

TRANSNATIONAL

ASSOCIATIONS

TRANSNATIONALES



La collaboration entre les
organisations intergouvernementales
et les associations internationales

Current Issues
in NGO Management:
Principles and Practices

1988 - n° 6

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associations and meetings

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et des réunions internationales

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des réunions internationales



40th year

Revue bimestrielle 1988

40^e année

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

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

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

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

Cette publication, éditée par l'UAI, se présente à ses lecteurs sous la forme d'une revue de période bimestrielle.

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

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

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

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TRANSNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

ASSOCIATIONS TRANSNATIONALES

1988 - N° 6

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L'Union des associations internationales et les droits de l'homme

Ce numéro de la Revue, le dernier de 1988, est composé au moment où se célèbre le quarantième anniversaire de la Déclaration universelle des droits de l'homme.

Notre Institut se devait de relever cette date, lui dont la vocation - universelle - est précisément de se consacrer spécifiquement à un droit de l'homme - le droit d'association - dont l'existence et la mise en œuvre sont des éléments essentiels du respect et de l'application des autres droits et libertés.

Il n'est pas sans intérêt de rappeler à cet égard, que selon ses statuts, le premier objectif de l'UAI est *«de concourir à un ordre universel fondé sur des principes de dignité humaine, de solidarité des peuples et de libre communication»*.

Parmi les droits de l'homme, la liberté d'association revêt une place très particulière. Elle est la condition de l'exercice de beaucoup d'autres, et au moins en favorise la connaissance et la diffusion. Il suffit de constater combien d'associations ont pour objectif le respect et la défense de l'un ou l'autre droit de l'homme en particulier, et la notoriété et l'efficacité atteintes par certaines d'entre elles.

L'association constitue ainsi un pont entre l'individu et la société qui l'entoure - au départ des contacts qu'il établit dans son entourage immédiat, puis dans des collectivités plus larges, nationales, régionales, internationales, pour tendre, en cercles concentriques selon l'expression du ministre Harmel, vers l'universel.

Cette complémentarité des efforts humains vers une solidarité active se retrouve non seulement sur le plan de l'espace, mais en même temps dans celui des relations entre secteur public et secteur privé, lucratif et non

lucratif. Des rapports humains harmonieux dépendent d'un juste équilibre entre ces éléments, où concourent les critères de l'équité et de l'efficacité, et notamment l'utilisation judicieuse de l'immense force que représente la conjonction des actions du volontariat, du bénévolat, du civisme.

On est frappé à cet égard par le développement prodigieux du monde des associations internationales (et plus généralement des «forces transnationales») qui doit être considéré désormais comme «acteur» de la vie internationale, à côté des Etats et organisations intergouvernementales, - ainsi que le professeur Marcel Merle de l'Université de Paris a eu très tôt le mérite de l'établir^(*).

Personne n'a le monopole des droits de l'homme, et c'est l'un des mérites du Colloque organisé à Bruxelles en décembre pour commémorer la Déclaration universelle, d'avoir fait ressortir que la reconnaissance de cette notion des droits de l'homme peut être retrouvée dans la plus haute antiquité.

Mais ce n'est pas non plus un hasard que notre Union des associations internationales soit née dans une région du monde qui, en dépit et peut-être aussi à cause de vicissitudes et de tragédies, a eu le privilège - plus tôt que d'autres - d'assister à une grande concentration d'associations internationales et d'y voir reconnaître le droit d'association, avec les autres grandes libertés, non seulement dans le texte des lois fondamentales, mais aussi dans les faits.

Ces éléments, cette antériorité, cette expérience expliquent que dans un cadre certes plus restreint à ce stade, les droits de l'homme aient pu acquérir non seulement une définition juridique, mais un système juridictionnel dans la Convention de sauvegarde des droits de l'homme et des libertés fondamentales du Conseil de l'Europe. Et aussi que ce soit dans ce même cadre régional qu'ait été conclue la Convention européenne sur la reconnaissance de la personnalité juridique des organisations internationales non gouvernementales - dont l'UAI appelle la ratification de ses vœux - et qui doit donner aux associations et fondations internationales des moyens d'action accrus.

Telles sont les quelques réflexions qu'inspirent les circonstances présentes. L'UAI se réjouit d'avoir été appelée à participer à la commémoration par le pays-hôte de la Déclaration universelle des droits de l'homme. La journée du 7 décembre, qui y a été consacrée, comprenait, outre les interventions des ministres des Affaires étrangères et de la Justice, un message de M. Pérez de Cuéllar qui a été lu par le représentant de l'Organisation des Nations Unies, ainsi que des exposés des points de vues occidentaux, du tiers monde et soviétique en la matière, - l'après-midi étant consacrée aux interventions des ONG. L'UAI a également été priée par les autorités de l'Etat hôte de concourir à l'organisation d'une exposition consacrée aux droits de l'homme qui aura lieu au printemps 1989.

Ces diverses activités et réflexions se situent pour nous à un moment particulièrement opportun, à la veille de 1990 où notre Institut célébrera le quatre-vingtième anniversaire de sa fondation.

Jacques Raeymaeckers

(*) Voir *Sociologie des Relations Internationales* Dalloz 1988, 4ème édition entièrement revue et mise à jour.

**La collaboration entre
les organisations intergouvernementales
et les associations internationales**
*Cooperation between
Intergovernmental Organisations and
International Associations*

Message of Mr, Javier Pérez de Cuéllar,
Secretary General of the United Nations, and address by Mr John
Reeds, Under-Secretary General for Political and General Assembly
Affairs and Secretariat Services

at the 17th general Conference of NGOs in Consultative Status with the United Nations
Economic and Social Council, 6-9 September 1988

I am happy to convey to you the greetings of the Secretary-General and his best wishes for the success of your seventeenth General Assembly. It is an honor for me to deliver his message to you :

«Your organizations have been valuable partners of the United Nations right from the start. For more than four decades you have contributed to deliberations that led to the adoption of important decisions, and you have generously used your experience to mobilize public support at the national level to implement United Nations resolutions. You have generated support and respect for the United Nations around the world. Such commitment to the United Nations is a unique common thread in your otherwise diverse purposes and goals. It is your diversity and variety as well as your number that strengthens your support for the United Nations.

You were present at the creation of the world organization, and your expertise was acknowledged in Article 71 of the Charter, which authorized the Economic and Social Council to «make suitable arrangements for consultation with non-governmental organizations which are concerned with matters within its competence ». Since then, you have participated actively and productively in a wide range of United Nations programmes. It is only fitting that you should choose at this time to re-examine your wider role in the new realities of an interdependent world.

In this year of the 40th anniversary of the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, I am particularly mindful of the contributions that non-governmental organizations have made in the field of human rights. Many of the references in the Charter to human rights and to the dignity and worth of the human person flow from proposals that were championed by non-governmental organizations at San Francisco in 1945. Over the years, you have shown great courage in drawing the attention of the United Nations to hu-

man rights violations that demanded action. You have also made constructive suggestions as to studies that should be made, or international instruments that needed to be drafted. I am proud of the United Nations record on human rights and I am grateful for your contribution to that record.

I should also like to pay tribute to what NGOs have done - and are doing - for development generally and especially in Africa. You have been active in working for the implementation of the Programme of Action for African Recovery and Development. At a conference in Geneva this spring, non-governmental organizations - led by African NGOs - set an agenda for institutional priorities in carrying out the Programme. You also put forward policy positions for promoting national and regional strategies. Aspects of the implementation of the Programme, including the role of NGOs, will be further considered at a session of the *Ad Hoc* Committee of the Whole of the General Assembly meeting later this month. I will not go over now all the other areas where your organizations have been working in partnership with the United Nations. I cannot, however, let this occasion pass without mentioning your invaluable support for the promotion of sustainable and environmentally sound development. You helped to create the Report of the Commission on Environment and Development and are playing an essential - and growing - role in its follow up. You have also alerted the world to the environmental hazards resulting from industrial accidents and the harm which can be caused by pesticides and other toxic substances.

Mr. President, distinguished Delegates, I am certain that so long as there is a United Nations there will be a constant need for dialogue and consultation with non-governmental organizations. I should like again to thank you for your long-standing support. I wish you every success in your deliberations and look forward to a continuing partnership in the common search for peace, justice and economic progress».

Friends of the United Nations :

I would like at this point, in my capacity as Under-Secretary-General for Political and General Assembly Affairs and Secretariat Services, to offer some additional reflections after the inspiring message of the Secretary-General.

Let me begin by reminding you that my Office has the welcome responsibility for co-ordinating relations between non-governmental organizations, the Secretariat and United Nations programmes. My Office also provides policy guidance to the various Secretariat units dealing with non-governmental organizations, and advice to the Secretary-General on matters related to his participation in activities organized by NGOs. My predecessors and I have worked closely with you over the years and I look for our friendship to become even more productive.

I think you will agree that a major problem the United Nations faces is that it is misperceived. Some expect too much from us; some expect too little. Some expect us to change faster: some expect us to remain as we were 43 years ago. At times our faults are magnified; at times they are minimized. It seems we are too often being viewed through a telescope - and whichever end is used to peer through, the result is unrealistic. Now that we are in the news, our image has improved, but there is still a danger of distortion.

The United Nations is not a super-Government, nor has it ever pretended to be one. It does not ignore national sovereignty at any time; on the contrary, it enhances national sovereignty by providing an international forum for its expression.

The United Nations is not a super-hero, even now that it is playing a dynamic role in attempting to settle several regional conflicts. Nor was it ever a super-villain when it was prevented from playing a significant role in the settlement of those same conflicts. The United Nations is what it is : an intergovernmental organization that responds to the needs of its Member States and their peoples, at the same time that it is adapting to historical change.

If we are anything « super », it is that we are super-patient and super-persistent in our desire for peace. In the war in the Gulf we were patient for 8 years, persistent in our insistence on peace, persistent in the proposals we offered through the Security Council, and persistent in the use of the Secretary-General's good offices.

Now that the cease-fire in the Gulf seems to be holding, and negotiations are underway in earnest, it is generally acknowledged that the Secretary-General has played and is playing a crucial role. And it is generally understood that without the unanimous adoption of Security Council resolution 598, which forms a framework for a durable settlement, negotiations would be much more difficult. The United Nations deserves credit for its actions in trying to bring an end to the conflict in the Gulf. But it deserves credit as a mediator, not as a magician.

In the situation relating to Afghanistan, the Secretary-General certainly played a major role in the process that led to the Geneva Accords. But the United Nations did not in any way impose those Accords. It could not have mediated those Accords without the concurrence of the super-Powers. We were useful because we were there when needed, and because we were patient and persistent in our contacts with the parties to the Accords.

Turning to southern Africa, the Governments concerned with the situation there have kept the Secretary-General informed of their deliberations in support of United Nations efforts to bring peace to Angola and genuine independence to Namibia. The fact that negotiations are currently being conducted outside the United Nations in no way lessens our involvement in the peace process. All parties to the negotiations generally agree that Security Council resolution 435, adopted in 1978, will form the basis for Namibian independence.

In the Western Sahara, the Secretary-General made a peace proposal that was a compromise among the various positions expressed by the parties concerned. For several years, the persistent position of the Secretary-General has been to seek a practical way of allowing the people of the Western Sahara to exercise their right to self-determination through a freely conducted referendum. The Foreign Minister of Morocco and the representative of the Frente POLISARIO have now accepted this proposal. This is yet another example of multilateralism in action.

In Kampuchea, in Cyprus, in the Middle East, wherever there is regional conflict, the United Nations is involved. When asked - and with the co-operation of the parties involved and that of the Security Council - the United Nations is prepared to act.

Of course the United Nations also respects bilateral and regional efforts to resolve conflict. But today very few disputes remain bilateral, or regional, or even sub-regional. They often invite the military, financial and political intervention of Outside powers. In such situations, international mediation is needed, and there is no better mediator than the United Nations, which always insists that the actors in every negotiation respect the purposes and principles of the Charter.

Another area where our interests have come together is in the field of disarmament. Earlier this year you participated in the Third Special Session of the General Assembly devoted to disarmament, and brought to the debates extensive knowledge based on the interests of your varied constituencies. I am sure you will be an invaluable help in bringing back to those same constituencies the initiatives of the Third Special Session.

Although the contributions of the United Nations in the field of disarmament are not always evident, they are persistent and constructive. For example, even though we were not directly involved in talks leading to the recent signing of the INF Treaty between the Soviet Union and the United States, both super-powers benefited from the fact that the United Nations - through its debates, international conferences and information activities - constantly promotes an atmosphere in which disarmament negotiations can flourish. With regard to the INF Treaty, the United Nations warmly endorsed it.

More important, since so many States, large and small, now possess massive military arsenals, and since some States are on the threshold of achieving nuclear capability, it is clear that lasting agreements on arms limitation must be multilateral. We are not living in a world where only two or three nations have destructive capability. Thus, even major bilateral agreements such as the INF must extend their scope, and the United Nations is the most effective international organization for sponsoring multilateral negotiations. We have

the machinery, we have the broad representation, we have the experience. And we also have, I am sure, the allegiance of organizations like yours to help us reach the peoples of the world, which provide our ultimate support and are the ultimate beneficiaries of all arms reduction agreements.

Last year, the United Nations held an international conference on the relation between disarmament and development. You were there, and once again your voices were heard. The main theme of that conference was that there is a triangular relationship among disarmament, development and international security. Without international security we shall not have a cogent basis for disarmament; and without disarmament, we shall not be able to summon the vast resources needed for economic and social development. The United Nations was perhaps the first international organization to realize that development is the path to peace.

At the same time, as we all know, no institution or group of institutions, however diligent, can implement programmes when the necessary financial funding is not forthcoming. That dilemma, unfortunately, is the case with regard to Africa, where the good intentions of the international community as manifested in the General Assembly have been frustrated by the lack of meaningful financial commitment. African Governments have been making a great effort to comply with the austerity measures demanded by international financial institutions and donor Governments. It is time now to reward that good faith. It is time for the international community to honor its promises.

Financial responsibility, of course, extends to more than Africa. It is also a factor in the future of the United Nations as a whole. We have important challenges ahead, especially in the areas of peace-keeping and peace-making. In the Gulf, in Afghanistan, in Cyprus, in southern Africa, in Western Sahara, in Kampuchea - areas where a United Nations presence may be needed to assist in bringing about an enduring peace, the cost to the Organization may rise to billions of dollars. And yet, the cost of continued hostilities would be even more - in terms of human suffering and material destruction. Peace is expensive, but it is always cheaper than war. The international community must honor its financial commitment to peace.

Meanwhile, our cash flow problems at the United Nations are not limited to peace-keeping operations. We are in the midst of a financial crisis with regard to our daily operations as well, because several Member States - foremost among them, our major contributor - are not paying their assessments, in spite of the fact that they are legally obliged to do so under the Charter. And since we are not allowed to go into deficit or to borrow, I regret to say that at the present pace we will have exhausted all our funds by early November. We are authorized to make peace, but not to print money.

What is particularly frustrating in the current crisis is that many of the administrative and budgetary reforms that were asked for have, in fact, been put into place. And yet, we are still being denied the support that was promised. The 1988-89 budget was the first negative growth budget in recent history. In response to another demand, budget decisions in the Committee on Programme and Co-ordination (CPC) are now taken by consensus.

Personnel reforms, including the 15 per cent reduction in personnel that was recommended by the Group of 18, have been proceeding apace. At this time, the vacancy rate is over

13 per cent, and we are only little more than halfway through the three-year period given to implement that 15 per cent reduction. Toward a target reduction of 14 Under- and Assistant-Secretary-General posts, 9 are now vacant or have been cut. I'd say such progress is evidence of good faith on the part of the Organization. And if the Organization bargains in good faith, then it has the right to expect that its Member States will meet their obligations in good faith.

The United Nations is most visible when it is acting as an intermediary to end belligerency. But it also has an important presence that is seldom visible at all. Day in and day out, the United Nations is quietly working to improve the living standards of all peoples, with the aim of contributing to the creation of a world where every individual will be able to live in freedom and justice. The dignity and worth of the human person are at the core of the philosophy of the United Nations.

When the Secretary-General arranges for a cease-fire between Iran and Iraq, we can read about it on the front pages of all the great newspapers. But how often do we read about an activity such as the world-wide information and education programme being sponsored jointly by the United Nations and the World Health Organization to help find a cure for the lethal AIDS pandemic? And we all know that a world free of AIDS would be a better world in which to live.

At the United Nations we say that development is another name for peace. We believe that if people of all nations were to have the opportunity for economic and social development, there would be less reason for conflict. The United Nations is acting every day to stimulate economic and social development. Let me give you a few examples, examples that, appropriately, demonstrate co-operation between the World Organization and various NGOs.

About a year ago, almost 500 indigenous Colombian NGOs met in Medellin to discuss efforts toward the elimination of critical poverty in Colombia. The meeting was convened jointly by the Office of the President of Colombia and UNDP. UNDP is providing technical support for the secretariat established by that meeting. It is important to note that many developing countries lack the institutional network to allow them to take advantage of economic planning. The United Nations can help to create that institutional network.

This spring in Ghana an association of private organizations held a workshop with support from the World Bank and UNDP. The workshop concentrated on how NGOs might help carry out the Government's programme to limit the social costs of economic adjustment in Ghana. Participants explored the roles NGOs might play in employment and income generation, community initiatives, shelter, health, nutrition and water supply. As always, United Nations agencies are looking at ways to help people help themselves.

In Bangladesh, a non-governmental organization by the name of Swanirvar, working under a subcontract with the International Labour Organisation, will provide management training for 50,000 village women entrepreneurs. Courses will progress from basic management training for all 50,000 women to upgraded, advanced technical and leadership training for smaller groups.

The United Nations is an amazing Organization, and one of the reasons it is able to accomplish as much as it does is because it has friends like yourselves to help it to reach out to the peoples of the world. We could not do it alone. We need your co-operation.

I have mentioned the Organization's activities in conflict resolution, and I have mentioned some of the grass-roots programmes of the United Nations and its specialized agencies. Now, to show you the breadth and relevance of the Organization, let me mention an entirely different, but no less important, area of activity, I am talking about international law.

Some of you may be lawyers. No doubt all of you at one time have needed the services of lawyers. In general, laws set the boundaries for civilized behaviour and, in international society, for the promotion of stability and peaceful dialogue. They set the framework for diplomacy. Did you know that in the course of 43 years more than 300 international accords have been concluded under United Nations auspices ? Those accords include treaties dealing with domains never before regulated by written law, such as the sea bed and outer space, strategic areas that belong to mankind's common heritage.

The United Nations has been instrumental in the initiation and adoption of multilateral treaties dealing with subjects as diverse as disarmament, human rights, narcotic drugs, trade and development, commodities, transport and diplomatic and consular relations.

Those of you who came to New York by plane benefitted from safety regulations devolving from international treaties negotiated under United Nations auspices. Many of you at this conference are benefiting in the field of human rights from national legislation that was inspired by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its main provisions.

And all of us will eventually benefit from a 1985 Vienna Convention for the protection of the ozone layer that surrounds our common planet. That Convention will enter into force next week, on September 22, 1988. In addition, one year ago, nations meeting at a conference in Montreal, sponsored by the United Nations Environment Programme, rea-

ched an international agreement to reduce the use of ozone-damaging chemicals used in refrigeration, air-conditioning, electronic industries and other important technologies.

These examples of United Nations concern for the quality of human life are, in a way, invisible, as I have suggested. But they are no less vital.

In closing, I should like to recall the words of former United States President Harry S. Truman to the opening session of the United Nations Conference on International Organizations, held in San Francisco on April 25, 1945. Although the United Nations has changed in the course of 43 years, many of the dreams and aspirations of its founders are still relevant. They are relevant because the desire of human beings to live in pace with one another is timeless. Here are President Truman's words :

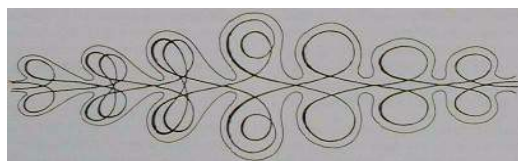
« We fully realize today that victory in war requires a mighty united effort. Certainly, victory in peace calls for and must receive an equal effort.

« Man has learned long ago that it is impossible to live unto himself. This same basic principle applies today to nations. We were not isolated during the war; we dare not now become isolated in peace.

« All will concede that in order to have good neighbors we must also be good neighbors. That applies to every field of human endeavor».

The message of the United Nations to the peoples of the world today is that the world is ever more interdependent. Each day technological advances in transportation and communication bring us closer together. Co-operation is as essential as it is inevitable. You, as emissaries of the peoples of the world, can help by carrying this message of unity back to your constituencies. The United Nations is working for us. Let us work for the United Nations.

I wish you every success in your deliberations.



Les OING et l'Unesco

Dans un bref article publié dans le n° 4 de la Revue *Associations transnationales* (1987), nous avons signalé le débat qui s'est instauré dès 1986 au sein du Conseil exécutif de l'Unesco sur les procédures de coopération entre l'Unesco et les OING (Les documents officiels relatifs à ce débat ainsi que les rapports pertinents du Comité permanent des OING ont été reproduits dans la Revue pp. 221-228).

A la suite des consultations approfondies du Conseil exécutif, d'une part avec les secteurs de programme du Secrétariat et, d'autre part avec les organisations internationales individuellement et avec le Comité permanent des OING, le Conseil exécutif a conclu (127^e Session, Novembre 1987) que *"les directives concernant les relations de l'Unesco avec les OING continuent d'être un moyen approprié pour régir ces relations"* et qu'il convient de s'attacher à une application plus rigoureuse de ce règlement, notamment en ce qui concerne l'octroi de subventions.

Une tâche majeure que le Secrétariat est appelé à accomplir avant la prochaine Conférence générale de l'Unesco (octobre 1989) est la préparation d'un rapport sexennal sur le concours apporté à l'action de l'Unesco par les organisations internationales non gouvernementales. Un groupe de travail du Conseil exécutif est chargé de co-opérer avec le Secrétariat dans l'établissement d'un projet de rapport, tout en *"poursuivant le dialogue amorcé entre le Conseil exécutif, les organisations internationales non gouvernementales et le Comité permanent des OING"*.

Ainsi, l'initiative du Conseil exécutif prise en 1986 en vue de réviser les procédures de relations entre l'Unesco et les OING initiative qui inquiétait, à juste titre, la communauté des ONG a abouti, après plusieurs mois de discussions et de consultations entre les partenaires intéressés, à une conclusion qui sauvegarde les bases réglementaires de relations qui se sont avérées largement satisfaisantes. Ce qui a menacé de devenir une crise a finalement conduit à l'ouverture d'un débat fondamental entre le Conseil exécutif, le Secrétariat et les OING et a permis de clarifier certaines notions et disperser certains malentendus.

Activités collectives des OING

Une Conférence générale (la 21^e de la série) des OING co-opérant avec l'Unesco s'est tenue du 13 au 17 juin 1988 au

siège de l'Unesco. Le nouveau directeur de l'Unesco, M. Federico Mayor, qui a déjà eu l'occasion d'exprimer son attitude éminemment positive à l'égard des OING, a prononcé un discours substantiel, invitant notamment les OING à joindre leurs efforts à ceux de l'Unesco en aidant *"à relever plusieurs défis essentiels auxquels l'Organisation est confrontée: surmonter la crise générale de la co-opération multilatérale, mobiliser les forces vives de l'intelligence et de la création à l'échelle mondiale"*.

La Conférence a adopté 12 résolutions qui invitent les OING, en co-opération avec le Secrétariat de l'Unesco, à porter leur action sur des tâches concrètes : développement de la co-opération avec les bureaux régionaux de l'Unesco et les commissions nationales ; dans ce contexte, des arrangements ont été pris pour organiser des "consultations" régionales des OING en Asie, en Amérique latine et ultérieurement dans les pays arabes et en Europe ; renforcement de la communication Unesco-OING et OING-Unesco et la production et diffusion de documents d'information de part et d'autre; mise en place d'une banque informatisée de données sur les OING qui permettrait aux fonctionnaires de l'Unesco, aux commissions nationales et aux OING elles-mêmes d'accéder rapidement aux informations nécessaires.

D'autres thèmes proposés à l'action collective des OING visent notamment:

- l'alphabétisation - en préparation à l'Année internationale d'alphabétisation prévue par les Nations Unies pour 1990. Une récente consultation d'OING sur l'alphabétisation (faisant suite aux 4 consultations précédentes) s'est tenue à Istanbul (Turquie) du 7 au 9 septembre 1988;
- la condition de la femme;
- l'éducation pour la promotion des droits de l'homme;
- un programme multidisciplinaire concernant l'enfant comme facteur du développement culturel;
- l'amélioration de la condition des enseignants et des autres éducateurs.

La Conférence a élu pour deux ans 15 membres du Comité permanent représentant les grands secteurs d'intérêt d'OING co-opérant avec l'Unesco. Elle a également choisi un président - Mme Odile Moreau (Fédération internationale des universités catholiques).

Vladimir Hercik

Extrait de l'allocution de M. Federico Mayor

directeur général de l'Unesco

lors de la 21^e Conférence des ONG bénéficiant du statut consultatif auprès de l'Unesco
le 14 juin 1988*

... Que ferait en effet l'Unesco, en matière éducative, si elle ne pouvait compter sur la coopération des organisations qui regroupent les premiers responsables de la formation des jeunes ? Que ferait-elle dans le domaine scientifique, si elle ne pouvait compter, pour la réalisation de ses programmes, sur la communauté des chercheurs et des travailleurs scientifiques de par le monde ? Que ferait-elle si elle ne pouvait compter, dans le domaine de l'information et de la communication, sur une relation de confiance et de haut niveau professionnel avec les associations de journalistes, les spécialistes dans le domaine de l'audiovisuel, etc. ? Que ferait-elle enfin dans le domaine de la culture, si elle ne pouvait compter sur l'immense potentiel créateur des poètes, des écrivains, des artistes, des architectes du monde entier ?

Mais si elle compte sur tous ces talents et toutes ces compétences, elle se doit de mériter constamment leur confiance, en plaçant son activité au cœur de leurs interrogations et de leurs espérances communes, et en les aidant à réaliser, par-delà tout ce qui menace de les séparer, tout ce qui permet de les unir.

Comme je le soulignais dans le discours que j'ai prononcé le 16 novembre dernier, lors de mon installation en tant que directeur général de cette Organisation, «l'Unesco ne vend pas de pain, mais de la levure, et son rôle est celui d'un catalyseur, d'un déclencheur de processus, d'un créateur d'effet synergétique ».

Dans les années Qui viennent, l'Unesco est ainsi appelée à relever plusieurs défis essentiels. Elle doit joindre ses efforts à ceux de toutes les organisations du système des Nations Unies pour surmonter la crise générale de la coopération multilatérale. Dans ce cadre, elle doit réaffirmer sa raison d'être spécifique, en tant qu'organisation plus spécialement chargée des dimensions éthiques, intellectuelles et culturelles de ce système de coopération.

Elle saura relever ces défis, dans la mesure où elle épousera les attentes réel/es du monde d'aujourd'hui. Dans la mesure aussi où elle saura faire porter son effort, avec une efficacité maximale, sur ce qu'elle est seule à pouvoir accomplir en raison de sa compétence. Dans la mesure, enfin, où elle réussira à mobiliser les forces vives de l'intelligence et de la création à l'échelle mondiale tout en tenant compte de la diversité des contextes culturels et économiques, avec, pour finalité ultime, l'épanouissement concret de chaque être humain.

Dans les semaines qui ont suivi ma prise de fonction, j'ai tenu à rencontrer personnellement le Comité permanent que

* Les points essentiels de cette allocution ont été repris par M. Federico Mayor à l'occasion du dîner organisé par l'Union des OING établies en France, le 20 octobre 1988, sur le thème « *l'Unesco des Etats et des personnes. La coopération avec les ONG: nouvelles perspectives* ».

vous aviez élu lors de votre dernière Conférence, ainsi que les membres de votre Bureau.

Je voudrais vous redire la satisfaction que j'ai éprouvée en prenant connaissance de l'ensemble des travaux qui ont été accomplis par votre Comité au cours des deux dernières années. Je pense notamment aux deux colloques que vous avez tenus sur l'éducation pour la paix et la compréhension internationale, à celui consacré au «droit de créer», ainsi qu'à la contribution apportée aux travaux du Secrétariat dans le cadre des groupes de travail que vous avez constitués sur l'information et l'éducation en matière de droits de l'homme, la condition des femmes elles questions relatives à la famille et à l'enfance. Je me réfère également au séminaire éminemment productif que vous avez tenu à la veille du lancement de la Décennie mondiale du développement culturel.

Je voudrais par ailleurs souligner l'intérêt des conclusions du séminaire organisé, en avril dernier, à l'initiative de votre Comité, et en étroite collaboration avec le Secrétariat, en vue du renforcement des relations de consultation et de coopération de l'Unesco avec les organisations internationales non gouvernementales.

J'ai étudié avec grand soin les trois projets de résolutions qui se dégagent des travaux de ce séminaire et que votre Bureau a adressés pour examen et adoption éventuelle par votre Conférence. Dans les semaines qui suivront la clôture de celle-ci, mes collaborateurs et moi-même nous mettrons en rapport avec le Comité permanent et le Bureau que vous vous apprêtez à élire afin d'examiner concrètement les suites qui peuvent être réservées aux résolutions que vous aurez prises, en particulier sur les questions concrètes qui s'adressent directement au directeur général.

Je voudrais, d'ores et déjà, vous dire que le Secrétariat ne ménagera aucun effort afin d'améliorer les processus de consultation individuelle et collective des ONG en vue de susciter leur contribution à l'élaboration des programmes de l'Organisation. S'agissant particulièrement de la préparation du prochain Plan à moyen terme, vos organisations seront consultées dans les prochains mois. Je me réjouis d'ailleurs, à cet égard, qu'à la suite de la réunion que j'ai eue avec votre Bureau le 11 février dernier, celui-ci ait décidé d'inscrire cette question à l'ordre du jour de votre Conférence.

Les projets de résolutions élaborés par votre Bureau, concernant notamment l'amélioration des systèmes de communication et d'information, témoignent du double souci de maintenir des relations de confiance entre nos organisations et d'accroître l'efficacité de leur coopération sur les objectifs que nous avons en commun. La constitution d'une base de données sur les ONG et la production ultérieure d'un annuaire permettant aux Etats membres, aux commissions nationales ainsi qu'aux différentes unités de Secrétariat de

mieux apprécier la contribution de vos organisations à la réalisation du programme font actuellement l'objet d'une étude de faisabilité et j'aurai prochainement à me prononcer sur la réalisation de ce projet. Le Conseil exécutif lui-même a d'ailleurs exprimé le vœu que celui-ci puisse être mis en œuvre dans les meilleurs délais.

Vous avez également exprimé le souhait que soit renforcée l'Unité du Secrétariat chargée de coordonner la coopération de l'Unesco avec vos organisations. Cette résolution rejoint une décision prise la semaine dernière par le Conseil exécutif me demandant d'agir dans le même sens. Je me propose de prendre très prochainement des décisions à ce sujet, dans le cadre de la restructuration du Secrétariat et du renforcement de certaines unités jugées prioritaires pour son avenir.

Enfin, comme vous le savez, la Conférence générale et le Conseil exécutif ont, à maintes reprises, réaffirmé la nécessité, pour les organisations non gouvernementales, de s'étendre à un plus grand nombre de pays, de diversifier la localisation de leurs activités, ainsi que la provenance régionale de leurs principaux dirigeants. Les efforts accomplis par vos organisations sur ces différents plans au cours des deux dernières décennies sont particulièrement significatifs et appréciés d'ailleurs à leur juste valeur par l'Unesco.

Il reste encore, bien sûr, des progrès à accomplir. A cet égard, la tenue de deux consultations régionales d'ONG au cours du présent exercice biennal, l'une en Amérique latine et dans les Caraïbes, l'autre dans la région d'Asie et du Pacifique, faisant suite d'ailleurs à celle organisée à Dakar pour l'Afrique, en 1987, est de nature à favoriser l'expression d'identités culturelles spécifiques et à renforcer la coopération des ONG avec les unités décentralisées du Secrétariat. Partant de l'expérience réussie de Dakar, je ne doute pas que l'excellente coopération qui s'est déroulée entre le Secrétariat et le Comité permanent des ONG à cette occasion pourra se renouveler lors des deux prochaines consultations.

Si vous le permettez, je voudrais maintenant vous entretenir brièvement de la préparation du troisième Plan à moyen terme pour 1990-1995. Une première esquisse, destinée initialement au Conseil exécutif, vous a été récemment adressée par le Secrétariat. Elle a fait l'objet d'un très large échange de vues dans le cadre de la 129^e session du Conseil exécutif qui vient de terminer ses travaux. Mes collaborateurs auront l'occasion, ainsi que vous en avez exprimé le souhait, de vous informer du contenu des travaux du Conseil 3 ce sujet.

Il va sans dire que le Secrétariat tiendra le plus grand compte des idées, critiques et suggestions formulées par les communautés intellectuelles du monde entier en vue de refléter dans le Plan, à la fois la multiplicité des préoccupations spécifiques qui s'expriment dans les différentes régions et l'unité des aspirations fondamentales de la communauté humaine tout entière.

L'esquisse, dont le texte est contenu dans le document 129 EX/4, tente de répondre à deux exigences complémentaires. La première est de nature éthique. Elle s'appuie sur les valeurs qui ont inspiré la création de l'Unesco et qui visent à affirmer, dans le cadre des domaines de compétence de l'Organisation, la liberté et la dignité de tous les hommes, l'autodétermination de tous les peuples, la justice et la solidarité entre toutes les nations, la paix et la prospérité com-

mune de l'humanité. La seconde de ces exigences est de nature pratique. Elle vise à une insertion toujours plus fine de l'action de l'Organisation dans le tissu vivant des relations culturelles et intellectuelles de ses Etats membres, ainsi qu'à une efficacité toujours plus grande de cette action.

En fonction de ces deux exigences, le plan proposé met l'accent sur cinq grands axes de réflexion et d'action.

Le premier axe consiste à explorer et à stimuler le potentiel créateur de l'homme, c'est-à-dire à promouvoir inséparablement les valeurs collectives de justice, de solidarité et de progrès, et les valeurs individuelles de la liberté de penser, de créer et de produire.

Le second axe consiste à œuvrer en faveur de l'accès au savoir et au savoir-faire de chaque personne dans les différentes sociétés. Ce qui implique, bien entendu, l'alphabétisation générale, non seulement au sens élémentaire du terme, mais dans un sens plus vaste, incluant les principes scientifiques et techniques élémentaires désormais indispensables pour faire face aux multiples problèmes quotidiens de la vie moderne.

Le troisième axe consiste à répondre à l'urgent besoin de restaurer et de préserver des équilibres dynamiques entre l'homme et son environnement.

Le quatrième axe consiste à approfondir et à renforcer les liens entre science et cultures, ou plus exactement entre une culture scientifique et des cultures artistiques, entre une rationalité universelle et l'infinie diversité des sensibilités et des modes d'expression esthétique.

Le cinquième axe consiste, à travers l'ensemble des réseaux de communication, à l'échelle internationale comme à celle de chaque région et de chaque nation, à développer simultanément la liberté de l'information et la compréhension mutuelle entre les peuples et entre les cultures. Ce qui implique la poursuite objective de la vérité, ainsi que la libre circulation des idées, des nouvelles et des connaissances à travers toutes les frontières.

Autour des cinq axes que je viens d'évoquer, l'esquisse propose par ailleurs un certain nombre de programmes prioritaires et mobilisateurs qui devraient avoir pour caractéristique de faire appel à différents domaines de compétence de l'Organisation, de conjuguer diverses disciplines intellectuelles, de lier la réflexion, l'échange d'expériences et l'initiative opérationnelle, et qui seraient, à cette fin, dotés d'une large autonomie de gestion. Ces programmes ne seraient évidemment pas conçus en dehors des axes d'action que je viens de mentionner, mais plutôt dans les espaces où ces axes se croisent et où l'action peut produire des effets surmultipliés.

La contribution de vos organisations est attendue, non seulement sur les orientations majeures du Plan, mais également en vue d'approfondir cette notion de partenariat qui les unira à l'œuvre de l'Unesco dans les années à venir.

Sans préjuger des résultats de la réflexion qui se dégagera de vos diverses consultations, il me semble évident que le choix des partenaires non gouvernementaux qui seront le plus étroitement associés à la mise en œuvre du Plan devra notamment tenir compte :

- de leur adhésion aux valeurs et principes éthiques reconnus par la communauté internationale;

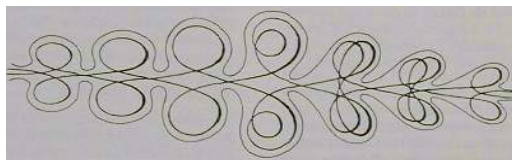
- de la compétence, de la représentativité géographique et de la vitalité des réseaux de coopération qu'ils offrent;
- de leur aptitude à mobiliser des ressources et à démultiplier l'action dans les différentes régions du monde.

Ainsi, Monsieur le Président, Mesdames, Messieurs, les mois qui viennent seront-ils consacrés à une intense activité de réflexion et de concertation pour préparer l'avenir de notre coopération.

Elle se déroulera parallèlement à la préparation du Rapport sexennal qui sera présenté par le Conseil exécutif à la prochaine session de la Conférence générale, concernant la contribution des organisations non gouvernementales à l'élaboration et à la mise en œuvre du Programme de l'Unesco. Ainsi qu'en a décidé le Conseil, à sa 129^e session, cette démarche, orientée vers l'avenir, se déroulera dans un esprit de dialogue avec l'ensemble de vos organisations.

Permettez-moi donc de conclure. Monsieur le Président en citant le préambule de l'Acte constitutif de l'Unesco, qu'il proclame - je cite - « qu'une paix fondée sur les seuls accords économiques et politiques des gouvernements ne saurait entraîner l'adhésion unanime, durable et sincère des peuples et que, par conséquent, cette paix doit être établie sur le fondement de la solidarité intellectuelle et morale de l'humanité ».

Comment signifier plus clairement que notre Organisation doit, non seulement associer à son œuvre l'ensemble des Etats qui composent la communauté internationale mais aussi ses peuples, et en particulier ses créateurs, ses chercheurs, ses enseignants, dont la voix s'exprime notamment par l'intermédiaire de vos associations ? Et comment mieux dire que nous sommes appelés, à l'avenir, à élargir et à renforcer encore l'espace où se rejoignent nos pas et où se conjuguent nos espérances ?



La coopération triangulaire

C'est ainsi que s'exprimait le 5 octobre dernier devant la Conférence des ONG, M. Furrer, directeur des Affaires politiques du Conseil de l'Europe, pour qualifier le caractère du Conseil de l'Europe : gouvernements, parlementaires, ONG, forment chacun l'un des côtés du triangle de la coopération qui soutient l'action du Conseil de l'Europe. "Le Conseil de l'Europe est un lieu de réflexion et il n'a pas de mains : vous êtes les mains" ajoutait M. Furrer à l'intention des ONG.

Cette réunion générale des ONG bénéficiant du statut consultatif auprès du Conseil de l'Europe avait pour thème la campagne Nord/Sud et plus spécifiquement l'Appel de Madrid, issu de la conférence tenue à Madrid du 1er au 3 juin 1988. M. Furrer s'est plu à rendre hommage à l'esprit de conciliation des ONG qui a présidé à cette conférence et qui a fait passer la volonté d'aboutir à des résolutions derrière lesquelles tout le monde pouvait se ranger, avant l'originalité de thèses individuelles.

M. Jarre, président du Comité de liaison des ONG auprès du Conseil de l'Europe, lui succédant à la tribune, souligna l'événement que constitue à ses yeux la participation des ONG à part entière à une conférence de parlementaires : les ONG n'y étaient pas les éternels "observateurs". C'est une étape importante de l'évolution de la démocratie parlementaire. On a pu constater que les ONG, dans cette circonstance, se sont montrées disciplinées, animées d'un esprit de tolérance et soucieuses d'un véritable engagement.

Abordant ensuite les raisons d'insatisfaction ou de frustration de la part des ONG, le président du Comité de liaison évoque les points suivants. Lorsqu'une campagne d'une telle ampleur est décidée par le Conseil de l'Europe, il serait très utile que les ONG en soient informées dès le départ. Comment ne pas regretter aussi le manque de soutien financier — évocation ici avec une certaine amertume de la situation confortable à cet égard des "ONG de Bruxelles" — et le manque de soutien logistique de la part du Conseil de l'Europe. Une difficulté de coordination existe entre le réseau des ONG auprès du Conseil de l'Europe et celui des ONG auprès des Communautés (DG VIII) et cela pour plusieurs raisons : à Strasbourg, le réseau est essentiellement francophone, à Bruxelles la langue de communication est l'anglais ; le réseau de Strasbourg groupe des associations internationales, le Comité de liaison de Bruxelles groupe des comités natio-

naux ; à Bruxelles, il existe une structure permanente développée, à Strasbourg la structure est mince et la coordination inexistante.

M. Jarre enfin souligne que si le tiers monde était présent dans les délégations ONG, c'était encore insuffisant : pour de telles initiatives, il faut des gens de terrain, aussi bien du Nord que du Sud.

Se tournant vers l'avenir, il est essentiel, affirme M. Jarre, que cet événement ne reste pas sans lendemain. Les ONG doivent s'engager et soutenir un travail intense de sensibilisation en faveur de la coopération Nord/Sud. Et là une pensée globale est de rigueur : il s'agit d'une approche dans tous les secteurs de la société. Pas seulement une action solidaire du Nord dans le Sud, mais une protection du Sud dans le Nord (pauvreté matérielle et culturelle, droit d'asile, etc.).

Le président du Comité de liaison suggère que se crée à l'intérieur du réseau des ONG consultatives auprès du Conseil de l'Europe un collectif d'intérêts Nord/Sud. Il propose aussi la mise sur pied d'un groupe s'engageant pour le développement global d'une région dans tous les aspects de sa vie : cela pourrait être exemplaire d'une action collective d'ONG. Au niveau interONG il serait souhaitable d'établir un mécanisme de coopération entre Bruxelles et Strasbourg.

Enfin au niveau du Conseil de l'Europe, M. Jarre pense qu'il ne suffit pas d'avoir mené ensemble une campagne : il faut une structure de continuation, par exemple, une commission mixte au sein du Conseil de l'Europe, composée de parlementaires et d'ONG.

En conclusion, le Bureau du Comité de liaison va étudier la possibilité de créer une structure ONG de coopération Nord/Sud : ce projet sera soumis à la prochaine Conférence générale des ONG consultatives auprès du Conseil de l'Europe (début 1989). Dès à présent il est demandé aux ONG de préparer un document expliquant un projet précis dans le sens de la solidarité Nord/Sud et prévoyant la collaboration d'autres ONG : ces documents seraient exposés lors de la Conférence et pourraient donner le départ à des actions concrètes.

En clôturant cette réunion, le représentant du directeur général adjoint du Conseil de l'Europe adressa quelques mots d'encouragement et de satisfaction, et parmi eux épinglons ceux-ci : *"Les véritables maximalistes de l'idée européenne sont les ONG"*.
Geneviève Devillé

Appel de Madrid

Les organisations non gouvernementales prennent une part active aux campagnes lancées par le Conseil de l'Europe. Ainsi, la Campagne publique européenne sur l'interdépendance et la solidarité Nord-Sud (1988) a été marquée par l'« Appel de Madrid » lancé par la Conférence européenne de parlementaires et d'ONG sur l'interdépendance et la solidarité Nord-Sud, tenue à Madrid du 1^{er} au 3 juin 1988. En voici un extrait:

22. ... nous invitons:

Les parlementaires:

- à continuer d'appuyer les objectifs de la Campagne Nord-Sud en vue de sensibiliser l'opinion européenne à l'étroite communauté de destin qui existe entre le Nord et le Sud;
- à faire en sorte que le présent Appel ait un maximum de prolongements concrets;
- à se préoccuper davantage des répercussions des politiques commerciales nationales et internationales sur la vie quotidienne des personnes qui produisent ou échangent des biens et des services, et ce tant dans le Nord que dans le Sud;
- à étudier la possibilité de mettre en place un système de surveillance sur la « conditionnalité »;
- à tenir pleinement compte, dans la préparation des négociations internationales sur les questions Nord-Sud, des points de vue des organisations non gouvernementales concernées; à promouvoir, conjointement avec les ONG, une plus grande transparence dans la prise des décisions, et à maintenir l'esprit de coopération suscité dans la Campagne Nord-Sud en facilitant le dialogue avec les ONG;

La Conférence permanente des pouvoirs locaux et régionaux de l'Europe:

- à poursuivre son œuvre de sensibilisation des autorités et de l'opinion publique en Europe à l'interdépendance et à la solidarité Nord-Sud;
- à s'associer pleinement au suivi éventuel de la Campagne Nord-Sud;
- à partager, avec les organisations nationales et internationales de pouvoirs locaux et les ONG, des informations et une documentation sur les activités Nord-Sud en matière de développement et à promouvoir des actions communes, de la part des pouvoirs locaux et des ONG, en faveur du développement notamment dans le domaine de l'éducation au développement;
- à encourager les travaux d'autres institutions internationales, en Europe et dans le Sud, qui ont des programmes de coopération Nord-Sud et de développement;

Les ONG de développement, les institutions religieuses, les organisations de base, les organisations de jeunesse, les groupes d'intérêts socio-économiques et les organisations féminines;

- à intensifier leurs travaux dans le domaine de l'éducation au développement, à combattre le racisme et à encourager l'émergence d'un nouveau regard sur la culture d'autrui et de nouvelles formes d'entente interculturelle;
- à poursuivre leur étroite collaboration avec les parlementaires et à rendre ceux-ci attentifs, chaque fois qu'il le faut, aux intérêts du Sud, lors de leurs délibérations sur les politiques nationales;

The Madrid Appeal

Non-governmental organisations take an active part in campaigns launched by the Council of Europe, including the European Public Campaign on North-South Interdependence and Solidarity (1988). This event was marked with the « Madrid Appeal » launched by the European Conference of Parliamentarians and Non-Governmental Organisations on North-South Interdependence and Solidarity, Madrid, 7-3 June 1988, from which the following passage is extracted:

22. ... we appeal:

To members of parliament:

- to continue to support the aims of the North-South Campaign with a view to raising greater awareness amongst the European public of the fact that the fate of the North and the South are intimately bound up with each other;
- to help ensure that this Appeal is implemented as fully as possible;
- to pay greater attention to the repercussions of national and international trade policies on the day-to-day conditions of people producing, exchanging goods and services both in the North and the South;
- to take into consideration the setting up of a monitoring system on « conditionally »;
- to give full weight to the views of relevant non-governmental organisations in the preparation of international negotiations on North-South issues, to work with NGOs for greater transparency in the decision-making process and to continue the spirit of co-operation established in the North-South Campaign by facilitating dialogue with NGOs;

To the standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe:

- to continue to work to raise the consciousness of public authorities and public opinion in Europe about North-South interdependence and solidarity;
- to be fully associated with any follow-up to the North-South Campaign;
- to share information and documentation on the North-South development activities among national and international organisations of local authorities and NGOs, and to promote joint action by local authorities and NGOs, in favour of development, in particular in the field of development education;
- to encourage the work of other appropriate international institutions in Europe and in the South which have programmes on North-South co-operation and development;

To development NGOs, religious institutions, grass-roots organisations, socio-economic interest groups and women's organisations:

- to intensify their work in the field of development education, to combat racism and prejudice and to promote new forms of insight into and understanding between cultures;
- to continue close collaboration with parliamentarians and make them attentive, whenever necessary, to the interests of the South in their deliberations on domestic policies;

- à favoriser la création d'organisations de base dans les pays en développement, de concert avec les ONG du Sud;
- à déployer des efforts pour promouvoir des liens directs entre les organisations de base d'Europe et leurs homologues du tiers monde, et aussi entre les organisations de ce genre dans le Sud;
- à coordonner leurs politiques, leurs actions et leur participation dans le tiers monde;
- à promouvoir la mise en œuvre des propositions formulées dans le présent Appel.

- to help create grass-roots organisations in the developing countries in co-operation with Southern NGOs;
- to make efforts to promote direct links between grass-roots organisations in Europe and their counterparts in the Third World and also among such organisations in the South;
- to co-ordinate their policy positions, actions and involvement in the Third World;
- to promote the implementation of the proposals formulated in this Appeal.

Les ONG: un contre-pouvoir*

Pour pouvoir évaluer mieux et plus objectivement le rôle effectif des organisations non gouvernementales (ONG) dans la démocratie parlementaire, il importe de mettre en lumière leurs quatre fonctions principales.

L'importance considérable de nombreuses ONG réside dans leur fonction de *précurseur* et de *novateur* dans les domaines les plus variés. Elles ont souvent réussi à modifier totalement la position des parlements et les orientations politiques des gouvernements. Cela vaut notamment pour des domaines aussi variés que la décolonisation, la protection de l'environnement et la politique de paix.

Les ONG n'étant généralement pas assujetties à des structures bureaucratiques et à des règles rigides, elles peuvent, contrairement aux instances gouvernementales, réagir avec beaucoup plus de souplesse et d'imagination aux problèmes et aux besoins nouveaux et répondre souvent par des solutions entièrement nouvelles. Si la voie qu'elles empruntent est novatrice, c'est sans doute aussi parce qu'elles utilisent des méthodes éprouvées dans des domaines où celles-ci n'ont encore jamais été appliquées.

La société a d'autant plus besoin de tels novateurs indépendants que l'évolution des conditions de vie est rapide et que des problèmes nouveaux surgissent à une cadence accélérée.

D'autres ONG ont essentiellement ou exclusivement une fonction de service ni leurs activités visent soit à remédier aux carences qui existent dans ce domaine soit à élargir l'éventail des services offerts.

Lorsque les pouvoirs publics n'assurent pas du tout, ou pas à certains endroits, certains services dans le domaine de la santé, de l'action sociale ou des loisirs, par exemple, et qui sont généralement considérés comme nécessaires, il s'agit manifestement d'une carence.

Les associations peuvent commencer par instaurer les services qui font défaut et ensuite se mobiliser pour obtenir que l'Etat reconnaisse ses responsabilités dans ce domaine et les assume. Ou bien le service en question est considéré comme une affaire qui ne concerne que les intéressés ou, selon le cas, les usagers. On écarte alors la compétence des pouvoirs publics.

Dans nos sociétés pluralistes il existe par ailleurs, un certain droit fondamental de l'individu à pouvoir choisir, également lorsqu'il a recours à des services. La diversité des ONG et la nature de leur vocation (par exemple, religieuse ou à but ethnique, etc.) constituent sans aucun doute un facteur important pour garantir les possibilités de choix et favorisent

en même temps, au profit des clients, une compétition saine entre ceux qui offrent leurs services.

Les ONG remplissent un autre rôle important: celui d'*avocat*, de *défenseur*. Elles peuvent intervenir pour la défense des intérêts particuliers ou la protection de certaines catégories sociales, économiques, professionnelles ou autres. Elles peuvent également dénoncer certains comportements et attitudes comme par exemple, la xénophobie, l'inégalité de traitement entre les hommes et les femmes, etc.

Le rôle d'avocat des ONG consiste tout d'abord à veiller à ce que les gens obtiennent effectivement ce à quoi ils ont droit. Ensuite, elles s'emploient à promouvoir des réformes, des modifications de programmes gouvernementaux, etc. Pour parvenir à leurs fins, elles ne se bornent pas à influencer sur l'opinion publique ni à exercer des pressions sur les parlements et les gouvernements; elles mettent aussi leurs compétences à la disposition des organes de décision et incitent les hommes politiques et autres personnalités à adhérer à leurs associations.

Certains de ces groupements, qui s'étaient consacrés à la défense d'une seule cause, sont devenus si importants et si influents qu'ils se sont transformés en véritables mouvements: le mouvement pacifiste féministe, écologiste, par exemple.

La quatrième fonction essentielle des organisations non gouvernementales est de *sauvegarder les valeurs*. Rien qu'en raison de leur nature particulière, leurs structures, leur composition et leurs tâches, les ONG contribuent à sauvegarder et à promouvoir des valeurs telles que le volontariat et le bénévolat, l'initiative personnelle, la participation active, le pluralisme, la solidarité, la protection des minorités ainsi que le respect du plus faible. Elles servent par ailleurs en quelque sorte de relais et d'intermédiaire entre l'individu et les grands services publics, anonymes et lointains. Elles protègent l'individu contre le risque d'indifférence et d'aliénation dans une société de plus en plus technocratique, mobile et désintégré. La fonction de sauvegarde des valeurs des ONG recouvre aussi leur rôle éducatif. Au sein des ONG, des individus de tous âges apprennent à pratiquer la solidarité et à assumer leurs responsabilités dans des domaines bien définis.

L'importance que revêtent les ONG pour la société n'est, par conséquent, pas seulement due à leurs caractéristiques structurelles mais surtout à leurs activités et à la manière dont celles-ci sont menées. C'est à juste titre qu'on peut les qualifier de vraies *"écoles de démocratie"*.

Dirk Jarre

Président du Comité de liaison des ONG
auprès du Conseil de l'Europe

* Article repris de *Forum*, 2/1988.

Pour un autre partenariat

Des relations nouvelles entre ONG et avec les gouvernements

par Fernand Vincent*

Introduction

On affirme couramment que le monde dans lequel nous vivons est divisé entre un Nord riche et un Sud pauvre, et que l'écart entre la richesse des uns et la pauvreté des autres s'accroît de jour en jour. La réalité est plus complexe. Il y a des riches dans le Sud et des pauvres dans le Nord. On parle de sous-développement et de mal-développement.

Face à des situations d'urgence (guerres, famines, réfugiés), mais aussi face à la stagnation du développement économique du Sud, le Nord, plus riche, s'est mobilisé. Populations et gouvernements se sont associés dans des opérations d'aide qui se sont principalement effectuées sous forme de transferts d'argent et d'expertise, vers le Sud. Les organisations qui ont géré cette aide sont entrées en relations avec des gouvernements et associations du tiers monde. Un partenariat s'est peu à peu développé entre ceux qui donnent et ceux qui reçoivent.

Où en est-on quarante ans après le début de ce mouvement de générosité?

Il faut bien reconnaître que *"les efforts que nous avons effectués pour lutter contre la pauvreté se soldent par un bilan décevant"*. Ainsi s'exprime l'un des vice-présidents de la Banque mondiale (1).

Je crois que nous devons honnêtement partager cette déception et tous nous interroger sur ce qu'il y a lieu de faire pour améliorer cette situation.

* Secrétaire général de l'IREC (Innovations et réseaux pour le développement).

(1) *The World Bank and NGOs new approaches. Remarks by Moeen A. KURESHI, Senior Vice-President Operation, the WORLD BANK, before the Washington Chapter of the Society of International Development Conference on Learning from grassroots, Washington D.C., April 2nd, 1988.*

Depuis quelques années déjà, l'aide gouvernementale et multilatérale est vivement critiquée : bureaucratisation, intermédiaires trop nombreux, inadaptation, impossibilité d'atteindre les *"populations pauvres"*, etc.

De leur côté, les ONG (organisations non gouvernementales) établissent un bilan un peu plus positif de leur action car elles ont su provoquer la participation des populations et réaliser un développement concret et peu coûteux. Face à la désillusion de l'aide accordée par le biais bilatéral et multilatéral, les ONG sont donc propulsées aux premières lignes du combat du développement. Les fonds commencent à affluer de toutes parts vers elles pour leur permettre de renforcer leur action.

Depuis un peu plus d'une dizaine d'années, des ONG du Sud se sont créées et développées. Elles émergent actuellement sur la scène internationale et commencent à s'organiser. Elles parlent à haute voix et remettent en question les rapports établis.

Plus récemment encore émergent, à partir de la multiplication des initiatives, des groupements ou associations locales de développement, des mouvements populaires qui s'organisent et qui commencent, à leur tour, à parler à haute voix, réclamant aux ONG locales qui les ont aidés un peu plus de liberté, à leur gouvernement, à être entendus, et aux gouvernements du Nord, à être considérés eux aussi comme des partenaires potentiels.

De plus, la masse monétaire disponible dans le Nord, provenant du public d'une part et du budget des Etats ou des Banques de développement d'autre part, amène les gouvernements du Nord, habitués à travailler en partenariat avec les ONG du Nord ou les gouvernements du Sud, à s'interroger sur l'opportunité de financer directement les ONG du Sud, augmentant ainsi la capacité d'absorption de l'aide disponible par un nombre plus grand de partenaires. Mais ce financement direct n'est pas sans créer des problèmes fondamentaux dans le partenariat Nord/Sud.

Quelle est la situation actuelle entre partenaires Nord/Sud?

Pour clarifier tout d'abord les termes employés, nous voulons préciser ce que nous entendons, en utilisant les termes "gouvernements", "ONG" et "mouvements populaires".

"Gouvernements "

comprend toute l'action effectuée par les gouvernements du Nord ou du Sud, les banques internationales, régionales et nationales de développement, et les agences de l'aide multilatérale (ONU).

"O.N.G." c'est-à-dire

Les organisations non gouvernementales qui sont des associations privées d'individus engagées dans l'action de développement.

Dans le Nord, ce sont des associations qui agissent en qualité d'intermédiaires pour gérer l'aide reçue mais aussi qui, par la coopération technique, mettent des experts à la disposition du Sud.

Dans le Sud, l'ONG est un organisme d'appui technique, technologique ou accordant des services (formation, consultations, évaluations, etc.) aux associations locales de développement.

Mouvements populaires

comprend à la fois la population organisée et celle des secteurs non formels.

Dans le Nord, ce sont les syndicats, les partis politiques, les réseaux d'associations.

Dans le Sud, ce sont des groupes ou associations locales et nationales, des ententes ou fédérations de groupements ou d'associations ou encore des mouvements populaires de paysans, d'artisans, de pêcheurs, d'éleveurs, de femmes, de jeunes, etc.

L'objet de cet article est d'analyser la situation actuelle du partenariat entre ces trois types de partenaires, dans le Nord d'abord puis dans le Sud, puis enfin entre le Nord et le Sud et sur le plan mondial.

Quelle est la situation actuelle des relations entre ces partenaires en ce qui concerne les problèmes du développement?

A. LA SITUATION DANS LE NORD

Les gouvernements sont les partenaires les plus influents. Us disposent de fonds importants qu'ils accordent principalement aux gouvernements du Sud ou aux organisations internationales. Cette aide bilatérale ou multilatérale, si elle n'est pas remise en question, est cependant aujourd'hui fortement critiquée, comme on l'a vu ci-avant. Les conditions dans lesquelles cette aide est apportée favorisent bien souvent davantage les pays du Nord que les pays du Sud. Cela implique l'obligation d'acheter les équipements dans le pays qui donne, des contrats passés avec des bureaux d'étude du pays donateur, le retour des bénéfices induits de l'aide, etc.

D'autre part, les banques ou gouvernements du Nord ont accordé aux pays du Sud des prêts si importants que l'intérêt

de la dette absorbe une grande partie des devises reçues des exportations des pays du Sud.

De plus, le système économique dans lequel nous vivons (la loi de l'offre et de la demande) amène à sous-payer largement les matières premières des produits du tiers monde.

L'aide financière et technique des pays du Nord, accordée souvent avec conditions, est bien inférieure aux conséquences financières de la fluctuation des prix des matières premières et du paiement des intérêts de la dette. En outre, l'aide crée une situation de dépendance qui est, dans son principe, inacceptable.

Parallèlement à l'effort de l'Etat, les populations du Nord versent régulièrement des sommes considérables, gérées par les ONG du Nord. Il convient cependant de constater une diminution sensible de la participation financière des populations du Nord, due à la situation économique actuelle, sauf peut-être en ce qui concerne les appels d'urgence contre la famine, les guerres ou les réfugiés.

Cette aide du public oblige les ONG du Nord à trouver des partenaires dans le Sud pour identifier et financer des projets. L'aide est attribuée sous forme de projet et, étant donné les difficultés de l'ONG du Sud à s'organiser, ce projet sera plus souvent celui de l'ONG du Nord que celui de l'ONG du Sud.

Depuis un peu plus de 10 ans, les gouvernements du Nord ont été sollicités pour cofinancer les opérations des ONG de leur pays. Ainsi, des relations privilégiées se sont établies entre ONG du Nord et gouvernements du Nord, les ONG jouant un rôle d'intermédiaire.

L'aide aux pays en voie de développement est donc peu à peu devenue synonyme de transferts financiers du Nord vers le Sud et d'envoi de volontaires ou d'experts; et l'outil de cette aide est le projet qui permet à l'ONG du Nord et à son gouvernement de mieux contrôler ce qu'ils donnent et la façon dont cette aide est utilisée.

Pour le public en général, aider est un devoir de solidarité. Pour obtenir toujours plus d'argent, on a joué sur la sensibilité. On a créé l'image d'un tiers monde misérable, sous-développé, et incapable de "s'en tirer" sans le Nord.

Certaines ONG du Nord, constatent le grand danger de cette "fausse image du tiers monde", ont commencé à entreprendre, dans le Nord, des programmes d'éducation par tous les moyens modernes que les médias pouvaient mettre à leur disposition.

B. LA SITUATION ACTUELLE DANS LE SUD

On doit tout d'abord constater la toute puissance de l'Etat qui s'est arrogé le droit d'être le "développeur" et, par l'intermédiaire de son administration et des services techniques, il a voulu promouvoir le développement et la participation des populations locales. Certes, des résultats quelquefois encourageants ont été constatés mais on ne peut promouvoir le développement sans une prise de conscience des populations qui, s'organisant elles-mêmes, sont à même de promouvoir leurs propres projets.

Les résultats sont donc limités. La révolution verte a profité aux paysans riches. Les réformes agraires restent à faire. Plus que jamais, le problème du développement reste un problème de choix politique.

Depuis une vingtaine d'années, souvent sous l'impulsion des églises mais également en dehors d'elles, et en particulier par l'action des ONG du Nord, de très nombreuses ONG

locales furent créées. Elles répondaient d'abord à des besoins sociaux ou d'urgence puis, peu à peu, de développement. Depuis une dizaine d'années, certaines ONG du Sud sont devenues d'authentiques partenaires, compétents et influents, qui sont pris au sérieux par les gouvernements locaux qui font appel à leur technicité.

Ces ONG de développement évoluent toutefois dans une contradiction importante. Elles veulent promouvoir l'auto-développement des populations avec lesquelles elles travaillent et sont cependant presque totalement dépendantes financièrement de l'aide extérieure des ONG du Nord ou de leurs gouvernements.

Au niveau national et souvent sous la pression d'ONG de financement, des ONG du Sud se sont regroupées en fédérations ou consortiums, de façon à faire valoir leurs droits vis-à-vis du gouvernement et échanger des expériences et des informations.

Regroupées localement dans ces consortiums avec des ONG du Nord, elles ont quelquefois constitué des institutions fortes et utiles dans les négociations, mais il arrive aussi que, s'étant quelque peu bureaucratisées, elles fassent écran au développement à la base.

De plus, habituée à négocier avec l'aide, l'ONG nationale risque bien de garder sous tutelle les programmes, projets ou associations qu'elle a aidé à créer. L'ONG locale n'arrive pas à "scier sa propre branche" et empêche l'association locale de devenir autonome et adulte. Cette attitude paternaliste se caractérise principalement par le fait que l'ONG reste trop souvent le canal de distribution de l'aide aux initiatives et groupes locaux.

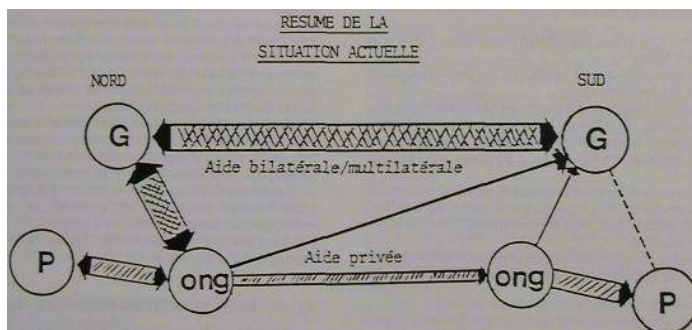
C. LA SITUATION DES RELATIONS NORD/SUD

Les relations Nord/Sud dans le domaine de l'aide au développement ont été totalement dominées ces quarante dernières années par des transferts financiers et l'envoi de volontaires ou d'experts. Comme nous l'avons vu ci-avant, on ne résoudra pas les problèmes du développement uniquement par de tels transferts. Il s'agit avant tout, dans le Nord comme dans le Sud, de s'attaquer aux causes du sous-développement.

Les ONG du Nord sont donc devenues les véhicules de ces transferts financiers. Or, toute l'ambiguïté du partenariat entre ONG du Nord et ONG du Sud repose précisément sur le fait qu'il ne peut pas y avoir de partenariat tant qu'il y aura d'un côté des partenaires qui ont de l'argent (et en plus qui n'est sou vent pas le leur!) et, de l'autre, ceux qui n'en ont pas et qui en ont besoin. Cette situation de domination, qui est la réalité de la relation ONG du Nord/ONG du Sud, crée des tensions entre deux catégories de partenaires qui devraient, en fait, faire cause commune pour l'action de développement, tant dans le Nord que dans le Sud.

Au moment où les gouvernements du Nord cherchent à accorder des financements directs aux ONG du Sud, l'ONG du Nord, devant cette situation de concurrence, a souvent un réflexe de défense et met en avant pour se garantir des arguments qui relèvent souvent plus de son désir de survivre que de son désir de collaborer au développement du Sud.

Le schéma ci-après décrit la situation actuelle et l'importance des relations entre partenaires gouvernementaux et ONG du Nord et du Sud.



Il laisse clairement apparaître l'importance des relations entre gouvernements dans le cadre de l'aide bilatérale et multilatérale ainsi que la relation entre ONG du Nord et leur propre gouvernement.

Le flux de l'aide des ONG s'oriente tout d'abord et en priorité vers les ONG du Sud puis vers les mouvements et asso-

ciations populaires, et quelquefois vers les gouvernements. Cependant, dans le Sud, les relations ONG/gouvernements et mouvements populaires/gouvernements sont faibles, voire inexistantes, laissant apparaître la faiblesse de l'impact des ONG sur les politiques et programmes nationaux de développement.

Propositions pour un autre partenariat

Comme nous l'avons vu, la situation actuelle des relations Nord/Sud, en particulier entre ONG et mouvements populaires du Nord et du Sud, est insatisfaisante.

Ce constat a du reste déjà amené certains partenaires du Nord comme du Sud à inventer de nouvelles formes de coopération qu'il faudrait mettre davantage en valeur de façon à changer les comportements et les méthodes de travail pour créer les conditions de fonctionnement d'un autre partenariat.

A. LE ROLE DES ONG ET DES ASSOCIATIONS DU NORD POUR LE DEVELOPPEMENT

La façon d'aider

Pendant de nombreuses années encore, l'ONG du Nord sera un intermédiaire de flux financiers vers le Sud. L'ONG du Nord sera amenée à modifier sa façon d'aider, sa pratique et son comportement vis-à-vis de ses partenaires dans le Sud.

Des financements plus souples et flexibles laisseront aux ONG du Sud organisées le soin de choisir elles-mêmes leurs propres projets et priorités.

De plus en plus, les projets de développement trouveront sur place leurs financements. L'ONG du Nord sera alors amenée à financer l'autonomie des ONG du Sud, c'est-à-dire aider ces ONG à renforcer, à long terme, leur institution et leur capacité à promouvoir avec succès des programmes de développement (institution building).

Le financement du crédit par la création de fonds de garanties permettra aux partenaires du Sud d'envisager leur auto-développement et celui de leurs programmes dans l'optique de la rentabilité et de l'autonomie.

Cette nouvelle façon d'aider augmentera les compétences et l'efficacité des ONG du Sud car elle suppose auto-gestion, auto-planification et auto-évaluation. Mais il sera évidemment de plus en plus difficile à trouver dans le Nord auprès des populations les fonds nécessaires à l'application d'une telle politique; il faudra donc, par des campagnes, éduquer les populations du Nord et renforcer les négociations avec leurs gouvernements.

Eduquer

Comme on l'a vu dans l'introduction, de nombreuses ONG du Nord consacrent entre 5 et 30 % de leur budget à l'éducation des populations dans le Nord afin de changer l'image que l'on se fait du tiers monde pour laisser apparaître la possibilité d'un dialogue entre partenaires égaux. C'est bien. Il faut faire davantage encore.

Cette éducation fait le lien entre le sous-développement du Sud et le mal-développement du Nord. Elle crée des solidarités nouvelles, des complicités et des actions communes entre pauvres du Nord et du Sud.

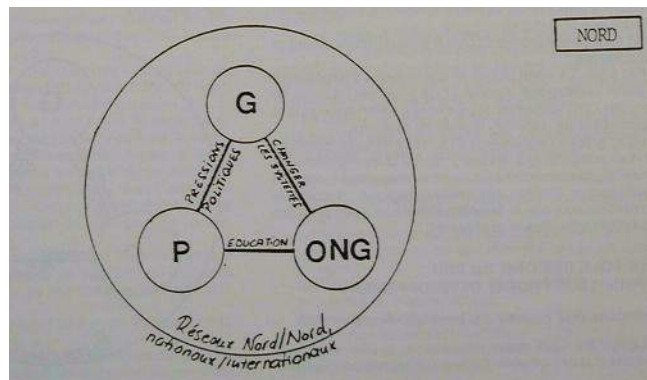
S'attaquer aux causes

On ne le répètera jamais assez: le premier combat des ONG du Nord est un combat politique dans le Nord pour changer les lois, les accords, les structures et les systèmes qui maintiennent le sous-développement. Le combat pour une juste rétribution du prix des matières premières, celui du règlement du problème de la dette, la constitution de systèmes alternatifs d'aide, etc. constituent le programme d'action prioritaire des ONG du Nord. De tels changements supposent évidemment l'éducation des populations pour qu'elles forment un groupe de pression en vue du changement au niveau national, mais l'action politique et le lobbying des ONG du Nord sur les hommes et les centres de décisions constituent également une stratégie dont l'efficacité peut être bien supérieure à l'aide financière que ces ONG peuvent accorder au Sud.

L'auto-promotion dans le Nord

Les ONG du sud reprochent souvent à celles du Nord de vouloir s'engager dans le tiers monde alors qu'elles ne se sont pas engagées chez elles dans l'auto-promotion pour un développement participé.

A l'exemple de certains, les ONG du Nord pourrnt peu à peu s'engager dans des opérations d'auto-développement



dans le Nord, c'est-à-dire dans leur propre milieu. Cet engagement permettra alors de dialoguer avec les partenaires du Sud sur un pied d'égalité, échangeant problèmes rencontrés et réussites dans l'action pour un autre développement.

Réseaux Nord/Nord

Enfin, les ONG du Nord renforceront leur solidarité d'abord dans le Nord, constituant ainsi des réseaux sectoriels ou globaux qui pourront, au delà des Etats, des pays et des continents, constituer des groupes de pression et d'action pour le changement.

Pour nous résumer, le schéma ci-après décrit les relations qu'il conviendrait de développer dans le Nord pour mieux favoriser les relations entre les partenaires du Sud dans le domaine du développement:

- éducation des populations
- pression politique des populations sur les centres de décisions (lobbying)
- changement des lois, accords et systèmes
- création de réseaux Nord/Nord, nationaux et internationaux

B. LE ROLE DES ASSOCIATIONS

ET DES MOUVEMENTS POPULAIRES DU SUD

On a constaté, au cours des vingt dernières années, que les gouvernements ont très souvent empêché toute constitution de mouvements populaires, à part peut-être des syndicats ouvriers qui se sont en fait imposés. L'Etat doit comprendre que sa force de développement repose sur l'organisation des populations locales et qu'une action de développement dépendra de la façon dont les services techniques de l'Etat seront à même de se mettre au service de ces populations organisées pour leur apporter tous les appuis techniques dont elles ont besoin pour réaliser les programmes qu'elles auront conçus.

Les initiatives de petits groupes, les associations, les groupements chercheront donc à se regrouper localement pour mettre en commun leurs efforts et leurs moyens de façon à mieux faire valoir leurs idées et constituer ainsi entre villages et groupements des partenaires valables pour le développement.

Comme certains l'ont déjà fait, les associations et mouvements populaires qui sont engagés dans des activités productives prendront rapidement les moyens de "mettre fin à l'aide extérieure" en ayant recours à la maîtrise de la gestion, des moyens disponibles, à l'accès au crédit et à l'élaboration de stratégies communes.

Ainsi l'auto-développement conduit à l'auto-financement et à l'autonomie.

Peu à peu les associations et mouvements s'imposeront alors aux organismes d'appui et de financement, que ce soient des ONG locales ou des services gouvernementaux et créeront ainsi de nouvelles formes de relations.

Enfin, grâce à l'importance du nombre de leurs membres et à leurs compétences, les associations et les mouvements populaires constitueront peu à peu de nouvelles forces de négociation et d'action aux niveaux régional, national et international pour que le développement soit aussi celui des populations villageoises et urbaines.

C. LE ROLE DES ONG DU SUD

POUR LEUR PROPRE DEVELOPPEMENT

S'attaquer aux causes du sous-développement

Le rôle des ONG et des mouvements populaires du Sud n'est pas d'abord de aérer l'aide ou de promouvoir des pro-

jets, mais avant tout de s'attaquer sur place, dans le pays aux causes du sous-développement. Cela suppose, encore, un engagement individuel et collectif pour faire face aux situations d'injustice que l'on aura pu répertorier.

Certes, l'engagement politique des ONG du Sud est que parfois limité. Il s'agira donc de savoir jusqu'où l'on peut aller mais il faut bien être conscient qu'il s'agit là de la priorité du travail des ONG du Sud. Cela suppose donc non seulement formation de leaders, mais également éducation des populations pour que chacun sache clairement sur quel terrain il doit lutter.

Collaborer quand cela est possible avec les gouvernements locaux

Dans certains pays où les dictatures et le manque de liberté empêchent toute action organisée, il est bien certain que de telles relations sont extrêmement limitées, déconseillées ou impossibles.

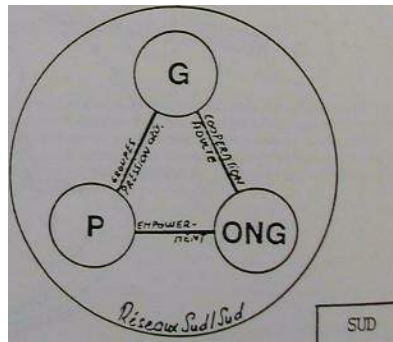
Cependant, dans beaucoup de pays du Sud, une action concertée des ONG et des Etats est nécessaire. Le rôle de l'ONG est d'initier et de tester des modèles nouveaux. Celui de l'Etat est de planifier, de coordonner, et de se mettre peu à peu au service des populations organisées.

Hélas, les situations actuelles sont différentes. L'Etat, son administration et ses services techniques s'imposent trop souvent aux populations et leur demandent d'entrer dans des programmes qui ont été conçus sans elles. Toute collaboration entre gouvernements et ONG suppose dialogue et participation à l'élaboration, à la réalisation et à l'évaluation du développement et de toutes les décisions qui le concerne.

Eviter de dominer les plus petits

Les ONG du Sud sauront retirer leur appui au moment voulu quand une association populaire organisée commencera à revendiquer son indépendance. Si l'ONG du Sud sait respecter cette démarche, elle sera de plus en plus reconnue et appuyée par les mouvements populaires.

De façon concrète, cela suppose très souvent que l'ONG accepte que des financements directs soient accordés à l'association locale qui dépendait auparavant d'elle. S'il y a manque à gagner pour l'ONG sur le plan financier, il y aura par contre bénéfice pour son action future car d'autres partenaires sauront reconnaître la qualité des services dispensés par cette ONG.



Se regrouper pour se renforcer

Des regroupements d'ONG du sud émergeront aux niveaux local, régional, national et international. Ces réseaux, tournés vers l'action commune, auront non seulement pour but de faciliter les échanges d'expériences, d'information et le renforcement institutionnel par des appuis réciproques, mais ils seront également amenés à représenter et à défendre leurs membres sur les plans national et international.

En résumé, le schéma ci-après décrit les relations qu'il conviendrait de développer pour améliorer l'efficacité du partenariat dans le Sud:

- action des ONG pour transmettre le "pouvoir" aux organisations populaires;
- constitution de groupes de pression organisés pour apporter le changement;
- coopération adulte entre ONG et gouvernements;
- réseaux Sud/Sud, nationaux et internationaux.

D. LE ROLE COMMUN DES ASSOCIATIONS, DES MOUVEMENTS POPULAIRES ET DES ONG DU NORD ET DU SUD

1. Le problème du financement direct des ONG du Sud par les gouvernements du Nord

Quelle attitude les ONG du Nord auront-elles face au désir, toujours plus grand, des gouvernements du Nord, des banques de développement ou du système multilatéral de l'ONU, de financer directement des ONG ou des associations du Sud?

L'attitude de beaucoup d'ONG du Nord est celle du réflexe de défense face à la perte d'un monopole qui leur était jusqu'à ce jour accordé dans les relations privilégiées qu'elles pouvaient avoir avec leur propre gouvernement.

Ce temps-là est dépassé. Qu'elles le veuillent ou non, les ONG du Nord seront obligées d'entrer dans la réalité du financement direct de leur gouvernement aux ONG du Sud.

Certes, cette relation directe comporte une série de dangers que l'ONG du Sud devra bien connaître.

L'ONG du Sud, souvent plus fragile, risque d'être dominée davantage encore que l'ONG du Nord par un gouvernement du Nord qui lui apporte sa contribution, d'où une dépendance plus accrue.

Etant donné les moyens dont disposent les gouvernements, leur aide peut "tuer" l'ONG ou l'association de développement du Sud. Cette aide peut être inadaptée aux besoins et au rythme du développement local ou encore entraîner une certaine bureaucratisation des ONG locales devenues tout-à-coup plus riches.

Il y a également danger pour l'ONG ou l'association du Sud (comme cela était également le cas pour l'ONG du Nord) de perdre son identité dans cette relation qui exige plus de compétence, plus de moyens et donc risque de remettre en cause des valeurs telles que l'auto-développement, le volontariat, la participation des populations aux décisions, etc.

Enfin, le financement direct d'un gouvernement du Nord à une ONG du Sud ne pourra s'effectuer qu'avec l'accord du gouvernement du Sud, ce qui suppose évidemment que les relations de l'ONG et l'association du Sud et de son gouvernement soient favorables.

Bref, des dangers importants existent mais ne sont pas insurmontables, dans la mesure où les ONG du Sud sont bien conscientes de l'enjeu de leur collaboration avec des gouvernements du Nord.

De tels financements peuvent également comporter des avantages:

L'intérêt qu'un gouvernement du Nord manifeste pour une association ou une ONG du Sud renforcera très certainement

la position de celle-ci vis-à-vis de son propre gouvernement. Il apparaît en effet très souvent que l'aide extérieure repère plus rapidement les partenaires locaux intéressants que le gouvernement lui-même.

Enfin, ce type d'aide va entraîner les associations, les mouvements populaires et les ONG du Sud à être plus proches des ONG du Nord et les amèneront à constituer ensemble de nouvelles forces de négociation avec les gouvernements du Nord.

2. Gérer ensemble des fonds disponibles

Les moyens financiers mis à la disposition des ONG par les populations et les gouvernements du Nord (ils seront longtemps encore très importants!) doivent être *gérés en commun* par les ONG du Nord et du Sud. Il s'agit donc de mettre les moyens disponibles sur une table et de s'asseoir tous autour de cette table à égalité en nombre, pour gérer en commun les moyens disponibles au profit du développement des populations du Sud et pourquoi pas aussi des défavorisés du Nord.

Pourquoi ne pas créer dans un premier temps des "Fonds communs régionaux" où ONG du Sud et ONG du Nord acceptent de siéger ensemble, en se répartissant le pouvoir de décision?

3. Partager l'information

Mais il y a un autre domaine où le pouvoir du Nord s'est imposé au Sud, c'est celui de l'information. Celle-ci est actuellement capitalisée, classifiée et stockée principalement dans le Nord, par des moyens techniques souvent sophistiqués auxquels les ONG et les associations du Sud, à quelques exceptions près, n'ont pas encore accès.

L'information est le nouveau pouvoir, plus fort peut-être que celui de l'argent. Dès maintenant, il faut partager cette information disponible et éviter qu'elle ne se concentre que dans certains pôles dominants qui peuvent être aussi bien dans le Sud que dans le Nord.

4. Des réseaux internationaux d'ONG

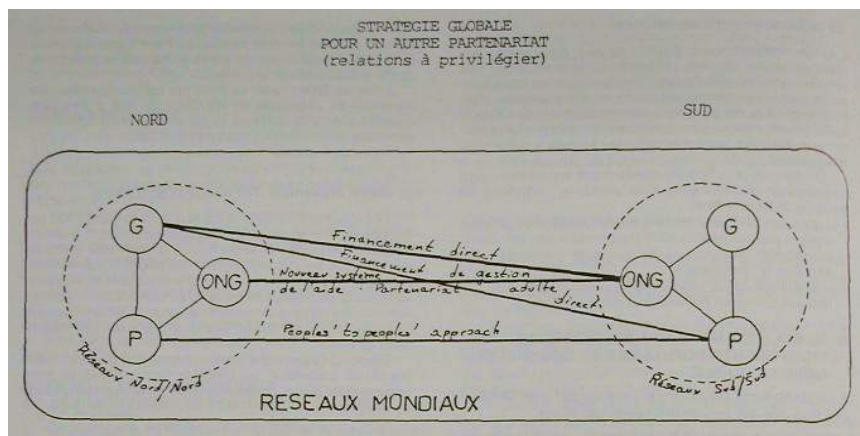
L'action de changement ne s'effectuera que s'il y a regroupement des efforts accomplis, convergence et coordination du travail des ONG dans le Sud d'une part, dans le Nord d'autre part, mais également dans le Sud et le Nord ensemble.

Ces réseaux internationaux permettront de créer les forums où les représentants d'organisations locales et d'ONG pourront s'exprimer en nombre égal avec ceux du Nord et pourront inscrire à l'ordre du jour des négociations futures leurs centres d'intérêts prioritaires.

En résumé, le schéma ci-après décrit la stratégie globale que les ONG pourraient suivre pour créer entre elles et avec leurs gouvernements un nouveau partenariat.

Cette stratégie privilégie les actions suivantes:

- nouveaux systèmes de gestion de l'aide entre ONG du Nord et du Sud;
- financement direct des gouvernements aux ONG et mouvements populaires du Sud dans les conditions décrites ci-avant;
- renforcement des relations directes entre mouvements populaires du Nord et du Sud;
- constitution de réseaux Nord/Nord;
- constitution de réseaux Sud/Sud;
- constitution d'un réseau mondial d'actions communes des ONG du Nord et du Sud.



Conclusions

Bâtir un authentique partenariat entre ONG du Nord et du Sud est le nouveau défi devant lequel nous sommes placés.

Nous ne pouvons, en effet, nous satisfaire des conditions dans lesquelles les relations Nord/Sud sont établies.

Chacun doit donc, avant de se rencontrer sur un plan international, retourner chez lui, s'attaquer tout d'abord aux causes du sous-développement ou du mal-développement de son propre pays, s'engager pour changer quelque chose et, selon ses moyens et ses richesses, partager.

Mais ce partage n'est pas un don de celui qui a à celui qui n'a pas. C'est plutôt une plus juste répartition des richesses de la terre qui, à cause d'événements historiques, ont été accaparés par certains.

Enfin, engagés ensemble au niveau mondial, ONG du Nord et du Sud feront respecter les droits de l'homme, la justice économique et sociale et la solidarité.

Le nouveau partenariat qu'il s'agit de faire vivre entre nous doit reposer sur ces valeurs.

The following articles are the first part of an inquiry into a number of problems relating to association management. The second part of this survey will appear in the next issue (1/1989) of Transnational Associations.

Les articles qui suivent constituent la première partie du dossier que nous ouvrons sur le thème de la gestion des associations. La seconde partie paraîtra dans le prochain numéro (1/1989) d'*Associations transnationales*.

Improving the Organizational Effectiveness of NGOS

by Piers Campbell*

Introduction

There is a growing consensus that non-governmental organizations (NGOs) play - or could play - a vital role in the development process. Many are hampered, however, because they lack the organizational capacity to carry out their programmes in the most effective way. As a result, institution-building has become one of the major issues in development.

Despite the attention, even enthusiasm, for institution-building, commitment has tended to remain at the level of rhetoric. This is due to a variety of reasons. Institution-building implies a significant change in role for northern and international NGOs and there are many that are unwilling to adapt and, in particular, to surrender power. Sufficient funds have not yet been made available to finance management development programmes for NGOs and hence most NGOs do not have access to appropriate management services.

What is institution-building? I suggest that it is essentially the establishment of viable, autonomous, and effective organizations and community groups.

This paper focusses on one particular, but undoubtedly the most important, aspect of institution-building : the issue of organizational effectiveness. It is, therefore, primarily concerned with practical ways of helping organizations improve their effectiveness so that they can achieve the strategies that they themselves have identified. It does not cover the creation of new organizations nor the enlarging of existing organizations, nor specifically the relationships between northern and southern NGOs.

I would like to start by looking at the characteristics of an effective organization and then to consider briefly the NGO as a particular type of organization. This leads on to a discussion of the various ways that the individual NGO can improve its effectiveness. The paper then focusses on the delivery of management services for the NGO community and in the final section, some of the implications for northern and international NGOs are briefly summarized.

Characteristics of an effective organization

What are the factors that make one organization successful and another one unsuccessful? The temptation is to

analyse the programmes but, in fact, the picture is much more complex. I suggest seven principal characteristics of an effective organization. These are based on an organizational model presented in Annex I and a more detailed analysis of these characteristics is given in Annex II. In brief, an effective organization should have:

- * A clearly-defined purpose and a well-developed strategy to which all concerned (constituency, board and staff) are committed.
- * Effective and appropriate programmes.
- * The necessary resources in terms of personnel, finance, equipment, materials, technology and information.
- * Committed and capable staff.
- * Sound organizational structures and systems.
- * Well-functioning organizational and management processes, such as problem-solving, planning, monitoring, coordination and evaluation.
- * Effective, relationships with relevant external bodies, such as government, donors, other NGOs and local communities.

Organizational characteristics of NGOs

These criteria for effectiveness can be applied to all organizations. NGOs are, however, different from other types of organizations (governmental or commercial) in several ways. In the first place, they are non-profit-making and are voluntary in the sense that they are non-statutory bodies (i.e. they are formed by individuals or other NGOs). Secondly, they may be staffed, wholly or partly, by volunteers. Thirdly, their staff often join the organization for ideological reasons and have a strong commitment to social development. Fourthly, NGOs pride themselves on being action-orientated, flexible, innovative, rapid-moving and close to local communities. Finally, they often play an intermediary role: on the one side, they provide programmes and services to the community and, on the other side, they have to seek funding for their programmes from external sources (the general public, foundations and governments).

These characteristics generate a wide range of organizational and management problems that are specific to NGOs. These problems have been analysed in a separate paper entitled «Management Development and Development Management for Voluntary Organizations » (To appear in the next issue of *Transnational Associations*, 1/1989). Briefly, NGOs rarely give priority to management and few NGO executives receive a basic management education or training in man-

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agement skills. Planning, monitoring and evaluation are often neglected. NGOs have a propensity for internal conflict and human resource development is rarely emphasized. Few NGOs have financial security and most NGO managers have to spend an unreasonable proportion of their time to obtain the financial resources. Financial management and other systems are often weak. Finally, it is rarely clear who controls the NGO and to whom the organization is accountable : the members, the board, the donors, the staff, the target groups?

The organizational and management problems faced by NGOs can be broadly divided into two main areas : firstly, the external constraints, over which the NGO has little control and, secondly, the lack of internal effectiveness or organizational capacity. The next two sections of this paper discuss ways in which NGOs can be strengthened in these areas.

Improving organization effectiveness : the external constraints

The external constraints involve such factors as : financing, personnel, programmes, target groups and governments. Some of these issues are both internal and external. For example, access to experienced staff is an external constraint, but the solution may be internal in the sense that the organization can hire inexperienced staff and then train them. Three external issues are briefly discussed below: personnel and programmes.

(a) Financing

The financing constraints are two-fold. Firstly, the current system, which is based on project funding, does not allow for long-term financial security, and therefore severely inhibits planning and, for example, the recruitment of competent staff. Secondly, NGOs have to devote a significant percentage of their time (and resources) to satisfy donor requesting and reporting demands. There are several possible solutions. NGOs could try to negotiate long-term, flexible programme funding (rather than short-term project funding). They need to convince donors to provide grants for their core budget. They could try to develop alternative financing strategies based on income-generation, capital reserves and access to credit. They could also negotiate a more reasonable reporting system with the donors.

(b) Personnel

The NGO community as a whole needs access to a better supply of qualified and experienced staff. In reality, this means that NGOs have to be able to attract staff away from the competitors - governments, international agencies and companies.

Greater financial security would help, but NGOs also need enough resources to be able to pay higher salaries. One alternative is to hire graduates and school-leavers and to invest substantial amounts of time and resources in training the staff in the field.

(c) Programmes

The management of development programmes (development management) is beyond the scope of this paper but it is clear that NGOs cannot hope to be effective unless the whole organization is geared along development management principles. This implies, for example, a commitment to development as an empowerment process and an emphasis on social learning. The organiza-

tion should give priority to establishing and strengthening community groups as representatives of the poor and its; approach should be focussed on long-term programmes rather than the traditional project.

Improving organizational effectiveness : internal capacity

How can we improve organizational capacity? The characteristics of an effective organization (Annex II) provide a list of the issues that need to be analysed. Although a frequent temptation is to bring in an outside specialist to do the analysis (and to implement solutions), there is, in fact, much that an organization can do itself to resolve organizational blockages and weaknesses.

Internal Interventions

The director or an experienced executive can assess the organization and then propose improvements. Better systems can then be established, new personnel can be hired or staff development programmes can be implemented. Many NGOs have successfully revitalised their organizations in this way, often using a task force or a committee rather than individuals. It is clearly important that the staff is fully involved in the analysis and decision-making phases. Few NGOs can afford to have consultants and/or trainers on their staff. There are, however, many ways that the organization itself can improve the expertise of its staff. It is always useful to run formal or informal «orientation» courses for staff when they join the organization. Senior managers (but not the direct supervisor) can act as « mentors » or counsellors to junior staff, offering advice and encouragement.

Supervisors should have regular interviews with their subordinates, to define their responsibilities and tasks, and to evaluate their performance. Supervisors should also be prepared to train (or « coach ») their subordinates. Management manuals are often very valuable sources of information and staff at all levels can greatly benefit from meetings of their peer groups (for example top managers, junior executives or secretaries) to discuss common problems.

External Interventions

In many cases, however, outside support is needed and there are two basic ways that external specialists be useful : consultancy and training.

(a) Consultancy

Until quite recently, relatively few NGOs used consultants to improve their organizational effectiveness. This approach is, however, growing in importance. There are three basic types of consultants. The «resource» consultant investigates the purpose, strategy, organizational processes, programmes, systems and structure. She then recommends (and possibly helps to implement) changes.

The « process » consultant, on the other hand, tends to focus on « how » and « why » things are done in the organization and looks at the patterns of communication, the distribution of power and people's attitudes to the organization's values and goals. S/he tries to clarify the organizational processes and to provide techniques for accomplishing change.

I have termed the third type « facilitating » consultant. In the first two approaches, the consultant functions as

an expert (one on the « content » and the other on the « process »). In the third, the consultant acts primarily as a facilitator to help groups within the organization analyse the problems, develop options and finally to implement solutions. Clearly, these distinctions refer to roles that consultants can adopt and in many cases, the consultant will change role as the situation develops within the organization.

A number of NGOs run consultancy programmes for their members and/or for the NGO community. PRADAN in India places management specialists within NGOs for long periods of time, often up to two years. Development Innovations and Networks (IRED), on the other hand, has a specialised service that offers short-term consultancy and training to NGOs throughout Francophone Africa emphasising, in particular, consultancy support after training. The International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW) has just completed a programme designed to strengthen national NGO councils in Africa, primarily through organization development interventions.

There are also a wide range of NGOs that offer short and long term consultancy to small businesses and NGOs running income-generating projects. Finally, several NGOs (for example, the Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ANGOC) and Voluntary Organizations in Community Enterprise, Zimbabwe) are planning to train consultants and to set up consultancy services for local NGOs.

(b) Training

Training is the traditional method used by NGOs to improve their effectiveness. Staff members are usually sent outside the organization to attend open courses run by universities, business schools and development training institutes. Such courses are expensive and are rarely geared to the specific needs of NGOs.

In recent years, some NGOs (and a few educational institutions) have started to run training courses that are specifically designed for NGOs. These might be « one-off » seminars or regular annual courses, which are either open to any NGO or restricted to members of the sponsoring organization. In addition, attempts have been made (for example, by VOICE in Zimbabwe and the NGO Management Network in Switzerland) to run an on-going series of training workshops for the local NGO community.

Special courses for NGOs tend to be more relevant and less expensive than the programmes run by educational institutions but they cannot, by their very nature, address the specific needs of the organization (as opposed to the participant). For this reason, some NGOs have preferred to organize training courses within the organization (« in-house »). Obviously, the NGO has to be relatively large to be able to afford this option but this approach helps to ensure that the courses are more relevant to the needs of both the organization and of the participants.

In-house courses, however, usually focus on specific management and organizational skills and hence can only indirectly address organizational problems such as inadequate systems or staff conflict. An alternative solu-

tion, which is one that I personally have found to be the most effective, is to run training programmes for specific groups within the organization (for example, all the senior executives, a whole department or all the secretaries). These programmes can start with strategic planning, organizational assessment and team-building activities before any skills training is carried out.

This type of intervention is closely linked with the « facilitating » consultancy approach mentioned above and, in fact, in this way, the trainer often becomes a facilitator. The group is helped to analyse the problems and identify its own solutions - and knowledge and training is only offered as, and when, necessary.

Collaboration to improve effectiveness

So far, I have focussed on the different ways that can be used to improve the effectiveness of the individual NGO. The choice of the intervention will inevitably depend on the particular problem and on the quality of the management programmes available. This brings us on to the question of services for the NGO community.

What sort of management services does the local NGO community need? A few ideas come from the previous discussion. NGOs clearly require:

- * Access to consultants and trainers (who would work within their organization)
- * Access to « open » training courses (to which they can send their staff)
- * Management manuals
- * Meetings for managers to exchange experiences and ideas.
- * Information on current programmes, resource persons, publications and new concepts in management.

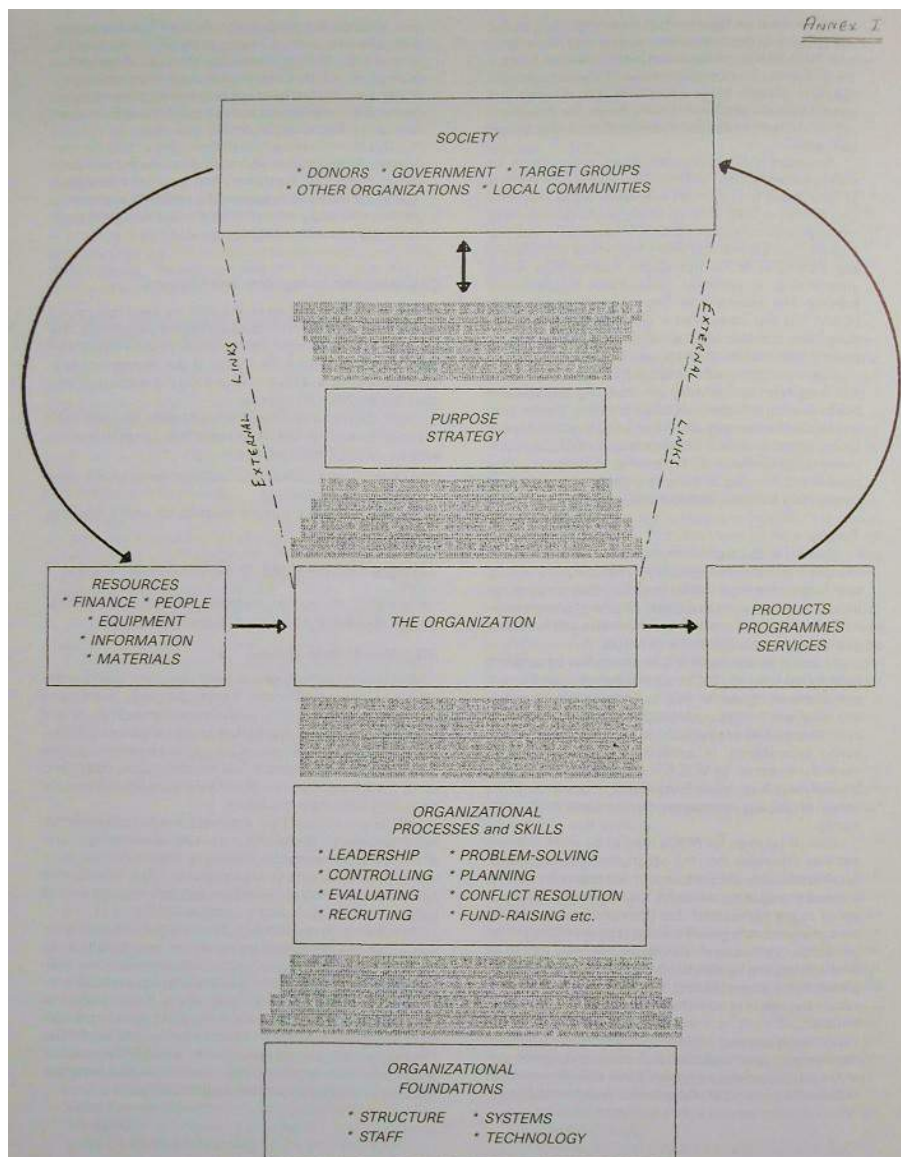
NGO-Specific Programmes ?

Some management services are already available in the region (Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan and Uganda). However, they are often based on techniques and concepts that are not appropriate to the indigenous NGOs. This is partly because most of the existing training is geared towards the governmental and commercial sectors, and partly because many of the dominant management concepts have originated from the North.

NGOs are different from commercial organizations in two essential ways: firstly, they operate development programmes and, secondly, they have their roots as community-based voluntary organizations. This means that many of the existing management services may not be - at least in their present state - useful to NGOs.

In a sense, many of the NGO strengths (action-orientation, close links with local communities, and flexibility) are the source of their organizational weaknesses. The challenge is to find creative solutions that will improve NGO's organizational capacity while maintaining these traditional strengths. All these factors would suggest that new management services in the region should be run by, and for, NGOs. The programmes should be staffed by local NGO specialists who should have access to manuals and training materials specifically developed (or adapted) for NGOs.

Annex I



National and Regional Action

The Conference may wish to consider the following issues:

(a) Information on Management Programmes, Resource Persons, Ideas, etc.

How can we circulate more widely the newsletter « NGO Management » (see Annex III) ? In the long term, should the region publish its own occasional newsletter ? Should a management resource centre be developed?

(b) Focal Points

How can we best coordinate, firstly, the flow of information and secondly, the activities of the service providers ? How can we organize open courses for local NGO communities? Should focal points be established in each country and also at the regional level? Should the focal point be an existing organization (working perhaps under the supervision of a coordinating committee) or should a new organization be created?

(c) Management Resource Persons

How can we create a pool of experienced local management resource persons (consultants and trainers)? Should we run « training-of-trainers » courses for the region ? Should we send candidates on courses outside the region? How will the management specialists be financed once they have been trained?

(d) What is the best way of organizing open courses for the NGO community, at the national or regional level? What subjects should be covered ? How will the courses be financed?

(e) Manuals

Is there a need for appropriate management manuals and training materials for NGOs in the region? Can we

use (or adapt) publications published in other regions of Africa or elsewhere in the world?

These and other issues are discussed in a separate paper « Management Programmes and Services for NGOs » (see next issue).

Implications for northern and international NGOs

I would like to end by briefly discussing two aspects of institution-building that have significant implications for northern and international NGOs.

Financing Policy

It is clear that substantial changes are required in the funding policies of donor NGOs. Firstly, long-term programme funding should be established as the norm rather than the exception. Secondly, core-budget funding is essential if indigenous NGOs are to be able to plan ahead and hire competent staff. Thirdly, substantial funds are required to finance organization and management development programmes for NGOs. Finally, the complex reporting requirements should be, reduced (or, at least, paid for by the donor).

Personnel

A focus on institution-building requires significant changes in skills needed by the staff of the northern NGOs. Rather than project administrators, managers and evaluators, NGOs should be focussing on developing facilitating, training and consulting skills. NGO staff should have expertise in how to help groups establish themselves, identify their needs, formulate their own solutions, implement their own programmes and finally to evaluate their progress.

Draft

Annex II

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS: SAMPLE EVALUATION QUESTIONS

PURPOSE AND STRATEGY

1. Does the organization have a Clearly-defined purpose to which all concerned (constituency, board and staff) are committed?
2. Does it have a well-developed and realistic strategy to achieve its purpose? Has it, for example, taken into account: the organization's capacity to deliver the programmes; the availability of the necessary resources; the needs and wishes of the target groups; and various « environmental » factors (government policy, the political and economic situation, climate, and so on)?

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

3. Do the constituency, board and staff have the same values concerning both the purpose and the way that the organization operates?

CONTROL AND ACCOUNTABILITY

4. Does the board (and possibly the members) really control the organization? What power do the staff, target groups, or donors have over the decision-making process? Is this power appropriate or unhealthy in the long term ?
5. Are there good relations between the board and the staff? Does the

board receive adequate information to be able to take realistic decisions?

6. Is the organization accountable to its various interest groups : target groups, local communities, government, donors, constituency and staff ? Does it have a clear policy on accountability? Is this policy implemented?

PRODUCTS, PROGRAMMES AND SERVICES

7. Do the target groups participate in the planning, management and evaluation of the programmes?
8. Are the programmes effective and

appropriate? Do they meet the priority needs of the target groups? Are they sustainable in the long term? Do the programmes have a long-term impact on the local community and/or country?

9. Does the organization have the ability to adapt the programmes (and the strategy) to changing situations and needs?
10. Does the organization have the ability to develop and/or expand the programmes without over-extending itself?
11. Does it have the staff with the relevant skills and experience for each programme (sectoral skills, facilitation skills, experience with target groups, etc.)?

A LEARNING ORGANIZATION

12. Does the organization have the ability to think critically about itself? Does it have the ability to learn from its successes and failures?

GROWTH AND CHANGE

13. Has the organization grown significantly in recent years, What is the attitude of the staff to change? How has it coped with the change?

14. Has the organization diversified recently? Did it over-extend itself? Did the staff have the relevant capacity before diversification? Was the diversification planned or was it forced on the organization?

RESOURCES IN GENERAL

15. Does the organization have adequate resources to carry out its activities? If not, does it have a realistic plan for obtaining the resources?
16. Is there a plan for distributing the resources, Are they, in fact, distributed efficiently and fairly? Is there a system for resolving conflict over resources?

FINANCIAL RESOURCES

17. Does the organization have several sources of funding? If it is dependent on grants, does it have plans to generate income in alternative ways? What proportion of its funding comes from its constituency?
18. Does the organization have to spend an unreasonable proportion of its time on obtaining financial resources (and on satisfying

donor reporting demands)? Do donors influence the organization's strategy and programmes?

19. Is there a difference between what the organization says it does and what it actually does? Is there any conflict between the fund-raising and the operational departments?
20. If the organization does not have sufficient funding, how does it cope with inadequate funding?
21. If the organization is offered more funding than it immediately needs, is it pressurized into expanding or diversifying without planning or possibly without having the necessary capacity?

HUMAN RESOURCES

22. Is there an adequate number of staff with the required skills to carry out the programmes and to run the organization?
23. Is there an adequate system for recruiting and firing staff? Do political, family or personal ties unduly influence this process?
24. Does the organization have the ability to resolve conflict among the staff, or between outside groups and the organization?
25. Is there a formal or informal training programme for the staff?
26. Is there a high turnover of staff? Does the organization have the appropriate incentives for motivating and retaining staff?
27. Is there an adequate personnel system for administering staff, ensuring equitable treatment, resolving grievances, and so on?

COMMUNICATION

28. Does the organization have an effective system for circulating information to all concerned? Are there aspects of the organization's activities that are kept unnecessarily secret?
29. Is there a spirit of open communication within the organization? Do people work as a team or as individuals? Are office doors kept closed as much as possible? Do the staff get together over coffee and/or lunch? Are there social occasions?
30. Is conflict managed or ignored? How is conflict resolved between: board and staff; volunteers and professionals; headquarters and field staff?

LEADERSHIP

31. Is the leadership style(s) used by the directors and/or senior staff appropriate to the organization, its purpose and values, Do staff resent the way that they are managed?
32. Are responsibilities delegated to the appropriate staff? Does the delegation work?
33. Is the organization dominated by the original founder? If so, does s/he control (or try to control) every aspect of the organization and to resist change?
34. Are there any possible successors to the current director?
35. Do the staff feel that they can speak openly?

PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING

36. Does the organization have a system (and do the staff have the skills) for identifying problems, analysing options and then taking the relevant decisions?
37. Are the staff involved in the decision-making process? Are they consulted about issues before the decisions are taken? Do they feel that their opinions are considered?

PLANNING, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

38. Are there well-established systems for planning, monitoring (controlling) and evaluation? Do the staff have the necessary skills? Are the systems actually used? What are the staff's attitudes to planning and evaluation?
39. What happens to the results of the evaluations? Are they gathering dust or are the recommendations put into practice? Are they used in the planning process?

STRUCTURE AND SYSTEMS

40. Does the organization have a structure (and administrative systems) that is appropriate to its functions? Is the structure over-complicated for the size of organization or, for that matter, so simple that it is almost non-existent?
41. Do the staff have clear job descriptions? Do they know what authority they have, what results they are expected to achieve and how they will be assessed?
42. Does the organization have ade-

qua te systems and administrative procedures?	ments (for example, staff salaries) that are greater than its reserves ?	EXTERNAL LINKAGES
FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT	45. Are project funds clearly separated? Is there any danger that temporary credits in one project account could be used to finance (however temporarily) another project ?	48. Does the organization have good relations with government (national and local)? Does its strategy take the government's plans into account?
43. Does the organization have an adequate financial management system (and skills)? Are the budgets realistic? Do the financial controls work ? Do the programme staff have a reasonably accurate picture of the financial situation of the various projects and activities?	46. How does the organization deal with cash-flow difficulties? Does it have any reserves?	49. Has the organization established links with other organizations working in the same sector or geographical area, or with the same target groups ? Is its basis attitude one of collaboration or of competition?
44. Is the organization technically bankrupt ? Has it pre-financed projects that have not been guaranteed by donors ? Has it committed	CROSS-CULTURAL ISSUES	50. Does the organization have good relations with the local communities? Can it mobilize participation in its programmes?
	47. Are there any cross-cultural issues affecting the organization ? If so, how does the organization deal with them?	

Annex II

NGO MANAGEMENT NETWORK

Introduction

The NGO Management Network was established in February 1986 to promote and facilitate appropriate management services for NGOs worldwide. It is essentially an informal, unstructured, grouping of organizations, individuals and networks interested in the management of NGOs.

How Was It Formed?

In October 1985 the International Council of Voluntary Agencies (ICVA) approached three other NGO coordinating bodies to see if they would be interested in cosponsoring an international seminar for organizations providing, or interested in providing, management services to NGOs.

It was subsequently agreed to hold the seminar in Geneva on 25/26 February 1986 on the theme "NGO Management Development and Training: Recent Experiences and Future Priorities". The four cosponsors were: American Council for Voluntary International Action (InterAction), Development Innovations and Networks (IRED), International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW) and ICVA.

The principal outcome of the Geneva seminar was the establishment of the NGO Management Network which was conceived from the beginning as an association of autonomous regional (and eventually national) networks. The participants elected an interim committee whose main task was to help the formation of the regional networks.

Why Another Network?

Despite the recent interest in management and the increase in the number of management programmes available to NGOs, the fact remains that comparatively few NGOs have access to appropriate management services in their own country, in addition, many NGO managers and management specialists have to work in an information "vacuum" as they do not have access to information on recent developments and ideas in the management field, current management services, new manuals and training materials. Finally, as in any new field, there are a number of problems that are caused by poor coordination among management service-providers, for example, duplication of training programmes and failure to develop and use local resources.

It is clear that a network is the best mechanism for addressing these issues, particularly by providing an information service facilitating coordination among service-providers, promoting new management services and, where necessary, organizing its own management programmes.

Members of the Network believe that the priority is to establish management services for grassroots community organizations in the South. Hence the focus of the Network's activities will be at the national and local levels.

The founding members argued very strongly that the Network should not be nor seen to be yet another Northern initiative, dominated by international NGOs. They therefore decided that the Network should be constituted by autonomous regional and national networks, which would carry out virtually all the Network activities.

An organizing committee and interim secretariat were set up at the international level in order to, firstly, help establish the regional and national networks and, secondly, to facilitate information-sharing on management issues.

Aims of The Network

The overall aim of the Network is to improve the management of NGOs by:

- ' facilitating communication among IMGO managers and management specialists
- * promoting more effective management services for NGOs
- " promoting collaboration among its members and, where necessary, organizing its own management programmes designed to develop and improve local management services for NGOs
- * developing appropriate management principles and practices for NGOs involved in development and relief programmes.

Structure

Since February 1986, Network programmes have been started in East and Southern Africa, South-East Asia and Switzerland. In addition, independent initiatives in Latin America and the United States are now being implemented in cooperation with the Network. Similar activities for South Asia, Oceania and Francophone Africa are currently being planned.

The interim committee met in Geneva in March 1987 and it was decided that, as soon as a significant number of regional seminars have been held, an international seminar will be organized, with a view to establishing the Network on a firm organizational basis.

Interim Committee

The following are members of the Committee:

B. D. Amoa, Chief Accountant, All Africa Conference of Churches, Kenya
Christine Burbach, Director, Washington Office, InterAction, USA
Piers Campbell, Programme Director, International Council of Voluntary Agencies, Switzerland
Zebbediah Gamanya, Chairman of NGOMESA and Director of Voluntary Organizations in Community Enterprise, Zimbabwe
Mazide N'Diaye, Director of Réseau africain pour le développement intégré and President of Conseil des organisations non gouvernementales d'appui au développement, Sénégal
Mario Padrón, Centre de Estudios y Promoción del Desarrollo, Peru, and Secretary-General of the Third World NGOs Task Force
A. C. Sen, General Secretary, Association of Voluntary Agencies for Rural Development, India
Edgardo Valenzuela, Executive Secretary, Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development, Philippines
Fernand Vincent, Secretary-General, Innovations et Réseaux pour le Développement, Switzerland
Ian Yates, programme Officer, International Council on Social Welfare, Austria

Current Activities of the Network

(1) International Secretariat

The Secretariat's main task is to facilitate communication among the members by: publishing the quarterly news-

letter "*NGO Management*"; producing a series of occasional papers on management principles and practices, and running an information and resource centre. Its second task is to organize regional seminars designed to lead to the establishment of regional and national networks and, thereafter, to support the committees of such networks.

Finally, the Secretariat has been asked to organize an international seminar on NGO management in 1989.

(2) East and southern Africa

An NGO Management Network for East and Southern Africa, called NGOMESA, has been established and the secretariat is being temporarily provided by VOICE, Zimbabwe and the IRED East and Southern Africa office. Its first major activity was a twoweek training seminar on project management which was held in Mombasa, Kenya, in April 1987.

NGOMESA plans to hire a fulltime coordinator who will be based in the offices of VOICE, Zimbabwe (whose director is the current chairman of NGOMESA).

The three main activities of the Network will be:

- *Project Management*: Workshops will be held in each of the ten countries in the region, based on a manual developed by the Manitoba Institute of Management, Canada. At the end of this process, a project management training manual will be published.
- * *Income-Generating Projects*: Workshops on the theme "Planning Income-generating projects" will be given in Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda. These workshops, which will include a "training-of-trainers" component, will be based on VOICE'S manual on the same subject.
- * *National Management Networks*: NGOMESA will help to organize meetings in Lesotho and Swaziland to discuss the formation of NGO coordinating councils with a view to developing management services for NGOs in those countries. In addition, existing councils in Botswana and Tanzania may be assisted to develop similar programmes.

Finally, NGOMESA is planning an occasional newsletter to keep members informed of its activities and of the training programmes run by other organizations.

(3) Francophone Africa

Three events are planned for Francophone Africa:

- A national seminar in Senegal to discuss the adaptation of the Canadian management training manual to the needs of Senegalese NGOs (to be carried out by Réseau africain pour le développement intégré)
- A regional seminar on financial management and institution building (to be carried out by innovations et réseaux pour le développement)
- A regional seminar on the management of NGOs in Francophone Africa bringing together the principal management service-providers in the region (to be organized by the Network) Secretariat.

(4) South-East Asia

Following the seminar on "*NGO Management Development and Training*" held in Tagatay City, the Philippines in January 1987, the Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ANGOC), on behalf of the Network, is considering the following regional seminars:

- Management of coordinating bodies
- Fund-raising and financial management

- Organization development
- Training of trainers
- Women in management
- Training in project development and project management.

In addition, a joint ICSW/ANGOC regional workshop on "Collaboration for selfreliance" will be held in Jakarta, Indonesia on 2830 August 1987. One of the themes will focus on the question of development management and training issues.

(5) South Asia

A seminar took place in Pakistan in September 1987 on the theme "Management Development of NGOs in South Asia". It is anticipated that this seminar will lead to a number of different initiatives in the region.

(6) Oceania

A similar seminar for Oceania is being discussed and a preliminary feasibility study was carried out in mid 1987 with a view to initiating a programme in 1988.

(7) Latin America

A workshop entitled "Management and Institutional Policies for Promotion and Development Centres in Latin America" was held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil on 9-20 August 1987. 104 candidates submitted papers/research papers and 35 were selected by the academic committee (with members from Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile and Brazil).

This workshop will be the main means of launching the Network in Latin America. A Spanish edition of "NGO Management" is also being considered.

(8) North America

In the United States, PACT is publishing a newsletter "IMPACT" covering management resources, capabilities

and services within, or available to, the NGO community. It is also running a series of training workshops on such subjects as financial management and cost-effectiveness. InterAction (the American Council for Voluntary International Action) is planning a programme which would provide consultancy services to NGOs as well as training seminars.

(9) Europe

In Switzerland, the Network has initiated a successful management programme for NGOs which, it is hoped, will eventually form the nucleus for a European series of seminars. During the coming year, some thirty short-term training workshops will be held in Geneva, covering a wide range of management and organizational skills.

Publications

- "NGO Management Development and Training", a report on an international seminar held in Geneva in February 1986.
- "NGO Management Development and Training", a report on a seminar for East and Southern Africa, held in Nairobi in April 1986.
- "NGO Management Development and Training", a report on a seminar for SouthEast Asia held in Tagatay City, the Philippines in January 1987.
- "Management Training for NGO Emergency Programmes", a report on a workshop held in Geneva in October 1986.
- "Donors' Meeting on the Management of NGOs", a report on a meeting held in Geneva in March 1987.
- "The Management of NGOs: An Overview" by Piers Campbell (January 1987).
- "Development Management: Essential Concepts and Principles" by Alan Fowler (April 1986).
- "NGO Management" newsletter Nos. 17.
- "Lok Nit" Vol. 4, No. 4 (published by ANGOC) focusses on the management of NGOs.



NGO Management: A Collaborative Approach to Training and Research

by Dr David Billis*

Summary

Is « *NGO management* » a distinctive area of work and study ? Do those working in NGOs need management training ? If education and training is needed, has the university a role? What sort of courses should be established? Who might attend ? What would be an appropriate curriculum, and most importantly, where would the educational material come from ? Are there dangers in « professionalising » NGOs?

The purpose of this paper is not to provide definitive « answers » to these questions; but to make a contribution to the developing international interest in NGO management and the associated question of training and research. The paper attempts to make such a contribution by reflecting on 10 years' experience of a UK university programme.

- NGOs », « Nonprofits », and « Voluntary Agencies »

Although we shall continue to refer to them also as NGOs, the social institutions we are concerned with are more usually described as « nonprofits » in North America, and « voluntary » organisations or agencies in the UK. The absence of one commonly accepted name may not be accidental, and may reflect different national approaches to the relative roles of the State and the Market. It reflects also the deep theoretical and practical problems that have generated a substantial discussion⁽¹⁾. Usually the discussion does not focus solely on the definition of the individual entity (NGO, nonprofit, or voluntary agency), but embraces the problem of describing and defining the collectivity - «the sector ». How do we define a « sector » that contains a collection of apparently disparate organisations ranging from self-help groups, service delivery agencies, pressure groups, national and international agencies?

At least one prestigious UK committee (chaired by Lord Wolfenden), given the task of examining the role of the «voluntary sector», began by declaring that it could not define what it was supposed to study. But the Wolfenden Committee *had* to continue with its designated task and eventually succeeded in publishing an important report⁽²⁾. The problem of defining the « sector » is thus not « merely

academic » but, as the Wolfenden example illustrates, is inseparable from practical policy needs. For example, both in the UK and in the US it is common to hear governments declare that they have a «partnership» with the voluntary sector. Yet what is this sector? If we mean by « sector » a coherent group of institutions that can act, and from the government's points of view, be influenced and controlled, then it is tempting to suggest that certainly in the UK the sector doesn't exist⁽³⁾. If, on the other hand, we mean by « sector » a group of social institutions that consider themselves to be distinct and share common problems, then the sector is a very real entity.

For the purpose of this paper it is sufficient to emphasise that voluntary agencies share certain fundamental characteristics which the different descriptions suggest - they are not statutory, neither is their prime purpose the securing of profit. They are thus not directly dependent on the electorate or on the commercial market for their *raison d'être* and survival. The more positive description, «voluntary » agency, indicates that there is often a significant element of voluntary labour. This is perhaps easily recognised in the direct service provision work of volunteers; but it is also represented by the sometimes less visible effort of those engaged without payment in fund-raising, financial management, public relations, logistics and other supporting activities.

We shall contend in this paper that our knowledge and theories lag behind the need to resolve urgent management problems, and that this not unfamiliar situation presents universities with the challenging task of working together with NGOs to deepen our understanding of the theory and practice of NGOs.

The rise of international interest in NGO management

In recent years we have witnessed the rise of interest in the management of NGOs in many different countries with diverse political, economic and social conditions. We can only speculate about the reasons. In the UK, for example, renewed interest in the voluntary sector appears to have resulted from a number of causes including unease about the provision of welfare by governmental bureaucracies, economic pressure, and political ideologies from right and left⁽⁴⁾. Amidst a general atmosphere of « value for money » it was not surprising that attention would be turned to-

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wards management in the voluntary sector.

In some countries what began as a minor area of interest is slowly developing into a significant area of concern for practitioners, policy makers and academics. A variety of management initiatives have sprung up. An intriguing aspect has been the apparently unconnected way in which the various national initiatives have developed. A few fairly random examples may illustrate the growing international dimension of interest in NGO management.

Perhaps not unexpectedly the United States has developed the largest number of initiatives in nonprofit management. It has been estimated that by the end of the decade there will be about 100 university programmes in the area. Many are inevitably new and small, but others are somewhat longer established and have acquired an international reputation. Thus the Yale program on Non-Profit Organizations (PONPO), although not specifically targeted at management, has stimulated interest in nonprofits in general and has produced a valuable series of Working Papers and other publications of considerable use for management education. And an important centre specialising just in nonprofit management is to be found at Case Western Reserve University.

Other countries, whilst perhaps not competing in size have vigorous NGO management initiatives. For example in Canada there is a lively programme at York University. In the UK we have probably the longest established university-based programme and new initiatives are underway at the Open University. The establishment of the NGO management network is an impressive indication of the growing world wide interest.

Side by side with the new initiatives there have been a steady stream of international conferences, usually devoted to the whole nonprofit sector but always with an honourable place reserved for the issue of management. Of these we might just note the San Francisco Conference of November 1986 which was solely devoted to the question of « *Educating Managers of Nonprofit Organizations* » (5).

An international approach to NGO management?

Undoubtedly there are many other management initiatives around the world, but my main purpose is to raise for consideration the proposition that NGO management and the educational response can now be considered as an international phenomenon. The question is whether we can usefully use the experience of NGOs gained in one country for the benefit of others? Or are national conditions so distinct and overpowering that we cannot gain from that experience? Or perhaps if such experience is useful should it be restricted to particular groups such as the developing countries? Can we even group together the US and UK experience?

Although we are clearly many years away from being able to provide confident knowledge-based answers to these questions; those who are already engaged in the educational process in the NGO management area must address these questions and attempt some response. Can, for example, NGO management students in the UK benefit from non-UK based research? Or should we adopt the NIH (Not Invented Here) philosophy? That is to say the approach, often seen in organisations in the public, private and nonprofit sectors, that no idea, unless it springs from the experience of the individual agency is worth considering. The NIH syndrome, usually found in the individual

agency, can also be translated into a national parochial attitude which I suggest is at best short sighted and potentially disastrous.

Obviously the other extreme - the slavish acceptance of the latest «foreign» novelty is equally hazardous. What is required is solid research, judicious examination, and an open mind.

There are other reasons why an international approach to NGO management is worth pursuing. On a personal level I read the paper by Piers Campbell - « Management Development and Development Management for Voluntary Organisations »(6) with a sense of total recognition. His analysis of the distinctive features of NGOs could almost have been that of the UK voluntary sector. It suggests that there may be a good basis for further theoretical examination, an issue that we return to later.

The following reflections on the experience of a UK educational institution are therefore offered in the belief that a truly international approach is worth considering.

A university-based response to voluntary sector management needs

The Centre for Voluntary Organisation at the LSE began life in 1978 as a modest programme called PORTVAC (the Programme of Research and Training in Voluntary Action) based in Brunel University. The are two important background features to its work. PORTVAC was self-financing and raised the money to cover all its own costs including staff salaries and overheads. In the changed circumstances of UK universities self-funding is today less unusual, but in 1978 it was rather rare and necessitated an entrepreneurial spirit amongst its academics that was at the time rather unfashionable. The need of the programme to raise money and to have an entrepreneurial approach was particularly significant in the development of an initiative in the voluntary sector - an arena where financial survival is often a constant problem. I am not, by the way, suggesting that self-funding be adopted as a principle for funding NGOs or universities, but merely noting that PORTVAC staff were not only sympathetic but were themselves personally acutely aware of the needs of voluntary sector managers.

The second feature of the approach is methodological (7) and is distinguished by:

- (a) close collaboration between academics and those with whom they are working (NGOs);
- (b) being «driven» by the problems posed by NGOs;
- (c) a concern with organisational change;
- (d) a desire to develop «usable» theory.

I have elsewhere(8) set this general approach within the schema of the philosopher Karl Popper: $PI \rightarrow TT \rightarrow EE \rightarrow P_{ii}$ where PI represents the starting problem; we then proceed to a Tentative Theory (TT) which will then be subject to Error Elimination (EE) which may consist of critical discussion or experimental tests; then new problems P_{ii} - generally unintended consequences of our actions - arise. This has seemed to be a productive educational approach towards a management programme that had as its objective both the resolution of practical problems faced by voluntary agencies and the development of better theory. The Popperian schema implies that we can begin building our educational programme on the basis of the management problems posed by NGOs; we then apply to those problems whatever theories seem

appropriate; some appear to make more sense than others and we attempt to develop better tools and theories, if we succeed we are left with a higher level of problem.

As we shall shortly note the PORTVAC programme has built its programme on an « integrated approach » - I prefer to use this phrase rather than enter the « training » versus « management development discussion » (see *NGO MANAGEMENTS*. 2 Sept 1986). This integrated approach was to develop into a programme of:

problem-orientated workshops and training events for those working in voluntary agencies;

research projects, usually collaborative with voluntary agencies;

postgraduate teaching, using relevant material from the workshops and research.

Workshops: an instrument of training and research

Short workshops were the first and crucial activity of the PORTVAC programme. They illustrate in practice the basic approach to problems and theories we have been discussing and for that reason it is perhaps worth discussing them in a little more detail.

In February 1979 10 directors and senior managers of social welfare voluntary agencies participated in an event whose explicit objectives were:

to provide participants with tools for problem-solving in their organisations;

to develop new ideas and tools for understanding the problems of voluntary organisations.

The opening session (as in the Popperian schema) was devoted to drawing out the main management problems faced by the participants. A formidable list of issues was raised which for convenience can be divided into three main broad groupings, with considerable overlap, (aims and objectives, work organisation, the macro-structure).

(a) Aims and objectives.

A number of participants raised issues which can roughly be brought together under the heading of « aims and objectives ». It was felt that these could not be discussed in their own right at that particular workshop but were noted for further attention. Thus several participants raised the issue of *changing objectives*, for example where financial reasons had caused an agency to accept money which led it away from its original purposes. An allied problem was that of growth and the difficulty of deciding in which direction the organisation should move.

(b) Work Organisation.

Under this heading can be included all those problems associated with organising the work of voluntary organisations which were a central theme of the workshop. They can again for convenience be divided four subsections (not in any order of importance) :

- clarifying roles and internal structure (lack of accountability, overlap in responsibilities, fragmented organisation, rapid change of individual roles, lack of clarity about the role of headquarters, increase in bureaucracy;

- **recruitment, training and career development (no career system, attracting high calibre staff with low salaries, deciding priorities for staff training);**

- « working together » (how to motivate staff, the need to develop teamwork versus the need to develop leadership skills);
- professionals, and maintaining standards (the need of local groups for professional support, relationships between voluntary staff and paid workers);

(c) The Macro-Structure

Under this heading were included problems such as:

- the relationship between the national association and the local association, the local association had grown up from local groups;
- the relationship between chairman, trustees and executive staff;
- a chief executive officer acting without the help of the management committee;
- communication between trustees management and staff;
- local fund raising versus national priorities.

This weighty list of problems was followed by staff presentations of (tentative) theory based on previous work of staff members and their colleagues(9). These ideas were overwhelming drawn from research experience originally in the private sector, and in the previous 10 years in governmental health and welfare agencies. They were thus rooted in traditional forms of large-scale bureaucratic organisation and accepted the prevailing organisational paradigms which emphasise the differentiation into different employee roles, clarity of role boundaries, centrality of accountability, differentiation between governing body and staff roles, and clarity of decision-making levels.

The staff presentations were in turn followed by real «case studies» of their own organisations given in confidence by several participants. At this stage problems met tentative theories (see Popperian schema) and the painful process of error elimination began. It became clear that whilst the existing organisational concepts were helpful, there were major problems which could not be resolved by the prevailing theories. Thus it became evident that simple role differentiation between « employees » and « members » and between « governing body » and « employees », for example, did not fit the world of voluntary agencies. There was an expectation for workers to act as paid employees at the same time as volunteers and governing bodies had unclear boundaries with staff.

The Report of that 1979 Workshop concluded with the comments that « we have made a modest start in identifying some of the features (of voluntary organisations) that might be distinctive »(10). We did not realise then that this modest start was to set the research agenda for the coming decade and beyond. It led to a series of research papers (1 1) which eventually provided alternative tentative theories (TTii) for use in the postgraduate course, training and further research.

In summing up this section we can note from the participants' point of view the workshop is a training event providing them with and the chance to examine their problems in depth. From the staff point of view the event is both training

and research, providing them with an invaluable opportunity to test ideas and develop new material.

Research

The workshop programme generated a number of invitations from participating agencies to undertake «consultancies». Once again these were based on the general approach outlined above. That is to say, they started with the problems posed by the voluntary agency, were collaborative and confidential, and concerned with organisational change. An important part of this approach, which goes back to the pioneering work undertaken by Elliot Jaques at the Tavistock Institute(12), was the emphasis on analysis and the presentation of alternative models of action - no «recommendations» were made in the final reports to the agencies. The agency «owns» the problem and must decide whether or not to take any action following the consultant's analysis. Again, whilst these are regarded as consultancy for the agency; this problem-driven «organisational development» approach can be argued to be an eminently respectable research methodology(13).

In some cases permission was received to publish the accounts of the collaborative consultancy projects and these were to provide important teaching material for the eventual development of the postgraduate course. A typical account was published as a « Working Paper » and analysed the tension between «self-help» and « service »(14).

The experience gained from the projects in turn reinforced the quality of material presented at workshops. A « cycle » of practice and teaching was set in motion which was later to be further reinforced with the new Masters course.

We might also note the importance of the workshop and project programme in establishing credibility since at that time « management » especially in the voluntary sector was a decidedly unpopular concept. Outside part of the voluntary sector itself, there was little interest in management, and indeed from several quarters there was decided hostility. The general feeling of government and others could be summed up in the belief that voluntary agencies did not really need management, that it was all just a question of goodwill and muddling through.

There was however one exception to the general disinterest. The director of an important Foundation, the charitable arm of a large commercial Company, had a theoretical and practical interest in management. He had become concerned about the effective use of charitable money and was prepared to give enlightened support to the PORTVAC programme. Funding was received for a part-time research post and another important project began.

The presence of a longer term researcher enabled the Unit to undertake a literature review of the more traditional sort(15). This was seen as an essential precondition before advancing to the next stage of development, since by then the idea of a special postgraduate degree that would be tailor-made for the voluntary sector was beginning to evolve. The suspected paucity of specific voluntary agency management material in the English language became evident, and the literature search became a matter of gleaning whatever appeared useful from books and articles often primarily devoted to other objectives. The book eventually appeared in 1985.

Postgraduate training for voluntary sector workers

In the account so far we have attempted to show how adopting a problem-orientated methodology towards education and training might be an integral part of a programme that could fulfil both the needs of the voluntary sector and the research mission of a university. The opening of the postgraduate course was the final - at least for the moment - element in the cycle of practice and teaching.

By 1984 it was clear that attitudes to voluntary agency management were beginning to change. Our workshop and project experience indicated the need for a more substantial response and the existence of a large « market ». The bibliography provided additional educational material. What was needed was substantial funding - a familiar voluntary sector story ! PORTVAC staff were instrumental in helping to establish an independent charitable Trust whose objectives were to support management education in the voluntary sector. An appeal was launched, and our original funder was joined by several more corporate donors and Foundations. A mixed bag of funding was assembled and the course launched.

Side by side with the educational and funding initiatives it was also necessary to undertake an extensive programme of « public relations ». How would our initiative be seen by the major national voluntary sector representative and co-ordinating bodies? We already had an advisory group drawn from voluntary agencies, it was now necessary to make quite sure that the new initiative had sought advice from the widest possible spectrum of opinion. In the course of the next few years representatives of these national groups and indeed leaders from several Foundations were to make a valuable input into the seminar teaching.

But where could/should a limited resource such as a small university Unit devote its energies? After much agonising we accepted that if a university was to play a useful role it must focus its attentions on «training the trainers». Not only could we not respond to the individual needs of hundreds of thousands of people working in the sector, there was a strong argument that the most effective way of raising the general level of management sensitivity and effectiveness was to encourage the development of a leadership in tune with such ideas. Furthermore if we could achieve the objective of developing theories that responded to the specific problems of the sector, this would have a long-term impact far in excess of any training activity that could be mounted. Others would have to take mass training as their mission - but they too would need to draw their educational material from somewhere. All the routes seemed to point in the same direction.

It was decided to concentrate on recruiting students from social welfare agencies who were already occupying, or seemed likely to occupy, significant roles. Students without substantial work experience in the sector were not accepted. The choice of « social welfare » as the broad area of attention reflected our own background and was, we felt, the area of greatest social need. The voluntary sector also has other features which are reflected in the type of workers that tend to be attracted to work in the sector. Apart from their high motivation staff do not necessarily have the educational qualifications that their colleagues in the governmental sector would regard as essential. We were determined to offer at least some of these workers the chance to take a higher degree even if they had not taken the « normal » educational

route of obtaining a first degree. Finally it was obvious that if high calibre students were to be recruited, the course would have to be part-time, enabling students to combine work with study.

From the account so far it is probably clear what stance was adopted to the curriculum. About one half of the total course was set within broader studies of public and social administration and gave students the possibility of moving beyond what might have been an unduly parochial voluntary sector attitudes. The other half was specialist voluntary sector material and here the same methodological approach outlined above was carried through to the course curriculum. That is to say the agenda of prime problems that had emerged from workshops and projects served as a guideline for the preparation of lectures. Additional issues were dealt with in seminars which also provided the opportunity for students to feed into the course their own experience. A substantial dissertation provided students with the opportunity to use theoretical material and to make a contribution to the stock of knowledge about the sector. The best of these dissertations serve as material for future intakes of students.

In October 1987 PORTVAC moved its original base and became the new Centre for Voluntary Organisation at the London School of Economics. The change of name indicated that a further stage of development was planned at the premier social science institution in the UK. A new postgraduate course opened in October 1988 using the same basic approach and specialist PORTVAC staff but now able to draw on the considerable resources of LSE. The LSE, with its wide international links, provides an ideal setting to explore the extent to which NGO management can become a subject of international study and research as discussed earlier.

Discussion and conclusion

I began this paper by raising a number of questions: is NGO or voluntary agency management distinctive? Is education and training needed? Has the university a role? Who might attend? What might be an appropriate curriculum? Where might the educational material come from? Are there dangers in professionalising NGO management?

Before returning to address these questions, there are several dangers which should be highlighted. This rapid account covering 10 years is apt to present developments as orderly, unproblematic and tidy. Whilst it is quite true that the general methodology informed our plans, I would not wish to deny the struggles and mistakes of this period. The need to raise funds was a continuous cause of anxiety. This became severe when establishing the postgraduate course and was a driving force behind the search for the best possible base for the enterprise. My objective therefore in this paper has not been to argue that any one model of training is « correct » for the future of NGO management. I have attempted to raise some questions by using the brief history of one initiative to stimulate further discussion on the nature of NGO education and training and to encourage those concerned with NGOs to regard management as a serious issue deserving serious attention.

So is NGO management distinctive? I have already suggested that an international approach to the question is worth considering. Although detailed attempt at an answer is well beyond the possibilities of this paper we have already noted that there is a growing body of literature which has

been energetically examining the « distinctive features » of the non-governmental non-profit sector. Much of the material is descriptive and the question has been approached from a number of different academic disciplines, all of whom have been struggling to fit what is generally agreed to be a « messy » area, into their own disciplinary paradigms. Many writers have taken the position of the economist who admitted that :

«Any economist who tries to investigate the voluntary sector is likely to experience a good deal of embarrassment about the inadequacies of conventional economic theory» (16).

Nevertheless there is emerging a consensus that there are indeed distinctive features even if the deeper theoretical justification remains to be developed. This would appear to be an instance where our theories are lagging behind the problems. For, as we argued earlier, the UK voluntary sector, for example, has problems that are very different from those faced in the private and governmental sectors. Here we might note also what Piers Campbell has described as:

« the basic issue facing NGOs is that most of the existing management tools and techniques have been developed for, and by the commercial sector in the North. The challenge to NGOs is, therefore, to develop their own management philosophies and styles, encompassing not only management tools and techniques but also structures, systems and procedures » (17).

This is the very same challenge that we have been suggesting faces UK voluntary agencies who are also confronted by the dominant bureaucratic models of organisation. These papers by Piers Campbell reinforce the belief that NGOs internationally might share common problems, and that this might in turn enable the production of a general theory of voluntary organisation,

I hope that possible approaches to some of the other questions raised were implicit in the account of the last decade of PORTVAC. Thus I believe that a university may have a role to play in the total educational process; but most training and education will inevitably be provided by many other individuals and groups - consultants, training agencies, NGO staff, etc. I have argued that a problem-orientated methodology is appropriate both for the research function of a university and is in tune with the real needs of NGOs. The mission and challenge for *that* sort of University is to collaborate with NGOs in tackling the « basic issue » described above.

As far as the questions: who should attend? and what might be an appropriate curriculum? are concerned, I have merely illustrated one particular experience. It would be presumptuous to suggest that this could, or should, be the path of other institutions. All that might be said is that were a problem-driven approach to be adopted, then we would at least perhaps ensure that our academic institutions did not become remote from the life of NGOs. We might also possibly avoid using teaching material that reinforced industrial and governmental models of bureaucracy and turned the NGO into a mini-government agency.

We come here to a question that has not been directly approached. Is there a danger of « professionalising » NGO management? Will the provision of high status courses help to develop a class of professional managers divorced from

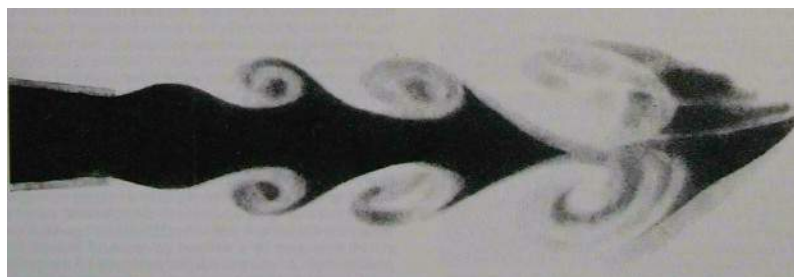
those with whom they work, and for whom they work ? These are real dangers which cannot lightly be dismissed. It is a question that deserves more attention than can be provided here. There is certainly the danger that NGO management training, certainly in the developed countries, could find itself sited within University Business Schools which may have little experience of, or sympathy with, these unusual organisational animals.

NOTES

1. The literature can be traced in « Public Money, Voluntary Action: Whose welfare? », M. Knapp et al Discussion Paper 514, PSSRU, University of Kent, Canterbury UK, May 1987.
2. Wolfenden, *The Future of Voluntary Organisations*, Croom Helm 1978.
3. D. Billis, « Government-Voluntary Partnership: A Policy in Search of Implementation », Centre for Voluntary Organisation, LSE 1988.
4. M. Brenton, *The Voluntary Sector in British Social Services*, Longman, 1985.
5. M. O'Neil and D. Young « Educating Managers of Nonprofit Organizations », Univ of San Francisco, Nov 1987.
6. P. Campbell, « Management Development and Development Management For Voluntary Organizations », Occasional paper 3.
7. See R.W. Rowbottom, *Social Analysis*, Heinemann 1977.

We can only suggest that a collaborative approach may provide a safeguard against these dangers. If NGOs are to survive and flourish then it will require the mobilisation of all the available intellectual ability both from within the NGO sector itself and from those external educational and other resources prepared to work collaboratively with the sector.

8. D. Billis, *Welfare Bureaucracies*, Heinemann 1984.
9. D. Billis, G. Bromley, A. Hey and R Rowbottom, *Organising Social Services Departments*, Heinemann 1980.
10. D. Billis « Voluntary Organisations: Management Issues 1 » PORTVAC 1979 [Centre for Voluntary Organisation LSE].
11. Available from the Centre for Voluntary Organisation, LSE.
12. Much of this work can be traced in Elliot Jaques, *A General Theory of Bureaucracy*, Heineman 1976.
13. See *Welfare Bureaucracies*, op cit.
14. D. Billis, « Self-Help and Service: An Action Research Study with a Group of One Parent Families », PORTVAC Working Paper 2 1984 [Centre for Voluntary Organisation LSE].
15. M. Harris and D. Billis, *Organising Voluntary Agencies : A Guide Through the Literature*, Bedford Square Press, 1985.
16. RT. Sugden « Voluntary Organisations and the Welfare State » in J. Legrand and R. Robinson *Privatisation and the Welfare State*, Allen and Unwin 1984.
17. P. Campbell in *NGO Management* No. 3.



Cooperative Management and Administration

Character and Functions of Management

The art of management

Management is the art of directing the activities of a group of people toward an agreed objective. When the objective is simple, and the group small, no great problems of management will arise. The situation may be compared with what happens when three or four people get together to cut down a tree : the person with most experience of tree-felling will give the orders, the most agile will go up the ladder, the oldest will hold the ladder steady, and the strongest will swing the axe. A good many small businesses, private as well as co-operative, are run in precisely this informal and often quite successful way.

When, however, the organisation becomes bigger, and the objectives more long-term and many-sided, involving complicated operations and calculations extending into the future, it is time to consider just what management is and how it works. Only by forming a clear idea of the character and functions of management is it possible to decide what managers should be expected to do, what they should expect others to do, and how success or failure can be judged. Without clear thought on the subject it will be difficult to know what kind of person will make a successful manager and what kind of training a future manager should receive.

Much has been written about the art of management and everywhere in the co-operative movement it is being studied with utmost seriousness.

Courses on the subject are offered by co-operative colleges, training centres, ILO/MATCOM programmes, ILO technical co-operation projects and other training institutions. One thing is abundantly clear: that the textbook management functions - planning, organising, motivating, controlling and evaluating — must be carried out by professionals if the co-operative is to flourish. A manager becomes "professional" by acquiring a thorough knowledge of all the most advanced techniques of his or her vocation. But the professional manager of a co-operative needs training that goes beyond pure business management techniques.

He or she needs to be trained to recognise the peculiarities of managing a democratically controlled organisation, to understand that the co-operative being managed is larger than what is visible and that, in the practice of making the co-operative successful, there will be much interplay with various

aspects of the movement both near and remote. Indeed, it may be said that the manager has a special function to perform - that of co-operating.

Ends and means

In practice, management must begin with the definition of the objective to be pursued. In a co-operative society the objective is set by the members when they form the society, and is written into the rules or by-laws. There it is likely to be described in very broad terms: "to *market the agricultural produce of members*", or "to *supply members with food and other requirements*". It is for the board to define the objectives in more detailed terms, and in the form of a plan for the immediate future : "to *build and operate an egg-packing station capable of handling so many cases of eggs a week*", for example, or "to *open a shop providing foodstuffs and clothing for a given number of families*".

If the co-operative has just been formed, or even if it has been in existence for some time, a fairly detailed policy decision of this kind may be taken by the board alone. It would be more prudent, however, for them to seek expert advice. Perhaps the number of eggs it is proposed to handle will be too much for one grading machine and not enough to cover the cost of buying a second. It may be, however, that there are no more eggs available in the neighbourhood or that marketing board quota must be obtained or considered. What is the marketing potential? What is the proper thin to do? Limit the number of eggs supplied to the capacity of one grading machine, even if this means limiting membership? Collect eggs from a distance by lorry? Move the headquarters of the co-operative to a better farming area? Set up a chick hatchery and a poultry food plant in the hope of inducing local people to keep more chickens? Only an expert can reply.

It is possible for a co-operative to get advice, based on expert knowledge and judgement, from a co-operative consultant employed by a national co-operative federation or perhaps from a technical adviser employed by the government. More frequently, however, the board will turn to its own manager before taking any decision.

The board and the manager should together decide if it is necessary to make a survey of the area in order to obtain more information than they already have. With this and other information in hand it will be for the manager to consider:

- the quantity of produce members are likely to want to market;
- the kinds and quantities of supplies they are likely to want to buy, and the sources from which these can be obtained;
- the capital required to build premises and buy any necessary machinery, and the time that must be allowed for com-

* Reproduced with authorisation from *Cooperative Management and Administration*, 2nd (revised) edition, 1988, 254 p. 1988, International Labour Organisation, Geneva.

- pleting building operations before the busy season;
- the capital that will be needed to hold goods in stock and, if all sales are not for cash, wait until accounts are paid;
- where this capital is to come from and how much it will cost;
- how many workers will have to be employed, at what wages and for how many weeks in the year; and
- whether men and women with the necessary skills are available locally.

There may be other important considerations, such as the availability of pure water or all-weather roads ; but it is the goods to be handled, the kind of treatment they are to receive, and the capital and staff required for that purpose that are the main elements in the calculation.

It is a calculation which any manager worthy of the job should be able to make, and afterwards to explain clearly to the directors, who, though being people of good judgement, will probably not be technical or financial experts. If, as a result of careful calculations, the manager concludes that the activity which the board had in mind will have no chance of paying its way, he or she should have the courage to say so. If it can only succeed if more capital is available, the directors should be advised to increase their own and other members' contributions. If it can only succeed with a larger volume of business than the present membership can provide, the board should be advised to take the lead in a campaign to increase the membership, or to come to an understanding with a neighbouring society for amalgamation or some other form of joint operation.

The manager may — and it is to be hoped can — advise that the plan is feasible and the objective attainable with the resources which the co-operative can expect to command. If at this stage the directors agree that it is feasible, they should adopt the plan by a resolution recorded in the minutes. Then the manager can proceed to put the plan into operation. This does not mean that plans, once adopted, are fixed for all time. They will have to be reviewed in the light of experience at least every month, and perhaps even more often. They may have to be altered, cut down if too ambitious, or extended in the light of new opportunities. In a co-operative, perhaps more than in a private business, success in one line is likely to bring a demand that other lines should be taken up. Even in the course of operations, changes may have to be made as a result of events over which the co-operative has no control : the harvest may fail or exceed all expectations ; a machine may not be delivered ; a foreign country may raise its tariffs; or an electrification scheme may not reach the district on time.

The work plan

When the objectives for the year have been fixed in accordance with the best advice available, the manager must draw up a detailed work plan. This need not — and probably should not — be discussed with the board. It is a detailed memorandum for his or her own use and, in so far as it concerns them, for the use of senior subordinates. Some managers think out their plans carefully but do not put them down on paper. This may work in a small business, but in a large organisation it is not possible to have a plan of operations which depends on one person's memory. Moreover, the manager will probably have begun by asking for written memoranda from some subordinates — the chief accountant, the sales manager or marketing officer, the engineer — before coming to conclusions. They in return will work better if they know the general plan into which their activities have to be fitted.

A plan of action for an organisation of any size or complexity will have to be broken down into a number of sub-

plans for different phases of activity. One of the first jobs of the manager is to decide whether any of these phases has been omitted or, conversely, whether one or two of them could be eliminated. Can a building be erected without permission from the local authority? Must each member's produce be graded separately? Can goods go direct from the railway to a branch store, or must they first be checked at a central warehouse?

When the jobs to be done have been reduced to the essentials, and none omitted, it is time to think of what exactly each operation will require in the way of space (either indoors or out), equipment, services (i.e. light, power and water), money and staff. *Staffing* is not only a crucial factor, but one in which the manager's judgement comes into play. How many men or women, with or without labour-saving equipment, can do a given job in a given time ? It may depend on their skill or on how they are led. Who, on the present staff, is best qualified to lead them ? Who will supervise and who will carry out the work? Are two activities sufficiently similar or closely linked to put them under the same supervisor or the same departmental manager? What sort of wages, hours and conditions will call forth the best work and be within the resources of the society? All these are essentially matters for the judgement of the manager, but the board's approval, in the form of adopted policy, may be necessary for many of the decisions.

Another point of great importance is *time*. The mill must be in working order before the harvest; the goods must not arrive in the rainy season before the roof is on the warehouse. In many less obvious ways there is a sequence of operations which cannot be altered without danger. It is necessary, therefore, to decide in advance the order and timing of operations, with a built-in allowance for unforeseen eventualities. This establishes a time scale against which progress can afterwards be checked.

Another factor is *money*. By spending more money on wages, on machinery, or even on small things like telegrams instead of letters, work may be speeded up and a larger volume of business handled. In some cases this will be a definite gain. It may even make the difference between a surplus at the end of the year and a heavy loss.

But it may also be that rapid increase is not essential, that it is better for a co-operative to grow slowly, or that the necessary capital is simply not there. In most co-operatives capital is relatively scarce and a good deal of managerial judgement is required in deciding where it can most usefully be invested. If the warehouse is congested, it may have to be enlarged. If money is being lost because the office does not send out accounts on time, it may be advisable to buy several calculating machines or a computer.

The professional manager will not speculate on the answers to these questions but will follow industry guidelines and norms. For example, manpower requirements in a consumers' co-operative store will be based on a standard expressed in sales per work-hour. In a factory they will be expressed in units per work-day. The amount of money needed for inventory will be gauged on the basis of accepted standards of stock turns. The size of building required will be determined by output per square metre. The person who has access to, or the determination to find and use, standards, key indicators and norms in managing has important qualifications for professional management.

Internal structure and organisation

If a plan is to be carried out successfully, there must be an established, though certainly not inflexible, organisation inside the co-operative. Since an organisational scheme, once established, tends to persist, and since frequent

changes cause confusion and sometimes resentment, it is important to give careful thought to the organisation of a new co-operative, however small. It should not be forgotten that a society which starts out with five employees may well have 50 in a year's time, and several hundred ten years later. Should deficiencies nevertheless come to light over a period of time, it is better to run the risk of disturbance than to cling to an imperfect or outdated system of organisation. Precedents should never be an excuse for retaining a time-wasting organisation or one which is taking care of the staff rather than the members.

Cooperatives are not always organised in the same way. Not all have a single head. There may be a manager and a secretary with different but equal powers. There may even be several managers all reporting directly to the board of directors. Few people would regard this as a good system. There are some national organisations covering a number of widely differing activities in which selected departmental managers make up the executive management committee. The more usual, and in most people's opinion the more effective, system is to appoint a single general manager, to whom all the rest are responsible and who is responsible only to the board. He or she reports to the board which functions as a single body at meetings. Between board meetings, the manager is responsible only to the president or chairperson. A manager is never responsible to more than one person, no matter how many directors are on the board.

Devolution of authority

Once past the simplest stage of the singlepurpose society, it is necessary to divide the staff and their work among different departments with separate activities or chains of activity. Each department will have its own head, to whom the general manager will delegate as much responsibility as possible for the work of that department. Good delegation is one of the marks of good management. If the general manager seeks to know and supervise everything that is going on in the departments, he or she will become so overburdened with detail that no time will remain to think about broad issues or form judgements on major questions. At the same time the manager's principal subordinates, feeling they are not trusted, will become timid, slack or resentful. The same holds true all the way down the line. The departmental manager must learn how much to delegate to the branch or workshop manager who, in turn, must decide how much to delegate to the supervisor or clerk. The order of appointments will vary from country to country and from one type of co-operative to another, but the principle of a chain of authority, and of each human link receiving as much responsibility as it is capable of bearing, is the same for all. A good deal of experience has been gained on the number of subordinates which any one person can control directly. This is smaller in the senior ranks, where work is difficult and calls for more judgement, than in the lower, where it is largely routine. As soon as the number of subordinates exceeds the desirable maximum, it is time to appoint another assistant manager or supervisor and to divide the work again.

The process of management is not, however, solely one of giving orders. Senior staff, technicians and those with independent responsibilities will probably have been consulted before the plan of work was drawn up. It should certainly be explained to them fully as soon as it is adopted, and they should be consulted again as to how it can best be carried out. Subordinate staff should have explained to them the part of the plan on which they themselves will be working, and how it serves the general aim of the society. They may also be given an opportunity to make suggestions on matters within their own competence.

One effective way of supplementing verbal explanation is to prepare an organisational chart illustrating where each position fits in the structure, the person to whom the holder of the position reports, and what authority each position exercises over which other(s). What should also be clearly illustrated by the chart is the flow of communication, both upwards and downwards, to indicate that the president should not give orders to a department manager or clerk and that, by the same logic, the clerk or department manager should not bypass an immediate superior and report directly to the general manager. In many co-operatives such an organisational chart is posted in a place where everyone on the staff can see it (see Appendix 2).

On appointment, each member of the staff should be told exactly what duties he or she is expected to perform. These duties should be set forth in a written job description, with one copy given to the employee for consultation when there is any doubt about those duties, and another to the person to whom he or she must report. Such a job description sets forth the main duties but leaves room for additional verbal instruction in order to allow considerable flexibility in the use of the workforce.

Line and staff appointments

In most organisations there are certain members of the staff who do not fit into the pyramid-like scheme described above. There may, for example, be a personnel manager who has certain responsibilities for the staff of all departments, a sales manager who controls the selling policy of a number of branches, a statistician attached to the general manager's office, or an agricultural adviser for the benefit of members. These appointments are not as a rule part of the departmental or "line" organisation. They are "staff" appointments, and those who hold them are as a rule directly responsible to the general manager. Staff appointments are sometimes called "functional" positions.

It is obvious that a certain amount of confusion and perhaps dispute can arise between one department and another, or between people in staff and line positions, as to the exact limits of their authority. The increasing interaction between primary and secondary co-operatives adds another level of possible confusion. It is often advantageous to integrate sales, marketing and production. In such cases persons at the secondary level must be made responsible for programmes and strategies throughout the system of primaries and the secondary to which they are linked. The authority such persons have, however, is limited to the function they perform and must be earned, firstly, by getting the programmes accepted by the managers of the primaries and, secondly, by demonstrating in practice that they are effective. In such situations the challenge for a professional manager at any level is to make the programme of large-scale interaction productive for his or her society. Organisational charts, job descriptions and staff meetings are helpful in avoiding unnecessary and harmful friction.

Giving orders

However much or little is committed to paper, it is essential that all instructions on any subject should be clear and unequivocal. Instructions may be vague because the manager has not made a clear decision or wants to avoid responsibility. They may also be difficult to understand simply because, although his or her own mind is clear, the manager does not have the art of communicating clear ideas to others. The art of communication, whether in speech or in writing, is an essential part of the art of management. Those receiving-

instructions should be told not only what they are to do but why and how they are to do it, if they do not already know. If they understand what purpose their actions are to serve, they will not only take more interest in the job but will be more likely to respond intelligently if confronted by some unforeseen eventuality or obstacle.

Initiative in subordinates should be encouraged, but employees can only take intelligent initiatives if they know rather more about the job in hand than they would get from carrying out a single unexplained order. It may, of course, be useful to consult the employees concerned before giving an instruction, since they may well be better informed on points of detail than their chief, and their opinion may be valuable. But the final instruction should be definite. An instruction which allows too many alternatives may mean that no one has honestly accepted responsibility for the results. If subordinates realise this, they may take a bold (and perhaps mistaken) initiative or may, more likely, do as little as possible for fear of incurring blame.

Although the chain of command should always be quite clear, it should not result in the setting up of a number of private empires — the accountant's, the sales manager's, the technical adviser's — each going their separate way; nor of the still smaller empires of those who know how to do one job but are not going to share that knowledge with anyone who might, in any circumstances, take their place.

Coordination and team work are nearly as important as clear direction. Team work in the small unit means that people help one another, and that if one of the team drops out, temporarily or permanently, there are others who know enough about the job to do it in their absence. Coordination between departments is needed to draw up and carry through any plan of work. This applies especially to timing. A department which cannot keep up with the work assigned to it may throw the whole plan out of gear, if its difficulties — lack of staff, outdated equipment, an incompetent chief — are not recognised at an early stage and resolved. Good relations between departments are essential to the daily work of any organisation. Many operations pass through several departments which depend on one another, and one department can greatly facilitate another's work by goodwill and an understanding of what the other is trying to do.

Direction and coordination of effort is necessary in any kind of enterprise, but co-operatives have special features not always found in private business... some of these have to do with personnel management and membership relations and will be discussed in Chapters 4 and 17, but others arise from the often federal character of co-operative organisation and the existence of a good deal of local autonomy. Even the manager of a branch consumers' store or collecting point for agricultural produce may have to be given a good deal of independent authority and allowed to work without much supervision. In a federation, made up of independent co-operatives, with their own members, boards and financial resources, the degree of independence is greater still.

Direction and coordination can be handled in many ways, some of which have already been mentioned. Regular meetings on topics of interest and concern to those who participate are effective, but particularly so when an order is to be understood and carried out uniformly in all departments, branches and associated societies. For this and other reasons, meetings are useful regardless of the size of the co-operative. Their importance extends beyond the limits of the local society because of the federal character of the co-operative movement in modern times and the high level of understanding and co-operation required in coordinating its activities. It may be important to secure some recognised standard of management, some uniform way of handling business throughout the federation, and some loyalty from

its members. Further methods for dealing with this situation will be discussed in Chapters 17 and 19.

Controlling operations

Something has been said of the need to establish a plan, create a suitable organisation for carrying it out, and instruct the appropriate individuals to go ahead with its implementation. It is necessary next to see whether instructions are in fact being carried out, and with what success. For this purpose manual workers and junior personnel will be under the direct and immediate supervision of someone in authority. Senior employees will be more likely to report at regular intervals, either verbally or in writing, on the progress of the work entrusted to them.

This does not mean, however, that the function of management stops at ensuring merely that instructions, once given, are properly carried out. It is possible that the original instructions were misconceived, that they called for more than could be done within the time allotted, or assumed information which was not in fact available. There may have been failures in coordination and timing involving other employees or other departments. Something may have happened, for which no one in the co-operative was responsible, to upset some essential part of the plan — a building wrecked by a storm, a change in the bank rate, a late harvest, the closing of a foreign market, the bankruptcy of a firm of contractors. All of these situations place heavy demands on the flexibility and resourcefulness of management, as reflected in its ability to alter existing plans or adjust them to changed circumstances. On the other hand, something may go wrong for which a senior or junior member of the staff may have been personally responsible, through negligence of self-interest. In that case it will be the responsibility of the manager to take disciplinary action.

The manager of a co-operative or of one of its departments must be in a position to measure, at frequent intervals, the actual performance of the organisation against the performance expected under the plan of operations. The intervals may be hourly, daily, monthly, quarterly or yearly, the comparison is usually in the form of figures and key indicators — the number of new members brought in, the level of deposits, the weight of cotton ginned, the gross margin percentage achieved, the work-hour production attained, or the units per square metre produced. If a number of these figures are shown together on a chart or on a report, they can be checked against the original plan. The manager has only to glance at the chart to see that in November new members were coming in well, but were not bringing in much share capital, that the new oven had doubled the bakery output, but the sales in No. 3 branch were still falling off. With such information the necessary remedial action can be taken. For example, it may be timely to change the manager of No. 3 branch and open a new branch in the district where most of the new members live. At the same time, the manager may recommend that the board should raise the rate of interest on share capital or run a campaign for savings deposits.

It may appear from all this that the staff of a co-operative is exclusively engaged in buying, selling, manufacturing or banking on behalf of its members. A co-operative, however, like any other business, calls for a good deal of work which does not produce direct revenue, but simply aims to keep the organisation itself in running order. Buildings must be maintained, offices painted, vehicles overhauled, wages, insurance premiums, rates and taxes paid, legal obligations fulfilled. All this may occupy quite a number of people under responsible direction whose activities must still be checked and controlled by the general manager.

The board has a role in the control of operations in that, as mentioned under "Reviewing results" in the previous chapter, it sets the policy which says how frequently and in what form it shall receive reports from the manager. Further, control of operations on the basis of figures depends on how current they are. For example, a three-month-old statement of operations is not of much use to either the board or the manager. Too much will have happened since the figures were achieved. A yearly report on outstanding account does not help much to control loss through bad debts. Stock-taking results which appear two months after the stock-take may have been manipulated and have no bearing on what is happening at the time they are received.

External relations

Finally, it must not be forgotten that management is concerned with a number of institutions and people over whom the manager has no direct control and to whom he or she cannot give orders. These include:

- the members of the co-operative;
- trade unions;
- local and national government departments;
- public transport authorities;
- banks;
- marketing boards;
- private firms from whom the co-operative purchases or to whom it sells;
- building and other contractors; and
- the general public.

Good management of the co-operative's relations with all these may well contribute almost as much to its success as good internal management of its own staff and resources. This aspect of management calls for a considerable knowledge of laws and regulations, of the business and banking world outside the co-operative movement and also of human nature. It calls for the power to judge other people's attitudes and ways of thinking, and to foresee the outcome of proposals which are intended to serve the interests of more than one party. It is, in fact, management by negotiation rather than by direction. The larger a co-operative movement grows and the more important the place it comes to occupy in the national economy, the more important this kind of co-operative diplomacy becomes and the more valuable the co-operative officials who can practise it with success.

Qualifications of a manager

Having examined the functions a general manager must fulfil, it is possible to identify more precisely what qualifications are needed to carry them out. In very general terms, a good manager must have the necessary knowledge of the business or must be particularly good at understanding and using the expert knowledge of technicians or staff. However,

management as a profession comprises techniques that can and should be employed regardless of the kind of business a co-operative engages in. Ignorance of such matters as the appropriate current ratios in a balance sheet, how to calculate gross margins and achieve their control, or the standards by which to assess administrative costs in relation to other items in the budget, will seriously limit a manager's capacity to make any operation a success. Someone who is very good at operating a rice mill may not necessarily make a successful general manager for a co-operative that has 15 mills in different locations and offers other services besides. The manager must have the power to plan the work of the whole organisation realistically and yet in a sufficiently imaginative way to keep it steadily developing and expanding. The ability to choose good subordinates, get them to work as a team, and still retain authority over them is important. He or she must be able to discipline staff when necessary, must be able to work with a board of directors without becoming either domineering or unduly subservient, must understand co-operative methods, and must be able to maintain good relations with members and with the public. Obviously, some managers will be stronger in one field than another. Perfection cannot be expected, but some measure of aptitude in all fields will be necessary if the manager is to make a success of the job.

What has been said so far describes the ideal. What is becoming more and more apparent, however, through ILO surveys and other studies, is that managers of co-operatives in the real world are all too often poorly equipped to fulfil the role they have been given to perform. Good managers are in short supply everywhere. The present situation, especially in developing countries, is that frequently they are not well trained, not well motivated, not well paid and generally not well informed about the objectives and principles of the movement they are hired to foster.

How can this situation be corrected? High-level policy-makers of the movement have for some time stressed the need for making co-operative management more professional. Progress is being made in setting guide-lines for the selection of candidates, in discovering the kind of training that works best to create professional managers, and in defining what manpower policies might be established by apex organisations and co-operative federations to meet an escalating need. The topic of education and training relates to every other chapter in this book and has grown so much in importance that it now requires a chapter of its own. There its place in the process of the professionalisation of managers will be discussed.

Suggestions for further reading

MATCOM. All of MATCOM's selfstudy "learning elements" have relevance for the manager of a co-operative. Geneva, ILO, various years.

Terry George R. : Franklin, S.G. *Principles of management*. Homewood, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, 1982.

Appendix 1

THE COOPERATIVE: A DIFFERENT KIND OF BUSINESS

Investor-owned enterprise

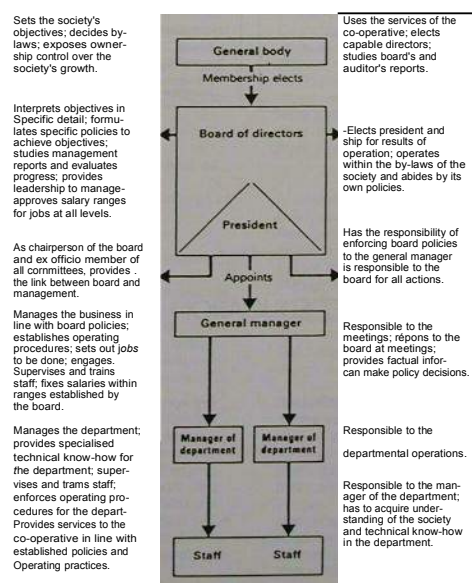
- The business is basically a grouping of capital.
- The business is organised by investors.
- The business, operated by entrepreneurs, is there to attract and serve customers.
- » The business is controlled by shares, usually by a majority of shares held.
- The business permits control by proxy voting.
- The business distributes its profits according to decisions by its board of directors.
- Money invested in a business is used in several ways:
 - to earn interest;
 - to gain profits;
 - for some investors to gain control.
- The business is constantly guarding against foreign capital takeover and ownership.

User-owned co-operative

- The co-operative is a formation of people.
- The co-operative is organised by users.
- The co-operative, operated by members, is there to serve the members themselves.
- The co-operative is controlled by a majority of members.
- The co-operative rarely permits proxy voting.
- The co-operative distributes its surplus to its member users, usually on recommendations made **by its** board of directors.
- The co-operative makes use of member investment capital only to earn interest.
- The co-operative need not fear foreign takeover **since** its system guarantees national ownership.

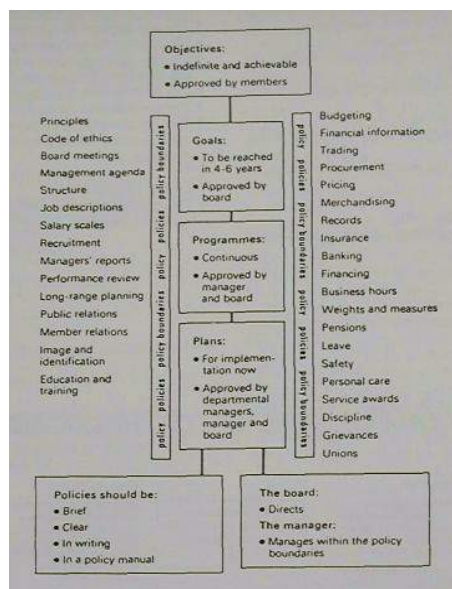
Appendix 2

POLICY SAMPLE: STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANISATION



Appendix 3

PLANNING AND CONTROLLING



Appendix 4

POLICY SAMPLE/ EDUCATION AND TRAINING

- The co-operative shall, within the resources available to it, give members, directors, managers and staff an opportunity to learn and develop the skills necessary to fulfil tasks as specified in their job description.
- Annually, funds for the purpose of educating and training shall be allotted in the budget, the amount will not exceed (x) per cent of the projected net profit.
- The general manager will prepare plans and programmes for the approval of the board, these will be presented along with the regular budget proposals. In making the plans the manager will work in close collaboration with the co-operative consultant and the co-operative training institution in the region. He or she will be responsible for administering the finances and programmes.
- The board of directors will be active in carrying out those programmes related to the members. All managers will train those personnel reporting to them in as much as they are able to.
- The manager, in the written monthly report to the board, will indicate the progress made in the education and training programmes in relations to the approved plans.

Appendix S

POLICY SAMPLE: IDENTIFICATION OF DECISION AREAS FOR THE BOARD AND THE MANAGER

Board responsibility

- Reports to the membership to which it is accountable.
- Concerns itself with "idea" decisions.
- Determines overall objectives ("the what").
- Establishes policies.
- Coordinates policies.
- Approves goals.
- Decides about long-range plans, committing resources, facilities, finances and manpower.
- Plans for executive succession.
- Decides about job responsibility, training and performance of directors.

Manager responsibility

- Reports to the board to which he or she is accountable.
- Makes action decisions to carry out ideas.
- Decides on carrying out objectives ("the how and when" of the achievement of objectives).
- Carries out policies under authority granted by the board.

- Coordinates personnel to execute policies.
- Proposes goals in terms of specific quantity and time for achievement.
- Decides on intermediate and short-term commitment of resources and the organisation and control of these resources.
- Plans for depth of management and managerial succession in departments.
- Decides about job responsibilities, training and performance of employed personnel.
- Sets up standards of performance for the manager.
- Decides on system of controls to evaluate effectively key performance areas in the co-operatives.
- Lets the manager grow : gives the manager time to manage.
- Sets up standards of performance for personnel through executives.
- Operates under system of controls to furnish board with facts for effective evaluation.
- Lets people under him or her grow; delegates responsibility and takes time to manage.

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ILO/MATCOM training materials

For agricultural co-operatives

- For curriculum development:
- Curriculum guide for agricultural co-operative management training

- Trainer's manual (with outlines of complete programmes for management training):
- Collecting and receiving agricultural produce*
 - Transport management*
 - Storage management*
 - Marketing of agricultural produce*
 - Supply management*
 - Rural savings and credit schemes*
 - Staff management*
 - Work planning*

- Financial management*
- Cost accounting and control*
- Risk management*
- Project preparation and appraisal*
- Export marketing*
- Management of larger agricultural co-operatives*
- "Learning elements" (Selfstudy booklets for committee members, managers and staff):
- Basic economics of an agricultural co-operative*
- The budget*
- Supply services*

For consumer co-operatives

- "Learning elements" (Selfstudy booklets for committee members, management and staff):
- Basic economics of a consumer co-operative*
 - Planning and controlling the business*
 - Cash and stock management*
 - Pricing*
 - Buildings and equipment for small shops*
 - Basic rules for the display of goods*
 - The display of goods in self-service shops*
 - Easy lettering for signs and posters*

The stock range
 Ordering goods
 Receipt of goods
 Shop hygiene
 Food spoilage and preservation
 Weighing and prepacking
 Price-marking
 Salesmanship
 Shoplifting
 Handling of cash
 Cash control without a cash register
 Cash control using a cash register
 Leakage
 Stock control records
 Stock-taking
 Work organisation and staff management
 Trainer's notes (Notes for the instructor on the use of the above elements):

For handicraft co-operatives

A handicraft co-operative : Formation
 A handicraft co-operative : Management
 Trainer's notes

Other publications

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¹ The interests of Berlin (West) are represented in the International Labour Organisation by the Federal Republic of Germany,



Management of Voluntary Agencies: Some Issues

by Dr. Rajesh Tandon*

The Society for Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA) held two workshops on Management of Voluntary Agencies the first one during December 14-17, 1985 at Gopalpur in Orissa ; and the second one during May 23-25, 1986 at New Delhi. These workshops were conceived of as somewhat experimental, an assumption that the growth of voluntary, nongovernmental organisations — witnessed during the last decade or so — in a variety of centres and fields of activity all over the country, may have given rise to several organisational and management issues to which the leadership in these organisations may wish to collectively address itself. The response to, and the deliberations during, these workshops substantially supported this assumption.

It is apparent that these organisations have begun to evolve distinctive identities of their own, and are coming to be recognised as an important sector of Indian society - in some ways a new force to be reckoned with. There is greater awareness that their contribution in developing new thinking and processes of development in the country has, indeed, been both unique as well as creative.

At the same time, the task of managing these non-governmental, non-commercial organisations has become an increasingly complex one in recent years. A plethora of literature exists on principles and practices for managing governmental, commercial and industrial organisations. Very little such literature is available to provide systematic guidance to those who have the challenging task of planning, organising and managing this new breed of organisations - voluntary and non-governmental. Codification of the Indian experience is even lesser. Individuals and small groups, whose vision and perseverance helped conceptualise, organise, and create this sector of voluntary, non-governmental organisations, worked under several other compulsions such that they were able to devote little time and thought to the problems of consolidation and growth of these organisations, and developing models appropriate to their unique culture and needs. Yet, their contribution has been phenomenal. Many started out as individuals, or small informal teams of six-seven persons, and in five to ten years, have grown to one-hundred or more persons strong. For voluntary, non-governmental organisations this achievement is credit-worthy by any standard. Their original arena of work was limited to a few villages or slums, and has since grown in geographical terms as well as in the range of programmes and activities; from an initial budget of a few thousands per

annum, many of them now have an annual budget of several lakhs of rupees.

Spontaneity has its limits, and organisations that have reached these limits are experiencing problems that bring them face-to-face with some issues of organisational structuring, stability and growth — this has been one of the learning of the two workshops organised by PRIA. Confronting these issues appears distasteful in the first instance as such things as structure, systems and procedures raise visions of 'bureaucracy' which seems at total variance with the basic approaches and ideals of the voluntary sector. It is, therefore, understandable that some of those interested, for example, in development of tribals in remote areas may consider spending time and resources on creation of extensive systems and procedures as wasteful; similarly, someone committed to non-formal education of the poor, oppressed and marginalized sections of population may hold development of rational policies for recruitment or appraisal as low priority.

However, seen from somewhat larger perspective, these issues may assume a different kind of importance. There are instances where informal and unsystematic recruitment has led to induction of people who have caused severe conflicts in the organisation, leading to substantial sub-optimisation of the organisational resources and energy such that the central tasks of the organisation suffered over long periods. Similarly, the concept of self-discipline, not properly-monitored through efficient appraisal methods, can lead to a kind of *laissez faire* climate where members of the organisation do not make contributions commensurate with their abilities, leading to weakening of commitment and motivation, and yet demand that they be treated as equals in the purposes of influences, rights and privileges that the agency believes it has to offer its members. In the absence of models which are consistent with the voluntary and participatory culture, some organisations experiencing such needs to standardise may find no option but to adopt procedures and systems prevalent in governmental or commercial organisations. In other cases, organisational growth or vitality may be stunted.

For these reasons, voluntary organisations need to look at some organisational issues to initiate the next phase of their development and growth. It is the need for utilising maximum organisation energy to the priority tasks of high social relevance that routinisation of low priority day-to-day maintenance functions serves. Structures, systems, procedures aid in such routinisation of activities so that a minimum time, cost, energy are utilised in these functions which are essential for smooth running of the organisation also tend to reduce disfunctional conflict. It is in this context that many

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feel the need to look at the organisational issues in a deliberate manner such that the structures, systems and procedures that evolve are not only consistent with, but also tend to heighten, the values of voluntarism and participation, and set them on firm footing, rather than undermine these.

Running voluntary organisations on a more sound and professional footing may, indeed, become crucial for the years to come because the ability of this sector to grow and continue to contribute to a variety of developmental tasks in the country will also critically depend on how effectively the organisational resources are optimised, managed and applied in aid of the organisational goals. Some of the issues that face voluntary organisations in respect of their management are briefly described here.

Organisational Purpose and Mission

All voluntary organisations, non-governmental organisations, Social Action groups. People's Movements have a definite mission for which the organisation is created. This mission is a broad statement of concerns in social terms and provides the social relevance for the existence of these organisations. For example, an organisation working for the improvement of health status of poor tribal families reflects the mission of serving the people through health. Broadly speaking, most such organisations would like to define their missions in terms of social transformation and social change. Of course, the precise meaning of transformation varies across organisations. The important point is that this socially defined mission provides the basis for defining organisational purposes and goals. Pursuit of those goals is intended to lead to accomplishment of that mission. So an organisation involved in social forestry programmes tries to accomplish effective forestry programmes and thereby contributes to the overall mission of improving the economic status of tribals.

Within this overall mission and broadly defined organisational purposes, the central task of the organisation varies. The specific activities undertaken by the organisation define its primary task. It is the performance of this primary task, like social forestry, bio-gas, women's economic programmes, adult education, health care, etc. which becomes the ongoing activity of the organisation. It is in the context of the overall mission that the primary task has to be performed. So the question of management of the organisation is how consistent are the procedures, and systems designed to perform the primary tasks within the overall mission for which the organisation exists. The commercial organisations involved in forestry programmes would create systems and procedures which are very different than the voluntary organisations engaged in forestry programmes.

Management Philosophy

Given a socially relevant and defined mission of such organisations, it is important to understand what kind of management philosophy these organisations themselves pursue. For example, many of these organisations have a statement of mission or philosophy of the nature of work they do ; but they have very little articulation of the philosophy by which they manage their own organisations. In those organisations which have been functioning for several years, there emerges definitely a distinctive management philosophy which guides daily practice and becomes the basis for day-to-day management practice inside the organisation. All organisations evolve and utilise a distinctive philosophy of management. These are a set of principles and beliefs which guide day-to-day decision-making in running the affairs of the

organisation. This influences things like how people will be recruited, how tasks will be assigned, how salaries will be given etc. etc. It appears that clear articulation of management philosophy will be an important step in ensuring that members of the organisation, as well as those outside it, are able to comprehend the philosophy by which the organisation is managed. This will certainly assist in orienting new entrants to the organisation, who may not have been involved in the early stages of the development and formulation of such management philosophy.

Organisational Values and Culture

All organisations develop certain distinctive values and culture of their own. This is partially determined by the values and culture of the members, and partly by the philosophy of the management of the organisations. The important issue is to what extent the socially relevant missions of the organisation have been utilised in developing a management philosophy so that the values and culture prevalent and cherished inside the organisation are those that are cherished by the individual members of the organisation themselves. This is particularly relevant in case of voluntary organisations because many members join such organisations on the basis of certain beliefs and values and normative orientations. For example, many people were committed to the cause of the poor, to the building of an alternative society, to bringing about just and equitable social order, initiate and join in voluntary, non-governmental organisations and peoples' movements. Therefore, these values of equity, social justice, participation, democracy etc. which they individually cherish, provide the basis for their involvement in such organisations. Somehow, these values need to be reflected in the philosophy of the management of the organisation and become part of the culture of the organisation; otherwise these members may feel alienated and find that their cherished values are not fulfilled in this organisation.

At the same time, many new members are not necessarily only inspired by these values; for many of them, working in a voluntary, non-governmental organisation is also like a job which provides the basis for their survival and living. Many new entrants begin their involvement on the basis of an initial assignment, a task, a job, but develop a sense of commitment over a period of time partly through their involvement and struggle. Hence, the same values which inspire one set of members who joined these organisations as a consequence of their commitment, may tend to come in conflict with the values of other new entrants. The point is that the issue of organisational values and culture is a very complex one. And deliberate, conscious effort needs to be made in building, and elaborating these values and culture. Whether it is a matter of values or a matter of practice, or a matter of dress, or a matter of life style, all these become relevant in the context of such organisations. The issue of austerity in life style, for example, is a major issue in such voluntary and non-governmental organisations. More than real austerity the issue has been placed as visible, public austerity ; if the voluntary organisation presents an image of public austerity, it may become acceptable.

Organisational Environment

All organisations live in a complex environment. Environment is what is outside the organisation, but affects it. Some parts of the environment may be friendly, some may be neutral, and some may be hostile to the organisation. Other similar voluntary organisations constitute a part of the environment ; resource providers, donor agencies are also a part of

the environment ; governments regulatory agencies are also part of the environment. And of course, the people with whom the organisation works also provide one constituency of the environment. Many voluntary organisations face highly diversified, differentiated and complex set of environments. The kinds of relationships that need to be built with its constituency of poor tribals, for example, may be very different from the kind of relationship that needs to be built with the Home Ministry relating foreign contributions. In managing such organisations, it seems that understanding the complexity of environments and the diversity of their various parts is crucial; and deliberate effort has to be made to evolve a posture and relationship of the organisation with those different sections. Unless an organisation is able to manage its environment effectively and actively, it will always remain dependent on forces from outside. The relationships and postures created and sustained with different segments of the environment also need to be consistent with the overall organisational philosophy and values. A commercial organisation will build relationships with regulatory agencies in one way ; voluntary organisations may not be able to afford, both financially and ethically, to build the relationship in the same way. What are the alternatives : In managing such organisations, managing the environment is perhaps one of the most crucial tasks which so far seems to have been left to tones of nature.

A related issue is the extent to which the nature of organisation's relationships with its different environments should determine the basis for its internal function. For example, an organisation may believe in linking up with its constituents, the people it works with, on the basis of equality, participation, mutual respect, etc. It may relate to regulatory agencies in the environment on a different basis. It may relate to different donor agencies on another basis. Should these different bases relating to different segments of the environment form the basis by which internal affairs of the organisation are managed : or should the internal affairs of the organisation be managed on the basis of requirements of the tasks : This has become a crucial issue because principles of mission are being increasingly quoted as the necessary basis for managing the internal affairs of the organisation. The most common statements to this effects are — *"if we believe inequality of all, then equality of all should be practiced inside the organisation"* *"if we believe in working towards enhanced participation and collective strength for the poor and the oppressed, then the same principles should be reflected in the internal practices of the organisation"*. To what extent it is feasible or even desirable to bring the principles underlying the mission and the relationships with different segments of the environment as the only basis to define the internal functioning of the organisation.

Whatever is our position, it is important that it is clarified and articulated in such a manner; otherwise the nature of the organisation's relationships with different segments of the environment can be used as a way to influence the manner of its functioning inside.

Organisational Structure

Most voluntary organisations start small. Small organisations often function without much internal structuring. Day-to-day decisions are made on the basis of informal relationships ; roles get defined on the basis of mutual consultation and responsibilities are collectively shared in a small group of 3 to 8 persons who are similarly committed towards the overall mission of the organisation. The management of the organisation takes the form of kitchen-table. We just all sit together and decide whenever we need to decide.

Experiences suggest that most organisations, particularly voluntary and non-governmental organisations, tend to

develop a structure, formal or informal, over a period of time ; internal hierarchy or status, influence and authority begin to evolve even though it may not be formalised or articulated as such. Certain functions get assigned to certain individuals which tend to determine their roles. Some individuals begin to exercise certain powers, giving rise to differential status ; for legal or other compulsions, some formal forums get created like registered society or trust or governing body, the chair persons, the secretary, the treasurers, etc. The issue is to consider what do we mean by a small organisation : When does an organisation cease to be small? What then are the implications for its structure?

There appears to be considerable confusion in respect of several issues, like hierarchy (which is always considered bad), structure (which is always seen as bureaucratic) and assigning roles and responsibilities (which is considered as stunting the growth of individuals). Is hierarchy inevitable? Is all hierarchy necessarily bad ? Is structure inevitably bureaucratic? What is the meaning of bureaucratic? Are we referring to redtape, delay, disconcert, or are we referring to form of organisation which is based on certain norms? Do all organisations need to, for a given period of time, specify certain well-defined responsibilities and roles? Or will we work together all the time? Should it work all the time? Should doing it all together all the time be necessary? Is it not a waste of resources, that all the members of the organisation sit together to decide what should be eat for lunch, for example?

The problem of structure is also confused with the issue of leadership. All organisations, whether they are voluntary, non-governmental organisation or of any other type, need and require leadership to be exercised. Leadership does not mean an individual playing that role for all times and purposes. Leadership is a process which provides a certain thrust, direction, coordination, movement, push, initiative, vision to the organisation. Perhaps different aspects of leadership at different points of time, for different tasks, can be shared. Many a times, the exercise of leadership is confused with assertion of authority by a single leader; in the process voluntary organisations tend to deny the relevance of leadership, almost ignore it, and thereby sacrifice the effectiveness and the capability of the organisation.

Another related issue is the issue of influence and power. Having seen, mostly from the distance, how power is exercised in commercial and bureaucratic organisations, many members of the voluntary organisations seem to think that all power is bad, it is corrupt and corruptable. As someone said, *'power corrupts, powerlessness corrupts absolutely'*. All movements, all directions, all thrusts, all actions and organisations are based on exercise of some power and influence. It can be legitimate, or illegitimate; it can be formalised, or can be informal ; the issue is how do we understand power: How do we understand it in an organisation whose missions are socially defined and relevant? Whether we like it or not, power needs to be exercised. The questions are, how and in what form, by whom and how effectively? A related issue is how different members in the organisation acquire power and influence. Should influence become a right? Does everybody have the right to be influential ? Does it depend on competence? Does it depend on vision? Does it depend on capacity? Does it depend on actual contribution that members make to the organisation ? For example, full time, long standing members of the organisation, may be structurally defined to have more power, than temporary volunteers or visitors who have not made sufficient contributions to the growth of the organisation. This is a crucial issue. Otherwise we tend to confuse and equate influence with the right.

Similarly, the question of participation. Is participation a right? Should everybody participate in all types of decisions ?

Who should participate in what kinds of decisions? A lot of confusion, delay, wastage, frustration, anger is being reflected in a lot of voluntary organisations on this issue. It is generally assumed that everybody can participate, that everybody wants to participate and that everybody must participate in all types of decision-making. In running an organisation effectively, participation can be used for motivation, as a reward for contribution made. Everybody does not automatically get the right to participate; participation has to be linked to competence, capability, vision, contribution, commitment to the organisation and its missions. Again temporary members, part-time staff, new entrants may not have the same right to participate and influence, as those who are founders, those who have created the organisation, have contributed their blood and sweat right from its infancy and concretely demonstrated their commitment to the missions of the organisation.

Growth and Development

Growth is a natural desire, and phenomenon, for most organisations — the better among these grow in size and geographical spectrum of work over a period of time. Where the growth is not planned, it brings several pressures, stresses and challenges which need to be effectively managed. On the other hand, the ways and means of the NGO suited to small sizes and magnitudes begin to appear inadequate to deal with these pressures, stresses and challenges. The problems that the growth brings in are predominately organisational; they seem to have no connection with the purpose for which the NGO was set up. These problems, therefore, seem totally meaningless and peripheral to those responsible for managing these — their motivation to confront these problems is low; and their predisposition is to deny or disown or underplay these problems. When unattended, these problems tend to grow; and many a good organisation have become crippled on account of such orphaned organisational problems. Growth and development of the NGOs and their attending structures, systems and procedures must receive due consideration from those responsible for their health and viability. Constant organisational review in terms of their strengths and weaknesses, environmental forecasts in terms of the opportunities and threats that the environment can provide, and their relationship with organisational strategies, their success and problems may merit some attention.

People's Issues and Related Laws, Policies, Practices

NGOs hold people as paramount. Their existence, missions and purposes are implicitly and explicitly in aid of people, who constitute their client system. This raises certain hopes and expectations among the people internally, those who constitute the membership and major resources of the NGOs to achieve their purpose. These hopes and expectations are also influenced by the kind of hopes and expectations of people at large, and from other kinds of organisations where they work for satisfaction of their body and soul requirements. In addition, there are some obligation in this direction that the laws of the land place on the NGOs, and its members, at least some of them, expect the NGOs to meet these obligations.

A large number of these expectations are competitive, arising out of their need to be treated fairly and equitably. In far-sized organisations, meeting such expectations may mean developing systems for evaluation of the contribution of members and also systems for rewarding them equitably.

NGOs have developed certain values, and culture, which are unique. These are not easy to come across in other kinds of organisations. Inducting new people into NGOs so that they do not become the proverbial 'bulls in the China Shop' can become quite a tricky business. Systematic servicing of people may help avoid some future conflicts and problems.

Whether they find it acceptable or not, NGOs live in a context which defines their relationship with their members; where the members decide to involve constituents of this context for resolving their conflicts with the NGO, it may not be possible to ignore such context and its constituents. NGOs may wish to safeguard their position against such contingencies. It may, therefore, be desirable to understand this context in the nature of laws, rules and practices etc.

An important point is that the management of such voluntary, non-governmental organisations must confront these issues and these must be articulated and clarified for each organisation, perhaps uniquely, but also on the basis of certain criteria by which an organisation would like to assess itself.

Another interesting and related issue is: should all members of the organisation be treated equally? Or should they be treated differently? Is it necessary and desirable to treat everybody equally? Should high performing, highly committed, highly contributing members be put on the same pedestal as those who show no interest or join the organisation only for a job or are here to stay for a short term? Is it fair to treat everybody equally? Should treatment be based on the individual members by the organisation be based on their commitment, competence, growth, contribution? Or should it be blindly applied equally to all?

The issue of salary and compensation is another such issue. Many voluntary organisations started out by having a small team of committed people who started developing the organisation and working in it for a certain cause. They initially received a small honorarium which somehow sustained the organisation and its members. It is only when the organisation begins to carry out a variety of primary tasks, and as individuals grow and increase in their individual responsibilities in society, that the issue of salary becomes crucial. What should be the rate at which different members of the organisation be paid? Should the salary structure be the same as that obtained in government, in the industry, or equivalent to that obtained in universities? Does the salary reflect only compensation? Or does it have to be linked to the capacity to survive in the present? Individuals as they grow begin to face the issues of greater responsibility; as they get married and have children, their responsibility towards other members of the family and society increases. Should the salary then meet those needs? Individuals then face the tension? Should they continue to work for their cause and sacrifice some of their other responsibilities to family and society? Or should they switch over? A lot of young people after spending 5 to 10 years initially in such voluntary, non-governmental organisations move over to government and other structures which compensate them slightly better for these reasons.

Then there is the question of the need to acquire specialists and experts in management, engineering, irrigation, agriculture, veterinary etc. If those graduates and professionals get paid two to four thousands rupees a month as soon as they pass out in government and other sectors, will they work for Rs.800/- a month in the voluntary organisation, however important the mission and cause may be? This is one reason why voluntary, non-governmental organisations are unable to attract young professionals — men and women — because their internal salary structures are unrealistically poor and low. Such professionals may not expect the same salaries as they would get in cooperate sectors. But at least

something which is comparable and ensures survival. If that happens, then the issue is how does the salary of the professional compares with the salaries of the existing staff.

If most local animators and field staff get Rs.500/- to 800/- rupees a month what will it do if a professional is hired at 2000/- rupees a month? In many cases, the heads of the organisations themselves receive 1000/- to 1500/- rupees a month. Is it fair to bring the professionals inside the organisation getting a salary more than the chief executive? Will it not create confusions about status and authority? Will other local staff of the organisation feel cheated if the professionals are brought in at higher salaries? Would they not expect greater compensation?

Should the salary be according to certain norms prevalent in the society? Are existing legislations, like provident funds act, minimum wages act, maternity benefit act, applicable? Should they be applicable to voluntary, non-governmental organisations? Should we demand a separate status? Should we not submit ourselves to the existing norms prevalent in the society? What should be the form of determining salary? What should be the basis? And what should be the mechanism for administration of salaries? What should be the component of salaries?

Many voluntary organisations get around these questions by calling it honorarium or stipend but that does not remove the issue. Many of these issues relate to organisational

structure, the issue of salary, the issue of leadership, the issue of power, the issue of performance evaluation have become so sticky and conflictual that most voluntary, non-governmental organisations have decided to ignore them. These issues get raised and discussed but nothing concretely gets done about them, to create systems and procedures which can deal with these issues on an ongoing basis. One may shy away from the issue or ignore the issue, but it does exist. The issue of compensation, fair, just, payable, manageable compensation to members of such organisations.

Most voluntary, non-governmental organisations do not practice what has come to be known as performance evaluation. The individual performance is assumed to be good: individuals are assured to be working hard towards the accomplishment of the goals of the organisation. But not all individuals perform equally; not all individuals are interested in performing equally. Performance evaluation may be necessary for the individual growth and development, for developing a fit between individual and the task, for ensuring that the future potential of individuals is developed, as well as for reward and punishment. Should high performing individuals in the organisation be treated in the same way as poor performing individuals? Should there be a mechanism to periodically and systematically review the performance of individuals? How should this mechanism be created and what should be the elements of this mechanism?



Training in the Management of Development Organizations and their Activities in Africa

Introduction

There exists an increasing recognition of the very important role which non-governmental organizations (NGOs) play in the processes taking place in developing countries. They often have access to local communities and can support them in various flexible ways, which are not available to national governments or international inter-governmental agencies. It is no coincidence that a number of the latter are now trying to evolve ways and means of collaborating with NGOs, with the final aim of helping the (rural) populations to participate more fully in their own development.

However, the functioning of these non-governmental development organizations has its own characteristics, and, as such, its own difficulties. Appropriate management of these local, national and regional development organizations and their programmes and projects is increasingly felt as a problem, the solving of which constitutes a highranking priority of many organizations and institutions, both in the South and in the North, that are active or keep contacts in this field.

Management is understood here in its broadest sense : it covers the whole range of identification, design, planning, execution, monitoring, and evaluation of projects and programmes carried out by development organizations, as well as the policy and running of parts of the organization concerned or of the organization as a whole.

The significance of management can hardly be overestimated, as poor or inappropriate management appears to be a major factor that critically constrains successful development activities : it is precisely because of poor and inappropriate

management that many activities of African development organizations, the same as elsewhere, that were potentially fruitful at the outset, do not come up to the expectations and that others do not work out at all.

It is of urgent necessity that African development organizations and also donors, international organizations and training institutions make a substantial effort to increase management capacities to such a level that it be able to effectually support the human, economical and technical investments in development. Some ideas are elaborated in chapter 2: Views on management training.

As one step in this process, it was felt appropriate by the Africa desk of the Netherlands Organization for International Development Cooperation (NOVIB) to identify already existing facilities that are present in Africa. The issues at stake in this directory are those facilities that aim at the training and upgrading of middle and senior level staff of, particularly, NGO development organizations, on management issues regarding their own organization and its programmes and projects. This inventory deals with non-governmental institutes and organizations, as well as with governmental or inter-governmental institutions and institutes of the private enterprise sector, that, according to African sources, are frequently used for the training and upgrading of managerial staff of development organizations.

This directory is the result of a survey undertaken on behalf of NOVIB by the Department of Education and Teacher Training of Wageningen Agricultural University. After ample consultation with organizations, that pursue goals similar to those of NOVIB, and, particularly, with the Geneva based international NGO-association organizations IRED (Development Innovations and Networks) and ICVA (International Council of Voluntary Agencies), a questionnaire and guidelines on presenting an institute's profile were drafted and dispatched to a number of African institutes and organizations that were thought to be suitable in their dealing with managerial of (NGO) development organizations.

This text is extracted from the introduction to a Preliminary *Directory on Training and Updating Facilities in the Management of Development Organizations and their Programmes and Projects in Africa*. Reproduced with authorization of NOVIB, The Netherlands Organization for International Development Cooperation.

Views on Training in the Management of NGO's

This chapter is a summary of the discussion paper that has been presented to the participants in the Africa-seminar in June 1986, organized by NOVIB. This paper was discussed with the participants, and on the main lines accepted. As a consequence it will be used by Novib for defining its future policies.

The summary deals with some main issues from the discussion on training in management.

It starts to observe that "management" of the programmes and projects of development organizations, as well as the "management" of these organizations themselves, has become a major issue. In many cases poor management is seen as the cause of the fact that potentially fruitful development activities do not come up to the expectations or fail at all. Consequently, more and more, a strong need is felt to increase the management capacities for the staff of development organizations, and for the staff of the organizations' programmes and projects. The paper gives a short description of what is understood by "management" and distinguishes various aspects that are related to management. This is done by way of a framework, that has been compiled from a number of NGO management manuals, developed at African institutes. Just to give an overall view of what we are talking about.

Framework on aspects of management of development organizations

- | | |
|--|--|
| A. NGO management / Institution Building | 1. organization management
2. financial management and accounting
3. personnel management and team building
4. policy development
5. office management
6. communication/public relations management |
| B. Preproject management / design | 1. project identification
2. project selection
3. project appraisal
4. fund raising
5. project formulation
6. project planning
7. project preparation
8. project implementation |
| C. Management of NGO's programmes and projects | a. general
b. on: production and commercialization:
— agriculture (rural development)
— artisans, and small scale enterprises
— others
c. on: social services:
— health care
— nutrition
d. on: education, training and communication
e. on other subjects: |

1. organization management
2. personnel management
3. time management
4. financial management
5. office management
6. materials management
7. production management
8. marketing management
9. communication management

D. Monitoring and evaluation

1. evaluation of NGO (-management)
2. evaluation of NGO's programmes
3. project monitoring
4. project evaluation
5. project reporting

Does Western management concepts suit?

While considering the management of and within African development organizations, very soon the question arises whether Western management concepts, models and styles are really to the purpose. From their starts and during the course of their histories, many development organizations were Western style organizations. Flaws in the organization and failures in the programmes and projects have been attributed to inadequate training and experience in running a Western style organization, and the universal validity of the Western model has hardly been questioned as a possible explanation of the very limited success of many development programmes and projects. But Western organizations and Western management often proved to be irrelevant in the very different African economic, social and cultural context. And nowadays, it is a general accepted notion that management of activities, aiming at "true" development on the one hand has to open ways towards change, progress, economic and technological modernization, but on the other hand, has to be adapted to and based on local historical, cultural, social and economic conditions. For that reason valid management techniques and organization models have to be developed, no longer dominated by Western examples and values, but with local culture and traditional social structures as a point of departure. We may come to the maybe a bit extreme conclusion that the task of developing appropriate local management must be performed by local managers and local management trainers in the local environment. Neither a foreign expert, nor even an African which has been strongly westernized, can take over this job from them.

How to improve management

The next major issue is the question how appropriate management knowledge, skills and attitudes can be acquired and improved in staff members of development organizations. One of the possible ways is to make use of those management institutes that offer training programmes for a variety of management activities. Sending staff members to these institutes caused many disputes, as not only advantages have become clear, but also disadvantages. We have put them together in a schedule:

Management schooling and training in institutes

Disadvantages:

1. general in their coverage; in many cases not particular relevant to (NGO) daily practice
2. lifestyle at variance with (NGO) development organizations
3. entrance requirements do not fit
4. relatively expensive
5. only for individuals, which limits its immediate operational usefulness

Advantages:

1. expert staff on many subjects
2. access to special facilities (specialised libraries etc.)
3. provides with a view on how problems are dealt with elsewhere and an orientation in both the possibilities and dangers of "development"
4. international crosscultural exchange of views, experiences and attitudes by meeting people at similar professional levels who work in other countries or regions of the developing world

Concerning the disadvantages:

- ad 1. particularly, when it concerns formal institutes focused on the formation of civil servants or employees of trade and industry. (As courses specifically geared to the needs of development organizations are fairly rare.)
- ad 2. difference of climate: one has not "consciously chosen for the poor".
- ad 3. especially to educational background and working experience of development organizations' staff.
- ad 4. do not forget travelling costs, subsistence fees, etc.
- ad 5. it remains an individual experience as it is almost impossible to send a complete team.

Concerning advantages:

- ad 1 & 2. specialised staff members and facilities are available.
- ad 3. you find yourself in another environment than your customary one, and you can share your experiences with others who are, more or less, in the same situation as you are.

Whether or not management training in institutes is seen as suitable, a sort of middle way must be found between the training needs of the staff on the one hand, and the availability of means and resources on the other.

Training alternatives

In countries where no courses of a suitable nature are available, or where it is felt that existing provision at institutes is insufficient or not suitable, alternative ways are tried or developed to transfer appropriate management techniques and skills. Also put in a schedule:

Alternative for schooling and training in institutes

1. The creation of (sub)regional management services
2. Short-term on-the-spot-courses
3. Recurrent on-the-spot-training and guiding during longer periods
4. Accessibility of internal courses of larger organizations to others
5. In-service exchange among development organizations
6. Functioning temporarily as a consultant's counterpart
7. Provision of literature
8. (Temporary) employment of new or extra personnel

Concerning creation of (sub)regional offices

The first alternative is the one that nowadays gets great emphasis, especially on the level of collaborating international NGOs. Management services should be set up, and the long-term idea is to ensure that every development organization has access to management services in its own country or region. The services would comprise management consultancy for local organizations as well as training facilities in management for staff members. The services should be supplied by local management specialists, and based upon locally felt needs. They should be developed as a cooperative effort by local development organizations or umbrella organizations and also be controlled by them. This alternative is very much a dream of the future. It has many advantages; all the advantages that go with being local, suitable for a larger number of people, and being relatively cheap. The development of local management trainers is an issue that receives great attention in this alternative.

Concerning the short-term on-the-spot-courses

The second alternative, in fact, is part of the first one. It concerns courses in specialized subject areas, preferably conducted by a local consultant but, if not yet available, by an expatriate or by a representative of a large international organization, and based upon the felt and expressed needs of the staff members involved. This alternative is used frequently.

Concerning the recurrent on-the-spot-training and guiding during longer periods

This alternative varies from the second one by a regular return of the consultant concerned, e.g. during a number of years, in order to conduct training and guiding sessions in topical areas.

Concerning the accessibility of internal course of larger organizations to others

Larger development organizations, in many cases, have their own internal courses, that could be made use of by other organizations. This is already happening to a limit extent.

Concerning in-service exchange among development organizations

This could be done by individuals or groups of staff members of various levels. This alternative also allows crossfertilization among development organizations, which can be of great benefit.

Functioning temporarily as a consultant's counterpart speaks for itself.

Provision of literature is an alternative to be used if no other means are available.

(Temporary) employment of new or extra personnel is a final-alternative to overcome certain urgent managerial problems.

It can be concluded that, in general, in these alternative ways of transferring and developing appropriate management techniques and skills, preference is given to aiming at groups rather than individual persons. They should be based as much as possible on locally perceived needs and result in immediate effects. A high degree of local involvement is very important. Local consultants could play an important part and, especially as a facilitating element, collaboration between development organizations plays a significant role.

Cigales et Aldéa ou la gestion alternative

Les Cigales sont des clubs d'investisseurs qui cherchent à promouvoir la création d'entreprises avec deux soucis constants : contribuer à la décentralisation et éviter les effets démobilisants des subventions. Un réseau alternatif!

par **Thierry Bourdin***

La Fontaine n'avait pas imaginé que la cigale pouvait à la fois chanter, travailler, se montrer économe et anticiper sur les rigueurs d'un long hiver économique et social. Normal à vrai dire, car cette étrange espèce de cigale, en voie de développement, a vu le jour assez longtemps après la disparition du cher homme: c'était en juillet 1983.

Nés sous l'impulsion d'une association appelée Aldéa (Agence de liaison pour le développement de l'épargne alternative), les Cigales sont des clubs d'investisseurs décidés à promouvoir une gestion alternative et locale de l'épargne, d'où leur appellation (1).

Au nombre de cent trente, répartis sur le territoire national, les Cigales réunissent chacun onze personnes en moyenne et contribuent, dans leur quartier, leur ville ou leur département, à la création d'entreprises (cinquante-sept à ce jour) en participant au capital de ces dernières.

On aura noté, au passage, qu'il s'agit d'économie "alternative", ce qui se traduit par une participation à tout type d'activité à l'exception de l'armement et du nucléaire. Cela suppose également l'adhésion de chaque partenaire à quelques principes fondamentaux : fabriquer un produit différent ou socialement utile; pratiquer une épargne différente; créer des entreprises voulues par le local et valorisant les ressources locales ; cogérer le projet, puis l'entreprise qui en est issue; partager les tâches et les responsabilités; enfin, autocontrôler le développement de l'entreprise.

Au commencement, il y a donc l'Aldéa qui, dès novembre 1981, rassemblait quelques personnes autour d'une activité proche de la boutique de gestion et d'une réflexion sur quatre thèmes particuliers:

- la recherche d'un autre mode de rapports humains;
- une autre utilisation du quotidien;
- un rapport différent à la production (qu'elle soit intellectuelle ou matérielle);
- et un autre mode de consommation.

Les effectifs se sont rapidement multipliés, passant à trente puis à trois cents personnes qui allaient et venaient en rapportant aussi des réflexions sur d'autres expériences d'alternatives économiques.

Celles-ci s'appellent Netzwerk en Allemagne, groupes de coopératives de Mondragon au Pays basque espagnol ou d'Herrikoa à Bayonne.

* Journaliste. Article repris de *Informations sociales*. 1/1988, avec l'autorisation de l'éditeur.

Un soutien efficace

Se définissant comme plus proches de l'esprit des associations ouvrières de 1830 que de l'économie telle qu'elle est décrite aujourd'hui, les membres de l'Aldéa bénéficient d'un bon soutien de la part des pouvoirs publics d'alors.

Le besoin de passer d'une phase de réflexion à une phase active amène l'agence à créer, en 1982, un réseau financeur en marge du système bancaire classique pour pouvoir participer à des projets de créations d'entreprises et d'emplois.

Deux soucis majeurs consistent à éviter les dons ou l'artisanat avec leurs effets pervers et à rendre effective la décentralisation, en redonnant l'initiative et la responsabilité au local.

C'est l'époque où l'Aldéa crée trois outils importants:

- les Cigales qui sont des organismes collecteurs et distributeurs de fonds;
- le Garrigue qui est une coopérative financière et une société-capital-risque;
- le troisième outil étant le premier titre associatif à avoir été émis en France ; quelque chose d'assez proche de l'emprunt obligataire.

Ce titre devrait d'ailleurs être réémis et s'ouvrir prochainement à d'autres associations.

Une fois ces outils mis en place et fonctionnant de façon autonome, l'Aldéa s'est recentrée sur sa vocation première. C'est avec un personnel très réduit qu'elle s'adonne désormais à la recherche et à la publication d'ouvrages présentant ses thèses.

Les Cigales, quant à eux, interviennent directement dans les financements de créations d'entreprises. Par le "bouche à oreille", ils rassemblent chacun plus d'une dizaine de personnes issues des catégories socioprofessionnelles les plus variées. Les membres cotisent à raison de 150 F environ par mois. A la fin de chaque année, un groupe réunit près de 22.000 F permettant des prises de participation de 15.000 à 20.000 F. Dans la mesure où, selon les dispositions du Code général des impôts, un Cigale a une durée de vie de cinq ans, cela permet finalement au moins cinq créations d'entreprises, souvent plus.

Très variées dans leur production, les entreprises ainsi créées concernent des secteurs aussi différents que la production sonore, l'éolienne ou la lombriculture. Pour le reste, lesdites entreprises peuvent avoir les statuts de Sarl, S.a., Coopératives ouvrières de production. Coopératives ou Gie.

C'est la viabilité du projet, sa vocation alternative et sa bonne gestion qui demeurent prépondérantes. Les membres des Cigales se concertent et votent favorablement ou non pour une prise de participation dans le capital de l'entreprise.

Reste aux créateurs à courir le marathon classique des recherches pour un financement total. Car c'est aussi une caractéristique des Cigales de ne pas mettre "tous leurs oeufs dans le même panier". La prudence et la bonne connaissance de leur environnement permettent néanmoins aux membres des Cigales d'accorder des financements à des projets que parfois les banques rejettent.

Pour l'anecdote, on a pu voir quelques cas de membres de Cigales, cadres de banque disant "non" le jour, à un projet au nom de leur employeur et "oui" le soir, en réunion de Cigale.

Par ailleurs, une entreprise dont le projet recueille l'adhésion d'une Cigale pourra toujours recevoir bénévolement des compétences financières, juridiques, comptables, techniques ou commerciales.

Enfin l'avenir des clubs d'investisseurs Cigales semble confirmé par l'évolution du parc national d'entreprises vers les microentreprises.

Le partenariat avec les Cigales se développe de plus en plus rapidement. Des contrats existent déjà avec différents ministères et secrétariats d'état, la G.m.f., des municipalités de tous bords politiques, des missions locales ou des directions régionales du travail et de l'emploi.

Aldéa et Fédération des Cigales (28, boulevard de Sébastopol
75004 Paris Tél.:42-71.61.74)

Des réseaux d'entreprise

Audelà des aspects techniques du montage et du fonctionnement du réseau Cigales, il y a la vie quotidienne dans les petites entreprises auxquelles il a apporté son soutien. Pour différents qu'ils soient, les trois témoignages qui suivent n'en sont pas moins convergents.

Il y a bien une conception commune du travail et une même idée sur la façon de le rendre différent. Les trois entreprises que nous avons choisies se trouvent à Paris. En fait, les échos sont les mêmes en province et les domaines d'activités y sont tout aussi variés.

Acar (S.a.)
Société de location
de véhicules d'occasion

"Notre relation avec les clients est avant tout un rapport d'argent, mais on ne fait pas de l'économie pour de l'économie. Le produit que nous proposons est différent car les voitures que nous louons ne sont pas les derniers modèles. Et pour être de moitié moins chers que les autres loueurs, nous assurons des services plus réduits, sans fioritures. Tout ceci nous met en contact avec une clientèle particulière, qui nous intéresse. Mais notre vocation alternative n'est pas inscrite sur notre enseigne et nous ne faisons pas de prosélytisme. Nos clients s'adressent à nous comme à n'importe quelle agence de location de véhicules. En revanche, lors d'un contact sympathique, nous ne nous privons pas de parler d'alternative et de travail en réseau si une opportunité se présente.

Notre objectif initial était de proposer un service moins cher mais de qualité, et de pouvoir vivre de cette activité à deux ou plus. Or, non seulement nous nous y tenons, mais nous allons embaucher une troisième personne. Par ailleurs, nous cherchons à étendre notre formule et notre nom à d'autres villes pour pouvoir créer des axes à travers la France et un nouveau réseau de location. C'est un travail tout à fait stimulant, qui nécessite une véritable stratégie commerciale. L'aspect alternatif n'est pas pour autant oublié dans la mesure où cette stratégie inclut une qualité de relation et d'échange avec les autres loueurs dans les autres villes. Sans cette qualité que nous croyons rentable, il

serait préférable de nous abstenir de passer quelque accord que ce soit.

Nous estimons être en cohérence avec l'idée d'entreprise qu'il faut gérer et les idées d'alternative qui sont le reflet de notre sensibilité et qui ne doivent pas mettre cette entreprise en péril.

Ce terme d'alternative nous gêne car il est trop chargé de connotations défavorables ou passées de mode. Une autre expression serait souhaitable. En tout cas, nous préférons certainement vivre les choses que trop en parler. Cette cohérence entre gestion et idées d'alternative, nous l'appliquons aussi dans notre prochaine relation avec le jeune que nous allons embaucher sous contrat S.I.V.P. Autant il nous paraît démagogique et peu réaliste de gommer tout rapport hiérarchique avec lui, autant il ne sera pas plus question de relation de type "adjuvant" avec lui. Il apprendra véritablement le travail avec toute la polyvalence requise dans cette branche. Bien sûr, nous serons tous trois amenés, à un moment, à voir si chacun trouve son compte dans ce travail."

Jean-Claude Lepage

Pictogramme (Sarl)
Société qui produit des images et
des mots au service des
entreprises, des associations,
des individus...

"Gagner de l'argent est pour nous important dans la mesure où notre activité se situe dans un secteur à très forte concurrence. Nous ne sommes pas moins capitalistes que d'autres. Ce qui nous rend différents tient au fait que nous sommes ouverts à des gens qui ne sont pas forcément dans des situations professionnelles et sociales les plus valorisantes et qui ont pourtant du savoir-faire et des idées.

Nous nous employons beaucoup à notre extension par un système de regroupement d'activités complémentaires à la vidéo. Actuellement nous ressemblons d'ailleurs un peu à une annexe de l'A.N.P.E. du spectacle.

Il y a un autre domaine qui marque nettement notre différence: c'est lorsque nous sommes amenés à travailler pour des industriels dont certaines productions

sont, par exemple, orientées vers l'armement.

Nous sommes alors pris entre les idées pacifiques et antiracistes qui sont les nôtres et la nécessité pour notre jeune entreprise d'éviter de renoncer à de nouveaux contrats."

Jean-François Cassant

Mots et merveilles (Sarl)
Une boutique qui vend des livres
enregistrés sur cassettes audio et
vidéo

"Nous avons voulu participer à la diffusion d'un produit relativement peu connu en créant un lieu spécialisé où l'on trouve des oeuvres de qualité et des conseils. Nous voulions évidemment que ce soit une affaire viable pour nous y consacrer pleinement et sereinement. Il y a des oeuvres que nous ne vendons pas pour des raisons qualitatives et parce que ces cassettes ont déjà une large diffusion dans d'autres points de vente. Nous préférons ainsi notre logique de lieu spécialisé.

Peuton parler encore d'alternative: Nous sommes des commerçants attentifs aux désirs et aux besoins de leur clientèle. Si être alternatif consiste à être ouvert à des contacts nombreux et intéressants, si cela suppose que nous sommes plus préoccupés par la diffusion des oeuvres que par les gros bénéfices... Alors, oui, nous sommes alternatifs.

Mais le mot nous dérange un peu par tous les sous entendus. Si l'on veut parler plus concrètement d'entreprise alternative ou différente, c'est, sans doute, plus au moment de notre création qu'il faut remonter. Vouloir bien faire les choses, nous avions alors contacté des banquiers et des publicitaires. On nous a proposé des grilles toutes faites en matière de montage et de promotion. C'était totalement absurde par rapport à notre projet.

Nous sommes entrés ensuite en relation avec les Cigales où nous avons rencontré des gens ouverts à l'originalité de notre entreprise et parfaitement compétents pour se prononcer sur la viabilité du projet. Nous avions trouvé à la fois des "financeurs" et des conseillers techniques alternatifs, en tout cas différents."

Edgar Haddad

The Management Needs of PVOs in the United States

By C. Stark Biddle*

The study is intended to identify, analyse and categorize the principal management problems facing private voluntary organizations and to provide a basis for review of AID funded programs that provide management support to PVO's.

The study is based on personal interviews* and a management needs questionnaire[†]; the approach is designed to reflect perceived needs rather than attempt independent analysis.

Because the material was drawn largely from discussion with chief executive offices, there may be a "CEO bias".

The report discusses four contextual factors which tend to shape the type of management issues facing PVO's, govern the nature of response and influence the effectiveness of consulting services.

These are:

U.S. public disinterest in the LDC's, in development and in the work of PVO's.

The result is that PVO's believe they face a tightly limited funding pool and that one PVO's gain is another's loss. PVO's are reluctant to change fund raising strategies or to bring them into line with what they are doing in the field for fear of losing their constituency.

The relatively heavy weight of government.

Government support has financed the growth of the PVO community.

PVO's are both deferential to government and self-conscious of their heavy dependence. Some PVO's feel that compliance with government regulations is their major problem. Shifts in governmental policies and programs make it difficult for PVO's to engage in effective long-range planning.

The nature of PVO leadership.

PVO leaders tend to come from the program ranks and lack training in management; they often come from a tradition of crisis response and tend to be reactive rather than proactive. They are not good at planning but are good at marshalling resources. Some were and are charismatic visionaries; transition to a second generation will be difficult.

Geographic separation between headquarters and field.

Physical separation makes communications difficult.

Section 3 discusses five major problem areas and briefly touches on several subordinate issues. The leading problem areas are:

* Paper presented at the Seminar organised by Inter-Action on ~ONG Management Development and Training : *Recent experiences and Future Priorities*, Feb. 25-26, 1986, Geneva.
[†] interviews with 40 CEOs and 17 U.S.A.I.D. officials.

^{††} questionnaire completed by 55 CEOs.

Institutional Planning

This includes strategic planning, organizational development, articulation of goals and purposes and thinking through "who we are, what are we good at and where are we going". PVO's have difficulties in this area for a variety of reasons: the need for funds encourages opportunism which discourages rationale planning; planning may imply changes in program direction which is difficult for "cause oriented" organizations to accept; the international nature of the work and volatility of government actions makes planning difficult; visionary zeal may substitute for planning.

The Management of Fund Raising

The problem involves the management of fund raising rather than choice of technique or actual practice. Fund raising touches on all aspects of an institution's life. It has become a particular problem as PVO's attempt to increase their private sector support. Also, PVO's have been reluctant to bring their public message into line with their program. This has caused staff tensions.

Additional problems involve:

lack of Board support; the tendency to take a "target of opportunity" approach rather than to think strategically with respect to "market", "product" and "customer"; the assimilation of professional fund-raisers; an overall lack of sophistication with respect to fund raising.

Financial Planning

PVO's face problems "calibrating" all the financial variables and allocating funds against agreed priorities.

The problem reflects several factors: a complex web of funding constraints imposed by donors; inadequate discretionary income to pay for trained headquarters staff; the tendency to separate program and financial planning; the practice of engaging in deficit budgeting; the lack of a coherent program plan; internal antagonism toward financial planners who are believed to have a "different agenda".

Management of Human Resources

While staff quality has improved in recent years, PVO's agree they face problems in: recruiting technically competent staff; directing volunteer employees; finding funds to offer training and a simultaneous tendency to hire junior people; managing organizations with a high propensity for internal conflict; the design and installation of personnel systems.

The Management of Board Relations

Board relations are recognized as an art, not a science.

Executives admit to major problems in this sphere involving: inadequate Board support for fund raising; jurisdictional disputes involving board and staff; educating board members with regard to the PVO's program and state of the art thinking on development.

Other problem areas frequently mentioned include: headquarters/field relations: project evaluation, project implementation at the field level; adoption of data processing capacity; difficulty of obtaining data; compliance with federal regulations.

Section 4 of the Report briefly discusses the use of consulting services and records several views that were frequently expressed: while PVO's prefer free or subsidized services they are willing to pay for expert advice; executives are split on whether subsidies diminish the value of consulting service; PVO's display a sophisticated capacity to locate and employ a variety of consulting services, although they prefer to find help from those "sensitive to the needs of the community".

On balance, PVO's would slightly prefer decentralized services; a significant number of PVO's question whether government should be in the management consulting business; some feel there may be a hidden motive.

Section 5 discusses implications with respect to the design or redesign of a management support program. Principal observations are: the most important problems are multidimensional, crosscutting and of a leadership nature, i.e. they are by and large the type of concerns that preoccupy chief executives; the rationale for a central, multipurpose facility is not as strong as it once was because established PVO's have the resources and capacity to locate and employ the help they need; any federally funded management service will be greeted with some degree of skepticism and resistance and to some extent the value of the service will be depreciated; this effect can be reduced by establishing a perception of distance between provider and recipient. To the extent that AID is responsive to requests for management assistance, there are several guidelines that should

govern a responding strategy:

the assistance should normally be within the 5 topical areas discussed in the report;

the assistance should be buffered from AID, i.e. it should be provided through an intermediary with strong credentials and credibility within the PVO community;

the assistance should be diversified and decentralized and tailored to particular subgroups within the PVO community and/or to particular areas;

there should be an emphasis and focus on PVO leaders'

a careful distinction should be made between help designed to deal with the management problems of PVO's on the one hand and training for PVO's with respect to AID policies and procedures on the other hand. Both are important, but the purpose is different and the delivery mechanism, should reflect that difference;

the assistance should be designed where possible to move the PVO's outside of their sometimes provincial community and to broaden perspectives;

provision of management services should only be done on the basis of *meaningful cost sharing* to reflect the fact that management is important. With established PVO's there should be a 50:50 sharing presumption;

finally, management services should be provided in a manner that continues to stimulate rather than stifle growth of a wide variety of management resources and services to the PVO community.

On balance, a more open, competitive, pluralistic approach to providing management services is preferred. The service should be available only on the basis of true cost sharing;

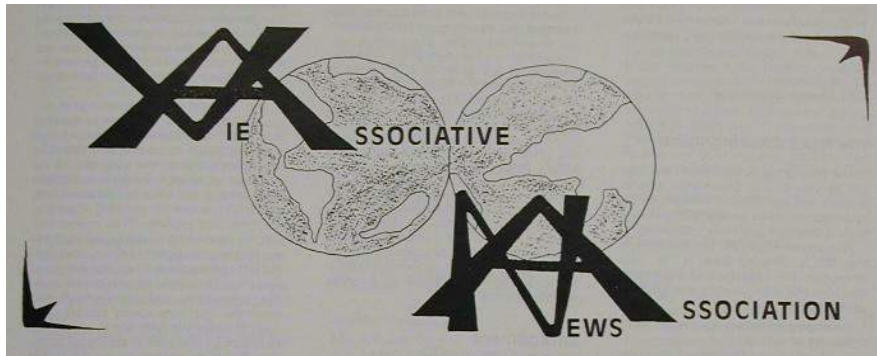
finally, it is suggested that AID review the prohibition on help in the fund raising area.

REMARKS ON INTER-ACTION ROLE:

1. Inter-Action may be able to provide a role, but several members feel that this role would be inconsistent with the charter of the organization.
2. There would be resistance to accepting A.I.D. funds before a secure financial base is established.
3. The consensual nature of a membership organization and the natural reluctance of members to unveil their most serious management difficulties before their peers would make Inter-Action a bad choice.

Dernière minute

Ce matin 3 février 1989, le Royaume Uni de Grande-Bretagne et Irlande du Nord a procédé à la ratification de la Convention européenne sur la reconnaissance de la personnalité juridique des organisations internationales non gouvernementales, adoptée par le Conseil de l'Europe et ouverte à la signature le 24 avril 1986 à Strasbourg. Il s'agit de la première ratification de la Convention.



Les syndicats et Lomé IV

Des syndicalistes réunis au Sénégal ont demandé que les syndicats puissent officiellement participer aux négociations pour Lomé IV, l'accord sur le commerce et l'aide entre la Communauté européenne (CE) et 66 pays d'Afrique, des Caraïbes et du Pacifique (ACP).

L'appel est parvenu à une conférence qui se tenait du 3 au 5 novembre dans la capitale du pays, Dakar, et à laquelle participaient 60 représentants syndicaux d'Europe et des Etats ACP. La conférence, ouverte par le président du Sénégal Abou Diou, était organisée par la Confédération européenne des syndicats et l'Organisation de l'Unité syndicale africaine en coopération avec la Confédération internationale des syndicats libres (C.I.S.L.), et la Confédération mondiale du travail. La Commission européenne et l'Organisation internationale du travail avaient aussi envoyé des représentants. Madia Diop, le président de la Confédération nationale des travailleurs du Sénégal, qui était l'hôte de la conférence, déclara "qu'il ne peut y avoir de développement sans les travailleurs". La consultation entre gouvernement, syndicats et employeurs à

tous les niveaux dans le processus de développement devrait être une priorité pour le mouvement syndical. La conférence a suggéré la constitution d'un comité économique et social tripartite dans les Etats ACP, semblable à celui existant dans la CE.

La conférence a aussi demandé que la Communauté européenne s'engage plus pour résoudre la crise de la dette du tiers monde et a insisté pour que cet engagement se reflète dans Lomé IV. Une responsable de la CE a qualifié cette demande "d'irréaliste". Elle a dit que la crise de la dette devrait être traitée par le Fonds monétaire international (FMI) et par la Banque mondiale plutôt que dans le cadre de l'accord de Lomé. Les syndicats ont fait remarquer que la CE était représentée dans les trois institutions et qu'il était illogique de séparer ainsi les questions.

L'égalité de traitement des travailleurs migrants dans la CE constitue un facteur important dans les relations entre les partenaires de Lomé, aussi la conférence a-t-elle estimé que cette question devrait être incluse dans Lomé IV. L'accord devrait aussi tenir compte de la défense des droits humains et syndicaux.

(*Monde du travail libre*, 8/88)

Médecine alternative

Alors qu'en Asie, on utilise généralement de préférence la médecine traditionnelle à la médecine occidentale, on constate que les gouvernements de tous les pays de la région, excepté la Chine, s'intéressent très peu au développement de cette médecine traditionnelle. Plusieurs partenaires asiatiques de l'Innovations et réseaux pour le développement (IRED) ont souligné ce point au cours de discussions avec Sunimal Fernando et ont constaté que cette situation résulte de la politique des puissantes compagnies multinationales pharmaceutiques.

L'IRED a été encouragé par ses partenaires à appuyer, en collaboration avec Appropriate Technology International (ATI), des activités pour le développement de la médecine traditionnelle afin de provoquer un retournement de situation. Un projet est actuellement à l'étude, qui permettrait la culture de quelques herbes médicinales dans une dizaine de villages et la transformation de ces herbes en produits ayant une valeur marchande afin de les commercialiser dans le pays.

Autour de ce projet, l'IRED et ATI cherchent à développer un réseau d'organisations favorables au développement de la

médecine traditionnelle pour contrer la tendance actuelle qui permet aux compagnies pharmaceutiques multinationales d'avoir un contrôle de plus en plus grand des politiques nationales de santé de nombreux pays asiatiques.

Making Common Cause Internationally

The Board of the International Council of Voluntary Agencies (ICVA), a Geneva-based international coalition of NGOs, recently adopted a document entitled: *Making Common Cause Internationally*. It calls for greater cooperation among development, environment and population NGOs (Southern and Northern) in addressing the problems of developing countries.

ICVA
13 rue Gautier,
1201 Genève, Switzerland

The NGLS Clearinghouse

The goal of the Nongovernmental Liaison Service (NGLS) Clearinghouse is to facilitate the exchange of information on development issues among NGOs, United Nations agencies and other institutions.

With regard to NGOs, the objective of the NGLS Clearinghouse is to help strengthen the capacities of developing countries NGOs to generate and exchange information by:

- supporting initiatives to create NGO structures of cooperation;
- supplying NGOs with information on the initiatives of the United Nations and other institutions.

The NGLS Clearinghouse produces a newsletter *"NewsNet"* (formerly "The Tree Project News").

NGLS Clearinghouse,
DC21103, United Nations,
New York, NY 10017 USA.

Action plan for Brundtland

A long term plan of action to promote the recommendations of the Brundtland report is needed, according to environment and development nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) who attended a two-day workshop in Brussels last April.

More than 60 people representing 15 countries of western Europe and India discussed the report and ideas for follow-up activities at the workshop which was funded by the Norwegian Government and organised by HED in association with the European Environmental Bureau.

Participants agreed that one of the most important aspects of the Brundtland report was its holistic approach to economic development and its identification of the need for strong links between different development issues. A major question posed to the workshop participants was

how governments which are used to dealing with issues sectorally can implement a multidisciplinary approach. It was agreed that government efforts to make their programmes and policies sustainable need to be evaluated.

One discussion group concluded that it was important for NGOs to set themselves longterm goals, timetables and priorities. The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe meeting in 1990 and the proposed United Nations World Conference on Sustainable Development in 1992 were highlighted as major events to work towards. It was suggested that a coalition of three or four international NGOs could have a major influence on these two events.

Aid is a vital issue to bring together environment and development NGOs according to one discussion group which concluded that — in the light of the increased lobbying of aid agencies about environmental concerns - now might be an opportune time to create a more formal network of European NGOs to cooperate on this issue.

NGO Data Bank

Hed is establishing a global data bank on nongovernmental organisations concerned with development and the environment. Drawing on the Institute's files and research for a Directory commissioned by the UN Environment Programme, this information will be freely available as a service to Southern NGOs.

Environment and Development

The International Council of Voluntary Agencies (ICVA) recently issued a policy statement entitled *"Making Common Cause Internationally"*, an action plan for international development, environment and population NGOs.

This statement "internationalises" a document drawn up in 1985-1986 by North American NGOs which demonstrates their commitment to cooperation across the frontiers.

Contact: ICVA, rue Gautier 13, CH 1201 Geneva, tel. 41/22.32.66-00.

Nongovernmental cooperation in China

Several European NGOs are now working in China, in particular Frères des Hommes. A volunteer from this International NGO has produced the following reports.

— *"China 1988: Grassroots Development Initiatives"*, May 1988 (English, Summaries available in French and Italian);

— *"Reform and Poverty in China"*, June 1987 (English);

— *"The second Chinese revolution : the consequences of the 13th Congress of the CCP on nongovernmental cooperation"*, December 1987 (French only).

These reports can be obtained from the following organisations:

- *Frères des Hommes/Europe, Centre a documentation, 45bis rue de la Glacière, 75013 Paris, tel. 33/1.47.07.00.00*

- *ITECO, 31, rue du Boulet, B1000 Bruxelles, tel. 32/2.511.70.48 (French and Dutch only).*

- *Fratelli dell' Uomo, Via Varesina 214 120156 Milano (Italian).*

Conference on "Lome IV and the Environment"

Organized by the European Environment Bureau (EEB) and the members of the Regular Information System on Environment and Development (RISED) on 5th and 6th October in Brussels the conference gathered together representatives from the EEC, the European Parliament, the ACP countries and also from a great number of NGOs in Europe and the ACP countries.

With the Lome III Convention as a discussion basis, the participants insisted that the Fourth Convention should give greater attention to the problems raised by urban environment, and emphasized the necessity of strengthening the conditions for informing the citizens and consulting with NGOs, within the planning of aid programmes and projects. They moved new articles concerning health conservation of ecosystems, timber production, and agricultural development. They also proposed new titles on trade in hazardous substances, toxic waste, and urban growth. Furthermore, the participants stressed the need to revise the CAP, and to provide for emergency aid in case of ecological disasters. The EEB will produce, by the end of this year, a document providing a synthesis of the main proposals.

Brundtland Bulletin

This recently issued first publication of the Centre for our Common Future highlights the activities and initiatives taken by a broad spectrum of organisations (United Nations, intergovernmental bodies, NGOs, media, research centres, industry and trade unions). It will be issued every three months. If you wish to receive it on a regular basis, contact:

The Centre for our Common Future
Paisis Wilson, 52 rue des Pâquis
1201 Genève, Switzerland.

Stop the Desert:

How to stop the Desert: an NGO Action Guide on Desertification Control"

This booklet is based on the recommendations of a KENGO/ANEN training workshop which took place in September 1987. For information on how to obtain this publication, contact:

African NGOs Environment Network (ANEN)
P.O. Box 53844
Nairobi, Kenya.

NGO Workshop

NGO workshop on follow-up activities to the North-South campaign, 7 december 1988

At the Madrid Conference of Parliamentarians and NGOs. It was clear that delegates were anxious that the objectives and achievements of the Council of Europe's North-South Campaign should not end with the closing ceremony. For this reason, the Liaison Committee of Development NGOs to the European Communities and the International Coalition for Development Action (ICDA) decided to jointly organise an NGO Workshop in order to discuss follow-up activities.

This Workshop will be held on the 7 December 1988 in Montpellier where SICAD will also be holding a number of events of interest to NGOs.

Venue: Société internationale de congrès et services, rue Charles Amans 10, F34000 Montpellier, tel: 67.58.59.03.

On the basis of the replies received to the questionnaire sent to the participants in the Campaign, the following *agenda* was set up:

Plenary Session

In the Chair : Simon Stocker, Director, ICDA
9.00 am: Introductions, notices, etc.

9.15 am: Summary of the results of the NGO questionnaire presented by the Chairperson.

9.20 am: Four speakers to introduce the following:

1. National campaigns (T. Waarts, NCO, Netherlands)
2. Round Tables (R. De Meyer, NCOS, Belgium)
3. Madrid Conference (K. Mac Arthur, NGO Liaison Committee Secretariat)
4. European Campaign (T. Mercier, UCJG, France)

9.10 am : Discussion on the experiences to be gained from the North-South Campaign.

Working groups

11.00 am

Working Group 1 : Coordination of NGO work.

Following the observation made by many NGOs that the North-South Campaign revealed a lack of coordination among NGOs on several fronts, this Working Group will discuss the coordination of NGO policy, the future strategy of NGOs with regard to GATT, LDCs, etc, and will also consider the role of the NGO networks. The possibility of setting up NGO-Parliamentarian working groups and the proposed North-South Centre in Lisbon will also be discussed.

Chair: AM. Beulink (NOVIB, NL)
Introduction: P. Robineau (CIDSE)
Discussant: T. Lemaesquier (UN NGLS)

Working Group 2:

Media/Public Opinion
It is widely believed by NGOs that they

failed to attract the attention of the media during the Campaign and therefore the audience reached was much more limited than it could otherwise have been. This Working Group will therefore discuss future strategies for attracting the media to the North/South debate.

Chair: T. Mercier (UCJG, France)
Introduction: Ann Zammit (International Broadcasting Trust, UK)
Discussant: Journalist to be confirmed

Working Group 3:

Lobbying of Parliamentarians/Governments/International Organisations

NGOs involved in the North-South Campaign have expressed interest in using the Madrid Appeal for lobbying activities, particularly on the debt, environment, agriculture and development education. This Working Group will discuss ways in which to improve NGO lobbying strategy, contacts and consider future lobbying activities.

Chair: P. Galand (President, NGO-EC Liaison Committee)
Introduction J. Knight (Oxfam, UK)
Discussant: E. Herfkens (NL)

Plenary

5.00 pm

Presentation of the results of the discussion on follow-up. Reactions. Concluding documents will be available at the L.C. Secretariat.

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

L'annexe au *Monteur Belge* du 17 novembre 1988 publie les statuts de l'European Foundation for Entrepreneurship Research (EPER). Son but est l'étude

prendre en Europe. Le conseil d'administration comprend des chefs d'entreprise de Belgique (2), d'Irlande (1), des Pays-Bas (2) et le directeur des programmes de l'European Foundation for Management Development. Le siège est fixé rue Washington 40 à 1050 Bruxelles.

Le Groupe européen de recherches et d'expérimentations en matière d'emplois salariés et/ou indépendants (GEREX) a pour objet de promouvoir une nouvelle conception du développement et de la réussite professionnelle en faveur de personnes dont les qualifications se révèlent à l'expérience, insuffisantes ou inadéquates. Actuellement les membres fondateurs, psychopédagogues, sociologues, kinésithérapeutes, tous de nationalité belge, sont au nombre de six. Le siège social est établi bd. de l'Yser 5, 6000 Charleroi (Belgique).

Une Association internationale de biomécanique viscérale (AIBV) a été créée à Bruxelles, le 2 septembre 1988. Les membres effectifs sont des kinésithérapeutes: actuellement des belges et des français. Le siège est établi à B1850 Grimbergen, Sparrenlaan 101.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has published a brochure entitled Common Action for Development, Aid to Self-Help. This booklet reviews the areas of cooperation and opportunities for common action by NGOs. UNDP and governmental executive agents. It contains information on the Funds and associated programmes, and on the specialised programmes of the UNDP. With regard to the latter two new programmes are presented, allowing for a new approach in supporting NGOs and local NGO networks:

1. Within the framework of the Common Action Programme for Development, launched in 1988, the resident UNDP representatives in 40 countries will grant subsidies for a total amount of US\$

25.000 per country, for particularly praiseworthy activities carried out by NGOs:

innovative projects meant to support grassroots development, activities aimed at strengthening local NGOs, and projects which ensure cooperation between the UNDP, the government in the host country and the NGO Com-

2. The Africa 2000 Network was launched at a UNDP/NGO consultation meeting held in Nairobi in March 1988. It will create a link between local NGOs throughout Sub-Saharan Africa to fight drought and desertification, to participate in food production and support integrated development concentrating on village communities. The network was funded in the first place by contributions from the Canadian, Danish and Italian governments to the UNDP. *PNUD/Division ONG One United Nations Plaza New York, NY 10017. USA*

L'annexe au *Monteur Belge* du 27 octobre 1988 publie les statuts de la Coor-

dination européenne des femmes. Régie par la loi belge du 25 octobre 1919, la nouvelle association regroupe les coordinations nationales de chaque pays membre des Communautés économiques européennes; actuellement elles sont au nombre de 9: irlandaise du nord, portugaise, irlandaise, française, grecque, britannique, néerlandaise, italienne, belge. Son objet est *"Le lutte pour l'indépendance économique des femmes, ainsi que leur indépendance physique, morale et affective, le libre choix de leur orientation sexuelle et la libre disposition de leur corps"*. Le conseil d'administration est composé d'un représentant de chacune des coordinations nationales citées plus haut et du membre (belge) fondateur. Le siège est établi rue Stévin 38 à 1040 Bruxelles.

Le 23 août 1988 a été créée par assemblée constituante l'Association européenne pour la réduction de la pollution due aux fibres (AERPF). Seuls actuellement des belges sont membres du conseil d'administration. Les buts de l'association sont de : *"dans le cadre de l'harmonisation des législations européennes, aider à l'uniformisation des réglementations concernant la protection des individus contre les risques divers dus aux fibres quelles qu'elles soient; contribuer à la diminution de la pollution de l'air et de l'eau par les fibres, notamment par l'étude, la mise au point de procédures et procédés adaptés aux exigences d'hygiène, de santé et de salubrité"*. Le président est M. Mark Dubrulle. Le siège est établi rue de la Science 5, 1040 Bruxelles.

L'annexe au Moniteur belge du 20 octobre 1988 publie les statuts de l'Association internationale de la presse diplomatique créée le 25 août 1988. Son siège est établi bd. Louis Mettwie 79, 1080 Bruxelles.

Lovanium International Management Center a été formé le 20 juin 1988 à Bruxelles sous forme d'association sans but lucratif selon la loi belge. Il groupe des représentants de la Katholiek Universiteit Leuven, l'Université catholique de Louvain et la Fondation industrie-université. Les deux premières apportent chacune 500.000 francs belges, la Fondation 1 million de francs belges. Le siège est établi rue de la Concorde 53, 1050 Bruxelles.

L'Office commun de formation européenne (OCFE) a pour but de promouvoir, dans un esprit pluraliste et sans parti pris, l'union démocratique de l'Europe par l'information et la mobilisation de sa population, en particulier la jeunesse, les médias, les facteurs socioéconomiques et les consommateurs, les milieux éducatifs et culturels. Il souhaite mettre la population en état d'agir comme une véritable opinion publique européenne, quel que soit du reste leur engagement politique, philosophique ou social. Les membres sont des associations de formation européenne. L'association est régie par la loi belge du 25 octobre 1919. Le conseil d'administration comprend 9 personnes de 5 nationalités différentes : Allemagne fédérale, Belgique,

Espagne, France, Luxembourg. Le président est M. J. L. Cougnon, administrateur principal au Parlement européen. Le siège de l'association est fixé à Mons (Belgique) rue du Boussoit 15.

Un groupe de chefs d'entreprise européens a créé l'Association pour l'union monétaire de l'Europe, dont le but principal est de favoriser la création d'une banque centrale européenne fondée sur l'écu. Les membres de l'Association comprennent notamment Giovanni Agnelli (président de Fiat), Cornelis Van der Klugt (président de Philips), François Xavier Ortolé (président de Total), Hans Meckle (président de Bosch), Paul Mentre (président du Crédit national français). Le programme d'action adopté ne propose rien moins qu'une modification des traités de la CEE : *"La banque centrale doit présenter des caractéristiques indiscutables d'autonomie et d'indépendance à l'égard des gouvernements et des autorités communautaires"*. L'association prépare un film de vulgarisation sur l'écu et un annuaire permettant de repérer les spécialistes de l'écu dans les entreprises. Par ailleurs, elle a fait rédiger par un cabinet spécialisé un cahier de conseils sur l'utilisation juridique, comptable, fiscale et administrative de la devise européenne.

A theoretical concept for Third World collective self-reliance through trade, advocated by a few economists and diplomats for more than a decade, became a reality at Belgrade on 13 April 1988, when the Agreement on a Global System of Trade Preferences (GSTP) among Developing Countries was concluded among 48 member countries(*) of the Group of 77. The Agreement will enter into force on ratification by 15 signatories from Africa, Asia and Latin America and 30 days after the deposit of the 15th instrument of ratification with the Government of Yugoslavia, the depositary for the Agreement.

The Journey from Mexico City in 1976, through Arusha 1979, Caracas 1981, New York 1982 (and with technical work in between at Geneva), New Delhi 1985, Brasilia 1986 and Belgrade 1988 has finally led to the first-ever operational interregional agreement, with contractual rights and obligations, for a preferential trading system among Third World countries.

(*) Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Bangladesh, Benin, Bolivia, Brazil, Cameroon, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, North Korea, Ecuador, Egypt, Ghana, Guinea, Guyana, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Libya, Malaysia, Mexico, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Qatar, South Korea, Romania, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Uruguay, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yugoslavia, Zaire and Zimbabwe. (IFDA Dossier 67 sept-oct 1988)

The launch of a centre dedicated to the promotion of issues highlighted in the Brundtland report coincided with the work-

shop of European NGOs held in Brussels in April 1988.

The Center for Our Common Future, will provide information about future Brundtland-related events and information materials on the report. The Norwegian Prime Minister, Gro Harlem Brundtland, chair of the World Commission on Environment and Development, has welcomed the initiative to create the Centre and said that she will be following its work closely and lending support and encouragement to activities.

Key environment, development, media, trade union, youth, scientific, academic and industrial organisations from all areas of the world have been asked to link up with the Centre as working partners. Representatives from governments and international agencies are also welcome to join as partners.

Four main target areas for the centre's work have been identified:

- to act as a central focal point for follow-up activities on the Commission's report;
- to encourage organisations and for a representing as many constituencies as possible to initiate their own work toward sustainable development;
- to service these and existing follow-up activities ;
- in doing the above, to assist in laying the foundations for the several proposed regional conferences on Brundtland follow-up in 1990 and the 1992 World Conference on Sustainable Development.

The work aims to maintain the momentum for action and change created by the World Commission's report and increase public interest in the issues with which it deals. There will be a particular emphasis on getting *Our Common Future* onto the agendas of as many institutions and organisations as possible.

Some specific activities planned by the Centre are:

- providing technical and support assistance for specific follow-up initiatives;
- involving the industrial community in designing an industry guide to *Our Common Future* and encouraging industry-wide responses to it;
- preparing and disseminating other language versions of the overview of the report along with other language versions of IIED's Reader's Guide to the Brundtland Report and the Commission's videos - all of which are currently only available in English.

The creation of the Centre was assisted by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) and the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). Initial funding has been received from the Danish, Swedish, Swiss and Norwegian governments and the World City Foundation.

The Centre for Our Common Future is at: Palais Wilson, 52 rue des Paquis, CH1201 Geneva, Switzerland. Telephone (022) 32.71.17. Telex: 27910 CH.

MIGREUROPE is an initiative which was launched in Brussels on 23 November 1987 with the aim of establishing a European platform for immigrant, refugee and foreign student associations as well as other organisations working in defence of their rights and against racism.

The European forum published its first information bulletin in March and it is available in French and English. Contact : *Migreurope*, Secretariat of the Preparatory Committee CCME, 23 avenue d'Auderghem, B1040 Bruxelles, tel: (32) (2) 230.20-11.

The World Health Organization has recently opened a Regional Centre for Emergency Preparedness and Response (EPR) in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

The aim of EPR will be the one of alleviating the effects of drought, flood, cyclones, seismic disasters, civil strife and mass population movement.

EPR will act to guarantee quick information on impending disasters, a proper assessment of their scale, provision to international relief personnel of relevant knowledge of the culture, politics, health policies and history of the host country.

Support will also be offered to African governments in working toward effective management coordination and standardization of domestic and foreign relief work.

Special attention will be paid to the organization of training operational research, policy analysis and research activities responding to disasters and food shortages.

Other international institutions will be involved in the research activity such as the School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine in London, the Rome - based WHO collaborating Centre for Training and Nursing in Emergency, the Centre of Research and

Epidemiological of Disasters in Brussels with the aim of establishing an international network of cooperating institutions.

Address: *Emergency preparedness and response Regional Centre for Africa*, UN ECA Building/Addis Ababa. Telephone 44.54.60 - Telex 21314, P.O. Box 3050 - Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

On the occasion of the International Peace Forum for a Nuclear-free World and Human Survival held in Moscow in February 1987, an initiative group for an International Humanity Survival Foundation had been created.

Preparatory meetings for establishing an International Foundation were held in 1987 in Trieste, Moscow and New York. Branches of the foundation were prepared in the USA and Sweden.

The foundation was formed on 14 January 1988, in Moscow under the name of International Foundation for the Survival and Development of Humanity, and officially announced on 15 January 1988 in the Kremlin in the presence of General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev, i.e. two years after his speech on total nuclear disarmament. The legal seat of the Foundation is in Stockholm. The organisation will be located in Moscow, making it the first international private foundation to be based in the Soviet Union. Another principal office of the Foundation will be set up in Washington DC. Funding for the Foundation is committed or expected from several sources from all countries in East and West, including individuals and foundations.

A governing Board of Directors consisting of 30 prominent individuals from a dozen countries was elected for a three-year term. The Foundation is expected to become fully operational and ready to process grants by mid-1988. It calls for new

cooperative efforts for harnessing mankind's ingenuity, knowledge, skills, and resources across all national and ideological boundaries to meet global threats and challenges. The International Foundation is directed to encourage institutional flexibility and innovation in furtherance of its goals.

Some members of the Initiative Group of the Foundation have already suggested some projects. The tentative list includes project proposals in the areas of disarmament, development (including education, medicine, culture, religion, economy, organisation), environment and human rights.

The projects will be selected on the basis of a set of criteria which are presently formulated.

A week-long workshop on neuroscience held in Nairobi, Kenya, last winter ended in the formation of the Society of Neuroscientists in Africa. Among the twenty presentations were a keynote address on "Autonomie neuroeffector systems : recent developments" by Professor G. Burnstock of the University of London: a paper on "Multiple immunostaining procedures in neuroanatomy" and an introduction to immuno-cytochemical techniques.

The meeting was sponsored by IBRO, the International Brain Research Organization, in conjunction with the African Academy of Sciences and the University of Nairobi. The new Society of Neuroscientists in Africa, which received a boost from UNESCO, The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, will be based in Nairobi, where Dr. P.G. Kiay was elected chairman and Professor A.J. Kaduri of Zimbabwe was elected vice chairman.

Africa has been the only continent without its own organization of neuroscientists.

ERRATUM

In *Transnational Associations* n° 4, 1988, a passage of the article « Insights into Cost Effectiveness from one Private Voluntary Organization Perspective », by Thomas W. Dichter was left out due to a technical accident (pp. 183-184). We apologize to our readers for this unfortunate interruption in the text, which obviously affects its continuity. Those readers who would like to get the full version of this paper may write to :

The Editor, *Transnational Associations*, UAI, rue Washington 40, 1050 Bruxelles, Belgium.

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The Economics of Non-Profit Institutions: Studies in Structure and Policy edited by Susan Rose-Ackerman, Yale Studies on Non-profit Organizations, New York-London, Oxford University Press 1986.

Non-Profit Enterprise in the Arts: Studies in Mission and Constraints, edited by Paul J. Di-Maggio, Yale Studies on Non-profit Organizations, New-York-London, Oxford University Press 1986.

Oxford University Press initiated in 1986 the publication of the «Yale Studies on Non-Profit Organizations», produced and edited under the auspices of the Institution for Social and Policy Studies of Yale University. This series investigates the implications for public policy of current research bearing on specific nonprofit studies - for example, public policy towards nonprofits, philanthropy, management, and nonprofit enterprise in such fields as education, culture and community organizations.

Edited by Susan Rose-Ackerman, Professor of Law and Political Economy at Columbia University, *The Economics of Nonprofit Institutions* presents a thoughtful collection of otherwise unavailable or hard to obtain papers dealing with the voluntary nonprofit sector in relation with the private market economy in the United States. These studies cover a range of theoretical policy-oriented topics, discussing alternative organiz-

ational forms, types of markets, and various effects of public financial policy options. Even though the so-called *third sector tends* to defy systematic, and particularly economic, analysis, the book is a useful attempt at defining in economic terms a sector seen as a response to a wide range of social needs. Contributors emphasize its relative importance in the American economy, but the poor international perspective of the book sometimes produces such over-statements as « *The United States relies more heavily than any other country on the voluntary non-profit sector...* », while a close look at international statistics will suggest that, on the contrary, this sector is comparatively more important, in terms of employment or GNP, in a number of Western European countries.

In *Nonprofit Enterprise in the Arts*, edited by the Executive Director of the Yale Program, contributors inquire into the production and distribution of

art in the United States, where it is taken for granted that much art (painting, sculpture, symphonic and chamber music, serious theatre, opera, and the danse) is made possible through nonprofit organisations, as opposed to private (for-profit) enterprise and government agencies. At a time when the former are reaching out for the latter's support to supplement diminishing levels of governmental assistance, the book examines such issues as the financing of nonprofit arts organisations, the relationship between individual organisation and social purpose in the arts, and the constraints that patterns of funding place on the missions that artists and trustees may wish to pursue. The two final chapters compare public support for the arts in Europe and the United States, showing that the U.S. has only recently begun to emulate the European policy of generous state-subsidies to the performing arts.

Paul Ghils

Les pratiques coopérative en milieu rural africain, par Dominique Gentil, collection Université coopérative internationale, L'Harmattan, Paris, 1984.

L'Université coopérative internationale a publié il y a quelques années cette excellente étude sur la coopération, dont les données s'inscrivent en contrepoint des recherches sur l'associationnisme africain (Cf. E.B. Koffi, « Le concept et le rôle des ONG européennes et africaines », in *Associations transnationales*, 5/1988, 230-250). Comme dans ce dernier domaine, les agents de la coopération africaine sont souvent à la recherche d'un modèle propre qui ne soit pas contraint de s'inspirer des pionniers de Rochdale, de la République coopérative de Charles Gide ou des expériences suédoise ou israélienne.

On a mainte fois évoqué les échecs des coopératives africaines (Cf. Asso-

ciations transnationales, 6/1985), sans en tirer les leçons sur la base d'une analyse critique et systématique. L'ouvrage de D. Gentil tente de combler ces lacunes en fonction de deux objectifs: cerner les problèmes de fond posés par l'évolution des coopératives dans le cadre général du développement économique et social; fournir des outils qui permettent une pédagogie adaptée à des agriculteurs analphabètes. Après avoir posé la problématique, décrit les pratiques coopératives et leurs méthodes d'évaluation, l'auteur s'interroge sur la signification des coopératives en Afrique contemporaine et sur leurs rapports avec les Etats. S'il apparaît que l'inadéquation de modèles coopérati-

vistes imposés du sommet, le défail- lances de la gestion et la main-mise des notables locaux sont les causes d'échec les plus fréquentes, certaines expériences fondées sur une large autonomie des coopérateurs permet- traient des résultats beaucoup plus satisfaisants tant pour ces derniers que pour les consommateurs. Toute- fois, l'influence des structures sociales et politiques, de même que les contraintes liées aux techniques mises en œuvre, sont telles que la coopération ne peut pas à elle seule constituer cette « troisième voie », imaginée par certains, entre économie de marché et économie planifiée.

P.G.

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