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# Introduction

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## **The new frontiers of international organization**

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the twin challenges of globalization and fragmentation are making their impact felt on the goals, scope and activities of intergovernmental organizations. While technological change, the increasing dominance of the market economy and the spread of free trade regimes accelerate the pace of globalization, the widening of social inequalities in advanced as well as emerging and developing economies and the marginalization of the poorest countries are often regarded as a symbol of the globalization process itself. Profound changes on the legal, managerial, technological and communication planes are ultimately reducing the powers of the state in the economic and other spheres. National governments see their freedom of action constrained and may be compelled to enforce rules imposed by international agencies, as is frequently the case with structural adjustment programmes. For their part, non-state actors are gaining economic and political clout and strive to influence decisions and agendas, often calling into question the objectives and methods of major intergovernmental organizations. These new actors include a growing number of more or less institutionalized associations and groups – from non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and multinational corporations to ethnic, political and religious movements – advocating a wide variety of causes. Some kind of structured dialogue between intergovernmental organizations and civil society is bound to become a permanent feature of the international system. On the other hand, the growing impact of transnational organized crime in its several forms and of international terrorism is a symbol of the threat posed by ‘uncivil society’ to the very fabric of international relations.

The events of the 1990s had far-reaching reper-

cussions at the global level (notably the UN and its system) as well as on a regional scale (notably the process of European integration) and seemed to open the doors to enhanced co-operation based on broadly shared principles and values. The East–West confrontation – for decades a seemingly intractable issue shaping the agenda of intergovernmental organizations – soon became a thing of the past. The transition to multiparty democracy and a market-driven system appears all but accomplished in Central and Eastern Europe and is well under way in several republics of the erstwhile Soviet Union. As the East–West conflict faded, the North–South polarization took on new features characterized by a clear shift of the developing countries towards less interventionist government policies and an acceptance of the ‘democratic model’ prevailing in major industrial nations.

The traditional scenarios of bloc-to-bloc confrontation throughout the world have been replaced by a number of conflicts, intra-state far more often than interstate, no longer directly inspired or controlled by the major powers. In a number of cases, such as those concerning failed states, the very structure of government has been compromised, tearing the country into separate entities. The current situation presents unprecedented challenges to international co-operation in all areas, from security, trade and financial issues to climate change, environmental protection and drug abuse control. This is especially true with regard to the theory and practice of development in all its dimensions. It is now a widely recognized fact that economic growth does not automatically translate into a human progress which ultimately leads to enlarging people’s choices and putting the human being, not the economic system, at the core of the development process.

Concern about the rapid deterioration of the

environment and the preservation of the global commons has contributed to the emergence of the notion of 'sustainable development' that does not threaten the wellbeing and survival of humanity itself. Sustainable development involves, in fact, not only the protection of natural resources and the physical environment but also the protection of future economic growth and future human development. Radical changes will be necessary in both policies and institutions if the needs and options of unborn generations are to be taken into account.

The 1990s provided an important test for the capacities of international organizations to meet the challenge of sustainable development by taking stock of past experience and opening up new avenues for implementing global solidarity. However, the growing awareness of the interdependence among all countries, large and small, under the pressures of globalization has not by itself led the international community to take more extensive advantage of the opportunities provided by international institutions at all levels and in all fields of activity.

The emergence and, particularly during the last decades of the twentieth century, the enormous expansion in number, range of tasks and functions of international organizations may be viewed as a response to the objective need for the integration of international society at both the global (universal) and regional levels. It is important to emphasize, however, that the many and varied efforts towards integration have neither altered substantially the structure of international society nor brought mankind any further towards the establishment of a world government within a more-or-less centralized international system.

Active nationalistic competition, fierce pressures for protectionism, and the stubborn defence of vested interests on a national scale, remain a constant feature of relations, even between countries such as those of Western Europe that have set up supranational institutions endowed with very wide competences and far-reaching powers of co-ordination.

The proliferation of independent sovereign countries and the resulting sharp increase in membership of intergovernmental organizations – the UN is a case in point – are inevitably leading to the fragmentation of decision-making centres. Contrary to the widespread expectation of a gradual concentration of power in a few highly integrated units, more and more countries are performing a significant role in the international system.

The break-up of traditional alliances and support systems has had an impact on the internal stability of both old and new states, often confronted with violent tensions of an ethnic, political, economic or religious nature and with international organized crime. The ways to control international violence and to wage the 'war on terrorism' pose far-reaching problems in principle as in practice for most intergovernmental institutions.

Despite the magnitude of the political, economic and social problems in the present phase of international relations, intergovernmental organizations stand a chance of improving the overall climate and of successfully tackling at least some aspects of major world issues on a multilateral basis that acknowledges the force of law and interdependence. The heterogeneity of international society, made up of countries characterized by vastly different cultural backgrounds and huge variations in living standards, should not prevent the rational exploitation by all its members of the potentiality for co-operation provided by existing organizations. As in the past, the success of these bodies, born of good intentions but not by themselves representing a practical shortcut to world peace and stability, will ultimately depend on their ability to concentrate on those issues in which they have the necessary skills as well as on the resolve of member countries and of the only remaining superpower not to abuse a collective instrument for the mere pursuit of national interests and ends.

### **The legal framework of intergovernmental co-operation**

From a legal point of view, intergovernmental organizations are the products of treaties; the purely voluntary character of the participation of sovereign countries in international organizations and international co-operation efforts need not be emphasized. The formation of permanent international groupings, although almost inevitably involving a limitation of individual state sovereignty, cannot by itself be regarded as a preliminary stage towards the establishment of co-operative federal structures and the eventual institutionalization of world society. In fact, the majority of countries continue to emphasize the paramount value of the state, and obstacles to any larger role for international organizations are not diminishing.

The evolution of the international legal system would invite comparison with the evolution of national legal systems. The present legal framework

of world society would then emerge as a relatively weak and primitive system bound to develop gradually into a strong and highly organized pattern of rules. Whatever the wisdom of such an assumption and its long-term implications, existing international organizations essentially represent a more sophisticated means of conducting interstate relations when national interests are better served through multilateral action or international concert.

In the absence of a generally agreed system of classification of international organizations, several possible criteria for distinction may be put forward, each concentrating on a specific feature or set of features. From a historical perspective, it can be observed that administrative and technical unions of fairly limited scope preceded the creation of institutions with broad political, economic and social aims. However, any clear-cut classification of organizations according to main objects of activity – preservation of peace and security, economic development, financial aid, technical, scientific and cultural exchange, humanitarian or military assistance – would prove to be less than accurate and lead to glaring inconsistencies in a number of cases, because of the overlap of functions and responsibilities.

A broad distinction may be made between organizations endowed with a wide array of powers (legislative, administrative and judicial) and with comprehensive competence and organizations with limited competence. Another suggested distinction is based on the global, regional or subregional scope of an organization. In a few cases the boundaries of a region are defined according to political or ideological rather than strictly geographical considerations. A further possible distinction – between supranational and non-supranational organizations – rests on the degree of integration which characterizes the organizations themselves and regards the nature and extent of the decision-making powers granted to particular organs. Supranational organizations have the ability to take decisions which are directly binding upon member states, and public and private enterprises as well as individuals within these states, whereas traditional organizations can act or execute decisions only by or through member states.

The basic purposes, functions and powers of international organizations are usually set out, in a general or specific way, in their constituent documents, which bear titles such as ‘constitution’, ‘charter’, ‘covenant’, ‘statute’ or ‘articles of agreement’. Besides the functions and powers which are

expressly mentioned in the relevant clauses of the basic instrument, it is generally assumed that an organization may be endowed with implied powers – that is, such powers as are essential to the adequate fulfilment of its appointed tasks.

As a rule, the constituent instruments of international organizations provide that the original signatories may become members upon ratification or acceptance of the instruments themselves, while other states may be admitted to membership by a special majority vote of the competent organs. Since legal rights and obligations are the same for both original and subsequent members, the distinction between the two categories is essentially of historical value. Although only states are normally envisaged as members, the constitutions of a number of organizations refer to ‘governments’, ‘countries’, ‘sovereign countries’ or ‘nations’; these different expressions are of no consequence on the legal plane. Entities such as politically dependent territories or even independent and sovereign countries which are not acceptable as full members may be admitted to limited (associate) membership, usually without voting rights or representation in institutional organs. On occasion, organizations grant observer status to countries which may be admitted to full membership at a later stage. Permanent observer status may also be granted by a regional organization to non-regional countries in order to ensure a regular flow of information and achieve eventual synergies.

Loss of membership of international organizations may derive from a multiplicity of causes. The first step towards termination of participation may be represented by suspension of a member’s rights and privileges, notably voting rights, as a sanction for the non-fulfilment of financial obligations or the serious breach of other membership obligations. Persistent violations of the fundamental principles of an organization may eventually lead to expulsion or compulsory withdrawal from membership. Voluntary withdrawal of dissident members is envisaged in the constitutions of several organizations, although special conditions may be prescribed. In many cases withdrawal does not take effect immediately but is subject to a period of notice ranging from a few months to one or more years.

The institutional structure of international organizations is generally based on a division of labour among three different types of organs: (a) a policy-making body in which all members are represented;

(b) an executive or governing body of limited composition; and (c) a largely technical-administrative body made up of international civil servants and headed by a Secretary or Director.

The plenary organ – known usually as the assembly, conference, or congress and meeting at regular intervals ranging from one to several years – is the supreme body. It determines basic policies, adopts recommendations and decisions, draws up conventions and agreements, approves the budget and exercises any other power conferred upon it by the constituent instrument.

The smaller executive organ is usually elected by the plenary body from among its members according to varying criteria – such as the adequate representation of leading members and/or main geographical areas – and meets with relative frequency to ensure continuity of the work of the organization between sessions of the supreme organ. It carries out the directions of the plenary organ and is responsible to it, administers finances, and directs all activities relating to the fulfilment of the tasks of the organization.

The administrative organ, generally known as the secretariat or bureau, is in charge of the practical working of the organization. It performs various administrative, executive, technical and co-ordination functions, centralizes the handling of numerous questions, and collects and disseminates information and statistical data. Members are enjoined to respect the international character of the functions performed by the staff, while the civil servants themselves undertake not to accept instructions from outside authorities. Besides the standard principal organs, most organizations possess other lesser (subsidiary) organs designed to meet specific requirements.

The systems of representation and voting have played a crucial role in the decision-making process of international organizations, especially during periods of acute East–West or North–South confrontation. The basic principle of sovereign equality of all members should naturally lead to the one-country-one-vote procedure that is already enshrined in the constitutions of many organizations. However, in a number of cases, special consideration needs to be given to the different political, economic or financial weight and interests of members in order to ensure some kind of proportional representation. Weighted voting, veto rights and specific majorities – such as the ‘double majority’ introduced by the European Constitutional Treaty –

are among the modes of decision which may be adopted with a view to balancing general equality against particular powers and responsibilities.

The majority principle is generally now applied in the decision-making process of international organizations, and unanimity is hardly ever prescribed, except in a handful of bodies of limited membership. In most organizations the basic voting rule is currently a simple majority of members, although a qualified majority – usually a two-thirds majority of those present and voting – may be required for important matters. None the less, full reliance on the results of formal voting may occasionally prove unrealistic, especially when a massive numerical majority forces through a resolution whose implementation depends largely on the goodwill and participation of a dissenting minority which happens to comprise some of the most important and influential members. More recent practices tend to avoid voting whenever a recorded vote would dramatically divide an organization or aggravate discord among members. Resolutions are therefore adopted, without taking formal votes, by acclamation, without objection, or by consensus. As a rule – and with the exception of supranational organizations – resolutions, recommendations, declarations and decisions are not legally binding upon members. Decisions in the substantive meaning of the term usually may be taken only with regard to the internal affairs of an organization.

It is generally held that international organizations enjoy some measure of international personality and are endowed with such treaty-making power as is necessary for the full performance of their functions. A fairly wide power has been expressly conferred upon the policy-making organs of certain organizations. Besides treaties concluded with both member and non-member countries, relationship and co-ordination agreements with other international organizations (in order, *inter alia*, to avoid unsound competition and duplication of efforts) may assume special relevance.

With a view to enabling them to fulfil their purposes and to exercise their functions in an impartial, independent and efficient manner, international organizations are ordinarily granted various privileges and immunities, such as inviolability of premises and archives; immunity from jurisdiction; freedom from direct taxes and customs duties; freedom of official communications; and special privileges and immunities for representatives of member countries and officials of the organization.

These matters are dealt with in detail by separate agreements which supplement the general provisions contained in basic constitutional texts. Because of their functional basis, privileges and immunities are subject to waiver whenever the interests of an organization are not prejudiced. Questions concerning the status of the headquarters or other offices of an organization are regulated by bilateral agreements with the host country. The location of the headquarters of an organization is normally fixed by the constitution, although on occasion the matter is left undecided for further consideration by members.

As regards budgetary questions, the estimates of future expenditure of an organization are generally prepared by the executive head of the secretariat and submitted for review and approval – either directly or through the executive organ – to the plenary policy-making body. The budget consists of the administrative costs of running the organization (salaries of staff and costs of the various services) plus the expenses incurred as a result of activities undertaken to implement decisions taken by the organization. As a rule, the total amount is apportioned among members on the basis of percentage quotas graduated according to specific criteria such as the relative shares of gross national product (GNP), adjusted to take into account a number of factors, including per capita incomes. Not all expenses are necessarily borne by members, since international organizations may derive an income from sources such as sales or investments. It should also be noted that certain activities may be financed as extra-budgetary programmes supported by voluntary contributions made by members, in addition to normal budgetary commitments.

The eventual dissolution of an international organization and the liquidation of its assets and affairs may be expressly regulated in the constituent instrument. This is generally the case for organizations of a transitional nature or created for a limited period, as well as for financial bodies. It is generally admitted that, even in the absence of any specific provision concerning dissolution, members of an organization are endowed with the implied power to dissolve it. Succession, not necessarily associated with dissolution, takes place when the functions, rights and duties of an organization are transferred wholly or partly to another existing or newly established organization. In a number of cases, the personality of the predecessor continues in the successor.

### **The origin and early development of multilateral institutions**

In the course of history, the inadequacy of the traditional techniques of bilateral diplomacy to solve major problems involving the interests of more than two countries became evident as a result of the steady development of a complex web of relations between different peoples and between their rulers. From this state of affairs originated the international conference, that is the gathering of representatives from several countries to discuss and negotiate the settlement of common problems, normally through the conclusion of a multilateral treaty creating legal obligations for the contracting parties. The great post-war settlements of modern history – from the Peace of Westphalia (1648) and the Final Act of the Congress of Vienna (June 1815) to the Peace Treaties concluded after World War I at Versailles, St Germain, Neuilly (1919) and Trianon (1920) – emanated from international conferences.

After the Napoleonic Wars, the creation in 1815 of a new balance of power system within the 'pentarchy' – the five great powers of Austria, Britain, France, Prussia and Russia – represented a major effort to secure international peace and stability in a multilateral framework. Through the Holy Alliance, concluded in Paris in September 1815, the monarchs of Austria, Prussia and Russia (subsequently joined by other European rulers) committed themselves to govern their subjects 'as fathers of families' according to Christian principles, and to practise solidarity in foreign affairs, holding consultations and regular meetings ('congress system'), in order to safeguard the settlement of Vienna. Although regular congresses were convened only four times (between 1818 and 1822), and European solidarity was weakened by the formation of a 'liberal' bloc (Britain and France) opposed to a 'conservative' bloc (Austria, Prussia and Russia), the 'Concert of Europe' succeeded in surviving recurring tensions between its partners and remained in operation until the outbreak of World War I.

The change from *ad hoc* to standing international conferences constituted another landmark in the development of international organization. From the 1850s, administrative international institutions, at both intergovernmental and non-governmental level, began to grow at a remarkably rapid pace. Hundreds of private international associations or unions were formed during the second half of the nineteenth century and as they spread to cover a

wide variety of fields they paved the way to the establishment of a number of intergovernmental organizations. Of special relevance was the foundation in 1863 in Geneva, where it still has its headquarters, of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), a private institution acting as a neutral intermediary in humanitarian matters during international conflicts, civil wars and other internal disturbances.

The European Commission for the Danube (1856) was endowed with important administrative and legislative functions far wider than those entrusted to similar bodies responsible for other European rivers, such as the Central Commission for the Navigation of the Rhine (1815). Several institutions were charged with co-ordination of the activities of national administrations and/or the performance of supplementary liaison, information and consultation tasks including: the Geodetic Union (1864); the International Telegraph Union (1865), later renamed International Telecommunication Union (ITU); the International Meteorological Organization (1873), later succeeded by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO); the General Postal Union (1874), later renamed Universal Postal Union (UPU); the Metric Union (1875); the International Copyright Union (1886); the Central Office for International Railway Transport (1890); and the United International Bureau for the Protection of Intellectual Property (1893). Besides culture, sciences, transport and communications, intergovernmental co-operation gradually extended to other vital areas at the very beginning of the twentieth century: suffice it to mention the International Office of Public Health, established in 1903, and the International Institute of Agriculture, founded in 1905, which may be viewed as the forerunners of the World Health Organization (WHO) and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO) respectively.

The League of Nations was created in 1919 to promote international co-operation and to achieve world peace and security by ensuring the respect 'for all treaty obligations in the dealings of organized peoples with one another'. In principle it presented a unique opportunity to co-ordinate on a multilateral scale the activities of specialized unions and associations under the supervision of the League itself.

The League Covenant expressly provided that 'there shall be placed under the direction of the League all international bureaux already established by general treaties if the parties to such

treaties consent'. Moreover, 'all such international bureaux and all commissions for the regulation of matters of international interest hereafter constituted shall be placed under the direction of the League'. For a number of reasons, the international bodies that were actually placed under the League's direction were comparatively few – only six, in fact, including the International Commission for Air Navigation (ICAN) and the International Hydrographic Bureau. Close co-ordination links existed with the International Labour Organization (ILO), whose original constitution formed part of the Peace Treaties of 1919 and 1920, and whose connection with the League lasted until the mid-1940s.

The League never attained a truly universal character, its membership being confined mainly to Europe and gravely prejudiced by the non-participation of the US, but its political failure should not lead us to underestimate the importance of its undertakings in several non-political fields, and its overall contribution to the development of international organization as one of the salient features of interstate relations in the twentieth century. The steadily deteriorating political climate of the period after World War I, and major crises in international economic and social affairs substantially reduced the opportunities and prospects for fruitful multilateral collaboration within institutionalized frameworks.

The need to alleviate human suffering throughout the world, complementing the activities of the ICRC, led a number of national Red Cross societies to establish in 1919, in Paris, the League of Red Cross Societies, a non-governmental agency destined to become the forerunner of the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.

The gradual extension of government intervention to nearly all aspects of economic life and the need to protect and insulate national economies plagued by depression, especially in the late 1920s and early 1930s, led to extreme forms of economic nationalism and to the consolidation of major trends away from the basic principles of economic liberalism, such as the introduction of severe measures hampering the international circulation of goods, capital and manpower, the abandonment of the gold standard and the continued manipulation of exchange rates. The World Economic Conferences, held in 1927 and 1933 under the auspices of the League and with the participation of the US, could not prevent the disintegration of the world economy by the outbreak of World War II. The foundation of

the Bank for International Settlements (BIS) in 1930 – with a view to solving, *inter alia*, the German reparations problem – may be regarded as one of the few notable achievements of international organization in the inter-war period. Another significant event was the adoption in 1931 of the Statute of Westminster, which is the basic charter of the modern Commonwealth.

### **The flourishing of global and regional co-operation in the post-1945 world**

The firm commitment of the Allies to reorganize the whole network of international relations in the post-war world on the basis of friendship, co-operation and equal opportunities for all nations was clearly expressed from the early 1940s, well before the end of World War II. The principles of the Atlantic Charter of August 1941 and the Joint Declaration of the United Nations at war (that is, the Allies fighting against the Axis Powers) of January 1942 were subsequently confirmed and supplemented in solemn declarations and treaties of the parties concerned.

As early as November 1943, the representatives of the 44 United Nations at war signed the Agreement establishing the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) to provide assistance to the areas liberated from German domination. In May and June 1943, the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture, held at Hot Springs, Virginia, set up an Interim Commission charged with the responsibility of drawing up the constitution of the FAO. The creation of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) was the outcome of another major United Nations Conference, devoted to monetary and financial problems, summoned at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, in July 1944. The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) was established under a Convention on International Civil Aviation concluded in Chicago in December 1944.

During that period, the features of the global institution to succeed the League of Nations were discussed and subsequently worked out in detail at Dumbarton Oaks, Yalta and San Francisco. At the San Francisco Conference, held between April and June 1945, representatives from 50 countries eventually decided on the structure and mechanisms of the United Nations (UN). The Security Council was entrusted with primary responsibility for the main-

tenance of international peace and security, while the Economic and Social Council, acting under the authority of the General Assembly, was to promote, assist and co-ordinate co-operation in the economic and social fields. The basic goal of a truly comprehensive and lasting peace had to be pursued in all its dimensions – political, economic, social, cultural and humanitarian. With a view to decentralizing the economic and social activities of the UN and making them more responsive to specific needs emerging at regional level, the following UN regional commissions were created between 1947 and 1974 and are currently in operation: the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE); the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC); the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA); the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP); and the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA). The last two bodies replaced the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE).

Functional international co-operation was to play a prominent role within the newly created institutional framework through the Economic and Social Council. Specialized organizations, established by intergovernmental agreements and having wide international responsibilities in economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related fields had to be brought into relationship with the UN which would recognize them as its 'specialized agencies'. In addition to the FAO, IMF, IBRD and ICAO, other important specialized bodies were set up in the second half of the 1940s and entered into relationship agreements, following a similar general pattern, with the UN: the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); the WHO; the WMO; and the Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative Organization (IMCO) later renamed International Maritime Organization (IMO). Similar agreements were also concluded by the UN with older international institutions, such as the UPU and ILO. In order to supplement the lending operations of IBRD and to meet a wider range of needs, with special regard to the developing countries, two more agencies were set up: the International Finance Corporation (IFC), in 1956, and the International Development Association (IDA), in 1960. Together with the IBRD, these two institutions form the World Bank Group to which the International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID) and the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) were added in 1966 and 1988 respectively. Another specialized institution with special

status with the UN is the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), established in 1956 as a result of an International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy.

While the basic principles of post-war monetary and financial co-operation were eventually embodied in the Bretton Woods Agreements on the establishment of the IMF and IBRD, the UN-sponsored plans to set the broad outlines for dealing with international trade issues failed to materialize and the creation of an agency especially responsible for trade matters proved impossible. The Havana Charter of 1948 – intended to serve as the constitution of the abortive International Trade Organization (ITO) – was never ratified by the signatory countries and an interim convention, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), was virtually assigned the heavy task of promoting the gradual abolition of tariff and non-tariff barriers and improving the practices and mechanisms of international commercial relations through multi-lateral negotiations.

The Allies' comprehensive attempt to deal effectively with the vast economic, financial and social problems of the post-war era was largely based on the ideals and principles of economic liberalism rooted in an international structure that had long since ceased to exist. Failure to recognize the full impact of the shift from 'market economies' to 'command economies', and of the underlying forces which were to bring about dramatic changes in the pattern of international relations and the corresponding rules of the game (such as the formation in Eastern Europe of a group of countries within the Soviet sphere of influence and the emergence of scores of assertive developing nations) prevented a more far-sighted approach to the problems of the post-1945 world.

The overall commitment to universality and to an open international trade and monetary system was not seen as an obstacle to the conclusion of arrangements on a regional scale. The nations of the European continent appeared particularly well-suited to that end, once recovery from the devastation caused by World War II had been achieved. The launching in 1947 of the Marshall Plan, open to any country 'willing to assist in the task of recovery', followed by the establishment in 1948 of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC), may be regarded as a turning point in the reconstruction process of the western half of Europe. On the eastern side, the creation in 1949 of

the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA; Comecon) represented the Soviet riposte to the Marshall Plan. The Danube Commission was set up in 1949 to govern navigation on the river in its various aspects. On a broad political plane, the appeal of European unity stimulated the creation of the Council of Europe which, according to the Statute signed in 1949, was intended to safeguard the common heritage as well as to facilitate the economic and social progress of the member countries. In 1952 Scandinavian countries established the Nordic Council, an organ for consultation between national parliaments and governments.

The rapprochement of wartime enemies in continental Europe found a most significant expression in the signature, in 1951, of the Treaty setting up the earliest of the European Communities, the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), by the representatives of the 'Six' – that is, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, and the Benelux countries. The cornerstone of today's reunited Europe was thus laid thanks to the initiative of visionary leaders such as Robert Schuman and Jean Monnet in France, Konrad Adenauer in Germany, Alcide De Gasperi in Italy and Paul-Henri Spaak in Belgium.

The Treaties of Rome establishing the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) completed in 1957 the institutional framework for economic co-operation between the 'Six'. Following a British initiative, other European countries (the 'Seven') that were not prepared to accept the far-reaching political and economic objectives of the 'Six' founded, in 1960, the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), largely conceived as an interim counterpart to the European Communities.

In 1960, the OEEC, which had virtually fulfilled its basic task of assisting in the reconstruction of Western Europe, was succeeded by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The OECD had a larger membership than its predecessor, notably with the participation of Canada and the US as full members, and broader aims, such as the achievement of the highest sustainable growth and the promotion of sound economic expansion in member as well as non-member countries in the process of economic development.

On the defence side, as a response to growing Cold War tensions, the North Atlantic Treaty, signed in 1949 by the representatives of Canada, the US, and ten European nations, provided for mutual assistance should any one contracting party be

attacked. In fact, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) appeared far more adequate from the standpoint of regional security than the Brussels Treaty Organization, established in 1948 by the Benelux countries, France and the UK. In 1954, following the rejection by the French National Assembly of the 1952 Treaty on the European Defence Community (EDC), a number of protocols were signed in order to transform the Brussels Treaty Organization into the Western European Union (WEU), with the inclusion of the Federal Republic of Germany and Italy as full members.

Exports of strategic goods and technology that would contribute significantly to the military potential of socialist countries were to be kept under close control by the Co-ordinating Committee for Multilateral Export Controls (Cocom) established by the US and its NATO partners in 1949.

The participation of the Federal Republic of Germany in the Western security system and the need to supplement bilateral military treaties prompted the USSR and its Eastern European allies to establish a joint military command under the Warsaw Pact of 1955, which obliged contracting parties to assist each other to meet any armed attack on one or more of them in Europe.

International co-operation on a regional or subregional scale also materialized outside Europe. In this connection, the western hemisphere offered several examples of varying kinds and levels of co-operation. The foundation of the Organization of American States (OAS) in 1948 represented a milestone in the gradual development of pan-American policies involving all independent countries of the continent, with the exception of Canada. Three years later, a subregional agency, the Organization of Central American States (ODECA), was set up by five nations of the area.

The achievements of the European Communities induced Latin American countries to concentrate their co-operation efforts on trade and financial issues. As a result, the Central American Common Market (CACM) and the Latin American Free Trade Association (LAFTA) were formed in 1960 to establish, by stages, subregional or regional 'common markets'. Development financing problems were to be dealt with on a continental scale by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), set up in 1959 with the inclusion of the US as full member, and on a subregional scale by the Central American Bank for Economic Integration (CABEL), established in 1960. Regarding the Caribbean specifically, an agreement

establishing a subregional institution, the Caribbean Organization, was signed in 1960. To deal with the often serious liquidity problems of a number of debtor countries, mostly Latin American, the Paris Club was set up in 1956 as an informal forum where developing countries unable to meet their official debt servicing obligations could negotiate a settlement with industrial creditor countries.

In 1945, representatives of independent Arab countries signed the Pact of the League of Arab States (Arab League), an important though institutionally loose association favouring political and economic unity among member countries and promoting the adoption of common policies *vis-à-vis* non-member countries, notably on Middle Eastern issues. Another body, the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO), developed in 1955 out of the 'Baghdad Pact' between Iraq and Turkey, and was subsequently enlarged to include Iran, Pakistan and the UK. Co-operation on military and political questions was expressly envisaged, without involving any mandatory form of mutual assistance. With a view to developing mutual economic links, the Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD) was established by Iran, Pakistan and Turkey in 1964.

In the Asian and Pacific region, various inter-governmental organizations had come into being from the early 1950s, especially in the fields of collective self-defence, economic co-operation and development assistance. The Security Treaty concluded in 1951 between Australia, New Zealand and the US, generally known as the ANZUS Pact, was intended to ensure mutual assistance should any signatory country be the victim of 'an armed attack in the Pacific area'. A more far-reaching collective security pact was signed in 1954 with a view to defending non-member countries in Indo-China and providing for the establishment of the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO).

A very loose association for broad consultation on economic and social matters, the South Pacific Commission (SPC), was founded in 1947 by six countries with dependent territories in the area. The Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic Development in South and Southeast Asia was launched in 1951 in order to provide capital and technical training to Asian countries closely associated with the UK. Both the membership and scope of the Colombo Plan were subsequently enlarged to include donor and recipient countries outside the Commonwealth.

The decolonization of Africa reached its climax

in 1960 but the association of the newly independent African countries with different and often rival political groups delayed the constitution of a truly pan-African institution – the Organization of African Unity (OAU) – until 1963. The new regional institution was endowed with wide competence, despite its relatively weak institutional mechanism.

The foundations for a far-reaching change in the international political setting were laid in April 1955, when the leaders of 29 nations from the African and Asian continents meeting in Bandung, Indonesia, condemned colonialism, racial discrimination and atomic weapons, and refused to be politically or militarily associated with either the West or the Soviet bloc, thereby emerging as a third force in world affairs. The formal adoption of a ‘non-aligned’ attitude towards the Cold War confrontation between East and West was the outcome of the first Conference of the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) held in September 1961 in Belgrade, notwithstanding differences between moderate and anti-Western states. The 25 countries (mainly Afro-Asian) participating in the Belgrade summit meeting were shortly to be joined by Latin American countries, an event of the highest significance for the future of North–South relations.

Another significant event at the level of inter-governmental co-operation took place in 1960 when a group of oil exporting countries set up a cartel to regulate production and pricing of oil in the world market – the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), destined to play a leading role in the 1970s.

### **The North–South confrontation and the challenges of economic development**

The political and economic events from the early 1960s to the end of the decade emphasized the need for a fresh approach to some basic problems of international organization, either by adapting existing institutions or by establishing further bodies in order to respond effectively to new situations, especially in the developing world. The UN itself had to change greatly – not only because of the dramatic increase in membership – in order to meet many pressing needs through the improvement of ‘special help’ activities for children, refugees and disaster victims, and to respond to a variety of problems through initiatives ranging from promotion of a new international economic order to the encouragement of sound environmental practices, campaigns against the remnants of colonialism and apartheid,

and the negotiation of treaties and other agreements on matters of global concern, such as the seas and outer space. A new specialized agency, the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO), entered into relationship with the UN.

The co-operative efforts of the UN and related agencies in the economic and social sphere were expanded and streamlined, priority being given to problems having a direct bearing on the conditions of the poorest segments of society within the framework of the UN Development Decades.

The special problems of trade in relation to development were entrusted to the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), established in 1964 as a permanent organ of the UN General Assembly. Growing emphasis on direct field activities led to the creation in 1965 of the UN Development Programme (UNDP) as the world’s largest channel for multilateral technical and pre-investment co-operation. The UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) was set up in 1966 to foster and accelerate the industrial development of developing countries. With respect to food problems, the World Food Programme (WFP) was founded in 1963, under the joint sponsorship of the UN and FAO, with a view to providing aid in the form of food. Financial resources for technical co-operation activities in the population field were provided through the UN Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), created in 1967 and later renamed the UN Population Fund but keeping the old acronym.

For their part, the specialized agencies in relation with the UN were increasingly focusing on the promotion of sustained growth over the long term, with special regard to the needs of the poorer countries.

On the other hand, expenditure on arms and armies continued to grow throughout the world, consuming huge material and human resources that might have been employed for development purposes. In 1969, in an effort to slow and reverse the arms race, the UN General Assembly proclaimed the 1970s as a Disarmament Decade but little or no progress was actually made, despite a number of international agreements for the limitation and regulation of armaments.

The growing solidarity between developing countries and the ensuing pursuit of a unified approach to North–South issues represented one of the most significant features of international relations to emerge in the 1960s.

The cohesion of developing nations acquired a

concrete operational meaning through the consultation and co-ordination procedures carried out within the NAM with regard to broad political issues and within the Group of Seventy-Seven (G-77) – which was founded at the time of the first session of UNCTAD in 1964 and took its name from the number of signatories to a declaration of common aims – with regard to economic issues and multilateral negotiations. In fact, owing to the relatively high degree of overlap in membership, it became possible for the two groups to establish an original form of ‘division of labour’ in advancing development goals.

One of the earliest successes for developing countries was the establishment of the Generalized System of Preferences (GSP). After negotiation on the principles of the GSP between 1968 and 1970 within the UNCTAD framework, national preference schemes were put into operation by virtually all developed countries in order to help developing countries to expand their exports of manufactured goods.

Co-operation at the regional and subregional level made significant progress in the 1960s, in a relatively favourable international setting characterized by fairly high rates of growth of income in developed market-economy countries and of world trade, coupled with a reduction in international tension gradually leading to East–West *détente*.

In Western Europe, the EEC experiment progressed swiftly, achieving, *inter alia*, a customs union and free movement of workers between the ‘Six’, and developing step by step the essentials of the highly controversial Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). Within the CMEA area, efforts to improve monetary and financial relations eventually materialized in the foundation of the International Bank for Economic Co-operation (IBEC) in 1963, and the International Investment Bank (IIB) in 1970.

In Latin America, an important step was made in 1967 by the signing of the Treaty of Tlatelolco which prohibited nuclear weapons in the region and established the Agency for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America and the Caribbean (OPANAL) as the institution responsible for ensuring compliance with the obligations arising from the Treaty itself. Besides creating the first nuclear-weapon-free zone in a densely populated area, the Treaty was the first arms control agreement whose implementation had to be verified by an international organization. On the plane of economic integration, LAFTA’s failure to establish a common market on the European

model induced Andean countries to form a subregional group of their own in 1969, the Andean Group based on the Cartagena Agreement. A limited but promising form of co-operation was inaugurated by the River Plate Basin Treaty, signed in 1969 and aiming to develop physical integration between countries drained by the River Plate and its tributaries.

After the dissolution of the Caribbean Organization in 1965, a Caribbean Free Trade Association (CARIFTA), following the patterns of LAFTA and EFTA, was set up in 1968. An autonomous financial body, the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB), was established in the following year.

In Africa, widespread dissatisfaction with the course followed by the OAU in handling highly sensitive issues such as the Congo crisis prompted a group of French-speaking African countries to form in 1965 the African and Malagasy Common Organization (OCAM) as an agency for promoting economic, social, technical and cultural development. Given the fact that small subregional groupings seemed to offer far more favourable prospects for co-operation in the economic and financial sphere, a number of intergovernmental organizations were founded, such as the Maghreb Permanent Consultative Committee, the Customs Union of West African States (UDEAO), the Customs and Economic Union of Central Africa (UDEAC) and the short-lived Economic Community of East Africa. On a continental scale, the African Development Bank (AfDB) was established in 1963 and entrusted with the task of dealing with development financing problems.

In the Asian and Pacific region, a significant achievement was the establishment in 1967 of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) to encourage subregional co-ordination and co-operation in economic, social and cultural matters and to ensure political stability. In 1965 the Asian Development Bank (AsDB) had been created to serve as the region’s development financing body.

### **Institutional responses to the economic, monetary and energy crises of the 1970s**

The monetary events of 1971 – the suspension of the convertibility of the dollar into gold and its subsequent devaluation – represented a turning point in the history of international monetary relations and radically altered the conditions under which the IMF had been operating since its foundation. A

system of floating exchange rates gradually emerged, encouraging speculation, increasing economic uncertainty and instability, and seriously threatening the orderly development of world trade. The monetary turmoil was accompanied by rising prices for such essentials as food and fuel, notably oil under OPEC's pressure, and growing burdens of debt and trade imbalances.

The steady progression of the economic crisis had a substantial impact on the growth rates and development programmes of developing countries, with depressed prices for exports of primary commodities (other than oil), soaring prices for imports of manufactured goods, reduced flows of official development assistance (ODA) from industrial countries, high interest rates, limited access to international capital markets, and sharp aggravation of the external debt problem. In the developed countries, renewed protectionist pressures gradually led to the adoption of narrow and generally short-sighted nationalistic policies. It therefore became virtually impossible to deal effectively, in an integral and co-ordinated manner, with the vital questions concerning international trade and the global relationship between developing and developed countries.

At the political level, rising international tension in an ambience of escalating superpower antagonism and regional conflicts prepared the crisis of *détente*. In 1976, the limited achievements of the first Disarmament Decade prompted the UN General Assembly to convene a special session, devoted entirely to the question of disarmament, which was held in 1978.

By the mid-1970s the increased awareness of the structural character of the rigidities and maladjustments of world trade and financial systems led to a drastic reappraisal of development policies and priorities. In the aftermath of the 'oil shock' of 1973, widespread concern that the experience of OPEC might encourage the producers of other commodities to form cartels to improve their terms of trade with the industrialized world contributed to creating a new responsiveness on the part of the developed consumer countries. In May 1974, the UN General Assembly held a special session on the problems of raw materials and development and called for the establishment of a 'New International Economic Order', involving a reshaping of the world's trade and financial relations. As a further step, in December of the same year, the General Assembly adopted the Charter of Economic Rights

and Duties of States. The Declarations and Action Programmes adopted by members of the G-77 at their pre-UNCTAD Ministerial Meetings presented ideas and proposals with a view to addressing the more difficult and less tractable structural problems related to trade and development.

To face the food crisis situations that had developed in several parts of the world, a major effort was launched within the UN framework. The World Food Conference, held in November 1974, led to the creation of the World Food Council (WFC) in December of the same year, to co-ordinate policies and activities affecting the world food situation, and of the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), in June 1976, to mobilize additional financial resources to help developing countries improve their food production and nutrition. The UN Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS) – recently transformed into the UN Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT) – was set up by the General Assembly in 1978 to serve as a focal point for reviewing and co-ordinating human settlements activities.

On the institutional plane, a response to the first big escalation in oil prices was launched by most of the West's oil-importing countries in 1974 through the creation of the International Energy Agency (IEA), aimed at promoting stability in world energy markets as well as security of supplies. To discuss the economic crisis caused by the oil-price shock, the Heads of State and Government of the six largest industrial democracies (France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the UK and the US) met at Rambouillet, France, in November 1975. In the following summit, held in June 1976 in Puerto Rico, the Prime Minister of Canada also took part and the Group of Seven (G-7) officially came into being.

On the pan-European scale, a breakthrough in the process of *détente* was achieved by the signing, in August 1975 in Helsinki, of the Final Act of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE) with the participation of 33 European countries, the US and Canada. Not only did the Conference sanction the political and territorial status quo in Europe, fulfilling a longstanding Soviet aspiration, but also introduced in the East-West relationship a human rights dimension whose practical impact far exceeded Western expectations.

As regards Western European co-operation, an event of paramount importance was the accession as full members to the European Communities of Denmark, Ireland and the UK in January 1973.

The Latin American Economic System (SELA) was set

up in 1975 to advance mutual trade and co-operation, while respecting and supporting pre-existing arrangements, and to co-ordinate members' policies *vis-à-vis* non-member countries and international organizations. At the subregional level, the Amazon Co-operation Treaty (Amazon Pact), concluded in July 1978, provided a multilateral framework for promoting the harmonious socio-economic development of the respective Amazon territories of the member countries. Other forms of co-operation emerged in specific sectors, such as the Latin American Energy Organization (OLADE), created in 1973. In the Caribbean, a new body endowed with broader competences and having wider aims – the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) – replaced CARIFTA in 1973.

In Africa, reorganization efforts resulted in the foundation in 1973 of the West African Economic Community (CEAO), replacing UDEAO, and in 1975 in the establishment of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). An Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL) was formed in 1976. The first Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference (SADCC) was held in 1979 and laid the foundations for closer co-operation among majority-ruled states in the subregion.

Arab oil-exporting countries decided to use part of their revenue to help developing nations to face the impact of oil price rises by channelling substantial resources for the implementation of infrastructural, industrial and agricultural projects through financial institutions and development agencies: the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (BADEA), created in 1974, and the Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development (AFESD), which began operations in 1973, were among the most important bodies in the field.

A large body with general competence, the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC), embracing the overwhelming majority of Islamic countries, was set up in 1971 to encourage effective solidarity and mutual assistance in all vital fields.

The South Pacific Bureau for Economic Co-operation (SPEC) was formed in 1973 to promote regional co-operation for development, following a recommendation by the South Pacific Forum (SPF), created in 1971. On the regional defence side, in 1975 new conditions prompted the remaining member countries to decide to phase out SEATO, which could no longer fulfil its collective security function in Southeast Asia.

### **The weakening of multilateralism and the emerging problems of the 1980s**

With the aggravation and deepening of the world economic crisis, several unfavourable developments emerged in the late 1970s and early 1980s. A steadily deteriorating political environment and the commitment of massive resources to armaments of unparalleled destructive capability compounded the economic difficulties manifested in the sluggish growth of developed and developing countries alike, high unemployment, and the widespread resurgence of inflation. In the developed countries, increasing demands for government intervention to protect specific sectors from external competition and to subsidize ailing industries led to the introduction of new trade barriers and extensive use of quotas and 'voluntary' export restraints. The dangerous weakening of the fabric of multilateralism and of the corresponding institutional system adversely affected negotiating processes in virtually every international forum.

The beginnings of an economic recovery from the international recession of the early 1980s first became noticeable in the US. The accelerated pace of American economic activity in 1983, sustained by rapid expansion of domestic demand, laid a sound basis for stronger output growth and slower inflation rates in other Western countries. By the mid-1980s, although the overall rate of expansion had become less rapid, the recovery was spreading increasingly if unevenly to the developing countries, with beneficial effects on both the external position and domestic economic growth. The predominant themes of international debate revolved around the arms race, world trade and financial flows, and the external debt of developing countries. The Paris Club, although initially slow to respond to the debt crisis, eventually agreed on new 'terms' for official debt reduction, taking into account the special needs of low-income countries.

The fortieth anniversary of the UN in 1985 seemed to offer one more occasion to analyse the complex interrelationships of key policy issues which, although viewed from different perspectives by various countries and groups of countries, were of universal concern. Grave questions were raised about the value of the UN system and the general effectiveness of multilateral co-operation – making all the more arduous the search for a co-ordinated response to the new generation of global problems, in relation to both world peace and the world economy. In 1983 the interrelationship of trade, finance,

payments and development, in an international context of sharpened interdependence, was once more emphasized both in the Message for Dialogue and Consensus adopted by the G-77 (including 127 members) in Buenos Aires and in the New Delhi Message and the Economic Declaration of the Heads of State and Government of NAM countries (numbering 101).

On a global plane, noting the crucial importance of continuing efforts to achieve general and complete disarmament under effective international control, the UN General Assembly, meeting in 1980, declared the 1980s as the Second Disarmament Decade and decided to hold the Second Special Session on Disarmament in 1982. However, it did not prove possible to reach agreement on any specific course of action designed to halt and reverse the arms race throughout the world.

In 1980 the General Assembly adopted the International Development Strategy for the Third Development Decade, setting out general goals and objectives and a series of policy measures. Despite a general perception of the crucial links between commodities and the development process and the adoption in 1976 of the ambitious Integrated Programme for Commodities (IPC), primary commodity markets continued to be volatile, showing a marked increase in certain cases. The need to provide special help for the particularly disadvantaged developing countries (the least developed, land-locked and island countries) led to the convening in Paris in 1981 of the Conference on the Least Developed Countries. The Substantial New Programme of Action (SNPA) for the 1980s, calling for considerable expansion of financial and technical assistance, was approved.

In 1985 the launching of a new GATT round of multilateral trade negotiations appeared to open up prospects of curbing protectionist tendencies and strengthening the trading system. In this context the Cairns Group was formed in 1986 by 14 countries, developed as well as developing, to bring about reforms in international agricultural trade and to represent members' interests in GATT negotiations.

On the financial side, increased flows of concessional assistance became of the utmost priority to low-income countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. A broad consensus emerged on the need to expand the World Bank's lending programme, with a view to meeting more adequately the demands of borrowing member countries and providing further impulses for generating capital flows from other

sources. Substantial financial assistance was provided by the IMF to countries undertaking adjustment programmes, while developed countries were encouraged to enlarge their ODA contributions. The IMF experienced an unprecedented net use of its resources, but by the mid-1980s net drawings began to subside, partly due to an improvement in the payments positions of the developing countries.

Within the UN system, a significant event took place in 1985 when UNIDO eventually became a specialized agency. The long-term trend towards an increase in membership of UN specialized agencies was confirmed in the first half of the 1980s by the admission of several countries. However, unfortunate developments affected UNESCO, with the withdrawals of the US, the UK and Singapore.

At regional and subregional levels, a number of significant events took place. In Western Europe, the enlargement process of the European Communities continued: Greece became the tenth member of the Communities in January 1981, followed by Portugal and Spain in January 1986. The first major revision of the European Treaties occurred in 1986 with the adoption of the Single European Act (SEA), entered into force in July 1987, extending the scope of qualified majority voting and laying the foundations for European Political Co-operation (EPC).

In Latin America, plans originally aimed at reorganizing LAFTA's mechanism eventually resulted in the creation in 1980 of a new region-wide institution, the Latin American Integration Association (LAIA), based on a tariff preference and regional and partial scope agreements. In Central America, political and social conflicts, complicated by the economic recession, adversely affected attempts to revive the integration process. In the Caribbean, seven small island countries set up the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) in 1981 to foster economic co-operation and to defend their territorial integrity and independence. The new body was to play a role in the American intervention in Grenada in October 1983.

In the face of growing threats to regional stability, in 1981 the Arab oil-producing countries on the western side of the Gulf created the Co-operation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf, generally known as Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC), to strengthen mutual political and economic solidarity.

In Africa, two new bodies were formed in the early 1980s: the Economic Community of Central African

States (ECCAS) aiming to foster economic and financial integration; and the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern Africa (PTA), with the prospect of establishing an Economic Community within the region. In West Africa, little of substance was achieved after the establishment of ECOWAS. In early 1985, the remaining members of OCAM decided on the dissolution of the organization.

A new organization with wide political and economic objectives was founded by India, Pakistan and five other countries at the end of 1985: the South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC), the first significant experience in a region that had no institutional machinery of its own to promote full-scale co-operation.

In the Pacific, the ANZUS crisis, arising from the sharply diverging views of the US and New Zealand on the use of nuclear warships, deeply affected the operation of the security pact. In order to foster a mutually beneficial expansion of free trade between them, Australia and New Zealand concluded in 1983 the Australia-New Zealand Closer Economic Relations Trade Agreement (ANZCERTA or CER). The arrangement, despite its bilateral nature, may be viewed as a stepping stone to greater trade liberalization *vis-à-vis* non-member countries in the wider Asia-Pacific region and beyond.

### **Old and new international organizations from the end of the Cold War to the early twenty-first century**

The almost abrupt end of the bipolar world, initiated with the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989, altered deep-rooted patterns that had inspired the theory and practice of international organizations for several decades. In the early years of the post-Cold-War era, the UN seemed bound to assume, for the first time in history, the role for which it was originally conceived, fostering genuine co-operation in an increasingly interdependent world sharing the same fundamental values and willing to adopt the collective measures necessary to guarantee peace and security. However, against initial expectations, the transformation of the Organization turned out to be a lengthy and painful process. The commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of the UN in 1995 took place amid renewed calls for reform, notably of the Security Council, and grave financial difficulties, despite the widespread awareness of the need for a world body to face the threats and challenges defying the powers of individual countries.

In 1996 criticism of the then Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali by several major contributors to the UN budget – notably the US – brought about the appointment of a new Secretary-General, Kofi Annan of Ghana, who took office in January 1997 for a five-year mandate, subsequently renewed for a second term. The streamlining of the UN Secretariat, undertaken by the newly appointed Secretary-General with a view to narrowing ‘the gap between aspiration and accomplishment’, gave birth to a ‘downsized’ and more efficient structure.

Among major UN conferences and meetings, mention may be made of the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand, the World Summit for Children held in New York (1990), the Second (1990) Conference on the Least Developed Countries in Paris, the 1992 Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, the 1993 World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna followed by a further Conference in 1997, the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo, the 1995 World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen, the 1995 World Conference on Women in Beijing, the 1996 Conference on Human Settlements in Istanbul, the 1996 World Food Summit in Rome, the Conference on International Trafficking of Children for Prostitution in 2000, and the World Conference against Racism in 2001. Following the recommendations of the 1993 World Conference on Human Rights, the Office of UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) was established by the General Assembly and the first High Commissioner was appointed in 1994.

As a response to the growing need to prosecute persons responsible for mass violations of international humanitarian law, the Security Council set up, in the early 1990s, the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) and the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR). The widely shared goal of establishing a permanent body to prosecute crimes against humanity was eventually achieved through the creation of the International Criminal Court (ICC) whose Statute was adopted on 17 July 1998, in Rome, at the conclusion of the specially-convened UN Diplomatic Conference.

In 1995, the International Seabed Authority (ISA), established under the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) and charged with overseeing all exploring and exploiting activities in the international seabed area, was set up in Kingston, Jamaica.

The International Tribunal on the Law of the Sea and the Commission on the Continental Shelf, also provided for by UNCLOS, began operating in 1996. A new international disarmament body was established in 1997 when the 1993 Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons (CWC) entered into force. According to the CWC, the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) came into being to ensure the implementation of the relevant provisions, including the verification of international compliance.

The decision reached at the UN to extend indefinitely the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons represented a major step, followed by the adoption by the General Assembly, in September 1996, of a Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty forbidding any nuclear weapon test explosion or any other nuclear explosion. When the Treaty enters into force, the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty Organization (CTBTO) will be set up in Vienna.

Since the attacks of 11 September 2001, practically all major international organizations have strengthened already existing agreements to combat terrorism and introduced new and more effective instruments and measures. The UN was among the first to act through the establishment, by the Security Council, of the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC) that, in spite of several difficulties, is playing a far from negligible role of control and supervision. On the financial side, the need became manifest to stop the misuse of the international financial system by terrorist organizations. The mission of the Financial Action Task Force on Money Laundering (FATF), already established in 1989, was thus extended, in October 2001, to include terrorist financing.

The end of the centrally planned system throughout most of the former 'socialist camp' brought about an 'economic realignment' demanding urgent and appropriate policy responses from the whole UN system, especially from international financial institutions. The IMF and the World Bank thus became, in an incredibly short period of time, the truly universal institutions envisioned by their founders and had to face new tasks calling into question their traditional role.

Support was provided to the programme of debt and debt-service reduction; besides the settlement of official debt within the framework of the Paris Club, both the World Bank and the IMF continued

to be actively involved in the negotiation of packages between debtors and commercial banks. One major challenge facing the Bretton Woods institutions was the daunting task of helping the Central and Eastern European countries as well as the republics of the erstwhile USSR make the massive changes in their institutional and regulatory framework necessary to establish open market-based economies in a relatively short time. The transition to a market-oriented system proved far from easy and dramatic drops in living standards occurred in a number of countries. The newly independent republics of the former USSR (with the exception of the three Baltic countries) established, in the early 1990s, the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) as a framework for promoting co-operation in a variety of fields.

Integration into the world economy and its institutions was actively pursued by transition countries, especially after the conclusion of the Uruguay Round negotiations in Marrakesh in April 1994 and the establishment, in January 1995, of the World Trade Organization (WTO) as a successor to GATT with wider powers and functions. In the light of the new risks to regional and global security and stability resulting from the uncontrolled transfer of conventional armaments and dual-use items, major powers concluded in 1995 the Wassenaar Arrangement (WA), superseding the old Cocom system focused on East-West control of advanced technology. The Cairns Group, which represented a largely successful pressure group of agricultural exporters during the Uruguay Round negotiations, continued its activities within the WTO framework to liberalize agricultural trade.

The attempted restoration of globalism with the creation of WTO may clash with the proliferation throughout the world of regional and subregional arrangements for co-operation and integration. The view seems to be widely held, in fact, that regional arrangements cannot become a substitute for a strong multilateral trading system. As a matter of fact, the 'new regionalism' goes far beyond the traditional areas of trade concessions and economic co-operation to embrace political and security goals.

The follow-up to the Uruguay Round of trade talks was scheduled to take place in Seattle in late November 1999 with the third Ministerial Conference of WTO. However, the growing hostility of significant sectors of civil society to the ongoing globalization and liberalization process and the inability of the four largest members (Canada, the

EU, Japan and the US) to compromise on even a minimal accord ultimately caused the suspension of the Conference and the failure of what was expected to be the WTO's 'Millennium Round'. A new three-year round of trade talks was launched at the WTO Ministerial Conference held in Doha, Qatar, in November 2001. Although the Doha Declaration set 1 January 2005 as the date for completing negotiations, the deadline very soon proved utterly unrealistic.

The commitment of a growing number of countries to a market economy and a pluralistic democracy had an impact also on the membership of the OECD which expanded to include countries in Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America and East Asia.

The developing countries made their voice heard through the traditional channels of the G-77 and NAM. The latter, despite the end of the era of rigid 'alignments', has continued to meet at regular intervals, modifying its previous highly confrontational stance. A major change of attitude has also characterized the G-77, which continues to be active in international forums.

The Commonwealth expanded its membership with the entry of Namibia in 1990, and Cameroon and Mozambique in 1995; the entry of non-English-speaking Mozambique represented a special case finding its explanation in that country's close association with neighbouring Commonwealth nations during the anti-apartheid struggle. Moreover, a number of former special members of the Commonwealth have seen their status upgraded to full membership.

A lusophone commonwealth was born in July 1996, in Lisbon, with the establishment of the Community of Portuguese Speaking Countries (CPLP), aimed at reinforcing the cultural, political and economic links between member countries as well as their influence in international institutions and forums. As regards French-speaking countries, the Agency for Cultural and Technical Cooperation (ACCT), originally established in 1970, has been gradually strengthened and ultimately transformed, giving birth to the International Organization of the Francophonie in 1997.

On the pan-European and transatlantic level, a stronger CSCE – renamed since January 1995 the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) – emerged as an important body for political and security consultation and co-ordination, including long-term missions in troubled areas and supervision of elections and referendums. The basic

foundations for future action had already been defined in the 'Charter of Paris for a New Europe', adopted at the November 1990 CSCE summit in Paris, stressing the commitment of all parties to democracy based on human rights and fundamental freedoms and prosperity through economic liberty. The challenges of pan-European co-operation require either new institutions, such as the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) set up in 1991, or new missions for existing agencies from NATO to the Council of Europe to the European Communities. The participation of NATO members and of their former adversaries of the Warsaw Pact in the North Atlantic Co-operation Council (NACC), established in December 1991, was just an example of the radical transformations going on in Europe. The Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme, launched in 1994 and based on the wider political dialogue initiated through NACC, opened up new avenues for military co-operation and joint participation in peacekeeping missions between NATO members and former Warsaw Pact signatories and traditionally 'neutral' countries in Europe. The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) succeeded NACC in May 1997 to provide for an expanded political and security dimension of consultation and co-operation among participating countries. But the major event for NATO and security in the North Atlantic region was the admission as full members, in 1999, of three former Warsaw Pact countries, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland. The enlargement of NATO was immediately followed by military intervention of the Alliance which launched an aerial offensive against the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The enlargement progress continued on a greater scale in 2004 with the entry into NATO of seven more countries of Central and Eastern Europe and further invitations to membership are likely to be issued over the next few years.

The Council of Europe practically doubled its membership in a relatively short period of time, creating an area of democratic security throughout the whole of Europe and strengthening standards in a number of fields, such as the protection of minorities and human rights defence.

In Western Europe, the EC completed the single market by the end of 1992, while the Maastricht Treaty, in force since November 1993, created the European Union (EU) based on the now-famous three pillar structure. The third major revision of the European Treaties, after the SEA and the Maastricht

Treaty, took place with the Treaty of Amsterdam signed in October 1997 and in force since November 1999. The Amsterdam Treaty strengthened the powers of the European Parliament, introduced new rules on social policy and incorporated into the EC Treaty what had already been achieved under the Schengen Agreement 'on the gradual abolition of controls at the common frontiers'.

By January 1995, the total membership of the EU had grown to 15 with the admission of Austria, Finland and Sweden. With the entry of most of its founders into the EU, EFTA remained with only four countries: Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.

The EU rapidly became a source of attraction and inspiration also for the former members of CMEA, officially dissolved in 1991, along with its military counterpart, the Warsaw Pact. Accession negotiations, opened between the EU and countries of Central and Eastern Europe in the 1990s, culminated in the entry in May 2004 of ten new members followed by two more countries in 2007 thus bringing the total number of EU participants to 27. The Treaty of Nice, agreed upon by the IGC in December 2000, had paved the way for the enlargement. At the Laeken European Council, in December 2001, the decision was taken to set up a Convention to consider the key issues arising for the EU's future development. The product of the Convention, that is the draft treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe, was submitted to a new IGC that eventually approved the 448-article document in June 2004. Despite the official signature of the Constitution on 29 October 2004, ratification proved unfeasible and a more modest 'Reform Treaty' is expected to be ready before the next European Parliament elections scheduled to take place in June 2009.

While the 'old' organizations are striving to adapt their objectives and functions to the challenges of a fast-changing European architecture, new subregional organizations, focused on specific issues and with loose institutional frameworks, are being established on the periphery of Europe; suffice it to mention the Organization of the Black Sea Economic Co-operation (BSEC) set up in 1992, the Council of the Baltic Sea States (CBSS) also inaugurated in 1992, and the Barents Euro-Arctic Council (BEAC), launched in 1993. In Central Europe, the former 'Visegrád countries' have been joined by neighbouring countries to form the Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA). For its part, the Central

European Initiative (CEI), whose origins date back to the 'Quadrilateral' established in late 1989 by Austria, Hungary, Italy and the then Yugoslavia, has grown to a remarkable extent, embracing countries of the Adriatic, the Danube and the Baltic. Co-operation and stability in the Balkan region are being pursued, mainly at the initiative of the EU, through a variety of instruments such as the Southeast European Co-operation Process (SEECOP), the Southeast European Co-operative Initiative (SECI), and the Stability Pact for Southeastern Europe. Among the most recent additions to the growing panoply of subregional bodies is the GUUAM Group, a political, economic and strategic alliance among five former Soviet republics in Europe and Asia formally established in 2001 and subsequently restructured and renamed GUAM Organization for Democracy and Economic Development in 2006.

In the western hemisphere, significant events have been taking place in both North and South America. Canada, the US and Mexico signed in December 1992 the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which came into force in January 1994 and might eventually embrace other countries in Central and South America. The declaration adopted in December 1994 in Miami by the Summit of the Americas called for negotiations to construct a Free Trade Area of the Americas (FTAA) 'in which barriers to trade and investment will be progressively eliminated'. However, negotiations on FTAA, in principle extending from Anchorage to Tierra del Fuego, suffered grave setbacks and the ambitious project has practically been shelved.

After the serious difficulties met in the 1980s by Latin American experiments in economic integration, a new awareness of the benefits of closer co-operation seems to have emerged. In Central America, the members of CACM approved in December 1991 the creation of a new organization, the Central American Integration System (SICA), to co-ordinate efforts towards political and economic integration. The Andean Group countries, for their part, decided to revitalize their co-operation and integration schemes by signing the Act of Trujillo establishing the Andean Community. A fresh attempt to launch co-operation among all countries in the Caribbean was undertaken in July 1994 with the founding agreement of the Association of Caribbean States (ACS) among members of CARICOM, the Group of Three (G-3), consisting at the time of Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela, and other countries in the region. A permanent mechanism for

political consultation created in 1986, the Rio Group, provides a framework for the external relations of the continent, particularly with the EU. The countries of Mercosur – Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay – have pursued their liberalization efforts and signed in December 1994 the Protocol of Ouro Preto, amending the founding Treaty of Asunción of 1991.

With regard to denuclearization, several amendments to the Tlatelolco Treaty were approved in August 1992, with a view to propitiating the full incorporation of Argentina, Brazil and Chile, which eventually became full members of OPANAL in early 1994.

In Africa, efforts are continuing to build up institutional mechanisms in the prospect of enhanced co-operation in the southern part of the continent, with the participation of the Republic of South Africa. A treaty for the establishment of an African Economic Community was adopted by the OAU Assembly in 1991; the Community was expected to promote economic integration of the African countries in six phases over a period of 34 years. In 2001 the decision was taken to transform the OAU into a stronger and more effective African Union (AU). Also in 2001 a wide-ranging initiative, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), was launched. The SADCC, established to reduce the dependence of the front-line states on South Africa, met the challenge of a wider co-operation effort incorporating the new democratic South Africa and gave way in 1992 to the Southern African Development Community (SADC). The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) has been the result of the transformation in 1993 of the PTA. A new body was also created in West Africa, the West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA). This superseded in 1994 the CEAO, which had been operating in the region since the early 1970s. In early 2001, the geographic coverage of the Club du Sahel, active since 1977, was expanded and the forum was renamed the Sahel and West Africa Club. An ambitious attempt to foster solidarity and co-operation among countries of North and Central Africa was undertaken with the creation, in 1998, of the Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD). In Central Africa, the Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa (EMCCA) replaced, with the same membership, the UDEAC. A revised Treaty for ECOWAS was signed in Cotonou, Benin, in July 1993 and eventually came into force in July 1995. In March 1996, in East Africa, the seven member countries of the Intergovernmental Authority on Drought

and Development (IGADD), active since 1986, transformed the organization into the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), endowing it with a much broader mandate than its predecessor. A renewed East African Community (EAC) was re-established in 1999; the entry of Rwanda and Burundi into the Community in 2007 set the stage for an effective enlargement and strengthening of co-operation within the region.

In North Africa, diverging appreciations on a number of major issues and sanctions against Libya have long hindered any significant progress of the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU), created in 1989 to foster efforts at closer economic co-operation between the countries of the subregion.

The independence of the five Central Asian republics of the former USSR has encouraged the establishment of closer political and economic links with their southern neighbours. The five republics plus Armenia and Afghanistan joined in 1992 the Economic Co-operation Organization (ECO), set up in 1985 by Iran, Pakistan and Turkey as a successor to the RCD. Significant developments took place in Central Asia where the 'Shanghai Five' group of China, Russia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, created in 1996, was transformed in 2001, with the addition of Uzbekistan, into a new regional political, security and economic body, the Shanghai Co-operation Organization (SCO).

Proposals to institutionalize economic co-operation among countries bordering the Indian Ocean eventually materialized in March 1997 with the adoption of the charter of the Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Co-operation (IOR-ARC).

The Asia-Pacific region has seen the strengthening of the Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation (APEC) process, with liberalization commitments gradually moving from the political to the legal plane. APEC represents the first major attempt at institutionalized intergovernmental collaboration among Pacific Rim nations, building on the experience developed, at the non-governmental level, within the framework of the Pacific Economic Co-operation Conference, renamed in 1992 the Pacific Economic Co-operation Council (PECC).

Of particular importance appears the evolution of ASEAN with the achievement of the objective of full participation of all ten nations of Southeast Asia and the eventual agreement on an ASEAN Charter reached in November 2007. The Association's gradual involvement in security matters materialized in 1993 with the establishment of an ASEAN Regional

Forum (ARF), which is becoming of interest for several countries in the Asia-Pacific and beyond. The countries of ASEAN also play an active role in the co-operation developing within the framework of APEC, despite the initial hesitation of some members who had suggested in 1991 the creation of an alternative body, the East Asian Economic Grouping (EAEG). Plans for the EAEG, successively renamed the East Asian Economic Caucus (EAEC), were ultimately shelved. However, an East Asian consultation and co-operation forum has gradually emerged with the development of the 'ASEAN+3' formula, that is the ASEAN members covering the whole of Southeast Asia plus three countries of Northeast Asia, China, Japan and South Korea. A wider and truly pan-Asian regional co-operation mechanism was established in 2002 with the launch of the Asia Co-operation Dialogue (ACD), practically involving all countries of the continent plus Russia. The Asia-Pacific model of 'open regionalism' – or *de facto* regionalism – has attracted a remarkable attention and might provide a pattern for future developments in other areas of the world.

In the spring of 1995, South Korea, the US and Japan established the Korean Peninsula Energy Development Organization (KEDO) with a view to increasing nuclear safety in the area. However, because of the failure of North Korea to implement its commitments, KEDO is no longer operational. The signature, in December 1995, of the Southeast Asia Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone Treaty eventually concluded a long-term effort to liberate a densely populated area from nuclear arms. In March 1996, France, the UK and the US, in response to increased diplomatic pressure from the South Pacific Forum members, eventually signed the Protocols to the South Pacific Nuclear-Free Zone Treaty (Treaty of Rarotonga). The Central Asia Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone Treaty was signed in Semipalatinsk on 8 September 2006. In February 1998, the South Pacific Commission became the Secretariat of the Pacific Community, intended to foster the economic and

social development of the peoples of the region. In the area of political co-operation, the South Pacific Forum, drawing together the Heads of State and Government of all independent and self-governing countries of the region, was transformed, in October 2000, into the Pacific Islands Forum.

The multiplication of international institutions as well as the expansion in their membership at both the global and the regional levels suggest a number of considerations. First of all, whatever their shortcomings and limitations, international organizations continue to be the key engine for fostering international co-operation and integration. Despite recurring symptoms of self-confident unilateralism and emphasis on military power rather than on longstanding alliances and institutions, the UN remains at the core of global efforts and aspirations to promote sustainable development and build a safer world. The transformation of the traditional concept of region, in consequence of the establishment of trans-regional and mega-regional bodies that cut across long-established boundaries, should also be stressed. Like-minded countries appear inclined to set up coalitions pursuing common aims regardless of geographic, cultural and language barriers. Several regional organizations group countries at widely different stages of economic development and with national political systems ranging from parliamentary democracy to authoritarian regimes. On the other hand, an increasing number of subregional bodies are characterized by fairly limited goals and no grand aspiration to political or economic integration. Single-issue coalitions for the protection of specific interests common to a number of countries are being established, despite often conspicuous dissimilarities in political and economic systems. Under the contrasting pressures of globalization and fragmentation, international institutions are becoming more numerous, more variegated and with a constantly expanding membership in an effort to meet the manifold challenges of the new millennium.

# Classification of Organizations

*The purpose of this classification of international organizations is to simplify presentation and provide a key to systematic reading of the entries included in the book.*

## I – Universal Organizations

### **General Competence**

United Nations (UN)

### **UN Specialized Agencies**

Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)  
International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)  
International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)  
International Labour Organization (ILO)  
International Maritime Organization (IMO)  
International Monetary Fund (IMF)  
International Telecommunication Union (ITU)  
UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)  
UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)  
Universal Postal Union (UPU)  
World Bank Group:  
– International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)  
– International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID)  
– International Development Association (IDA)  
– International Finance Corporation (IFC)  
– Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA)  
World Health Organization (WHO)  
World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)  
World Meteorological Organization (WMO)  
World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)

### **UN related organizations**

Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty Organization (CTBTO)  
International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)  
Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW)  
World Trade Organization (WTO)

### **UN Programmes and other UN entities**

Centre for International Crime Prevention (CICP)  
Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND)  
Common Fund for Commodities (CFC)  
Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)  
International Criminal Court (ICC)  
International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR)  
International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY)

International Narcotics Control Board (INCB)  
International Seabed Authority (ISA)  
International Trade Centre UNCTAD/WTO (ITC)  
International Union for the Protection of New Varieties of Plants (UPOV)  
UN Children's Fund (UNICEF)  
UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)  
UN Development Programme (UNDP)  
UN Environment Programme (UNEP)  
UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, Office of (OHCHR)  
UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)  
UN Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT)  
UN International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP)  
UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)  
UN Population Fund (UNFPA)  
UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA)  
World Food Programme (WFP)

### **Other agencies**

International Mobile Satellite Organization (INMARSAT)  
International Organization for Migration (IOM)  
International Telecommunications Satellite Organization (INTELSAT)  
World Organization for Animal Health (OIE)

## II – Regional Organizations

### **AFRICA**

GENERAL POLITICAL COMPETENCE

African Union (AU)

GENERAL ECONOMIC COMPETENCE

UN Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)  
New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND INTEGRATION

Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)

Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD)

East African Community (EAC)

Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa (EMCCA)

Economic Community of Central African States (CEEAC)

Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)

Indian Ocean Commission (IOC)  
 Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Co-operation  
 (IOR-ARC)  
 Mano River Union (MRU)  
 Nile Basin Initiative (NBI)  
 Sahel and West Africa Club (SWAC)  
 Southern African Customs Union (SACU)  
 Southern African Development Community (SADC)  
 West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA)

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY

African Timber Organization (ATO)  
 Desert Locust Control Organization for Eastern Africa  
 (DLCO-EA)  
 Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)  
 International Red Locust Control Organization for Central  
 and Southern Africa (IRLCO-CSA)  
 Permanent Inter-State Committee for Drought Control in  
 the Sahel (CILSS)

COMMODITIES

African Groundnut Council (AGC)  
 African Petroleum Producers' Association (APPA)  
 Africa Rice Center (WARDA)  
 Inter-African Coffee Organization (IACO)

DEVELOPMENT FINANCING

African Development Bank (AfDB)

MANAGEMENT OF WATER RESOURCES

Gambia River Basin Development Organization (OMVG)  
 Lake Chad Basin Commission (LCBC)  
 Niger Basin Authority  
 Nile Basin Initiative (NBI)  
 Organization for the Development of the Senegal River  
 (OMVS)  
 Organization for the Management and Development of the  
 Kagera River Basin (OBK)

**ASIA AND THE PACIFIC**

GENERAL ECONOMIC COMPETENCE

UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the  
 Pacific (ESCAP)

ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND INTEGRATION

Asia Co-operation Dialogue (ACD)  
 Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation (APEC)  
 Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)  
 Colombo Plan, The  
 Economic Co-operation Organization (ECO)  
 Pacific Basin Economic Council (PBEC)  
 Pacific Community  
 Pacific Economic Co-operation Council (PECC)  
 South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation  
 (SAARC)

COMMODITIES

Asian and Pacific Coconut Community (APCC)

DEVELOPMENT FINANCING

Asian Development Bank (AsDB)

ENERGY

Korean Peninsula Energy Development Organization  
 (KEDO)

FISHERIES

Asia-Pacific Fishery Commission (APFIC)

MANAGEMENT OF WATER RESOURCES

Mekong River Commission (MRC)

POLITICAL CO-OPERATION

Pacific Islands Forum

PRODUCTIVITY

Asian Productivity Organization (APO)

SECURITY AND DEFENCE

ANZUS Pact  
 ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF)  
 Shanghai Co-operation Organization (SCO)

**EUROPE**

GENERAL COMPETENCE

Council of Europe  
 Nordic Council/Nordic Council of Ministers

GENERAL ECONOMIC COMPETENCE

UN Economic Commission for Europe (ECE)

ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND  
 INTEGRATION

Arctic Council  
 Barents Euro-Arctic Council (BEAC)  
 Benelux Economic Union  
 Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA)  
 Central European Initiative (CEI)  
 Council of the Baltic Sea States (CBSS)  
 European Free Trade Association (EFTA)  
 European Union (EU)  
 GUAM Organization for Democracy and Economic  
 Development  
 Organization of the Black Sea Economic Co-operation  
 (BSEC)  
 Southeast European Co-operation Process (SEECP)  
 Southeast European Co-operative Initiative (SECI)  
 Stability Pact for Southeastern Europe

DEVELOPMENT FINANCING

Black Sea Trade and Development Bank (BSTDB)  
 European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD)  
 European Investment Bank (EIB)

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

European Organization for Nuclear Research (CERN)  
 European Organization for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites (EUMETSAT)  
 European Space Agency (ESA)

SECURITY AND DEFENCE

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)  
 Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)  
 Western European Union (WEU)

TELECOMMUNICATIONS

European Telecommunications Satellite Organization (EUTELSAT)

TRANSPORT AND NAVIGATION

Central Commission for Navigation on the Rhine (CCNR)  
 Danube Commission  
 European Conference of Ministers of Transport (ECMT)  
 European Organization for the Safety of Air Navigation (EUROCONTROL)

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN**

GENERAL POLITICAL COMPETENCE

Organization of American States (OAS)  
 Rio Group

GENERAL ECONOMIC COMPETENCE

UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)

ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND INTEGRATION

Andean Community  
 Association of Caribbean States (ACS)  
 Caribbean Community (CARICOM)  
 Central American Integration System (SICA)  
 Group of Three (G-3)  
 Latin American and Caribbean Economic System (SELA)  
 Latin American Integration Association (LAIA)  
 Mercosur  
 North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)  
 Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS)

COMMODITIES

Group of Latin American and Caribbean Sugar Exporting Countries (GEPLACEA)

DENUCLEARIZATION

Agency for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America and the Caribbean (OPANAL)

DEVELOPMENT FINANCING

Caribbean Development Bank (CDB)  
 Central American Bank for Economic Integration (CABEI)  
 Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)

EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

Organization of Ibero-American States for Education, Science and Culture (OEI)

ENERGY

Latin American Energy Organization (OLADE)

FISHERIES

Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission (IATTC)  
 Latin American Organization for Fisheries Development (OLDEPESCA)  
 Permanent Commission for the South Pacific (CPPS)

MONETARY CO-OPERATION

Eastern Caribbean Central Bank (ECCB)

**NORTH AFRICA, THE MIDDLE EAST AND CENTRAL ASIA**

GENERAL POLITICAL COMPETENCE

League of Arab States

GENERAL ECONOMIC COMPETENCE

UN Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA)

ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND INTEGRATION

Arab Maghreb Union (AMU)  
 Central Asia Regional Economic Co-operation (CAREC)  
 Collective Security Treaty Organization (CSTO)  
 Co-operation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf (GCC)  
 Economic Co-operation Organization (ECO)

DEVELOPMENT FINANCING

Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (BADEA)  
 Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development (AFESD)  
 Islamic Development Bank  
 OPEC Fund for International Development (OFID)

ENERGY

Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC)

MONETARY CO-OPERATION

Arab Monetary Fund (AMF)

### III – Sectional organizations

#### **General competence**

Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM)  
 Commonwealth, The  
 Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), The  
 Community of Portuguese Speaking Countries (CPLP)  
 Forum for East Asia-Latin America Co-operation (FEALAC)  
 Francophonie, International Organization of the (OIF)  
 Latin Union  
 Non-Aligned Movement (NAM)  
 Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC)

#### **Economic co-operation**

Developing Eight (D-8)  
 Financial Action Task Force on Money Laundering (FATF)  
 Group of Eight (G-8)/Group of Seven (G-7)  
 Group of Fifteen (G-15)  
 Group of Seventy-Seven (G-77)  
 Group of Twenty (G-20)  
 Intergovernmental Group of Twenty-Four on International Monetary Affairs and Development (G-24)  
 Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

#### **Agriculture**

Cairns Group

#### **Commodities**

##### A) EXPORTING COUNTRIES

Association of Natural Rubber Producing Countries (ANRPC)  
 Cocoa Producers' Alliance (COPAL)  
 International Pepper Community (IPC)  
 Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)  
 Union of Banana Exporting Countries (UPEB)

##### B) EXPORTING AND IMPORTING COUNTRIES

International Cocoa Organization (ICCO)  
 International Coffee Organization (ICO)  
 International Olive Council (IOC)  
 International Sugar Organization (ISO)  
 International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO)

##### C) ADVISORY BODIES

International Cotton Advisory Committee (ICAC)  
 International Jute Study Group (IJSG)  
 International Lead and Zinc Study Group (ILZSG)

International Organization of Vine and Wine (OIV)  
 International Rubber Study Group (IRSG)  
 International Tea Committee (ITC)

#### **Debt rescheduling**

Paris Club

#### **Energy**

International Energy Agency (IEA)  
 OECD Nuclear Energy Agency (NEA)

#### **Environment conservation and fisheries**

Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR)  
 Greenpeace International  
 International Commission for the Conservation of the Atlantic Tunas (ICCAT)  
 Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization (NAFO)  
 Western Central Atlantic Fishery Commission (WECAFC)  
 World Conservation Union (IUCN)  
 World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF)

#### **Humanitarian assistance and protection**

Amnesty International  
 Human Rights Watch (HRW)  
 International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)  
 International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies  
 Médecins sans frontières (MSF)

#### **Law**

International Institute for the Unification of Private Law (Unidroit)

#### **Monetary co-operation**

Bank for International Settlements (BIS)

#### **Police co-operation**

International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol)

#### **Science and technology**

International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES)

#### **Trade and customs**

World Customs Organization (WCO)

#### **Whaling**

International Whaling Commission (IWC)

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*Italicized entries indicate organizations which are no longer in existence or have been reorganized and renamed.*

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