

# Transnational Associations

The review of the Union of International Associations



2/99

La protection  
des ONG  
en mission périlleuse

The role of ONG's  
in the Unesco system

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## Associations transnationales

La revue de l'Union des associations internationales

## Transnational Associations Associations transnationales

Transnational Associations is a unique bilingual journal whose aim is to deal with major current problems within the perspective of international nongovernmental organizations. It is intended to provide a forum for authoritative information and independent reflection on the increasing role played by these organizations in the international System, and on its philosophical, political, economic or cultural implications.

The approach is intrinsically interdisciplinary, and calls for both specialist expertise and practitioner experience in transnational association matters. Transnational Associations provides background information about the actions and achievements of international associations, and insight into their interrelations with intergovernmental organizations. It covers a wide range of topics, among which social organization, humanitarian law, scientific cooperation, language and culture, economic development, to cite just a few.

The programme of the review, in accordance with the principles of the UIA, clarifies general awareness concerning the association phenomenon within the framework of international relations and, in particular, informs associations about aspects of the problems which they tend to share or which are of common interest to them. Contributors to the journal review include association officers, research workers and specialists of association questions who engage only themselves.

Founded in Brussels in 1907 as the Central Office of International Associations, the UIA became a federation under the present name in 1910 at the 1st World Congress of International Associations. Activities were closely associated with the Institut international de bibliographie, which later became the International Federation for Documentation. Its work contributed to the création of the League of Nations and the International Institute of Intellectual Coopération (the predecessor of UNESCO). During the 1920s, the UIA created an International University, the first of its kind.

The UIA has consultative relations with UNESCO, UN/ECOSOC, and ILO. It collaborates with PAO, the Council of Europe, UNITAR, and the Commonwealth Science Council.

Associations transnationales est la seule revue traitant des grands problèmes contemporains dans la perspective des organisations internationales non gouvernementales. Elle se propose d'apporter des éléments d'information provenant des sources les plus autorisées, propres à susciter une réflexion indépendante sur l'affirmation du rôle joué par ces acteurs dans le système international et sur les aspects philosophiques, politiques, sociaux et culturels de cette évolution.

La visée adoptée est essentiellement interdisciplinaire et fait appel au savoir comme à la pratique des spécialistes du champ d'action des associations transnationales. Les documents, articles et études publiés par Associations transnationales traitent également des liens établis entre celles-ci et les organisations intergouvernementales. Les domaines couverts s'étendent aux problèmes de société, au droit humanitaire, à la coopération scientifique, aux questions linguistiques et culturelles, au développement économique ou à tout phénomène affectant la vie de ces associations.

Le programme de la revue, conformément aux buts de l'UIA, vise à éclairer l'opinion sur la signification de la dimension associative des relations internationales, notamment en informant les associations au sujet des questions qui relèvent de leurs domaines ou affectent leurs intérêts communs. Les textes des auteurs publiés par la revue (dirigeants d'associations, chercheurs et spécialistes des questions associatives) réengagent que leur opinion.

L'UIA a été créée officiellement en 1910 à Bruxelles au cours du premier congrès mondial des associations internationales. Ses fondateurs, le Sénateur Henri La Fontaine, prix Nobel de la Paix 1913 et Paul Otlet, Secrétaire général de l'Institut international de bibliographie, avaient mis sur pied en 1907 l'«Office central des institutions internationales» auquel l'UIA succéda sous la forme de fédération. En 1914, elle regroupait 230 organisations, soit un peu plus de la moitié de celles qui existaient à l'époque. L'UIA devait incarner, dans l'esprit de ses fondateurs, les aspirations internationalistes et les idéaux de paix qui animaient les associations et qui allaient aboutir en 1920 à la création de la Société des Nations.

L'UIA a obtenu le statut consultatif auprès de l'ECOSOC, de l'UNESCO et de l'OIT. Elle collabore avec l'UNITAR, la FAO et le Conseil de l'Europe. Elle entretient des relations générales et ponctuelles avec les organisations régionales.

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Transnational Associations  
Associations transnationales

# La protection des ONG en mission périlleuse

per Mario Bettati\*

Consciente des problèmes croissants de sécurité auxquels sont confrontées les ONG dans leurs actions humanitaires et autres, l'UAI a décidé de procéder à une étude sur la protection des ONG en mission périlleuse à partir d'une évaluation concrète de la situation sur le terrain telle qu'elle était perçue par les intéressées elles-mêmes. A cette fin un questionnaire a été établi sous notre direction scientifique avec le concours de notre équipe de l'Université Paris 2 et en coopération avec le groupe de travail de l'Union des Associations Internationales.

Parmi les ONG qui ont répondu<sup>1)</sup>, certaines ont indiqué que leurs activités ne les conduisaient pas à assurer des « missions périlleuses ». Elles n'étaient donc pas confrontées aux problèmes faisant l'objet du questionnaire et, du même coup, dans l'impossibilité de fournir les renseignements demandés. D'autres, comme une importante organisation humanitaire, nous a objecté qu'elle ne se considérait pas comme une ONG et, bien que l'on sache qu'elle avait eu à connaître de graves problèmes de sécurité, ne souhaitait pas répondre à nos questions. Celles qui ont accepté d'y répondre de façon détaillée ont parfois joint à leur grille des documents indiquant le statut, les principales activités et/ou un bref historique de leurs missions.

Compte tenu des objectifs poursuivis qui ont déterminé la structure du questionnaire, il était naturel que chaque ONG opère plusieurs choix pour chaque type de question. L'exploitation informatique des résultats fait donc apparaître

des proportions sur des quantités ou des valeurs absolues variables en fonction de la question ouverte posée et de la distribution du nombre des réponses, elle-même variable selon les sujets. L'analyse qu'on va lire suit l'ordre des questions et reprend les intitulés qui avaient été adoptés dans le questionnaire.

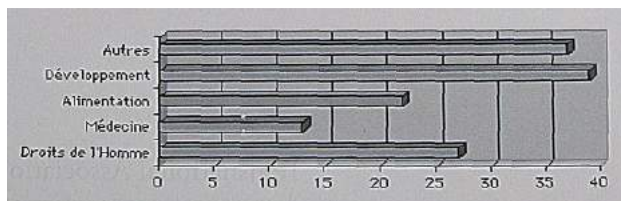
## I. Votre domaine d'activité

Le questionnaire invitait les ONG interrogées à distinguer leur secteur d'activité de la zone dans laquelle elles opéraient.

### A. Votre secteur d'activité

En ce qui concerne la spécialité opérationnelle des ONG étudiées, les réponses montrent une nette prédominance de l'aide au développement. Ce constat s'amplifie si on y ajoute celles des réponses qui ont été classées comme « autres » et parmi lesquelles on trouve l'agriculture, la reconstruction, l'assainissement, le déminage ou l'environnement. Il conviendrait également d'amplifier la rubrique « droits de l'homme » puisque certaines ONG ont fait figurer dans la catégorie « autres » l'activité qu'elles mènent auprès des réfugiés, des migrants et des personnes déplacées ou des journalistes. Cette redistribution ne changerait pas le classement initial qui met en tête le développement et les droits de l'homme dès lors que l'on met à part les secteurs « autres », qui serait largement réduit par la redistribution. Les activités de défense des

Secteur d'activité



<sup>1)</sup> Professeur à l'Université Paris 2.

1) Un peu moins d'une centaine de réponses ont été reçues. Les questionnaires ont été envoyés à 440 associations internationales, il y a eu 98 réponses, soit 22,27 %.

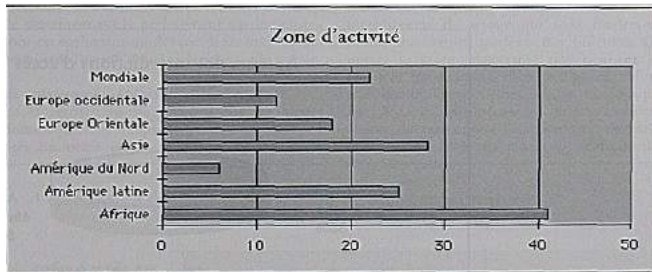
droits de l'homme sont - sous réserve de la compensation indiquée précédemment - en second rang parmi celles des ONG préoccupées par l'insécurité. Ce que confirme la récente résolution de la commission des droits de l'homme des Nations Unies, qui devrait être reprise par l'Assemblée générale, sur la protection des protecteurs des droits fondamentaux de la personne humaine.

On observe que les ONG qui déclarent avoir des activités médicales sont finalement les moins nombreuses ce qui tempère l'effet de forte visibilité dont elles bénéficient dans l'opinion publique portée à les croire davantage exposées parce que plus spécialement en première ligne dans les zones de conflit.

latine. La première recevant, à elle seule presque le double de l'activité par rapport à chacune des deux autres.

## II. Typologie des incidents dont VOTRE association a été victime depuis 1990

Dans cette rubrique, les associations interrogées étaient invitées à distinguer les actes d'obstruction au bon déroulement de la mission dont l'effet était simplement d'en retarder, d'en différer ou d'en compliquer l'exécution, des actes de violence dirigés contre les biens ou les personnes qui produisaient les mêmes effets mais



### B. Votre zone d'activité

Les résultats obtenus par le sondage en ce qui concerne la localisation des activités des ONG et donc implicitement la localisation des risques - puisque les associations qui ont répondu sont celles qui sont en proie à des problèmes de protection de leurs membres ou de leurs biens - ne doivent pas surprendre.

Ce n'est, en effet, pas dans les pays de l'Europe occidentale ou en Amérique du Nord que les besoins humanitaires, de défense des droits de l'homme ou en alimentation sont les plus aigus, même si les opérations qui s'y déroulent sont loin d'être négligeables. Il n'est, par conséquent, pas étonnant de constater une forte proportion d'activités en Afrique, en Asie et en l'Amérique

avec des conséquences beaucoup plus graves sur le plan humain et matériel pour ce qui concerne la vulnérabilité des actions.

### A. Actes d'obstruction au bon déroulement de la mission

Ils peuvent être de diverses natures. De l'interdiction d'accès aux victimes aux obstacles administratifs à l'accès, en passant par les obstacles à la livraison de biens et de fournitures et les restrictions à la faculté d'aller et venir.

#### a) interdiction d'accès aux victimes

Bien que sur le plan humanitaire, la nature des conflits ait changé et qu'ils mettent aux prises davantage de mouvements de rébellion que de

forces étatiques, il est clair que dans les autres domaines d'activité - notamment l'aide au développement ou la défense des droits de l'homme - les autorités étatiques demeurent les principaux interlocuteurs. Il n'est donc pas surprenant qu'elles soient la source principale de difficultés d'accès.

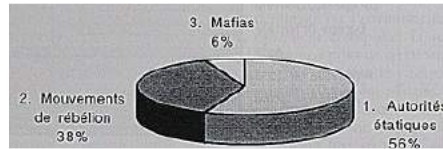
#### b) obstacles administratifs à l'accès aux victimes

Les ONG sont devenues une source de profit pour un grand nombre d'acteurs, notamment - mais pas seulement - dans les pays en développement. L'opulence, parfois ostentatoire de leurs moyens, les distributions auxquelles elle se livrent, les stocks qu'elles constituent à cette fin, sont autant de tentation pour les agents publics

à la frontière. On remarque que cette dernière est relativement moins fréquente tandis que le refus de visas constitue encore une difficulté considérable.

Les Nations Unies ont, depuis le début des années 1990, à de nombreuses reprises, exigé le libre accès de l'aide humanitaire aux victimes, à l'occasion des divers conflits internes dont elles ont eu à connaître. On sait, par exemple que le Conseil de sécurité a adopté, entre 1990 et octobre 1998, 114 résolutions dans ce sens. Les formulations de ces résolutions varient mais leur contenu est analogue à celle utilisée dans la Résolution 1193 du 28 août 1998 relative à l'Afghanistan où il "... Exige de toutes les factions afghanes, en particulier les Taliban, qu'elles fassent tout ce qui est possible pour garantir la

### Auteurs des interdictions d'accès



ou privés qui détiennent fusse une parcelle de pouvoir et qui en usent pour tirer quelques avantages matériels par prélèvement. Cela explique que les obstacles les plus fréquemment évoqués soient la rétention prolongée à un check-point et la demande de paiement. La seconde étant, le plus souvent, formulée à l'occasion de la première. Ce sont les deux obstacles les plus fréquents.

Mais les obstacles administratifs ne sont pas toujours dictés par la cupidité. Il se peut également que, soit pour des raisons politiques, soit pour des raisons bureaucratiques les associations se heurtent à des refus de visa ou des rétentions

sécurité et la liberté de circulation du personnel des Nations Unies et des autres organisations internationales et humanitaires "...<sup>3</sup>

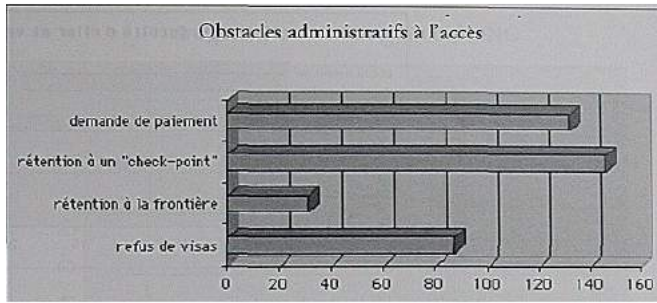
#### c) obstacles à la livraison des biens et fournitures

D'emblée il apparaît que ce sont les formalités administratives qui, de loin, sont les principales sources d'entrave à la livraison de biens et fournitures. Elles sont d'autant plus redoutées par les associations, que leur secteur d'activité les conduit à œuvrer dans l'urgence.

En second rang, et cette constatation recoupe celle que nous avons dressée dans l'histogramme

2) Les pays ou situations concernés par ces 114 résolutions du Conseil de sécurité relatives à l'accès aux victimes sont: Afghanistan, Albanie, Angola, Burundi, ex-Yougoslavie, Géorgie, Golfe, Haut-Karabakh, Libéria, Mozambique, République centrafricaine, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalie, Tadjikistan, Yémen, Zaïre.

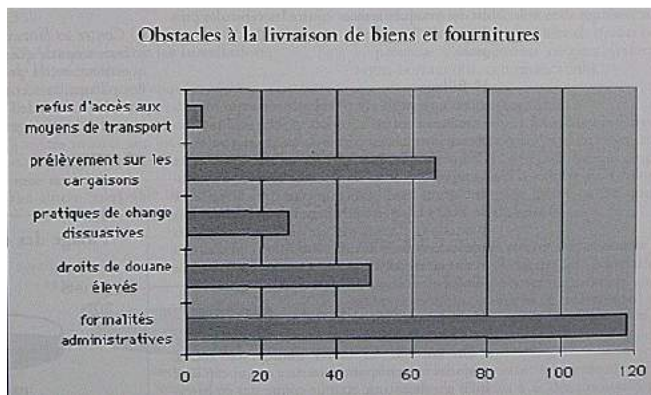


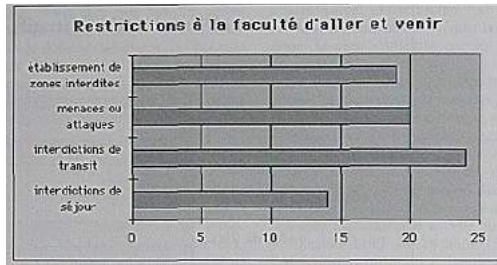


précédent, la « taxation », c'est à dire la demande de versement ou le prélèvement sur les cargaisons est également un des incidents majeurs qui pénalisent l'action des associations sur le terrain.

d) restrictions à la faculté d'aller et venir  
Ces restrictions ne revêtent pas un aspect dominant. Elles se répartissent de manière à peu près uniforme entre les différentes catégories

d'entraves, avec un point bas concernant les interdictions de séjour qui sont finalement moins nombreuses que les autres difficultés. On notera la place importante que tiennent les menaces ou attaques. Elles soulignent, s'il en était besoin, l'ampleur des risques encourus par les ONG et leur personnel. Enfin, troisième source de restrictions l'établissement de zones interdites est, on le sait, tantôt le fait d'autorités





nationales ou locales, tantôt de factions qui contrôlent une région.

## B. Violences dirigées contre les biens

On distinguera violences contre les convois, et violences sur les locaux.

### a) contre les convois

Il convient de distinguer le pillage proprement dit des attaques armées contre les véhicules puis de définir les grandes catégories de dommages subis.

#### 1° Pillage

Les auteurs de ces pillages se répartissent uniformément entre autorités publiques, mouvements insurgés et criminels de droit commun. Ce qui signifie donc que les autorités publiques ne représentent qu'un tiers des sources d'insécurité ce qui rend beaucoup plus difficile la tâche de l'O.N.U. qui souhaiterait leur adresser des injonctions, dans la mesure où, tant les insurgés que les criminels de droit commun sont d'autant moins contrôlables par les pouvoirs publics que l'État est faible ou déliquescant.

#### 2° Attaques contre les véhicules de l'association

On sait que les ONG utilisent en grande majorité les transports terrestres ce qui explique qu'il n'y ait aucune attaque contre des embarcations. Il y en a deux seulement contre des héli-

coptères et deux contre des avions. Cette différence et le reste des résultats n'appellent pas de commentaire.

### 3° Type de dommages subis par les convois

La répartition des dommages en fonction du degré d'atteinte a fourni également des renseignements qui se suffisent à eux mêmes. On remarquera la part importante des destructions totales (28%) face aux destructions partielles (43%).

### b) Contre les locaux

Trois séries de questions étaient posées dans le questionnaire, la première relative aux auteurs des pillages, la seconde sur les attaques contre des installations de l'association, la troisième sur le type de dommages subis.

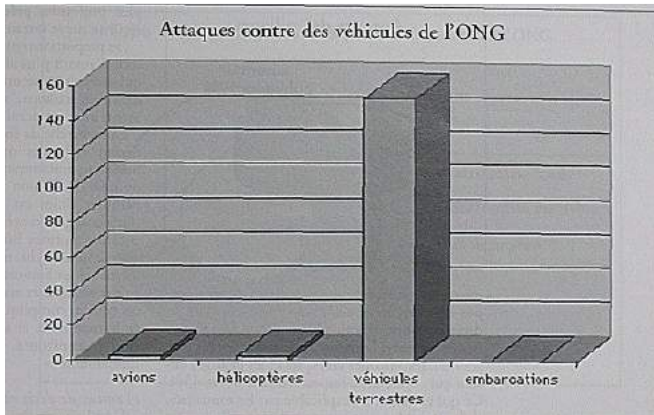
#### 1°) Pillage

Les résultats sont sensiblement ici différents de ceux relatifs aux auteurs d'actes contre les

#### Pillage des convois (auteurs)



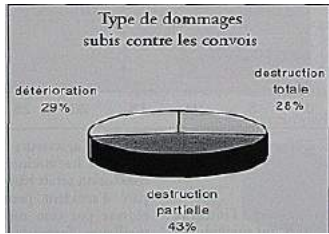




convois. La part des autorités publiques y est beaucoup plus réduite (19% contre 34%). Celle des insurgés nettement plus élevée (50% contre 36)

**2° Attaques contre les installations de l'association**

Les éléments de l'enquête révèlent une forte dominance des attaques contre logements et les bureaux. Compte tenu de l'extrême variété des activités menées par les ONG questionnées, il est hasardeux de dire que les objectifs des atta-



quants sont davantage politiques que crapuleux ou inspirés par le lucre. Mais il n'est pas exclu non plus que cette cible soit visée à la fois en sa qualité de centre de décision et de représentation de l'association et comme source de profits liés à la présence d'équipements coûteux (informatique, bureautique, communication).

**3° Type de dommages subis**

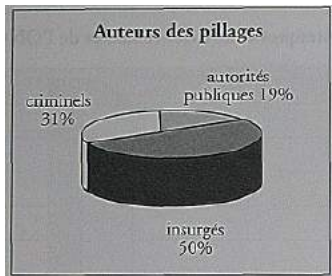
Les réponses fournissent les mêmes indications que pour ce qui concerne les dommages subis par les convois, à 2 ou 3% près. Ce qui est parfaitement cohérent dans la mesure où la vulnérabilité est sensiblement de même nature que les biens soient fixes ou mobiles.

**C. Violences dirigées contre les personnes**

Le questionnaire invitait les associations consultées à fournir des renseignements quant aux arrestations, détentions et enlèvements; aux atteintes à l'intégrité, et aux causes de décès ou de blessures.

**a) Arrestation - détentions - enlèvements**

Les réponses relatives à la détermination des auteurs d'arrestations, de détentions et d'enlève-



ments ne concordent pas avec celles reçues à propos des convois et des locaux. Les criminels de droit commun y sont plus de deux fois moins fréquemment à l'origine de ces actes sur les personnels, les autorités étatiques et les insurgés taillant part égale avec respectivement 43 et 45%. Ce qui est aisément explicable par les modalités, la finalité et les conséquences de ces enlèvements qui sont davantage à la portée de structures à vocation politique et dotées d'un appareil orga-

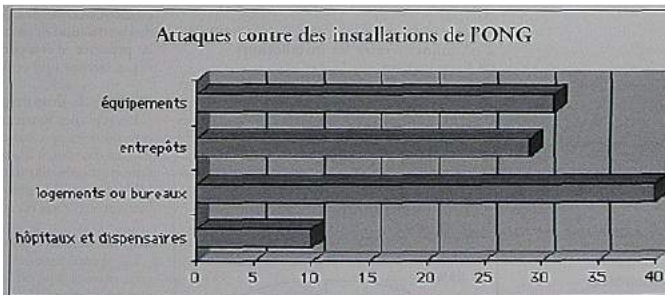
plus profondes préoccupations en matière de sécurité sur le terrain.

Les proportions entre les cinq catégories retenues sont d'autant plus alarmantes que les homicides qui arrivent en seconde position, après les traitements dégradants, sont très nombreux et forment, avec ces derniers, l'essentiel des atteintes.

La recherche de solutions de la part des ONG rejoint celle des organisations intergouvernementales, notamment celle des Nations Unies<sup>3</sup> ou celle de l'Union Européenne. Le constat des Nations Unies est transposable aux organisations non gouvernementales : « L'érosion du respect des normes humanitaires a provoqué une augmentation du nombre de victimes civiles; intensifié les besoins de protection et d'assistance des réfugiés et autres personnes touchées par un conflit; compliqué la fourniture de l'assistance humanitaire; et accru les risques auxquels se trouve confronté le personnel d'assistance humanitaire. »

#### c) causes de décès ou de blessures

Dominées par les tirs d'armes automatiques et les accidents, les causes de décès ou de blessures semblent suivre une répartition presque égale



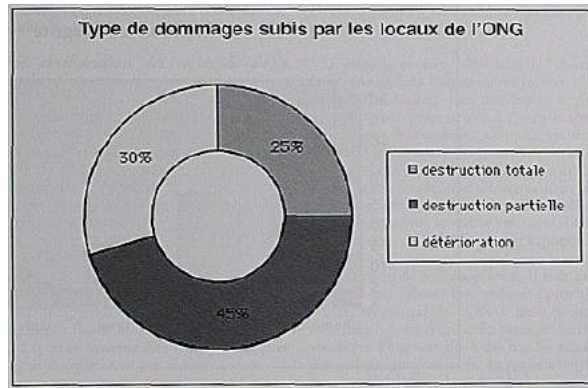
<sup>3</sup> Cf. Rapport du secrétaire général sur la protection des activités d'assistance humanitaire aux réfugiés et autres personnes touchées par un conflit, S/1998/883 du 22 septembre 1998.

nique et institutionnel doté d'un minimum de structure de pouvoir.

#### b) Atteintes à l'intégrité

Ce sont évidemment les atteintes à l'intégrité qui sont les plus graves et celles qui suscitent les

entre les agresseurs et les agressés en ce qui concerne les atteintes physiques subies. Cette conclusion serait hâtive et inexacte. En effet si la part d'accident peut, incontestablement être réduite par une meilleure préparation et une meilleure formation des agents des ONG



envoyés sur le terrain (et on sait que presque toutes travaillent à l'élaboration et à l'enseignement de mesures préventives et de précaution<sup>4)</sup>, il convient d'ajouter aux tirs d'armes automatiques, les bombardements, les mines antipersonnel, les mines antichar et les « diverses armes » qui ont en commun d'être utilisés ou déployés par une seule et même catégorie d'acteurs: les combattants.

### III. Votre évaluation de la protection en l'état du droit international

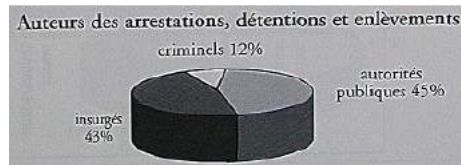
Les associations semblent attendre beaucoup du droit international car, manifestement, le sondage révèle un souhait largement partagé de

voir modifier les règles juridiques élaborées par la communauté des États en vue d'un renforcement de la protection.

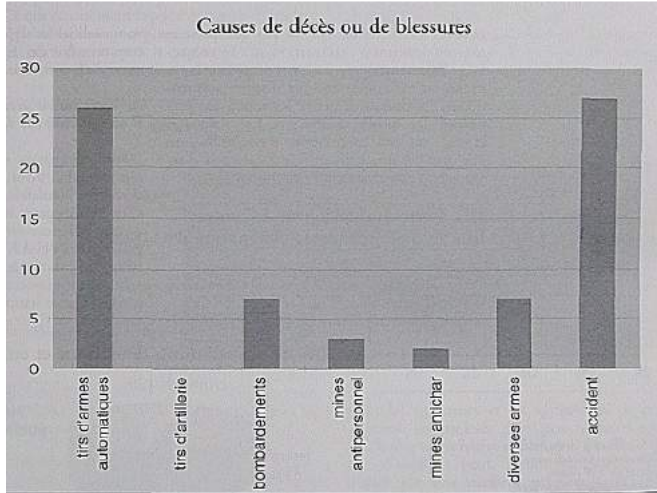
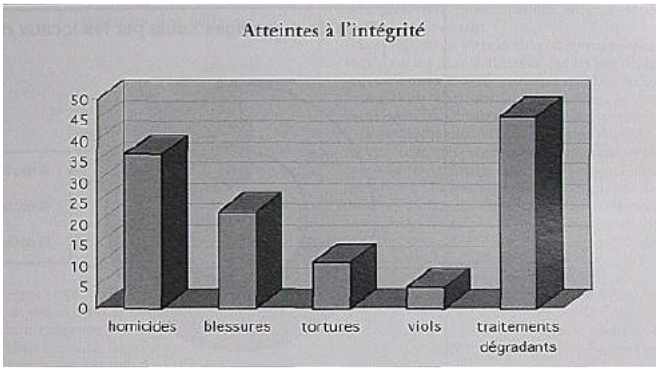
A. Votre statut actuel d'ONG vous donne-t-il satisfaction sur le plan de la sécurité ?

Pratiquement la moitié des associations qui ont répondu (48%) considère le statut de celles-ci comme insatisfaisant sur le plan de la sécurité. C'est relativement important et laisse supposer qu'une réflexion sur cette question devrait être poursuivie à l'U.A.I. ainsi qu'à l'échelon gouvernemental et intergouvernemental.

D'autant que seulement 42% d'entre elles pensent que ce statut est satisfaisant et 10% sont sans opinion. Cette observation est renforcée par



4) Cf. Security in the field Information for staff members of the UN system, United Nations, New-York.



les réponses à la question suivante posée dans le questionnaire.

**B. Une amélioration des règles de droit international devrait-elle porter sur...**

En effet, une forte proportion de réponses montre que c'est bien au niveau du statut international des ONG que les demandes d'aménagement juridique se font le plus profondément sentir. A l'intérieur de ce statut, il n'est pas surprenant de voir la hiérarchie des inquiétudes placer en tête la protection des personnes, puis celle des biens et en dernier celle des transports.

En attendant des solutions normatives internationales qui seraient efficacement mises en oeuvre, les solutions empiriques risquent de demeurer longtemps les principales mesures envisageables. Reste alors à déterminer leur nature. Les unes peuvent être consensuelles; les autres peuvent mettre en jeu diverses forces.

**C. Avez-vous conclu des ententes, un accord ou arrangements avec les autorités locales aux fins de protection ?**

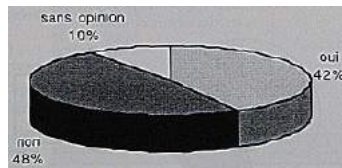
En ce qui concerne la première méthode pragmatique. Elle a consisté assez fréquemment à négocier avec les autorités en présence et à trouver un accommodement, un rapprochement, une conciliation.

**D. Avez-vous eu recours à des milices privées aux fins de protection ?**

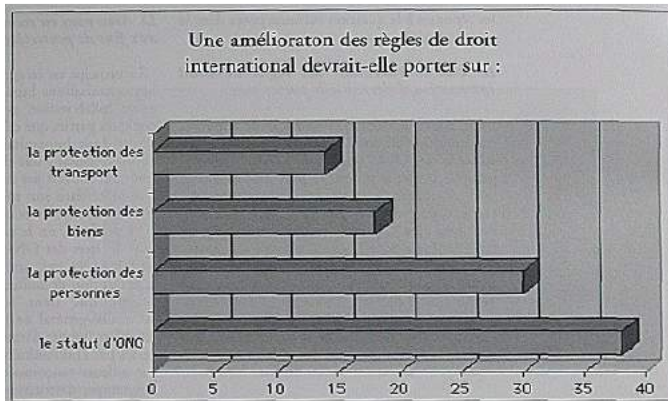
Le principe est en général celui de l'abstention. Les organisations humanitaires privées récusent toute collaboration avec des forces armées de quelques parties que ce soit. Un juriste, spécialiste du droit humanitaire affirmait en mai-juin 1992 : "Associé à une des forces armées en opposition ou couvert par elle, le CICR perdrait toute crédibilité dans son rôle d'intermédiaire neutre, et toute chance de pouvoir remplir ce rôle"<sup>5</sup>.

La pratique, on le sait, a été toute différente. Près du tiers des ONG qui ont répondu (16% parfois +13% oui) ont affirmé avoir eu recours à la protection de milices privées. Il faut garder à l'esprit que dans les milieux proches du Secrétaire général de l'ONU, on s'est inquiété des effets induits d'une telle pratique (sursalaires versés par l'humanitaire à des bandes armées qui par ailleurs rançonnaient la population depuis longtemps; destruction des derniers morceaux du tissu social par des rétributions individuelles des miliciens bien supérieures à celles des fonctionnaires nationaux ou régionaux du pays; financement indirect du marché des armes...) Il paraît donc difficile de retenir cette pratique comme souhaitable, d'autant que le sondage montre qu'une forte majorité (71%) des associations en mission périlleuse questionnées n'en ont jamais fait usage.

**Votre statut d'ONG actuel vous donne-t-il satisfaction sur le plan de la sécurité?**



5) SANDOZ (Yves) "Droit ou devoir d'ingérence, droit à l'assistance; de quoi parle-t-on ?" Revue Internationale de la Croix Rouge, n°795, mai-juin 1992, p. 231.



E. Quels sont les domaines dans lesquels vous estimez nécessaire que la Communauté internationale prenne des initiatives en vue d'améliorer la protection des ONG et celle de ses membres ?

En parfaite cohérence avec les réponses aux questions précédentes, il est clair que c'est en ce qui concerne l'amélioration du statut des personnels que les associations souhaitent voir la Communauté internationale agir.

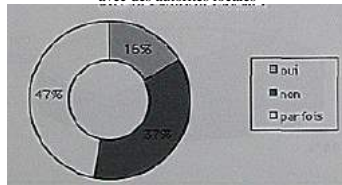
Il restera à déterminer, dans la suite des travaux du groupe, quels types d'immunités ou de privilèges il conviendrait d'établir et dans quelles

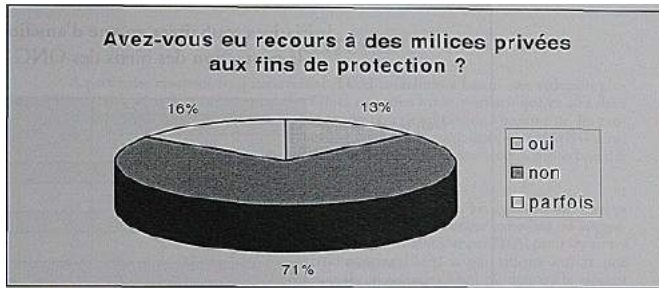
limites on pourrait envisager des dispositions acceptables par toutes les parties aux conflits et aux situations de crises sources d'insécurité pour les agents de ces organisations.

F. Quels sont les domaines dans lesquels vous estimez nécessaire que la Communauté internationale prenne des initiatives en vue d'améliorer la protection de vos biens associatifs ?

Une des options figurant dans la question « F », aurait dû, en toute logique se situer sous la question « E ». En effet, à la suite d'une erreur de saisie, le F4 « inviolabilité de la personne » se trouve dans la rubrique de la protection des biens et non des personnes... Toutefois ce glissement est sans effet sur le résultat du questionnaire. Les réponses montrent bien qu'en toute cohérence, les organisations interrogées ont parfaitement situé leur priorité, à la fois dans la recherche d'une inviolabilité de la personne et de la protection des biens.

Conclusion d'ententes de protection avec des autorités locales





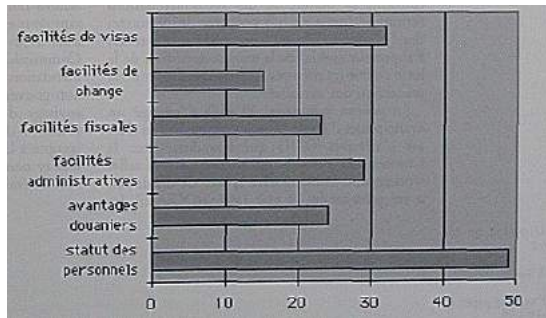
**Conclusions**

Les préoccupations exprimées par les associations dans les réponses au questionnaire - comme celles qui alertent depuis quelques années le CICR dont les travaux sur la matière sont importants - ne sont pas ignorées par les organisations intergouvernementales qui se mobilisent aujourd'hui de manière beaucoup plus systématique qu'autrefois sur ces questions de protection et de sécurité.

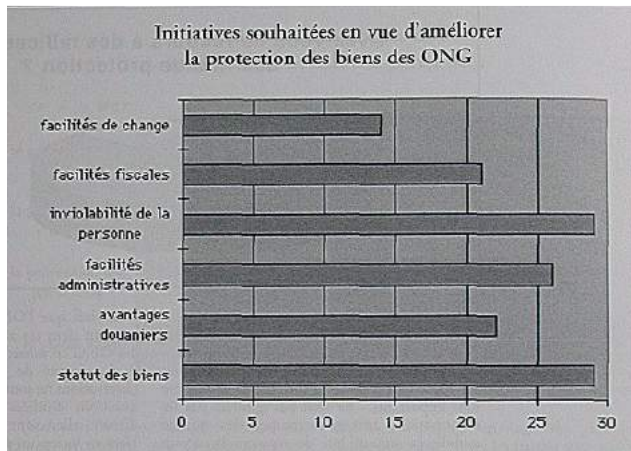
Toutefois les travaux sont conduits de manière un peu fracuonnée ou dispersée à l'occasion

d'activités que l'ONU ou l'Union européenne exercent dans un autre secteur tantôt à propos des ONG en mission périlleuse, tantôt à propos de la sécurité de leurs propres agents. Leurs observations ne sont pas routes transposables aux questions étudiées par l'UAI, mais nombre d'entre elles sont transposables. Ainsi, aux Nations unies, un rapport du secrétaire general sur La sécurité du personnel de l'Organisation a été présenté à la Commission des droits de l'homme dans le cadre du point 8 de l'ordre du jour relatif aux questions des droits de l'homme de toutes

**Initiatives souhaitées pour améliorer la protection des membres des ONG**







les personnes soumises à une forme quelconque de détention ou d'emprisonnement.<sup>6</sup> Or on a vu ci-dessus (p. 61-62) que les mises en détention peuvent être le fait aussi bien d'insurgés que d'autorités gouvernementales. Ce rapport confirme la pertinence des recommandations formulées (pour ce qui concerne le personnel des Nations Unies) par Mme Bautista, Rapporteur spécial de la sous-commission de la lutte contre les mesures discriminatoires et de la protection des minorités.<sup>7</sup>

Au niveau européen, ECHO a engagé un avant-projet d'étude soumis comme ballon d'essai à diverses ONG qui travaillent avec la Commission européenne<sup>8</sup> sur Security of relief workers and humanitarian space. Ce document a été présenté le 18 mai 1998 au Conseil des

Ministres de l'Union Européenne en charge du Développement qui a statué sur la poursuite d'un débat relatif à la sécurité en concertation avec les États membres. Ce document a fait l'objet de commentaires divers de la part des organisations non gouvernementales. Il serait intéressant de mettre en commun les conclusions retenues avec celles issue des travaux de la Sous-Commission de l'ONU dont plusieurs recommandations semblent transposables au domaine non-gouvernemental ou transnational. L'UAI envisage de confier au groupe de travail, la rédaction d'un projet de document qui tiendrait compte à la fois des réponses des ONG présentées et commentées ici et des diverses sources multilatérales..

6) E/CN.4/1998/33, 27 février 1998.

7) E/CN.4 Sub.2/1992/19.

8) ECHO working paper, Draft 8.2-19.2.98

## POSTFACE

A partir des résultats du questionnaire, l'UAI souhaiterait lancer une réflexion plus large sur la sécurité du personnel des ONG engagées sur le terrain - que ce soit dans l'action humanitaire, la protection et la promotion des droits de l'homme ou les projets de développement - en vue d'identifier les actions conjointes (entre ONG ainsi qu'entre ONG & OIG) qui pourraient être entreprises pour renforcer la protection des ONG et celles de ses membres.

L'UAI lance un appel aux lecteurs/lectrices pour qu'ils/elles lui signalent des travaux intéressants sur le sujet ou lui communiquent leurs expériences concrètes ou suggestions. Les contributions reçues seront prises en considération par l'UAI pour les suites qu'elle donnera aux résultats du questionnaire. L'UAI a par ailleurs ouvert une rubrique sur son site Internet ([www.uia.org/surveys/index.htm](http://www.uia.org/surveys/index.htm)) où figurera le rapport publié plus haut ainsi que les contributions d'intérêt général apportées par les ONG, ce qui facilitera le processus de réflexion amorcé par l'UAI.

Les communications peuvent être envoyées par la poste, par facsimilé ou par courrier électronique à partir de l'adresse mentionnée ci-dessus.

\* University of Nottingham. This research has been partly made possible through the provision of the Harold Howitt Travelling Scholarship of the University of Nottingham (April 98).

1 & 2. For the purposes of this study, NGOs will be

making, non-violent, organised group of people who are not seeking governmental office" (Willeits 1996a:5).

3. Some scholars retrace the history of NGOs to the Middle Ages. For example, Bettati and Dupuy interpret religious and commercial associations, such as the Holy Order or the Hanseatic League of Merchants as NGOs since they were not founded on any governmental basis (1986:23-33); for Czernpiel, the Catholic Church represents an international NGO even since the 4th century (1981:164). As the prototype of modern NGOs, Williams identifies the Anti-Slavery Society (1823) (1987:260). For a comprehensive historical overview on NGOs in the last two centuries, see Scary (1996); his survey reflects the development of NGOs from the congress of Vienna in 1814/15 to the founding period of the UN. For NGOs after the First World War, see also Clark (1991:34-40). Ghils summarises pre-modern transnational movements (1992:417-9).

Transnational Associations  
2/1999,68-82

## The Role of NGOs in the UNESCO System

by Kerstin Martens\*

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are becoming increasingly incorporated into inter-governmental organisations, such as the UN. In this study, the relationship between NGOs and IGOs will be examined in detail through the case study of NGOs and the UN body for educational, scientific and cultural questions (UNESCO), since UNESCO has been widely recognised for its outstanding propositions to accredited NGOs, such as the provision of direct subventions, office accommodation and inclusion in various stages of planning and executing projects. The findings, however, reveal that UNESCO simply created many of its closest and most-favoured NGOs itself, and that UNESCO's re-classification of NGOs in 1995 led to a reduction of one-third of all formerly accredited NGOs at UNESCO.

### Introduction NOTES:

#### Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)<sup>1</sup>

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)<sup>2</sup> play an increasingly important role in world politics. International non-governmental agencies, such as Greenpeace, Amnesty International or Médecins Sans Frontières draw attention to issues of world-wide concern, they promote international co-operation and they have a significant impact on the global dissemination of ideas, values and knowledge. Using the words of the former secretary-general of the United Nations Organisation (UN), Boutros Boutros-Ghali, "[n]ongovernmental organizations are now considered full participants in international life" (1996:7).

NGOs are not a recent phenomenon; they have existed for the last two centuries<sup>3</sup>. However, in recent years, particularly in the late-1980s, the number of NGOs has dramatically shot up. In 1956, the Union of International Associations (UIA) merely recorded 973 NGOs. In 1977, it registered already more than 2500 NGOs. Only five years later, the number of NGOs had again almost doubled (1997:1745). In the developing world the mushrooming of new NGOs is particularly significant. In the Philippines, a growth by 148% of all registered NGOs was noted for the period between 1984 and 1993. In Kenya, the number of NGOs even grew by 184% between 1978 and 1987 (Clarke 1998:36).

In practised international politics NGOs have official relationships only with intergovernmental organisations (IGOs). IGOs formally incorporate non-governmental organisations by granting them a legal status. For this reason, intergovernmental organisations, such as the UN, serve as the "transparent point of observation"

(Gordenker/ Weiss 1995a: 357) to explore the realm of the 'phenomenon NGO'. Within the UN family, the relationship between NGOs and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has repeatedly been recognised as more sophisticated than between NGOs and any other UN body (Hüfner 1996; Hoggot 1996; Hüfner 1995; Merle 1988; Fozzin-Kwanke 1986; Sewell 1975). This is so, because UNESCO's system of classification takes into account not only the size and representative character of an NGO but also its ability to efficiently contribute to the organisations objectives (Feld/ Jordan 1988:217). In return, NGOs could be heavily involved in various stages of planning and execution of UNESCO programmes and may receive direct subventions from the IGO (Feld/ Jordan 1988:222).

Furthermore, UNESCO itself gained in attraction and importance. Since its reform process commenced in 1988, the IGO became more transparent in its intra-organisational structure and more efficient in the fulfilment of purpose. New working methods, improvements in administration and financial management increased the impact and significance of the organisation. Moreover, the end of the Cold War contributed to draw attention to 'low politics' issues, such as human rights, the environment, population, communications or peace education, most of which fall under the objectives of UNESCO. Consequently, countries like the UK, which had severely criticised and finally withdrew from UNESCO, re-entered the organisation after a 12-year absence.

In this article, I will explore the relationship between non-governmental and governmental actors in more detail. In the case study of NGOs and UNESCO, particular attention will be paid to the statutory framework for cooperation

between non-governmental agencies and the UNESCO system since 1995 when new "Directives concerning the Relations with NGOs" became introduced. Leading questions are:

Does the growing importance of NGOs in world politics lead to closer relations between NGOs and non-governmental policies and international governmental bodies?

Since the relationship between NGOs and UNESCO has always been especially intense, does their relationship reflect the increasing influence of NGOs on world politics in particular?

It is the aim of this work to demonstrate through the case study of NGOs at UNESCO, that the integration of NGOs into intergovernmental bodies is not clear evidence of the growing importance of non-governmental agencies. The case study of NGOs at UNESCO demonstrates that the process of NGO integration into intergovernmental bodies neither necessarily continues nor do NGOs exclusively arise from outside the intergovernmental framework. On the contrary, the creation of NGOs associated with UNESCO (due to the nature of UNESCO itself) and the decrease in associated NGOs (due to UNESCO's reform process) will be shown and analysed. As a result, it will be demonstrated that the nature of an NGO being associated with an intergovernmental body has to be considered in greater depth in academic research.

#### Challenges of doing research on NGOs and UNESCO

Research in the area of NGOs and UNESCO is surrounded by various 'deficiencies' of adequate literature. Firstly, theoretical works on NGOs are rare. Although NGOs as a subject of examination increasingly gained attention within the last two decades, political scientists have made a rather small contribution to their analysis (Clarke 1998:37; Gordenker/Weiss 1995a:358). Most books or journal articles on NGOs are relatively dissatisfying. They tend to be of rather narrative character and miss out on comprehensive analysis. Literature on NGOs often merely describes a single major NGO - for example Amnesty International, the Red Cross or

Greenpeace - , an individual NGO project or a particular aspect of NGO activity, such as human rights, humanitarian intervention, environment or gender. As a result, works on NGOs tend to be primarily empirical in order to describe NGO activity (Cerny 1997:14).

Of the existing theoretical works, many of the English studies are based on only a specific aspect of NGO activity, in particular, the study of environmental NGOs (Willets 1996c; Willets 1996d; Wapner 1995; Princen 1994; Finger 1994a). French literature tends to be more concerned with legal aspects and mainly focuses on the (non)recognition of NGOs in International Law (Beigbeder 1992; Fozzini-Kwanke 1986; Bettati/ Dupuy 1986).

When analysing NGOs in relation to international governmental organisations, scholars almost exclusively concentrate on the consultative status of NGOs at the United Nations Organisation. In this case, the relationship between NGOs and the ECOSOC gains the most attraction (Willets 1996b; Hüfner 1996; Gordenker/ Weiss 1995a; Schulze 1994). Studies on particular issue-areas and the UN, again, mainly focus on environmental NGOs and the respective UN bodies (Imber 1996; Morphet 1996; Willets 1996d; Conca 1995; Princen 1995; Finger 1994b) or human rights NGOs in the UN system (Boyle 1995; Brett 1995; Connors 1996; Cook 1996; Gaer 1995)<sup>4</sup>. As a result, there is no systematic study on NGO consultation at the UN (Gordenker/ Weiss 1995b:555), which makes theory-building "a hazardous, if not totally nonfeasible, undertaking" (Gordenker/ Weiss 1995b:555).

Secondly, the relationship between NGOs and UNESCO has been very poorly analysed in academic research. Although many studies on NGOs at the UN mention the relationship between UNESCO and NGOs as particularly intense, none has comprehensively analysed it yet<sup>5</sup>.

#### TRANSFORMING RELATIONS: NGOs AT UNESCO

Co-operation between NGOs and UNESCO dates back to the establishment of the intergovernmental organisation in 1945. Over the years,

4. For newer, rare exceptions of analyses of other NGO aspects and UN bodies, see Willets (1996e). This edition includes single chapters on NGOs in relation to the World Bank, NGOs and the rights of the child and Save the Children Fund and NGOs. See also Weiss/Gordenker(1996) edition, which included chapters on humanitarian intervention, women's movement, Third World NGOs and NGOs, UN and Central America.

the working relations with NGOs increased in quality and quantity so that a sophisticated system of regulations was soon needed (Hoggart 1996:101). In 1966, UNESCO adopted supplementary "Directives concerning UNESCO's relations with non-governmental organisations" (Directives 1966) which set out the statutory framework for the NGO-UNESCO relationship in more detail<sup>5</sup>. In 1995, the classification of NGOs at UNESCO became re-organised and new directives (Directives 1995) were adopted. Today, UNESCO - by their own account - maintains regular relations of co-operation with 588 NGOs and approximately another 1000 to 1200 co-operate with UNESCO on an ad hoc basis (Doc. 152 EX/40 1997:12; UNESCO's New Partners 1998).

#### UNESCO itself in the beginning

The close relationship between UNESCO and NGOs is understandable by briefly expounding the establishment and the nature of UNESCO. It explains the reasons for the particular intense relations between UNESCO and NGOs. When UNESCO was founded in 1945, it was of great contention how much non-governmental influence should be given to the new organisation. Above all, the question of whether the organisation was to be governmental or non-governmental became an area of conflict (Hühner/Reuther 1996:12; Merkel 1996:94; Kotschnig 1957:551). During the preparations on the drafts, it had been widely argued that the new organisation should not necessarily be an intergovernmental body in order to protect cultural, scientific and educational issues from political and ideological considerations. Particular NGOs participating at the founding conference spoke for a non-governmental organisation such as the predecessor of UNESCO, the non-governmental International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation (IIIC, founded in 1925).

The French draft promoted for an organisation which also includes individuals (Sewell 1975:74). In this proposal, the new organisation was supposed to have a trinomial structure with each part having the same rights: a representation of the governments, national committees

and civil society (NGOs) (Goldbach 1995:36). The French proposal particularly emphasised that the organisation should encompass the intellectual élite of its member-states (Kotschnig 1957:551). However, this proposal was rejected, and the advocates for an integration of UNESCO into the intergovernmental family of the UN bodies won through, so that the inter-governmental UNESCO replaced the non-governmental IIIC.

Another point of great controversy during the discussions on the foundation of UNESCO was the scope of activity the new organisation should encompass. Some were in favour of an organisation working on educational and cultural matters only ('UNESCO'), others viewed scientific matters as necessary to be included in the new organisation. As a result, the objectives and the workload of UNESCO are extremely broad. It encompasses the three different sectors, "Education", "Science" and "Culture", which in itself surround various differentiated sectors. In this context, it had been laid down by the founding conference in London, that UNESCO could co-operate with non-governmental organisations concerned with subject matters within UNESCO's scope of activity, particularly in technical questions, and that UNESCO might also create new organisations if necessary (Huxley 1973:17; Stosic 1964:270).

#### Creation and expansion of NGOs by UNESCO

UNESCO documents describe NGOs as small-scale organisations of civil society, which become incorporated into intergovernmental organisations in order to form links to governments. The following quotations from UNESCO documents give an account of this viewpoint:

"Stemming from private initiative, these organizations [NGOs] form the natural link between governments and peoples" (CPX-80/WS/8 1980:4)

"Thus, right from its inception, UNESCO, as an intergovernmental institution, sought to collaborate with international non-governmental organizations (NGOs). These organisations are the outcome of private initiative and, as far

5. Rare exceptions of research on NGOs and UNESCO are Papini (1976), Goldbach (1995) and Hoggart (1996). However, they do not consider the 1995 re-classification of NGOs.

6. Provisional directives were already adopted at the first session of the General Conference in 1946; they became revised in 1947. Minor changes were also made in 1960 (Directives 1960) (Goldbach 1995:36; Stosic 1964:268/9).

7. Accredited NGOs are listed under UNESCO's NGO Partners (1998).

S. Major examples of UNESCO creations are: the International Council on Archives, the World

International Theatre Institute (all created in 1948), the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies, the International Music Council (1949), the International Association of Universities (1950), the International Social Science Council (1952), the International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education, the International Brain Research Organisation (1960), the International Institute for Educational Planning (1963), see Lacoste(1994);Merkel (1996), UNESCO Sources (1996) and Kotschnig (1957). One of the latest examples of UNESCO's creations is the Expert Center for Taxonomic Identification, which became established in 1990 with support of UNESCO (Doc. 151 EX/ONG.2 Add 1997).

9. It is worth noting, that the impact of the first Director-General of UNESCO, Julian Huxley was of highest importance for the development of the relationship between NGOs and UNESCO. Huxley favoured a role for NGOs which would heavily involve them in UNESCO's procedures and activities, since he assumed that NGOs were less bound to bureaucratic procedures than UNESCO (Hoggart 1996:105/6; Kotschnig 1957:555; Swell 1975:89). In particular, Huxley himself created many of UNESCO's closest NGOs (Sewell 1975:300).

as the fulfilment of Unesco's purposes is concerned, they constitute a natural link between governments and peoples" (BRX/RIO.2/95/INF 1995:1; 124 EX/INF.5 1986: Annex 1)

"In any case, the functioning of an organization, whether it be of the umbrella or any other type, should make it possible for the concern, options and contributions of its grass-roots members - individuals, national sections or international associations/federations - to reach the top" (28 C/COM LINF.2 1995:3)

However, a closer look at the origins of NGOs associated with UNESCO reveals, that many NGOs at UNESCO are 'home-made'. This is to say, rather than "stemming from private initiative, many NGOs are created at the auspices of the IGO, as it had been agreed on at the founding conference of UNESCO in London.

UNESCO's creation and expansion of NGOs distinguishes the UN body from other international governmental organisations (Sur 1995:412). In this respect, UNESCO even is exceptional (Merle 1988:389). Most of these NGOs are umbrella organisations which coordinate national organisations. All in all, UNESCO promoted the creation of 25 of these super-NGOs in the period till 1965 (Merkel 1996:95)<sup>9</sup>.

Furthermore, UNESCO's early NGO policy demonstrates that the IGO maintained close working relations with particular NGOs in order to reduce its own areas of responsibility. Since UNESCO encompasses different sectors and it is also involved in documentation and archives, sports, communications and the international protection of human rights, it became necessary to share tasks and responsibilities with other associated organisations in order to manage the immense workload (Kotschnig 1957:560)<sup>9</sup>. Firstly, UNESCO promoted the creation of many NGOs in order to hand over specific tasks or whole areas of responsibility to non-governmental organisations. One of the major NGOs, which became founded by UNESCO in 1946, is the International Council of Museums (ICOM). This NGO took on the assignment of establishing and running a common Documentation Centre on museums. "UNESCO entrusted it with the task of run-

ning its [UNESCO's] documentation centre" (Lacoste 1994:30).

Secondly, UNESCO guaranteed direct subventions to existing NGOs in order to avoid setting up UNESCO programmes in the areas in which these NGOs were already involved (Williams 1987:267). In the extreme case some NGOs simply carried out specific projects on the behalf of UNESCO (Kotschnig 1957:562). As a result, most of these NGOs became financially dependent on UNESCO, since UNESCO was the primary source of income (Kotschnig 1957:563). Some NGOs received up to 80% of their budget from UNESCO (Goldbach 1995:56). Thirdly, UNESCO simply withdrew from certain areas of activity in favour of supporting new NGOs which had similar objectives to UNESCO's (Kotschnig 1957:579). For example, the World Wild Fund For Nature (WWF) was founded in 1961 through the initiative of another NGO with close links to UNESCO, in order to mobilise the public and raise funds for environmental questions. In the years before the establishment of the WWF, most of these tasks had been run by UNESCO itself (Morphet 1996:142).

Associated NGOs adopted and promoted UNESCO's objectives. As the Director-General figured out, the American Commission for International Educational Reconstruction, an umbrella organisation for 200 national volunteer organisations "worked tirelessly for UNESCO's campaign for educational, scientific and cultural reconstruction" (in: Lacoste 1994:34). Other NGOs (partly) became assistant institutions to implement UNESCO programmes. The Pacific Islands New Association (PINA) was commended for its particular work in UNESCO's sense. A UNESCO document mentioned that "[c]o-operation between this NGO and UNESCO has existed for several years, including contractual implementation of programme activities, which was highly regarded by the Communications Sector" (Doc. 151 EX/ONG.2 Add 1997). Also various development programmes were set up and directed by UNESCO which offered close collaboration with interested NGOs (Merle 1988:402).

This implies that for UNESCO, NGOs are auxiliary bodies which exercise or implement

UNESCO objectives. Documents clearly expose UNESCO's purposes and profits of close working relations with NGOs:

1. "The purpose of all these arrangements is to promote the objectives of Unesco" (CPX-80/WS/8 1980:4)
2. "Programmes and projects ... financed by the United Nations organizations include often NGOs as implementing partners" (152 EX/40 1997:v)

The example of the International Council of Scientific Unions (ICSU) incorporates and reflects the various aspects of the NGO-UNESCO relationship in particular. ICSU was founded in 1931 "to promote international scientific activity in the different branches of science and their applications for the benefit of humanity" (ICSU Yearbook 1997:1). Today, ICSU is the most important NGO in natural sciences which co-ordinates individuals, national and international NGOs<sup>10</sup>. For Baker, former Executive Secretary of ICSU, this is mainly due to the creation of UNESCO and its payment of subventions (Baker 1997).

ICSU became closely linked to UNESCO in 1946. For UNESCO, the agreement with ICSU was the first with an NGO and became greatly useful for UNESCO (Reuther 1996:141). Particularly during the first years of UNESCO, ICSU gave the IGO a lot of important and valuable advice on questions in its respective fields of competence (Huxley 1973:17). With the introduction of different categories of relations with NGOs in 1960, ICSU was immediately admitted to the highest category (category A); in 1995, it was admitted to the highest status of relations (Formal Associate Relations).

Since 1947, ICSU received yearly subventions from UNESCO. The first years, about 85% of ICSU's budget came from UNESCO (Baker 1997; Michaux 1992:16). UNESCO also provided ICSU with secretarial assistance, e.g. the disposal of offices in UNESCO's headquarters in Paris, and even undertook to pay staff salaries (Morphet 1996:118; Lacoste 1994:30). ICSU became the "major single beneficiary of UNESCO aid" (Kotschnig 1957:560). As a result, links between ICSU and UNESCO became ever closer. UNESCO enhanced close co-operation with ICSU in planning and carrying out of

scientific activities (Doc. CPX-81/WS/11 1981:3; Doc. NGO/CONF.18/7 1981:3), it sponsors ICSU for more than 600 congresses and symposia each year, in which both organisations have joint programmes in various academic fields and projects (Lacoste 1994:30)<sup>11</sup>, and ICSU representatives and UNESCO officials even changed offices and positions (Baker 1997). In 1972, ICSU's headquarters was shifted to Paris.

UNESCO's subventions to ICSU "has always been used to support those activities of ICSU bodies which further UNESCO's objectives" (ICSU Yearbook 1997:315; ICSU Partners 1998). Under the new arrangements, again, ICSU has agreed to mainly further common objectives (ICSU Yearbook 1997:315). The mutual success of such close relationship then inspired UNESCO to boost the creation of other organisation under its aegis, patterned on the example of ICSU (Baker 1997).

#### The UNESCO crisis in the 1980s and its consequences

The re-arrangement of relations with NGOs in 1995 has to be seen in the broader context of the UNESCO reform process which initially started in 1988, because it reveals the motives for re-defining the relations to NGOs. Since the mid-1970s, the IGO came into such a severe crisis that even the continuance of the IGO as part of the UN system was in danger (Kittel/Rittberger/Schimmelfennig 1998). For some, UNESCO had always been the most politicised agency of the UN, particularly since its effects to introduce a "New World Information and Communications Order (NWICO)" (Williams 1987:62); for others it is simply the long-term extension of the different opinions of UNESCO's purposes as exposed during the discussions of UNESCO's foundation in London (Hüfner / Reuther 1996:12).

One of the major fields of criticism in the 1980s had been UNESCO's inefficiency in terms of budget management and administration (Beigbeder 1987: 26-40; Imber 1989:96-120). Western states in particular were unsatisfied with the organisations growing expenses, its centralised management techniques and its unclear staff recruitment methods (Kittel/

10. ICSU - although often referred to as an NGO - is not purely non-governmental in character. It rather encompasses governments, governmental officials, other intergovernmental organisations and non-governmental organisations (Morphet 1996:118). Today, its membership consists of 20 international scientific unions, 74 national members and 29 scientific self-governing organisations (Lacoste 1994:30).

11. For current projects between ICSU and UNESCO, see ICSU Yearbook (1997:283).



12. Besides, NGOs are frequently taken into account in UNESCO's

conditions - mainly the requirement of a two-third majority of states present and voting - non-governmental organisations can be admitted as observers at specified sessions of the General Conference (Greenbook 1996:35). They may also make statements on matters within their competence in the committees, commissions or subsidiary organs of the General Conference, if the Chair agrees (Greenbook 1996:51). Non-governmental organisations at UNESCO are allowed to hold conferences (Greenbook 1996:107) and to attend international congresses (Greenbook 1996:110). The Director-General might also invite non-governmental organisations to send observers to seminars, training, refresher courses (Greenbook 1996:116) or symposia (Greenbook 1996:119). Furthermore, the Constitution advises national commissions to establish consultative relations with NGOs (Greenbook 1996:122).

13. Bibliographical indications refer to Directives 1995.

Rittberger/ Schimmelfenning 1998; Hüfner/ Reuther 1996:12). The eventual withdrawal from UNESCO by the USA and the UK in the mid-1980s heavily endangered the survival of the whole organisation, either morally and financially, since two major and founding members denied their support and reduced the organisation's budget by almost 30% (UNESCO's Budget and Finance 1998).

UNESCO's reform aimed at improving the organisations efficacy and transparency. One of the major reform strategies was to slim down the organisation's matters of concern to only a few, but more effective programmes and projects (UNESCO's Programming and Evaluation 1998). Secondly, the budgetary situation was improved by the rise in extra budgetary resources. From 1995 to 1997, they increased from US\$ 87.8 to 145 million. Almost 30% of these extra resources now come from other UN bodies (UNESCO's Budget and Finance 1998). For more transparency, Field Offices and National Committees were considered more important in planning and executing UNESCO's aims. As a result, Field Offices presently implement up to 50% of UNESCO's programmes; National Committees receive nearly twice as much resources than in the past (UNESCO's Decentralisation 1998).

NGOs and their formal status at UNESCO before and after the crisis

The formal basis for the co-operation between UNESCO and NGOs is laid down in the Constitution of UNESCO (Greenbook). In Article XI, paragraph 4 in the UNESCO Constitution it is provided that

"[t]he United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization may make suitable arrangements for consultation and co-operation with non-governmental international organizations concerned with matters within its competence, and may invite them to undertake specific tasks. Such co-operation may also include appropriate participation by representatives of such organizations on advisory committees set up by the General Conference"<sup>12</sup>.

UNESCO's directives 1995 then lay down the conditions under which NGOs are eligible for

admission to two different types of relations: Formal Relations (FR), which can either be Formal Associate Relations (FAR) or Formal Consultative Relations (FCR), and Operational Relations (OR). In Formal Relations, NGOs might be invited by the Director-General to send observers to the General Assembly conferences and the commissions; in the latter they can make statements on matters within their competence. NGOs in FR are also allowed to submit written statements to the Director-General on programme matters and to receive documentation. NGOs in FAR are to be integrated "as closely and regularly as possible with the various stages of planning and execution of UNESCO's activities" (L.8.3.(b)i)<sup>13</sup>. Different to other systems of consultation, NGOs in FAR at UNESCO are also provided with office accommodation (L.8.3.(b)iii).

Operational Relations are designed to "maintain flexible and dynamic partnerships with any organization of civil society" in a specific field of UNESCO's competence. NGOs in OR might only be invited to hearings, if a significant contribution is expected; they rather participate in collective consultations such as the Conference of International Non-Governmental Organisations. More importantly, NGOs in Operational Relations are entitled to apply for financial support (II.4.1.(c)) and can also be considered by UNESCO for contracts, if the Director-General considers them most competent in a related UNESCO programme (II.4.2.).

Unlike other IGOs, UNESCO grants subventions to selected NGOs. Subventions are foreseen for NGOs making "a particularly valuable contribution to the achievement of Unesco's objectives and to the implementation of an important part of its programme" (Doc. CPX-80/WS/8 1980:10). Compared to other UN bodies, UNESCO is remarkable in terms of subvention, because it also provides NGOs with funds for travel, conferences, publishing and research (Hoggart 1996:102).

Since the consultative arrangement between NGOs and UNESCO, too, had become a matter of controversy during the UNESCO crisis, it initiated several recommendations (Doc. 128 EX/8 1987; Doc. 126 EX/31 1987) and eventually became revised in 1995. The Directives

1995 have most recently been described as the "turning point" in the relationship between NGOs and UNESCO (154 EX/29 1998:1). A closer look at the contents of the Directives 1966 and the Directives 1995, reveals conceptual similarities between the two sets of directives and a number of differences due to the reform process of UNESCO.

Similarities between the Directives 1966 and the Directives 1995: Firstly, despite the new nomenclature of relations both directives categorise NGOs hierarchically. Similar to the old system of classification (categories A, B and C), NGOs fall under three main categories in the new system. Despite the division into only two types of relations, Formal Relations and Operational Relations, the new directives actually set down three types of relations, since the category of Formal Relations is divided up into two subtypes, Formal Associate Relations (FAR) and Formal Consultative Relations (FCR). In general, FAR is comparable with the former category A, FCR shows major similarities to category B, OR strongly resembles what had formerly been category C.

Secondly, the old and the new system similarly lay down the conditions under which NGOs can seek admission. NGOs must not be established by intergovernmental agreement; their purposes, functions and operation must be without governmental aim; NGOs must have a non-profit character (Directives 1966: 1.1; Directives 1995: 1.2.1). Only the Directives 1995 specify the implications of international as "interregional and regional bodies, in the geographical or the cultural sense" (note 3). However, the directives do not specify any regions in this context. Concerning admission to the highest category, there is one difference between the two sets of directives. Whereas in the old system the admission to category A depended on the scope of activity and expected contribution to UNESCO's work, the Directives 1995 admit only major umbrella organisations to FAR.

Differences between the two sets of directives: First, to improve the transparency of the UNESCO system, the IGO transferred more tasks and resources to local and regional actors. As a result, UNESCO's relations to NGOs too

became decentralised. Contrary to the old system, where relations with NGOs were restricted to international NGOs, the Directives 1995 also admits national NGOs ("any non-governmental organisation", II.1.1)<sup>14</sup>. National NGOs can apply for Operational Relations only, and they are supposed to conduct their links with the National Committees of the Member State, or in particular cases, with the appropriate field unit of UNESCO (and not with the headquarters in Paris).

Second, for a more effective contribution of NGOs to UNESCO's purposes, the obligations UNESCO is posing on accredited NGOs are stricter than before (Hoggart 1996:102). UNESCO not only demands that NGOs in FAR expand their activities which fall into UNESCO's field of competence (II.7.1(b)i), they are also encouraged to promote the formation of more umbrella organisations in their respective fields of activity (II.7.1(b)ii). In addition to the old system, FAR NGOs are asked to extend their networks on the local and regional level (II.7.1(b)iii). The new directives also foresee automatic termination, if there has been a complete absence of relations for four years.

Third, UNESCO's strategy of reducing financial expenses becomes mirrored in the conceptual perception of relations to NGOs. In the old system the emphasis is on 'consultation and co-operation' (Hoggart 1996:101) as it is frequently mentioned in the Directives 1966 (Preamble, I.2., 3.; II.2., 3., 4., 5.; IV.4.; V.1.). The Directives 1995, instead, stress that UNESCO can not primarily be a funding institution for NGOs. Therefore, "these relations [between NGOs and UNESCO] will be essentially of an intellectual nature" (Preamble, 3). Under the old system, the above mentioned subventions depended on the category in which the NGOs were registered. This means, subventions were foreseen for NGOs in categories A and B only. The Directives 1995, instead, restrict subventions to NGOs which are newly established or have just started to co-operate with UNESCO. As a result, the priority will be the geographical location of the NGO: NGOs in developing countries or countries in transition will be given preference. Furthermore, UNESCO particularly emphasises that financial

14. The conditions for admission to Operational Relation are rather relaxed. The above mentioned conditions (non governmental character) are not applicable for Operational Relations.

NGOs at UNESCO

"+" means in addition to rights or duties in the previous category  
 TABLE: Consultative Status of NGOs at UNESCO in Comparison and Contrast

	UNESCO Directives 1966	UNESCO Directives 1995
Aims	Advise UNESCO Ensure UNESCO's documentation Give technical assistance to UNESCO Express public opinion Advance the purposes of UNESCO	Advise UNESCO, Ensure UNESCO's documentation Give technical assistance to UNESCO Express public opinion Promote emergence of NGOs in developing
Conditions	International Non-governmental in origin, purpose, function and character One or more activities in UNESCO's fields of competence Organisational structure (international composition, authorised representatives)	International National Non-governmental in origin, purpose, function and operation Non-profit in character One or more activities in UNESCO's fields of competence Able and willing to make effective contributions Organisational structure (regular membership, recognised legal status, established headquarters, democratic statutes) Carrying out activities for at least 4 years
Withdrawal of CS	Downgrading possible Termination possible	Downgrading possible Termination possible, also automatic (after four years continues absence)
Organisation of NGOs	Collective consultation (Conference) Standing Committee	Collective consultation (Conference) Standing Committee
Third Category Admission Duties Rights	Mutual information relationship (Category C) Any organisation fulfilling the conditions Exchange of information May be invited to meetings	Operational Relations (OR) Any organisation fulfilling the conditions Exchange of information May send observers to certain meetings Collective consultation
Second Category Admission Duties Rights	Information and consultative relations (Category B)  After effective contribution for at least two years + advice, provide assistance, contribute to execution of UNESCO's programmes + enhance common interests + submit reports about activities + invitation to meetings + may address plenary session + submit written statements + receive documentation + consultation + may receive subvention	Formal Consultative Relations (FCR)  Only international umbrella organisation + advice, provide assistance, contribute to execution of UNESCO's programmes + enhance interests + submit reports about activities + invitation to meetings + may address plenary session + submit written statements + receive documentation + consultation
First Category Admission Duties Rights	Consultative and associate relations (Category A)  Major effective contribution to UNESCO's work + expand activities in common with UNESCO + promote international co-ordination + association "as closely and regularly as possible with the various stages of the planning and execution of UNESCO activities" + provision of office accommodation	Formal Associate Relations (FAR)  Only major international umbrella organisation + expand activities in common with UNESCO + promote international co-ordination + maintain effective co-ordination with UNESCO + association "as closely and regularly as possible with the various stages of the planning and execution of UNESCO activities" + provision of office accommodation

15. Geographical representativeness was measured in a complex matrix divided into six sections, one for the home country where headquarters is based and five for the geographical regions (Africa, Asian-Pacific, Arabic Countries, Latin-American Countries, Europe) on the x-axis, and up to 15 indicators on the y-axis (e.g. location of headquarters, headquarters region, governing body,

ings, workshop/seminar, field action, events, publication, miscellaneous, prizes, radio, TV, grants, fellowship). Democratic legitimacy was measured on the general policy, composition and rules of the governing body, funding, representation arrangements with different countries. Status of co-operation with UNESCO was measured on keeping UNESCO regularly informed about the NGO's activities, the NGO's expertise in major fields in common with UNESCO's interests, expected profit of future co-operation with the NGO (Doc. 151 EX/ONG.2 (Part II-Individual fact sheets); Doc. 151 EX/ONG.2 Add (Part II-Individual fact sheets)).

support is not to be understood as a permanent commitment, but can only be regarded as supplementary to other incomes. Subventions are also limited to a non-renewable period of four years maximum. However, in toto subventions to NGOs amounted to merely 1% of the regular budget of UNESCO (Merkel 1996:97). Therefore, less subventions for NGOs do not seem to create a great financial release for UNESCO. Furthermore, only a small number of all accredited NGOs actually profit from substantial financial support — a growing tendency. From 1983 to 1988 in toto \$12.8 million were given to 40 major organisations (Merkel 1996:97); for the 1990-91 period, 32 NGOs of categories A and B received \$3,360,700 (UNESCO Sources 1992:13); from 1988 to 1993 the sum of \$10,5 million was received by 18 organisations (Merkel 1996:97; Doc. 152 EX/40 1997:13).

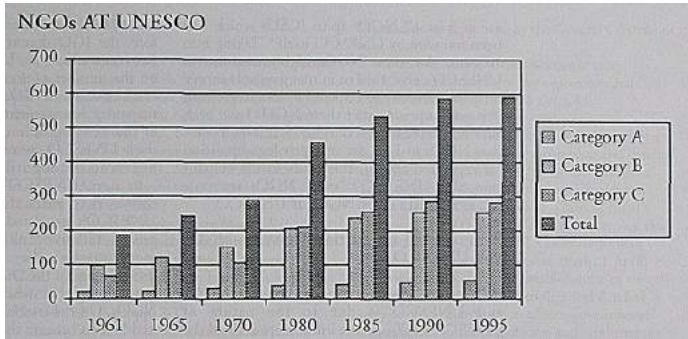
In addition, the Directories 1995 particularly emphasise the enforced support of new NGOs or existing NGOs in developing countries. UNESCO encourages "the emergence of new organizations that are representative of civil society in those regions of the world where such organizations, for historical, cultural or geographical reasons, are isolated or weak, and help to integrate such organizations into the network" (Preamble, 5). Furthermore, UNESCO privileges NGOs from developing countries: even if they are only in Formal Consultative Relations, they can be integrated more closely into co-operation with UNESCO than other NGOs having the same status. In this context, it is worth noting, that UNESCO also advises all accredited NGOs to support other NGOs in the developing world. This seems to imply that UNESCO wants to concentrate on less developed regions of the world rather than on particular issue-areas, what in the past created many controversies (like the NWICO).

#### Re-defined relations between NGOs and UNESCO

The introduction of new directives had implications for the classification of all NGOs and hence for their opportunities for participation within the UNESCO system. The reclassifica-

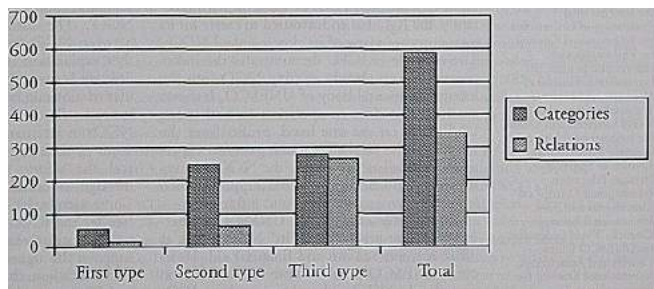
tion had been based on an individual evaluation of each NGO. The set of parameters can mainly be summarised as focusing on quality and regularity of co-operation with UNESCO, geographical representativeness and democratic legitimacy (Doc. 29 C/25 1997:1)<sup>15</sup>.

Two charts demonstrate the development in the accreditation of NGOs. The first chart clearly reveals the growth of NGOs accredited at UNESCO until 1995. From 1961 to 1995, in each category the number of NGOs increased by at least 150%. In category A, 22 NGOs were admitted when the system of categories became introduced to UNESCO in 1961; in 1995, 55 NGOs were registered under this category (increase by 150%). In category B, the number of NGOs increased by 155% (from 99 to 252); in category C the number of NGOs even grew by 326% (from 66 to 281). In toto, the number of admitted NGOs increased by 214% (from 187 in 1961 to 588 in 1995). The second chart reveals changes in classifications after 1995. It shows how UNESCO slimmed down on relations to NGOs in all types of relations. It particularly demonstrates that the percentage of NGOs admitted to the highest category (FAR) decreased to nearly one fourth the percentage of NGOs having had the highest status under the old system (category A). Whereas under the old system 9.4% (or 55) of all NGOs were admitted to category A, only 2.7% (or 16) gained the highest status in the new system. Such is the case also for NGOs having the second highest status (FCR or Category B). It decreased to one fourth too. In category B, there were 42.8% (252) registered, now only 10.7% (63) of all NGO are having Formal Consultative Relations with UNESCO. The percentage of NGOs in the third category stayed almost the same (47.8% or 281 under the old system; 45.3% or 266 in Operational Relations). Under the new system 34.2% (or 201) of all 588 NGOs are now merely registered under so-called Informal Relations. Taking into account the low degree of co-operation between NGOs in Informal Relations and UNESCO (this status has no real framework of co-operation), this implies that almost one-third of all officially accredited NGOs fell out of the participatory framework. Furthermore, research for this article revealed that amongst the remaining 16 NGOs in FAR



Source: Doc. BRX/RIO.2/95/INF. 1995: Annex 1.2

FIGURE 1: Growth in the number of non-governmental organisations maintaining official relations with UNESCO from 1961 (Introduction of categorised registration system, "Directives concerning UNESCO's relations with non-governmental organisations") until 1995 (Introduction of new directives).



Sources: Doc. BRX/RIO.2/95/INF. Annex 1.2; Doc. 29 C/25 1997:4; Doc. 151 EX/ONG.2 (Part I) 1997:2

FIGURE 2: Comparison of the number of NGOs having formal relations with UNESCO under the old system of categories and the new system of relations by types of relations (Category A - FAR; Category B - FCR, Category C - OR).

are at least 12 NGOs (plus ICSU) which had been founded by UNESCO itself<sup>6</sup>. Taking into account, that these NGOs highly conform to UNESCO's objectives or in many regards simply carry out UNESCO's responsibilities and projects, it is not surprising that these NGOs have been admitted to the highest category. Secondly, in view that NGOs in FAR are in a privileged position (as explained above), this leads to the conclusion, that UNESCO's "own" NGOs are more influential than other NGOs at UNESCO.

#### Summarising on relations between NGOs and UNESCO

This particular relationship between NGOs and UNESCO is due to the nature of UNESCO itself, and the immense workload the organisation is saddled with. As a consequence, NGOs have been incorporated into the UNESCO system since the foundation of the IGO in 1945. However, UNESCO has made clear that NGOs should be considered as associates, which implement UNESCO's policies and objectives. For this reason, UNESCO has encouraged working relations with existing NGOs in order to hand over fields of work. More importantly, the IGO has endeavoured to create for its own purposes many of its closest-linked NGOs. The example of ICSU demonstrates the incorporation of an already existing NGO into the intergovernmental body of UNESCO. It shows motives for a close co-operation on both sides: UNESCO, on the one hand, profits from the support of the NGO, because it gains the expertise of specialists. In return, the NGO receives substantial financial and moral support, which led to its own gain in status and influence.

Compared to other IGOs, UNESCO is offering particular privileges to "its" NGOs, such as office accommodation and financial aid. However, UNESCO is also more demanding on accredited NGOs than any other IGO. UNESCO expects NGOs to enhance those of their aspects which are linked to UNESCO's purposes and objectives.

By introducing new directives in 1995, UNESCO reformed its arrangements with NGOs. The Directives 1995 stress the intention of closer links to regional and national NGOs,

and to NGOs in developing countries. Therefore, the IGO decentralised existing relations. For more efficiency, UNESCO slimmed down on the number of accredited NGOs; one third of all associated NGOs fell out of the active participatory arrangement. Furthermore, as a result of the new regulations in 1995, almost exclusively UNESCO-created NGOs remained in the highest and most privileged category of relations. In sum, UNESCO's relationship to NGOs shows two particularities. First, many of UNESCO's associated NGOs do not stem from private initiative (unlike what UNESCO documents suggest), they are created by the IGO itself. Secondly, the Directives 1995 do not illustrate the global tendency of the growth of NGOs. On the contrary, the number of accredited NGOs became significantly reduced.

#### Concluding remarks

The aim of this study was to make a contribution to the analysis of NGOs in international relations. Since NGOs maintain official relations with international governmental organisations, such as UNESCO, IGOs provide an accessible point to observe the 'phenomenon NGO'. The case study on the relationship between NGOs and UNESCO suggests a further exploration of IGO profits as a result of linkages between NGOs and IGOs. The particular relationship between NGOs and UNESCO is not a reflection of the growing importance of NGOs in international politics; it is rather the result of their establishment by the IGO itself and the reform process the IGO is going through in order to improve its effectiveness. Consequently, NGOs are merely in an assisting role for the IGO. That UNESCO's new directives particularly favour their self-created NGOs supports the argument.

In conclusion, the relationship between NGOs and IGOs is multiform and needs further empirical and theoretical exploration. The findings of this work on NGOs at UNESCO demonstrate that more research has to be done on the nature of associated NGOs, their origins and individual relations to IGOs since these aspects are highly important in order to analyse the character of NGOs and their status in world politics.

16. The twelve NGOs are: the International Association of Universities, the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies, the International Council of Museums, the International Theatre Institute, the World Conversation Union, the International Music Council, International Council of Sports and Physical Education, International Council on Monuments and Sites, International Science Council, World Federation on UNESCO Clubs, Centers and Associations, International Council for Engineering and Technology. The remaining 3 cases are Education International, International Federation for Information and Documentation, International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (Doc.: BRX-97/WS/12, Annex II:1).

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# International meetings in 1997

by Ghislaine de Coninck\*

## Introduction

For the past 49 years, the Union of International Associations has undertaken, for the benefit of its members, statistical studies on the international meetings that took place worldwide in the preceding year.

The statistics are based on information systematically collected by the UIA Congress Department and selected according to very strict criteria maintained over the years, this enabling meaningful comparison from year to year.

Meetings taken into consideration include those organized and/or sponsored by the international organizations which appear in the "Yearbook of International Organizations" and in the "International Congress Calendar", i.e. : the sittings of their principal organs, congresses, conventions, symposia, regional sessions grouping several countries, as well as some national meetings with international participation organized by national branches of international associations. Under this last category are included meetings which are not collected systematically but which have been brought to our knowledge and which meet the following criteria :

- minimum number of participants : 300
- minimum number of foreigners : 40 %
- minimum number of nationalities : 5

- minimum duration : 3 days

Excluded from the UIA figures are : purely national meetings as well as those of an essential religious, didactic, political, commercial, sporting nature such as religious gatherings, courses, party conferences, fairs, sales meeting, contest etc... Also excluded are: meetings strictly limited in participation such as committees, group of experts etc... most of these being held at an intergovernmental level and taking place mainly at the headquarters of the large IGO's in New York, Geneva, Rome, Brussels, Vienna... Corporate and incentives meetings are not included; the survey of these specific markets being not within the scope of activities of the UIA.

This survey is indicative ; it is based on the researches compiled by the UIA Congress Department and using currently available information from international organizations selected according specific criteria.

## General picture

Overall, the 1997 figures show an increase in the number of international meetings organized worldwide in 127 different countries.

Over 9,200 international meetings have been taken into consideration in this survey in accordance with the criteria described above. This figure represents approximately 79.3 % of the total number of meetings included in UIA's "congress" data bank for 1997. The remaining 20.7% have been excluded from the survey as they did not meet the criteria.

The 1997 evolution is illustrated in the tables below. In each table, international meetings organized / sponsored by international organizations and national meetings with large international participation are indicated separately.

Compared with 1996, the overall increase registered in 1997 amounts to + 3.37 %. If only the number of meetings organized by international associations are compared, than this figure reaches + 2.72% and an increase of national meetings with international participation of + 0.65%.

Compared with the figures of 1995 the overall difference is + 5.54% and vis-a-vis 1994: + 2.41%.

On an aggregated basis an upward trend is recorded as follows : South & Central America + 0.94% ; Africa + 0.69% ; Australasia + 0.64% ; Europe +0.56% ; North America + 0.32% ; Asia + 0.22%.

Compared to the results recorded in 1996, it clearly appears that the expansion is constant in every continent; however, the increase registered in Asia, is not as high as in previous years. The decrease registered in 1996 in South and Central America is compensated in 1997 by the highest overall increase. Australasia is confirming its regular progression while the upward trend is consolidate in Europe, Africa and North America.

Tables 1 and 2 show the level of the various changes which occurred in 1997.

The figures in Table 3 show that, despite the fact that the majority of meetings recorded in this survey took place in Europe, this percentage is continuously decreasing, ie 56.51 % in 1997 against 57.85 % in 1996, 58.61% in 1995,

CONTINENT	TOTAL	REUNIONS D'ASS. INT.	REUNIONS NAT. + PART. INT.
		MEETINGS OF INT. ORG.	MEETINGS OF NAT. ORG.
South America	+ 0.94 %	+ 0.96%	- 0.02 %
Africa	+ 0.69%	+ 0.80%	-0.11%
Australasia	+ 0.64%	+ 0.51 %	+ 0.13%
Europe	+ 0.56%	+ 0.73%	-0.17%
North America	+ 0.32%		+ 0.96 %
Asia	+ 0.22%	+ 0.35%	-0.13%
TOTAL	+ 3.37%	+ 2.71 %	+ 0.66 %

Table 1: Worldwide breakdown of the variations registered in 1997 versus 1996

CONTINENT	TOTAL	REUNIONS D'ASS. INT.	REUNIONS NAT. + PART. INT.
		MEETINGS OF INT. ORG.	MEETINGS OF NAT. ORG.
Australasia	+ 1.38%	+ 1.16%	+ 0.22 %
Asia	+ 1.14%	+ 0.79 %	+ 0.35 %
Europe	+ 1.03%	+ 0.83 %	+ 0.20 %
North America	+ 0.72 %	- 0.25 %	+ 0.97 %
Africa	+ 0.72 %	+ 0.84 %	- 0.12%
South America	+ 0.55 %	+ 0.47 %	+ 0.08 %
TOTAL	+ 5.54 %	+ 3.84 %	+ 1.70%

Table 2: Worldwide breakdown of the variations registered in 1997 versus 1995

CONTINENT	TOTAL	REUNIONS D'ASS. INT.	REUNIONS NAT. + PART. INT.
		MEETINGS OF INT. ORG.	MEETINGS OF NAT. ORG.
Europe	56.51 % -	47.21 % -	9.30% -
North America	14.74% -		3.92% +
Asia	14.07% -	10.66% +	3.41% -
South America	5.46% +	4.74% +	0.72% -
Africa	5.41 % +	5.15% +	0.26% -
Australasia	3.81 % +	2.99% +	0.82% +
TOTAL	100.00%	81.57% -	18.43% +

Le signe - ou + indique l'évolution par rapport à l'année 1996.  
The - or + sign indicates the evolution since 1996.

Table 3: Worldwide breakdown of the total number of international meetings in 1997

58.95% in 1994, 59.76% in 1993, 61.42% in 1992 and 62.30% in 1991.

One should note that in this table the countries are listed with regard to the total number of international meetings registered in each one.

The figures in the second column indicate the percentage of international associations' meetings and the classification is thus different.

The sign + and - opposite each figure indicates changes with respect to 1995. The countries printed in bold letters are improving their ranking.

Despite the fact that they are not mentioned here, the following countries occupy a significant place in the worldwide ranking: South Africa, India, Korea Rep, Thailand, Poland, Argentina, Portugal, Brazil, Malaysia, Mexico, Ireland, Turkey and Philippines.

The 1996 individual results compared with those of 1995 are showing that the greatest increases have taken place in the following countries: Hungary, Australia, Denmark, USA, Israel, Russia, Thailand, Greece, Malaysia, Sweden, Spain, Argentina, Finland, Hong Kong and Portugal.

When considering only the number of international association's meetings the ranking is slightly different; number one to five are the same : USA, France, UK, Germany, Italy, followed in order by Belgium, Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland, Spain, Australia, Canada, Japan, Denmark, Hungary, Finland, Sweden, Norway, Singapore, Czech Rep, Israel, China, Greece, Hong Kong.

USA is increasing its leadership, with 9.40% of the worldwide total against 9.03% in 1995;

All other countries were already in this "top table" but with different rankings.

Please note again, that the ranking is different if one considers only the international association meetings or the total ranking. Cities printed in bold letters are improving their ranking in comparison to 1995.

Based on the total figures, in 1996, the top ten cities are sharing 18.07% of the world market compared to 18.58 % in 1995, 17.48% in 1994, 17.70% in 1993 and 19.46% in 1992.

This result confirms the trend experienced in the last years: the top cities reducing their share of the total market to the benefit of a wider distribution worldwide.

Analysis of this table also shows a variable evolution from city to city. Paris is slightly decreasing its leadership : 3.15% (against 3.81 % in 1995), but still a very long way ahead of other cities.

Kobenhavn and Budapest are now in the top ten and Jerusalem and Sydney in the top twenty five.

Other cities occupying a significant place in this table are, in order : Strasbourg, Tokyo, Montreal, Buenos Aires, Munchen, Kuala Lumpur, Bangkok, Melbourne, Oslo, Dublin, Moskva, Orlando, Lisboa, Manila, San Francisco, San Diego, Chicago, Athina, Trieste, Vancouver, Antwerpen, Edinburgh, Cairo, New Delhi, Warszawa, Atlanta, Den Haag, Maastricht, Luxembourg, Nice, Toronto, Istanbul, Birmingham and Cambridge ...

With regard to the ranking of only meetings of international associations, the order is as follows: ranking is as follows: Paris, Brussels, Wien, London, Geneve, Kobenhavn, Budapest, Singapore, Washington, Amsterdam, New York, Praha, Roma, Stockholm, Hong Kong, Barcelona, Strasbourg, Helsinki, Berlin, Madrid, Jerusalem, Seoul, Sydney.

## Breakdown by continents/ regions

### Africa

The situation in Africa is showing a very slight increase in 1996 as compared to 1995:

- 0.03% on the worldwide level;

- 0.46% on the African level.

South Africa is keeping its place as first african country with 21.28% (21.60% in 1995, 17.23% in 1994, 11.43% in 1993 and 5.51% in 1992), directly followed by :

Egypt 10.39% (13.10% in 1995); Morocco 7.55% (5.51%); Zimbabwe 6.63% (5.74%); Kenya 6.40% (6.20%); Tunisia 5.72% (6.43%); Uganda 3-66% (3.44%); Ivory Coast 3.66% (2.29%); Ethiopia, Ghana and Senegal 2.74%.

The top ranking cities are in order of importance: Cairo, Nairobi, Harare, Capetown, Johannesburg Abidjan, Dakar, Rabat, Tunis, Accra.

CONTINENT	TOTAL	REUNIONS D'ASS. INT.	REUNIONS NAT + PART. INT.
		MEETINGS OF INT. ORG.	MEETINGS OF NAT. ORG.
Europe	+ 0.97%	+ 1.26%	- 0.29%
North America	+ 2.11 %	- 4.29%	+ 6.40%
Asia	+ 1.57%	+ 2.51 %	- 0.94%
South America	+ 20.09 %	+ 20.57 %	- 0.48%
Africa	+ 13.96 %	+ 16.25%	- 2.29%
Australasia	+ 19.45%	+ 15.36 %	+ 4.09 %

Table 4: Various in 1997 versus 1996 - Continent by Continent

PAYS	TOTAL	REUNIONS D'ASS. INT.	REUNIONS NAT +PART. INT
COUNTRY		MEETINGS OF INT. ORG.	MEETING OF NAT ORG
USA	11.46% -	8.22 % -	3.24 % +
France	7.03 % -	6.01 % +	1.02% -
UK	6.45 % -	5.13 % -	1.32% +
Germany	5.64 % +	3.98 % +	1.66% +
Italy	4.12% -	3.55 % -	0.57 % +
Netherlands	3.71 % +	2.75 % -	0.96 % +
Spain	3.26 % +	2.78 % +	0.48 % -
Belgium	3.21 % -	2.78 % -	0.43 % -
Australia	3.20 % +	2.39 % +	0.81 % +
Switzerland	2.83 % -	2.66 % -	0.17% -
Austria	2.83 % -	2.49 % -	0.34 % -
Japan	2.72 % +	1.74% -	0.98 % +
Canada	2.47 % +	1.89% +	0.58 % +
Finland	1.89% +	1.50% +	0.39 % +
Sweden	1.72% +	1.56% +	0.16 % -
Denmark	1.59% -	1.30% -	0.29 % -
Singapore	1.50% -	0.96 % -	0.54 % +
Norway	1.24% -	0.96 % -	0.28 % +
South Africa	1.19% +	1.15% +	0.04 % -
Greece	1.19% +	1.12% +	0.07 % -
India	1.15% +	1.03% +	0.12% -
Hungary	1.12% -	1.03% -	0.09 % -
Portugal	1.10% +	1.01 % +	0.09 % +
Hong Kong	1.09% -	0.60 % -	0.49 % -
Korea	1.03% +	0.71 % +	0.32 % +

Table 5: Leading countries hosting international meetings in 1997.  
Percentage of the worldwide total.

VILLE	TOTAL	REUNIONS D'ASS. INT.	REUNIONS NAT.+ PART.INT.
TOWN		MEETINGS OF INT. ORG.	MEETINGS OF NAT. ORG.
Paris	2.71 % -	2.23 % +	0.48 % -
London	2.23 % +	1.79 % +	0.44 % +
Brussels	1.97 % -	1.87 % -	0.10 % =
Wien	1.93 % -	1.77 % -	0.16 % -
Geneve	1.59 % -	1.55 % -	0.04 % -
Singapore	1.50 % -	0.96 % -	0.54 % +
Amsterdam	1.22 % -	1.00 % -	0.22 % -
Kobenhavn	1.15 % -	0.95 % -	0.22 % -
Washington	1.09 % -	0.86 % -	0.23 % +
Hong Kong	1.09 % -	0.60 % -	0.49 % -
Berlin	1.05 % +	0.54 % -	0.51 % +
Barcelona	1.01 % +	0.91 % +	0.10 % -
New York	0.97 % -	0.84 % -	0.13 % -
Roma	0.95 % +	0.85 % +	0.10 % -
Strasbourg	0.95 % +	0.86 % +	0.09 % +
Budapest	0.89 % -	0.75 % -	0.06 % -
Stockholm	0.89 % +	0.61 % +	0.14 % +
Sydney	0.89 % +	0.61 % +	0.28 % +
Madrid	0.87 % -	0.74 % -	0.26 % -
Helsinki	0.84 % -	0.70 % +	0.10 % -
Praha	0.78 % -	0.49 % -	0.08 % +
Seoul	0.76 % +	0.47 % -	0.27 % +
Orlando	0.75 % +	0.52 % +	0.28 % +
Munchen	0.71 % +	0.52 % +	0.19 % +
Tokyo	0.70 % =	0.52 % -	0.18 % +

Table 6: Leading cities hosting international meetings in 1997.

Percentage of the worldwide total.

#### North America

In North America (USA, Canada, Mexico), an upward trend is registered after a slight drop in 1995 :

- + 0.40% on the worldwide scale;
- + 2.70% on the North American level.

The increase in the USA amounts to + 3.48%, in Mexico + 0.69% and a decrease in Canada of - 1.47%.

As in previous years, one wishes to stress again the fact that the meetings taken into consideration in the survey are primarily those organized/sponsored by international nongovern-

mental organizations; it is a well known fact that the number of large national meetings with international participation organized in

N.America is much higher than the figures mentioned in this analysis (especially in the USA); the survey of this specific market is not within the scope of activities of UAI.

On a worldwide basis the USA is keeping its leadership with an increasing 11.79% share of the world total against 11.52% in 1995, 14.75% in 1994, 15% in 1993, 11.38% in 1992 and 10.70% in 1991. Canada which had gone up in 1994 has registered a reduction of its market share as indicated on table 5.



Leading cities in North America are in order of importance : Washington 8.74%; New York 8.29%; Montreal 4.82%; Orlando 3.69%; San Francisco 3.16%; San Diego 3.08%; Chicago 3.01%; Vancouver 2.94%; Atlanta 2.64%; Boston 2.11%; Mexico City and New Orleans 2.03%.

On the world ranking, Washington is 9th and New York 12th.

#### South America

In 1996, the market is slowing its progression in this area of the world :

- 0.40% on the worldwide market
- 7.93% on the regional level.

Its share of the world market is now: 4.71% against 5.21% in 1995.

However, the leading S. American countries are improving their results and share of the area market.

For the first time Argentina is the leading country in S.America with a 18.89% share (14.5% in 1995), Brazil 18.66% share (17% in 1994); Cuba 7.65% (7.0%); Chile 7.40% (7.40%); Peru 4.30% (4.80%); Colombia 4.00% (6.38%); Costa Rica 4.00 (3.30%); Venezuela 3.82% (5.9%).

Leading cities are as in 1996, in order of importance: Buenos Aires 14.35%; La Habana 6.69%; Rio de Janeiro 5.02%; Santiago 5.50%; Sao Paulo, San Jose, Caracas.

#### Asia

In 1996, the steady increase which goes on from year to year in the Asian continent, is once again very positive:

- + 0.91% on the worldwide level
- + 6.61% on the regional level.

Asia is always the third area in importance in the world, with a share of 14.32% (13.72% in 1995), behind Europe and N. America.

Japan, 12th place on the world ranking, is prominent in Asia with a 18.13% (19.16% in 1995,

19.30% in 1994, 23.02% in 1993) share.

It is followed by Israel 10.75% (8.11% in 1995); Singapore 10.67% (11.71%); Hong Kong 9.02% (8.53%); China 7.92% (8.11%);

India 6.82% (6.94%); Korea Rep. 6.59% (6.86%); Thailand 6.59% (5.02%); Malaysia 5.72%; Philippines 4.08% (4.26%).

The remaining 31.84% are spread over the entire Asian continent.

As can be seen from these figures, the highest increases have taken place in Israel, Malaysia and Thailand.

Leading cities are in order of importance:

Singapore 10.67%; Hong Kong 9.02%; Jerusalem 6.59%; Beijing 5.57%; Seoul 5.25%; Tokyo 5.02%; Kuala Lumpur 4.39%; Bangkok 4.23%; Manila 3.29%; New Delhi 2.82%.

Highest increases registered in Jerusalem and Kuala Lumpur.

#### Australasia

This continent is enjoying since 1993 a very steady and important increase in the number of international meetings :

- + 0.73% on the worldwide level
- + 27.39% on the Australasian level.

It is in Australia that the development is the most important:

- + 0.63% on the worldwide level
- + 23.91% on the Australasian level
- + 30.72% on the Australian level.

Leading cities in the continent are in order of importance : Sydney 22.18% (22.17% in 1995); Melbourne 14.83% (23.91%); Brisbane 7.84%; Adelaide 7.50%; Auckland 6.48%; Canberra 5.11% and Perth 3.40%.

#### Europe

The decrease experienced in 1995 in Europe has stopped and a slight increase is recorded :

- + 0.47% on the worldwide scale;
- + 0.78% on the European level.

The trend experienced in previous years showing a reduction in the percentage of meetings taking place in Europe is confirmed: 57.85% (58.61% in 1995, 58.95% in 1994, 59.76% in 1993; 61.42% in 1992 and 62.3% in 1991.)

Of these 48.07% were organized by international associations.

The positive results experienced in Europe took place in order of importance in : Hungary,

Denmark, Russia, Greece, Spain, Finland,

Portugal; other countries are either status quo or decreasing slightly.

As in previous years, France is always ranking second in the world, with a share of 7.22% (8.35% in '95) and leader in Europe with a share of 12.50%. (14.25%).

Percentage of other countries in Europe are as follows: United Kingdom with 11.42% (12.47% in '95); Germany 9.24% (10.02%); Italy 7.30% (7.57%); Netherlands 6.00%

(10.10/95)  
3.14% over 3000 Part. (3.23/95)

#### Exhibitions

The number of exhibitions organized jointly with international meetings analyzed in this survey amounts to 11.66 (12.51%/95) showing a decrease increase on 1995.

September	(-)	13.51%	July	(-)	7.41%
June	(+)	12.56%	August	(-)	7.05%
October	(-)	11.38%	March	(-)	6.61%
May	(+)	10.93%	February	(+)	4.16%
November	(-)	9.62%	December	(+)	3.90%
April	(-)	9.32%	January	(+)	3.55%

(6.22%); Belgium 5.69% (5.71%); Austria 5.56% (5.52%); Spain 5.15% (4.83%); Switzerland 5.13% (5.46%); Denmark 3.59%; Hungary 3.12%; Finland 2.95%; Sweden 2.81%; Norway 2.46%; Russia 2.06%.

Countries having increased or decreased their share are indicated on Table 5 with the sign "+" or "-".

In the overall Table, leading cities in Europe are in order of importance :

Paris, Wien, London, Brussels, Geneva, Kobenhavn, Budapest, Amsterdam, Berlin, Roma, Madrid, Stockholm, Helsinki, Praha, Barcelona, Dublin, Oslo, Edinburgh, Munchen, Den Haag, Birmingham, Antwerpen, Maastricht, Warszawa, Luxembourg, Moskva, Lisboa, Cambridge, Nice, Trieste, Athinaí.

#### Participants

The analysis of information related to the number of delegates attending these meetings confirms the existing trend, ie. a majority of meeting with participants below 1000.

14.65% less than 100 participants (14.19/95)  
57.16% between 100 and 500 Part.  
(55.58/95)

15.09% between 501 and 1000 Parr.  
(16.60/95)

9.95% between 1001 and 3000 Part.

#### Monthly breakdown

The monthly breakdown indicates that contrarily to the previous years, more meetings took place in June than May; on the other end of the table,

January is now the least popular month instead of December. However, the variation in percentage are minimal.

#### Conclusion and future trends

As indicated at the beginning of this analysis, the number of international meetings organized worldwide has gone up in 1996.

Asia and Australasia are the two areas where the most significant upward trend has been recorded.

From the analysis of the various tables published above, it appears that countries with the highest increases are Australia, Hungary and Denmark and

cities are: Budapest, Kobenhavn, Jerusalem, Kuala Lumpur, Orlando, Atlanta, Munchen, Bangkok, Sydney, Vancouver, Venezia, Moskva.

As far as the geographical distribution of meetings is concerned it appears that the number of countries host of international meetings is growing from year to year.

The meetings covered by the survey took place in 187 countries (185 in 1995 and 180 in 1994).

Duration : the duration of the meetings taken into consideration in the survey is confirmed : an average of 4 days .

Once again, when applying the criteria for the selection of national meetings with international participation, a large proportion of these meetings had to be excluded due mainly to the fact that the 3 days limit fixed by UIA's criteria, was not reached. This confirms the tendency for these events, to concentrate the work into a shorter period of time.

Future trends :

Based on the information available to-day, trends for future years are showing a situation

which is stable. Most probably the most recent electronic communication technologies will influence the way in which meetings are held in the future, but it certainly seems that meetings where face to face contacts are taking place have still a bright future.

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## World conferences convened by the UN in the 90s\*

<p>Conference:</p> <p>Informal name:</p> <p>Number of Governments participating:</p> <p>Conference Co-chairmen:</p> <p>Organizers:</p> <p>Principal themes:</p> <p>NGO presence:</p> <p>Resulting document:</p> <p>Follow-up mechanisms:</p>	<p>World Summit for Children (WSC) United Nations, New York, 29-30 September 1990</p> <p>The Children's Summit</p> <p>159, including 71 heads of State or Government</p> <p>Brian Mulroney, Canada, and Mussa Traoré, Mali</p> <p>The six initiating countries (Canada, Egypt, Mali, Mexico, Pakistan, Sweden) with the support of UNICEF and other UN agencies under the auspices of the United Nations Secretary-General</p> <p>Goals for the year 2000 for children's health, nutrition, education, and access to safe water and sanitation</p> <p>45 non-governmental organizations participated in the Summit</p> <p>World Declaration and Plan of Action on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children</p> <p>Mid-decade review, with Secretary-General's progress report presented at the 1996 General Assembly session on the anniversary of the Children's Summit; UN Inter-Agency Task Force; the Joint Committee on Health Policy and the Joint Committee on Education; National Programmes of Action for Children within each national Government; UNICEF is the lead UN agency</p>
<p>Conference:</p> <p>Informal name:</p> <p>Host Government:</p> <p>Number of Governments participating:</p> <p>Conference Secretary-General:</p> <p>Organizers:</p>	<p>United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) Rio de Janeiro, 3-14 June 1992</p> <p>The Earth Summit</p> <p>Brazil</p> <p>172, 108 at level of heads of State or Government</p> <p>Mr. Maurice Strong (Canada)</p> <p>UNCED secretariat United Nations</p>
<p>Development of Future Infrastructures, 1997. ISBN: 92-1-100631-7 Transnational Associations 2/1999,91-99</p>	<p>Principal themes: Environment and sustainable development</p> <p>NGO presence: Some 2,400 representatives of non-governmental organizations (NGOs); 17,000 people attended the parallel NGO Forum</p>

*Resulting documents:* Agenda 21, the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development, the Statement of Forest Principles, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and the United Nations Convention on Biological Diversity

*Follow-up mechanisms:* Commission on Sustainable Development; Inter-agency Committee on Sustainable Development; High-level Advisory Board on Sustainable Development

*Previous conference:* UN Conference on the Human Environment, Stockholm (1972)

*Conference:* World Conference on Human Rights  
Vienna, 14-25 June 1993

*Informal name:* The Human Rights Conference

*Host Government:* Austria

*Number of Governments participating:* 171

*Conference Secretary-General:* Mr. Ibrahim Fall, Assistant Secretary-General, Human Rights

*Organizer:* Centre for Human Rights (Conference Secretariat)

*Principal themes:* The promotion and protection of human rights

*NGO presence:* More than 800 non-governmental organizations

*Resulting documents:* The Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action

*Follow-up mechanisms:* Commission on Human Rights and its sub-commissions; High Commissioner/Centre for Human Rights; Human Rights Treaty monitoring bodies; Special Rapporteurs; Commission on the Status of Women

*Previous conference:* International Conference on Human Rights Tehran, Iran, 1968

*Conference:* International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD)  
Cairo, 5-13 September 1994

*Informal name:* The Population Conference

*Host Government:* Egypt

*Number of Governments participating:* 179

Conference Secretary-General:	Dr. Safis Nadik, Executive Director, UN Population Fund (UNFPA)
Organizers:	UNFPA, the Population Division of the UN Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis (DESIPA)
Principal themes:	Population, sustained economic growth and sustainable development
NGO presence:	4,200 representatives of over 1,500 non-governmental organizations from 113 countries attended the independent NGO Forum'94 held parallel to the official conference
Resulting document:	Programme of Action of the ICPD
Follow-up mechanisms:	UN Commission on Population and Development; ACC Task Force on Basic Social Services for All (BSSA)
Previous conferences:	Rome (1954), Belgrade (1965), Bucharest (1974), and Mexico City (1984)
Conference:	World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) Copenhagen, 6-12 March 1995
Informal name:	The Social Summit
Host Government:	Denmark
Number of Governments participating:	186 States participated, 117 at the level of heads of State or Government
Chairman of the Preparatory Committee:	Ambassador Juan Somavia (Chile)
President of the Conference:	Mr. Poul Nyrup Rasmussen, Prime Minister of Denmark
Organizers:	Social Summit Secretariat in the Department for Policy Coordination and Sustainable Development (DPCSD)
Principal themes:	Social development, with three core issues: eradication of poverty, expansion of productive employment and reduction of unemployment, and social integration
NGO presence:	About 4,500 representatives from non-governmental organizations (NGOs) attended the parallel NGO Forum '95, while 811 NGOs participated in the Social Summit itself, represented by 2,315 individuals
Resulting document:	Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development and Programme of Action

Follow-up mechanisms:	Commission for Social Development, the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly; and the UN Inter-Agency Task Forces (see annex 1, page 99)
Conference:	The Fourth World Conference on Women: Action for Equality, Development and Peace Beijing, 4-15 September 1995
Informal name:	The Beijing Women's Conference
Host Government:	China
Number of Governments participating:	189
Conference Secretary-General:	Mrs. Gertrude Mongella, Assistant Secretary-General, Division for the Advancement of Women
Organizers:	The Commission on the Status of Women, with the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) serving as the Conference secretariat
Principal themes:	The advancement and empowerment of women in relation to women's human rights, women and poverty, women and decision-making, the girl-child, violence against women and other areas of concern (see box on page 59)
NGO presence:	More than 5,000 representatives from 2,100 non-governmental organizations and 5,000 media representatives attended the Conference and nearly 30,000 individuals attended the independent NGO Forum '95
Resulting document:	The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action
Follow-up mechanisms:	In addition to the national mechanisms, the primary UN bodies include the Commission on the Status of Women; the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW); the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM); the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW); and the Division for the Advancement of Women
Previous conferences:	The World Conference of the International Women's Year (Mexico City, 1975); the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women (Copenhagen, 1980); the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace (Nairobi, 1985)

Conference: Second UN Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II)  
 Istanbul, 3-14 June 1996

Informal name: The City Summit

Host Government: Turkey

Number of Governments participating: 171

Conference Secretary-General: Dr. Wally N'Dow, Assistant Secretary-General, UN Centre for Human Settlements

Organizers: Habitat II secretariat, based in the UN Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat)

Principal themes: Sustainable human settlements development in an urbanizing world; adequate shelter for all

NGO presence: NGOs participated as partners in Habitat II to an unprecedented degree; some 8,000 people from 2,400 organizations attended the NGO Forum parallel to the Conference

Resulting documents: Habitat Agenda, Istanbul Declaration on Human Settlements

Follow-up mechanisms: UN Commission on Human Settlements; UN Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat)

Previous conference: UN Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat), Vancouver, 1976

Conference: World Food Summit Rome,  
 13-17 November 1996

Informal name: The Food Summit

Host Government: Italy

Number of Governments participating: 186 Governments, including 41 presidents, 15 vice presidents and 41 prime ministers

Conference Secretary-General: Ms. Kay Killingsworth, former Director, Office of External Relations, FAO

Organizers: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)

Principal themes: To ensure food security for all

NGO presence: The conference was well attended by representatives of non-governmental organizations. There was a parallel international forum



for youth which assembled 500 young participants from 127 countries, and other parallel meetings held by parliamentarians, family farmers' associations and the private sector

Resulting documents:	Rome Declaration on World Food Security and World Food Summit Plan of Action
Follow-up mechanisms:	ECOSOC, the General Assembly and FAO
Previous conferences:	World Food Conference, Rome 1974; International Conference on Nutrition, Rome, 1992, convened by the World Health Organization (WHO) and FAO
Conference:	Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States, Bridgetown, 25 April-6 May 1994
Informal name:	The Small Islands Conference
Host Government:	Barbados
Number of Governments participating:	111 Governments, with 14 heads of State or Government
President of the Conference:	Mr. Erskine Sandiford, Prime Minister of Barbados
Organizers:	The Department for Policy Coordination and Sustainable Development with the cooperation of the Government of Barbados
Principal themes:	15 key areas - <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Climate change and sea-level rise</li><li>• Natural and environmental disasters</li><li>• Waste management</li><li>• Coastal and marine resources</li><li>• Fresh water</li><li>• Land resources</li><li>• Energy</li><li>• Tourism</li><li>• Biodiversity</li><li>• National institutions</li><li>• Regional institutions and technical cooperation</li><li>• Transport and communications</li><li>• Science and technology</li><li>• Human resource development</li><li>• Implementation, monitoring and review</li></ul>
NGO presence:	1,200 NGO representatives attended the NGO Forum and 87 NGOs attended the official meeting

Resulting documents: Barbados Declaration and the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States

Follow-up mechanisms: Commission on Sustainable Development -there will be a mid-term review in 1997 and an overall review in 1999

Conference: World Conference on Natural Disaster Reduction Yokohama, 23-27 May 1994

Informal name: The Yokohama Conference

Host Government: Japan Number of Governments participating:

Number of Governments participating: 149

Secretary-General of the Conference: Dr. Olavi Elo, Director, International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction

President of the Conference: Dr. Nabutoshi Akao, Ambassador of Japan for Global Environmental Affairs and International Trade

Organizers: The secretariat of the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction (IDNDR 1990-2000) within the United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs, in cooperation with the Government of Japan

Principal themes: Strategies for disaster prevention, mitigation, preparedness and relief

NGO presence: 36 non-governmental organizations

Resulting document: The Yokohama Strategy and Plan of Action for a Safer World

Follow-up mechanisms: Mid-term review of the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction by the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly; International Framework of Action for the IDNDR, including the International Day for Natural Disaster Reduction; United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs

Conference: The Ninth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders Cairo, 29 April-8 May 1995

Informal name: The Crime Congress

Host Government: Egypt

Number of Governments: 138 countries, with a total of 1,732 participants.

participating: 15 intergovernmental and 22 UN agencies and organizations were represented

President of the Conference: Dr. Farouk Self El-Naser, Minister of Justice of Egypt

Organizers: Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice with the assistance of the Crime Division at the UN Office at Vienna

Principal themes: The four substantive topics were:

- International cooperation and practical technical assistance for strengthening the rule of law through promotion of the UN Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme;
- \* Cooperative action against transnational and organized crime and the role of criminal law in the protection of the environment
- \* Management and improvement of police and other law enforcement agencies, prosecution courts and corrections and the role of lawyers;
- Crime prevention strategies, in particular as related to crime in urban areas and juvenile and violent criminality, including the question of victims: assessment and new perspectives

NGO presence: 48 organizations

Resulting document: Report of the Ninth UN Congress on the Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders (A/CONE 169/16)

Follow-up mechanisms: Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly

Previous conferences: Eight previous conferences have been held, once every five years. The work of this Congress was facilitated by two major meetings in 1994: the International Conference on Preventing and Controlling Money Laundering and the Proceeds of Crime, held in Courmayeur, Italy, and the World Ministerial Conference on Organized Transnational Crime held in Naples, Italy

Conference: Ninth United Nations Conference on Trade and Development Midrand, 27 April-11 May 1996

Informal name: UNCTAD IX

Host Government: South Africa

Number of Governments participating: Over 120, with five heads of State. The meeting was held at the ministerial level

President of the Conference: Alec Irwin, Minister of Trade and Industry of South Africa

Conference Secretary-General:	Rubens Ricupero, Secretary-General of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
Organizers:	UNCTAD secretariat
Principal themes:	To promote growth and sustainable development in a globalizing and liberalizing world economy
NGO presence:	Over 100 non-governmental organizations participated in the parallel NGO conference from 24 to 27 April. Most of them participated in the official conference
Resulting document:	Midrand Declaration and A Partnership for Growth and Development (A/51/308)
Follow-up mechanisms:	UNCTAD's own intergovernmental machinery, including the Trade and Development Board and a variety of commissions and expert groups, report through ECOSOC to the General Assembly on progress made in the implementation of the Conference decisions and agreements
Previous conferences:	UNCTAD I through VII, held every four years. UNCTAD VIII, which was held in Cartagena de Indias, Colombia, in February 1992, undertook far-reaching reforms of UNCTAD's inter-governmental machinery and methods of work aimed at fostering international cooperation for development. It identified the work plans for the Trade and Development Board, which is the executive body of UNCTAD, and for the four standing committees and five Ad Hoc Working Groups the Conference established as part of the restructuring of the organization

## Is Global Civil Society Coming Down To Earth?

by Peter Waterman \*

Ronnie D. Lipschutz (with Judith Mayer), *Global Civil Society and Global Environmental Governance: The Politics of Nature from Place to Planet*. Albany: SUNY Press. 1996. 365 pp.

In a review article written some years ago I argued that "global civil society" had had the misfortune of being transformed from an ideological formulation to an international policy slogan without passing through the forge of theoretical clarification or the sieve of public debate (Waterman 1996:170). If Lipschutz /Mayer had been available at that time I would have had to qualify this statement. Lipschutz is clearly concerned to see global environmental governance in terms of global civil society (henceforth GCS). I have no doubt that, in so doing, he is moving the concept beyond the previous somewhat superficial level of use/abuse (as in Waterman 1998:227-8). The question is now one of whether his understanding enlightens his subject matter - and/or whether the subject matter sharpens the concept.

For reasons I will later try to explain, this is a difficult book to summarise. Essentially, however, Lipschutz is concerned to demonstrate that what / might think of as the global environmental movement is better conceived of as the self-development of a GCS, with the latter implying a new system of global environmental governance (not government), and with the latter, again, dependent on globally-informed local activity. The book falls into three main parts, which could - though his practice undermines my distinction - be considered as theoretical, analytical and prescriptive. These parts are preceded by an introduction in which Lipschutz spells out his argument:

"I write here about an emerging form of "global" politics and governance that is rooted in the civil societies of many different countries but is also, to a growing degree, transnational in its reach, articulated via a complex set of knowledge-based linkages and, at the same time sensitive to differences among local places [...] What I analyse here...is what is often called the 'environmental movement', but is better understood as a transnational system of rules, principles, norms and practices, oriented around a very large number of often dissimilar actors, focused on environmental protection, sustainability, and governance." (Lipschutz 1996:1)

In so far as he is talking about global politics, the Lipschutz insistence on the centrality of the local in environmental governance becomes crucial:

"First, everyone's experience of the world is centred where they are: The "global" has no material existence except insofar as it impacts on the individual, who is ineluctably restricted to a single place at any one time (CNN, economic integration and global air travel notwithstanding). Second, however, everyone is aware that the world is much more than the place in which they find themselves: Each 'local' is part of a number of globe-girdling systems through which actions in one place can be transmitted and made known to other places... More to the point, the activities we ordinarily describe as 'international' have no effect except as they motivate changes in the behaviour and practices of individuals, or groups, acting locally." (7)

It is in the theoretical part of his book that Lipschutz conceptualises "global civil society" in terms of

"agents acting collectively through networks of knowledge and practice. Such agency operates both in opposition to and in concert with states and the international system, but always in terms of rules governing resource regimes. In a sense, global civil society can be seen as part of a growing system of global governance, rather than just an agent of reform, rebellion, or resistance [...G]lobal civil society... includes: (1) organisations or alliances that practice at the international or global level...(2) organisations that provide technical assistance to local groups engaged in resource restoration...and individual groups themselves; (3) individual groups that belong to national...or transnational alliances...; and (4) groups and organisations "in touch" with their counterparts elsewhere around the world or simply sharing an ecological epistemology." (49-51)

Lipschutz makes clear that although his GCS includes the environmental movement, this may itself be partly state-funded or state-linked, and a GCS must also be understood as including

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2/1999, 100-103

state agencies or agents of states concerned with the development of new forms of ecological governance. A GCS, he argues further, 'interacts with states but tries to maintain some degree of autonomy from them' (53). It tends to occupy spaces not directly state controlled. The 'code of global civil society' (ibid) denies the primacy of states and their sovereignty. It is global not only because it operates across national borders and in non-territorial space but also because of its increasingly global consciousness.

There is much more than this in the two or three theory chapters. Indeed, my feeling is that there is too much, as Lipschutz picks up - or picks issue with - a whole range of literatures, including, but not limited to those on ecology, ethics, international relations, anthropology and social movements! Indeed, in Chapter 7, Lipschutz even seems to be borrowing from Marxist political economy. Whilst this range speaks to the breadth of his scholarship, it prevents him from developing depth on his central concepts, as well as from placing his own ambitious project in relation to major worldviews/views of the world, or even to those addressed to a GCS (e.g. Held 1995), or even the global environmental problematic (e.g. Princen and Finger 1994) more directly. I will return to the conceptualisation later.

Whatever the shortcomings/excesses of the conceptual/methodological introduction, the decision to do national/local case studies in three distant and distinct world areas is more than felicitous. If the three old political/economic/ideological/strategic worlds are now demonstrably a single, if differentiated, ecological whole, the case for a holistic alternative makes itself. Lipschutz examines the US (actually a small part of northern and coastal California) and Hungary, and Mayer does Indonesia. The idea is that despite all the admitted and demonstrated differences of history, political economy, social movements and - of course - ecology, these locales reveal not only the common impact of globalisation but the global commonalities of local response, and the manner in which global environmental governance is being constructed in such locales (13).

The case studies do indeed reveal the differences/similarities, although no extensive

compare/contrast exercise is built into the analyses. The value of the GCS concept (the last long quote above) is, however, not well established here. This is for the following reasons:

- the protean nature of the Lipschutz concept. It is predictable that either a) the global environmental movements, b) its ideas, c) its policies, and/or d) northern state/international NGO agency funding, will have local influence: we need know who, what, which, to what ends and in whose interest;
- the source of such "global" influence - which is in large part that of the US itself: this makes measuring such in a Californian case study problematic;
- the here well-documented tensions and conflicts not simply between Lipschutz's different agencies but even between those most independent of national/international government and capital.

What would seem to be necessary is either a critical/self-critical concept of GCS, or additional concepts capable of dealing with autonomy, democracy, access, transparency, class, internationalism. And, most importantly, we would need address to the poor, or 'the people', rather than either specific sectoral interests or the middle class (as in, for example, Taylor 1995). Due to these limitations, the influence of GCS on the Californian case is only asserted, that on the Hungarian case is only asserted, that on the Indonesian case is revealed as extremely problematic. It is only the Indonesian case, in which parts of the environmental movement have established both intimate relations with the poor and a sophisticated critical relationship with external forces, that one can see at least the potential for local feedback into a till-now largely western-defined GCS.

As I have said, Lipschutz's book does not divide neatly. Following the case studies we actually have another theory chapter, in which the author wrestles with locale and identity in a globalising world. The globalisation part is where Lipschutz comes close to Marxist/Post-Marxist political economy/geography. The identity part is closer to the post-structuralist/social-constructionist tradition. In so far as the argument is conceptual, and does not flow out of the case studies, it surely belongs in Part I of the book. But never mind. It presents a compara-

tively straightforward and convincing case for the intimate relationship between (changing) identities and (changing ideas of) locale under the conditions of dislocation resulting from a careless and destructive capitalist globalisation. As Lipschutz himself puts it

"The apparent paradox - a global civil society rooted in a highly particularistic Nature and place - is not as paradoxical as it might seem at first glance." (233)

Chapter 8, the last one, is about policy, in the sense of the kind of rules and institutions necessary to deal with the environment: "

"Who rules? Whose rules? What rules?"

"What kind of rules? At what level? In what form? Who decides? On what basis?" (237)

Here, again, Lipschutz begins by discussing theory, or theories, about economic integration and political disintegration. He goes on to argue for the combination of local rooting and global networking suggested by his previous conceptualisation and analysis. There is here no such simple institutional fix as might be suggested by world federalism, nor by more complex theories on the democratisation of the global (for which see below).

Lipschutz suggests, rather than demonstrates or even argues for, a complex, multi-faceted and multi-levelled democracy. The insistence on the primacy of the local is qualified by a recognition of the dangers of particularism. The whole argument functions, I feel, mainly as a corrective to notions of global institutional reform, or even transformation, that forget where most people meet most people, and where most people are most confronted by both ecological deterioration and the possibility of doing something about this. What it, however, leaves us unprepared for are two products of 1998. One is the Pinochet case, in which, I would argue, a globalised liberal-democratic civil society demonstrated humane, progressive and - who knows? - locally transformatory impact. The other is the second of two collections on 'cosmopolitan democracy' (Archibugi, Held and Koehler 1998), which argues forcefully for a multi-levelled democratisation and for a sense of global citizenship to empower ordinary people for effective participation at all such levels. In both cases, it would seem, the initiative rests largely with

social movements for which Lipschutz has little time.

Although Lipschutz does not reproduce the binary opposition between the vicious global and the virtuous local that can be found in much environmentalist literature (e.g. Shiva 1993), he does, I think, allow for such by default. By this I mean that he abandons the international/global institutional level to capitalism and (inter-)statism, rather than seeing either as existing - or potentially new - spaces for a contestation that is both possible and necessary. The positive within his global exists only in the sphere of ideas, information and values, with their power to link and empower the local. At the same time, however, he either ignores or dismisses the very feature of globalisation that allows the discussion and transmission of such emancipatory and transformatory ideas.

'Computer', 'communication', 'information' do not appear in his index. And, in the one place that international computerised communication between social movements is mentioned in his book (283, fn. 50), he dismisses its effect as 'overrated' (c.f. Poster 1995). His GCS thus comes close to a life force or world spirit.

I think that we must trace these shortcomings back to the concept of a GCS offered. Such notions are being increasingly subject to the justified suspicion of the Political Economists, even if their concept of political economy is as protean as is Lipschutz' GCS (see, e.g., Pasha and Blaney 1998 for a critique of Lipschutz and others). I can take the Lipschutz stress on the centrality of the local, as well as on the necessity for thinking in terms of rules and governance. But these need to be informed by a sense of what on earth - and in the ether - is going on (Waterman 1999). And then to be empowered by a notion of GCS as space/place to be created and/or liberated from capitalism and statism (not to mention patriarchy, racism and environmental destruction).

Cyberspace, here, is actually the space of maximum freedom and creativity. There have been well-known - if problematic - demonstrations of its effectivity: the dialectic between the Mexican Zapatistas and their national and international sympathisers; the undermining and discrediting, if not destruction, of the Multinational Agreement on Investments; the international

campaign of support to the Liverpool, UK, dock dispute, 1995-8, and the influence of the Liverpool website on following Australian and US dockworker struggles. This is not to dispute the stress on the local. But two points need adding to the Lipschutz argument. One is, of course, that the local is not what it used to be. What we are increasingly confronted with is globalised locales (Massey 1991), meaning local places in which local-national as well as local-local tensions (inter- or intra-) are complicated by the contradictory forces of globalisation (i.e. for better or for worse, for better and for worse). Another is that such locales must be privileged sites for popular struggle, since, as an Argentinean colleague once informed me, most of the population of Buenos Aires never goes beyond a 5-10 kilometre distance from home. (Yet, it also occurs to me, the severely localised Liverpool dockers did travel to such distant and exotic locales as Calcutta and Francophone Quebec). Global spaces and local places are class/power differentiated. My locale is qualified by the time I spend at the computer (writing pieces like this), and my capacity to travel from The Hague to Lima (where I drafted it). When I look at The (ecology of the) Hague it is

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in a very different way to that in which it is perceived and experienced by an elderly Dutch male resident of a rundown inner city area - or by a young second-generation Turkish resident of such.

I have strayed from the ecological. This is partly due to my relative ignorance of this and the movements/institutions related to such. Lipschutz provides us with plenty of food for thought here. But my view from outside this particular problematic enables me to also enquire whether, for Lipschutz, the global ecological problem/movement/governance is identical with a GCS, a privileged area within a GCS, or simply one of many possible contributors to such. He is not unambiguous here, though I suspect he leans toward the second position. I lean toward the third. But I am prepared to entertain arguments concerning the second. Regardless of any decision here, I am convinced that Lipschutz and his colleague have made a significant contribution to what is going to be a lively future debate concerned with bringing global civil society down to earth.

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## Le rêve d'un gouvernement à l'échelle de la planète ne doit pas servir d'alibi à l'inaction

Le cinquantenaire de la Déclaration universelle des droits de l'homme nous a valu, outre l'approbation attendue des inconditionnels, un flot de remarques critiques sur la distance importante qui sépare encore la lettre des textes de leur application. Dans ce contexte, encore aggravé par la nouvelle crise irakienne, il n'est pas étonnant de voir resurgir l'aspiration ancestrale (voir la tour de Babel) à l'élaboration d'un gouvernement mondial.

La revendication est conforme à la logique des choses. A l'heure de la « mondialisation », l'émergence du marché unique et les progrès foudroyants accomplis dans le domaine des communications contrastent avec la fragmentation des unités politiques et l'impuissance des organisations intergouvernementales. Le défi consiste, aujourd'hui comme hier, à trouver la voie de passage entre le désordre actuel et l'ordre idéal, bref à convaincre les dirigeants et leurs peuples que « la somme des intérêts particuliers ne l'emporte pas sur l'intérêt commun et que chacun croie voir dans le bien de tous le plus grand bien qu'il puisse espérer pour lui-même » (J.-J. Rousseau).

Or l'humanité n'est pas dans la situation d'un homme qui décide d'acheter un terrain vierge et d'y faire construire la maison de ses rêves, pourvue de tout le confort imaginable et munie de tous les dispositifs de sécurité contre les risques intérieurs et les dangers extérieurs. Nous n'avons pas de domaine de rechange, et il faut continuer à vivre ensemble, sous le même toit, tandis qu'on procède

de aux réparations urgentes et, si les propriétaires en sont d'accord (ce qui est rarement le cas), à des améliorations souvent onéreuses. L'image de la table rase sur laquelle on pourrait reconstruire un monde à sa guise est un mythe qui a toujours hypothéqué les projets utopistes.

Mais ceux-ci se heurtent à d'autres obstacles. Qu'il s'agisse de reconstruire ou de rénover, il faut disposer d'un « modèle ». La référence la plus courante est celle des Etats, dont les structures et les pouvoirs pourraient être reproduits à l'échelle mondiale. Dans ce cas, on retrouverait inévitablement les problèmes de représentation, d'équilibre entre les pouvoirs, de contrôle et de financement que les Etats modernes ont de plus en plus de mal à assurer séparément. Comment imaginer que l'addition de toutes ces difficultés puisse donner naissance à une autorité internationale, efficace et compétente pour gérer une communauté de plus de six milliards d'hommes? L'adoption d'une structure fédérale aurait pour avantage d'alléger les tâches du pouvoir central. Mais, à supposer qu'on réussisse à la mettre en place (l'exemple européen n'est pas très encourageant de ce point de vue), on retrouverait, au terme de l'opération, les problèmes qui pèsent actuellement sur l'exercice de tout pouvoir : jeu des ambitions personnelles, clientélisme, corruption, abus d'autorité... Pourquoi et comment les hommes qui sont faibles et vulnérables à la tête des Etats deviendraient-ils soudain vertueux et équitables, dès l'ins-

tant où ils se trouveraient investis de responsabilités internationales?

Regardons autour de nous.

Les membres de la Commission de l'Union européenne sont soupçonnés d'avoir financé des emplois fictifs ; ceux du Comité olympique international d'avoir touché des pots-de-vin. L'ONU a eu, pendant dix ans, un secrétaire général d'origine autrichienne qui avait porté l'uniforme allemand pendant la dernière guerre. Qui pourra jamais établir la vérité sur les massacres du Rwanda ou sur les rapports privilégiés entre le gouvernement américain et Richard Butler, chef de l'Unscow en Irak? Le procès du général Pinochet s'enlise dans les problèmes de procédure et dans les conflits de compétence, ce qui augure mal du fonctionnement de la future Cour criminelle internationale, si celle-ci voit enfin le jour. Le Conseil œcuménique des Eglises, qui avait œuvré si utilement depuis un demi-siècle, doit faire face, désormais, à la fronde des Eglises orthodoxes...

Autant de faits troublants, de preuves de laxisme ou de questions sans réponse qui montrent que les organismes internationaux ne sont pas à l'abri des tentations qui assaillent tous les détenteurs du pouvoir et qu'il serait naïf de leur faire aveuglément confiance.

Rien de tout cela ne justifierait pourtant l'acceptation béate du « désordre établi », ni la résignation face aux injustices et aux violences propres aux relations internationales. Le réalisme ne consiste pas, comme on le croit souvent, à sacrifier le statu quo, mais à hiérarchiser les urgences et à élaborer

une stratégie qui permette d'éliminer les obstacles sur la voie d'un monde meilleur. Dans cette perspective, la visée utopique d'un gouvernement mondial reste un stimulant utile si on la maintient sur la ligne d'horizon qui marque le terme (impossible à évaluer) du destin de l'humanité. A l'inverse,

si l'utopie se présente comme une alternative à portée de main, elle n'a pas d'autre valeur que les mirages (palais ou oasis) qui peuplent l'imaginaire des pèlerins du désert. Dans ce cas, elle sacrifie le traitement du court terme aux rêveries sur le long terme et devient un alibi pour l'inaction.

Vouloir tout, tout de suite, est un caprice d'enfant. Mieux vaut continuer à soigner les plaies du monde que de prétendre le sauver par un coup de baguette magique.  
Marcel Merle  
Professeur émérite à  
l'université de Paris I  
(La Croix, 11 janvier 1999)

Point de vue

## La montagne et la souris

### Une réforme du Conseil de l'Europe pour 1999 ?

A la suite du 2ème Sommet du Conseil de l'Europe, une vaste réflexion sur l'avenir de l'organisation a été confiée à un "Comité des Sages". Le Rapport final qui vient d'être remis porte un titre ambitieux "Construire la grande Europe sans clivages", mais son contenu s'avère très modeste. Le Conseil de l'Europe, avec ses 40 Etats Membres, reste à la croisée des chemins.

Lors du 2<sup>e</sup> Sommet des chefs d'Etat du Conseil de l'Europe, tenu à Strasbourg les 10-11 octobre 1997, "dans la perspective du 50<sup>e</sup> anniversaire du Conseil de l'Europe en 1999", le Comité des Ministres a été chargé de mener à bien une réforme des structures du Conseil de l'Europe "pour adapter l'Organisation à ses nouvelles missions et à sa composition élargie", force aujourd'hui de quarante Etats Membres.

Le Comité des Ministres a aussitôt mis en place un "Comité des Sages" chargé de lui faire rapport. Si le Comité des Sages est présidé par Mario Soares, l'ancien président de la République portugaise et composé d'une personnalité indépendante comme Madame Gret Haller, l'ombudsperson

pour les droits de l'homme en Bosnie-Herzégovine" désignée par le Conseil de l'Europe à la suite des accords de Dayton, les huit autres membres du Comité des Sages sont des diplomates en fonction ou des personnalités désignées es qualités. Dans ces conditions, il n'est guère étonnant que, pour cet énième rapport sur la réforme du Conseil de l'Europe, la montagne accouche d'une souris.

Le rapport, remis en novembre 1998 par le Comité des Sages au Comité des Ministres, porte un titre ambitieux - "Construire la Grande Europe sans clivages" - mais son contenu reste très modeste. Dans sa brève préface, le président Mario Soares souligne d'emblée qu'il "n'a pas toujours été facile (surtout pour des questions concrètes et des points de détail) de trouver un consensus, étant donné la diversité des parcours, des expériences et des formations des membres du Comité", tout comme il revient à deux reprises sur la notion de "respect mutuel", traduisant ainsi une revendication politique de certains nouveaux Etats membres qui hypothèque toute réforme en profondeur.

Le rapport insiste sur l'architecture originale du Conseil de l'Europe qui "possède visiblement une structure tripolaire correspondant aux trois axes gouvernemental, parlementaire et judiciaire, structure qui devrait être reconnue en tant que telle et davantage développée" (§ 22). Mais le rapport n'en tire guère de conséquences, au-delà de réformes techniques renforçant le rôle de la présidence du Comité des Ministres (§ 46) ou du changement officiel du nom de "Assemblée parlementaire" acquis dans la pratique depuis longtemps (§ 52).

Au contraire la fonction judiciaire - déjà fortement incarnée par la Cour européenne des droits de l'homme - qui reste primordiale pour cette "Europe du droit" qu'à toujours été le Conseil de l'Europe, est négligée. Le rapport souligne un grave désaccord sur ce point : "Pour relever ces défis, il convient de réaffirmer la fonction normative du Conseil de l'Europe. Etant donné la richesse du corpus de textes juridiquement contraignants qui existe aujourd'hui, l'application de ces textes prend une place grandissante et exige des mécanismes efficaces et effectifs

de suivi et de contrôle. Dans ce contexte, le Comité des Sages a examiné la proposition de créer une autorité judiciaire générale chargée de suivre la mise en oeuvre des textes juridiquement contraignants. Cependant, cette proposition n'a pas recueilli son approbation - notamment parce qu'elle supposerait la mise en place d'une structure nouvelle et relativement complexe" (§ 12 - en italique dans le texte).

A tout le moins, M. Pergola a réussi à suggérer un pis-aller avec une vague référence à "la Commission [de Venise qui] pourrait être invitée à émettre des avis non contraignants (...) sur des questions constitutionnelles et d'autres questions juridiques fondamentales pour le Conseil de l'Europe", ainsi que "sur l'interprétation des conventions et autres instruments juridiques du Conseil de l'Europe dépourvus de mécanismes propres d'interprétation" (§ 59 - en italique dans le texte). La formule retenue est d'autant plus inquiétante qu'il est précisé que "la Commission de Venise a déjà émis des avis qui font autorité" (sic), créant ainsi une ambiguïté volontaire sur la nature de "l'autorité" des avis donnés. Manifestement, au nom du "respect" qui leur est dû, les Etats ont fait prévaloir une approche politique sur l'approche juridique qu'impliquait un "pôle judiciaire" digne de ce nom.

En fait le seul point où une réforme importante est suggérée concerne le Secrétariat. Il est déjà significatif qu'il ne soit pas inclus dans le triptyque décrit par les Sages, alors qu'il s'agit d'un organe statutaire. Le déclin de la fon-

tion de secrétaire général - bientôt directement concurrencé par "la création d'un poste de commissaire aux droits de l'homme" qui "développerait davantage la visibilité du Conseil de l'Europe dans ce domaine" (§ 14) - est manifeste. Mais au-delà, c'est le secrétariat dans son ensemble qui est mis en cause. Sous prétexte de rationalisation autour de quatre grandes directions générales "opérationnelles" - en distinguant de manière assez arbitraire "droits de l'homme et cohésion sociale, prééminence du droit, stabilité démocratique, et culture" - il s'agit d'instituer un système de partage des dépouilles, à travers des recrutements contractuels de courte durée pour les postes de responsabilités.

Une telle remise en cause des règles de la fonction publique européenne, fondée sur les notions de concours et de carrière, garantes de la compétence et l'indépendance des agents - si elle devait un jour être entérinée par les Etats membres - marquerait une "politisation" sans précédent du Conseil de l'Europe. Au lieu d'adapter les Etats aux normes juridiques du Conseil de l'Europe, "sur un pied d'égalité", il s'agirait d'adapter les structures du Conseil aux nouveaux membres au nom d'un "respect mutuel" qui se mérite mais ne se marchandé pas.

Bien plus le rapport prévoit que les "directeurs généraux" ainsi désignés formeront "un conseil de direction" sous la présidence du secrétaire général. S'il s'agit d'une meilleure coordination, la réforme est souhaitable, mais elle implique aussi le risque de voir le secrétaire

général, déjà affaibli par la création du poste de haut-commissaire, être transformé en "primus inter pares" face à des directeurs désignés sur la base d'un équilibre politique. Du choix de la personnalité qui occupera le poste de secrétaire général dépend pour beaucoup le voeu prudemment affiché : "Il est nécessaire de hiérarchiser un peu plus fortement la structure du Secrétariat si l'on veut donner au secrétaire général les moyens de coordonner efficacement les différents secteurs et de renforcer la cohérence et la visibilité de leurs activités" (§26).

Introduire d'une manière ou d'une autre, le "spoils System" au sein du Conseil de l'Europe pour éviter de "nouveaux clivages", risquerait de faire une victime, le "respect" porté au Conseil de l'Europe lui-même. Sans gagner la confiance des nouveaux membres devant une telle complaisance, le Conseil de l'Europe perdrait celle de ses anciens membres déjà trop souvent tentés de regarder ailleurs, notamment vers l'Union européenne. Loin de n'être qu'une réforme de plus du Conseil de l'Europe, ce serait une réforme de trop.

Emmanuel Decaux  
Professeur de droit international  
Co-directeur du Centre de droit  
international (CEDIN)  
Université de Paris X Nanterre

Actualité et Droit  
International,  
7 décembre 1998.

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## Recommendation to the Executive Board of the United Nations Children's Fund

The Executive Director recommends that, for 1999, the UNICEF Maurice Pate Award be presented to the Tanzanian non-governmental organization kuleana, and that the Executive Board approve an allocation of \$25,000 from general resources for this purpose.

Nominations for the 1999 UNICEF Maurice Pate Award were invited from the Governments of Board member countries, UNICEF representatives and regional directors and National Committees for UNICEF, in order to ensure a broad range of nominations. A total of 13 nominations were received as follows: four from Africa; five from the Americas and

the Caribbean; three from Asia; and one from the Middle East and North Africa.

After a careful review of all the nominations, the Bureau endorsed the recommendation of the Executive Director that the 1999 UNICEF Maurice Pate Award be conferred upon the non-governmental organization (NGO) kuleana, based in Mwanza, United Republic of Tanzania, in recognition of its significant and innovative contribution to improving the situation of children in that country and to inspiring other NGOs in the region to bring a child rights perspective into their own agendas. kuleana (meaning "to nurture each other" in Swahili) has

become a role model for achieving social and political change through grass-roots actions.

A pioneer in the region, kuleana has demonstrated extraordinary innovation and provided a new model for mainstreaming the message of child rights by reaching out to all sectors of society, including government agencies, religious groups, schools, media and key organizations, as well as providing training for individuals and institutions. Most importantly, kuleana works directly with children who are homeless, marginalized and living on the street. Its work is focused primarily on two different programmes, the Street Children's Centre and the Child Rights Advocacy Centre.

## Le Mondaneum

Ouvert au grand public depuis le mois de juin 98, l'espace de la rue de Nimy à Mons (Belgique) accueille désormais une très belle salle de lecture, un étage consacré aux expositions temporaires et la scénographie conçue et réalisée par François Schuiten et Benoit Peeters. C'est donc tout naturellement que le Mondaneum accueille en ce mois de mars une exposition intitulée «Les Archives des Cites Obscures» comprenant des planches originales du nouvel album de Schuiten et Peeters: «L'ombre d'un homme» mais aussi des dessins de «l'Archiviste».

C'est le 14 septembre 1895 que débuta à Bruxelles la première

Dans la droite ligne de la démarche internationaliste des fondateurs, le Mondaneum est désormais un maillon important du Réseau Européen de l'Affiche et du Graphisme d'Auteurs (REAGA) qui relie diverses institutions majeures en Europe (L'institut d'histoire sociale à Amsterdam; le Deutsche Plakat Museum a Essen, les Silos à Chaumont, le Centre de la gravure et de l'image imprimée à La Louvière, la triennale de l'affiche politique à Mons, le mois du gra-

conférence bibliographique inter-

de journaux et de revues, de dossiers documentaires et photos de grands hommes. Le tout à peine classé.

nationale. Elle avait été convoquée à l'initiative de deux jeunes avocats: Paul Otlet et Henri La Fontaine.

Ils espéraient le monde meilleur, favoriser la compréhension universelle grâce à la documentation, à la diffusion des connaissances. De là naîtra le Mondaneum, formidable machine à faire la paix, réceptacle de tous les savoirs du monde, bibliothèque universelle en devenir.

C'était il y a 104 ans. Aujourd'hui il contient formidable collection qu'ils avaient rassemblée. Six kilomètres d'archives, d'images, de cartes et de chromos,

phisme d'Echirolles à Grenoble  
Considéré par les pouvoirs publics  
comme un dossier culturel majeur  
de cette législature, parrainé par

Elio Di Rupo et ancré à Mons, le  
Mundaneurn est venu renforcer  
d'une façon significative le pôle  
culturel de l'espace Wallonie-

Bruxelles. Que tous ceux qui ont  
participé à cette réussite soient  
remerciés.

Le Mundanéen, mars 1999

## Nouveau siège du World Economic Forum à Cologne

Extrait du discours prononcé par  
le conseiller fédéral Flavio Cotti à  
l'occasion de l'inauguration du nou-  
veau siège du World Economic  
Forum à Cologne Suisse, le 15 mars  
1999

Aujourd'hui, Genève est le siège  
de près de 50 organisations inter-  
nationales. Plus de 180 missions y  
sont implantées. Et plus de  
30.000 personnes y vivent parce  
qu'elles-mêmes, ou un membre de  
leur famille, travaillent dans une  
organisation internationale, une  
représentation étrangère ou une  
ONG. Nulle part ailleurs, il n'y a  
autant de rencontres politiques, de  
négociations et de réunions.

Mesdames et Messieurs, Carl  
Spitteler a écrit un jour, dans un  
accès de mauvaise humeur: "Les  
Suisseuses sont fières de leurs mon-  
tagnes - s'ils avaient dû les faire  
eux-mêmes, elles seraient bien  
plus plates". Il nous rappelle ainsi,  
très justement, à la modestie.

Mais dans le cas de Genève, nous  
pouvons être fières. Et la Suisse  
aura toujours à coeur d'asseoir la  
vocation universelle de la ville de  
Calvin, fomm mondial et lieu de  
rencontres multilatérales. La  
Genève internationale constitue  
l'une des grandes priorités de  
notre politique étrangère. Tout au  
long de mon mandat de conseiller  
fédéral, je me suis employé à  
réaliser cet objectif. Je suis d'au-  
tant plus heureux d'être ici au-  
jourd'hui pour vous apporter un  
ultime témoignage de cette volon-

té résolue, car à deux mois près je  
n'aurais plus eu cet honneur!

Dans cette optique, le World  
Economic Forum a sans nul doute  
établi son "club house" au bon en-  
droit, pour reprendre les termes du  
professeur Klaus Schwab. Ce choix  
souligne en outre l'importance qu'a  
prise la collaboration entre organi-  
sations internationales et organi-  
sations non gouvernementaux  
depuis la fin de la guerre froide.  
La société civile est appelée à jouer  
un rôle de plus en plus important  
dans les relations internationales.  
A ce sujet, j'aimerais me livrer à  
deux réflexions fondamentales.

### 2. La politique et la société civile

L'engagement plus marqué de la  
société civile se manifeste à dif-  
férents niveaux:

songez par exemple au nombre  
d'ONG. Au cours des dernières  
années, il a dépassé les 30.000.  
A titre d'exemple, le nombre de  
celles qui ont voix consultative à  
l'ECOSOC a quintuplé depuis  
1968 (1520 à la fin de 1998).  
Pensez aussi à l'influence exercée  
dans la vie politique par les  
médiats, les associations ou les  
oeuvres d'entraide. Songez encore  
au poids croissant des initiatives  
privées ou de ces institutions  
uniques en leur genre que sont le  
Comité international de la Croix  
Rouge ou, justement, le World  
Economic Forum.

La société civile n'a cessé d'élargir  
l'éventail des acteurs politiques,

notamment en matière de politique  
extérieure. A mon avis, il y a tout  
lieu de se réjouir d'un tel dévelop-  
pement, que l'on peut aussi quali-  
fier de "globalisation pan le bas".  
La politique n'est pas l'apanage  
des gouvernements, elle est l'af-  
faire de tous. Qui plus est, les  
organisations non gouvernemen-  
tales enrichissent souvent le débat  
politique de valeurs que le primat  
de la "raison d'Etat" relègue par-  
fois au second plan. Aussi, n'était-  
ce pas un président ni un premier  
ministre, faut-il s'en étonner?,  
mais Henri Dunant qui a écrit en  
1863: "Nous ne sommes plus au  
temps des civilisations anciennes,  
où tout être étranger était l'enne-  
mi. De même aussi il y a une soli-  
darité entre les diverses races de la  
terre dans la charité humaine, la  
bienfaisance, la fraternité. C'est  
cette solidarité qui est appelée à  
tempérer les mauvaises passions  
des humains alors qu'ils oublient  
ce qu'ils sont, ce qu'ils devraient  
être, en se ruant les uns sur les  
autres dans d'aveugles emporte-  
ments, qui amènent la mine, la  
désolation, la douleur et la mort"  
- une réflexion qui n'a pris tout  
son sens pour de nombreux gou-  
vernements qu'au lendemain de  
deux guerres mondiales d'une rare  
cruauté.

Aujourd'hui, dans un monde où  
tant les causes que les oen-  
séquences des problèmes transcen-  
dent de toute façon les frontières,  
le concours de la société civile est

plus que jamais nécessaire. Ce n'est pas un hasard Si le Secrétaire général de l'ONU Kofi Annan a déclaré en juillet dernier: "En fait, on juge du succès d'une conférence mondiale au degré d'attention qu'elle suscite chez les ONG et d'autres organisations de la société civile".

La collaboration avec les représentants de la société civile a également été développée en Suisse. Alors que j'étais encore au DFL, j'ai institué la pratique des rencontres périodiques, par exemple avec les organisations environnementales. Puis, après être passé au Département des affaires étrangères, j'ai continué sur cette voie avec les ONG, notamment dans le domaine des droits de l'homme ou de l'aide au développement. Pour ma part, ces contacts systématiques et fondés sur la confiance ont considérablement enrichi mon action politique. Je suis convaincu que Si les représentants des ONG ont qualifié ces rencontres de très utiles, ce n'était pas pour me flatter. La coopération avec les ONG s'est aussi traduite par des consultations à la veille de conférences internationales et par la participation de leurs représentants aux délégations engagées dans les négociations multilatérales.

3. Le World Economic Forum  
Parmi toutes les ONG, fondations, associations et communautés, parmi toutes les organisations de la société civile, le World Economic Forum occupe à vrai dire une place à part. En effet, à la différence des groupements d'intérêts qui poursuivent un objectif précis, le World Economic Forum a un champ d'action bien plus vaste, car il s'emploie à réunir Us

acteurs les plus divers et à favoriser le dialogue entre eux. L'idée qui a inspiré ce projet et l'énergie considérable qu'il faut déployer pour le réaliser me font penser à une phrase de Wittgenstein, qui, au plus sombre de la Seconde Guerre mondiale, a écrit à un ami: "La question n'est pas de savoir Si la guerre touche à sa fin. La question est de savoir ce que tu feras après la guerre pour éviter qu'il y en ait d'autres à l'avenir". Il me semble que le World Economic Forum nous apporte une réponse: cette organisation sans but lucratif réunit les milieux économiques, les gouvernements, des intellectuels et d'autres représentants de la société civile, pour travailler à la construction d'un monde meilleur. Quelle admirable convergence d'efforts! Je crois que tous ceux qui ont un jour assisté ou participé à l'une des très nombreuses rencontres organisées à Davos, le confirmeront: elles sont uniques en leur genre par l'atmosphère qui y règne. "L'esprit de Davos" est d'ailleurs devenu, à juste titre, une expression courante. En ce qui me concerne, je me suis rendu dans la station grisonne tous les hivers ou presque ces douze dernières années. D'abord, en qualité de ministre de l'environnement, à une époque où ce domaine constituait, Si l'on en croit les sondages, l'une des toutes premières priorités de la population. Là aussi Davos a fait oeuvre de pionnier. Aujourd'hui, on constate malheureusement un silence préoccupant autour des problèmes environnementaux. Il n'en demeure pas moins qu'ils sont plus que jamais vitaux pour notre avenir commun. Puis, durant les six années passées au Département

des affaires étrangères, où j'ai compris très vite qu'il n'existait aucune structure au monde comparable à Davos, permettant des échanges de vues dialectiques entre représentants du monde politique, des milieux économiques et de la scène culturelle. C'est donc ma propre expérience qui me fait dire que l'atmosphère de Davos n'a pas son pareil. Cela peut paraître paradoxal: des milliers de personnes s'y réunissent, dans un va-et-vient perpétuel, et Si on lit le programme incroyablement chargé du forum, on a peine à imaginer qu'il puisse se dérouler dans la plus grande sérénité. En effet, tout est bien organisé, sur la base d'un concept merveilleusement créatif. Personne n'a le sentiment d'être à l'étroit ou bousculé, les conditions sont vraiment optimales. En un mot, une formule visionnaire allée à un sens aigu de l'organisation et du service.

Une formule qui mérite l'immense succès dont elle jouit. Qu'il s'agisse des leaders politiques d'Afrique du Sud qui s'assoient pour la première fois autour d'une même table à l'étranger (janvier 1992), des représentants de la Turquie et de la Grèce (janvier 1998) ou de ceux de l'OLP et d'Israël (1994) qui ont signé à Davos des déclarations communes et des projets d'accords, ou des politiciens des Etats balkaniques qui se sont rencontrés à Davos (janvier 1996), des résultats étonnants ont pu être obtenus grâce à l'initiative du World Economic Forum. Mais je me rends compte, Mesdames et Messieurs, que je ne parle que de Davos. Oui, je dois l'avouer, j'aurais d'ailleurs du mal à m'en cacher, durant mes douze années au Conseil fédéral, l'esprit de

Davos m'a gagné, m'a fasciné. Je pourrais tout aussi bien parler de toutes les autres initiatives du World Economic Forum, des sommets régionaux organisés dans tous les continents, des plus de 500 rencontres qui ont lieu aux quatre coins du monde ou des publications, du "Global Competitiveness Reports" ou du World Link", pour ne citer que quelques exemples.

Ce forum et surtout son président et fondateur, le professeur Klaus Schwab, méritent de ce fait toute notre estime et toute notre reconnaissance. Cher Klaus, avec ton forum, tu apportes une contribution inestimable à la politique, à l'économie et à l'entente mutuelle par-delà les frontières. La politique extérieure de la Suisse

y trouve tout particulièrement intérêt, elle qui éprouve un impérieux besoin de contacts internationaux, d'autant que notre pays n'est pas membre des grandes organisations internationales que sont l'ONU et l'UE. Il me tient d'autant plus à coeur de t'exprimer, cher Klaus, en mon nom personnel et au nom du Conseil fédéral, notre profonde reconnaissance, ainsi qu'à Monsieur Smadja et à tous vos collaborateurs et collaboratrices.

Mesdames et Messieurs, Coligny est aussi associé à un autre personnage illustre qui a vécu ici, je veux parler de John Stuart Mill. Dans son essai sur la liberté, il y a un passage que j'aimerais vous lire en guise de conclusion. Je crois qu'il est tout appropriate nutrition and envi-

nération actuelle tient entre ses mains la formation des générations suivantes. Elle ne peut pas les rendre parfaitement sages et vertueuses, car sa propre sagesse et sa propre vertu sont encore loin d'être irréprochables. Mais elle est parfaitement capable de rendre la génération suivante au moins aussi bonne ou peut-être même un peu meilleure qu'elle-même - pour l'avènement d'un monde plus libre et plus pacifique".

Cette mission, le World Economic Forum l'a faite sienne. Et nous sommes très fiers et très heureux qu'il l'accomplisse ici, à son nouveau siège de Coligny. Je vous remercie de votre attention.

15 mars 1999

## A round-up of new and forthcoming ESF scientific and science-related activities

Twelve new networks launched

The Foundation's Network Committee won the approval of the Executive Council, at its September meeting, to launch eight new scientific networks to foster collaboration between European scientists and research institutes. This brings to 12 the number of networks launched in 1998. These are:

Development of Methods to Investigate the Interaction between Nutritional, Environmental and Genetic Factors in Early Human Development: demonstration project on orofacial clefts

Orofacial clefting is one of the commonest human birth defects occurring in about one in 700 babies. Recent evidence that

environmental conditions can reduce the incidence of orofacial clefting provides one avenue for future research. Equally important is the genetic side with the ongoing search for candidate genes. The network will provide a forum to identify the most fruitful research strategies in these areas and the interaction between the two.

Genetic Susceptibility to Environmental Toxicants - impacts on human health

Environmental toxicants play an important role in the aetiology of many chronic diseases.

However there are considerable differences in individuals' susceptibility to such toxicants. Genetic polymorphisms in some of the biotransformation enzymes con-

cerned have provided a partial explanation, but further research is needed to understand the biological consequences of those polymorphisms, the effects of which remain unknown. By bringing together laboratory-based scientists, clinicians and epidemiologists, the network aims to help better identify those groups at risk of the adverse effects of environmental toxicants.

Changing Land Use and its Impact on Biodiversity

Agricultural exploitation of land is continuing to reduce plant biodiversity in many parts of Europe. However, in some areas attempts are being made to restore the original biodiversity by creating nature reserves. This network aims to improve our understand-

ing of the mechanisms by which biodiversity can be restored on land that has been previously heavily cultivated or abandoned. It will also investigate how biodiversity is maintained within unchanged semi-natural landscapes.

**Silk: properties and production**

Silks still surpass even the very best man-made materials for mechanical properties such as elasticity and fibre strength to weight ratio. They are protein complexes with an intriguing biopolymer structure that has evolved independently in a range of arthropods. Spider webs have particularly amazing properties, and since the advent of biotechnology researchers have been trying, without much success so far, to produce comparable synthetic materials. It was clear more research was needed, and, within this network, silks and related proteins such as elastins, resilins and collagens will be subjected to biometric analysis with the aim of ultimately exploiting the structures in commercial products.

**Exploring the Deep Sub-sea/oor Biosphere**

The discovery of deep sub-surface microbial populations has changed scientists' perception of life on earth, which had previously been considered to be restricted to a thin surface veneer. The presence of bacteria in this extreme environment may prove to have important future applications, as a possible source of clean fuel, in the deep burial of toxic wastes and as a unique source of bacteria for biotechnology. The ESF network will consolidate and build on Europe's lead in this area by encouraging interand multi-disciplinary research in both the public and commercial sectors.

**Elementary Steps of Layer Growth in the Fabrication of Novel Materials by Atomic Layer Epitaxy**

By fabricating solid materials by means of self-limiting chemical reactions atomic layer epitaxy scientists can exercise new levels of control in the synthesis of inorganic materials down to the nanometric level. The technique has opened up new possibilities to design materials with surface properties tailored to specific applications, in microelectronics and other fields. The network will bring together experts in gas phase reactions and in electrochemistry and liquid phase reactions and apply advanced characterisation techniques in order to optimise existing layered materials and to develop new ones.

**Field-Responsive Polymers, Composite Organic Materials and Gels with Controlled Supramolecular Structure**

The development of highly sensitive 'smart' polymer materials could lead to significant applications in the creation of new photochromic and thermochromic materials, memory devices and optical sensors amongst others. This network aims to foster collaboration in this new interdisciplinary area of research. It will focus on the design of 'smart' polymer systems, the study and description of the dynamics of the molecular and supramolecular transformations, the investigation of thermodynamic parameters and transport phenomena and the study of ordering and relaxation effects under the action of external fields and change of external conditions.

**Early Modern Thought: reconsidering the borderline between**

**the Middle Ages and Early Modern Times**

The idea that the Renaissance marked a huge intellectual divide between the preceding medieval period and the following modern era has been challenged increasingly in recent years. Many European scholars now share the conviction that the traditional divisions within this period in the history of thought should be dissolved and the institutional structures supporting it reformed.

The aim of the network is to replace the established paradigm with a more accurate model.

**Demographic and Labour Force Participation Trends in Europe and their Implications for Social Protection Expenditure**

Over the last 20 years, expenditure on social protection programmes has been one of the fastest growing components of GDP in most European countries. Ageing populations, falling male labour force participation rates and rising levels of youth unemployment have now raised serious concerns over the long-run sustainability of such programmes. The network will promote comparative research on the patterns of social protection expenditure across Europe and their relationship to demographic and labour market trends.

**European Trade Study Group**

Research in the area of international trade has advanced rapidly in recent years. Notable advances have been made in the theory of the location of industry, the modern theory of international development, economic takeoffs and agglomeration, and the theory of multinational enterprises

However, much of this research is concentrated at a geographically



limited number of well-funded institutions. This network aims to link these core research centres with economists operating in smaller, more peripheral institutions.

**Innovative Practices and Emerging Concepts for Sustainable Urban Management in Developing Countries:** a European contribution. Most developing countries have experienced rapid urbanisation during the second half of the 20th century. This phenomenon has been studied widely in Europe, but the resulting expertise has not so far been exploited effectively in helping developing countries manage their urban projects better. This network aims to consolidate research results and disseminate

the results while also strengthening ties with relevant groups in developing countries.

**Mass Response to Changes in Central and Eastern Europe:** A core question for social science research lies in the identification of behaviour patterns and coping strategies of people faced with great social upheavals. This network will use nation-wide representative sample surveys to examine the mass responses to the dramatic disruptions in Central and Eastern Europe that began with the collapse of the Communist system. The primary data sources have already been collected together into the New Democracies Barometer and the New Baltic Barometer covering 13 Central and East European coun-

tries. ESF support will finance a series of workshops at which researchers will exchange results of their analyses of the common database.

The 12 new networks will run for the next three years. They all share a common aim of building bridges between relevant scientists, research institutes and universities in different European countries by making use of a variety of networking arrangements, including workshops and exchange visits. Another major objective of the scheme is to encourage multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches to complex research problems.

(Communications, Winter 98/99)

## Call for participation

The 28th Annual Conference, November 4-6, 1999 in Washington, D. C

The Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA) invites participation in its 28th annual conference. Conference topics include voluntarism, the nature of the third sector and its place in society, the management of nonprofit organizations, international and comparative studies of the third sector and the teaching of nonprofit studies. As well, proposals can address issues related to specific sub-sectors such as grassroots and community development, health, social services, religion, culture, civic benefit, recreation, education, environmental protection and advocacy.

As we convene in Washington on the eve of a new millennium, it is appropriate to ask how the

sector has fared since 1900, is faring today, and where it is heading in the 21st century. Therefore, in addition to the topics listed above, we invite participation in several special focus areas:

- Giving and volunteering in communities of color;
- The changing state of government-nonprofit sector relations;
- The role of the third sector in public policy making;
- The nature and impact of advocacy activities by nonprofit organizations;
- Social movements as agents of social change;
- The changing size, shape and/or impact of the third sector

ARNOVA takes pride in being a multi-disciplinary organization appealing to both academics and

sector leaders. For this reason we welcome participation from scholars in all academic disciplines as well as from nonprofit organization executives, foundation staff, consultants, and policymakers.

Graduate students are also encouraged to submit proposals based on relevant dissertation research.

Five ways to participate in ARNOVA '99!

- 1 Submit a proposal for a paper;
- 2 Submit a proposal for a panel session;
- 3 Submit a proposal for a poster session (\*NEW this year)
- 4 Volunteer to act as the chairperson and discussant for a conference session;
- 5 Just come, network, and share in more than 350 great presentations!

To be a presenter, send a one-page proposal including the required PARTICIPATION COVER FORM to the ARNOVA Executive Office, c/o Indiana University Center on Philanthropy, 550 W. North Street, Suite 301, Indianapolis, IN 46202 (phone 317/684-2120;

fax 317/684-2128). Proposals will be accepted by mail or fax. We regret that we cannot accept proposals via e-mail.

To volunteer as a Session Chair/Discussant, just return the Participation cover form.

Proposals for participation must be received by March 31, 1999-

Executive Office:  
Indiana University Center on  
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550 W. North Street, Suite 301  
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(317) 684-2120  
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