. Such an imperialistic expansion caused conflicts in diverse areas, which in turn gave rise to small- and larger-scale regional wars. Against this background, peace movements emerged in Europe and in the United States to pursue measures for reducing conflict. Disputes between nations spurred international law experts into action, and in 1873 the Institute of International Law (*Institut de Droit International*) and the International Law Association (*Association de droit international*) were founded in Ghent and in Brussels, respectively. In 1894, the Institute of International Law held its annual session in Paris, where the journal *Revue générale de droit international public* (*General Journal of Public International Law*) began to be published the same year.7 This was about the same time as the term ‘imperialism’ began to find currency.

William T. Stead of England was a prominent journalist and peace activist. He had a strong interest in (1) the concept of a United States of Europe and (2) a Court of Justice among nations.8 This was noteworthy as they can be considered as an early version of the League of Nations. He even expressed support for using force for the legal defense of justice. Toward the end of the 19th century, his views influenced Russian Emperor Nikolai II and the American steel magnate Andrew Carnegie. Under the premise that the European powers Great Britain and France, given their primary roles in competition for colonies, were not fit to lead the formation of a ‘United States of Europe,’ Stead sought to have the Russian Emperor to play a central role. It was Nikolai II who proposed the 1899 Hague Conference. Meanwhile, in 1900 William Stead’s close friend Andrew Carnegie donated £40 million toward the international peace movement. This endowment was used to fund various academic activities related to the peace movement and to construct a Peace Palace in the Hague, later housing international organizations for peace such as the Permanent Court of International Justice (and its successor, the International Court of Justice). In 1900, Sweden’s Alfred Nobel provided funds to establish a Peace Prize, and from the following year onward individuals and organizations that contributed to the international peace movement were selected and honored.

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8 Ibid, p. 255.
There were also new developments happening in the United States as well. Starting from 1895, those involved in U.S. foreign policymaking began to meet annually at Lake Mohonk in northern New York, and at their 11th meeting in 1905 they agreed to the publication of an *American Journal of International Law* and the formation of a society. The following year in 1906, the American Society of International Law (ASIL) was founded. Since this Society was launched to contribute directly to government foreign policy, it initially had the privilege of holding its annual meetings at the White House, with the President giving an address to the attendees. These efforts by American intellectuals related to U.S. foreign policymaking in helping establish a peaceful world order became the basis for the birth of the League of Nations through President Woodrow Wilson.\(^9\)

Woodrow Wilson, who took office as the 28th President of the United States in March 1913, was himself a pacifist. President and professor of public administration at the prestigious Princeton University, Wilson believed that, in contrast to the warnings of America’s first President George Washington, the United States should be involved in European politics and take the lead in establishing a new peaceful international order. In 1915, the year after the First World War broke out, the House Inquiry was established and under the direction of foreign relations advisor, Edward M. House, a great number of U.S. university professors were mobilized to establish a plan.\(^10\) In October 1918, as the First World War was coming to a close, a ‘Black Book’ was produced, the culmination of the efforts of 123 professors in 16 sections. Of the 16 sections, six pertained to specialized subjects (international law, diplomacy, economics, general research, maps and geology, and references and archives) and ten related to regional areas (Africa, Austrian-Hungarian Empire, Far East, West Asia, Russia, Eastern Europe, Pacific islands, Italy, Western Europe and Latin America).\(^11\)

Based on the work by the Inquiry, President Wilson announced his ‘Fourteen Points’ in a speech before the U.S. Senate on January 8, 1918, in which he presented a new set of principles for the international order to be pursued after the War. He proposed the creation of a ‘general association of nations’ that would guarantee ‘political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.’ On August 8 of that same year, the Allied Powers’ Hundred Days Offensive began to break down the defensive front of the Central Powers led by Germany. In October, a revolution broke out in northern Germany rejecting imperial rule, and the revolutionary government of the Weimar Republic declared its surrender to the Allied Powers.

President Wilson arrived at a port city on the Atlantic coast of France in mid-December 1918 and travelled to Paris, being hailed as the ‘Apostle of Liberty.’ Having been in close contact with the other Allied leaders, the ‘Big Four’ powers initiated a conference in April 1919, and based on their agreement, the ‘Treaty of Versailles’ was signed on 28 June.\(^12\) As a result, the League of Nations came into being on 10 January 1920. For the first time in human history, the first and largest international peace organization effected a ‘Covenant’

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9 Ibid., p. 261.
stipulating the following: obligations not to resort to war; prescription of open, just and honourable relations between nations; establishment of international law as the rule of conduct among governments; and maintenance of justice and respect for all treaty obligations.

The 1918 Dissolution of the International Association of Academies and the Launch of the International Research Council

In 1907 the American Association for International Peace was founded with support from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Beginning in 1912, the Association began to publish the journal *International Conciliation* in order to print and disseminate documents ‘to seek cooperation in the movement to promote international good will’ and to promote international understanding, empathy and conciliation. Issue 154 dated September 1920 contains three articles on major developments in international peace that took place in 1918–19. The authors were all leading figures directly involved in the described events,13 and all three articles are related to the creation of the UAI.

(I) The National Research Council (by Vernon Kellogg)  
(II) The International Organization of Scientific Research (by George Ellery Hale)  
(III) The International Union of Academies and the American Council of Learned Societies (by Waldo G. Leland)

The first article describes the history of the founding of the National Research Council in the field of science. This organization was formed in 1916 during the war to coordinate the research facilities of the country for work on war problems and in 1918 it was reorganized as a permanent entity by an executive order of the President of the United States. Its author, Kellogg, writes that recently organizations of the same name have emerged in England, Canada, Australia, Japan, and Italy as government-funded entities, but the U.S. National Research Council, which initially received government support, is now entirely controlled by its own representatively selected membership and democratically chosen officers.

The membership of the Council was composed of two groups: one group consisting of seven divisions of science and technology, such as physics, chemistry, and engineering; while the other group comprised six divisions of general relations, such as foreign, states, and educational relations.14 The article describes how the Council received a five million dollar grant from the Carnegie Cooperation and built a new facility in Washington, D.C., which it shares with the National Academy of Sciences (established in 1863), and

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13 Vernon Kellogg: Permanent Secretary of the National Research Council and Chairman of Its Division of Educational Relations. George Ellery Hale: Honorary Chairman of the National Research Council, Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, and Member of the Executive Committee of the National Research Council. Waldo G. Leland: Department of Historical Research in the Carnegie Institution of Washington; former Secretary of the American Historical Association and Permanent Secretary of the American Council of Learned Societies.

14 ‘One group comprises divisions of science and technology representing, respectively, physics, mathematics, and astronomy; chemistry and chemical technology; biology and agriculture; the medical sciences; psychology and anthropology; geology and geography; and engineering. The other group comprises six divisions of general relations, representing foreign relations, government relations, states relations, educational relations, research extension, and research information.’ *International Conciliation* No. 154, p. 6.
also published two journals (Bulletins, Reprints and Circulars) (pp. 6–7). The Council, as described later in the second and third article, paved the way for the creation of the International Organization of Scientific Research and the UAI.

The second article is about the process by which the AIA founded in 1899 was dissolved by the U.K. and the U.S. in 1918, which led to the birth of a new International Organization of Scientific Research. First, it was pointed out that the systemic limitations of the Association rendered it incapable of leading new projects: there were not enough representatives from each country; there were no permanent headquarters or funding; there was lack of contact with a plurality of international scientific organizations; and there was not much activity with meetings being held only every three years.

As a result, the Royal Society of the United Kingdom convened an Inter-Allied Conference on International Scientific Organizations on October 9, 1918 in London (participants: Belgium, Brazil, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Serbia, and the United States). The most important item addressed at this meeting was how to define future relations with the scientists of the Central powers. Although at the beginning of the war it had been hoped that scientific relations between enemy countries would soon be resumed after the war, the participants of the conference were now of the opinion that the atrocities committed by Germany and its allies during the war created unexpected difficulties not readily surmountable. Thus, the Conference opted to recommend the withdrawal from preexisting international organizations and the creation of new ones centering around the Allied and neutral nations. Here, the American delegates, representing the U.S. National Research Council, proposed a plan for the formation of an International Research Council, which would act as a federation of National Research Councils, each of which was to be created by the national academy of each country represented. On 26–29 November of the same year, a second meeting was held under the auspices of the Paris Academy of Sciences (additional participants: Poland, Portugal, and Romania), and they agreed to name the new entity the ‘International Research Council.’ The new Council was officially launched in January 1919 with the secretariat at the Palais des Académies in Brussels.

As was noted before, the AIA, launched in 1899, was predominantly geared toward pure and applied sciences. Under the circumstances, it was only natural that pure and applied sciences, rather than humanities and social sciences, took the lead in the ‘post-war’ resolution of the former Association.

The 1919 Paris Peace Conference and the Establishment of the International Union of Academies

The third article in Issue 154 of International Conciliation (September 1920) entitled ‘The International Union of Academies and the American Council of Learned Societies’ deals with the founding process of the International Union of Academies. The author Waldo G. Leland also published an article entitled ‘The Organization of the International Union of Academies and the American Council of Learned Societies’ the following month in Bulletin No. 1. These two articles are very important contemporary sources written as the UAI was being formed. As the titles of the two articles imply, American academic circles played a critical role in the creation of the UAI.
The article mentions early on that the impact of the outbreak of war in 1914 on research institutions also extended to the study of humanities as well. The exact text is as follows:

The stimulus which the war gave to the organization of research in the fields of pure and applied science has been described in the preceding pages. At first thought the humanistic studies (for the purpose of this article definable as philosophy, philology, archeology, history, economics, and the political and social sciences), might appear to have been outside the influence, except as their progress was retarded, of the world conflict. Such, however, was far from being the case. In each country scholars in the humanities were called upon to shape and temper that form of public sentiment which we learned to call morale, to reorganize old agencies of government for the more efficient performance of their functions, and to develop new agencies to meet new demands (p. 24).

During the war, Leland writes, humanities scholars were mobilized to refine and improve public sentiment, to raise the efficiency of the government’s existing organizations, and to develop new institutions in response to new demands. America’s ‘House Inquiry’ and the Historical Section in the British Foreign Office are shown as two prime examples. These organizations were composed almost exclusively of scholars of the humanities. When converging to Paris as members of the various peace delegations, these scholars were inspired by the recent formation of the International Research Council in the sciences and proceeded to establish an International Union devoted to study of the humanities. At the initiative of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres of France in March 1919, the principal academies and learned societies of the allied countries were asked to send delegates to Paris later in May to meet for the following purposes:

(1) ‘To establish, maintain, and strengthen among the scholars of the allied and associated states corporative and individual relations which shall be sustained, cordial, and efficacious, and which shall, by means of regular correspondence and exchange of communications and by the periodical holding of scientific congresses, make for the advancement of knowledge in the various fields of learning.

(2) ‘To inaugurate, encourage, or direct those works of research and publication which shall be deemed most useful to the advancement of science and most to require and deserve collective effort.’

On 15–18 May 1919, representatives from seven countries held their first meeting at the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris (Fig. 9). The United States, France, Belgium, Italy, Romania, Greece and Japan sent representatives. Waldo Leland in his first article only mentions the names of the two U.S. representatives but in the later article in Bulletin No. 1 the names of the representatives of all seven countries are listed as follows:

– Professor Charles H. Haskins of Harvard University, representing the American Historical Association and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, Professor James T. Shotwell of Columbia University, representing the American Historical Association.

– M. Pirenne and Bidez, representing the Belgian Académie royale des Sciences, des Lettres et des Beaux-Arts.
MM. Senart and Homolle, representing the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, MM. Roequain and Boutroux, representing the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques, of France.

– Senator Laneciani and MM. de Sanctis and Patetta, representing the royal Italian Academies of the Lincei and of Turin.

– Prince Soulzo, representing the Rumanian Academy

– M. Svoronos, unofficially representing Greece

– M. Anesaki, unofficially representing Japan

At the meeting, M. Senart was chosen as interim chairman and M. Homolle as interim general secretary, and after sufficient discussion and a vote, the group drew up a definite project for the establishment of an ‘International Union of Academies’.15 Announcements were sent to the national academies of the Allied and neutral nations, and a second meeting to adopt the project was scheduled for October in Paris. At this second meeting from 15–18 October, there were representatives from 11 countries, and three other countries sent representatives signaling their intent to become members once the Union was launched. In addition to the seven countries that attended the first meeting, Great Britain, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Russia, and Poland sent new representatives to the second

15 Waldo G. Leland’s article in *Bulletin* No.1 discusses the interim chairman and general secretary, as well as the tentative statutes that were prepared (p. 2).
meeting. Finland, Czechoslovakia and Portugal had been expected to send delegates but
did not do so, and Switzerland had a representative sit informally in the meeting in order
to obtain information regarding the Union. The Swedish Academy of Letters, History,
and Archaeology was the only one to announce that it would not join the conference,
but it announced its willingness to join ‘when it shall be possible to invite all countries
to participate in it’.16 At the meeting it was decided that the new organization would be
called ‘Union Académique Internationale (International Union of Academies),’ and that
the main goal of the Union was to be ‘cooperation in the advancement of studies by means
of collective researches and publications in the field of the philological, archaeological,
historical, moral, political, and social sciences.’ Just like the International Research Council
for the Sciences, the headquarters of the Union would be at the Palais des Académies
(Fig. 10) in Brussels, Belgium, and the ordinary sessions would be held annually.17 French

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16 Statutes of the International Union of Academies, Article 1, lists the member nations as follows. America
(representing 10 major academies), Belgium (Royal Academy of Sciences, Letters, and Fine Arts of Belgium),
Denmark (Royal Academy of Sciences and Letters of Denmark), France (Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-
Lettres, Academy of Moral and Political Sciences), Great Britain (British Academy), Greece (Delegation of the
Hellenic Government in place of the Academy of Athens, about to be created), Holland (Royal Academy of
Sciences), Italy (National Academy of the Lincei of Rome, Royal Academy of Sciences of Turin), Japan (Imperial
Academy), Poland (Polish Academy of Sciences of Cracow), Russia (Russian Academy of Sciences).

17 ‘The financial support of the Union is derived from the annual dues of two thousand francs assessed upon each
member country; as the sum thus realized is barely sufficient for the modest expenses of administration it is
expected that special funds for research and publications will be forthcoming in the form of subsidies, gifts, or
legacies’ (p. 28).
was designated as the official language, but publications of a scientific character may be in any language. Academic enterprises were to be undertaken under the direct supervision of a special committee appointed by the Union.

The last point to consider was the form of participation of the United States. At the initial meeting in Paris in May 1919, the two American representatives were from the American Historical Association and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. On the other hand, at the second meeting in Paris later that October, it was in the name of the American Council of Learned Societies that the American representatives, W. H. Buckler and Louis H. Grey, were sent to attend. Although the American Academy of Arts and Sciences was founded in 1780 during the nascent years of U.S. independence, it was not a purely academic body as its elected members included not only scholars but also writers, artists, and politicians. Thus, it was necessary to form a new organization that truly represented the entire field of humanities and social sciences. Prior to the creation of an international organization in the field of humanities in 1919, the United States had to decide whether to create a completely new organization or to form a federation of existing associations.

At that time in 1919, there were many American humanities and social sciences experts sojourning in Paris as members of the ‘House Inquiry’ or as presidential advisors. In response to the invitation to the initial May meeting in Paris, the two American participants (Charles H. Haskins, James T. Shotwell), who were in Paris as presidential advisors, attended the meeting as representatives of two academic societies: the American Academy of Arts and Sciences and the American Historical Association. However, prior to the main meeting (second meeting) scheduled in October, a meeting of the relevant societies was needed to select properly authorized delegates. The chairman and secretary-general of the two associations sent invitations to the relevant societies and suggested that they meet in Boston on September 19. In response, ten societies sent representatives. The American Political Science Association, the American Sociological Society, and the American Society of International Law were unable to attend the meeting because their invitations were not delivered in a timely manner.

At the Boston meeting, the representatives decided upon the name ‘the American Council of Learned Societies’ (ACLS) and designated two representatives to attend the October Paris meeting. After the Paris meeting, the ACLS met in February 1920 in New York and affirmed its position to follow all decisions regarding the International Union of Academies as adopted by the Paris meeting, while designating the delegates to the Union’s first main meeting in Brussels in May 1920. In July of the same year, the Council began its annual publication of the Bulletin, thereby ‘making public all the activities of the Council.’

In the meantime, the compilation of an encyclopedia of American biography, a project

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20 The full name was ‘the American Council of Learned Societies devoted to Humanistic Studies.’ See *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, Vol. 40 (1920), American Oriental Society, p. 78.
Conclusion: Leading Figures in the International Peace Movement

European and American academies first assembled in Wiesbaden in 1899 and organized the International Association of Academies (Association internationale des Académies). This development reflected the need for cooperative relations perceived as urgent in the wake of the rapid advancements in pure and applied sciences during the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century. While the international peace movement was then on the rise to counter the surge of imperialism, the Association was not founded with the expressed goal of contributing to world peace. In fact, humanities were woefully underrepresented vis-à-vis natural and applied sciences.

The outbreak of the First World War in 1914 greatly changed this situation, however. In order to fulfill the dream much desired by the international peace movement, President Wilson of the United States inaugurated a special organization known as ‘the Inquiry’ and mobilized experts in each field to establish necessary measures, which eventually provided the impetus for the founding of the League of Nations. Seen in this light, the UAI, which was founded in 1919, was not a successor to the AIA, which lasted until 1914. Rather, the formation of the Union can be seen as yet another milestone achieved by a new international peace movement—something driven by the same ideal behind the founding of the League of Nations, whose launch was agreed upon also in 1919. This postulate can be attested by the fact that the writers of the materials cited in this paper or those who were deeply involved in the Union’s creation were associated directly or indirectly with the formation of the League of Nations.

Vernon Lyman Kellogg, author of the first article in International Conciliation Issue No. 154, was an entomologist and a professor at Stanford University (1894–1920). For two years (1915–16) he stayed in Belgium, serving as director of the Commission for the Relief of Belgium (CRB), a private humanitarian relief agency manned mostly by American volunteers, to provide food to the civilian population of Belgium and northern France occupied by Germany during the War I. Herbert Hoover, founder of the CRB, studied entomology under Kellogg, which was how the professor came into this position. While there, Kellogg had opportunities to dine with with officers of the German higher command, and he was shocked to encounter what he deemed the unconscionable rationale for the German war machine—an extreme and violent form of social Darwinism in which war is viewed as the most useful tool to apply the concept of survival of the fittest to states and societies. Finding this argument for war unacceptable and concluding that such an incorrigible drive for merciless supremacy was unstoppable unless overwhelmed by force, he became involved in the campaign for American intervention in the war. His experience during the war provides clues as to why Kellogg was actively involved in the formation of the National Research Council in 1918 as an organization for scientists.

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George Ellery Hale (1868–1938), who wrote the second article of Issue No. 154 concerning the founding of the International Organization of Scientific Research, was a professor at the University of Chicago and a solar astronomer. He was a prominent scientist who was active both at home and abroad, teaching not only at M.I.T. and Harvard but also in Berlin. He attended the 1913 St Petersburg conference of the International Association of Academies as an American representative.23 As chair of the National Academy of Sciences, he promoted the formation of an international organization for solar research, and in 1904 he organized a meeting at the St Louis Expo. The meeting was so successful that representatives from the scientific societies of 16 countries gathered together, although the Prussian Academy of Sciences refused to participate and was absent. He played a leading role in the creation of the National Research Council (1916) as a gathering of American scientists during the war, and in 1922 he was appointed as a member of the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, an advisory group to the League of Nations. Unfortunately, he had to resign after a few months due to health reasons.

The third article of Issue No. 154 regarding the relationship between the International Union of Academies and the American Council of Learned Societies was written by Waldo Gifford Leland (1879–1966), a historian and archivist. He is highly regarded for his efforts for the Carnegie Institution and the Library of Congress, contributing greatly to the development of the National Archives of the United States. Particularly noteworthy for the purpose of this paper was his ongoing relationship with the Carnegie Institution. In addition to his £40 million contribution to the International Peace Fund, Andrew Carnegie made three donations for the academic development of the United States from 1901 to 1911, totaling $22 million. To manage this, a new venue for the Carnegie Institution was created in Washington D.C., where financial support for various committees under the League of Nations was administered.

In 1903 Waldo Leland was a teaching assistant in Harvard University’s History Department. At this time, Albert B. Hart, known as ‘the Grand Old Man of American History,’ gave him an opportunity to help the work of Professor Claude H. Van Tyne. Van Tyne was conducting research under the auspices of the newly established Carnegie Institution, which led to Leland’s 24-year association with the Carnegie Institution. During this period, Leland joined the American Historical Association, and from 1909 to 1920 he served as secretary, playing a critical role in negotiating with Congress to establish the National Archives. Under the auspices of the Carnegie Organization, he undertook the task of collecting letters, composed by the delegates to the Continental Congress during the American revolutionary period, from across the eastern United States and Europe (mainly in Paris), serving as the Carnegie Institution’s principal representative in France in 1907–14 and in 1922–27. This led to his appointment as the organizing secretary of the meeting to form the ACLS in 1919, in which capacity he also contributed greatly to the birth of the UAI.

When the first meeting for discussing the creation of the UAI, as proposed by the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, was held at the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris on May 15, 1919, it was Charles Homer Haskins and James T. Shotwell who, as American representatives, faced the representatives of the Royal Academy of Belgium, Henri Pirenne and Joseph Bidez.

23 See the attached table.
Haskins (1870–1937) was a prominent historian who produced outstanding work in medieval history as a professor at Harvard University (1902–31). After graduating from Johns Hopkins University at the age of 16, he immediately went to Europe after his graduation and studied in Paris and Berlin. He became a close advisor to President Woodrow Wilson, whom he met at Johns Hopkins. When Wilson attended the Paris Peace Conference in 1919, Haskins was one of the three presidential advisors and chief of the Division of Western Europe of the American Commission to Negotiate Peace. He became chairman of the ACLS in 1920 and contributed greatly to the early development of the International Union of Academies during his six-year term.24

James Shotwell (1874–1965) was a Canadian-born American historian who received a Ph.D. from Columbia University. He had a strong interest in international relations and regularly contributed entries to the Encyclopædia Britannica, becoming the editor-in-chief of its 11th edition. After becoming a full professor in 1908, Shotwell focused on the impact of science and technology on historical changes and international relations. In 1917 he became director of research at the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, then headed by Columbia University President Nicholas Murray Butler. A member of President Wilson’s ‘Inquiry,’ Shotwell attended the Paris Peace Conference and played an instrumental role in the formation of the International Labour Organization under the League of Nations.25 Haskins and Shotwell, staying in Paris as part of the U.S. delegation to the Paris Peace Conference, thus were able to attend the first meeting for creating the UAI as representatives of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

This venerable roster of major American scholars who were active in the creation of the UAI lends credence to the proposition that the Union embodied the same ideal and vision that launched the League of Nations. In 1920, the UAI invited the Belgian historian Henri Pirenne, who had been arrested by the German army and remained in exile and detention for two years and eight months during the First World War, to become the first president of the International Union of Academies. The following year, he received a national tribute from Belgium as a ‘historian of the nation’ for being a symbol of intellectual resistance during the First World War. The fact that the UAI is headquartered in the Royal Academy of Belgium implies the commemoration of the victory of the Belgian nation’s pacifist and liberal spirit.

Henri Pirenne, as President of the UAI, visited the United States in autumn 1922 for more than three months. At the White House, he was cordially received by President Warren G. Harding and Secretary of Commerce (and future President) Hoover. During his stay he traveled across the country and gave guest lectures at major American universities, including Princeton, Yale, Harvard, Berkeley, Stanford and Columbia.26 This indicates not only American historians’ interest in his historical studies but also the shared interest and will to cooperate among American and European humanities scholars in the pursuit of international peace.

25 He was nominated for the Nobel Peace Prize in 1952, but the award was given to Dr Albert Schweitzer.
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(This paper was originally written in Korean and translated into English. The English version was edited by Hacksun Cha, Korean Institute for Historical Research)