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This publication, produced by the UAI, appears six times a year.

The purpose of the studies, surveys and information included in this periodical concerning the international and transnational networks of nongovernmental organizations is to promote understanding of the associative phenomenon in a human society which continues to grow and evolve regardless of the consequences.

The programme of the review, in accordance with the principles of the UAI, is intended to clarify general awareness concerning the associative phenomenon within the framework of international relations and, in particular, to inform associations about aspects of the problems which they tend to share or which are of common interest to them.

The columns of this review are open to association officers, research workers and specialists of associative questions. The articles do not of course necessarily reflect the point of view of the publisher.

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Son objet associatif d'études, d'enquêtes, d'informations, au service des réseaux internationaux et transnationaux d'organisations non gouvernementales, s'attache aux idées et aux faits d'un phénomène de société humaine en expansion continue et en évolution hâtée.

Son programme, conforme aux principes et aux méthodes de l´UAI, vise, en général, à éclairer les connaissances du grand public sur la vie associative dans la perspective des relations internationales et, en particulier, à informer les associations des divers aspects de leurs problèmes propres et d'intérêt commun.

Les colonnes de la revue sont ouvertes à la fois aux responsables d'associations, chercheurs, spécialistes des matières associatives, dont les articles n'expriment pas nécessairement le point de vue de l'éditeur.

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European development NGOs are determined that the new united Europe and its single market will not shut out the Third World.

For a New Europe of International Solidarity

pointing South as well as East

by the NGDO-EC Liaison Committee

This article was written by the Liaison Committee of Development NGOs to the European Communities which could be described as the voice of non-governmental development organizations (NGDOs) in their relations with the EC (1).

It has the role of carrying out the policy laid down by the annual General Assembly of European NGDOs, whose Recommendations represent the democratically-decided policy of European NGDOs as a whole. In its work the Liaison Committee is supported by a series of working groups on specific policy areas.

The main aim of the Liaison Committee is to promote NGDO-EC cooperation for development while safegarding the autonomy of NGDOs and preventing them from becoming "instrumentalized". This involves constant dialogue with the EC institutions.

Outside this immediate context, the Liaison Committee seeks to influence European public opinion through development education campaigns aimed at improving understanding of the causes of, and possible remedies for, poverty in the Third World.

Finally but very importantly, the Liaison Committee aims to support the creation of real non-governmental organizations in developing countries.

Most of the official, media and public interest in European unification over the last few years has concentrated on the expected economic benefits of the single market to Europe, and in particular European business. 1992 (or more properly 1993 because the European single market is supposed to come into effect on 31 december 1992) will cut cost, increase competition, create economies of scale and generally make European business more efficient, leading in the long run to more jobs and greater prosperity in Europe.

This vision leaves out far more than it includes. In particular, it leaves out the world outside Europe. When Europeans think of their future relations with the rest of the world, they tend to think of a strong Europe which will compete with the other economic superpowers, the USA and Japan. Americans have often feared that after 1992 there will be a "Fortress Europe" closed to their trade. But all this discussion completely ignores most of the world's people in the countries of the Third World. Most of the poor majority of the global population live in countries which depend heavily on trade and other economic relations with the industrialized North, including Europe. Could a "Fortress Europe" be built against them ?

At the same time the changes in Eastern and Central Europe over the last year and the process of German reunification, while very much to be welcomed in themselves, have led to an even greater focus on Europe as opposed to the rest of the world. Public imagination and political priorities are now captured by the building of a democratic society in the East, rather than for example the struggle against poverty in Africa.

Generally, commitment to the Third World in Europe seems to be declining. It is seldom remembered that in the long term the future of the whole world depends on finding a sustainable and just global economic system. Apart from humanitarian considerations, therefore, it is in Europe's real long term interest to have the Third World as a viable partner rather than an economic disaster area. Any solution to the problems of global warming and other environmental threats facing the world's rich as well as the world's poor depends on the industrializing countries of the Third World being able to afford to adopt environmentally-friendly technologies and conserve environmental resources such as the tropical rain forests. They are far less likely to be able to do so in an international economic system which transfers resources away from the poor in the Third World.

The dominant West European political approach to the future of the EC, concentrating on the single market and economic efficiency, also largely ignores the development within the Community of what has been called the "citizens' Europe", a society of practical democracy and participation, securing the human rights of everyone in the new Europe. One consequence of this could be to make conditions harder in future for non-EC nationals in the Community, in particular people from the Third World. Another question raised is that of how to enable associations and citizens' groups to work together across Europe as companies will be able to do. Tackling these questions will involve a new type of democratic European policy-making and educating public opinion.

One group of organizations in Europe which is trying to combat these problems and work towards a Europe of international solidarity are the non-governmental development organizations (NGDOs). Organized into a European network, they are beginning a sustained campaign to put the South back on the European political agenda.

Challenges of 1993 to North-South Cooperation, and the response of the European NGDOs

The 1993 process will have practical effects on all policy areas relevant to NGDO and governmental cooperation with the Third World. So far the officially planned approach to the single market has thrown up far more problems than obvious solutions.

At the 1989 European NGDO General Assembly, therefore, it was decided that the implications of 1993 for cooperation with the Third World should be the main NGDO priority in the immediate future. As a result the 1990 General Assembly (3-6 April) focused on the theme of "Europe 1993 in Solidarity with the Third World". Between the 1989 and 1990 General Assemblies the Liaison Committee carried out preparatory work, producing discussion documents setting out the issues as a basis for the General Assembly's work. In particular a background paper was completed in January. Other NGDOs and networks were also active in the same area. The period of preparation also saw the moves towards democracy in Eastern Europe, and their multiple implications for relations between Europe and the South were reflected in the recommendations put before the General Assembly.

On this basis the General Assembly adopted recommendations on the single market and trade prospects for developping countries, access of Third World nationals to the member states of the European Community, development of a Statute and code of conduct for European NGDOs and the EC and Central and Eastern Europe. These recommendations now form the policy of the European NGDOs on the implications of 1993 for the Third World.

The single market and trade prospects for developing countries

Ability to trade with Europe is vital for many developing countries. Will the single market be positive or negative in its effects here ? Although the EC was able to produce the Cecchini Report (2) on the economic effects of the single market, which goes into considerable detail on the expected benefits in Europe, it is apparently unable to forecast the effects of 1993 on the Third World other than by saying in general terms that economic growth will benefit everyone.

If indeed 1993 leads to economic growth in the EC, this ought in theory to lead to increased demand for imports from the Third World. However the EC has in the past taken a protectionist line on many Third World exports, especially manufactured products for which "Fortress Europe" virtually exists already thanks to tariff escalation — the practice by which tariffs increase according to the amount of processing a product has undergone. For example, in the mid-1980s oilseeds could be imported into the EC duty free, vegetable oils derived from them were subject to a duty of 7.2 % and he tariff on margarine was 25 % (3). There is no sign of this type of practice ceasing. At the same time, the removal of EC internal frontiers will lower costs for EC producers, making them more competitive as against Third World producers of the same goods.

Any extra trading opportunities are likely to be snapped up by newly industrializing countries such as South Korea: poorer developing countries will be less able to take advantage because of their structural economic weaknesses and are in great danger of being marginalized. If the GATT Uruguay Round talks lead to a degree of market liberalization involving equal treatment for all developing countries, the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries will in practice lose their Lomé Convention trade preferences relative to other developing countries, and their trade is likely to suffer considerably. ACP countries account for 33 out of the 41 Least Developed Countries (LDCs) : the EC must ensure that the results of the Second UN Conference on the LDCs do not undermine the Lomé Convention. Any positive gains from the LDCs conference must not be wiped out by the effects of 1993.

The results of the Uruguay Round, which is due to be completed in Brussels in December, will be the main factor affecting trade between Europe and the South over the next few years. GATT and the single market will interact closely. One central area in GATT is that of services and intellectual property. The Northern countries are pushing for new agreements on intellectual property and market access which would place control over services and technological development firmly with transnational corporations. The EC talks about "reciprocity" from developing countries for access to its service sector. In other words poorer countries must also make concessions, for example by accepting Northern industrial patenting rules which would limit technology transfer.

Biotechnology patenting, strongly supported by the EC as part of the 1993 process, would put TNCs in control of Third World genetic resources, until now the common heritage of mankind. It should be resisted for this reason, quite apart from the ethical problems of patenting living beings.

It is relevant to mention here the work of the Development NGOs GATT Steering Committee, in which the Liaison Committee is represented (4). The Steering Committee's main aims are to share information on GATT and to press for any agreement to take account of the Third World's interest. Apart from the questions on services and intellectual property referred to already, NGOs stress the need for an agreement on agricultural trade to protect developing countries' right to defend their food security. For example, developing countries must be able to control cheap subsidized food imports from the EC and the USA in order to protect their own small farmers and ensure that the country can produce its own food. The alternative for the Third World would be reliance on the fluctuations of the world market, which is controlled by large agribusiness companies.

A good example of the type of problem raised by the 1993 process is the case of banana producers in the Windward Islands (West Indies) (5).

The Windward Islands are a group of ACP countries where bananas are produced by small farmers, and as a result are far more expensive than bananas produced on a large scale on plantations controlled by multinational companies in the "dollar area" of Central America. Until now Windward Island banana producers have had a protected market in the EC via quotas in some member states, which have been recognized under the Lomé Convention. With the completion of the single market these national quotas will disappear and the Windward Islands will be fully exposed to competition from dollar area bananas. They and other ACP producers will lose much of their market share, especially if the Uruguay Round leads to a loss of the ACP countries' tariff preferences compared to other developing countries. Over 50 000 people in the Windward Islands depend on bananas for their livelihood. Under the Lomé Convention the EC is pledged to find a solution for ACP banana growers, but practical suggestions are still lacking.

Moving on to possible solutions for these problems, the NGDOs' policy, as expressed in the General Assembly's recommendation, has two complementary aims. One is to increase the amount and quality of information available to governments, producers and grassroots groups in developing countries, and also to consumers in Europe. This is an essential condition for achieving the second aim, which is to take action to help developing country producers take advantage of opportunities created by the single market and at the same time avoid possible adverse effects on poorer developing countries and vulnerable groups and sectors in the South.

To improve the availability of information, the General Assembly urged the EC Commission to carry out and publish as a matter of urgency a thorough study of the costs and benefits of 1993 for Third World trade with the EC. It *"should highlight the various long-term and short-term trade implications (e.g. the harmonization of standards) and opportunities for relevant groups, sectors and regions taking into account the environmental and social aspects" (6).* Harmonization of standards is referred to because of fears that strict Europewide product standards, even if imposed for good reasons such as health and safety, could in practice discriminate against poorer Southern producers. In other cases relaxations of product standards could also harm vulnerable countries and groups for example if chocolate produced in the UK, Denmark or Ireland, which is not required to contain a minimum amount of cocoa butter and thus harm cocoa farmers in LDCs.

It should again be stressed that the EC Commission has yet to produce any systematic research in this field and representatives of DG VIII (Development) have stated that it is not possible to do so, although the Commission was indeed able to produce a report on the economic benefits of 1993 in Europe. Other work such as the report of the ACP-EEC Joint Parliamentary Assembly working group looking at the single market (7) has not tended to confirm the Commission's general reassurances.

The Liaison Committee itself will also try to improve public information on the issues through an educational campaign for European consumers. Consumers should be encouraged to use their purchasing power in a conscious and informed way "to benefit producers in poor countries and to improve economic, environmental and social conditions for the poor". Such a campaign could focus on the idea of "alternative trade" — that is, fair trade between North and South, with a just return for small producers in the South.

In terms of concrete action to defend Third World trading interests, the General Assembly recommended that"... special measures should be taken in order to give equal opportunities for trading partners with poorer prospects. This includes special and preferential treatment for LDCs". Of course such special measures can only be taken by the EC authorities and by national governments. The EC already has the main role as regards external trade, and policy will become even more centralized at European level as the singel market moves towards completion. This will give the European authorities an even greater responsibility for the effects of their policies in the south.

"Special measures" must benefit not only LDCs but also groups particularly affected by the Single Market, and the poor in the Third World generally. The reason for this is that certain countries (for example Brazil) are large, competitive exporters but suffer from great inequality and poverty. Therefore what benefits the balance of payments of a particular developing country may not help most of its population. Changes in international trade affect such situations. In the case of the banana trade referred to already, banana production in Central and Latin America, which will probably take over the ACP market sharen is often carried out under very exploitative and repressive conditions. According to the ILO, for example, over 200 trade unionists in Colombia, including many banana workers, were murdered between 1986 and 1988.

The measures used to help developing countries and people affected to safeguard their trade with the EC might include "support in processing, marketing (e.g. trade fairs), distribution, transport, product diversification, technology transfer for small-scale producers, and South-South cooperation". These measures should not be financed from existing resources for development aid and cooperation, but should be in addition to current programmes. These is one area where the Liaison Committee, the NGDOs and theis Southers partners could help directly the NGDOs would tike to work together with the Commission to establish a European "fair trade mark". This would allow consumers to identify goods produced without exploitation, giving a fair return to small producers in the South.

Finally, 1993 is likely to make it more attractive for transnational corporations to invest in Europe rather than the Third World. The changes in Eastern Europe will also attract investment away from the Third World : investment there is already stagnant. This point will be dealt with in the following section.

Eastern Europe

Over the last year another major factor has emerged which will greatly affect relations between Europe and developing countries after 1993. The movement towards democracy in Eastern Europe and the accompanying upheavals have captured Westerns Europe's attention and imagination. Development NGOs in many ways share in this enthusiasm NGDOs have contributed to the aid effort in Eastern Europe, especially in Romania. They are also building up contacts with those of the non-governmental organizations now growing in Eastern and Central Europe which are interested in cooperation with the Third World.

However the new situation holds serious dangers for the future of Europe's relations with the Third World. As indicated above, there is a pressing danger that Western aid and attention will be diverted to Eastern Europe to the extent of forgetting about the South. In terms of media coverage this is already a reality, and it is to be feared that public opinion will follow.

Since the moves to democracy in Eastern and Central Europe, European aid granted to the East amounts to over $ 1500 per head in the countries concerned. On the other hand, EC aid to the ACP countries under the fourth Lomé Convention amounts to some 5 ECU per capita annually. What is more, the aid to Eastern Europe was granted quickly and gladly, while the Lomé aid to the EC's long-established partners in developing countries was agreed only after long, hard negotiations. This shows the extent to which the events in Eastern Europe, a cause for celebration in themselves, have pushed the South off the agenda. How can it be kept there ? How can it be ensured that the EC governments and public opinion do not lose sight of the problems of the Third World, which mean life or death to massive number of people ?

Apart from aid flows, Western commercial investment and capital is flowing East at a tremendous rate. Eastern European countries are industrialized and have a skilled workforce, but much lower wages than in the EC countries, making them a very attractive location for investment. At the same time investment from OECD countries in the LDCs is falling. Increased imports from Eastern European countries into the EC, probable with closer relations (and indeed the ex-GDR is now part of the EC) will compete with products from the Third World. Current trends in relations between the two halves of Europe seem in many ways very dangerous for the Third World.

Accordingly the General Assembly adopted two recommendations on Eastern Europe, One, on European cooperation and the development of civil societies in Eastern European countries, calls for EC financial support for strengthening NGOs in Eastern and Central Europe. In principle EC funds are available for economic and social development in Eastern and Central Europe, and this initiative would be a good way of taking the "social" side seriously, helping to build democratic participation and not only economic and business structures.

At the same time, the Liaison Committee is ready to use its experience of coordination among NGDOs in order to help establish contacts between Southern NGDOs and Eastern NGOs of all types. At present it appears that relatively few such contacts exist, and it is important that they should develop.

The other recommendation, on "The EC and Central and Eastern Europe", welcomes events in the East but asks the EC to remember the tremendous gap in living standards between Eastern European countries, already much closer to those in the EC, and those in the least developed countries. A striking example of this gap is a comparison of the number of deaths annually of children under 5 years old : 18 per 1000 in Poland and 298 per 1000 in Mozambique (8). Therefore the LDCs *"must remain the first priority for the EC's aid expenditure"*. The community must at least match all aid for the East with new aid for the South. As regards official development assistance from EC member states (as opposed to that from the EC itself), NGDOs will monitor the situation to try to ensure that funds are not diverted from the Third World to Eastern Europe.

Looking at the possible effects on investment in the Third World, the recommendation calls on the Commission "to *initiate and publish within the next 12 months a study of the likely effects of economic developments in the Community and Eastern Europe on investment patterns in developing countries during the 1990s, accompanied by proposals for an EC action plan to boost productive investment in developing countries".* Effective action must be based on information, and the EC has not yet taken steps to make this information available so that the problem can be quantified.

Finally, the recommendation urges the EC member states to take advantage of the end of the Cold War to plan now for reductions in their military expenditure, allowing a substantial increase in development assistance budgets. Any "peace dividend" resulting from the fall in East-West tension should also benefit the peoples of the South.

Third World debt

Until now the European Community has not acknowledged a basic responsibility to take action to solve the debt crisis which is crippling many Third World economies, although a large proportion of sub-Saharan Africa's debts are owed to European governmental bodies.

A single European economy and monetary system will make this responsibility all the more urgent. European banks, which are already receiving massive interest payments at the expense of development in the South, will be strengthened by market liberalization in Europe and will therefore be in an even stronger bargaining position as against the Third World. A European policy on debt is a necessity: this vital issue must not be left to the market or individual governments acting bilaterally. NGDOs in Europe have formed a European Debt Crisis Network, in which the LC also participates, to raise European public awareness of the issue and push for a solution.

Access *to Europe for Third World nationals*

Although NGDOs' main concern is to help people to survive and improve their living conditions in their own countries, it is clear to them in their work that poverty, lack of development prospects and human rights violations leave many people in the South with no alternative but to leave and seek their future elsewhere. This creates a natural link between NGDOs' development work and the defence of the human rights of Third World nationals in Europe.

After 1992 there is to be freedom of movement for EC citizens throughout the Community. What is not certain is where this will leave Community residents who are citizens of non-EC countries, in particular people from the Third World. There is a strong risk that they will be disadvantaged either by freedom of movement and other rights not being extended to them on an equal basis, or by harsher external border controls accompanying the dismantling of internal frontiers.

A particular problem concerns refugees and asylum-seekers : many member states are already drastically tightening up their admission and asylum procedures, and at European level refugee policy has been delegated to the Trevi Group, a secretive intergovernmental committee which deals with such issues as border control, crime prevention, terrorism and drug trafficking — scarcely an ideal forum to discuss refugees !

This example also shows the current lack of democracy and transparency in European policy on migrants and refugees : the Schengen agreement abolishing borders between France, Germany and the Benelux countries in advance of 1992, which was signed recently, is also a purely intergovernmental affair. European policy on refugees should be made democratically by the European institutions (the Trevi Group is not even an official EC institution), both for the sake of accountability and also because otherwise each member state is liable to make its legislation more restrictive in order to avoid an influx of refugees from other European countries.

Migrant and refugee rights in Europe cover a wide complex of separate but interconnected problems. At one level there are questions concerning official treatment of refugees and migrants, which is often discriminatory. Underlying this, and pushing governments and other official bodies towards discriminatory and racist behaviour, is an increase in xenophobic and racist feelings in Europe over the last few years under the pressure of unemployment and other economic problems. In several European countries there are now major political parties with a racist or xenophobic message. Life has become more difficult and threatening for many migrants in Europe, with a growth in open and public hostility. Reserving the surge of racism is vital for the defence of migrants' and refugees' human rights, and indeed for building support for cooperation with the Third World.

Anti-immigrant political pressure on EC governments is made all the more severe by the approach of 1993. In the case of migrants the "problem" perceived by Governments is the removal of internal frontiers, leading perhaps to free movement for everyone in the Community including immigrants. With refugees and asylum-seekers, governments fear that if Europe becomes one unit for asylum purposes (in other words an asylum-seeker whose application was rejected in one country would not be able to apply in another) then countries with more generous regulations would attract a large number of refugees. Thus there is a general trend for asylum conditions to become much more restrictive.

The policies adopted by the European NGDOs aim to address the problems at these two levels of official practices and public attitudes. Again, action is needed both from the NGDOs themselves and from the EC and national authorities.

The General Assembly recommendation calls on NGDOs to *"pay more attention to the root causes of migration and be more aware of their own countries' policies regarding migrants, ethnic minorities, asylum-seekers and refugees".* In concrete terms, the Liaison Committee will, through its Development Education Working Group, prepare an NGDO strategy for public education work on the issues concerned. It will also continue to support refugee and migrant organizations in their contacts with the European institutions.

At the same time the EC and its member states must take a range of measures to protect the rights of various categories of Third World nationals in Europe: immigrants, refugees and asylum-seekers, students and Southern partners of NGDOs visiting Europe for development work. Since people in he South are often forced to become refugees because of human rights violations, the General Assembly's first request to the EC is to set up a mechanism to monitor democratic development and the respect of human rights in the countries with which the EC carries on development cooperation.

Concerning general attitudes to Third World nationals in Europe, the EC and national authorities must combat racism and discrimination and in particular eliminate these attitudes from their dealings with foreigners. It is also important that the authorities should not always present foreigners simply as a problem : there is a need to *"emphasize the positive aspects of a multi-cultural society and inter-cultural relations".* As regards refugees in particular, it should always be made clear that refugees are a world wide problem and that only a small proportion of the total come to Europe.

Looking at the position of immigrants, NGDOs would like to see the regularization of the situation of non-Community immigrants whose papers are not in order. Otherwise this large group of people will be excluded from society. On the other hand, the NGDOs *"also urge that severe sanctions should be imposed on employers who illegally bring in labour to work in unacceptable conditions".* Regarding future access to Europe, the future united Europe must not practise a discriminatory immigration policy or close its borders. Within Europe, *"immigrants who keep their citizenship (for whatever reason) should be guaranteed equal treatment with respect to living and working conditions, educational opportunities, social security and freedom of movement. They should have the right to be reunited with their families as well as to vote and to stand for election at a local level".* This is a key point: ail those who live in and contribute to European society should be treated as citizens.

To combat the problems of secrecy and non-accountability in refugee and asylum policy, and stop the vicious circle of member states competing to make their procedures more restrictive, the NGDOs hava asked the European institutions to institute a European refugee policy, "so *that this policy can be publicly monitored and influenced by the European Parliament and be made known to and understood by the public".* In developing this policy the EC should consult NGOs working with refugees and also the UN High Commissioner for Refugees. In their recommendation the NGDOs suggest a number of guidelines for the policy : prominent among them is the principle that refugees, like other migrants, should have equal rights with EC nationals in every social sphere. There should be a European system of appeal against refusals of asylum, which would be independent of national governments and would ensure that no asylum-seeker could be deported without appeal.

Finally, the NGDOs called for action to help Third World students in Europe and the Southern partners of European NGDOs (the latter have sometimes been unable to enter European countries for conferences of development education work, and the recommendation asks the authorities to facilitate their access). The EC should ensure that students with study visas have freedom of movement between the member states of the Community during the period of validity of their visas, and that existing bilateral recognition agreements on academic qualifications are implemented by all the member states after 1992.

Altogether the General Assembly's recommendation represents a comprehensive programme to give non-European Community nationals access to Europe on a non-discriminatory basis and ensure them equality of treatment once they are in Europe. Its implementation would mark a considerable improvement in the quality of life for a large number of people in Europe.

NGDOs in the single market

The completion of the single market will have major implications for the work of NGDOs and other associations. It raises the question of whether NGDOs will be governed by national legislation or by a new Europe-wide statute for associations, and what form the latter will take. The new European tax and competition legislation could also strongly affect NGDO activities. Even more than other aspects of 1993, this whole area is shrouded in uncertainty. NGDOs are looking for further information and clarification, and there are different assessments of the probable impact of change.

Potentially there could be several problems. At present national legislation on associations varies widely, and the position in some countries is considerably more favourable than in others. A uniform, compulsory European statute for associations would therefore damage the interests of associations in certain countries. Any European statute must then be optional, with associations having the choice of remaining under their existing national legislation. It would also have to provide the possibility, which does not exist at present, of establishing a "European association" made up of people from several countries and active in several countries. This would bring the legislation up to date with the realities of the single market.

The position of associations as regards tax and competition laws poses a real and immediate problem. The European Commission currently plans to differentiate between "economic activities", which would be subject to the same rules as the activities of profit-making companies, and "non-economic activities" which would be favoured. The relevant definitions are not clear, and this distinction could split the work of the same NGDO into two parts with different legal status. What is needed is a distinction between profit-making and non-profit-making organizations: activities which are "economic" but are carried out to support humanitarian aims and not for profit must be protected.

There has until now been a general lack of information on the implications of change. As participants, to a greater or lesser extent, in the European economy, NGDOs and other associations cannot help being affected by any change in its regulatory framework. Alongside the problems referred to above, 1993 may well bring NGDOs benefits in the sense of being able to operate more effectively across frontiers. However, this in itself raises the question of how to prevent smaller NGDOs from being marginalized in fundraising by European or larger national NGDOs. Should NGDOs from one country have access to public cofinancing sources in another?

Such questions will be important in the development of a Code of Conduct for NGDOs, which the General Assembly recommended the Liaison Committee to prepare in consultation with the NGDO national assemblies, the NGDOs' Southern partners and other relevant organizations. Building on the success of the existing Code of Conduct on Images and Messages relating to the Third World, it will cover the whole range of NGDO activities: "... *the means of obtaining public and private funds, the types of projects and public education activities undertaken and the basic principles of project support with partner organizations in Asia, Africa and Latin America ".*

Moving on to the development of a statute for European NGDOs, the General Assembly passed a separate recommendation specifically on this point. It emphasizes the need for comprehensive discussion and consultation between NGDOs and other associations and with the European institutions, especially to clarify whether the statute is optional or obligatory, how it relates to the existing statutes in the member states and the position of organizations operating under such a statute as regards European and member state public funds.

The Liaison Committee is to draw up a timetable for discussion with the NGDO national assemblies. This will involve a survey of NGDO views, carried out through the national assemblies. It will also *"increase its cooperation and coordination with other organizations involved in the discussions with the Commission concerning the drawing up of a statute for European associations"*. In this work the Liaison Committee will focus particularly on the non-profit making nature of NGDOs.

In the part of the recommendation addressed to the Community, the General Assembly calls on the EC to recognize that *"the description* "non-profit making association" *is preferable to the distinction* "with or without economic activities", and also that *"the process of developing a statute for European NGDOs should not have a negative impact on the existing legislation for associations, including NGDOs, in the different member states"*. This section is in some ways the central point of the whole recommendation.

By adopting the description *"non-profit making association"* as opposed to a distinction between economic and non-economic activities the EC would recognize that in practice NGDOs often engage in economic activities (such as collecting money or selling goods) in support of their non-profit, humanitarian aims. This is a fundamental part of their activities, and so it is essential that a satisfactory framework should be found.

As regards the relation between the new European statute and national legislation, associations in all countries of the EC must continue to be able to work under a statute at least as favourable as at present. A European statute must not mean an enforced levelling down.

It should be noted that a draft European statute for associations, drawn up so as to promote associations' interests, has been drawn up by the Comité européen des associations d'intérêt general (CEDAG) (*) (9).

Finally, the recommendation calls on the Member States of the EC to apply the legislation which already exists on social security contributions for volunteers in development work: at present some countries are not applying it. The Commission should also put pressure on these countries. Naturally action in this field would also benefit voluntary workers in other sectors. In general, non-profit making associations of all types would of course benefit from a favourably-drafted European statute for associations, and equally suffer from its absence. Voluntary organizations as a whole have a strong interest in a European order which gives priority to the non-profit sector and activities carried out for the common good.

Conclusion

Overall the European NGDOs have adopted a wide-ranging programme of action and pressure to try to ensure that the new Europe of 1993 is a Europe of international solidarity, and that this solidarity points South as well as East. This programme will involve NGDOs and the Liaison Committee in a great deal of follow-up work over the next few years, both in terms of lobbying Europan and national authorities and of public education campaigns.

The change and uncertainty surrounding Europe's relations with the South over the next few years are a good example of the way nothing stands still. In the next few years the NGDOs will have to adapt to new situations in many fields : the full effect of the changes in Eastern Europe is still not clear, and political change is also underway in Africa and other parts of the Third World, including a tremendous growth of popular grassroots initiatives. In general it is clear that the world economic system will have changed considerably in a few years. World environment problems are playing an increasing part in the debate on development in the South and in the North.

NGDOs have recognized this change in the background of their activities by choosing as the theme of next year's General Assembly *"The Role of the NGDOs in a Changing World".* It will look at ways to strengthen the work of NGDOs in the South and the North, interaction between Southern and Northern NGDO networks for lobbying and the search for a human-centred, democratic, participatory development model. European NGDOs will do everything in their power to keep abreast of the changing world of the 1990s. Reflecting the growing link between development and environmental problems, the 1992 General Assembly will centre on Sustainable Development.

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(*) See the article by François Coursin, Secretary General of the CEDAG, in *Transnational Associations,* No 5/1990, 256-259.

(1) Address of Liaison Committee Secretariat: 62, avenue de Cortenbergh, B-1040 Bruxelles, Belgium.

(2) Paolo Cecchini, *The European Challenge : 1992, the Benefits of a Single Market* (published independently in each EC country: for information contact the European Bookshop, 224 rue de la Loi, B-1040 Bruxelles).

(3) *Uruguay Round: Papers on Selected Issues,* UNCTAD, 1989, p. 349.

(4) The Development NGO's GATT Steering Committee can be contacted at the same address as the Liaison Committee.

(5) This example has been taken from the World Development Movement's report *Beyond 1992: the effect of the Single European Market on the world's poor,* published by WDM. London, June 1989.

(6) The following direct quotations are from the Recommendations of the 1990 General Assembly of European NGDOs.

(7) See *Official Journal of the European Communities No.* C 218, 3 September 1990.

(8) See *State of the World's Children 1990,* UNICEF.

(9) CEDAG can be contacted c/o GNA, 18 rue de Varenne, F-75007 Paris.

Information et désinformation

Un laboratoire d'analyses comparatives

L'association des électeurs européens, "EUROSCORE" propose aux associations de se joindre á elle pour élaborer une "Charte" qui s'inspire des principes énoncés plus bas et dont voici quelques éléments :
- Eléments pour la "charte"

A. En tant que citoyen responsable, je m'engage :
- A recourir à plusieurs sources chaque fois que possible.
- A soutenir et promouvoir toute tentative visant notamment, dans les réseaux scolaires, à un usage raisonné des médias.
- A signaler à EUROSCORE tout manquement à l'authenticité des faits tels qu'ils sont rapportés dans les médias afin d'en arrêter la diffusion et tout en reconnaissant le droit à l'erreur.

B. En tant que citoyen responsable, j'exige, parce que c'est mon droit:
- d'être à même d'identifier les sources des informations qui me sont proposées.
- de pouvoir clairement distinguer ce qui est de l'information brute et le commentaire qui l'accompagne.
- de voir les informateurs mis matériellement et moralement à même de fournir une information de qualité, c'est-à-dire, une information qui soit le reflet aussi fidèle que possible de la réalité qu'ils perçoivent.

C. En tant que citoyen responsable je demande que les médias mettent à leurs programmes des réalisations positives, constructives et encourageantes pour tous, les jeunes notamment.

Cette Charte sera proposée á l´adhésion des citoyens lors d'un Colloque sur l'*Information et la Désinformation,* le 20 avril 1991 a Bruxelles qui reunira des spécialistes de l'information et le public.

Renseignements: Euroscore, 30 rue J.B. Colyns, 1060 Bruxelles, tél et fax: 02/345.55.71

Cultural Roots of Voluntary Action in the different countries

by Liebje Hoekendijk *

General Remarks

The interest in Volunteers, in their position, incidents and prevalence are more and more the subject of research and policy.

The interest of policymakers is often geared at providing facilities to help volunteer work along. What escapes the attention of policy measures, is what is felt as the basis of the volunteer activity. The values implied are supposed to be something of the volunteer him/herself (the motivation) or a private responsibility of the volunteer association. Public policy however has a lot to do with these values.

In some countries voluntarism is still in the position of "invisibility". In Denmark recently the ministry of social affairs stated that there were hardly any volunteers in Denmark. But when surveys were carried out, it appeared that there are as many volunteers in Denmark and in the other Scandinavian countries, as in other countries of Europe (15% of the population). They are a force to be reckoned with, but how this should be done is unclear. What are they, what do they do?. Are they a threat to the ideology that "the state should provide" ? Are they a threat to professionalism? Are they a remnant of a time when we had too few provisions? Are they a critical group to question the existing state of affairs, or are they old fashioned do gooders?

Volunteers are in the vulnerable position of either being ignored, seen as a threat, or seen as a basis for reducement of public spending: "back to community care", with the pricetag of a past century attached to it.

So many preconcieved ideas are around, that it is no wonder that volunteers themselves often feel insecure as to their value for society of their position in general : their identity.

This article will touch on the position volunteers have, related to their culture.

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Preliminary Remarks

The definition of volunteer work by Volonteurope is used, viz. :

— Work done for other persons or for society,
— Work done in a (more or less) organised setting,
— Work done by free choice and with peaceful means,
— Work not done for financial interest (unpaid).

Voluntary action takes place in the field of social service, education, arts, sports, etc. Prof. Dasgupta, in Washington (1988), gave the following definition: *"Voluntary action is a personal response to a cultural need of society".*

The word "voluntary organisation" can best be avoided because it could be confusing. "Voluntary organisation" means: a non-profit, non-governmental organisation, also called NGO. NGOs can be totally professionalised, and statutory organisations (governed by the state) may have volunteers. Generally speaking, there are more volunteers involved in NGOs than in statutory organisations but "volunteer" and "voluntary" cannot be used as synonyms. The term "voluntary organisation" is also confusing in international company, as the boundaries between the two sectors (statutory/voluntary) differ greatly per country. The *volunteer* organisation, however, is run by volunteers.

Speaking about cultural trends one has to generalise. The subject is so broad that in a paper this is unavoidable. We are not looking at the exceptions — there are many — but at the validity of the analysis in general.

Some of the following observations are not limited to volunteers only. Sometimes paid people act in a "volunteer way", and we know that sometimes volunteers act in a very formal, institutionalised way. Trends will be described.

N.B. When something positive is said about volunteers, it is not meant as an implicit criticism of professionals. Both have a place and a value of their own. An English doctor said : *"We medicos add hours to life and the volunteers add life to hours".*

The sources for this article are visits to different countries, stories from people who attended conferences, and studies.

777e *Values of a Culture*

By "culture" are meant the values, the aims, the beliefs, etc. of a *society.* It has a wider meaning than "the arts".

Shown in diagram, it is as follows:

Community	**A** **society: how it is organised**
	B. mentality: values, aims, creativity, beliefs.

At the level of an *organisation* there is the same kind of division :

Organisation/Institution	**A**
	B. mentality: the "culture of the organisation" or the way people want to cooperate, the aims of the organisation.

At the level of the *individual* we see :

Individual	**A** **actions**
	B. motivations/feelings/aims/values.

In a community (1), the way in which laws are made and power is distributed is an expression of its values, but in itself it also creates values. One can see that original humanitarian values, as expressed in the Bible or Koran, can be twisted and used to suppress groups (women, foreigners, children, animals). The groups in power add extra values to support their position but they claim this is based on the cultural roots of the community. In an organisation (2) the management is dedicated to realise the aims of that organisation, but it also creates aims of itself, like "to survive as an organisation", — which in itself is quite legitimate.

Aims and effects are two very different things. B is never fully realised in A. The individual sometimes thinks that his or her actions are spontaneous, but actions are in fact based on very deep-rooted convictions on how things should be and what the responsibility of the individual is towards his or her fellow-men/women. Maintaining the motivation of the individual volunteer (3) seems to be an individual thing, but this is not the case : the support of the volunteer group is necessary to be able to continue. This volunteer group also needs certain clear aims and a good organisation to be able to function. If the group wants to have continuity, it also needs a society which supports this group.

Volunteer policy, therefore, needs to concern itself not only with providing facilities A (money, organisation) but should also support the motivation and the cultures B. This is more subtle thing, but just as necessary, and it will come back.

Do Volunteers Seek Conflict?

When exploring the relationship between volunteers and culture, it helps to start with the opposite question : are they opposing the values of the culture of the country they are part of, or do they have different values. There are several answers to this question.

Volunteers do not Seek Conflict

By nature, voluntarism is pragmatic. A need is seen, and something is done about it: the definition of Dasgupta.

Whether voluntarism is experienced as a conflicting force depends on the culture, not on the volunteers. They do not seek a confrontation. If a culture, with its power patterns, does not want changes for the better to be made, then the volunteers are in conflict. Volunteers are like fish : they do not want to be washed away like a piece of dead wood in a stream, but they want to swim against the current, as fish will. Does a society want those active, fish-like citizens who create a splash? Let me give some examples.

Individuals in Battle to Save Lives

There are many inspiring stories of individuals who challenge the situation.

Japan. In the 13th century in Kyoto, a monk, Mr. Mara, started to help outcasts. He organised a network for aid. He wanted to show the example of Buddha, to display compassion, is symbol was a large teacup, a cup everybody could drink from. The "big teacup" is still a symbol for the volunteer attitude of sharing.

India. In the 19th century Mr, Vidyasagar, an educator, concentrated on the situation of women. The religion demanded that wives be burned when the husband died (sati), but he introduced remarriage for widows. Many times he had to protect them against violence or religious orthodox fanatics. He fought for the widow's right to live.

Switzerland. In the 19th century Mr. Henry Dunant started the Red Cross: taking care of the wounded on the battlefield. Until then only equipment was provided to fight a war, but nothing was organised to take care of its casualties. He fought against this one-sidedness.

There are many, many more *individual, charismatic initiators* who started a movement to help against obvious problems, initiatives that gained support and inspired others. Initiators were — and are - both men and women. They battle to save lives. They challenge the situation.

In this context a name can be mentioned of someone who points out the value of the individual volunteer, Rutch March, board member of IAVE, in the USA. She wants recognition for the individual volunteer, whose value is irreplaceable, — even in our highly developed society, with established institutions.

Volunteers in Battle to Save Nature

A more recent development is the battle to save nature. Preservation of Nature movements have been active for a great number of years already, but lately the protection of the environment has been receiving extra attention. Many cases of threat to nature and citizens' livelihood have come to the surface. If mother's milk would be on the market, the government would ban its sale because it contains too much dioxine and PCBs. The first volunteer movement with world-wide activities was set up in order to protect the seas (Green Peace), then many others followed. The mentality has changed (B), we now wait for measures to be taken (A).

U.S.S.R. One example from the U.S.S.R. In December 1987, various nature and environmental protection movements created a platform in Moscow and they are quite influential now. Two results of the ecological movements are remarkable. The first: the government wanted to change the course of rivers in Siberia, now running north, to run to the south which has water shortage in summer. This would mean a dangerous change of ecological conditions and there was so much opposition that the plans were abandoned. Also the establishment of a cellulose factory was prevented : it could potentially cause the same type of disaster as occurred in Bhopal.

Concern for a healthy environment is global now, and volunteer initiatives were often instrumental to make it that way. Mentality must change — has in fact changed, to be followed by policy.

The recent changes in the Eastern European Countries are solely the result of the actions of citizens, of volunteers. A special conference will be held in Berlin about the role of volunteers in the social changes, a subject also of adult education organisations.

Volunteers to Save the Country

Many countries have freedom movements. In their wake one sees relief movements, educational activities and — inspired by these — preservation of cultural heritage and crafts — and even body-building as a symbol of power (India).

When **India** had **a** foreign government in power, many volunteer movements had a more or less nationalistic basis. The struggle for independence went together with a struggle for religious and social reform, and for increase of educational activities. The sad situation is, however, that after the goal was reached and India had its own independent state, the volunteer movement was discouraged. The government assumed the whole responsibility for solving all problems of society, and the large networks existing from the times that people had to do it themselves were seen as *"unwanted weed in the paths of government programmes"* (Dasgupta).

Volunteers are now openly criticising unrealistic programmes. In Italy the lay-army of the Red Jacks of Garibaldi (the French and English might have got a different opinion from their history books), when they were staying in a village, always started programmes about healthcare and education. The large volunteer association Federazione Nazionale Associazioni di Pubblica Assistenza, still considers itself to be based on the ideas of Garibaldi.

Democratic and Emancipatory Movements

The recent changes in the *Eastern European Countries* are solely the result of the actions of citizens, of volunteers. In 1987 the Hungarian Democratic Forum was created by 180 intellectuals. After one year, they had 10 000 members, not only intellectuals. We all know now how important these groups have been in the different Eastern European countries in 1989. A special conference will be held in Berlin in 1990 organised by the adult education organisations, about the role of volunteers in the recent social changes.

There is a very interesting phenomenon here: *some regions are active, some are not.* This also has a historical background. If somewhere an organisational network of volunteers movements was created because of the struggle against problems, this network remained, and is there to serve in new problems and, even more interesting, new generations have the mentality to "fight" and to be active as volunteers.

The Indian story shows this clearly, and if I may mention my own country: *The Netherlands* have often been ruled by foreign powers, and have to fight against the water : this created a spirit of resistance, a need for freedom and free choice. Free choice ranks very high on the list of national values. Most freedom movements in the world have a support group in the Netherlands.

But this is not only a national thing : I have been recruiting volunteers with a television programme for three years, and our team was surprised to find that in some cities you would always find movements in a new field, and none in other. So there are just active cities and lethargic cities. This also seems to be a result of local history.

Emancipation-movements are all a result of the action of volunteers, allthough the latter would often not call themselves such. There is a discussion about the values involved for women and volunteer work: should the economic independence have prevalence over other goals (so women should not work for nothing), or the right to chose (paid or unpaid work).

Volunteers Warn Us

The messages of African people at conferences are always very impressive. They have a very clear messages of warning. They say: *"Beware that you do not reduce the value of the person you help. Don't patronize".* Their culture shows the signs of *reciprocity.* This message has a historical background of which the West cannot be very proud; Mission and development aid have brutally denounced the existing culture. In its place came "civilization", which took away old values and replaced them by... by what? Industrial development and "civilization" create a cultural void, and a new set of values based on materialism.

African movements tell us that in voluntarism as well as in other organisations we should cherish the value of the small community, of hospitality, of reciprocity, in any initiative coming from outside, the proposition *"I have something to offer you"* should be changed into *"can we learn from each other?".* It is a sentiment that is not new to the social professions everywhere, but it is one of those things which are accepted in theory but are not fully realised yet in practice. The institutions themself create feelings of inferiority, dependence and isolation. The African message is not superfluous by a long time.

Volunteer Work in itself is Reconciliation of Conflicting Values

In her book, called: *"The neurotic personality of our time",* Karen Horny (USA) described the two conflicting attitudes we are taught to have in our culture : Parents tell you that you should not strive for your own interest, but for the other person. Not to be an egoist, not *"number one",* not "*I*, *I*, *I and the rest can die".* The message is to become a social being, and it often has a so-called Christian foundation of *"think first of (God and) thy neighbour".* The other directive is the clear necessity that if you do not fight for yourself, nobody else will do it and you will go under: the biological need to fight, to eat, to take your place under the sun. One trend is *"not me",* the other is *"me".*

The first reaction to this is: it is a misunderstanding of the Christian concept. The Bible says: *"love thy neighbour as thyself,* and not *"instead of yourself".* -

The one-sidedness is the result of the — mostly unconscious — practice of large systems to dominate people by stressing the value of humility, and not of self-assurance. So the original healthy and balanced ideology became a one-sided and neurotic one. Volunteerism has a positive combination. Volunteer work is done for certain other people or for society at large — see definition. But is is done by free choice; not because of family obligation, not because of any pressure but because you want to do it. If the work is not what you thought it to be, you can leave it. This has nothing to do with un accountability. Volunteers usually are painfully aware that they have to do what they promised, but I mean that they can and will leave the work if it is not what it should be. Dedication and free choice. Some professional organisations get so nervous by this combination that they give volunteers "contracts" to get a grip on them. But this is not the what to keep your volunteers, as we know from experience.

Volunteerism has this conciliating aspect of conflicting values, and it is for this reason that some labour ideologists want the volunteer mentality to be brought into the paid sector: voluntarily.

This issue has an other aspect. There are large and fundamental differences between cultures of the West and those elsewhere, sometime simply called the "we"-cultures and the "I"-cultures. At the moment, on the surface, the western cultures have the "I"-culture; other cultures are still very much based on the "we" concept — think of Japan or Africa. The latter think that the western attitude is a deteriorated condition. It has lost a most important thing : the family feeling, the community feeling, the dedication of the individual to the group, the warmth of it. In the West there is an other worry. They say that in the "we-culture" the individual is oppressed, that the family often is not a safe place — see the many incidents of incest. Social control is fine but it has an oppressing aspect: it creates outcasts. The individual can be crushed by society.

In both instances volunteer movements seek to find a balance. At the moment, young people in Japan are in some danger of becoming oppressed by the school system. They have to learn very, very hard, to forget leisure and to compete strongly to get through their exams, to be able to get a place at a university,

If you are not admitted you can forget about making a successful career. This pressure leads to pestering the weakest pupil in class, even to the point of suicide. Everyone is worried about this but puts the blame on someone else: parents say that teachers are old-fashioned and push the pupils, teachers say parents are too ambitious, and all say the government should do something about the situation. But the many volunteer youth organisations, who are not a party in this struggle, try to help the young people and plead for more leisure, more free time to learn from other things than from books alone. They identify with the young person in this whole situation. When 1 was talking to a representative of a youth organisation in Japan and asked : *"what is the most problematic aspect of your association ?"* he said : *"the greatest problem is the situation of the young people themselves".* In the West, volunteer movements create mini-"solidarities", small groups of people who listen to one another, self-help groups, groups for care and help — all of them movements which teach the "we"-spirit. Care for your fellow-men in Israel is based on the Hebrew word *tsedakah,* one word which has a combination of meanings. It is not the concept of the Christian value of "charity" only, there is more. It means justice *and* righteousness : the community should be fair to all (justice) and it should be "right for God". The relationship with the fellow-person is identical to the relationship with God. Martin Buber wrote a whole book about this : "Ich du — ich Du". The one without the other will not blossom.

In times of dramatic cultural change, citizens' activities can be based on contradicting values. When the ideals of the French revolution developed : liberty, equality and brotherhood, there was great opposition against these in England, which held an other set of values : religion, family, tradition and continuity. The one type of ideals led to the formation of interest groups demanding equal rights, the other motivated an elite to feel the care for traditional heritage and care for future generations. Both movements have inspired volunteer activities, but the interesting point is that these more or less conflicting motivations didn't always lead to conflicting activities. A volunteer's motivation, to "fight for the rights of everybody", or "I feel responsible because my parents taught me so", can lead to the same kind of initiative. Interest groups and church-based groups *can take opposite positions, but very often they do not* *because their aims are pragmatic, dealing with problems of the moment. But this does not mean that the differences in the motivations, as they are, can be neglected!*

Volunteers as Conciliators

Volunteers are often conciliators. This is understandable. They do not have an interest in either side, there are no jobs involved, no money. I will mention one:

In Nazareth, **Israel,** there is a volunteer program, geared at the coexistence of Palestinians and Israelis. Everybody donates one day a weak to work in the town to help it with its problems. This cooperation creates mutual respect and understanding. Examples where volunteers were involved in a reconciliation of a conflict can be found in many countries.

Volunteers Organised by Government

Voluntarism is in itself not oppositional, which is illustrated by the fact that sometimes volunteers are organised by government.

Japan knows the Minsei Inn : the local government asks mostly middle-aged volunteers to look after people on its behalf. The visit the homes, ask people to tell them what is going on and they try to mediate between the provisions that are available and the people who need them. It is a honorary job, they are not paid. If asked to join this volunteeer group, one cannot very well refuse. This is another illustration of Japanese society, which is based on consensus — not on polarity and conflict. In some western countries voluntary organisations would like to keep their independent position (but accepting subsidy) to be able to criticise government policy if necessary. This is true for instance in Germany. A peculiar fact here is that the Minsei Inn originated in Germany, in the 19th century, (as I learned from a German). The German term *ehrenamtlicher Mitarbeiter for* volunteer still points to the old situation : well-to-do people were asked to serve the community. Magistrates in England have the same position. The Netherlands have volunteers in child care who are appointed by the Ministry of Justice to act as patrons for children in trouble. Often these volunteers start their work blanco, not critically but by identifying with the people in trouble, and finding then that often government rules create or aggravate the problems, they become critical!

The fantastic story from the Philippines of NAMFREL (Never Ask Marcos for Free Elections) — a volunteer movement started by a business man Jake Marquis and joined by middle-aged women, motorcycling youngsters, retired teachers, etc., to guarantee honest elections in the Philippines —, shows that volunteers can be independent of the government — even when serving the government's elections. They, and only they, saw to it that Marcos could not twist the elections. And they could do so because they had international moral support.

The End of Ideology and a Modern Approach to Voluntarism

Thirty years ago, the American sociologist Daniel Bell published his book *"The End of Ideology".* Today it is only too clear that his observation is valid in some cultures. In the West, charitable, humane values have to some extent been replaced by "each one for himself". Survival of the fittest. The Declaration of Independence, with its *"right to the pursuit of happiness",* has no longer the effect of consideration for the happiness of the fellow-person but of taking what you want. Marxism has lost its credibility for many followers. We have "no nonsense", Thatcherism, Reaganomics. It is the fundamental belief of many of us that it is wrong when some prople do not have the first necessities for life while there are so many rich people around, that there is a right to a decent living for everyone; but the number of believers is declining. We see so many starving people on TV in our homes that we just "accept" the poor people living down the road. We have become callous out of sheer self-defence.

The increase of materialism is the complaint of many volunteer organisers. Some young people do not have the fundamental values, the mentality to be interested in doing volunteer work. They want material gain, "the fast buck". Their values are the riches they see on television : that is the heaven to strive for.

What can volunteerism do ? It is true that in some countries it is becoming increasingly difficult to recruit volunteers. On the other hand, basic social values are not dead, and the greatest merit of volunteerism is that it shows this. People want to care, even need to care about each other. Volunteer movements always educate values, some implicitly by the work they do, some explicitly. I mention one example: the young farmer movement in the USA. Their symbol is fourfold : head, hands, heart and health. Plenty to do, working from those concepts.

But not only the old-standing volunteer associations build up values which are declining elsewhere. Volunteerism has some surpisingly modern concepts, like "giving is alos gaining". Volunteer work is done for the other person, but it.is pleasure: you do it also for yourself, and this is nothing to be ashamed of, it is healthy. The volunteer who is not "sacrificing" but actually likes doing it has a better, a positive message: "I like it to be with you".

This modern approach keeps reality in volunteer projects. If you praise volunteers as sort of saints you cannot recruit any: that image is too unrealistic, nobody can meet its standard. Volunteers are no angels, they are no better than other people. The interesting thing about them is that they do a job which is rather unique : a service without the current countervalue of money being passed on to them. In this way they weaken the idea which is dominant in our society: "a good life is a life with goods".

Volunteerism weakens other standing ideas. I mention one: the power levels. You have influential and rich people, mostly men, and lower levels in society, mostly women. In volunteerism many women are active, and they show initiative and leadership. I am thinking here of the project "Education to Democracy" (Conciencia, in Colombia), which is led mostly by women and which teaches the mechanics of the democratic structure, to enable people to protect their interests. Because so many women are involved, the project is not taken seriously, — which is an asset: the people in power will experience its influence only when it is too late. The fact that women do have a great influence — not much noticed yet — was one of the main outcomes of the Washington conference.

But let us be clear about this : the basic values of voluntarism are vulnerable. They need support and nourishment: discussion, analysis and clarification.

Policy Recommendations

1. Government policy is usually aimed at the provision of facilities — in the diagrams at A. The B aspects, however, are just as important to be considered : the *values,* the motivation, the roots of volunteerims. It can already be important to refrain from quenching motivation by insensitive measures.

2. Most important is the *recognition* of the value of volunteers. When governments start to pay attention to this, it is mostly done by giving prizes and awards. There is nothing against awards, but if volunteers are not taken seriously in other ways, awards will not convince them. Recognition is shown by:
— involving also the volunteer organisations in policy-making concerning the fields they work in, not only the professional organisations;
— taking the signalling function of volunteers seriously. This means that their reports have to be collected and written up, and put on agendas;
— recognising the way the volunteer organisation operates and the mentality of the volunteer, and refraining from measures which would violate them;
— taking the contribution of volunteers seriously by valuating the work they do and the contribution they make to society, and not by valuing the wonderful people they are. Most volunteers find this rather condescending;
— enhance the status of voluntarism. The status of being a volunteer differs greatly in different cultures. In the U.S.A. it does have a high status to be a volunteer. In the Netherlands, being a volunteer as such does not have much status, — it is regarded as having a hobby. Governments do not have many instruments to change this, but ways can be explored. In all official policy documents concerning fields where volunteers are active they should be mentioned. Important policy recommendations should be made public at national meetings of volunteer organisations, so that they get press coverage, etc. Research about the facts can help : the number of volunteers, the countervalue in money for so many working hours, etc.
The International Volunteers Day, instituted by the United Nations, the 5th of December, is also an attempt to enhance the status of voluntarism.
However, this type of change will take a long time. It takes a positive intent and creativity to enhance the status of voluntarism.

3. The way *subsidies are channelled* should leave the autonomy and the identity of the volunteer organisation unimpaired. Governments have the tendency to channel funds for volunteers through the professional organisations, but this makes the volunteers totally dependent on those organisations, on their own priorities and ideologies. Money is more than just money: it is influence. Even when sound agreements are made with the professional organisation which acts on behalf of the volunteer field, sometimes the ideas, the ideology and the roots of volunteer work are not taken into consideration, can be neglected or just run over.

4. **The basic values of voluntarism should *not be abused,* for instance solidarity and care. *Solidarity* is one of the deepest roots of volunteer motivation, of both the traditional and the new movements. But when governments** use the word solidarity, it is often to explain why some people have to give up income or provisions. It seam: solidarity in reverse: when one group has more income from benefits than the other, the former should give up this extra income for solidarity reasons.
Not that the poorer group will get more ! It is solidarity in poverty, solidarity which does not help people but governments with their dificits.
A *"caring society"* is something many volunteers feel strongly about. It can lead to beautiful rhetorics, but can also mean that existing provisions are reduced and a stronger appeal has to be made on friends, family and volunteers. The past is romanticised and, displaying only the negative aspects of professionalism, given as an example to go back to. Result: the volunteers feel exploited, they object to being used in this way and do not feel happy and comfortable with their own ideals any longer.
The message to governments is: do not steal values from volunteers and do not abuse them for your own ends. What you lose is more than what you gain.

5. We have seen that the way in which services are organised has a strong influence on the values implied. Therefore the way volunteers want to work is more than an organisational matter. If they do not want to register "clients" by name, if they want to take time with people, if they want to give a service which — apart from "help" — is also friendship, to organise activities together and even actions — all those things about which professionals have other opinions for their own social work: be careful then that you do not turn volunteers into half-baked professionals by insisting on training and advice by professionals. Do not demand a bureaucracy which you want to oppose in other organisations. Governments have to change the rules to make them fit for volunteer work.
It can be done by giving subsidy without insisting that the volunteer association gets a professionalised setting. The Italians have a good model : the "convenzione". Money is given against the promise to provide a certain service. Demands are made only when these are in the public interest, like openness to people of an other religion or without a religion, no moralistic pressure, and a democratic structure. I must admit, for some people it is difficult to absorb this in their interpretation of the work they want to do, but mostly these conditions for obtaining public subsidy are considered fair. No other demands are made : not for training, not concerning the way the services are given. Volunteers have plenty of freedom to do it their way.

6. If voluntarism is going to be promoted, it is impossible to avoid any tension. There will be resistance from some professional organisations, who think they have to defend their territory. If one wants to have only docile, mum volunteers who promise never to offend any professional, then the number of volunteers who are prepared to work under such conditions will be minimal. Governments should not give in to this pressure but mke it clear that volunteers do have a right to be active. Moral support is necessary, because in negotiations with professionals the volunteers have the weaker position.
Needless to say that many professional institutes enjoy having volunteers.

Summary of the Basic Values of Voluntarism

1. Religious and humanitarian values are one of the main roots of voluntarism in all countries. Charity, tsedaka. To do something for someone else without expecting to be paid for it.
2. Liberation movements. Movements against a variety of oppressions have been a source of volunteer energy throughout the history of our count.
3. The traditional community sense, the "we" culture, the hospitality and family feeling invites a volunteer input also outside the family of the own group.
4. Solidarity movements have been many and of many kinds: solidarity with different categories in trouble, for interest groups, for people abroad. The feeling that this aid "has" to be given comes from the motivation of 1 but also from the ideals of the French revolution with its equality ideas, from the declaration of independence in America, from socialism.
5. From the Enlightment comes the importance of the individual, the "I" culture, the right to choose. Volunteers have this "do it yourself" attitude, and the wish to develop themselves to their best potential.
   In this philosophy fits the motivation of volunteers to do volunteerwork because they like it.

Personal Values

6. Activity and self-respect against apathy and discouragement.
7. Emancipation against oppressing ideologies.
8. Defence of nature and environment against exploitative technology.
9. Dignity of the receiver against (institutional and bureaucratic) paternalism.
10. Fun, do what you want to do against boredom.

Volonteurope is a European network, which has existed for ten years.

Its committee consists of 2 representatives per country, representing the social, the civil and the cultural field. Open membership. Activities: conferences, studies, exchange programmes, production of a journal.

New projects :

— A European Documentation Centre for Volunteer Work.
— Volonteurope-Youth : long term volunteer work abroad in East and West.
— A European Senior Volunteer Network. Also a network of National Resource Centres.

L'Institut international des sciences administratives et l'étude de l'administration comparée

par Carlos Almada *

Introduction

Incontestablement, l'internationalisation accrue, la globalisation sont, dans tous les domaines, des traits marquants du monde contemporain. Le vieux rêve autarcique est aujourd'hui plus impraticable que jamais.

Le changement, ou du moins l'effacement relatif des frontières traditionnelles entre les Etats, ainsi qu'entre les systèmes économiques nationaux, voire entre les cultures et les disciplines, est de plus en plus évident. Toutefois, en tant qu'individus, nous restons à l'intérieur des limites imposées par notre biographie, c'est-à-dire par un parcours vital qui a façonné notre manière de voir et de comprendre le monde.

Tout devient global et la technologie rend rapidement obsolètes les réglementations, ainsi que les vieilles convictions. Cela ne signifie pas pour autant qu'il y ait renoncement généralisé à l'identité, aux sources et au profil propre. Certaines sociétés témoignent, au contraire, d'un regain du fondamentalisme et du tribalisme, qui peut être compris — ce qui est regrettable et préoccupant — comme la contrepartie de la globalisation.

Mais l'internationalisation est partout présente, elle fait partie de la vie quotidienne des pays et des citoyens. Les sociétés qui la nient simplement, sans l'assumer pleinement avec les risques et les opportunités qu'elle comporte, sont inéluctablement orientées vers le déclin.

Je ne fais pas ici l'éloge d'une internationalisation forcenée. Au contraire, il s'agît d'un phénomène qui nous échappe, certes, mais qui doit être vu avec un esprit critique, seul moyen permettant de le conduire, au moins jusqu'à un certain degré, et de ne pas uniquement le subir.

En ce qui concerne les effets de l'internationalisation dans les administrations publiques, ils sont à la fois complexes et variés. On peut en mentionner certains :

— Apparition de bureaucraties internationales qui ont, dans certaines matières, prééminence sur les administrations nationales;

— Réduction du poids relatif des administrations nationales qui doivent de plus en plus s'orienter vers l'application de règles de droit supranational ou d'obligations dérivées des traités;

— Disparition du monopole des ministères des affaires extérieures quant à leurs contacts avec les autres nations. Dans la plupart des pays, tous les départements ministériels ont un service spécialisé chargé des contacts avec l'étranger. En effet, rares sont les politiques publiques qui n'ont pas un volet extra-national;

— Nécessité d'accroître les échanges — formels et informels — entre les administrations des différents pays pour faciliter leur coordination et corrélativement pour améliorer leurs conditions de négociation.

— Nécessité également de mieux connaître les expériences d'autres pays en matière administrative, surtout en ce qui concerne l'application de techniques ponctuelles plus facilement adaptables (informatisation, modernisation budgétaire, évaluation des politiques, management des ressources humaines, etc.).

Evidemment, il s'agit d'un continuum à l'extrême duquel apparaîtraient les pays avec un faible degré d'interpénétration économique, politique et culturelle. A l'autre extrême se situeraient ceux qui sont, au contraire, dans une phase avancée d'intégration. Tel serait le cas, notamment, des pays membres de la Communauté européenne.

Dans une première partie, je parlerai des échanges entre les administrations nationales, ce qui me permettra de présenter l'Institut international des sciences administratives, ainsi que d'autres organisations qui jouent un rôle semblable à l'échelle internationale ou régionale. Dans une deuxième partie, je me propose de présenter quelques commentaires au sujet de la place de l'administration comparée dans la formation et le perfectionnement des futurs administrateurs.

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L'Institut international des sciences administratives

Ses origines

L'IISA a été créé en 1930, il y a donc 60 ans, à Madrid. Toutefois, en 1910 et en 1923, deux congrès préparatoires s'étaient déjà tenus à Bruxelles, ainsi qu'à Paris en 1927. C'est ainsi que l'Institut se trouve parmi les organisations internationales les plus anciennes. Il est né comme produit direct de trois influences principales :

— D'abord l'apparition de nouvelles techniques de production et d'organisation dont la nécessité pour l'amélioration des services publics se faisait de plus en plus évidente;

— La prolifération d'organisations internationales scientifiques et philanthropiques dues à l'esprit internationaliste de plus en plus répandu au lendemain de la première guerre mondiale;

— Une certaine croyance dans les vertus intrinsèques de la science dérivée du courant positiviste. Dans cette optique, il y aurait une relation linéaire entre connaissance et action. On croirait facilement transposables les différentes expériences nationales, ainsi que la traduction pratique des formulations théoriques.

Si les expériences ultérieures ont conduit à tempérer l'optimisme des premiers jours, les objectifs essentiels restent les mêmes. Aujourd'hui plus que jamais, la coopération et les échanges en administration publique sont importants.

Ce besoin explique bien la naissance et la permanence de l'IISA car c'est la seule organisation à s'occuper à la fois de tous les niveaux administratifs (international, national, régional et local) et dans toutes les régions du monde. L'ambition comparative d'une telle démarche est évidente et constitue sa raison d'être.

Par ailleurs, le regain d'intérêt que l'on constate dans les différents pays pour les techniques de gestion publique pour l'amélioration des contacts avec les citoyens, contribue aussi à rendre plus attrayantes les activités de ce genre d'associations, aussi bien nationales qu'internationales.

Son statut juridique

Lors du congrès de Madrid, il a été décidé de constituer l'Institut aux termes de la Loi belge des associations internationales à but non lucratif du 25 octobre 1919 et de situer son siège à Bruxelles.

Cette ville a été retenue comme siège en raison de la neutralité du pays, de son cadre juridique relativement favorable, des facilités d'hébergement offertes par les autorités belges, de la localisation géographique, et du fait qu'un nombre considérable d'autres organisations internationales s'y installait déjà. Le temps écoulé n'a fait que démontrer la pertinence de cette décision.

Une organisation carrefour

Il faut tout d'abord remarquer que, si l'IISA est légalement une organisation non gouvernementale, elle a tout de même un caractère *Sui generis* car il regroupe des Etats, des sections nationales, des organisations internationales gouvernementales et des individus ressortissants des pays non membres.

Il s'agit, en effet, d'un réseau d'institutions assez vaste. L'IISA est très bien représenté en Europe, en Amérique du Nord, en Afrique du Nord et au Moyen Orient. Il l'est moins bien en Amérique latine, en Asie et Afrique subsaharienne. Tout de même, l'adhésion récente de la Chine populaire, de la Turquie, de la Bolivie, du Guatemala, de la Guinée, du Koweit, de la Banque mondiale, de l'Agence spatiale européenne et le retour de l'Australie et du Burundi sont autant de signes encourageants dans la marche vers l'universalisation. On remarque maintenant que plus de pays veulent devenir membres, tandis qu'en règle générale ceux qui le sont déjà deviennent plus actifs. La spécificité de l'Institut est d'être un point de confluence, de rencontre entre universitaires et praticiens, juges administratifs et experts en provinance de pays développés et de pays en développement, de toutes les régions du monde. Le dialogue n'est pas toujours facile, mais il est enrichissant pour tous.

Trois associations spécialisées qui sont nées en son sein partagent la personnalité morale de l´IISA. Elles sont l'Association internale des écoles et instituts d'administration, qui groupe 181 universités ou centres de formation dans tous les continents; le Groupe européen d'administration publique et l'Association internationale d'information et de documentation en administration publique.

Les manifestations majeures

L'IISA organise tous les trois ans le congrès international des sciences administratives. Le dernier s'est tenu à Marrakech *(Une administration plus proche des citoyens)* au mois de juillet 1989 et le prochain se tiendra à Vienne (thème principal: La protection de l'environnement: *Implications administratives et coopération internationale)* du 13 au 16 juillet 1992.

Dans le passé, l'Institut s'est réuni à Amman *(Développement économique et réforme administrative)* en 1986, à Berlin (Thèmes: *L'entreprise publique comme instrument des politiques de l'Etat; l'Administration des grandes agglomérations; Aspects de l'administration internationale)* en 1983 et à Madrid (Thèmes : *La signification du principe de légalité dans l'administration moderne; problèmes du contrôle politique sur les services administratifs et les organismes autonomes; le profil des fonctionnaires dans les administrations de demain; nouvelles techniques de planification) en* 1980.

Les congrès sont l'occasion de faire le point sur les tandances qui se dégagent dans notre discipline. Ils offrent une opportunité de contacts extrêmement variés. En effet, environ 700 spécialistes de 80 à 90 pays y participent.

L'année qui précède les congrès, l'Institut tient une table ronde qui réunit environ 300 personnes. La dernière s'est tenue à Budapest *(Une administration sans bureaucratie)* en 1988 et la prochaine se tiendra à Copenhague (Thème principal : *Le management des services sociaux)* du 2 au 5 juillet 1991.

Le Conseil d'administration a décidé d'organiser dans l'année qui restait libre une conférence internationale. La première aura lieu du 13 au 16 novembre prochain à Madrid. Le sujet étudié sera: tes *implications administratives de l'intégration économique régionale.* Le cas des Communautés économiques européennes: une approche comparative.

Grèce à l'invitation du gouvernement de l'Etat de Mexico au Mexique, la deuxième conférence internationale aura lieu en 1993 à Toluca, capitale de cet Etat fédéré.

Afin d'améliorer la qualité des manifestations majeures, il a été décidé de choisir les lieux des réunions et les thèmes, respectivement trois ans et deux ans à l'avance. De même, nous cherchons à ce qu'il y ait un lien plus solide entre ces réunions et les activités de recherche et, dans la mesure du possible, à diversifier les régions du monde où elles se tiennent.

La recherche

La recherche est un des axes principaux des activités de l´IISA. Elle peut être théorique et pratique et porte sur l'administration infranationale, nationale et internationale, avec toujours une approche comparative.

Elle est organisée en trois paliers. D'abord un Conseil scientifique est chargé d'organiser et de coordonner l'ensemble des activités de recherche de l'Institut et de ses associations spécialisées.

De même, sept comités à caractère permanent ont été constitués :

— Droit et science de l'administration;
— Structures administratives et management;
— Administration du personnel;
— Planification et prospective;
— Entreprises publiques;
— Finances publiques — Administration financière;
— Changements économiques et innovation administrative.

Ces comités jouent un rôle d'orientation et d'animation. La recherche elle-même est en réalité faite par les groupes de travail dont 13 sont actifs à l'heure actuelle.

Les travaux des groupes de travail se déroulent sur une période de trois ans. Ils sont composés de 10 à 15 spécialistes, praticiens et universitaires, et ont pour objectif de faire le point d'une manière comparative de la question étudiée. La participation se fait à titre personnel et bénévole. Les institutions ne sont donc pas représentées en tant que telles.

Les groupes de travail doivent produire un livre ou bien une autre publication à la fin de leurs travaux. Ils participent aussi à l'organisation des réunions de discussion durant les manifestations majeures. Il ne s'agit pas de faire de la recherche pour elle-même. La dissémination des résultats reste, en effet, l'objectif essentiel.

Les groupes de travail suivants sont actuellement en opération :

• La responsabilité des fonctionnaires chargés de la gestion des deniers publics, Onorato Sepe (Italie)
• Nouvelles tendances dans l'administration locale et régionale en Europe, Gérard Marcou (France) et Imre Verebelyi (Hongrie)
• Rôle des banques de données juridiques comme instrument d'aide à la décision administrative, Herbert Maisl (France)
• Les aspects administratifs de la protection de l'environnement, Morgan Kinghorn (USA) et Philipp Cooper (USA)
• La gestion des travaux publics, René Morency (Canada) et Barrie Houlihan (Royaume-Uni)
• Evaluation des politiques, Ray C. Rist (USA)
• Privatisations, Hendrick J. de Ru (Pays-Bas), Roger Wettenhall (Australie) et Colm O Nuallaïn (Irlande)
• Le contrôle externe des finances publiques, Daniel Strasser (France)
• Le rôle des organisations non gouvernementales dans le développement local, Charles Bonser (USA)
• La capacité institutionnelle des pays en développement en matière de politiques publiques: Leçons des expériences africaines, Heinrich Siedentopf (RFA)
• L'administration et la fonction publique internationales, A. Plantey (France)
• Les relations entre les fonctionnaires internationaux et les gouvernements dont ils sont ressortissants, Jeanne Penaud (France).

A titre d'exemple, on peut signaler les activités réalisées par le groupe qui étude l'évaluation des politiques publiques. Créé en 1986, il est animé par M. Ray Rist, directeur à la General Accounting Office a Washington. Font partie du groupe 15 spécialistes d'une dizaine de pays européens et d'Amérique du Nord dont M. Robert B. Segsworth, de la Laurentian University, et M. John Mayne, directeur au Bureau du Comptrolleur général, tous les deux de nationalité canadienne.

Après cinq réunions, ce groupe de travail a déjà produit trois publications. Un livre, *Program Evaluation and the Management of Government,* publié par Transactions au Canada (New Brunswick); un autre livre, *Policy and Program Evaluation: Perspectives on Design and Utilization,* publié par l´IISA à Bruxelles et un numéro spécial de la revue *Knowledge and Society:* «Cross National Perspectives on Policy Uses (and abuses) of Evaluation » aux Etats-Unis.

Les travaux de ce groupe sont à la frontière de la connaissance dans cette spécialité. Leurs réunions périodiques ont facilité les échanges entre les responsables des services nationaux de vérification et d'évaluation d'une dizaine de pays, ainsi qu'un contact réfléchi entre les chercheurs et les professeurs qui s'en occupent.

Lors de la table ronde de Copenhague (juillet 1991), des réunions de travail ouvertes à tous les participants auront pour objet de discuter les résultats de leurs travaux.

Consultation et coopération internationales

L'IISA fait de la consultation pour les OIG et les administrations nationales avec un triple objectif: premièrement, servir ses membres ou bien nouer des relations pour recruter ceux qui ne le sont pas; deuxièmement, faire de la recherche appliquée; troisièmement, renforcer les finances de l'Institut.

A titre d'exemple, on peut souligner que ces dernières années des études ont été réalisées pour le Centre européen de recherche nucléaire, le Conseil de l'Europe, la Commission des Communautés européennes, la Division de l'administration du développement des Nations Unies, le ministère de l'Intérieur et de la fonction publique de Belgique, l'Institut d'administration publique de Riyadh et le ministère de la fonction publique et de la formation professionnelle du Rwanda.

De même, l'IISA organise des séminaires ou des stages adaptés aux besoins des institutions qui en font la demande. C'est ainsi qu'en avril dernier, par exemple, s'est tenu à Budapest une rencontre à laquelle ont participé, d'une part, de hauts responsables administratifs et politiques de Hongrie et, d'autre part, des fonctionnaires de 8 pays de l'Ouest, pour un échange de vues sur les implications administratives de la transition. Au printemps prochain se tiendra à Prague un séminaire pour des jeunes chercheurs des. pays de l'Europe centrale et de l'Est avec t'aide financière de l'Institut japonais de gestion.

Publications

Chaque année l'IISA publie les travaux de ses groupes de travail, les actes des manifestations majeures qu'il organise ainsi que les actes de l'Association internationale de la fonction publique et les textes fondamentaux de l'Association des hautes juridictions administratives.

Parmi les publications les plus récentes, on peut signaler:

— VICHIT-VADAKAN Jurée et POUL1N François, *Rationality. Efficiency and Productivity; concepts and applicability in Public Administration of Developing Countries,* Brussel, Paris, Bangkok, IISA/UNESCO/NIDA 1990, 195 p., 700 FB.
— MODEEN Tore et ROSAS Allan, *L'administration publique indirecte. Les domaines de l'éducation et des pension,* ABO, Abo Academy Press, 279 p., 1000 F.B.
— Association internationale de la Fonction publique, *Le Fonctionnaire et la politique,* (1 ème colloque d'Avignon, Juillet 1988), Bruxelles, IISA, 1989, 556 pp., 1.100 F.B.
— IISA, *Administration without Bureaucratization,* Budepast Round Table: Proceedings, Bruxelles, IISA, 1989, 240 pp., 600 F.B.
— Huynh Cao Tri (Ed.), *Participative Administration and Endogenous Development,* Bruxelles-Paris: IIAS/Unesco, 1988, 253 pp., 1.100 F.B.

La *Revue internationale des sciences administratives* est la plus ancienne publication périodique en matière d'administration comparée car elle a été fondée en 1928, avant même la fondation de l'Institut en tant que tel.

Elle est publiée en trois langues, anglais, français et espagnol. Suite à la proposition de l'IAPC, depuis le congrès de Marrakech son nouveau directeur est le professeur canadien Kenneth Kernaghan dont la nomination a été approuvée à l'unanimité par les organes de direction de l'IISA en 1989.

Tous les trois mois, une *Lettre d'information* est publiée et une circulaire est envoyée aux membres pour les tenir informés des activités de l'Institut.

Fonction d'échanges et d'information

Réunir et diffuser systématiquement des informations pertinentes en administration publique est de plus en plus la fonction essentielle de l'Institut.

En réalité, le programme triennal donne la priorité à ce genre d'activités. C'est ainsi que, tous les trois mois, les publications suivantes sont envoyées à nos membres:

— Sélection bibliographique en sciences administratives, SBISA;
— Agenda international des colloques, conférences et congrès en administration publique;
— Bulletin de recherches bibliographiques;
— Bulletin d'acquisitions.

Ce dernier se réalise sur des sujets précis tous les 3 mois. Néanmoins, nos membres peuvent demander la préparation de recherches bibliographiques commentées sur les thèmes qui les intéressent.

D'autre part, l'IISA est en train de créer un fichier international de spécialistes en sciences administratives conçu comme un instrument permettant de:

— réaliser nos programmes de recherche, publications et manifestations majeures par une meilleure sélection de:
  • rapporteur
  • consultants
  • membres des groupes de travail
  • auteurs d'articles
  • auteurs de communications
— accomplir une fonction de clearing-house vis-à-vis de nos membres
— éditer, à terme, un répertoire international.

Etant donné la complexité de cette tâche, une approche graduelle a été retenue. En coordination avec le GEAP, nous avons pu obtenir une réponse à presque 400 questionnaires. Le système informatique est en train d'être perfectionné et nous vérifions avec les experts eux-mêmes les informations recueillies.

Même à ce stade embryonnaire, le fichier est déjà très utile, notamment pour la sélection mieux ciblée de participants dans les groupes de travail. Cet automne, nous voudrions sortir d'Europe et envoyer les questionnaires au moins dans une autre région. Nous discutons avec l'IAPC sur la possibilité de commencer par le Canada.

Le réseau d'organisations internationales en administration publique

Le nombre d'organisations qui s'intéressent à l'Administration publique sur la scène internationale est assez vaste. Etant donné qu'il est difficile d'épuiser le sujet dans les limites de ce travail, il faudra les parcourir assez rapidement.

La Division pour l'administration du développement

Ce service dépend du Département pour la coopération technique au développement des Nations Unies, mieux connu sous le sigle en anglais DTCD (Department of Technical Cooperation for Development).

La DAD organise en principe tous les deux ans une importante réunion d'experts (la neuvième s'est tenue à New-York du 14 au 23 mars 1989) à laquelle participent, à titre individuel, une vingtaine de personnalités de toutes les régions du monde, ainsi qu'un certain nombre d'organisations spécialisées. Les objectifs de ces manifestations sont les suivants :

— identifier les nouvelles tendances en administration et finances publiques dans le monde et examiner de leurs impacts dans l'administration du développement;
— réviser le programme des Nations Unies en administration publique et faire des recommandations sur les actions à entreprendre à l'échelle internationale, régionale et nationale (1);

De même, la DAD réalise directement, avec surtout le soutien financier du PNUD (Programme des Nations Unies pour le développement) des projets de coopération technique dans les pays moins avancés, surtout en Afrique subsaharienne. Chaque année se tiennent aussi des réunions d'experts plus restreintes qui traitent des thèmes spécifiques dans le domaine administratif. Leurs conclusions sont ensuite envoyées aux responsables de modernisation administrative, fonction publique ou équivalents dans les pays en développement.

L'Unesco

En réalité l'UNESCO ne fait pas directement de la recherche en administration publique ni *a fortiori* de la coopération. Toutefois, par le biais du Conseil international des sciences sociales dont fait partie l'IISA, elle les encourage.

L'Administration publique adopte de plus en plus une approche inter-disciplinaire ou tout au moins pluridisciplinaire. Elle trouve aussi, par voie de conséquence, davantage sa place au sein des sciences sociales. Le CISS réalise maintenant un vaste projet de recherche sur les dimensions humaines du changement global. Il est admis que les implications institutionnelles y jouent un rôle irremplaçable.

Le Bureau international du travail

Le BIT, avec le concours financier du PNUD, a créé en 1985 le Réseau international pour la formation au management (INTERMAN). Il s'agit d'une association de centres de formation en gestion au sens large, c'est-à-dire privée et publique.

INTERMAN intervient principalement dans quatre domaines :
— l'élaboration de matériels et de méthodes pédagogiques appropriées;
— la formation des formateurs et du personnel enseignant;
— l'amélioration des programmes et l'internationalisation des curriculums et des institutions;
— la gestion des institutions de formation à la gestion (2).

La Banque mondiale

La Banque mondiale, par le biais de la Division de la gestion du secteur public et du développement du secteur privé, est active dans le domaine des réformes institutionnelles. Il s'agit essentiellement des mesures d'accompagnement dans les pays bénéficiaires de prêts de la Banque mondiale.

Cette division a donné la priorité, pendant la période 1984-1986 aux activités suivantes:
— Gestion publique (Public sector management) qui couvre *grosso modo* les réformes institutionneles;
— Macro-gestion (Macro-management), qui recouvre les institutions centralisées horizontales responsables de la définition, et mise en oeuvre des politiques macro-économiques (finances, banques centrales);
— Réforme des entreprises publiques. Ceci comprend te cadre le plus vaste des changements de politique en ce qui concerne le rôle et la dimension de l'Etat (privatisation), ainsi que l'amélioration des relations entre les entreprises publiques et l'Administration centrale, y compris les ministères sectoriels (3).

Le programme d'activités de cette Division pour 1989 est susceptible de donner une idée assez claire de son champ d'activités.
— Entreprises publiques (études de cas de réforme d'entreprises publiques; étude de cas de privatisation; contrats de performance dans les entreprises publiques);
— Aspects institutionnels des réformes économiques (réforme budgétaire, guide pour la réforme de la fonction publique, renforcement des politiques économiques);
— Gestion des programmes pour la lutte contre la pauvreté (qualité des services sociaux, évaluation de l'action des ONG dans les activités de la Banque mondiale);
— Développement du secteur privé (participation du secteur privé dans les services publics, évaluation du secteur informel dans le développement du secteur privé) (4).

L'OCDE

Le PUMA (Public Management Service) de l'OCDE qui a pris le relais du TECO (Technical Cooperation Office) poursuit les objectifs suivants:
— Donner aux hauts responsables l'information analytique, nécessaire à la prise de décisions, en provenance aussi bien du secrétariat que des études comparatives des expériences des pays membres;
— Distinguer et signaler les nouvelles tendances en sciences administratives;
— Informer sur les développements et les tendances dans la pratique administrative.

Le Comité de management public de l'OCDE a défini comme secteurs prioritaires d'intervention:
— Gestion coordonnée des politiques publiques;
— Prestation des services publics en fonction de la demande des usagers;
— Modernisation budgétaire;
— Modernisations de la fonction publique.

L'OCDE privilégie les échanges entre ses membres, plutôt que les études abstraites en administration publique. Ses comités sont donc essentiellement un lieu de rencontres où les responsables des différents pays se réunissent pour discuter de leurs projets respectifs. Son rapport annuel, d'une grande qualité, est un outil indispensable pour quiconque s'intéressent à l'administration comparée (5).

Les organisations régionales de sciences administratives

Dans toutes les régions du monde, il existe des organisations de sciences administratives. Elles groupent le plus souvent des Etats et des universitaires et réalisent des réunions périodiques, recherches, publications et, dans certains cas une coopération technique. Elles ont le mérite d'être adaptées aux besoins concrets des régions concernées. La participation dans leurs rencontres périodiques est plus facile que dans un cadre international en raison de la proximité géographique. De même les problèmes linguistiques, voire épistémologiques, se trouvent atténués.

Organisation régionale de l'Orient pour l'administration publique (Eastern Regional Organisation for Public Administration, EROPA

EROPA a été créée en 1958, son siège est à Manille. Treize pays de la région font partie de cette organisation: Australie, Chine (République Populaire de), Inde, Indonésie, Iran, Japon, Corée, Malaisie, Népal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thaïlande et Viet Nam.

Les objectifs d'EROPA sont les suivants:
— promouvoir l'adoption de techniques administratives plus efficaces, susceptibles de contribuer au développement économique et social de la région;

- faire avancer dans la région l'art et la science de l'administration gouvernementale;
- stimuler la professionalisation dans l'administration et le talent gestionnaire, en particulier dans les échelons intermédiaires.

Organisation arabe pour l'administration du développement (Arab Administration Development Organisation, ARADO)

ARADO a pris la succession de l'OASA qui avait été fondée en 1961. Son siège se trouve à Amman. Font partie de cette organisation: Algérie, Arabie Saoudite, Bahrein, Emirats arabes unis, Irak, Jordanie, Koweït, Liban, Libye, Maroc, Mauritanie, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Syrie, Somalie, Soudan, Tunisie, Yemen et l'Organisation pour la libération de la Palestine.

Les objectifs d'ARADO sont les suivants:
— promouvoir le développement et l'harmonisation des administrations des pays arabes afin d'en faire des instruments effectifs de développement;
— avancer vers l'unification de la terminologie et des systèmes administratifs;
— coordonner la recherche en administration dans les pays arabes et encourager les échanges entre les centres de formation et de recherche.

Centre Africain de formation et de recherce administratives pour le développement (CAFRAD)

Le CAFRAD a été créé en 1964 par un accord entre le gouvernement marocain et l'UNESCO : Son siège se trouve à Tanger. Font partie de cette organisation des écoles d'administration, instituts d'administrations et Ministères de 30 pays, à savoir: Algérie, Burkina Fasso, Burundi, République centrafricaine, Côte d'Ivoire, Egypte, Gabon, Gambie, Ghana, Guinée-Bissao, Kenya, Lesotho, Libéria, Soudan, Swaziland, Tanzanie, Togo, Ouganda, Zaïre et Zambie.

Les objectifs du CAFRAD sont :
— promouvoir et coordonner des études comparatives en administration pour le développement dans les pays de la région;
— organiser des cours et séminaires de formation pour de hauts fonctionnaires africains;
— compiler, analyser et distribuer des informations concernant les administrations des pays africains.

Association africaine pour l'administration et la gestion publiques (African Association for Public Administration and Management, AAPAM)

L'AAPAM a été créée en 1971 en son siège se trouve à Addis Abeba. Elle n'a pas d'Etats membres, mais en font partie des fonctionnaires ou universitaires à titre personnel (environ 500), ainsi que des écoles ou instituts d'administration publique, en tant que membres collectifs (50 environ). L'AAPAM compte toutefois des sections nationales dans 23 pays: Botswana, Cameroun, Egypte, Gambie, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Libéria, Malawi, Ile Maurice, Maroc, Nigeria, Sénégal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalie, Soudan, Zwaziland, Tanzanie, Ouganda, Zambie et Zimbabwe.

Les objectifs de l'AAPAM sont:
- promouvoir les échanges d'idées et d'expériences entre les hauts fonctionnaires africains en matière d'administration publique;
— stimuler la professionalisation de l'administration publique en Afrique;
— encourager la réalisation de recherches comparatives sur l'administration africaine.

D'une manière générale, on peut dire que le CAFRAD est plus récent en Afrique francophone, tandis que l'AAPAM l'est en Afrique anglophone.

Centre latino-américain d'administration pour le développement, CLAD

Le CLAD a été créé en 1972. Son siège se trouve à Caracas. Font partie de cette organisation 19 pays de la région: Argentine, Barbades, Bolivie, Chili, Colombie, Costa Rica, République dominicaine, Equateur, Grenade, Guatemala, Guyane, Honduras, Jamaïque, Nicaragua, Panama, Pérou, Uruguay et Venezuela. En raison de liens historiques et culturels, l'Espagne a été aussi acceptée comme membre du CLAD.

Parmi les objectifs du CLAD, on peut mentionner les suivants :
— intégrer les efforts des pays membres pour actualiser et développer les systèmes administratifs et en faire de véritables instruments pour le développement;
— être un forum pour l'échange d'expériences et d'idées en matière administrative;
— organiser des cours de formation et promouvoir la recherche comparée;
— concentrer et disséminer d'une manière systématique des informations pertinentes.

Institut européen d'administration publique (European Institute of Public Administration (EIPA)

L'EIPA a été créé en 1981. Son siège se trouve à Maastricht (Pays-Bas). Ses membres sont les 12 Etats membres de la Communauté européenne: Allemagne, Belgique, Danemark, Espagne, France, Grèce, Irlande, Italie, Luxembourg, Pays-Bas, Portugal et Royaume-Uni.

L'EIPA est essentiellement un centre de formation destiné à préparer les hauts fonctionnaires aux implications administratives de l'intégration économique. Il réalise aussi des recherches, dans ce domaine principalement (6).

L'Etude de l'administration publique comparée

Une première constatation s'impose: l'Administration publique comparée fait face à de multiples obstacles pour son développement. Personne ne nie son importance, aussi bien sur le plan de sa contribution à l'élargissement des perspectives et des connaissances susceptibles d'atténuer les conceptions trop fermées, trop nationales, que sur le plan pratique en raison de sa contribution aux négociations internationales et à la coordination entre les administrations des différents pays. De même, l'administration publique comparée est de plus en plus appréciée comme une source d'informations utiles pour les réformes administratives et les transferts de techniques et méthodes de gestion publique.

Il y a ainsi une sorte de fossé entre la perception des besoins et la réalité, aussi bien au sein des administrations que des universités. D'une part, le rôle et la pertinence de l'administration publique comparée sont de plus en plus reconnus, mais d'autre part, une insuffisance à trois niveaux la caractérise: lacunes dans l'enseignement, faiblesse dans la recherche et insuffisance dans les publications.

L'enseignement

En Europe, l'administration publique comparée n'apparaît que rarement dans les programmes d'études des universités et centres de formation en administration publique,

Il est *assez* révélateur que les études qui font une comparaison des différents systèmes de formation en Europe et du poids relatif dans l'enseignement du droit, des sciences politiques, de l'économie et de la gestion ne fassent aucune référence à l'administration comparée.

En effet, les cours d'administration publique sont dans la plupart des cas facultatifs et sont suivis par un nombre restreint d'élèves. Généralement, les références aux systèmes administratifs étrangers se font dans le cadre de l'étude des sciences administratives, du droit administratif ou des régimes politiques comparés, pour ce qui toche à leurs implications administratives (7).

Ces références aux exemples étrangers sont, par conséquent, plutôt épisodiques et n'ont qu'une place marginale dans les systèmes de formation. Elles contribuent à éclairer tel ou tel point, par exemple le régime de la fonction publique ou la régionalisation, mais ne sauraient pas remplacer une étude systématique des systèmes administratifs.

Plusieurs raisons pourraient expliquer cette déficience. La plus importante sans doute est la perception de l'administration publique comme ayant un caractère essentiellement national. Cette remarque semble valable pour l'administration considérée du point de vue organique, mais aussi comme discipline.

Les concours d'entrée à la fonction publique en Europe occidentale ne comprennent pas de vérification des connaissances et administration comparée. Il va de soi que cette absence n'encourage pas les étudiants à suivre ces cours.

Ce tableau assez pessimiste a besoin néanmoins d'être nuancé, car une nouvelle tendance se dessine avec l'essor de l'étude du droit communautaire et des institutions européennes. Pratiquement toutes les universités offrent maintenant des cours dans ces matières. De même, plusieurs universités ou centres de formation ont créé des chaires d'administration comparée (Leyden aux Pays-Bas, Speyer en Allemagne, Formez en Italie, ...).

Le projet ERASMUS (Communautés européennes), qui encourage les échanges entre les universités européennes, et la dynamique même du processus intégrateur font qu'il y a un fléchissement de tendance. Même si l'accent est davantage mis sur les aspects supranationaux de la construction européenne, il est certain, d'une part, que les implications pour les administrations nationales sont considérables et que, d'autre part, les rapprochements avec les administrations des autres pays deviennent incontournables. Dans ce sens, l'administration publique comparée proprement dite ne peut qu'être renforcée.

Par ailleurs, les pressions sur les budgets publics, ainsi que la recherche d'une plus grande productivité dans les administrations, ont contribué à accroître l'intérêt pour les techniques de gestion publique et pour l'approche des politiques publiques plus communes et Amérique du Nord.

La recherche

Si, lorsqu'on parle d'Administration comparée, on fait référence uniquement aux études horizontales qu'étudié un même sujet dans un ensemble de pays, alors la recherche en administration comparée est plutôt limitée en Europe et ailleurs. Si, par contre, on prend une définition moins restrictive et que l'on inclut dans le concept, l'étude d'un sujet donné dans, par exemple, deux pays, alors la situation est tout autre.

En effet, les études horizontales sont relativement rares. Elles sont difficiles à réaliser parce qu'elles demandent l'organisation d'équipes internationales et nécessitent une conception d'ensemble et un tangage commun, pour ne pas parler des problèmes linguistiques proprement dits.

Or, les différences entre les cadres constitutionnels et juridiques, les systèmes politiques, les niveaux de développement et les cultures administratives rendent difficile un véritable dialogue multinational. Aboutir ainsi à des études de synthèse pour un ensemble de pays, même limité, devient une tâche dont il ne faut pas ignorer la complexité, si l'on veut éviter la simple juxtaposition de monographies nationales. Le problème de la comparabilité se pose ici avec acuité.

Les études comparatives faites par des étrangers demandent une longue période de formation éducative. On peut facilement croire que l'on comprend l'autre système quand en réalité on ne fait que transposer les critères d'analyse qui nous sont propres dans une réalité qui reste lointaine (8). Les études resteraient dans ces conditions à un stade plutôt ethnocentriste. Pour passer par exemple de l'analyse des pays de *common law aux* pays de droit administratif, un grand effort est nécessaire pour saisir non pas uniquement les traits formels des systèmes étudiés, mais aussi leur logique interne.

En même temps, il ne faut pas ignorer l'importance des études restreintes, moins ambitieuses, mais qui ont souvent une grande valeur pratique et qui sont aussi une source d'information précieuse pour les chercheurs.

Il y a en Europe une grande diversité de centres de recherche qui se penchent sur ces sujets. Ils existent au niveau national, mais aussi régional, voire international. On peut signaler l'Institut Max Planck en République fédérale d'Allemagne, l'Institut international d'administration publique à Paris, l'Institut des sciences sociales à La Haye, l'Institut national d'administration publique de Madrid, entre autres.

De plus, un nombre considérable d'universités européennes ont créé des centres de recherche sur l'Europe, ayant un caractère multidisciplinaire qui inclut au moins partiellement l'administration comparée. Un inventaire certainement incomplet fait par l'IISA répertorie 45 institutions de ce genre.

Le Groupe européen d'administration publique de l'IISA fait aussi de la recherche. Ses groupes d'études sont les suivants :

— Les femmes dans la fonction publique;
— Administration et politique publiques en agriculture;
— L'informatisation dans l'administration publique;
— Politiques du personnel;
— Qualité et productivité dans le secteur public;
— Santé publique;
— Budget et comptabilité publics.

Les publications

La remarque faite au sujet de la relative insuffisance des recherches en administration comparée est naturellement valable pour les publications.

Il y a en effet une grande abondance d'études monographiques sur un pays donné ou bien portant sur une comparaison entre deux ou trois pays. Le fruit des rencontres, intenses et fréquentes, bilatérales et multilatérales, entré experts de différents pays se reflète dans une bibliographie riche et croissante.

Toutefois, les études vraiment internationales faisant une comparaison systématique d'un sujet dans un certain nombre de pays sont moins nombreuses que ce que l'on pourrait croire de prime abord.

On peut citer les travaux de F.W. Riggs et de F. Heady aux Etas-Unis, de H. Puget et de G. Braibant en France et de D. Rowat au Canada.

En ce qui concerne les périodiques, en plus de la *Revue internationale des sciences administratives,* on trouve aussi :

International Journal of Public Administration
Marcel Dekker, Inc.
270 Madison avenue
New York, NY 10016
(212)969-9000

Governance. An International Journal of Policy and Administration
Basil Blackwell Ltd
108 Cowley Road
Oxford OX4 IJF, UK or
3 Cambridge Center, Cambridge, MA **02141, USA**

***Journal** of International Development*
Christine Singleton — Publications Officer
Institute for Development Policy and Management.
University of Manchester
Precinct Centre: Oxford Road: Manchester M13 9QS: UK

Integration
Revue du centre maghrébin d'études et de recherches ***administratives***
C.M.E.R.A.
B.P. 46
Birmandreiss (Alger)
Téléphone: 60.27.38

Public Administration and Development
RIPA International Services
Regent's College
Inner Circle
Regent's Park
London
NW1 4NS

Cahiers africains d'administration publique
African Administrative Studies
CAFRAS
Direction Documentation & Publications
B.P. 310
Tanger
Maroc

Arab Journal of Administration
Arab Organization of Administrative Sciences
Amman
Jordan

A titre de conclusions, on peut faire les remarques suivantes :

1. L'internationalisation croissante rend de plus en plus nécessaires les échanges entre les administrations et la connaissance mutuelle;
2. Malgré cela, l'étude de l'administration comparée continue à être insuffisante dans les programmes de formation en administration publique. Cette discipline et son exercice professionnel sont toujours perçus comme ayant un caractère essentiellement sinon exclusivement national;
3. La recherche « horizontale » en administration comparée fait figure d'exception. La plupart des études sont monographiques ou «verticales». C'est la conséquence d'obstacles à la fois épistémologiques et pratiques;
4. Les organisations internationales ou régionales en sciences administratives jouent un rôle irremplaçable dans les échanges entre fonctionnaires et universitaires;
5. Des efforts restent à faire pour que l'administration publique comparée devienne une branche reconnue de l'administration publique. Il faut dépasser les descriptions purement formelles pour pénétrer la logique interne des systèmes étudiés. Bref, il s'agit de vaincre un double cloisonnement, celui des pays et celui des disciplines.

NOTES

(1) Division pour l'administration du développement. *Aide mémoire pour les participants à la IXème réunion d'experts.* New York, 12 décembre 1988.
(2) Réseau international pour la formation au management (INTERMAN). Note d'information. Genève, 9 octobre 1987.
(3) World Bank, *Public Sector Management and Private Sector Development Division,* Draft, June 1988.
(4) Public Sector Management and Private Sector Development Division, *Work Program FY 1989-1990.* Washington.
(5) Public Management Office. *Note interne,* Paris 1989.
(6) Les informations sur les organisations régionales en sciences administratives ont été puisées dans *Yearbook of International Organizations* 1989/1990, Brussels, Union of International Associations. Vol. 1.
(7) GAZIER Anne, Enquête sur les recherches françaises en administration comparée, *in: La recherche française en administration comparée, enquête et témoignages,* Institut international d'administration publique, Paris, février 1989, p. 32.
(8) CASSESE Sabino. L'étude comparée du droit administratif en Italie, *in; Revue internationale de droit comparé,* Paris, N°4, octobre-décembre 1989.

Grassroots Perspectives on Global Policies for Development

By Chadwick F. Alger *

Global policy for development emerges out of a process that reaches from the grassroots to global organizations. From a Third World perspective, several typologies of local, national and international development organizations are presented, along with case studies examining problems encountered in their relationships, From a First World perspective, local development education and advocacy organizations are examined, along with links between these organizations and national organizations, international organizations, and grassroots organizations in the Third World. Given the strong participatory assertions from the grassroots, is it possible that development (i.e. full development of human potential) can only be achieved by a highly decentralized global policy process ? What kinds of state and global institutions, if any, would this imply ?

Introduction

There is a tendency to view global policy as a product of a process that takes place in international conferences and organizations « beyond the states ». This paper argues that research on the global policy process requires a perspective which extends from the grassroots to global organizations. Both practical and normative reasons for this approach are presented. Development policy is selected as an arena for explicating the significance of grassroots organizations and policies. Examples are drawn from a number of studies in both Third World and European countries to illustrate a diversity of kinds of grassroots development activity, and a variety of perspectives on linkages between an array of development organizations: grassroots non-governmental organizations (NGOs), local governments, national NGOs, states, international non-governmental organizations (INGOs), international governmental organizations (IGOs). The paper concludes with perspectives on desirable linkage between local and global organizations.

The Need for a Broader Global Policy Paradigm

The purpose of this paper, although recognizing the importance of the *«beyond the state»* policy arenas (Soroos, 1986), is to significantly broaden the global policy paradigm, arguing that it must extend from small communities affected by global policies, sometimes referred to as the grassroots, to global institutions. There are both practical and normative reasons why it is necessary to conceptualize the global policy process this broadly.

From a practical perspective, the implementation of most global policies will require acceptance of these policies by most of the people of the world. This acceptance will necessarily be based on some minimal knowledge about the institution responsible for the policy and about the reasons for the policy. In the end, problems such as human environment, population, employment, desertification, and water are global problems because they affect thousands of local communities in all continents. To be effective, most global policies will require some degree of compliance in a multitude of communities spread across several continents. This will be impossible if global policies do not have some degree of legitimacy based on local knowledge about, and acceptance of, global policies. In addition, the design of effective global policy will require that policy-makers acquire considerable knowledge about conditions and problems in a diversity of local places. How can this be acquired except through drawing on the knowledge gained by local people through their everyday experience with ecology, food, employment, water and other problems?

From a normative perspective, the «beyond the state»

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approach is inadequate because it does not raise questions about the involvement of the people of the world in the formulation of global policy, despite the fact that these policies significantly affect their daily lives. This is because IGOs are essentially the progeny of the foreign policy-making apparatus of states; even in states with strong democratic traditions, foreign-policy is only marginally subjected to democratic control. Thus, IGO policy-making arenas are extensions of elitist state policy-making institutions which are even more distant from most of the people of the world than the state institutions which created them (Kaiser, 1971, p. 706). Dahl and Tufte recognize the challenge to democracy which comes from efforts to cope with problems that transcend the territorial boundaries of states, noting that *« transnational units will also increase the inef-fecwality and powerlessness of the individual citizen».* (Dahl and Tufte, 1973, p. 140). In response they ask for a theory of *«complex politiy»,* which conceives democracy as *«spreading through a set of interrelated political systems... none of which is sovereign »* (Dahl andTufte, 1973, p. 135).

Although the arguments of Kaiser and Dahl/Tufte are based on the values of Western democracies, it would be mistaken to assume that the normative importance of widespread participation in global policy-making is supported by Western values alone. One of the most significant global activities in the past 'forty years has been an ongoing debate about which values should form the basis for human relations on the planet, and also about who should define these values. The results appear in a remarkable array of treaties and declarations drafted by representatives of the states of the world (Alger, 1987 (2)). These documents include standards for civil/political rights, economic/social/cultural rights, economic rights and duties of states, rights of women and children, and many others. Exceedingly significant has been growth in the number of voices that have participated in this debate. The breakup of the European colonial empires importantly added to the array of perspectives involved, as new states in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean joined the state system. This produced extensive clarification of the meaning of values such as peace, self-determination, international economic equity and international communications equity. At the same time, individual states, and the state system, have been challenged by grassroots movements in all parts of the world who have increasingly made their voices heard in this global dialogue. Much of this debate on the definition of key global values has been focused on the meaning of two words; peace and development. With respect to peace, now it is widely accepted that peacelessness, not war alone, is the opposite of peace, and that the forms and causes of peacelessness experienced by individuals vary — responsive to their geographic location and their position in social structure. Very significantly, there are those who now discern that widespread participation in citizens' movements supportive of peace is an indispensable attribute of the achievement of peace (Alger, 1987 (1)). At the same time, both as a result of trial and error experiences with development programs and dialogue about the meaning of development, more and more people have come to define development as intrinsically the creation of conditions for the full flowering of individual human potential. This too must include strong grassroots movements in which individual human beings develop self-reliance skills through which they can participate in shaping a world in which these capacities can flourish. Based on this recognition of two dimensions of the emerging significance of grassroots participation as a global value, we believe it is essential that any scholarly effort to understand present global policy-making, and to illuminate potential for the future, must bring into view both present activity and future potential at the grassroots.

The Relevance of INGOs

Some see the exponential growth in the number of INGOs over the last several decades as responsive to the need for expanding public participation in global policy-making in IGOs. Indeed, it is true that INGOs have played a significant role in global policy-making, as exemplified by their influence in the drafting of human rights declarations and conventions and in their continual monitoring of compliance with these human rights standards, in the UN Human Rights Commission, the UN General Assembly, ILO, FAO, UNESCO, and many other agencies. But it is also true that INGOs themselves often are shaped by the *«beyond the state»* view of global policy-making. For example, many are actually international federations of national NGOs, and the *« foreign office »* of each national component is often as distant from the people as foreign offices of national governments. In these cases, the INGO may be as isolated from the grassroots as most IGOs. At times, INGOs and NGOs even find it necessary to assume the foreign service/diplomatic culture of states in order to participate in the policy process, thus inevitably distancing themselves from their own rank and file (Lissner, 1977, p. 106-107).

Thus, it appears that some INGOs have more affinity for the world *«beyond the state»,* than for their grassroots constituency. But, after an extensive literature search, we have found that others struggle to link the two worlds. We wilt demonstrate that in many cases the actual global policy process has broken the constraints of the *«beyond the state»* paradigm. Many attempting to cope with global problems, both at the grassroots and in international bodies, have found it necessary to transcend the constraints of these paradigms. If scholars are to cope with the *reality* of the world they are attempting to understand, they must significantly extend their research paradigms in order to bring these creative departures into view.

The Emerging Role of the Grassroots in Global Policy for Development

We will demonstrate the existence of this larger global policy process by drawing from that field of activities gathered under the notion of *«development».* Fundamental has been a political struggle over the meaning of development. From one perspective this can be viewed as a continual redefinition of the term; from another perspective it can be perceived as an incremental addition of new approaches to development. The notion of development assistance for Third World countries gradually emerged out of an emphasis on relief and welfare. At first it was assumed that development meant replicating Western models, but this was eventually challenged by calls for more endogenous approaches. This brought in turn challenges to centralized national development plans and calls for small-scale local projects characterized by local autonomy and self-reliance. Pursuit of these goals leads to emphasis on local participation and empowerment which in turn requires a supportive societal context which is compatible with grassroots autonomy and participation.

Our point in reviewing this redefinition process is that it actually emerged out of a policy process in which grassroots participants were increasingly involved. To some degree this was brought on by the failure of centralized approaches — by states, IGOs and INGOs. As states, IGOs, and INGOs moved away from emphasis on industrialization and large-scale infrastructure development projects to a focus on serving «basic human needs», they became increasingly involved at the grassroots. This gradually linked more local governmental and non-governmental organizations into the policy-making process. It might not be inappropriate to suggest that the «basic needs» approach emerged out of failure of earlier policies at the «center», but that the local self-reliance and local participation emphasis emerged out of local involvement which was required in implementation of the basis needs strategy.

Perspectives from the Third World

We must draw on scattered literature in order to acquire insight on the complex systems of organizations, from the local to the global, which are now involved in global development policy. Scholars from a number of countries offer typologies of NGOs involved in development activity. A Norwegian scholar offers a four fold typology: (1) federations of national development/ humanitarian/ human rights organizations (e.g.. International Red Cross or Red Crescent, World Council of Churches), (2) international agencies run by Northern based secretariats (e.g., OXFAM, CARE, Save the Children), (3) national Third World organizations (e.g., 10.000 in Africa, with 1600 in Kenya alone), and (4) local self-help groups which are small, local and informal. (Egeland, 1987, p. 113-114).

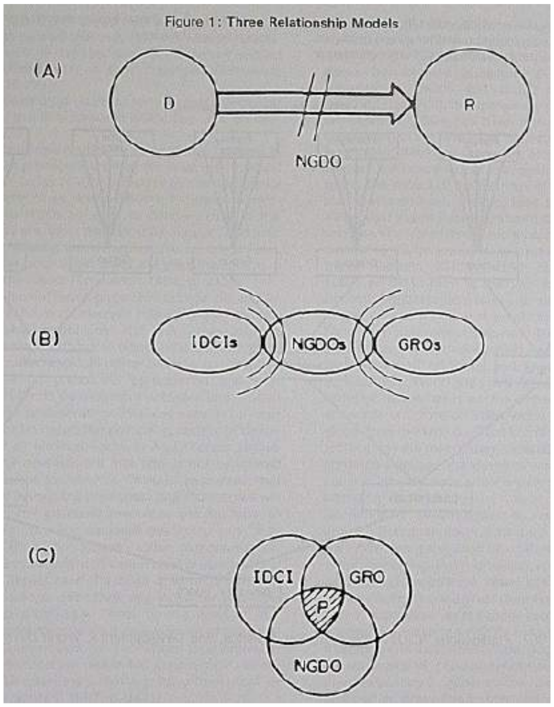
In order to analyze his Peruvian experience, Mario Padron finds it necessary to employ a three-fold typology of the *«main non-governmental organizations active in the development process » :* (1) international development cooperation institutions (IDCI), (2) non-governmental development organizations that are indigenous to Third World countries (NGDO) and (3) grassroots organizations (GRO}. The *«hundreds of»* IDCIs which are based in Northern countries raise and channel money through NGDOs. The NGDOs (e.g. Centras de Promoción del Desarrollo o de Educación popular in Peru) *«are formed by individuals, who receive payment for their duties, and they are private, not-for-profit, and operate within a legal framework. They work through development projects (or programs) to benefit people other than their own members and their financing comes from sources outside the NGDO»* (Padron. 1987, p. 71). According to Padron, the NGDOs emphasize *«popular participation»* and *«learning together, rather than the mere transfer of knowledge»,* but he recognizes that there is not always clarity with respect to this role definition (Padron, p. 71). According to Padron, «*grassroots sectors and their organizations (GROs) have proved to be a necessary presence in any self-sustained development effort... if they are not present and interested in the project from its conception, such a cooperation should rather be called aid »* (Padron, p. 69).

Padron delineates three models of cooperation among NGDOs, IDCI and GRO, as diagrammed in Figure 1. In Model A, the NGDO simply acquires money from the IDCI, accepting it with the attitude : *«let the 'gringos' give us the money... after all they are just giving us back what was ours».* In Model B, the NGDO see «*themselves as the technical branch »* of the GRO. In Model C, the NGDO, IDCI and GRO form a partnership in development cooperation in shown in P in Figure 1. As Padron expresses it, *« The flow of funds in one direction is complemented by the potential and the need to influence the society from which the money comes».* Because development problems relate both to underdevelopment in the Third World and maldevelopment in the industrialized world, changes are needed in both societies (Padron, 1987, p. 73-74).

Bertrand Schneider, a Swiss, conducted a study of 93 development projects in 19 countries in order to draw a *«state of the art»* assessment of NGO rural development activities, noting that the *«micro-projects»* which he studied were a response to the *«devastating effects»* of large-scale projects. According to his count, there are now 2087 NGOs directly involved in development issues in the industrialized countries (1356 in Western Europe, 630 in North America and 101 in Japan). At the same time, he estimates that there are 25,000 NGOs involved in development activity in Latin America, 30,000 in Asia and 12,000 in Africa. He estimates that these projects have benefited 100 million people.

Bertrand Schneider concludes that there now exists a *«global view»* of rural development based on the following new priorities and perceptions: (1) initiative has shifted from the North to the South, (2) development policies should recognize the needs of the rural poor, (3) domestic food production should take priority over cash corps for export or industrial development, and (4) small scale development projects should take precedence over large-scale projects and they should be integrated into an overall economic strategy.

In advocating partnership and *«dialogue with mutual respect»* between Southern and Northern NGOs, Schneider recommends relationships similar to Padron's Model C. He notes that Third World NGOs are increasingly taking initiatives and management responsibilities but cautions that they must simultaneously satisfy Northern donors with improved project management and must provide a regular flow of information and encourage feedback. At the same time, he observes that major NGOs in the North frequently have budgets larger than those of the overseas development administrations of small European countries. Thus, *«they are tempted to impose the same type of management... and thus contribute to standardizing the world of NGOs»* (Schneider, 1988, p. 233). Appealing for dialogue, and *«a balance difficult to achieve and constantly under threat»,* he concludes that *« it is only through*

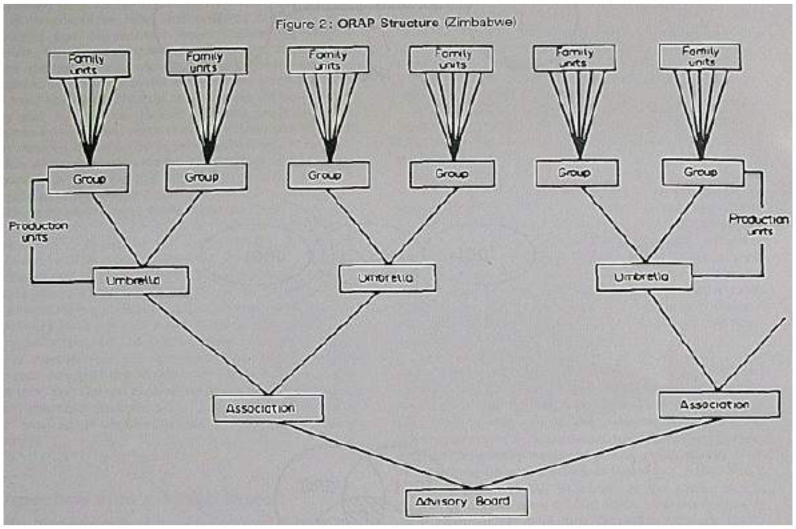


Padron, Mario, 1987. « Non-governmental Development Organizations : From Development Aid to Development Cooperation», *World Development,* Vol. 15, Supplement, page 73.

such frank and fruitful dialogue that the specific rotes of NGOs in both hemispheres will be seen as complementary and useful» (Schneider, 1988, p. 233).

Schneider distinguishes several types of grassroots NGOs: (1) NGOs involved in one project, (2) NGOs which are active in only one or a small group of villages, (3) provincial NGOs, (4) national NGOs and (5) international NGOs active in several countries (Schneider, 1988, p. 80). Nyoni offers detailed explication of one national NGO in Zimbabwe, Organization of Rural Association for Progress (ORAP). He places stress on *« starting at the local level and expanding to the national and international levels »,* insisting that *« those international NGOs committed to helping the rural poor must work in partnership with local groups, basing their role on the types of support requested by the local groups rather than promoting 'international developmentalism'»* (Nyoni, 1987, p. 51). In laying out the family based ORAP structure (Figure 2), he disclaims the intent of providing *«a blueprint for all NGOs, but rather (offers) a set of lessons drawn from one experience»* (Nyoni, 1987, 51). In the ORAP approach, five to ten families get together to find solutions for quality of life problems within family households, *«i.e. where people are, rather than on project sites»* (Nyoni, 1987, p. 54). At the group level, small-scale community projects for water, roads, and village production are undertaken. At the district level associations are formed to formulate district strategies. Here are located local services (grinding mills and bakeries), educational

facilities, workshops for making agricultural tools and household utensils and a market outlet for village **products. The ORAP Advisory Board, composed of** rural representatives from all of these levels, meets every six weeks to make **policy** decisions.



Nyoni, Sithembiso, 1987. «Indigenous **NGOs:** Liberation, Self-Reliance, and Development», *World Development,* Vol. **15, Supplement, page 54.**

But Nyoni is aware that a democratic structure does **not guarantee a democratic process because** it may **not be able to overcome contradictions** in **the** society in which **it operates,** including ***«Self-colonization and the rural elites»,*** **and *«universalism... often imposed on us both from our national government and from the international donor community».*** **Nyoni asks: *«How can a struggling indigenous NGO, whose members are largely semi-literate, differentiate between those international NGOs which are genuinely interested in the success of the struggles of the poor and those with other priorities »*** **(Nyoni, 1987, p. 54).**

Up to this point we have been concentrating on the NGO aspect of global development policies, while largely ignoring the more widely known role of national governments. Not surprisingly the grassroots based, and decentralized, development efforts of NGOs are struggling against the centralized development programs of Third World national governments, and their supporters in Northern national governments and IGOs. Schneider suggests that governments too must adapt to «a *global view»* of rural development by strengthening macroeconomic support systems through land reform, population policy, developing networks of small rural clinics for health care and operating experimental farms and extension services. But instead, he observes that in a *«majority of cases»* the relations between NGOs and governments in Third World countries *« are unstable, not to say downright bad ».* Noting that NGOs are frequently informal, flexible, and accustomed to making rapid decisions, he observes that they have *«difficulty in tolerating the dilatoriness and unwieldiness of authorities».* On the other hand, he notes that *«governments distrust these organizations, whose motives and method of operation they have difficulty in understanding».* But in the light of the fact that NGOs can fulfill certain development functions and that the financial resources which they offer are useful, he urges governments to *«train* (their) *civil servants and motivate them, if* (they wish) *them to be active participants in this policy»* (Schneider, 1988, p. 231). Schneider is particularly helpful in drawing local government into our field of vision :

« On the local or regional level, we have seen that bureaucracy, inertia, indifference on the part of officials are still to be found, more often than on the national level- Frequently local officials perceive NGOs as alien ele-

ments, threatening to erode their power; and in many cases it can be said that they feel themselves personally threatened by the vast national movement implied by rural development in their country» (Schneider, 1988, p. *230-231).*

Schneider once again appeals for *« mutual recognition and dialogue »; this* time between NGOs and local government.

The media too are identified by Schneider as partners in the development process, thus they too must gain a global view. Schneider urges NGOs to recognize that the media are potential advocates and publicists for development. This will require NGOs to learn to communicate to the media : who they are, what they do, their mission, and their achievements, insisting that communication is a vital function of NGOs, he once again urges *constant dialogue»,* in this case with the media (Schneider, 1988, p. 233).

As the definition of development has broadened, and as the array of organizations involved has spread to encompass both global institutions and the grassroots, it becomes increasingly difficult to discern the boundaries of what might be called a global policy process for development. Emphasis on grassroots participation and self-reliance in Third World development activities had eroded earlier tendencies to separate politics and economics, creating what might be called thé political economy of development. Based on his experience in Asia, Korten argues that the *«central development task should not be viewed primarily as one of transferring financial resources, but rather as one of developing the human and institutional will and capacity to put whatever resources are available to sustainable productive and equitable use in the service of the people».* Thus, he argues *«that demonetization defined in terms of broadly distributed control over political and economic assets, and the open flow of information may for many nations offer their only hope for equitable and sustainable progress».* Thus, at the heart of his approach to development is *« the development of the complex mosaic of independent yet inter-linked local organizations through which people define and pursue their individual and collective interests within a guiding framework of national policy»* (Korten, 1987, p. 147).

Writing out of his Peruvian experience, Padron, too, argues that important functions of NGDOs are *«creating, maintaining or expanding existing forms of democracy»* in their own societies. He argues that NGDOs can *«maintain democratic spaces even under dictatorial regimes»,* by employing democratic procedures in their activities. He sees them and their participatory projects as *«practical schools of democracy»,* and even as helping *«in democratic transition processes»* by providing spaces for ideological debate (Padron, 1987, p. 74-75). Writing out of his experience in the Philippines, Garilao foresees three developments in an even broader political role for NGOs in the future : (1) advocacy for social change, (2) bonding together to create power centers to push for structural change, and (3) development of Third World leaders who will leave the NGO sector and move to government (Garilao, 1987, p. 119).

Perspectives from the First World

As the boundaries of the policy process for development has been extending to the grassroots in the Third World, the appearance of development education and advocacy programs in the industrialized countries, particularly Western Europe, has also pushed back the boundaries. Development education in European NGOs, initially centered in church and church-related organizations, began around 1970. Its emergence as a separate activity of development NGOs has been attributed to their growing questioning of the efficacy of projects they were supporting in the Third World, to the return of volunteers who wished to share their experiences with groups in their own society, and to the impact of the theology of liberation on the churches (Lemaresquier, 1987, p. 190). But in this initial period, *«the basic image»* communicated by development education was that *«the development problem is all 'out there'... caused by indigenous factors inside the low-income countries»* (Lissner, 1977, p. 158; cited by Lemaresquier, 1987, p. 191). Then in the late 1970s the UN General Assembly debates on a New International Economic Order raised questions about the connection between international economic relationships and Third World poverty. This spurred concern in development education for the nature of links between First World and Third World societies, and between First World and Third World cities and towns. This included issues such as the impact of the international economic structure on Third World poverty, the impact of global food markets on Third World hunger, the transfer of technology, the role of transnational corporations and relationships between the development policies of European national governments and the perpetuation of Third World economic dependency.

According to Lemaresquier, a *«central feature»* of the growing European development education movement was *«a whole new generation of local groups with a mix of activities combining training/sensitization sessions, resource centers and publishing ».* Many of these local groups, particularly in France and West Germany, *« viewed themselves an an 'alternative' to the more established, national-level, operationally-oriented NGO's».* At the same time, decentralization and local-level action, accompanied by generally modest budgets, *« had one major lasting result for development education in general: the need for networking as a process of cross-fertilization and as a tool to surmount some of the constraints of smallness»* (Lemaresquier, 1987, p. 191). One example of a national network of action groups is the federal congress of development groups in West Germany (BUKO) which in 1977 had 150 groups as members.

While focusing on economic links between the First World and the Third World, development education has broadened its development policy perspective to include issues such as the impact of Third World industrialization on workers in both the South and the North, the socioeconomic status of migrant workers from Third World countries who are working in Europe, links between the diet of European consumers and the growing poverty of Third World agricultural producers, and the impact of EEC agricultural policies on both European countries and the Third World. This reflects a profound transformation of the position ascribed to people in the European grassroots in the development paradigm — their role shifted from that of donors of financial aid to be sent *«over there»,* to participants in international economic activities that shape the character of economic development, both in Europe and in the Third World. According to L0vbraek, This broadering of the development agenda has encouraged northern NGOs to create or strengthen links with action groups and community organizations in developing countries (Lovbraek, 1936, p. 15-17; cited by Lemaresquier, 1987, p. 194).

One example of efforts to link European and Third World grassroots, while at the same time combining education and action, has been the Towns and Development program which links European and Third World towns and cities in joint development cooperation. At a conference in Florence in October 1983, emphasis was placed on *« Twinning»* cities in Europe and cities in the Third World and making local people in Europe more aware of Third World problems. The conference report calls for: *«Increased interest in these problems and the desire amongst local inhabitants to make their own contribution towards solving them has in many cases led to municipal councils being confronted with these matters. Development cooperation items appear on Town Council agendas more and more »* (van Tongeren, 1984, p. *27).*

The conference report cites examples of municipal Third World policies in Northern Europe. In Belgium there is a campaign to have an Alderman for Development Cooperation appointed in each municipality. In Bruges the Alderman for Development participates on a 15 member Third World committee composed of all organizations in Bruges involved in development cooperation, conducts awareness building activities for the Bruges population, and coordinates initiatives of the various local organizations involved in Third World activity. The municipality of Leiden in 1979 allocated 10,000 guilders annually for informing people about Third World development. In Tilburn, the Netherlands, the Mayor and Aldermen in 1979 produced a draft *«opinion»* on *«foreign affairs»* that examined the possibilities of municipal authorities contributing to local awareness about inequality in relations between industrialized countries, such as the Netherlands, and countries of the Third World. This led to the creation of an Advisory Board in June 1980 composed of members of the Town Council and representatives of community organizations. After an inventory of local organizations involved in development cooperation, it was decided that development education would be approached from two angles: (1) conditions in the Third World, (2) the domestic situation (textile workers). A fund has been established for local education and for programs directly linked to a Third World situation. The Town Council annually contributes 50,000 guilders to this fund.

Responding to a suggested outline of the Towns and Development Secretariat in The Hague, a number of European towns/cities have contributed case studies of their relationships with Third World counterparts. (As yet no case studies from Third World participants seem to be available). Because there is no available document that generalizes across the case studies, it is difficult to draw conclusions about the achievements of this program. On the other hand, it is significant that the number of participating towns/cities is growing. Very impressive also is the forthright critical approach of the case studies in which both failures and successes are reported. Lode De Wilde of Brugge notes that, *« Linking with towns in developing countries is fated to be shortlived because of the great differences in mentality between local governments on both sides. The degree of bureaucracy in nearly all Third World countries inevitably confines you to official channels »* (Kussendrager, 1988, p. 17). A report on Oldenburg complains that the relationship with a town in Lesotho had not progressed between 1985 and 1988. More upbeat reports are made on links between Amsterdam and Managua and between Bremen and towns in Namibia, Western Sahara and Nicaragua. Gunther Hilliges, head of the Department of Development of Bremen, reports that Bremen is in an ambiguous position. *« It is part of an economic structure, but it supports the critics of that structure»,* resulting in much opposition in Bremen to the development cooperation of the Federal Republic of Germany. (Kussendrager, 1988, p. 72). Thus we have some evidence that the Towns and Development program offers a challenging arena for local « handson » experience in contending with the complexities of economic relationships between the First and Third Worlds.

in a report to a March 1989 conference on municipal responsibility for global issues, Paul van Tongeren reported that of the 40 biggest Dutch towns and cities, 39 *«are dealing with development cooperation ».* Of the 26 which are active on three international issues — development cooperation, anti-apartheid, and peace — 21 have either a civil servant or one responsible mayor/alderman playing a coordinationg role. Five towns have one or more persons assigned full time to this work, and the 26 towns dealing with all three issues spent a total of 2.3 million guilder (US $1 million) in development cooperation. *«More and more towns take as a rule one guilder (US $.47) per citizen (per annum) on international affairs»* (van Tongeren, 1989, p. 3). Thus far seven big cities have met this goal. At the same time:

> *«More and more towns publish notes on a global policy, in which they try to describe the interrelationship of those issues relevant to human rights, ecology, refugees, tropical timber and so on. With more coordination within a municipality and a focal point within the bureaucracy, it will be easier for additional concerns (like recent tropical timber campaigns) to be introduced and for cities to respond»,* (van Tongeren, 1989, p. 2).

Judgment about the long-term significance of these activities for global policies on development must await the results of detached research. But there is no doubt that fundamental changes have taken place in the relationships of Dutch cities, and those in other European countries, with the world. These changes have been legal as well as behavioral. One example of dramatic change is the fact that in 1925 a Dutch community attempted to grant ten guilders to victims of another Dutch community hit heavily by a hurricane. This was forbidden by the national government because it dit not conform to «household of the community», a juridical principle limiting the scope of action of local communities. When in 1972 the Dutch House of Parliament debated the legality of support by a Dutch local community for a local community in the Third World, the Parliament said that this did deal with the *«household of the community»,* because *«there was real involvement of the inhabitants of the Dutch community with the municipality of the Third World. »* (van Tongeren, 1986, p. 1).

Somewhat akin to the complicated array of development organizations in the Third World is the variety of organizations supportive of grasroots development education and advocacy in the North, Lemaresquier reports that much of this growth in (development education) activities at the grassroots level of European societies might have had a very limited impact if, in each country, several of the major national-level NGOs had not taken responsibility for promoting development education among their own constituents, contributing resources to their own activities and those of other, smaller organizations...» (Lemaresquier, 1987, p. 191). National governments too have provided financial support, althought not without problems. In 1978 the Dutch government expressed the view that *«since the policy of development cooperation is an inseparable part of the government's foreign policy, no projects could be approved which were incompatible with that policy»*. (Theunis, 1981, p. 20; cited by Lemaresquier, 1987, p. 192-193). But the National Commission for Information and Awareness of Development Cooperation (NCO) objected that this requirement would be incompatible with the purposes of information and awareness projects. The matter was resolved by an agreement between the Dutch government and NGOs which replaced the foreign policy criterion with certification by the NCO that projects are in accordance with international law. Although change in the British government in 1979 was followed by almost complete halt in government support for development education, the Austrian government spends as much as 75 percent of its resources for development education through one NGO, the Austrian Organization for Development Information and Education.

Also supportive are international organizations, both governmental and non-governmental. In 1987 the Commission of the European Community added a development education window. From 1978 to 1985, EEC support for co-financing with NGOs rose from an initial 70,000 ECU for two projects to 3.5 million ECU for 66 projets. The Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities (SCLRAE) of the Council of Europe has formed a working group to mobilize local and regional authorities in its 21 states to raise local awareness of the complex relationships linking the peoples of Europe and the Third World. The Internationa! Union of Local Authorities (IULA), a worldwide organization aimed at strengthening local government (headquarters in The Hague) has supported the Towns and Development program and *«promotes the joint action by local authorities and community groups to make maximum use of local resources in development education and cooperation» (*Slits, 1988, p. 78). The United Towns Organization (UTO), an international non-governmental organization, promotes contacts between towns and regions all over the world. In « *the New Cooperation Manifesto»* of 1970, UTO declared *«traditional international cooperation as insufficient and incapable of eliminating world underdevelopment and hunger, and asserted the need for the direct participation of towns and the general public in international action»* (Lafont, 1988, p. 81).

Perspectives on Micro-Macro Relationships in Global Policy

This brief review of concrete examples of grassroots approaches to development policy has revealed that new departures in global development policy *«beyond the states»* are being matched — some would say surpassed — by those at the grassroots. But what are their implications for each other? Should the grassroots conform with policies set by global organizations? Should global policies be determined by the policies of grassroots initiatives? Or, should the two be combined in some interactive process? Unfortunately, the interstate paradigm has so shaped thinking about global policy that many find questions about actual or potential linkages between the local and the global to be virtually unthinkable (Alger, 1988, p. 321-323).

Sheldon Annis is helpful in asking: *«Can small-scale development be a large-scale policy?»* He notes that in Latin America *«it is not so surprising that well-organized, externally financed, private development organizations should be able to launch local projects that are small in scale, politically independent, low cost and innovative».* But, considering the magnitude of need, he sees the really hard question to be:

> « *Ultimately, how large can small become ? Can that which is local build upon itself so that small is institutionalized and widely replicated?... Can a species of development flourish that maintains the virtues of smallness — but at the same time reaches large numbers of people, transfers genuine political power to the poor, and provides high quality social services that are delivered by permanent, adequately financed institutions»* (Annis, 1987, p. 129).

Annis concludes that *«in Latin America, I believe such a process is already taking place. Every Latin American country is now interlaced with a thickening web of grassroots organizations»* intertwined with each other and the state. As a result, says Annis, *«a 'policy' built upon the idea of large-scale, small-scale development — something that might have appeared naive or whimsical just a few years ago — is emerging as a serious choice for Latin America in the 1990s»* (Annis, 1987, p. 129). For Annis, significant elements in small-scale development on a large scale are: self-organizing systems of grassroots organizations, foreign private voluntary organizations, the state and *«macro»* policies that affect external debt, international terms of trade, currency valuation and import/export conditions. He emphasizes that *«state policy is crucially important in determining the character and capacities of grassroots growth — and ultimately, in providing the answer to the question: ... How large can small-scale become?»* (Annis, 1987, p. 133).

Two Swedish scholars begin by asking a question quite similar to that of Annis : *« Can social transformation at the macro-level (national and global) be the result of micro-processes; social movements organized around very different and usually local issues? We believe so ... »* (Friberg and Hettne, 1988, p. 341). But unlike Annis, they ascribe far less importance to the state in asserting that *asocial transformation at the global level will be the result of the growing importance of non-state actors »,* in what they identify as the Third System. Their typology for categorizing political actors in the development process includes the First System (the state system), the Second System (transnational corporations) and the Third System (citizens who do not seek either state or corporate power). IGOs are placed in the First System because they are *«an expression of the logic of the nation-state»* (Friberg and Hettne, 1988, p. 356).

Friberg and Hettne argue that macro-processes can produce macro transformation for three reasons: First, *«the conventional distinction of levels which are usually made by social scientists (local, national and international) are simplifications that distort reality. They convey biases which induce us to underestimate the aggregate effect of* *dispersed and localized phenomena».* Second, «*there is a dynamic interplay between the functional macro-system and the territorial micro-system »* which has been spurred by local response to the world economic crisis in which «*those who suffer from unemployment, marginalization, and the destruction of their habitat react and take their future into their own hands».* The resulting dialectic between the micro and the macro makes more room for local initiatives. Third, *«while the issues in the new local politics vary due to focal differences, they are similar at a deeper level. Here one may speak of a tendency toward convergence».*

Assuming that *«a world of relatively self-reliant communities and regions held together by numerous transnational links would imply less exploitation of nature, of other countries and of human beings»,* they ask how this *more peaceful, participatory and humane world»* might be achieved. Noting that *« there are few instruments of action at the global level and that the few that exist are controlled by elites»,* they opt for a *popular strategy»* which *fall(s) back to the levels where ordinary men and women can act in a powerful and sustainable way, that is, in the local space where they live and work».* Perceiving the rise of new movements in both the North and the South, they conclude that *« for the first time in world history we witness the emergence of a truly global dialogue, ideology and movement with natural anchorage in all corners of the world».* Important components of this global dialogue are : (1) post-materialist elites in the West, (2) those marginalized by commercialisation and automation in both the North and the South, and (3) traditionalists in pre-modern and semi-modem contexts who resist *«the modernization project»* (Friberg and Hettne, 1988, pp. 356-358). After noting the dialectic between these kinds of micro movements and the macro (national and global) they conclude that *changes in established power structures may come sooner than the present distribution of power suggests»* (Friberg and Hettne, pp. 341-342).

While taking a global perspective on development policies, Majid Rahnema too centers his concern at the grassroots. Noting the process through which the UN system created development strategies and institutions, he asserts that the notion of *« underdevelopment »* became a recolonizing myth which *«allowed the heirs of the colonial system — including many governments of the emerging nation-states — the possibility of containing and co-opting the people's power by channeling it into a new goal: the dynamic transformation of pre-economic societies into 'modernity' through 'development'»* (Rahmonema, 1986, p. 40). Reviewing forty years of development assistance by international institutions, including the UN system, he criticizes the kinds of «priorities» and *«strategies»* which are set by ethnocentric *«planners with their own pre-defined objectives. In reality, they have little to do with the way the people have lived, are living, wish to live. Neither do they take into account all the accumulated experience and wisdom underlying a people's own culture and life support systems»* (Rahnema, 1986, p. 41). Like Friberg and Hettne, Rahnema sees that *«state-based classifications and categorizations presently defining shared interests leave much to be desired»* (Rahnema, 1988, p. 373).

Rahnema too senses that the source of macro change in the life conditions of people must come from *« changes within its constituent micro-spaces.... it is only when small people are improving their lot at the level of the grass-roots communities that wieder, large-scale changes, can become a reality».* On the other hand, he notes that *« the developmental design»,* rather than *«perceiving these communities as the most indispensable actors of any change at all levels »,* perceives them (at least 70 percent of the world population) as dispensable (Rahnema, 1988, p. 368). In contrast, for Rahnema, the *«solution of global problems»* lies in the *a regeneration of local spaces».* While asserting the importance of enhanced interaction between different local spaces which are facing common problems, Rahnema perceives that resistance to the development of new kinships and alliances between local spaces comes from *«ecocidal and ethnocidal forces at the global level»* (Rahnema, 1988, p. 373).

Rahnema rejects efforts to create what has been called *«alternative development»,* because he perceives that *The development establishment has already coopted a host of their ideas, only to provide the old approach with a more liberal participatory veneer».* Instead, he asks for an alternative to the whole concept of development which would pave the way for *«convivial interaction»* responsive to people's *«own needs and aspirations».* Similar to Friberg and Hettne, he perceives that *«many grass-roots movements have started to move ahead, indifferent to the developmental designs of national and international organizations seeking to 'develop' them... »* Included are networks involving university students, researchers, de-professionalized specialists, scientists and scholars. These informal networks *«not only link together the grass-roots of the South but also (are) establishing new forms of co-action between these and those of the North. ... The positive results they have thus far achieved well indicates that such interactive processes have become a reality, and a serious alternative to development designs»* (Rahnema, 1986, p. 43).

Because Rahnema had has considerable experience in UN development programs, both at headquarters and in the field, the reader awaits his reflections on the appropriate role for the UN in the context of emerging transnational networks with strong local roots. But Rahnema believes that as long as governments have not changed their basic positions on development, it would be difficult to imagine that the UN system might change. While noting that *«isolated yet genuine efforts have been made by some UN agencies, with a view to responding to the needs of grassroots populations»,* he observes that *«these efforts remain exceptions to the rule».* In fact, they represent *«attempts at a positive subversion from within the system, rather than a sign that the system is intending or ready to change course».* In looking for an alternative to *«a United Nations trapped in the spider's web of its Member States and their disabling national or international institutions»,* Rahnema seeks an *«organization (to)* protect *(the people of the world) against all disabling institutions and ideologies»* (Rahnema, 1986, p. 45).

He sees no need for *any centralized, bureaucratically administered institution».* Rather, he asks that *new ways and means are to be imagined, mainly to allow each different group to be informed, to learn about other human groups and cultures, in terms of their respective support systems».* Thus he envisages the need for a *«highly decentralized, non-bureaucratic, inter-cultural* rather than inter-national *network of persons and groups... »* (Rahnema, 1986, p. 43). He believes that this might be facilited, *«when the time comes, (by) a world network of* *people's assemblies, where the genuine representatives of all grass-roots movements would meet and interact freely with each other »* Rahnema, 1986, p. 45). This network would be supported by technical and other relevant teams capable to assist those who seek advice from them.

Conclusion

After presenting both practical and normative arguments why research on global policy must encompass the grassroots, we have drawn on studies of both Third World and First World grassroots development policy activity. This brief sampling of literature also suggests that this grassroots activity merits the attention of those concerned about global development policy because it is so widespread. These creative new approaches and institutions at the grassroots merit the same consideration that we give to those objects of more traditional concern — states and IGOs. They challenge us with an array of difficult questions. Those endeavoring to move resources from North to South, and those wishing to receive them, are struggling to create new approaches for linking nongovernmental collaboration across state borders. When can the goals of both parties be simultaneously between the two and when is it an anachronism? Has the inter-state system itself, and its IGO extensions, outlived its usefulness? Given the strong participatory assertions from the grassroots, is it possible that development — defined as the full development of individual human potential — can only be achieved by a highly decentralized global policy process? What kinds of global institutions, if any, would this imply?

These kinds of questions emerge out of the challenges provided by present development activity at the grassroots, in both the Third World and the First World, and out of efforts to respond to and to encourage this activity by regional, national and international NGOs. While these questions may sound as though they have Utopian roots, they are actually the products of reports and studies of *real* people attempting to cope with the problems of everyday life in a diversity of communities in the North and the South. Dare we venture beyond that conceptual map of the world in which the state is our secure North Star, and search with these grassroots explorers for other paradigms which would better enable us to comprehend *real* global human relationships, and policy processes? If not, why not?

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Conseil de l'Europe

La Suisse a ratifié le 24 septembre 1990 la Convention européenne sur la personnalité juridique des organisations internationales non gouvernementales, ouverte à la signature le 24 avril 1986 (voir *Associations transnationales,* n°3, 1986).

La Suisse est, après le Royaume-Uni, la Grèce et la Belgique, le quatrième Etat contractant.

La Convention entre en vigueur le 1er janvier 1991.

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Congrès et Sécurité

« Conference Safety » - « Congrès et Sécurité » était le sujet à l'ordre du jour de la réunion annuelle des Membres associés de l'UAI les 1 et 2 octobre 1990. Les différents orateurs ont traité les sujets suivants :

- *Les divers aspects relatifs à la sécurité des congrès;*
- *Planification de la sécurité : Actions à entreprendre lors de l'organisation de réunions où la sécurité constitue un enjeu vital;*
- Les *risques couverts par les assurances spécialisées;*
- *Mesures de sécurité prises et à prendre par les associations organisatrices, les centres de congrès, les organisateurs professionnels, les hôteliers, etc.*

A l'issue de la réunion, une « checklist sécurité des congrès» comprenant l'ensemble des éléments à considérer en planifiant la sécurité des réunions a été mise au point et adoptée.

Bruxelles, 2 octobre 1990.

Brussels, 2 October 1990.

Conference Safety

The many aspects of conference safety and security, the various areas of concerns, the preventive measures to be taken were among the subjects discussed during the last meeting of the Associate Members of the Union of International Associations, which took place last October in Brussels.

Risks, dangers, hazards...

The session chaired by Geoffrey Smith OBE was introduced by Group Captain David Reilly, Security Manager, the Queen Elisabeth II Conference Centre, London, with a description of the numerous hazards and dangers faced by congress sponsors, organizers and participants.

He stressed the fact that while money spent on safety does not contribute to profits, and that Safety does cost money, the alternatives do not bear contemplating; the cost of not spending money on safety could be measured in lives.

A recommended course of action

Superintendent Kit Bentham, Staff Officer to the Chief Constable of the Sussex Police (UK), was Deputy Planning Co-ordinator for policing a political party conference held in Brighton in 1989, when security arrangements were substantial.
In his presentation Superintendent Bentham recom-

mended a course of action to follow when faced with an event where physical security is vital.

Cooperate to minimize risks

A panel composed of representatives of the various interests concerned with "safety and security" expressed their points of view, the measures they are implementing, the shortfalls and grey areas that one should be aware of, steps to be taken in order to improve security and the insurances available.

Members of the panel were:
Christer Carlsson, Vice President, International Association of Professional Congress Organizers (IAPCO);
Marc Devisscher, Head Communications Department, European Council of Chemical Manufacturers' Federation (CEFIC);
Michel Gillet, President, Association internationale des palais de congrès (AIPC);
Doug Heath, President, Douglas Heath Associates of Dallas;
Marcel Meichtry, Publisher and Editor in Chief, "Tourism and Hotel Security Worldwide";
Steve Warner, Technical Director, Expo-Sure Ltd. London.

Brussels, 2nd October 1990.

Mr. Marc Devisscher (CEFIC) and Mr. Marcel Meichtry.

Mr. Geoffrey Smith.

Among the conclusions of the discussion which followed, one should stress :

— the importance to start planning safety and security as soon as possible after the decision to organize a meeting is taken;
— to have good communication between all parties concerned;
— to know exactly who is doing what;
— to be determined to work only with suppliers, venues, etc. who respect and apply security standards;
— to invest in necessary insurances.

Elements of security

In the afternoon participants discussed and amended a draft "security checklist" which was subsequently approved.
The purpose of such a document is to give to conference' sponsors and organizers a list of the various elements to be considered when planning conference security.

Awarness

In concluding the meeting, Geoffrey Smith stressed the importance for everyone concerned in congresses to be aware of safety and security matters and to work towards better standards.

Next meeting

The next UAI Associate Members' meeting will take place in Brussels, 1991 September 30-October 1.

Congress Security checklist

Introduction

It is most important for everyone concerned in congresses to be aware of safety and security matters.
In order to achieve this goal, necessary measures have to be planned and co-ordinated as soon as possible after the decision to organize a meeting is taken.
Good communication between all parties concerned, knowing exactly who is involved and who is doing what, is essential.
The attached skeleton checklist has been prepared, discussed and approved in October 1990 during the UAI Associate members meeting; its various elements should be adapted to the purposes of each individual meeting.

1. The various parties involved

Listing of the various parties involved and division of responsibilities between them.

1.1. The organizer(s) : the convener/ host
1.2. Designation of the person in charge of security
1.3. Security forces: national
regional
local
1.4. The suppliers: professional congress organizer
venues: hotel
conference centre
exhibition centre
university
others
travel agent
transport carriers: air
sea
rail
road
caterer
technicians
interpreters
various staff members
exhibition organizer/fitter
destination management company
electricity superviser/controler
others
1.5. The participants: who constitute a risk
who do not constitute a risk
1.6. The visitors: who constitute a risk
who do not constitute a risk
1.7. The press
1.8. The local community

2. The occasions: where and when

2.1. During travel/transport
2.2. During stay at the hotel
2.3. During stay at the conference/exhibition centre
2.4. During the social programme, recreational activities
2.5. During study or professional visit(s)
2.6. During tours, sight seeing/locale transport

3. The causes

3.1. Accidental
3.2. Criminal; mob; violence; vandalism
3.3. Lack of planning; lack of forsight
3.4. Natural disaster: earthquake; flooding; storm; cyclone
3.5. Act of war; revolution; terrorism; demonstration; protest
3.6. Industrial espionage

4. Type of damage

4.1. Physical
4.2. Moral
4.3. Financial

5. Fields where measures minimizing risks should be taken

5.1. Access:
people: control entrance/exit: day and night
goods: control entrance/exit : day and night
emergency exists: day and night
5.2. Alarms: warnings
briefing
5.3. Accidents: casualties; first aid
5.4. Catering: food poisoning
sanitary measures
5.5. Non-identification of participants:
publication of names; addresses
publication of roosing lists
screening phonecalls
5.6. Confidentiality of debates:
through technical equipment
through participants/staff
recuperation of working documents and papers after the meeting(s)
5.7. Contentious matters
5.8. Diseases: preventive measures
warnings
5.9. Environment: various type of pollution
various dangers
5.10. Equipment:
used and/or exhibited : level of danger
material/furniture/technical equipment: failure; breakage; hazards: day and night
5.11 Fire: alarm
detection
instructions
fire protection measures and equipment
fire gas proof equipment and furniture.
5.12. Security of documentation, personal items, etc.

6. Responsibilities

6.1. Division and definition of responsibilities among the parties concerned
6.2. Designation of responsible staff(s) :
who is doing what

7. Insurance

7.1. Choice of insurance to subscribe to. (Minimum required: public liability)
7.2. Fire insurance: to check the contract(s) with the meeting centre/hotel; necessity to insert a clause re withdrawal of the right of claim against user.

8. The press

8.1. Accreditation
8.2. Plan of communication with the press in case of problems / difficulties / disasters.

Checklist sécurité des congrès

Introduction

Il est important que toute personne concernée par les congrès ait conscience des questions se rapportant *h* la sûreté et à la sécurité.
Afin d'atteindre ce but, il y a lieu de planifier et de coordonner les mesures nécessaires aussitôt que la décision d'organiser une réunion a été prise.
Il est essentiel de connaître les différentes parties concernées, de savoir qui fait quoi et d'établir une bonne communication entre tous.
La liste ci-dessous a été préparée, discutée et approuvée lors de la réunion des membres associés de l'UAI en octobre 1990.
Les différents éléments de cette liste doivent être adaptés à la spécificité de chaque réunion.

1. Les protagonistes

Liste des parties concernées et division des responsabilités.

1.1. Organisateur(s) : puissance(s) învirante(s)
1.2. Responsable de la sécurité
1.3. Services d'ordre: nationaux
régionaux
locaux
1.4. Prestataires de services :
organisateur **professionnel**
lieux : hôtel
palais de congrès
centre d'exposition
université
autres
agent de voyage
transporteur: air
mer
rail
route
traiteur; restaurateur
techniciens
interprètes
membres du personnel
organisateur exposition
monteur exposition
service de contrôle électrique
autres
1.5. Participants: à risque
non à risque
1.6. Visiteurs: à risque
non à risque
1.7. Presse
1.8. Communauté locale

2. Les occasions: où et quand

2.1. Durant voyage / transport
2.2. Durant séjour à l'hôtel
2.3. Au palais de congrès; centre d'exposition
2.4. Au cours du programme **social; des activités récréatives**
2.5. Durant visite(s) d'études / professionnelles
2.6. Durant excursions; tours de ville; transports locaux

3. Les causes

3.1. Accidentelles
3.2. Criminelles; violence; vandalisme;
3.3. Manque d'organisation; de prévoyance
3.4. Catastrophes naturelles: tremblement de terre; inondation; tempête; cyclone; autres
3.5. Guerre; révolution; terrorisme; violance; manifestations; contestations
3.6. Espionage industriel

4. Type de dommages

4.1. Physiques
4.2. **Moraux**
4.3. Financiers

5. Domaines où prendre des mesures de sécurité pour minimiser les risques

5.1. Accès:
personnes: contrôle entrées/sorties: jour/nuit
marchandises: contrôle entrées/sorties: jour/nuit
issues de secours: jour/nuit
5.2. Alarmes: signaux
briefing
5.3. Accidents: blessés; premiers secours
5.4. Restauration : empoisonnement
mesures sanitaires
5.5. Anonymat des participants:
publication des noms et adresses
publication des chambres d'hôtel
filtrage des appels téléphoniques
5.6. Confidentialité des débats:
via les équipements techniques
via les participants / le personnel
récupération des documents de travail/papiers après les réunions
5.7 **Sujets** contentieux, de discorde
5.8. Maladies: mesures préventives; mises en garde
5.9. Environnement: divers types de pollutions
divers dangers
5.10. Equipements:
utilisé et/ou exposé: degré de dangers
matériel/mobilier/technique: pannes; dégâts; accidents: jour/nuit
5.11. Feu: Alarmes
Détection
Instructions
Moyens de protection anti-feu
Matériaux résistants au feu et gaz toxiques
5.12. Sécurité des documents, des objets personnels, etc.

6. Responsabilités

6.1. Définition des responsabilités entre les parties concernées
6.2. Désignation des responsables: qui fait quoi.

7. Assurances

7.1. Choix des assurances à souscrire. (Minimum requis: Responsabilité civile)
Vérification des contrats avec les centre de réunions/hôtels; clause nécessaire: abandon de recours vis à vis de l'utilisateur.

8. Presse

8.1. Accréditer
8.2. Communication en cas de problème / difficulté / catastrophe.

L'utilisation par les ONG des informations reçues des Nations Unies

Le département de l'Information des Nations Unies a publié en juin 1990 les résultats d'une enquête menée en 1988 auprès des ONG par ce département pour connaître leur opinion au sujet de l'information reçue des Nations Unies et comment elles utilisent le matériel mis à leur disposition.

Sur 850 questionnaires envoyés, 543 réponses ont été reçues. Celles-ci émanent d'organisations: éducatives (78), professionnelles (53), de développement (50), féminines (39), religieuses (35), des droits de l'homme (32), de paix et sécurité (31); 2 ONG seulement représentent les média.

Trois cent trente et une organisations se disent à orientation internationale, 169 nationale et 8 régionale. Quant au nombre de membres, 117 ONG indiquent avoir plus de 100.000 membres, 34 entre 50.000 et 100.000 membres et 61 entre 10.000 et 50,000 membres.

Les sujets considérés comme les plus importants sont: le développement économique et social (74%), l'ONU et son œuvre (72%), les conférences et manifestations des Nations Unies (71%), les droits de l'homme (70%), les femmes (63%), la paix et la sécurité internationales (60%); la décolonisation n'a recueilli que 3%.

En ce qui concerne le matériel fourni par les Nations Unies, 443 réponses accordent leur préférence aux publications des Nations Unies. Parmi celles-ci, spécialement *Development Forum* (335) et *United Nations Chronicle* (313). Trois cent soixante cinq préfèrent les conférences organisées par le département à l'intention des ONG. Peu d'appréciation pour les enregistrements radio (20%).

Une grosse majorité d'ONG demandent la documentation en anglais (80%); 8% en français et 3% en espagnol. Le russe et le chinois sont peu demandés.

Trois cent quatre ONG estiment le matériel reçu comme très utile et 139 le qualifient d'essentiel. Soixante et une ONG utilisent peu ce matériel et quatre pas du tout. Au moment de l'enquête (1988), 377 ONG indiquent avoir un terminal ordinateur et 141 ne pas en avoir; cent vingt neuf organisations sont intéressées par un accès aux bases de données des Nations Unies, 56 ne le sont pas.

Quelque 50% des ONG qui ont répondu à l'enquête considèrent leur coopération avec les Nattons Unies comme très importante, 33% comme essentielle; 13% ne la voit pas très importante et 0.3% sans importance.

Dans l'ordre des pays où le matériel des Nations Unies est le plus distribué, on trouve d'abord les USA avec 202 organisations. Viennent ensuite la Suisse (39), le Royaume-Uni (37), la France (31), la Belgique (24), et l'Italie, le Canada, la République fédérale d'Allemagne, les Pays-Bas et l'Autriche (entre 16 et 12 organisations).

Charte de Paris

La Charte de Paris pour une nouvelle Europe signée le 21 novembre 1990 par les trente-quatre pays de la Conférence sur la sécurité et la coopération en Europe (CSCE) comporte un paragraphe relatif aux ONG, dont voici le contenu :

«Nous rappelons le rôle important joué par les organisations non gouvernementales, les groupes religieux et autres et les particuliers dans la réalisation des objectifs de la CSCE et nous continuerons à faciliter leurs activités en faveur de la mise en oeuvre des engagements de la CSCE par les Etats participants. Pour accomplir les tâches importantes qui sont les leurs, ces organisations, groupes et particuliers doivent être associés de manière appropriée aux activités et aux nouvelles structures de la CSCE».

Enseignants

Dès avant les événements de la fin 1989. la Confédération mondiale de la profession enseignante (CMOPE) avait engagé des pourparlers d'unité avec les trois autres organisations internationales d'enseignants, à savoir : le Secrétariat professionnel international de l'enseignement, la Fédération internationale de l'enseignement et la Confédération syndicale mondiale des enseignants. La 33e assemblée des délégués de la CMOPE réunie au Costa Rica en août 1990. n'a pas accepté la proposition visant à poursuivre les négociations avec les trois organisations sur un pied d'égalité; elle a demandé au Comité exécutif de la CMOPE de: «*poursuivre les négociations de fusion avec le Secrétariat professionel pour progresser vers l'unité globale; poursuivre les contacts et la coopération avec les deux autres organisations afin de préparer le terrain de l'unité globale; étudier des structures qui tiendraient compte des intérêts de tous les membres de la CMOPE, ...»* C'est l'assemblée de 1992 qui prendra une décision concernant une unification globale ou partielle.

(D'après *Echo,* sept. 1990)

Observer status for the Red Cross

On 16 October 1990, the General Assembly of the United Nations conferred observer status in its proceedings to the International Committee of the Red Cross.

A resolution on the subject was sponsored by 138 of the Organization's 159 Member States. Speakers at this meeting of the General Assembly stressed the unique character of the Red Cross under the 1949 Geneva Conventions, and said its observer status should not be seen as a precedent for other non governmental organizations to seek that status. (United Nations Information Service)

Comment naît une ONG

C'est dans une mansarde de Shangaï, qu'en novembre 1946, Koichi Ueda (japonais) a l'idée de créer une organisation non gouvernementale développant les idéaux de l'Unesco qui venait d'être fondée. (Il faut se rappeler la situation internationale du Japon à cette époque). Une association de coopération entre l'Unesco et l'Université de Sendaï (Japon) nait le 19 juillet 1947. C'est la première du genre au monde. Ueda fonde alors d'autres associations Unesco dans diverses parties du Japon, puis, en 1948, une fédération nationale de ces associations. En 1974 se crée la Fédération asienne des clubs et associations Unesco et en 1981 la Fédération mondiale.

«Si le Japon occupé a pu devenir membre de l'Unesco en 1951 déjà et ouvrir pour la première fois ses portes au monde extérieur, c'est grâce à ce mouvement non gouvernemental».

(D'après *Sources Unesco,* nov. 1990)

NGO dynanism

One of the smallest non-governmental organizations in Thailand when it started 16 years ago, the Population and Community Development Association (PDA), has become the largest NGO, executing over 50 programs and projects with a staff of 600 and 16,000 volunteers across the country today. What are the secrets of its success?

The PDA was previously known as the Community-Based Family Planning Services (CBFPS), founded in 1974 to promote the community-based contraceptives distribution program for the first time in Thailand.

The CBFPS had a staff of 10. It was not self-reliant at all; it relied totally on grants from the International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF).

The CBFPS changed its name to PDA in 1978. Today, PDA is active in family planning, anti-AIDS campaign, integrated family planning and para-Site control, health check up services, environmental sanitation, income generation, primary health care, refugee assistance, appropriate technology in agriculture and other areas of rural development. Its budget for 1990 is estimated to be US$ 7.7 million.

Several factors explain PDA's successful development and promotion of innovative and pioneering programs. One of the key factors is the experience gained from the Integrated Family Planning and Parasite Control Project (IP), especially from the viewpoint of program development.

From that viewpoint, three things can be deduced:

a. PDA started, and continues to promote, water and sanitation improvement efforts, which it calls the biggest single component of its rural activities, in order to tackle the root causes of parasitic infection.

b. PDA encourages and supports income-generating activities among villagers to enable them to afford parasitic examination and deworming services as well as construction of latrines and water storage tanks that will reduce parasitic infection and improve their health,

C. All the PDA programs adopted the people-oriented approach, the effectiveness of which was pioneered in the IP. This approach involves the local communities at all stages of the project design and implementation, with appropriate fees being collected from beneficiaries.

(JOICFP Integration, April 1990)

New... Plans... Creations... New... Plans... Creations... New... Plans... Creations... New...

Un accord est intervenu mardi 20 novembre, en marge du sommet de la CSCE, sur une déclaration transatlantique destinée à régir les consultations entre la Communauté européenne et les Etats-Unis. Une déclaration du même type a été mise au point entre le Canada et la CEE.

Il aura fallu plusieurs mois de discussions pour parvenir à un accord sur ce texte qui institutionnalise les rapports entre la CEE et les Etats-Unis et dont l'idée avait été lancée par M. Genscher et fut reprise pour le compte de la Communauté par son président en exercice, M. Andreotti.

Le projet butait sur trois points : une référence au GATT dont les Européens ne voulaient pas dans un texte destiné à durer plus longtemps que le conflit qui oppose actuellement sur le sujet les Etats-Unis et les Douze; une référence à la "stabilité financière" dont les Américains ne voulaient pas car ils considéraient qu'elle portait atteinte à l'indépendance de leur politique du dollar.

Enfin et surtout certaines modalités de concertation - notamment une concertation transatlantique préalable à la concertation entre les Douze - proposées par les Américains et qui étaient considérées par la France comme une volonté d'ingérence de Washington dans les affaires communautaires.

(Le Monde, 22-11-90)

*

Les huit collectifs regroupant la quasitotalité des associations françaises travaillant en solidarité avec le tiers-monde ont mis en place, le 25 septembre 1990, un Comité de liaison des organisations de solidarité internationale.

Ce comité ne remplace pas les collectifs, qui restent le lieu privilégié de l'action commune; il les complète, en constituant une plate-forme de concertation sur des questions qui préoccupent l'ensemble de la communauté des organisations non gouvernementales (ONG) françaises:

- Définir une nouvelle coopération de la France avec le tiers-monde et la mise en œuvre de l'aide publique par les ONG avec de nouveaux instruments.
- Stimuler les ONG elles-mêmes pour qu'elles développent une meilleure coordination de leurs actions dans les pays où elles interviennent.
- Préparer l'Europe de 1993, sous l'angle de la solidarité internationale.

Comité de liaison des organisations de solidarité internationale (CLOSI), 27, rue Blomet, 75015 Paris. -Tél : 47-83-50-46.

(Le Monde, 25-09-90)

*

APRODEV (Association of Protestant Development Organisations in Europe) was formed in March 1990 (first inaugural meeting) and open to World Council of Churches related agencies dealing mainly with Third World development issues.

APRODEV aims to:

- prepare the member organisations for the new reality of the Single European Act-1992;
- influence the decisions of the European Community on development policy, funding, and NGO activity wherever possible and appropriate;
- coordinate the work of its members in their relations within Europe and to reflect the aspirations of partner NGOs in the South;
- share more effectively information, experience, and skills between the member organisations both within and outside the Community.

One of APRODEV's first and main task will be to set up a "development data base" accessible via Modem (telephone line) to its members and, at a later stage, to any organisation interested.

The main office is based in Brussels since mid-November:
174, rue Joseph II, B-1040 Bruxelles
Tel: 0032/2.2310102 Fax: 0032/2.2311413

*

L'annexe au Moniteur Belge du 15 novembre 1990 publie les statuts de:

- Groupe de recherche européen en planning familial (GREPFA). Composé de personnes physiques ou morales, le Groupe a pour objet l'animation et la mise en place de projets d'activités et d'études dans le domaine du placement familial, en particulier pour adultes. Les membres fondateurs au nombre de 11, sont belges, français et néerlandais. Le président est Daniel Schurmans (Belg) et le secrétaire Jean Claude Cebula (Fr). Le Groupe bénéficie du régime de la loi belge du 25 octobre 1919.

Le siège est établi : Avenue Albert Elisabeth 64 bte 78, 1200 Bruxelles.

*

— Association européenne des juristes d'entreprise (EAJE ou ECLA). L'association a pour objet: la représentation de ses membres à l'échelon international et principalement européen, la création de centres d'études et de contacts en vue de favoriser les échanges d'information professionnelles entre ses membres. Le Président est Georges Carie (Pays-Bas), la secrétaire Mme Anne B Scheltema Beduin (Pays-Bas). Les trois autres membres du conseil d'administration sont belge, français et italien. L'association bénéficie du régime de la loi belge du 25 octobre 1919.

Le siège est établi: rue des Sols 8, 1000 Bruxelles.

*

On 22 September 1990, in Darmstadt (Germany), was founded the European League of Stuttering Associations (ELSA). The aims are to further the cooperation of European national stuttering associations and to provide an exchange of experiences and concepts in stuttering self-help, and therapies. European national stuttering self-help associations from 12 countries are adhering as members: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Sweden, United Kingdom.

Headquarters are located: c/o BV Stotterer-Selbsthilfe e.V., Kasparstr. 5, D-5000 Köln 1.

*

Huit personnes de huit nationalités forment le conseil d'administration d'une association récemment créée à Bruxelles: Women in Development Europe. Celle-ci a pour objet "dans le cadre de programmes de développement des ONG et en collaboration avec des organisations partenaires du Sud, de favoriser une meilleure prise

en considération de la situation des femmes dans les pays du tiers monde". La présidente est Mme Marie Van Der Veken (Belgique) et la secrétaire Mme Pauline Eccles (Irlande). Les autres nationalités représentées au sein du conseil sont: danoise, australienne, italienne, française, espagnole et néerlandaise.
Le siège est fixé: rue de Laeken 76, 1000 Bruxelles.

*

Unesco now has a privileged ear in Africa to keep the organization up to date with developments in the social sciences. The African Council for Social and Human Sciences (CASSH) came into being on September 1990 following a meeting of specialists from all over the continent in Harare (Zimbabwe).
It was set up on the initiative of Unesco, which has established similar councils in Asia and Latin America, and will act as an advisory body to the Organization.
The council is made up of representatives from non-governmental, subregional and regional social and human science institutions and organizations in Africa. Professor Lloyd M. Sachikonye, PH.D. in Law at the Institute of Development Studies in Harare has been appointed chairman of the new council.

*

L'annexe au Moniteur Belge du 22 novembre 1990 publie les statuts du Fonds international de développement solidaire (FIDES). Les membres fondateurs, sociologues, juristes, journalistes, au nombre de 48 appartiennent à 15 nationalités différentes : belge, burkinabé, sénégalaise, ivoirienne, zaïroise, britannique, camerounaise, indienne, malienne, allemande, grecque, française, chilienne, jamaïquaine et luxembourgeoise.
L'association a pour but: d'oeuvrer pour le développement économique des populations rurales les plus démunies de l'hémisphère sud, en manifestant une solidarité active avec ceux qui luttent pour l'amélioration de leur vie matérielle et de leur environnement naturel;
de susciter, encourager et entreprendre toute initiative propre à faire connaître les cultures, traditions et mœurs desdites populations, a leurs niveaux d'expression les plus significatifs; réciproquement, de diffuser la culture, les mœurs et traditions de l'hémisphère nord vers l'hémisphère sud;
de promouvoir la solidarité et l'esprit de partenariat dans le cadre du dialogue nord-sud, notamment au sein de la jeunesse;
d'encourager et récompenser toute initiative et tout effort, toute contribution, intellectuelle ou pratique, en matière de développement.
Le siège de l'association est fixé à la villa du Parc Tournay Solvay, Chaussée de la Hulpe 197, 1190 Bruxelles.

*

On 14 July in Copenhagen, the International Good Templar Youth Federation agreed to dissolve itself and to merge this youth federation in the International Organization of Good Templars. At the same time, it was decided to form a European Good Templar Youth Federation. Birgitta Eriksson (Sweden) is the first president. EGTYF is a federation of european youth organization within IOGT and is a regional council of IOGT. Organization for juniors, youth and adults have now equal rights in IOGT, and a new constitution has been adopted for the IOGT by the Congress. Since 1 October 1990, the IOGT international office is operating from St Ives, England.
(from *The* Globe Sept. 1990)

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Au cours d'une réunion tenue à Arusha (Tanzanie) du 9 au 12 juillet 1990, il a été décidé de créer l'Association des palais de congrès africains (APCA). Le bureau suivant a été élu pour une période deux ans:
Président: Edward Lowassa, centre de conférence de Arusha; Vice Président: Francis Gureme, Centre de conférence de l'Ouganda; Secrétaire général: Ibrahima Diagne, Centre de congrès de Dakar; Trésorier: Centre de conférence de Nairobi.
Pour participer au financement des infrastructures du grand marché, cinq établissements de crédit spécialisés dans le financement des collectivités publiques ont créé un Groupement européen d'intérêt économique(GEIE) dénommé "Crédit local d'Europe". Ce GEIE a commencé à fonctionner en septembre 1990. Il comprend le Crédit communal de Belgique, le Crédit local de France, la Deutsche Girozentrale-Deutsche Kommunalbank (Allemagne), le Consorzio di credito per le opère pubbliche (Italie) et le Banco de credito local de Espana. Le nouveau GEIE ambitionne de compléter les financements de la Banque européenne d'investissement.

*

1FSEA becomes IFSE. IFSEA was International Federation of Scientific Editors Associations, founded in 1978. They arranged international conferences, workshops and seminars and were instrumental in founding the African Association of Scientific Editors some years ago.
Recently IFSEA was changed in IFSE, *International Federation of Scientific Editors.* In IFSE membership is open to individuals interested in scientific edition all over the world as well as member associations and organizations involved in publication, and there will be a three-tiered board structure: an executive board, an advisory group, and representatives of organizations and associations.
The chief role of IFSE is to sharpen the awareness of the global and interdisciplinary nature of the communication of science and to aid effective information flow through improved editing and dissemination of scientific literature. President is Mirian Balaban, Treasurer is Gerda Helbig, (Netherlands)
Secretary is Shirley Peterson, The Wistar Institute of Anatomy and Biology, 36 Street at Spruce, Philadelphia, PA 19104-4268, USA.
(IASP Newsletter, Nov. 1990)

*

The establishment of an "economic security council" to bring major development issues within the framework of the United Nations was one of the ideas suggested on 24 October at a panel discussion at Headquarters sponsored by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).
The discussion, on "Development Challenges for the 1990s" was held to mark the fortieth anniversary of multilateral technical co-operation for development within the United Nations.
The initiator of the proposal, Mahbub Ul Haq, former Planning and Finance Minister of Pakistan and currently Special Adviser to the Administration of the United Nations Development

Programme (UNDP), said the 1990s might well become a decade of unprecedented opportunities if only the international community would have the vision and the courage to seize those opportunities.

For that purpose, he suggested that the United Nations be reformed to assume development leadership as well as political leadership. That reform should include the establishment of an economic security council that would include the veto power.

Other speakers stressed the need for greater co-operation between Governments within the United Nations, suggesting some type of elected parliamentary mechanism to facilitate that co-operation.

Among the participants in the panel discussion were Oscar Arias Sanchez, former President of Costa Rica and Nobel Peace Prize laureate, Lisbet Palme, Chairman of the Executive Board of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and William H. Draper III, UNDP Administrator.

(United Nations Information Service 25 October 1990).

*

En février 1990 a été fondé à Bruxelles European Cancer for Development and Supportive Therapy (Centre européen du cancer pour les traitements innovateurs et supportifs) par des médecins belges. L'objet du centre est de faciliter au sein de la Communauté européenne la coopération entre les médecins et les scientifiques des diverses disciplines touchant au cancer; il se propose notamment de créer en Europe un pôle d'intérêt pour l'étude et l'application de modalités thérapeutiques innovatrices du cancer. Le président est le docteur Jean Klastersky.

Le siège est établi 1, rue Heger-Bordet, 1000 Bruxelles.

*

Au milieu des festivités du bicentenaire de la Révolution française et en parallèle à la réunion du Sommet des 7 chefs d'Etat les plus riches, les sociétés civiles du Nord et du Sud ont réussi à faire entendre leurs voix et leurs propositions pour un monde plus solidaire. Un succès médiatique est une chose. La pérennité de la démarche en est une autre. C'est pourquoi les organisateurs du Sommet des peuples ont décidé la mise en place d'un observatoire de la démocratie internationale, observatoire permanent, international et indépendant, des décisions prises par le Sommet des 7 riches et par les institutions qu'ils contrôlent (en particulier Fonds monétaire international et Banque mondiale). La déclaration finale du Sommet des 7 peuples présente cette initiative comme *un lieu de vigilance, d'échanges* et d'élaboration de propositions entre les sociétés civiles du Nord et du Sud. Lieu où pourront se retrouver chercheurs, associations citoyennes et tous ceux qui souhaitent rénover les propositions avancées depuis la décolonisation et les adapter à la situation actuelle qui voit croître la prééminence des institutions internationales dans les décisions qui concernent les peuples du Sud.

L'Observatoire rassemblera les propositions de la société civile internationale dans le but de définir d'autres voies en matière de développement, de conditions de vie, de protection de l'environnement et de démocratie. Deux directions:

- des rencontres entre des centres recherches et associations citoyennes permettant de construire des programmes conjoints Nord-Sud.
- une action médiatique importante par des publications dans les revues spécialisées en économie et développement et dans la grande presse lors des contre-sommets. L'Observatoire favorise les recherches menées par les institutions universitaires et scientifiques, centres de recherche et associations citoyennes du Nord et du Sud, en vue de lancer de études sur les désicions du Sommet des 7, de la Banque mondiale et du FMI, en particulier leurs conséquences socio-économiques sur le peuples du Sud.
- Le comité d'orientation sera chargé de fournir une liste de thèmes de recherche pour que des universités les inscrivent à leur programme.
- On demandera la diffusion des recherches en cours qui peuvent rentrer dans la problématique de l'Observatoire (français, anglais et espagnol).
- Un appel d'offres aux étudiants préparant une thèse ou un mémoire, et le lancement d'un "prix de l'Observatoire".

L'Observatoire se charge de publier un rapport annuel présenté lors des réunions du Sommet des 7 et des Assemblées générales du FMI et de la Banque Mondiale.

Chaque année, plusieurs thèmes seront retenus en fonction des critiques que la société civile fait de la déclaration finale des "7 Grands" mais aussi en fonction des propositions mises en œuvre par les réseaux non-gouvernementaux. Cette évaluation servira de base à la préparation des contre-sommets.

Associations citoyennes, centres de recherche, individus peuvent participer et présenter des contributions sur les thèmes retenus. La synthèse du rapport est faite par un comité de lecture et le secrétariat. (17 place de l'Argonne, 75019 Paris, France)

(IFDA Dossier 77, mai-juin, 1990)

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The *World Economie Survey* published by the United Nations Department of International Economic and Social Affairs (document E/1990/55) propose the establishment of a Central European Payments Union.akin to the European Payments Union set up after the Second World War, as a temporary measure to assist the reforming Eastern European countries in their transition to market-oriented economy with fully convertible currencies.

The Payments Union would receive all inter-member claims for payments for imports. At the end of each accounting period, say a month, the Union would clear all claims and the balances would be settled through a combination of hard currency payments and claims on the Union.

Surplus countries would receive a larger share of hard currency than deficit countries would pay, encouraging intra-regional exports. Overtime, an increasing proportion of the imbalances would be settled in hard currency payments themselves until, at the end of the Union, all payments would be made in hard currency, making the Union redundant.

The currency unit of the European Monetary System of the European Community might serve as the currency unit of the Payments Union. Such a choice would invite the community to assume a major role in financing the Union's initial capital, estimated to be small, and seeing to its success. The countries on the fastest reform track - Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Hungary and Poland -would be more likely to become initial members of the Union.

*

Le 10 mai 1990 a été signé officiellement l'accord d'établissement concrétisant la décision du conseil de l'Agence spatiale européenne (ESA) de créer à Cologne un Centre européen des spationautes (EAC).

Par ailleurs l'ESA et la Deutsch Forschungsaustalt für Luft und Raumfah (DLR) ont conclu un accord de soutien concernant ce nouveau centre dont les travaux de réalisation débuteront fin 1991, et qui pourra accueillir environ 70 personnes en 1993.

L'avis de recrutement de spationautes européens sera prochainement lancé et le premier groupe, après une sélection préliminaire par les Etats membres, prendra son service auprès de l'ESA à la mi-91. La sélection définitive aura lieu sous l'autorité du directeur général. L'objectif visé est qu'au moins un ressortissant de chaque Etat membre fasse partie de ce corps. Afin de répondre aux impératifs de formation groupée, il est prévu de recruter les spationautes par contingents en 1991 et 1993.

Le centre qui, bénéficiera d'un certain nombre de moyens et installations répartis dans l'Europe pour des formations spécifiques, prévoit l'utilisation d'avions pour permettre aux spécialistes d'HERMES d'entretenir leurs compétences et assurer des vols paraboliques offrant des conditions d'impesanteur.

En ce qui concerne les tâches spécifiques concernant l'avion spatial, les spationautes utiliseront principalement le complexe de formation H (HTC) à Toulouse et le centre d'entraînement des pilotes (PTF) à Bruxelles.

Pour la formation spécialisée dans les activités extra-véhiculaires, les moyens de la Comex à Marseille seront utilisés.

En robotique et télémanipulation, la formation aura lieu à l'Estec (Centre européen de Recherche et de Technologie Spatiale) à Noordwijk (Pays-Bas).

(La lettre du CNES, n°128, juin '90)

*

The founding meeting of the World Scout Parliamentary Union (WSPU) was held in March in Seoul, Republic of Korea. Sixteen parliamentarians from seven countries participated in the meeting.

The aim of WSPU is to establish an international network of parliamentarians who have been Scouts, or are Scout leaders, to support Scouting at both national and international levels.

The Union will establish liaison and cooperation between national Scout parliamentary groups, and will encourage the creation of nem national groups. National Scout parliamentary groups already exist in some countries (e.g. Great Britain, Japan and Korea).

The Korean Scout Parliamentary Group, chaired by Hon. Kirn Chong-Hoh, has playend an instrumental role in setting up WSPU. It recovered the expenses of participants for the Founding meeting. The inaugural general assembly of WSPU is scheduled to take place in South Korea in August n 1991, on the occasion of the 17th World Jamboree.

(World Scouting News, May 1990).

*

Le 23 mars 1990 a été créée à Bruxelles la Middle East Arabs Association qui a pour objet de consolider et faciliter les liens entre ressortissants d'origine arabe (Moyen-Orient), résidant en Belgique d'une part et les populations du reste du monde d'autre part. L'association se défend d'appartenir à quelque tendance politique ou obédience religieuse que ce soit. Le président est Mme Nawal Abdullan.

Le siège est établi Van De Reydtlaan 99, 2160 Brecht, Belgique.

*

European Foundation for Law and Economies est une association fondée en Belgique (Sint Katelijne Waver) le 18 mars 1990. Elle a pour objet de promouvoir la recherche dans les domaines du droit et de l'économie et de collaborer avec la « European Association of Law and Economies ». Les trois personnes fondatrices sont de nationalité belge, néerlandaise et suédoise, ces deux dernières étant antenne de l'association dans leur pays respectif.

Le siège est établi: Uzerenveld 165, B-2580 Sint-Katelijne-Waver, Belgique.

*

L'Association européenne pour l'enseignement de la théorie du droit AEETD (European Association for the Teaching of Legal Theory EATLT) a pour objet de grouper les personnes, universités et autres institutions en Europe qui sont chargées de l'enseignement de la théorie du droit. Le conseil est composé de cinq professeurs d'université de Belgique, d'Espagne, d'Angleterre et d'Italie.

Le siège est établi: Boulevard du Jardin Botanique 43, 1000 Bruxelles.

L'assocation est régie par la loi belge du 25 octobre 1919,

(Annexe au *M.B.,* 27 sept. **1990)**

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L'Annexe au Moniteur Belge du 6 septembre 1990 annonce la création de:

— la Fédération internationale des associations nationales du droit de l'informatique (créée en 1989). Elle a pour objet de *«susciter des échanges de vues scientifiques sur le développement et sur l'impact juridique, économique et social du droit de l'informatique et de l'informatique juridique».* Ses membres sont des personnes morales. Le conseil d'administration comprend 4 personnes de 4 nationalités différentes (allemande, belge, britannique et néerlandaise). Le président est le Dr. Klaus-Albert Bauer (All) et le secrétaire général Mme Sabine Denis-Dinnekens (Belg). La fédération bénéficie du régime de la loi belge du 25 octobre 1919.
Le siège est établi : *Avenue Louise 391 bte 11, 1050 Bruxelles.*

— la Fédération européenne des ambulances animalières (FEAA), créée le 1er décembre 1989. Actuellement les administrateurs sont tous de nationalité belge.
Le siège est fixé : rue Léon Dopéré 22, 1090 Bruxelles.

— l'European Smokeless Tobacco Council. L'association a pour objet *« d'aider les membres à se conformer aux exigences juridiques et techniques applicables à leur produit en vertu du droit local, national, européen et international, essentiellement en dédiant une attention particulière à tout type d'actions ou de législations susceptibles d'affecter la fabrication et la distribution du tabac sans fumée en Europe et en tenant ses membres informés à ce sujet.*
Le siège est établi: avenue Roger Vandendriessche 5, 1050 Bruxelles.

Corrigenda

Dans l'article «A Bruxelles — Qui fait quoi dans le secteur bénévole? », p. 288 du numéro précédent *d'Associations transnationales* (n°5), une erreur de montage a fait disparaître la Direction générale V du tableau des fonctions remplies par les différentes commissions de la Communauté dans le secteur bénévole. Le passage concerné doit se lire comme suit:

Vasso Papandreou (née en 1944), responsable de l'emploi, des relations industrielles et des affaires sociales, des ressources humaines, de l'éducation et de la formation. Après avoir enseigné l'économie en Grande Bretagne puis à l'Université d'Athènes, elle dirigea une organisation pour PME et fut élue au Parlement. Elle devint ministre de l'industrie et des technologies, ensuite ministre du Commerce, avant de rejoindre la Commission. Elle est l'auteur de nombreux livres et publications.

DG V
Directeur général: *Jean Degimbe*
— Europe contre le cancer et autres questions de santé: Michel Richonnier — Droits de la femme: Claire Mandouze — Action sociale, pauvreté, personnes âgées; Odile Quintin — Handicapés: Bernhard Wehrens — Santé et sécurité: William Hunter — «Task force» pour l'éducation: Hywel Jones.

Ray MacSharry (né en 1938), responsable de l'agriculture et du développement rural. Ancien ministre de l'agriculture puis des finances, ancien membre du Parlement européen. Il met l'accent sur ses racines locales et sur les aspects de politique rurale dans la politique agricole commune (PAC).

DG VI
Directeur général : *Guy Legras*
— Législation vétérinaire, pesticides: Joachim Heine, Gerald Hudson — Organisation des marchés agricoles (tabac et alcool compris) et (depuis peu) développement rural : Graham Avery — Relations avec les ONG : Jean-Louis Giraudy.

Manuel Marin (né en 1949), vice-président, responsable de la coopération au développement. Il a mené une carrière européenne en tant que ministre responsable de l'entrée de l'Espagne dans la CEE, avant de rejoindre la Commission en 1986, où il a d'abord obtenu le portefeuille des affaires sociales.

DG VIII
Directeur général : *Dieter Frisch*
— Unités responsables des pays ACP (Afrique, Caraïbes et Pacifique}, de l'aide alimentaire et du cofinancement des projets avec les ONG : Anton Reithinger.

Jean Dondelinger (né en 1930), responsable de l'audiovisuel et des affaires culturelles, de l'information et de l'Europe des citoyens. Autre membre ayant une carrière européenne avec une longue expérience au COREPER comme représentant luxembourgeois. H s'est occupé de la politique audiovisuelle de son pays avant de rejoindre la Commission.

DG X
Directeur général : *Colette Flesch*
— Coordination des bureaux d'information de la Commission: Robert Cox — Europe des citoyens: Enrica Varese — Femmes: Fausta Deshormes.

In the previous issue (5/90) of *Transnational Associations,* the article "EEC Cooperatives and the Dynamics of Change in Europe" was authored by S.K. Saxena, not B.K. Saxena as printed in that issue (pp. 249 and 272).

Nouvelles de nos membres -

C'est le 30 octobre 1990, à la veille de fêter ses 92 ans, que s'est éteint l'éminent démographe français, Alfred Sauvy. Sociologue, statisticien, économiste, il s'était spécialisé dans l'étude des populations. Il était membre de l'UAI depuis 1974. A sa famille, à ses amis, nous disons nos sentiments de sympathie attristée et de vive admiration pour l'œuvre accomplie.

Adama Dieng, juriste sénégalais, membre de l'UAI, a été nommé en octobre dernier, secrétaire général de la Commission internationale de juristes. Agé de 40 ans, Dieng a été consultant notamment pour l'Unesco, l'Unitar, la Fondation Ford,l'Agence de coopération culturelle et technique, le CICR; il est membre de plusieurs centres et associations internationales se préoccupant des droits de l'homme; il avait pris une part active au Colloque africain de l'UAI en 1984. Nous nous réjouissons de cette nomination et souhaitons à M. Dieng le meilleur succès dans ses nouvelles responsabilités auprès de la Commission internationale de juristes, organisation internationale non gouvernementale qui jouit d'un grand respect dans les milieux juridiques et internationaux.

***Les associations et l'Europe. Pour** un plan d'action en faveur des activités associatives : facteur de **développement d'une Communauté** plus solidaire.* Avis et rapport remis au gouvernement **français par le Conseil** national de **la** vie **associative** (CNVA), **publié par La Documentation** française, **Paris, 1989.**

L'ouvrage publié sous ce titre comporte essentiellement le rapport établi (*) parle Conseil national (français) de la vie associative (CNVA) à la demande du gouvernement français. Depuis 1987, le CNVA conduit une réflexion sur les associations dans l'espace européen, notamment lors des colloques qu'il a organisés en mars 1987 et 1988. En 1989, le gouvernement français a saisi le Conseil, lui demandant d'identifier les obstacles rencontrés par les associations et de formuler des propositions pour leur permettre de se développer dans le cadre communautaire.

Après avoir déploré l'absence de tout statut juridique international, les auteurs montrent que, malgré les obstacles d'ordre également fiscal et financier et l'interprétation restrictive du droit communautaire en matière associative, les associations sont parvenues à se faire reconnaître *de facto* comme acteurs de la construction européenne dans plusieurs secteurs. Les exemples relatifs aux directives et règlements, qui font référence aux domaines des assurances, des aides à l'emploi et des politiques d'aide industrielle, ne laissent pas de doute quant aux discriminations dont souffrent les associations européennes par rapport aux entreprises du secteur marchand. Le stéréotype selon lequel les associations bénéficieraient de privilèges par rapport à d'autres formes d'entreprise se voit ici battu en brèche : il apparaît au contraire que les premières se voient de plus en plus pénalisées par une construction européenne qui, au nom de la libre concurrence, accorde la priorité aux objectifs économiques et commerciaux.

La deuxième partie de l'ouvrage énumère une série de propositions. L'harmonisation des législations nationales pourrait se faire sur la base du statut européen des associations (actuellement étudié par la Commission), mais aussi par la ratification de la Convention du Conseil de l'Europe sur la reconnaissance de la personnalité juridique des organisations internationales non gouvernementales.

Sur le plan fiscal et financier, le CNVA propose que soient facilités les montages financiers des projets associatifs transnationaux, de même que les financements publics et privés. Liées à l'harmonisation juridique et surtout à la reconnaissance de la personnalité juridique des associations, ces dernières propositions devraient être appuyées par la création d'un «fonds européen de la vie associative ».

Ces diverses propositions pourraient être reprises, concluent les auteurs en faisant référence au programme d'action en faveur des PME, dans un plan d'action global qui leur assurerait permanence et cohérence au niveau communautaire.

P. Ghils

(*) **Le** rapport **proprement** dit **a** été rédigé par François **Coursin,** dont **l'article** publié dans le numéro 5 *d'Associations transnationales* en reprenait les idées essentielles.

New International Organizations
Nouvelles organisations internationales
INDEX 1990

Dans chacun des six numéros de l'année 1990, nous avons publié une chronique intitulée a New... Plans... » qui donne les informations reçues de sources diverses concernant la création ou le projet de création de nouvelles organisations internationales. Pour aider les utilisateurs, nous en donnons ci-dessous un index selon le mot clé principal avec référence au numéro et page de la revue. Dans la majorité des cas, ces organisations n'ont pu encore prendre place dans notre Yearbook *(dernière édition : 1990-91).*

In each of the six issues for the year 1990, a regular feature has been published under the title « New... Plans... » which gives information received from various sources about new, or plans for new, international organizations. With a view to facilitating research, a subject index is given below covering this feature and referring to the number and page in *Transnational Associations* 1990. It should be addel that, in the majority of cases, these organizations are not yet described or mentioned in the UIA *Yearbook* (latest edition : 1990-91).

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